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### MHR NEW RESEARCH HORIZON Invited Review

# Androgen receptor's destiny in mammalian oocytes: a new hypothesis<sup>†</sup>

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**ABSTRACT:** Unlike the well-established roles of androgen and androgen receptor (AR) in males, the functions of this steroid and its receptor in the ovary are still unclear. For decades, androgen and AR have long been considered to play a negative (at least not a positive) role in mammalian oocyte maturation. However, recent studies by us and others showed their positive influence in promoting meiotic maturation. On the other hand, rapid non-genomic effects of androgens have been observed and are now generally accepted as contributing to the physiological effects of the steroids and their related receptors in somatic cells, and this has stimulated us to explore the complex roles of AR in the ovary. Based on the classic dogma and new findings, we collected evidence to propose that the expression of AR shifts from the oocytes to the theca cells and finally disappears in the oocytes during evolution. It is suggested that the non-genomic pathway involving androgen and AR in the mammalian oocytes, unlike somatic cells, cells will undergo elimination. The function of androgen and AR in promoting meiotic maturation may have been replaced gradually by gonadotrophins. Moreover, a possible relationship between AR and polycystic ovary syndrome is also discussed, which might provide a clue for the pathology of the disease.

Key words: meiosis / ovary / androgen receptor

## Recent findings and the controversy

In mammals, fully grown oocytes are arrested at the diplotene stage of the first meiotic prophase, which is termed as the germinal vesicle stage, and maturation of meiosis is triggered in vivo by a hormonal stimulus or removal from the inhibitory environment of follicles (Su et al., 2003; Fan and Sun, 2004). As a member of the nuclear receptor superfamily encoded by an X chromosomal gene (Lubahn et al., 1988), the androgen receptor (AR) plays pivotal roles in male developmental and physiological processes, particularly in sexual development and maturation, as well as the maintenance of reproductive organs and spermatogenesis. Classically, in common with other members of the nuclear receptor superfamily, AR functions as a ligand-inducible transcription factor. The binding of androgen to AR triggers receptor homodimerization, promoting the ability of AR to bind to its response element and recruit regulators to affect gene expression (Heinlein and Chang, 2002; Losel et al., 2003). However, AR's functions in oocyte maturation remain unclear and are intensely controversial: for decades, androgens have long been believed to play negative or dispensable roles during meiotic maturation in mammals (Smith and Tenney, 1980; Eppig et al., 1983; Schultz et al., 1983; Anderiesz and Trounson, 1995) until they were recently shown

to be involved in promoting oocyte maturation in the mouse (Gill et al., 2004; Hammes, 2004; Jamnongjit et al., 2005; Jamnongjit and Hammes, 2006). Furthermore, results from our laboratory showed that testosterone could potentially trigger porcine oocyte meiotic resumption, which is mediated by intra-oocyte AR, proto-oncogene protein kinase (SRC) and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) in the culture model containing low dose of hypoxanthine (HX) (Li et al., 2008a). In contrast, by using follicle-enclosed oocytes and cumulus-enclosed oocytes (CEOs) of rat and mouse, another group questioned the meiosis-stimulating competence of androgens and the receptor (Motola et al., 2007; Tsafriri and Motola, 2007). On the other hand, rapid non-genomic (or non-classical) effects of androgens have emerged and are now generally accepted as contributing to the physiological effects of the steroids and their related receptors in somatic cells (Cato et al., 2002; Losel et al., 2003), which again brings the elusive roles of androgen and AR in the ovary into sharp focus.

### A hypothesis of AR's shift in ovarian follicles

New findings and remaining controversies have rekindled the question about AR in the ovary: in lower vertebrates, such as fish and frog,

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steroids (especially androgens) have been shown to undoubtedly be potent promoters during oocyte maturation (Smith and Ecker, 1971; Maller and Krebs, 1980; Smith and Tenney, 1980; Lutz et al., 2001; Gill et al., 2004; Hammes, 2004); in rodents, however, their competence appeared to be impaired to a certain extent not only because of the inconsistent competence of androgen reported by different laboratories (Gill et al., 2004; Hammes, 2004; Jamnongjit et al., 2005; Jamnongjit and Hammes, 2006; Motola et al., 2007; Tsafriri and Motola, 2007), but also because of the dominant roles of gonadotrophins in inducing meiotic maturation (Eppig, 1991; Fan and Sun, 2004). Even though, in addition to the ability to trigger meiotic reinitiation in denuded oocytes (DOs) (Gill et al., 2004), androgens have recently been reported to promote the maturation of oocytegranulosa cell complexes and oocyte-cumulus cell complexes in mouse (lamnongiit et al., 2005); interestingly, in the pig, a vertebrate higher in mammalian hierarchy compared with the mouse, AR can only mediate androgen-triggered meiotic resumption of DOs rather than CEOs in a culture model containing low dose of HX (Li et al., 2008a), which indicates that, according to the progressive evolution in vertebrates, the competence of AR appears to become increasingly weaker. In other words, during evolution, androgen and AR tend to be losing their function in the ovarian follicles.

Parallel to the indications mentioned above, numerous studies have shown a decreasing distribution of AR mRNA or protein expression from 'exterior' to 'interior' in the ovarian follicles of the individual species of mammals: in the mouse ovary, AR staining is observed in granulosa cells, thecal cells and stromal cells but not in oocytes (Cheng et al., 2002), although a recent report showed that AR also exists in oocytes (Gill et al., 2004). In the rat, AR mRNA displays intense staining in theca cells, whereas staining becomes moderate in granulosa cells (Hirai et al., 1994). In the sheep, which is a representative for other species, the expression of AR mRNA can be observed in granulosa and theca cells of follicles consisting of the oocyte surrounded by more than three layers of granulosa cells but not in follicles containing single or two layers of granulosa cells (luengel et al., 2006), which is similar to the bovine ovary (Hampton et al., 2004). In the pig, intense AR immunostaining is present in the nuclei of granulosa cells of pre-antral and antral follicles, and the AR protein is mainly present in granulosa cells during the follicular phase (Cardenas and Pope, 2002). The expression of AR in the oocyte is much weaker compared with that in granulosa cells (Li et al., 2008a). In non-human primate ovaries, AR protein is most abundant in granulosa cells of pre-antral and antral follicles but not in oocytes. AR mRNA is expressed in granulosa and theca cells of pre-antral and antral follicles but not in oocytes (Weil et al., 1998). Finally, in humans, AR protein expression is observed at different stages in granulosa and theca cells but unequivocal or little in the oocyte itself (Suzuki et al., 1994; Walters et al., 2008). Through microarray and PCR analysis of oocyte cDNA, previous study did not detect mRNA of AR in human oocyte, suggesting that the mRNA level in a single oocyte was below the sensitivity of the array analysis and much lower than those of other genes in the oocyte (Wood et al., 2007). Together, the distributions of AR in different mammalian species appear to share the same trend, shifting from the inner (oocyte) to outer (granulosa or theca cells) in the follicle, though the distributions of AR in these species do not completely share the same pattern. Furthermore during development, the distribution exhibits a similar trend of decline: the amount of AR mRNAs in granulosa cells decreases as follicles develop to the preovulation stage (Tetsuka and Hillier, 1996; Slomczynska *et al.*, 2001). AR protein in granulosa cells and the relative abundance of mRNA in whole ovarian total RNA are both down-regulated during follicular development (Tetsuka *et al.*, 1995; Cheng *et al.*, 2002).

On the other hand, biosynthesis of androgens occurs in theca cells catalyzed by the enzyme of P450  $17\alpha$ -hydroxylase/17,20 (P450<sub>17 $\alpha$ </sub>), and the synthesized androgens are transported to the granulosa cells where P450 aromatase  $(P450_{arom})$  converts these androgens to estrogen and 17β-estradiol (Simpson, 2000; Kimura et al., 2007). Interestingly, the two important enzymes are expressed only in the theca and granulosa cells in the ovary, respectively (Wood and Strauss, 2002). In addition to the large amount of AR in theca and granulosa cells, these results imply a relatively complete system for the synthesis, metabolism and signal transduction of androgens independent of the germ cells, which is different from that in amphibians because the androgen production in the Xenopus ovary was shown to require oocyte as well as the surrounding follicular cells (Yang et al., 2003). Therefore, the AR in mammalian oocytes does not appear to be necessary for the ovary. Collectively, the distribution of AR in ovarian follicles of mammals appears to exhibit a microcosm of AR's shift during evolution which is illustrated in Fig. 1A.



**Figure I** (**A**) A hypothesized model of AR's shift in ovarian follicles during evolution of mammals. Typical mammalian ovarian follicles consist of at least four cell types. Each follicle contains an oocyte surrounded by cumulus granulosa cells. These cells are then bounded by outer mural granulosa cells, which in turn are surrounded by theca cells. In the early stages of evolution, AR was mainly located within the oocyte (a). As time evolves, the protein shifts to cumulus cells (b), mural cells (c) and then theca cells (d). (**B**) A hypothesized model of androgens and AR and gonadotrophins' direct effects on the ovary (except for indirect effects, e.g. gonadotrophins induce the synthesis of steroids and then affect follicle development). There might be a synergistic effect of steroids and gonadotrophins on the ovary. During the time of folliculogenesis, steroids appear to provide the major contribution, whereas gonadotrophins play critical roles during oocyte maturation.

### Androgen versus gonadotrophins in the ovary

Although the maturation promoting ability of androgen and AR in mammals is based on non-genomic effects, which is similar to that in amphibians, the fact that the level of androgen used in several studies (Gill et al., 2004; Hammes, 2004; Jamnongjit et al., 2005; Jamnongjit and Hammes, 2006; Li et al., 2008a) is higher than that in vivo raises doubts as to whether this non-genomic action is really necessary for mammalian oocyte maturation. Indeed, amphibians (lower vertebrates) and mammals (higher vertebrates) employ different mechanisms to complete meiotic maturation: during ovulation in amphibians, the induction of maturation is elicited through a direct effect of steroid hormones on the oocyte (Dettlaff, 1966; Smith et al., 1968; Smith and Ecker, 1971). In mammals, however, maturation mainly relies on the surrounding somatic cells rather than the oocyte itself (Su et al., 2003; Fan and Sun, 2004; Liang et al., 2007; Li et al., 2008b). Further supporting evidence comes from MAPK, which is a pivotal molecule for promoting maturation: in the amphibian ovary, activation of MAPK in the oocyte itself is necessary for meiotic resumption (Fabian et al., 1993); whereas in mammals, activation of MAPK in cumulus granulosa cells but not in the oocyte itself is required for maturation (Kalab et al., 1996; Su et al., 2002; Ohashi et al., 2003; Liang et al., 2007). Furthermore, lower vertebrates require their oocytes contribute to ovarian sex steroid production, whereas higher vertebrates, in which the ovarian volume primarily consists of follicle cells, may no longer need oocytes to fulfill this function (Yang et al., 2003).

In our previous study, we found that only the AR in oocytes but not in somatic cells can exert positive effects on promoting maturation of porcine oocytes (Li et al., 2008a), indicating that, different from the conventional meiotic promoters (such as follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), luteinizing hormone (LH), or epidermal growth factor-like factors) in mammals, androgen and AR employ an amphibian mode to achieve maturation. This action of androgen and AR uncovers an interesting possibility from the viewpoint of evolution: it is possible that when mammals first appeared on earth, AR was abundantly expressed in oocytes and played more important roles than gonadotrophins. Under the pressure of evolution, higher vertebrates developed additional systems (i.e. effect of gonadotrophins on the surrounding granulosa cells) to trigger meiotic resumption. Making steroid production was sufficient but not necessary for oocyte maturation (Jamnongjit and Hammes, 2006; Motola et al., 2007; Tsafriri and Motola, 2007). Because of the powerful capability of FSH and LH that is in place now (Vermeiden and Zeilmaker, 1974; Eppig, 1991; Fan and Sun, 2004) over the long period of time, androgens may have undergone a shift from dominancy to co-operation and to decline in 'controlling' the oocyte maturation compared with gonadotrophins. Androgens would make their main contribution during the early stages of follicular growth (Fig. 1B). For example, during preantral follicular development, androgen was evidenced to promote the primary to secondary follicle transition (Yang and Fortune, 2006). This proposition was also supported by a previous study in the primate ovary (Vendola et al., 1998). Furthermore, in Xenopus, the ovaries contain all of the enzymatic machinery necessary for the conversion of sex steroid precursors to androgens independent of

gonadotrophins (Yang et al., 2003), but in mammals, the gonadotrophins are indispensable for steroidogenesis (Seger et al., 2001; Jamnongjit et al., 2005; Kimura et al., 2007). Various female AR-deficient mouse models have provided evidence for the role of AR in mammalian ovaries. Although homozygous  ${\rm Ar}^{\rm Tfm}$  female mice exhibited increased follicle atresia and reduced follicle numbers, AR-mediated androgen action was qualitatively not essential for ovulation, mating, pregnancy or lactation (Lyon and Glenister, 1974; Walters et al., 2008). By deleting different exons of Ar by the Cre/ LoxP system to generate mutant ARs in female mice, investigators showed important roles of AR in females including fertility, estrous cycles, ovarian gene expression and ovarian health, but these  ${\rm Ar}^{-\prime-}$ mice simultaneously exhibited normal follicle populations at least up to 16 week of age (Yeh et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2004; Shiina et al., 2006; Walters et al., 2007). Especially in the Ar<sup>EX3-/-</sup> mouse (deleting exon 3 of AR), no change in follicle growth rates and in granulosa or theca cell proliferation was observed. Fertilization and progression to the 2-cell stages are also normal (Walters et al., 2007, 2008). Therefore, it is still unclear whether the phenotypes in  $Ar^{-/-}$  individuals are due to the direct deletion of AR or indirect consequences related to other genes or proteins, which are critical for oocyte development and maturation.

On a physiological level, the major role of androgen in the ovary may possibly serve as estrogen precursors (Kimura *et al.*, 2007) but not to bind to the declined AR to trigger non-genomic effects. Therefore, different from the non-classical effect in somatic cells, the action of androgen and AR in the mammalian oocytes challenges us to think as a 'facing out' rather than 'starting' role. The maturation promoting the ability of androgen and AR might be left as a 'curtain call', with a declining role and replacement by gonadotrophins. As evolution proceeds, the AR might disappear in mammalian oocytes.

## Relationship between AR and polycystic ovary syndrome

If our hypothesis holds true, in mammals, at the current time AR should be mainly localized in granulosa and theca cells rather than in the oocyte. The degenerative but still existent AR in the oocyte itself which has not been eliminated completely by evolution appears unnecessary or even harmful to the female individual. For example, in humans, polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is a disorder that affects  $\sim$ 5–10% of women in reproductive ages. This disease is characterized by increased androgen levels, anovulatory infertility, insulin resistance and hyerinsulinemia (Ehrmann, 2005; Wood et al., 2007). However, the definite mechanism leading to PCOS is still unsolved. Generally, the premature development of follicles in PCOS ovaries is thought to be due to the elevated levels of androgen (Drummond, 2006). However, if the direct pathology is not completely due to the unnecessary androgen, but partially due to the redundant AR in the oocyte, which might mediate signaling pathways to influence ovulation, PCOS could still occur. Based on the studies by others and us, we hypothesize that the relatively large amount of AR in granulosa (mural and cumulus) and theca cells could prevent excess androgen entering the oocyte, which ensures follicles to grow normally. In contrast, if dysfunctional or functionless communications exist between granulosa cells or granulosa cells and the oocyte, physiologically unnecessary androgen will enter the oocyte and bind to the remnant AR, triggering a series of non-genomic actions, provoking some follicles which should undergo atresia, to overcome the physiological barrier, and form dysfunctional or functionless follicles in the ovary. In female rhesus monkeys prenatally androgenized with testosterone, large polyfollicular ovaries develop which resemble polycystic ovaries found in women with PCOS (Abbott et al., 2005; Drummond, 2006). Previous studies also provided indirect evidence that androgen-augmented development of the pre-antral follicle in a culture system for whole mouse follicles (Murray et al., 1998). Similarly, an increased diameter of in vitro cultured follicles of immature mice was induced by androgen treatment, and the stimulatory effects of testosterone, androstenedione and dihydrotestosterone were abrogated by an AR antagonist (Wang et al., 2001). Moreover, fetal estrogen deficiency results in impaired oocyte and follicle development, immature and abnormal adult ovaries, and excessive ovarian stimulation from endogenous gonadotrophins ultimately generating hemorrhagic follicles. However, androgen deficiency, without accompanying estrogen deficit, has little apparent impact on ovarian development (Abbott et al., 2006). Evidence for the negative role of androgens also comes from PCOS patients treated with the anti-androgen, flutamide. After 6 months of treatment, ovulation was restored (De Leo et al., 1998). By analyzing the global gene expression profiles between normal and PCOS human oocytes, a previous study showed 374 significantly different genes in mRNA abundance in PCOS oocytes and 68 of these differentially expressed genes contained putative AR and/or peroxisome proliferating receptor  $\gamma$  binding sites (Wood et al., 2007), suggesting the close relationship between intra-oocyte AR and PCOS. Collectively, these findings imply some potentially but unnecessarily stimulatory effects of androgen and AR in ovary. Figure 2 represents a possible relationship between the unnecessary androgen and abnormal ovulation. On the other hand, using AR-knockout mice by the Cre-loxP system, Sato et al. (2004) evoked typical features of testicular feminization abnormalities in males. In contrast, no obvious abnormality is initially observed in females (Kimura et al., 2007), which further implies that AR may not play key roles in the ovary. A similar view



**Figure 2** Low concentration of androgen exists in ovary and makes weak contributions to oocyte maturation and ovulation. During this time, most of the follicles undergo atresia and only the mature follicles (oocytes) are selected and ovulate. If oocytes or follicles are exposed to the extra androgen that can trigger a series of unnecessary events (perhaps rapid non-genomic actions) within the follicles (oocytes), multiple follicles are promoted to undergo abnormal development. The mechanism of ovulation will be disturbed.

also comes from a recent review showing that the major role of androgen and AR in the mammalian ovary may just be to maintain oocyte and follicle health rather than oocyte maturation (Tsafriri and Motola, 2007). It is premature to speculate about the destiny of AR in the mammalian follicles. However, the hypothesis presented here might reveal a potential trend which will play a prelude to the complicated and paradox receptor in meiotic cell cycles.

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