

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

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Ghislaine Garrel, Chantal Denoyelle, David L'Hote, Jean-Yves Picard, Jose Teixeira, et al.. GnRH Transactivates Human AMH Receptor Gene via Egr1 and FOXO1 in Gonadotrope Cells. Neuroendocrinology, 2019, 108 (2), pp.65-83. 10.1159/000494890 . hal-03201550

HAL Id: hal-03201550 https://cnrs.hal.science/hal-03201550

Submitted on 16 Nov 2022

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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

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Key words: GnRH, AMHR2, Gonadotrope cells, Egr1, FOXO1, β-catenin.

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Abstract

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Background/objectives: Anti-Müllerian hormone (AMH) signaling is critical for sexual differentiation and gonadal function. AMH receptor type 2 (AMHR2) is expressed in 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 signaling enhances FSH synthesis in pituitary gonadotrope cells. However, mechanisms regulating AMHR2 expression in these extragonadal sites remain to be explored. Method/ **Results**: Here, we demonstrated in perifused murine LβT2 gonadotrope cells that *Amhr2* expression is differentially regulated by GnRH pulse frequency with an induction under high 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 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 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 β-catenin are required for basal promoter activity and demonstrated that both factors contribute to the 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 and GnRH-dependent AMHR2 expression in gonadotrope cells. Conclusions: This study identifies GnRH as a regulator of human AMHR2 expression, further highlighting the importance of AMH signaling in the regulation of gonadotrope function.

Introduction

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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 α -subunit and rate limiting β -subunits (LH β and FSH β). 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 α 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]. 80 AMH also called Müllerian inhibiting substance is a homodimeric glycoprotein that belongs to

the transforming growth factor-β 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

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 AMH produced by ovarian granulosa cells is now recognized as an important regulator of folliculogenesis [18, 19]. In addition, AMH expression was reported in adult mouse brain [20-22] and in pituitaries of immature male and female rats [16]. AMH exerts its function by binding to a specific type 2 receptor, AMHR2, that heterodimerizes with a type 1 receptor [23]. Both receptors are transmembrane serine/threonine receptors that recruit and phosphorylate SMAD proteins that will then translocate into the nucleus to regulate the transcription of 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 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 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, respectively [20, 21]. Furthermore, accumulating evidence shows that AMH contributes to the 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 activate the GnRH neuron firing [25, 26]. Amhr2 transcripts and proteins are also present in rat pituitary gland as well as in the gonadotrope cell line LβT2 [16, 27]. We previously reported a sexually dimorphic expression of Amhr2 transcripts in postnatal rat pituitary with higher 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 immature females while being ineffective in age-matched males. Furthermore, AMH was reported to up regulate FSH secretion and pituitary *Fshb* without affecting LH [16].

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The mechanisms regulating AMHR2 gene expression have mostly been identified in the context of urogenital ridge or gonadal cell expression. Cloning of AMHR2 genes in humans [28, 29] and rodents [30] and studies of their promoters [31-35] have led to the identification 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 deficient mice are indeed sterile with retained Müllerian ducts and exhibit no Amhr2 mRNA expression [36]. The canonical Wnt signaling pathway is mediated by stabilization of β -catenin and its association with nuclear T-cell factor (TCF)/Lymphoid enhancer binding factor (LEF) 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 as TCF7L2) have been reported to transactivate the hAMHR2 promoter [35]. The steroidogenic factor 1 (SF1/NR5A1), which belongs to the nuclear receptor superfamily, was found to transactivate murine and human AMHR2 promoters through its binding to SF1-motifs [30, 34]. SF1 has also been described to synergistically cooperate with the β -catenin signaling pathway to activate the hAMHR2 promoter [35]. A handful of hormones regulating AMHR2 expression 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 of LH and estradiol on AMHR2 mRNA levels was reported in human luteinized granulosa cells [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 through transcriptional activation of the AMHR2 promoter [40]. However, the signaling pathways and mechanisms by which these hormones regulate the transcriptional activity of the AMHR2 gene are still unknown. We recently reported that AMHR2 expression is regulated by GnRH in pituitary gonadotrope cells, adding GnRH to the known regulators of AMHR2 [16]. The present study was undertaken to gain further insight into the mechanisms underlying GnRH regulation of AMHR2 gene expression. We demonstrate in perifused LβT2 gonadotrope cells that endogenous Amhr2 expression is differentially regulated by GnRH pulse frequency. We also show by studying human AMHR2 promoter activity in L β T2 cells that GnRH enhances AMHR2 transcriptional activity through the combined stimulatory action of Egr1 together with SF1 and β-catenin and the removal of FOXO1 repression.

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Materials & Methods

139 Materials

- 140 GF109203X (Bisindolylmaleimide I), SP600125, LY294002, GnRH, GnRH agonist
- 141 Triptorelin ([D-Trp⁶]GnRH; GnRHa) and GnRH antagonist antide were from Sigma (Saint-
- 142 Quentin Fallavier, France). JW74 were from Tocris (R&D Systems, Lille, France). Pituitary
- adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide (PACAP₃₈) was from Calbiochem (VWR
- 144 International, Strasbourg, France).

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Cell cultures

- 147 The mouse gonadotrope LβT2 and αT3-1 cell lines and the mouse hypothalamic GnRH
- 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
- 150 Technologies) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FBS) and 0.5%
- penicillin/streptomycin (P/S) (Sigma-Aldrich). Treatments of cells are indicated below, in the
- 152 corresponding paragraphs. For *Sp1* and *Egr1* mRNA quantification, LβT2 cells were plated in
- 153 12-well plates (0.8 to 1×10^6 per well) in duplicate and starved overnight in serum-free medium
- before incubation for 4 h with 10 nM GnRHa.

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Pulsatile stimulation of L\beta T2 cells

- 157 The perifusion system was designed according to [43] with modifications. Briefly, LβT2 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
- 160 containing 10% FBS and 0.5% P/S and then serum starved for 24 h in DMEM 1% FBS and
- 161 0.1% P/S. The chambers were then mounted in the perifusion system at a constant flow rate of
- 162 0.3 ml/min and cells were perifused or not with 20 nM GnRH for 21 h in continuous or pulsatile
- 163 (one pulse every 30 min or one pulse every 120 min) stimulation mode.

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Plasmid constructs

- 166 A 2252 (-2199/+53)-bp human *AMHR2* promoter (Ref-SegGene 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 BglII and HindIII sites of the pGL2-basic vector. The short
- 169 construct contains only the 428-bp fragment (428-hAMHR2-Luc). The expression vector
- pcDNA3-SF1 was provided by Dr. Bon-chu Chung (Institute of Molecular Biology, Taipei,

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-CAM), threonine (T24) and serines (S253, S316) were replaced by alanine (FLAG-FOXO1ADA, Addgene plasmid #12149; FLAG-FOXO1, Addgene plasmid #12148). The 5' deletion constructs from -53 to -5 were obtained by DNA amplification of the native 428hAMHR2-Luc plasmid using forward primers containing a BgIII restriction site as indicated in 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 BglII/XbaI and then inserted into the corresponding restriction sites of the 428-hAMHR2-luc plasmid. The -247, -174, and -105 deletion constructs were obtained as described below.

Targeted mutagenesis studies

Mutagenesis of SF1 response elements on the 2252-hAMHR2-luc construct was conducted using QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies), replacing 2-4 bp to introduce a KpnI restriction site. Site-directed mutagenesis of TCF, FOXO, SF1 or Egr1 motifs was performed in the context of the 428-hAMHR2-luc plasmid by PCR fusion-based approach using the primers listed in Table 1. This generated mutant constructs containing NdeI restriction sites within the TCF, FOXO, SF1 or Egr1 response elements. The SF1, TCF, and FOXO mutants were subsequently used to obtain the -247, -174, and -105 deletion constructs, 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 linearized plasmid fragments were then circularized using T4 DNA ligase. All mutant constructs were validated by DNA sequencing.

Transient transfections and luciferase assays

For transfections, the human *AMHR2* promoter luciferase fusion contruct (100 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 μl OptiMEM-1 for 30 min. The transfection mix was then added to 0.9 x 10⁵ cells in 30 μl 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). The next morning, medium was replaced by 100 μl/well DMEM-1% FBS-0.01% P/S and cells were grown an additional 24 h. Then, cells were treated for 4 h with GnRHa (1, 10 nM), GnRH

- 204 (10, 100 nM) or PACAP₃₈ (20, 50 nM) before luciferase assay (Luciferase Assay System;
- Promega). When tested, pharmacological inhibitors (5 μM antide, 2 μM GF109203X, 20 μM
- SP600125, 10 μM JW74 or 20 μM 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, LβT2 cells were transiently cotransfected with the 2252-bp h*AMHR2*
- promoter and with 75 nM SMARTpool siRNA targeting mouse *Ctnnb1* (siRNA β-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.

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Real-time PCR

- Total RNA from LβT2 were isolated with a RNeasy-kit (Qiagen, France) and first-strand
- 218 cDNA was obtained from 1-2 μg RNA with Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen)
- using random primers according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quantification of Amhr2,
- 220 Lhb, Fshb, Sp1 and Egr1 mRNA was performed by real-time qPCR using Takyon No ROX
- 221 SYBR master mix (Eurogentec). Real-time qPCR was carried out in LightCycler 480 (Roche
- Diagnostics) using 5 µl of the mix containing 0.5 µM of each primer and 5 µl of a 1:20 cDNA
- 223 dilution. Cycling conditions included an initial heat-denaturing step at 95°C for 3 min, followed
- 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 *Cyclophilin* was used to normalize RNA expression
- 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
- 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.

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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. $P \leq 0.05$ was considered as significant.

Accepted manuscillà

Results

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

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

GnRH enhances human AMHR2 promoter activity in gonadotrope cells.

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

increase could still be observed in αT3-1 or GT1-7 cells. Further analyses revealed that luciferase activity can be significantly stimulated by a 10-fold lower concentration of GnRHa and that GnRHa stimulation was completely blocked by the GnRH antagonist antide (Fig. 2B), demonstrating the specificity of the observed effect. The native hormone, GnRH, also enhanced h*AMHR2* promoter activity although to a lesser extent than GnRHa, as expected given the higher potency of the agonist triptorelin. In contrast, the neuropeptide PACAP, known to regulate pituitary gonadotrope function, was unable to activate h*AMHR2* promoter activity (Fig. 2B). Altogether, these data indicate that GnRH stimulates the 2252-bp h*AMHR2* promoter in a cell specific manner, with a significant stimulatory effect in LβT2 gonadotrope cells. We next compared the 2252-bp promoter activity with a shorter 428-bp promoter used 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 differ between the two constructs indicating that the cis-acting elements required for GnRH regulation are located within the proximal 428-bp fragment of the h*AMHR2* 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 h*AMHR2* promoter using the CIS-BP

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.

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

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

site in the reverse orientation (CIS-BP Motif ID M5467-1.02, [50]) at nucleotides -113 to -103

296 (Fig. 3B).

297 In order to locate the region required for GnRH activation, we performed a panel of gradual

deletions of the hAMHR2 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 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.

Egr1 mediates GnRH transactivation of human AMHR2 in gonadotrope cells

To confirm the role of the Egr1/Sp1 binding site in GnRH stimulation of h*AMHR2* promoter activity, we performed site-directed mutagenesis. Mutation resulted in a significant decrease in basal as well as in GnRH-dependent luciferase activity as compared to the native promoter fragment (Fig. 4A). Egr1 is highly induced by GnRH in gonadotrope cells and mediates GnRH-stimulated expression of *Lhb* [6, 7]. To examine the potential role of Egr1 in GnRH stimulation of *AMHR2* expression, we next used a small interfering RNA (siRNA) strategy to decrease Egr1 expression. L β T2 cells were transfected with a pool of siRNAs specific to mouse *Egr1* (siRNA Egr1) or with a pool of nontargeting siRNAs (siRNA NT) before GnRHa stimulation. In siRNA NT-transfected cells, GnRHa stimulated h*AMHR2* promoter activity by 218 ± 26% (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 regulation of h*AMHR2* expression (Fig. 4B).

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

To examine the potential involvement of putative FOXO binding site and FOXO transcription factors, we transiently cotransfected L β T2 cells with plasmids expressing wild-type FOXO1 (FOXO1-Wt) or a constitutively active, phosphorylation-defective form of FOXO1 (FOXO1-CAM) [51]. The constitutively active form of FOXO1 was previously reported to localize exclusively into the nucleus of L β T2 cells [14, 15]. As illustrated in Fig. 5A, we observed that overexpression of FOXO1-CAM decreased basal h*AMHR2* transcriptional activity. Notably, FOXO1-CAM also markedly reduced the GnRHa stimulatory effect on the promoter (Fig. 5A). Because the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) pathway mediates GnRH regulation of FOXO1 export in L β T2 cells [14], we next examined whether blocking the PI3K pathway would decrease GnRH-induced h*AMHR2* promoter activity (Fig. 5B). Pretreatment of cells with the PI3K signaling pathway inhibitor LY294002 (20 μ M) significantly reduced by 48 ± 8%, (Fig. 5B *inset*) the GnRH stimulatory effect on h*AMHR2* promoter activity. To examine the requirement of the putative FOXO binding site, we next transiently transfected L β T2 cells with a h*AMHR2* 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].

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

SF1 and TCF4 have been reported to be necessary for basal hAMHR2 expression [34, 35]. Furthermore, both SF1 and β-catenin signaling can be activated by GnRH [53, 54] and are involved in GnRH regulation of *Lhb* expression [10, 11, 55]. To better delineate the role of 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 promoter carrying mutations of both SF1 binding sites [33, 34] was significantly reduced compared to the control promoter in LBT2 cells. In contrast, the GnRH stimulatory effect was still observed, suggesting that intact SF1-binding sites are not required for GnRH stimulation. siRNA-mediated decrease in SF1, leading to a $50 \pm 7\%$ reduction in SF1 transcripts levels after 24h transfection (RT-qPCR experiments, data not shown), reduced basal luciferase activity (Fig. 6B) in agreement with results from mutation experiments. Decreasing SF1 expression completely abrogated GnRH stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity (Fig. 6B). This indicates that SF1 contributes to GnRH regulation although it may not bind directly to SF1 motifs and suggests an indirect mechanism of control. To examine the potential role of the β-catenin/TCF pathway in basal and GnRH dependent 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 promoter activity. In contrast, basal luciferase activity was reduced by mutation of the distal TCF motif, which was also observed when both TCF sites were mutated (Fig. 7A). The fold 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 were found in LβT2 cells (data not shown) suggesting that TCF4 transcription factor contributes to basal promoter activity. To further examine the role of β -catenin, we specifically targeted β-catenin expression using siRNAs. LβT2 cells were transfected with a pool of siRNAs specific to mouse β -catenin (siRNA β -catenin) or with a pool of nontargeting siRNAs

(siRNA NT) before GnRHa stimulation. This led to a significant reduction in β -catenin transcript levels in L β 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 hAMHR2 promoter activity by 187 ± 4% (Fig. 7B). Transfection of cells with siRNA β -catenin reduced basal promoter activity. It also reduced the extent of GnRH stimulation by 48 ± 17% (Fig. 7B, *inset*). In a complementary approach, we inhibited activity of the β -catenin pathway using the pharmacological inhibitor, JW74. As shown in Fig. 7C, we observed that JW74 significantly reduced the GnRH stimulatory effect by 44 ± 7%. Activation of β -catenin by 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 significantly reduced the GnRH-induced increase of hAMHR2 promoter activity by 60 ± 13%. Furthermore, GnRH-induced activation was fully prevented by the JNK inhibitor, SP600125. Altogether, these experiments indicate that both SF1 and β -catenin mediate GnRH stimulatory effect on hAMHR2 transcription in L β T2 gonadotrope cells, although they may not bind to their known response elements.

Discussion

First identified in the mesenchyme of Müllerian ducts and in gonads, AMHR2 was subsequently localized in several other organs, including the brain and the pituitary, suggesting that AMH biological effects are far more diverse than initially thought. However, the 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 regulated by the neuroendocrine hormone, GnRH. Indeed, GnRH was shown to increase endogenous AMHR2 transcripts in the gonadotrope cell line LβT2 and to enhance the activity of a human *AMHR2* promoter. Transactivation of the promoter was not observed in the immature αT3-1 gonadotrope cell line nor in neuronal GT1-7 cell line, although the latter is receptive to both GnRH and AMH.

We identified several transcription factors required for GnRH regulation of *AMHR2* gene expression. We notably uncovered the functional importance of the Egr1 transcription factor. We localized an Egr1 binding site in the proximal region of the h*AMHR2* promoter and provided evidence, by deletion and mutation, that this site is needed for GnRH-mediated induction. Furthermore, because siRNA-inhibited expression of Egr1 mRNA in LβT2 cells

was shown to prevent GnRH effect, our study strongly suggests that GnRH induces Egr1 binding to transactivate the hAMHR2 promoter. We demonstrated that two factors, i.e. SF1 and β-catenin, known to be important for constitutive hAMHR2 promoter activity [34, 35] also contribute to the GnRH stimulatory effect. Gonadotrope cells, including L\(\beta\)T2 cells, express significant amounts of SF1 and β-catenin [55, 57] and down-regulation of each factor was able to reduce the GnRH-dependent increase in hAMHR2 promoter activity. The contribution of βcatenin 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. prevents GnRH activation of hAMHR2 promoter. However, because PKC and JNK signaling pathways may act through alternative mediators, additional experiments are needed to establish whether the signaling PKC/JNK/β-catenin cascade is required for GnRH regulation of hAMHR2 promoter. Interestingly, GnRH effect was not affected by mutation of either SF1 or TCF motifs suggesting that SF1 and β-catenin/TCF, although contributing to GnRH regulation, do not bind to these sites of the promoter. In line with this result, it was reported in HeLa cells, that SF1 alone does not activate the hAMHR2 promoter but instead binds to β-catenin and synergistically cooperates with β-catenin to activate the promoter [35]. SF1 is known to physically interact with β-catenin in LβT2 cells [55]. Furthermore, SF1 has been reported to synergize with Egr1 and Sp1 for transactivation of the *Lhb* promoter [11]. Interestingly, it was demonstrated in LβT2 cells that SF1 interacts with Egr1 through β-catenin and that β-catenin colocalization with SF1 and Egr1 on the mouse *Lhb* promoter is increased by GnRH [55]. Based on these studies, we can hypothesize from our present findings that, by increasing Egr1 binding to the proximal region of the AMHR2 promoter, GnRH enables the formation of a complex, containing β -catenin and SF1, that cooperates with Egr1 to fully activate the AMHR2 promoter (see the proposed hypothetical model in Fig. 8). In this study, we also uncovered the 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 L β T2 cell line and identified as a negative regulator of FSHβ and LHβ gene expression [13-15, 52]. Here, we demonstrate using a constitutively active FOXO1 mutant that FOXO1 is a negative regulator of basal and GnRH-dependent hAMHR2 promoter activity. The PI3K pathway is the major regulator of FOXO1 activity, and GnRH was recently shown to enhance FOXO1 export out of the nucleus through this pathway in LβT2 cells, abrogating the FOXO1 repressive effect on the Fshb promoter [14, 15]. Supporting the involvement of FOXO1, we showed in the present study that pharmacological inhibition of the PI3K pathway significantly reduced GnRH

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stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity. Further experiments are however needed to determine whether the signaling cascade PI3K/FOXO1 is required for GnRH regulation of hAMHR2 promoter. Altogether these experiments strongly suggest that blockade of FOXO1 repressive effect contributes to GnRH stimulation of hAMHR2 promoter activity (Fig. 8). 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 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 promoters [13, 14, 52]. The authors of those studies postulated that FOXO1 acts through protein-protein interactions with other transcription factors/cofactors. As for gonadotropin 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 in the present study. By reducing FOXO1 nuclear localization, GnRH could thus enhance the transactivation capacity of SF1, β-catenin, and Egr1. The ability of FOXO1 to inhibit Wnt/βcatenin signaling has recently been reported in osteoblast precursors as well as in sarcoma cell lines [58, 59], which supports this hypothesis. The underlying molecular mechanisms of this phenomenon are still to be determined. Our study provides new information on the regulation of constitutive AMHR2 expression in gonadotrope cells. Using a combination of site-directed mutagenesis and siRNA-mediated 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. We found significant amounts of TCF4 transcript (qRT-PCR experiments, data not shown) in L β T2 cells suggesting that TCF4 transcription factor can be recruited by β -catenin to 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 cells [35]. In gonadotrope cells, both deletion and mutation experiments indicate that only one TCF site is needed for constitutive activity. Indeed, the shorter hAMHR2 promoter, devoid of the two first TCF sites, retained full basal activity and mutation of the most proximal site,

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

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

present study has uncovered the involvement of two new transcription factors in basal

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467 hAMHR2 expression i.e. Egr1 and FOXO1. FOXO1 was shown to act as a repressor of AMHR2 expression as previously reported for gonadotropin β-subunit genes [13-15, 52]. In murine 468 469 granulosa cells, FOXO1 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

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It has long been reported that the frequency of GnRH pulses is critical for the appropriate ratio of FSH vs LH synthesis and secretion [5]. This has been proposed as one of the mechanisms 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 and several other target genes have been identified [62], including follistatin and nitric oxide synthase 1 [63, 64]. Our present study identifies AMHR2 as one of these genes. Indeed, using LβT2 cells in a perifusion system, we showed that GnRH at high pulse frequency increases Amhr2 expression whereas lower frequencies were ineffective. This result as well as the 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 levels by ~ 30%, a decrease which was also observed in rat pituitary, 24 h after GnRHa injection [16]. Our present data using perifused LβT2 cells strongly suggest that this decrease reflected desensitization of cells to GnRH stimulation. Indeed, we observed that Amhr2 expression is similarly decreased in response to a continuous GnRH stimulation which was associated with a desensitization of the gonadotropin response as reflected by decreased levels of gonadotropin β-subunit transcripts. Furthermore, reevaluation of *Lhb* and *Fshb* transcript levels in the pituitaries of GnRHa-treated rats (unpublished data) were also indicative of 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 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

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 LβT2 gonadotrope cells [16], this suggests that locally produced AMH could contribute to the 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 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 *i.e.* the teleost Nile Tilapia [67, 68]. The present work reinforces the intriguing hypothesis that AMH contributes to the pituitary control of gonadal functions by demonstrating that gonadotrope AMH receptivity is regulated by the neuroendocrine hormone GnRH. The 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 poorly increases rodent *Fshb* transcript levels [5]. There are, however, physiological situations where high GnRH pulsatility is associated with elevation of both LH and FSH secretion. Among them are the cyclic preovulatory period in adults and the so-called "minipuberty" which is characterized by a transient activation of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Gonadal axis in immature animals [69]. We recently detected significant levels of pituitary Amhr2 transcripts in immature but not adult rats suggesting that AMH could play a crucial role in regulating FSH 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, increasing AMH receptivity in pituitary gonadotropes may be an indirect mechanism allowing elevated FSH synthesis despite an increase in GnRH tone that would not favor FSH. In rat as 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 males [16, 69]. Interestingly, we reported that pituitary Amhr2 expression is also higher in 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 our present study, we can hypothesize that this contributes to dimorphism of pituitary Amhr2 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

530 AMH in the control of pituitary gonadotrope function.

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532	Acknowledgements		
533	We are grateful to Dr. Pamela Mellon, (University of California, San Diego, CA) for providing		
534	us with the L β T2, α T3-1 and GT1-7 cell lines. We thank A Fernandez-Vega for technical		
535	assistance in RT-qPCR experiments. We thank Dr N. di Clemente for helpful discussion of the		
536	data.		
537	Disclosure statement:		
538	A preliminary report of this work was presented in a communication at the 42 nd Annual		
539	Meeting of Société de Neuroendocrinologie (SNE), Dijon, France, September 18-21 2017.		
540	The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.		
541			
542	Funding Sources		
543	This study was supported by grants from Paris 7 University, the Centre National de la		
544	Recherche Scientifique, the Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale and, in		
545	part, by National Institute of Health HD019938 (U. B. K).		
546	*69		
547	Author contributions		
548	GG designed and performed the study, interpreted the results and contribute to the writing of		
549	the manuscript, CD performed transfection experiments, DL designed and performed		
550	perifusion culture experiments and contributed to the interpretation of promoter studies, JYP		
551	generated wild type and SF1-mutated hAMHR2 promoter constructs, JT helped with		
552	manuscript preparation, UK helped with the design of perifusion culture experiments and		
553	manuscript preparation, JNL designed and performed deletion and site-directed mutagenesis		
554	experiments, analyzed the data and contributed to the writing of the manuscript, JCT designed		
555	the study, interpreted the results and wrote the manuscript.		

Abbreviations

- 558 bp, base pairs; Egr1, Early growth response protein 1; FOXO, Forkhead Box O; GnRHa, GnRH
- 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
- enhancer binding factor; SF1, Steroidogenic factor 1; siRNA, small interfering RNA; SMAD,
- 563 Sma/Mothers against decapentaplegic homolog.

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Figure Legends

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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 LβT2
- 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 \pm SEM of four independent experiments and expressed as percent
- of Amhr2 mRNA level in control cells. *, $P \le 0.05$; **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with control cells,
- 775 (one-way ANOVA test).

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- Figure 2: GnRH stimulates the activity of human $\emph{AMHR2}$ promoter in L β T2 gonadotrope
- 778 **cells.**
- GnRHa effects on human AMHR2 promoter activity were assayed in gonadotrope L β T2 and
- 780 αT3-1 and in hypothalamic neuronal GT1-7 cell lines. (A) A promoter/luciferase fusion
- construct, containing the 2252 (-2199/+53)-bp human AMHR2 promoter, was transiently
- transfected into L β T2, α T3-1 or GT1-7 cells for 48 h. Cells were then stimulated or not by
- 783 GnRHa for 4 h. Relative luciferase activity was measured as indicated in *Materials and*
- 784 Methods and results are the mean \pm SEM of at least four independent experiments performed
- 785 in triplicate. ***, $P \le 0.001$ compared with respective unstimulated cells (control, unpaired
- Student's t test). (B) The effects of GnRHa, GnRH and PACAP₃₈ on 2252-human AMHR2
- promoter activity in LβT2 cells were compared. LβT2 cells were stimulated with GnRHa,
- GnRH or with PACAP₃₈ 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
- independent experiments performed in triplicate. *, $P \le 0.05$; **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with
- control (Mann-Whitney test). (C) The effect of GnRH on a shorter 428-bp hAMHR2 promoter
- was analyzed. The 2252-h*AMHR2* promoter or a 428 (-375/+53)-bp h*AMHR2* were transiently
- transfected in LβT2 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
- 799 required for GnRH effect.
- (A) A schematic representation of the proximal -375/+53 bases of the human AMHR2 promoter
- 801 (428-hAMHR2) illustrating the position of binding sites for SF1 (SF1), TCF7, TCF7L1 or
- TCF7L2 (TCF), FOXO1, 3 or 4 (FOXO), all members of Egr1 family (Egr1) and Sp1 (Sp1) is
- shown. The arrow indicates the transcription initiation site (TSS). (B) Detailed nucleotide
- sequence of the 428-h*AMHR2* with binding sites for SF1, TCF, FOXO, Egr1 and Sp1, shown
- 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
- 807 LβT2 cells. Progressive 5' deletions of the human AMHR2 promoter extending from -375 to -
- 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,
- 812 P > 0.05 (two-way ANOVA test).

- Figure 4: Egr1 mediates GnRH stimulatory effect on hAMHR2 promoter.
- 815 (A) Mutation of the Egr1/Sp1 binding site in the 428-bp h*AMHR2* promoter was performed as
- 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 LβT2
- cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean \pm SEM of four independent
- 819 experiments performed in triplicate and expressed as percent of unstimulated wild type
- promoter activity (control). **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (B)
- 821 Knockdown of Egr1. LβT2 cells were transiently transfected for 48 h with the 2252-bp
- hAMHR2 promoter, together with 75 nM siRNA targeting mouse Egr1 (siRNA Egr1) or 75
- nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then stimulated or not with 10 nM GnRHa for 4 h.
- qRT-PCR analysis confirmed that Egr1 siRNAs significantly reduced Egr1 transcript levels in
- L β 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
- population of cells while only a subpopulation was transfected with the siRNA. 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. *, P \leq 0.05; **, P \leq 0.01 compared with control cells (two-way ANOVA test); a, P \leq 0.001 compared with GnRH stimulated, siRNA NT-transfected cells (unpaired Student's t test).

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Figure 5: FOXO1 represses basal and GnRH-dependent activities of hAMHR2 promoter. (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-Wt), constitutively active mutant of FOXO1 (FOXO1-CAM) or with empty pcDNA3 (pcDNA3) vectors. Cells were then stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Luciferase activities were measured 48 h later and expressed as percent of unstimulated pcDNA3 transfected cells (control). Data are the mean \pm SEM of five independent experiments performed in triplicate. **, P \le 0.01 compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (B) Effect of PI3K pharmacological inhibition on GnRH effect. LβT2 cells expressing the 2252-hAMHR2 promoter were stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h in presence or absence of a PI3K specific 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 performed in triplicate. **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with control. GnRH induction of hAMHR2 activity is significantly reduced by 48±8% in presence of LY294002 (*inset*, unpaired Student's t test). (C) Mutation of the FOXO response element in hAMHR2 promoter. A 428-hAMHR2 promoter with mutation of the FOXO motif was designed as described in Materials and Methods. Wild type (FOXO-Wt) and mutated FOXO sequences extending from -120/-96 bp are shown. Luciferase activities of wild type and mutated hAMHR2 promoters were measured in L β T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean \pm SEM of six

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Figure 6: SF1 contributes to basal and GnRH-stimulated h*AMHR2* promoter activities in LβT2 cells.

independent experiments performed in triplicate and shown as percent of unstimulated FOXO-

Wt transfected cells (control). **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with control (two-way ANOVA test).

(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 LβT2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h and expressed

as percent of unstimulated wild type promoter activity (control). Data are the mean \pm SEM of six independent experiments performed in triplicate. *, P \leq 0.05; ***, P \leq 0.001 compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (**B**) Knockdown of SF1. L β T2 cells were transiently transfected during 48 h with the 2252-bp h*AMHR2* promoter together with 75 nM siRNA targeting mouse *Nr5a1* (siRNA SF1) or 75 nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then stimulated or not with GnRHa 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. *, P \leq 0.05; **, P \leq 0.01 compared with control cells; a, P \leq 0.001 compared with GnRH stimulated, siRNA NT-transfected cells (two-way ANOVA test).

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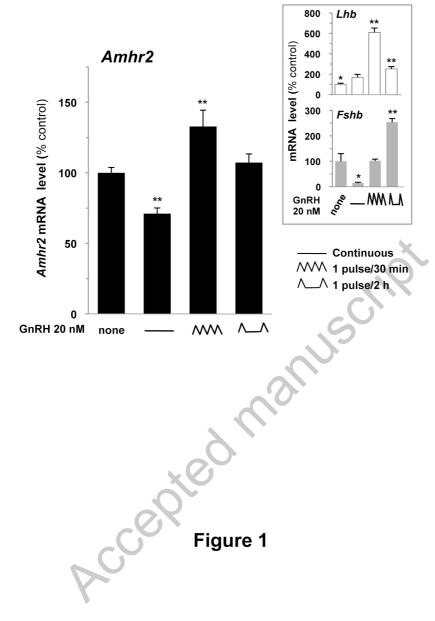
Figure 7: β-catenin is involved in GnRH stimulation of h*AMHR*2.

(A) Mutation of the TCF binding sites in the hAMHR2 promoter. Mutants of the 428-hAMHR2 promoter with mutations of one or both TCF motifs were designed as described in *Materials* and Methods. Wild type and mutated TCF sequences extending from -259/-242 bp and -187/-169 bp are shown. Luciferase activities of wild type and mutated hAMHR2 promoters were measured in L β T2 cells stimulated or not with GnRHa for 4 h. Data are the mean \pm SEM of five independent experiments performed in triplicate and expressed as percent of unstimulated wild type promoter activity (control). **, $P \le 0.01$ compared with control (two-way ANOVA test). (B) Knockdown of β-Catenin. LβT2 cells were transiently transfected for 48 h with the 2252-bp hAMHR2 promoter together with 75 nM siRNA targeting mouse Ctnnb1 (siRNA βcatenin) or 75 nM nontargeting siRNA (siRNA NT) and then stimulated or not with GnRHa 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. *, $P \le 0.05$ compared with control cells (two-way ANOVA test). GnRH induction of hAMHR2 is significantly reduced by 48±17% in presence of siRNA β-catenin (*inset*, unpaired Student's t test). (C) Effects of pharmacological inhibition of β-catenin, PKC and JNK signaling pathways on GnRH effect. LβT2 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 JW74 (β-catenin pathway inhibitor), 2 μM GF109203X (GF109, PKC inhibitor) or 20 μM SP600125 (SP6, JNK inhibitor). Luciferase activities are shown as percent of promoter activity 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).

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 factors involved in the regulation of AMHR2 promoter in gonadotrope cells. In the insets are illustrated the levels of Egr1 and Sp1 transcripts (expressed relative to basal Sp1 level) in L β T2 cells stimulated or not by GnRH. (A) The constitutive activity of hAMHR2 requires intact TCF, 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 thus probably Sp1. Significant levels of TCF4 transcripts in L β T2 cells suggest that TCF4 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 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 displacement of Sp1. The induction of Egr1 may enable the formation of a transcriptional complex containing β -catenin and SF1 that cooperate with Egr1 to fully activate the hAMHR2 promoter. The export of FOXO1 from nucleus induced by GnRH also contributes to the transactivation of the promoter.



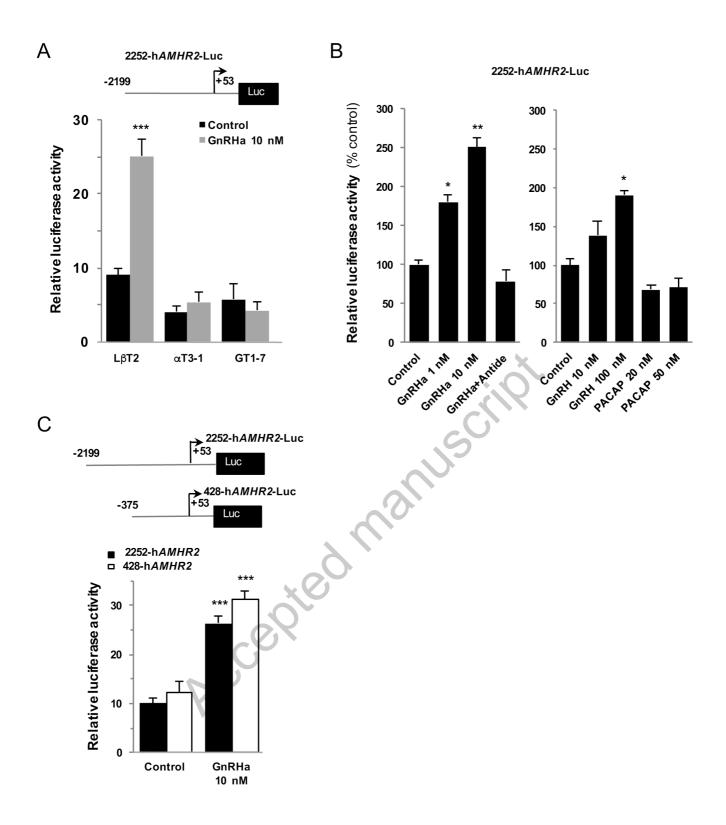
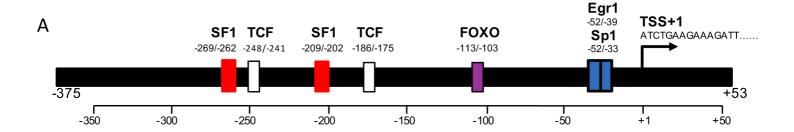


Figure 2



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-375 AGATCTTAGGCTAGAAAGGATCTTGGGCAGAGCTGAATGGCTCTAAGCATTTGACCTCACATTGGTTTCCTCCTG -301

-269 **SF1** -262 -248 **TCF** -241 -300 AGAAGAGTCAAGAGTCCAGCATCTTCTCCAAGGTCAGGGGAAGGGCAAAGATTTGAAATTAGGCATCACTGGG -226

-225 TTCTCAGCTGGGCCTCCAAGTTCCCCCCCCTCTCACTATG<u>CAGAGCAAAGAG</u>GAGGTTGCAGAAGAGAGAGAGAGATA -151

-113 **FOXO** -103 -150 TGAGATTGGTTCTCTCCCTCCTTTCTTTCCCTGCTTTCCCCACACCCCTCTCCCCCACAGCAGCCCTTCT -76

+1 ATCTGAAGAAAGATTTGGCCAGGGGCAGCTGTGCTGGCTTATGCTCTTCTCCT +53

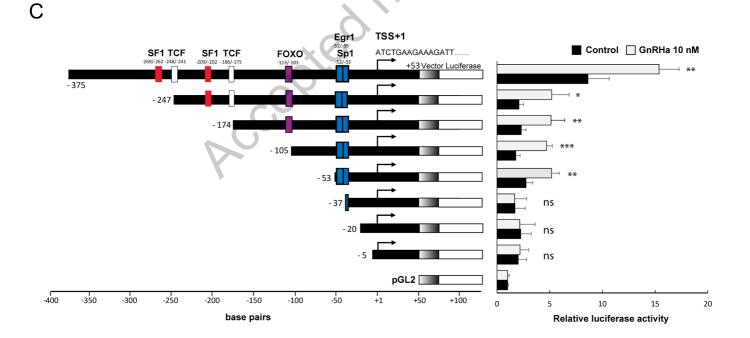
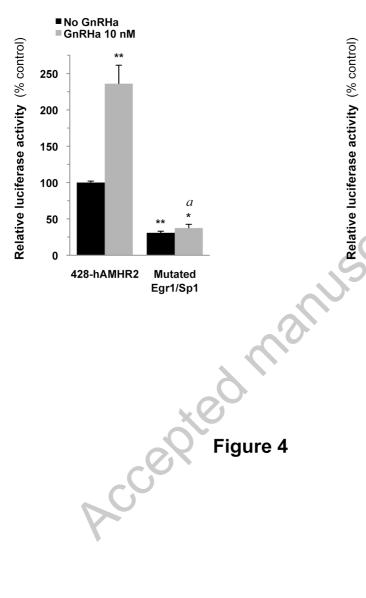
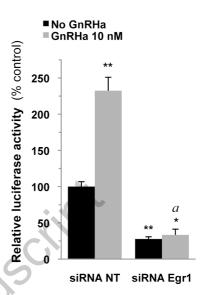
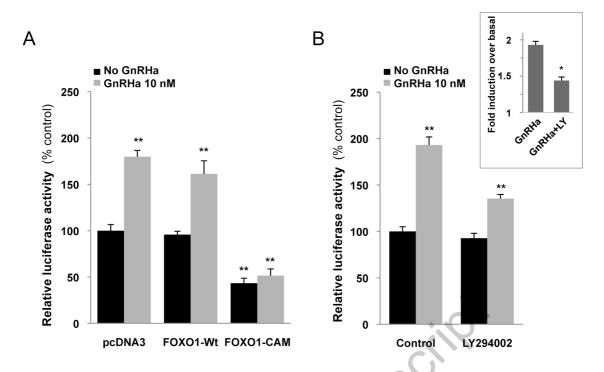


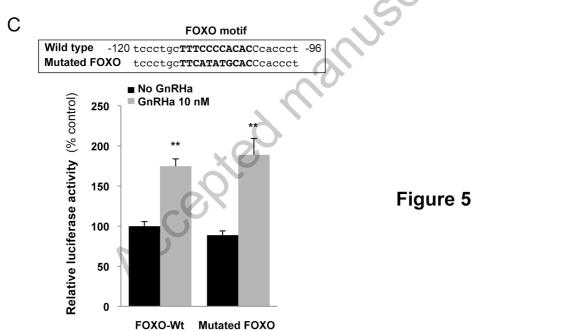
Figure 3

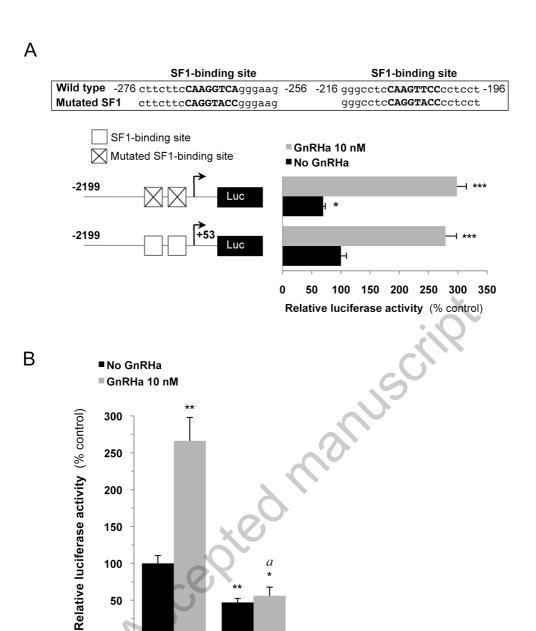












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siRNA NT

Figure 6

siRNA SF1

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siRNA

β-catenin

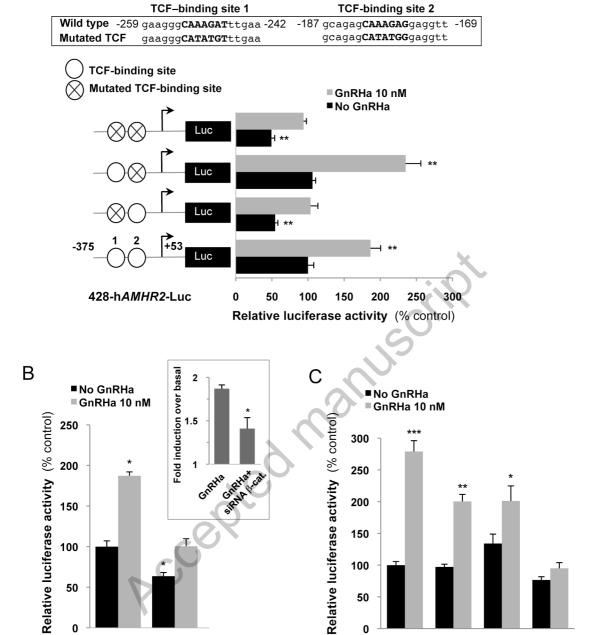


Figure 7

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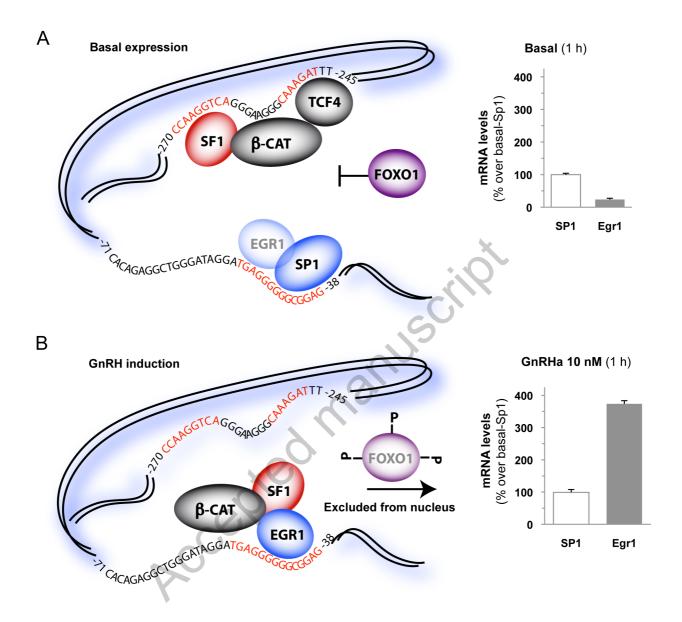


Figure 8

Table 1: Sequences of the primers used for site-directed mutagenesis of 428-h*AMHR2*-luc

Id primer	Sequence (5' > 3')	Restriction site
	Common primers	
F1-AMH05	AGCTCG AGATCT TAGGCTAGA	BglII
R3-AMHRm	CCATCC <u>TCTAGA</u> GGATAGAA	XbaI
	Primers used for 5' deletions	
AmhF-5	GCCCCA <u>AGATCT</u> CCTGTATCTGAAGAAAGATT	BglII
AmhF-20	$\texttt{ACTGAG} \underline{\textbf{AGATCT}} \texttt{GAAGCCCCAGGATGCCCTGT}$	BglII
AmhF-37	gggggc <u>agatct</u> ggggactgagggatcaga	BglII
AmhF-53	ggctgg agatct atgaggggggggggttg	BglII
AmhF-68	CTTCTC AGATCT AGAGGCTGGGATAGGATGA	BglII
AmhF-85	CTCTCC <u>AGATCT</u> GCAGCCTTCTCCCCCACAGA	BglII
	Primers used for targeted mutagenesis	
	SF1 response element (-271/-262)	
Amhr07_R2	CTTCCCT CATATG GGAAGAAGATGCTGGACTCT	NdeI
Amhr07_F2	TTCTTCC CATATG AGGGAAGGGCAAAGATTTGA	NdeI
	TCF response elements (253/-247; -181/-175)	
R1-AMHR05	atttcaaa catatg cccttccctgaccttgga	NdeI
F2-AMHR05	${\tt GAAGGG} \underline{{\tt CATATG}}{\tt TTTGAAATTAGGCATCACTG}$	NdeI
R2-AMHRm2	gcaacctc catatg 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	${\tt GGATGAGG} \underline{{\tt CATATG}} {\tt GAGTTGGGGGACTGAGGGAT}$	NdeI
AmEgr_R	CCCAACTC <u>CATATG</u> CCTCATCCTATCCCAGCCT	NdeI

Table 2:
Sequences of the primers used for quantification of transcript levels in LβT2 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	Forward primer (5'>3')	Reverse primer (5'>3')
Mouse Amhr2	CTGAGGTAGCTGTGCTGGTTTTTGC	GTGTCTTTGTGCTTCCCCGCACT
Lhb	ATCACCTTCACCACCAGCAT	GACCCCCACAGTCAGAGCTA
Mouse Fshb	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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