

Adiponectin and resistin: potential metabolic signals affecting hypothalamo-pituitary gonadal axis in females and males of different species

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3	Adinonectin and resistin: notential metabolic signals affecting hypothalamo-nituitary
4	gonadal axis in females and males of different species
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19	Short title: Adiponectin and resistin in reproduction
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22 Abstract

Adipokines, including adiponectin and resistin, are cytokines produced mainly by adipose 23 tissue. They play a significant role in the metabolic functions that regulate insulin sensitivity 24 25 and inflammation. Alteration of adiponectin and resistin plasma levels, or their expression in 26 metabolic and gonadal tissue, are observed in some metabolic pathologies, such as obesity. 27 Several studies have shown that these two hormones and the receptors for adiponectin, 28 AdipoR1 and AdipoR2, are present in various reproductive tissues in both sexes of different 29 species. Thus, these adipokines could be metabolic signals that partially explain infertility related to obesity, such as polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS). Species and gender differences 30 in plasma levels, tissue or cell distribution and hormonal regulation have been reported for 31 32 resistin and adiponectin. Furthermore, until now, it has been unclear whether adiponectin and resistin act directly or indirectly on the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis. The objective of 33 this review was to summarize the latest findings and particularly the species and gender 34 35 differences known to date of adiponectin and resistin on female and male reproduction, based on the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis. 36

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40 Key words: adipose tissue, fertility, signalling pathways, reproductive tracts

46 Introduction

Many authors have observed relationships between energy metabolism and fertility or 47 infertility in various species, including sheep, cattle, pigs, rodents and primates. For example, 48 in cattle selected for high milk production, high negative energy balance in the post-partum 49 period is associated with reduced fertility (Wathes et al. 2007). In sheep, it is well known that 50 51 an increase in availability of energy substrates is associated with an increase in prolificacy 52 (Teleni et al. 1989). In pigs, it is also known that a negative energy balance and a decrease in 53 body fat results in a reduction in litter size and viability of piglets (Quesnel et al. 2007). Clinical studies have also established some links between insulin resistance and polycystic 54 ovarian syndrome (PCOS) (Gambineri et al. 2002). This syndrome is often associated with 55 56 obesity, metabolic disorders, and an imbalance of reproductive hormones in women (Dunaif & Thomas 2001). White adipose tissue (WAT) is one of the main tissues involved in the 57 regulation of energy balance. For a long time, this organ was considered as a simple tissue for 58 59 the storage of triglycerides. However, it is now well established that white adipose tissue 60 synthesizes and secretes numerous cytokines, termed adipokines that participate in several physiological and pathological processes, such as food intake and metabolic control, diabetes, 61 62 atherosclerosis, immunity, and also reproductive functions (Reverchon et al. 2014). In the 63 present review, we describe and analyse the role of two of these adipokines, adiponectin and 64 resistin, in the female and male hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis.

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66 Structure, expression and role in metabolic functions of adiponectin and resistin

Adiponectin, also known as Acrp30, is mainly secreted by mature adipocytes. It is the
most abundant adipokine in plasma (approximately 1–50 μg/ml) in various species including
human, rat, birds (chicken and turkey), pig and dairy cows (Nishizawa *et al.* 2012, Chabrolle *et al.* 2007, Diot *et al.* 2015, Hendricks *et al.* 2009, Maleszka *et al.* 2014a, De Koster *et al.*

71 2016). Plasma adiponectin concentrations are inversely correlated with the adipose tissue reservoir (Kadowaki & Yamauchi 2005, Yamauchi et al. 2014). In addition, levels of 72 adiponectin in plasma were significantly lower in males than in females in humans and 73 rodents (Nishizawa et al. 2002). One explanation is that sexual hormones such oestradiol (E2) 74 and testosterone (T) could regulate the plasma adiponectin concentration (Nishizawa et al. 75 76 2002). The adiponectin gene encodes a protein (full-length adiponectin; full AdipoQ) 77 composed of four domains: an N-terminal signal peptide, a variable region, a collagenous domain and a globular domain at the C-terminal end (Figure 1A). Mammalian adiponectin 78 79 genes, which contain three exons and two introns, are highly conserved between species (Hu et al. 1996). For example, the homology between pig and mouse, rat, and dog was 83, 82 and 80 90%, respectively (Wang et al. 2004). The shorter globular adiponectin (g AdipoQ) possesses 81 potent biological activities that have similar properties to full AdipoQ. The circulating 82 83 adiponectin is found in trimer, hexamer and high molecular weight (HMW) forms, the latter is considered the metabolically bioactive form. Two distinct main receptors (AdipoRs) have 84 been described in the literature, namely AdipoR1 (almost ubiquitously expressed, and 85 abundantly so in skeletal muscle; binds the globular form) and AdipoR2 (predominantly 86 expressed in the liver and WAT; binds the full-length protein) (Kadowaki & Yamauchi 2005, 87 88 Yamauchi et al. 2014). Unlike G-coupled protein receptors, AdipoRs are seven-89 transmembrane domain receptors with an extracellular carboxyl terminus and an intracellular 90 amino terminus. The homology betweeen AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 is 67% amino acid identity. Furthermore, they are structurally conserved from yeast to humans (Yamauchi et al. 2014). 91 92 AdipoR signalling can be modulated by an interaction with two adaptor proteins named APPL1 (Adaptor protein, phosphotyrosine interacting with PH domain and leucine zipper 1) 93 94 and APPL2 (Adaptor protein, phosphotyrosine interacting with PH domain and leucine zipper 95 2) (Yamauchi et al. 2014). Once adiponectin binds to AdipoR1, APPL1 activates various

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downstream signalling events associated with adiponectin function. When AdipoR1 is 96 inactive, APPL2 binds and inhibits APPL1 function. However, APPL2 binding is displaced 97 upon AdipoR1 activation. It is well known that adiponectin activates different main signalling 98 pathways in various tissues: AMPK (AMP-activated protein kinase), MAPK (mitogen-99 100 activated protein kinase: p38, ERK1/2 (Extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1/2)), Akt 101 (serine/threonine protein kinase), and PPAR α (Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor 102 alpha) (Kadowaki & Yamauchi 2005, Yamauchi et al. 2014) (Figure 1B). Many functions have been described for adiponectin: this hormone can control energy homeostasis and insulin 103 104 sensitivity, and it affects lipid metabolism, vasodilatation, atherogenic activity and 105 reproductive functions (Kadowaki & Yamauchi 2005, Yamauchi et al. 2014, Brochu-106 Gaudreau et al. 2010).

Resistin is a cysteine-rich, secretory protein, which is also known as found in 107 108 inflammatory zones (FIZZ) or adipocyte secreted factor (ADSF) (Steppan et al. 2001) (Figure 1A). It is produced by white and brown adipose tissue, but has also been identified in several 109 110 other peripheral tissues. In adipose tissue, the production of resistin is dependent on the species. Indeed, resistin is produced by the adipocytes in mice whereas it is predominantly 111 expressed in macrophages in humans (Steppan et al. 2001). Human resistin is a 12.5 kDa 112 113 cysteine-rich peptide with a mature sequence consisting of 108 amino acid, while rat and 114 mouse resistin has 114 amino acids. There is 55 % amino acid identity within the mature 115 segment of human and mouse resistin. The resistin gene is located on chromosome 19 in human whereas it is located on chromosome 8 and 2 in mouse and pig, respectively (Yang et 116 al. 2003, Adeghate 2004). Furthermore, the human and mouse resistin genes have markedly 117 divergent promoter regions, suggesting different mechanisms of regulation, tissue distribution 118 119 and functions (Steppan et al. 2001). The comparison of amino acid sequence of bovine resistin with that of human, pig, rat, mouse showed 73%, 80%, 58% and 57% identity, 120

respectively (Kang et al. 2006). Plasma and follicular fluid resistin concentration in humans is 121 from 5 to 50 ng/ml (Munir et al. 2005). In pig, the resistin level in follicular fluid is around 122 $0.32 \text{ ng/}\mu\text{g}$ protein, dependent on the stage of the oestrous cycle (Rak-Mardyła *et al.* 2013). 123 Resistin plasma levels are significantly higher in females when compared with males (Lee et 124 al. 2003). It has not been described receptor of resistin and the molecular mechanism of 125 126 resistin action is unclear. However, recent reports have suggested potential receptors for 127 resistin like an isoform of decorin (DCN) (Daquinag et al. 2011), mouse receptor tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor 1 (ROR1) (Sanchez-Solana et al. 2012), toll-like receptor 4 128 (TLR4) (Benomar et al. 2013) or adenylyl cyclase-associated protein 1 (CAP1) (Lee et al. 129 2014). Furthermore, it is well known that resistin activates signalling pathways in different 130 131 tissues (Figure 1B) like Akt, MAPK (ERK1/2 and p38), Stat-3 (signal transducer and activator of transcription 3) and PPAR type gamma (PPARy). Several studies have identified 132 133 positive correlations between resistin levels and the pathogenesis of obesity, adipogenesis and 134 insulin resistance (Steppan et al. 2001).

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136 Adiponectin and resistin expression and action at hypothalamus-pituitary levels

137 Despite the conflicting evidence as to whether adiponectin can cross the blood-brain barrier, some studies have reported adiponectin and AdipoR expression in the brain and 138 139 pituitary of various species, including humans, rats, pigs, rodents, and chickens (Rodriguez-140 Pacheco et al. 2007, Wilkinson et al. 2007), suggesting that adiponectin may be a factor modulating the reproductive functions. AdipoRs have been identified in the hypothalamic 141 GnRH neuron cells (GT1-7) and in human and rodent hypothalami, including in the 142 paraventricular nucleus and in the periventricular areas. Adiponectin inhibits kisspeptin 143 144 (KISS-1) gene transcription (Wen et al. 2012) and gonadatropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) secretion (Wen et al. 2008) (Figure 2) in GT1-7 cells. 145

In pigs, pituitary adiponectin levels depend on the phase of the oestrous cycle, and *in* 146 vitro experiments in primary pituitary cells showed that treatment with adiponectin increases 147 follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) release (Kiezun et al. 2014). Conversely, exposure of 148 rodent pituitary cell cultures to adiponectin resulted in a reduction in luteinizing hormone 149 (LH) secretion and GnRH-induced LH release (Rodriguez-Pacheco et al. 2007, Lu et al. 2008). 150 151 Moreover, in primary rat pituitary cells, GnRH treatment suppressed pituitary adiponectin 152 expression (Kim et al. 2013). AdipoRs have been identified in gonadotropins producing cells 153 in the pars distalis but not in the pars tuberalis in the human pituitary (Wilkinson *et al.* 2007). To our knowledge a sexual dimorphism has been described in the levels of circulating plasma 154 adiponectin, with males having lower adiponectin levels than females (Arita et al. 1999). 155 However, adiponectin levels in human cerebrospinal fluid (CFS) showed no gender difference 156 (Kos et al. 2007). 157

Expression of resistin has been reported in the hypothalamus of rodents (Morash et al. 158 2002). Resistin was identified in human CSF with levels 100-fold lower than in serum (Kos et 159 al. 2007). However, its role in GnRH neurons remains to be determined. In the pituitary, 160 gender differences of resistin are evident (male > female at postnatal day 28 and 42) and this 161 was not modified by neonatal treatment of female pups with T (Morash et al. 2004). 162 163 Moreover, expression of resistin mRNA in the pituitary is significantly higher in pre-pubertal 164 mice (Morash et al. 2002, Morash et al. 2004), while in the rat increases until the age of 28 165 days, suggesting that pituitary resistin expression is age-dependent. Moreover, corticosteroids 166 significantly increased pituitary mRNA resistin levels. It was demonstrated that the AdipoRs expression are decreased, while GH secretion is increased after resistin treatment in *in vitro* 167 rat pituitary cells in culture (Nogueiras et al. 2004), but there is a lack of data describing the 168 169 effect of resistin on gonadotropin secretion. However, Singh et al. (2014) showed that serum resistin levels correlated negatively with changes in serum LH level in bats. In addition to the 170

effects of adiponectin and resistin on GnRH neurons in the hypothalamus and/or on the gonadotrophs of the anterior pituitary (Figure 2), they also affect, in a direct manner, both female and male gonads (Figures 3 and 4).

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175 Adiponectin, AdipoRs and resistin expression in the ovary

176 As described in Table 1, adiponectin is not only present in the follicular fluid, but also 177 in ovarian cells of various species. In granulosa cells, adiponectin expression is low and almost undetectable in humans, rodents and chickens, suggesting species-specific differences 178 in ovarian expression of the adiponectin gene (Chabrolle et al. 2007, Chabrolle et al. 2009, 179 Richards et al. 2012). Adiponectin and its receptors are present in the corpus luteum (CL) of 180 mammalian species (rat, cow, sows), including women. In bovine species, the physiological 181 status of the ovary influences the expression pattern of adiponectin and its receptors in 182 follicular and luteal cells (Tabandeh et al. 2010). In these species, a positive correlation is also 183 observed between the adiponectin transcript in the ovarian cells of the dominant follicle and 184 follicular fluid oestradiol (E2) levels, indicating an association between adiponectin and 185 follicular dominance and oocyte competence (Tabandeh et al. 2012). In humans, ovarian 186 adiponectin and AdipoRs expression are hormonally controlled in vivo, as suggested by an 187 increase in adiponectin concentrations in the ovarian follicular fluid of women in response to 188 189 LH treatment in the *in vitro* fertilization procedure (Gutman et al. 2009). Gonadotrophins 190 modify the expression levels of AdipoR2, but not AdipoR1 and eventually contribute to enhanced 3 β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (3βHSD) activity and increased progesterone 191 (P4) secretion in human granulosa cells (Wickham et al. 2013). Furthermore, following 192 pregnant mare serum gonadotropin (PMSG) pre-treatment, an injection of human chorionic 193 194 gonadotropin (hCG) increases the expression of adiponectin and AdipoR1 (but not AdipoR2) 195 genes in rat ovaries (Chabrolle et al. 2007). Also, in bovine theca interna cells, LH increases

the concentrations of AdipoR2 mRNAs, whereas insulin-like growth factor type 1 (IGF1) 196 suppresses the expression of AdipoR2 (Lagaly et al. 2008). Steroids could also affect 197 adiponectin expression. Indeed, in swine, adiponectin serum concentrations are higher during 198 the luteal phase than the follicular phase, which suggests that ovarian steroids influence 199 200 plasma adiponectin levels (Maleszka et al. 2014 b). However, it remains to be demonstrated 201 whether steroids can locally affect ovarian adiponectin production. Adiponectin can also 202 influence the expression of its receptors differently according to the ovarian cell type. For 203 example, AdipoRs expression are increased in the complex-oocyte-cumulus, but not in 204 granulosa cells (Richards et al. 2012).

Like adiponectin, resistin is expressed in the ovarian cells of various species (Table 1). 205 Niles et al. (2012) demonstrated resistin expression in human granulosa cells derived from the 206 preovulatory follicles of females undergoing oocyte retrieval during *in vitro* fertilization, 207 suggesting its role in follicular development (Niles et al. 2012). Resistin is also present in 208 human granulosa cells, cumulus cells and human ovarian granulosa tumor-derived cell line 209 (KGN), as well as in theca cells in large follicles and oocytes in the primary follicles 210 (Reverchon et al. 2013). In bovine species, resistin is widely expressed in different sized 211 follicles (small < 6 mm and large > 6 mm) where it is localized in oocytes, cumulus, theca, 212 213 and granulosa cells. In addition, it is present in the CL (Maillard et al. 2011). Interestingly, 214 resistin mRNA was undetectable in rat granulosa cell cultures (Maillard et al. 2011). 'Species' 215 specific ovarian resistin expression could contribute to different effects on ovarian follicle 216 functions, such as steroidogenesis and proliferation, as described for adiponectin. In pig ovaries, resistin levels and expression depend on the stage of the animal reproductive status; 217 differences were observed in the expression and concentration of resistin in follicular fluid 218 collected from small (SFs), medium (MFs), and large (LFs) follicles (Rak-Mardyła et al. 219 2013). Interestingly, in contrast to prepubertal animals, resistin expression and concentration 220

in adult oestrous cycling pigs was independent of follicular size and/or development (RakMardyła *et al.* 2014). Moreover, several hormones can influence ovarian resistin expression.
For example, Rak et al. (2015) reported that gonadotropin and steroid hormone increased, but
IGF1 dose-dependently significantly decreased ovarian resistin mRNA and protein expression
in pig (Rak *et al.* 2015a). In addition, resistin ovarian expression was decreased by
rosiglitazone – a PPARγ agonist (Rak-Mardyła & Drwal 2016).

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228 Adiponectin and resistin *in vitro* effects on ovarian steroidogenesis and cell survival

229 The ovarian follicles synthesize steroid hormones, which control and maintain female sexual development, behaviour and pregnancy, as well as having important local effects 230 231 within the ovary. The role of adiponectin has been studied *in vitro* in the steroidogenesis of granulosa and theca cells in several species (Figure 3). In rats and in women, recombinant 232 233 adiponectin at physiological doses (5 or 10 μ g/ml) increases the secretion of steroids in IGF1stimulated cells (Chabrolle et al. 2007, Chabrolle et al. 2009). In rats, this increase is due to 234 increased signalling of the IGF1 receptor and, in women, it is due to an increase in the 235 expression of the CYP19A1 (cytochrome P450 aromatase) enzyme responsible for estrogen 236 biosynthesis. In bats, an adiponectin at physiological doses (5 and 10 µg/ml) treatment in vivo 237 238 during the period of delayed development causes a significant increase in circulating P4 and 239 E2 levels, together with an increased expression of AdipoR1 in the ovary. In this species, the 240 effects of adiponectin on ovarian steroidogenesis are mediated through increased expression 241 of luteinizing hormone-receptor, steroidogenic acute regulatory protein and 3β-HSD (Anuradha & Krishna 2014). In KGN cell lines, specific inactivation of AdipoRs shows that 242 AdipoR1 regulated cell survival, while AdipoR2 is preferentially involved in steroidogenesis 243 244 (Pierre *et al.* 2009). In cows, adiponectin at dose 3 µg/ml *in vitro* decreases the production of androstenedione (A4) by theca cells by reducing the expression of LH receptors and 245

CYP11A1 (cytochrome P450, family 11, subfamily a, polypeptide 1) and CYP17 α 1 (cytochrome P450, family 17, subfamily a, polypeptide 1) enzymes mediated by both AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 (Lagaly *et al.* 2008). These data were confirmed by Comim et al. (2013), showing that knockdown of AdipoRs or the downstream effector protein APPL1 leads to an increase in secretion of androstenedione (Comim *et al.* 2013). Thus, adiponectin differentially regulates the expression of steroidogenic enzymes in ovarian cells in various species.

The first study showed that resistin at 10 ng/ml treatment increased androgen production 253 by stimulation of CYP17 mRNA expression in human theca cells in vitro (Munir et al. 2005) 254 255 (Figure 3). Spicer et al. (2011) demonstrated that resistin at 30 ng/ml weakly stimulated FSH 256 plus IGF1-induced E2 production, but had no effect on IGF1- or insulin-induced P4 and A4 production by theca cells or P4 production by granulosa cells of large follicles (Spicer et al. 257 258 2011). However, in granulosa cells from small follicles, resistin attenuated the stimulatory effect of IGF1 on P4 and E2 secretion. In vitro treatment with resistin on bovine granulosa 259 cells showed a decreased basal, but not IGF1-induced P4 and E2 production. While in 260 cultured rat granulosa cells, basal and IGF1-induced P4 secretion increased following 261 treatment with a physiological dose (10 ng/ml) of resistin, with no effects on E2 release 262 263 (Maillard et al. 2011). Similarly, studies on human granulosa cells treated with resistin have 264 also shown reduced steroid hormone secretion in response to IGF1 (Reverchon et al. 2013). 265 However, in human theca cells in normal cycling premenopausal women (Munir et al. 2005), 266 pig ovary (Rak-Mardyła et al. 2013, Rak-Mardyła et al. 2014) and bats (Singh et al. 2015), a stimulatory effect of resistin at physiological doses on androgen production was observed. 267 Conversely, in porcine ovarian follicles, resistin decreased gonadotropin- and IGF1-induced 268 steroid hormone secretion by inhibition of 3BHSD, 17BHSD and CYP19A1 protein 269 expression (Rak et al. 2015a). These contradictory findings may be explained by the presence 270

271 of various isoforms of resistin, which may explain the functional diversity of resistin in different species. Thus, the resistin receptor has still unknown, and resistin action in ovarian 272 steroidogenesis mechanism remains unclear. However, Rak-Mardyła and Drwal (2016) 273 demonstrated that in cultured porcine ovarian follicles PPAR γ is a key regulator of resistin 274 expression and steroidogenic function (Rak-Mardyła & Drwal 2016). Maillard et al. (2011) 275 276 clearly documented that in cultured bovine and rat granulosa cells resistin at 10 ng/ml 277 stimulated phosphorylation of different kinases such as Akt, MAPKs P38 and ERK1/2. 278 Furthermore, Reverchon et al. (2013) demonstrated that resistin decreased the IGF1-induced tyrosine phosphorylation of the IGF1Rβ subunit and phosphorylation of MAPK ERK1/2 and 279 suggested that the MAPK ERK1/2 signalling pathway regulated in vitro steroidogenesis in 280 281 primary human granulosa cells (Reverchon et al. 2013). Recently, Singh et al. (2014) showed that resistin injection in bats (6.5 µg/100 g body weight/day for 12 days) increased Stat-3 282 283 phosphorylation in the ovaries. Similarly, in cultured porcine ovarian cells, resistin (10 ng/ml) also activated the phosphorylation of Stat-3 but also MAPK ERK1/2 and Akt (Rak et al. 284 2015b). 285

Apoptosis is critically important for the survival of multicellular organisms by getting 286 287 rid of damaged or infected cells that may interfere with normal ovarian function such as 288 oogenesis, folliculogenesis, oocyte loss/selection and atresia. Several pro-survival and pro-289 apoptotic molecules are involved in ovarian apoptosis with the delicate balance between them 290 being the determinant for the final destiny of the follicular cells. In bovine species, 291 adiponectin at 10 µg/ml increases in vitro IGF1-induced granulosa cell proliferation but not 292 basal or insulin-induced proliferation (Maillard et al. 2010). In the basal state, similar effects of adiponectin have been described on the proliferation of large-follicle theca cells. In primary 293 294 human granulosa cells, adiponectin at 5 µg/ml treatment does not affect IGF1-induced cell proliferation (Chabrolle et al. 2009). Published in vitro data concerning ovarian cell 295

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proliferation showed some effects dependent on the resistin doses; no effect at the lower, 296 physiological doses (1 and 10 ng/ml) in pig (Rak et al. 2015b) and rat (Maillard et al. 2011), 297 while at higher doses (100; 333 and 667 ng/ml) stimulated effects were observed. Similarly, 298 in vivo, resistin induced a stimulatory effect on the expression of proliferating cell nuclear 299 antigen (PCNA) in the ovaries of seasonally monoestrous bats (Singh et al. 2014). However, 300 *in vitro*, resistin reduced $[^{3}H]$ thymidine incorporation in response to IGF-I in rat granulosa 301 302 cells (Maillard et al. 2011). The above observations indicate that resistin, depending on doses 303 and animal models, has different actions on ovarian cell proliferation, which is an important 304 process in ovarian function.

In the *in vivo* ovaries of bats, resistin decreased protein levels but stimulated caspase-3 activity. Similarly, in pig ovary resistin by direct effects on protein involved in both death receptor- and mitochondria-mediated apoptosis, was described as an anti-apoptotic factor in the ovary (Rak *et al.* 2015b). As a molecular mechanism of resistin action on cell survival, authors have proposed activation of several signal transduction pathways such MAPK/ERK1/2, JAK/STAT and PI3K (Rak *et al.* 2015b). These results show that resistin is involved in ovarian apoptosis regulation and could regulate follicular development or atresia.

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Adiponectin and resistin effect on oocytes

As described above, adiponectin and AdipoRs are present in the oocytes of different species (Table 1). In *in vitro* fertilization protocols in women, mice and pigs, but not in cows, adiponectin at physiological doses improves oocyte maturation and early embryo development (Chappaz *et al.* 2008, Maillard *et al.* 2010, Richards *et al.* 2012) (Figure 3). In adiponectin-deficient mice, the number of ovulated oocytes is drastically decreased as compared to controls with similar body weight (Table 2). However, no experiments to date have inhibited adiponectin and AdipoRs expression in different ovarian cells to determine the 322 of resistin in oocyte maturation. These should form the basis of future studies.

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324 Adiponectin, AdipoRs and resistin expression in testis

In humans, adiponectin concentration in seminal plasma is around 66-fold lower than in serum, and a positive correlation with sperm concentration, sperm count, and total normomorphic spermatozoa has been reported (Thomas *et al.* 2013). In cattle, Heinz *et al.* (2015) concluded that adiponectin concentration in seminal plasma is likely blood borne and originates from adipose tissue. Therefore, the potential contribution of local secretion from the testes, if any, is only marginal. In rats, adiponectin is mainly present in Leydig interstitial cells, while AdipoR1 is expressed in the seminiferous tubules (Caminos *et al.* 2008).

Nogueiras et al. (2004) showed that in rat testis mRNA expression of resistin was higher in interstitial Leydig cells than in Sertoli cells within seminiferous tubules and this expression was regulated by gonadotropins, leptin, and nutritional status. Resistin is also expressed in mouse Leydig cell lines (MA-10 and TM3) and exposure to 8-Br-cAMP (8-Bromoadenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate) increased its mRNA expression in MA-10 Leydig cells (Jean *et al.* 2012). In humans, Moretti et al. (2014) showed that the resistin level was higher in semen than in serum, and that semen resistin correlated with sperm quality.

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340 Adiponectin and resistin *in vitro* effects on testis function

Adiponectin treatment decreases the production of T in the presence or absence of hCG in rat testicular tissue, while it has no effect on the expression of the genes encoding AMH (anti-mullerian hormone) and SCF (stem cell factor), that are specific to the Sertoli cells (Caminos *et al.* 2008) (Figure 4). However, in MA-10 mouse Leydig cells, adiponectin treatment improves P4 production through an increase in the cholesterol carrier StAR and the

CYP11A1 steroidogenesis enzyme, suggesting that high doses of adiponectin (50, 500, or 346 5,000 ng/ml) could promote T production from Leydig cells (Landry et al. 2015). In mice, 347 AdipoR2 deficiency results in atrophy of seminiferous tubules and aspermia without a change 348 in T concentration (Bjursell et al. 2007) (Table 2). In chickens, studies show an increase in 349 testicular adiponectin receptors during sexual maturation, and suggest a role for adiponectin in 350 351 steroidogenesis, spermatogenesis, Sertoli cell function, and sperm motility (Ocon-Grove et al. 352 2008). In rams, adiponectin and AdipoR1 mRNA expressions are positively correlated with 353 sperm motility (Kadivar et al. 2016). In bulls, adiponectin and its receptors also play vital roles in structural and functional sperm traits by regulating sperm capacitation 354 (Kasimanickam et al. 2013). 355

356 To our knowledge there are limited data on resistin action on testicular cells function. Resistin significantly increased basal and hCG - stimulated T secretion in rat incubated 357 testicular tissue (Nogueiras et al. 2004). Exposure to low concentrations of resistin (10 358 ng/ml), corresponding to a normal physiological condition, contributes to increased 359 proliferation of MA-10 Leydig cells (Jean et al. 2012). In addition, Sertoli cells may also 360 contribute to Leydig cells proliferation by secreting resistin (Nogueiras et al. 2004). Thus, 361 adiponectin and resistin signalling appear to be present in male gonadal tissues, but the extent 362 363 to which these hormones contribute to normal human testicular function and fertility potential 364 remains to be determined. In addition to their role in steroidogenesis, adiponectin and resistin 365 could be involved in sperm capacitation, sperm-egg fusion and fertilization.

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367 The role of adiponectin and resistin *in vivo* in mice fertility

Though many studies have reported *in vitro* effects of adiponectin and resistin on ovarian and testicular cell functions, the involvement of these two adipokines *in vivo* in the control of fertility remains unclear. Several studies showed that adiponectin-null mice are

viable and, in studies where fertility outcomes are mentioned, appear to exhibit normal 371 fertility (Ma et al. 2002, Nawrocki et al. 2006) (Table 2). However, over-expression of 372 adiponectin leads to increased insulin sensitivity and infertility or subfertility (Combs et al. 373 2004), and a recent study demonstrated that disruption of adiponectin can cause subfertility in 374 female mice (Cheng et al. 2016). Indeed, female adiponectin-null mice displayed reduced 375 376 retrieval of oocytes, a disrupted oestrous cycle, an elevated number of atretic follicles and 377 impaired late folliculogenesis (Table 2). Their serum also has lower levels of P4 at dioestrus that can be explained by a lower expression of CYP11A1 and a significant reduction in E2 378 379 and FSH at pro-oestrus. Adiponectin deficiency also altered the hypothalamo-pituitary axis, since the plasma peak concentrations of LH surged and the number of GnRH immunoreactive 380 381 neurons were significantly reduced. Concerning AdipoRs, their genetic deletion was not associated with subfertility in one study (Yamauchi et al. 2007), but a loss of AdipoR2 was 382 383 associated with male subfertility in other studies (Bjursell et al. 2007, Lindgren et al. 2013). Disruption of AdipoR2 in males leads to an seminiferous tubules atrophy and aspermia 384 associated with reduced testes weight. Various studies where resistin protein levels were 385 increased in different peripheral tissues (such as adipose tissue or liver) did not report any 386 387 effect on fertility (Pravenec et al. 2003, Banerjee et al. 2004).

Thus, these data indicate that adiponectin signalling is important to normal mouse female and male reproduction. However, the role of this adipokine specifically in each gonadal cell remains to be determined. Concerning resistin, however, much less is known about its involvement in *in vivo* reproductive function and, therefore, this remains to be investigated.

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Potential involvement of adiponectin and resistin in some pathologies associated with gonadal dysfunctions such as PCOS

PCOS is a metabolic disorder in humans that is linked to insulin resistance and obesity. It is characterized by anovulation, hyperandrogenism and hyperinsulinaemia (Dunaif & Thomas 2001). Excessive production of insulin in PCOS women, with its subsequent induction of theca cell steroidogenesis, is thought to be the primary cause of hyperandrogenism.

401 Adipokines such as adiponectin and resistin could act as a link between obesity and 402 PCOS (Spritzer et al. 2015). Many studies have investigated the concentration of adiponectin and resistin in both plasma and follicular fluid in PCOS and control patients. However, data 403 404 are still controversial (Spritzer et al. 2015). Several studies have documented a lack of any difference in resistin concentration in serum or follicular fluid of PCOS patients, compared to 405 406 control groups, even though serum adiponectin was significantly lower in obese than in normal-weight women. However, Munir et al. (2005) suggested that resistin is involved in 407 PCOS because the concentration of resistin was significantly increased in PCOS patients and 408 was positively correlated with body mass index and T levels. Concerning adiponectin, some 409 410 authors have also analysed the different forms of adiponectin in PCOS patients and they observed that there were low levels of HMW adiponectin in both serum and follicular fluid of 411 412 PCOS patients with controlled ovarian hyperstimulation compared to controls (Artimani et al. 413 2016). Furthermore, the expression pattern of the adiponectin system (adiponectin, AdipoRs 414 and APPL1) has been studied in PCOS patients, and a reduction of APPL1 and the 415 adiponectin system was observed in human granulosa cells (Dehghan et al. 2016). 416 Furthermore, recently Yuan et al. (2016) showed that brown adipose tissue (BAT) transplantation activated endogenous BAT and increased the circulating level of adiponectin 417 418 in a dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA)-induced PCOS rat. Comim et al. (2013) also showed 419 that a lower proportion of theca cells expressed AdipoRs in polycystic ovaries than in normal 420 ovaries (Comim et al. 2013). Many studies have also described the association of PCOS with

polymorphisms of the adiponectin or adiponectin receptor genes. The resistin gene
polymorphism is associated with body mass index in women with PCOS, suggesting that
resistin might be related to adiposity in PCOS.

424 Conclusions

In conclusion, resistin, adiponectin, and AdipoRs are present and active in the 425 426 hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis. Their expression can be regulated by various factors 427 (such as gender, age, nutritional and hormonal status). Many *in vitro* studies showed that these two adipokines can regulate gonadal steroidogenesis and gametogenesis. Adiponectin can also 428 429 exert effects on GnRH synthesis and the pituitary secretory functions that could then indirectly affect gonadal functions. The *in vitro* effects of resistin on GnRH and gonadotropin 430 secretion are still unknown. In mice, adiponectin deficiency leads to female subfertility 431 associated with ovarian and hypothalamo-pituitary dysfunction and AdipoR2 deficiency leads 432 433 to male subfertility with aspermia and atrophy of tubules, suggesting an important role of the adiponectin system in normal reproduction. If these data are confirmed in human and other 434 435 species, adiponectin or its analogues (recombinant adiponectin, adiponectin receptor agonist) could be used in the treatment of certain infertilities, similar to how they are used in metabolic 436 437 syndrome. Furthermore, it remains to be determine whether these *in vivo* adjokine effects act 438 directly on the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis. For example, mice with targeted 439 disruption of the adiponectin system or resistin in ovarian and testicular cells could be 440 developed in order to analyse the metabolic and reproductive phenotypes. Finally, the role of 441 other adipokines (visfatin, chemerin, omentin, etc.) in reproductive diseases related to insulin 442 resistance and obesity should be investigated.

443

444 Conflict of interests

445 None declared.

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1 Figure legends

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Figure 1: A. Structure of adiponectin and resistin. B. Signalling pathways of adiponectin
receptors (AdipoR1 and AdipoR2) and resistin.

- AdipoQ adiponectin, AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 adiponectin receptors), APPL1 and APPL2 adaptor proteins, PPARα peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha, PPARγ peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma, AMPK AMP-activated protein kinase,
 MAPK mitogen-activated protein kinase p38, ERK1/2 extracellular signal-regulated
 kinases 1/2), Akt phosphatidyl inositol 3' kinase/Akt, Stat3 signal transducer and activator
 of transcription 3, TLR4 toll-like receptor, ROR1 tyrosine kinase-like orphan receptor,
 CAP1 cyclase-associated protein 1, DCN decorin.
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Figure 2: Effects of adiponectin and resistin on GnRH and LH/FSH expression and/orsecretion.

15 GnRH- gonadotropin-releasing hormone, FSH - follicle-stimulating hormone, LH -

16 luteinizing hormone, AMPK - AMP-activated protein kinase, KISS-1 - kisspeptin, GT1 - 7 -

17 hypothalamic GnRH neuron cells, POMC - pro-opiomelanocortin, NPY - neuropeptide Y,

18 AgRP – agouti realated peptide, CART - cocaine- and amphetamine-regulated transcript,

19 AdipoR1/R2 – adiponectin receptors, GH – growth hormone.

20 ----- : activation ------ : inhibition

21 (a) : Wen et al. 2008, (b) : Vazquez et al. 2008, (c) : Rodriguez-Pacheco et al. 2007; Lu et al.

22 2008, (d) : Kiezun et al. 2014, (e) : Nogueiras et al. 2014, (f) : Rodriguez-Pacheco et al. 2007

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Figure 3: Effects of adiponectin and resistin on granulosa, theca and oocyte function
(steroidogenesis, proliferation and apoptosis, oocyte maturation) in different species.

26	P4 – progesterone, T – testosterone, E2 – estradiol, SF – small follicles, LF – large follicles.
27	: increase : decrease
28	(a) : Richards et al. 2012, (b) : Maillard et al. 2010, (c) : Chabrolle et al. 2007, 2009, (d) :
29	Maleszka et al. 2014, (e): Anuradha et al. 2014, (f): Lagaly et al. 2008, (g): Spicer et al.
30	2011, (h) : Reverchon et al. 2013, (i) : Rak et al. 2015, (j) : Maillard et al. 2011, (k) : Munir et
31	al. 2005, (l) : Rak-Mardyła et al. 2013, 2014 (m) : Singh et al. 2015
32	
33	Figure 4: Effects of adiponectin and resistin on testicular cell functions (steroidogenesis,
34	proliferation, apoptosis, sperm motility) in different species.
35	P4 – progesterone, T – testosterone, AMH – anti-mullerian hormone, SCF - stem cell factor.
36	(a) : Caminos et al. 2008, (b) : Landry et al. 2015, (c) : Nogueiras et al. 2004, (d) : Kadivar et
37	al. 2016, (e) : Thomas et al. 2013
38	
39	Table 1: Expression of resistin, adiponectin, AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 in ovarian and testicular
40	cells in different species (+: presence; ns: no study)
41	
42	Table 2: Consequences of targeted or non-targeted disruption or overexpression of resistin,
43	Adiponectin, AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 on the fertility and reproductive axis in mice.
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			Ovarian cells		Testicular cells		lls	
Adipokine or receptor	Species	Granulosa	Theca	Oocyte	Sertoli	Leydig	Germinal	Reference
	Human	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	Niles et al. 2012, Reverchon et al. 2013, Maillard et al. 2011,
Resistin	Cattle	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	Rak-Mardyła et al. 2014, Singh et al. 2015, Nogueiras et al. 2004
	Rodents	+	+	+	+	+	ns	
	Pig	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Birds	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Fish	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Bat	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	
	Human	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	Maillard et al. 2010, Maleszka et al. 2014,
Adiponectin	Cattle	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	Chabrolle et al. 2007, 2009, Gregoraszczuk et al. 2016,
	Rodents	+	+	+	+	+	+	Caminos et al. 2007, Ocón-Grove et al. 2008, Nishio et al. 2008,
	Pig	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Birds	+	+	ns	+	+	+	
	Fish	W	hole ovary: +		ns	ns	ns	
	Bat	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Human	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	Comim et al. 2013, Maillard et al. 2010, Maleszka et al. 2014,
AdipoR1	Cattle	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	Chabrolle et al. 2007, 2009, Gregoraszczuk et al. 2016, Ocón-Grove
	Rodents	+	+	+	+	+	+	<i>et al.</i> 2008, Nishio <i>et al.</i> 2008
	Pig	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Birds	+	+	ns	+	+	+	
	Fish	W	hole ovary: +	-	ns	ns	ns	
	Bat	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Human	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	Comim et al. 2013, Maillard et al. 2010, Maleszka et al. 2014,
AdipoR2	Cattle	+	+	+	ns	ns	ns	Chabrolle et al. 2007, 2009, Gregoraszczuk et al. 2016, Ocón-Grove
	Rodents	+	+	+	+	+	+	et al. 2008, Nishio et al. 2008.
	Pig	+	+	ns	ns	ns	ns	
	Birds	+	+	ns	+	+	+	
	Fish	W	hole ovary: +		ns	ns	ns	
	Bat	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	

Table 1: Expression of resistin, adiponectin, AdipoR1 and AdipoR2 in ovarian and testicular cells in different species (+: presence; and ns: no study)

Table 2: The consequences of targeted or non targeted disruption or overexpression of resistin, Adiponectin, Adiponectin,

Components	Tissue/cell type	Effect on fertility	Reproductive axis consequences	References
Resistin	All	Fertile		Banerjee et al.
				2004 ; Pravenec et
				al. 2003
Adiponectin	All	Female subfertility	Reduction in retrieval of oocytes, disruption of the estrous cycle, elevated number of atretic follicles, reduction in progesterone, oestradiol and FSH plasma levels,, in concentration of LH surge, and in GnRH immunoreactive neurons.	Cheng <i>et al.</i> 2016
Adiponectin	Overexpression dominant negative lacking collagen domain using promoter ap2 (adipose tissue)	Infertile	One of the line displayed 3-fold increased serum adiponectin levels, and was unfertile	Combs <i>et al</i> . 2004
Adiponectin	All	Fertile		Nawrocki AR <i>et al.</i> 2006, Ma <i>et al.</i> 2002
AdipoR1	All	Fertile (male and female)		Yamauchi T <i>et al.</i> 2007
AdipoR1 and	All	Fertile (male and female)		Yamauchi T et al.
AdipoR2				2007
AdipoR2	All	Male subfertility	An atrophy of the seminiferous tubules and aspermia associated with reduced testes weight	Bjursell M et al. 2007 ; <u>L</u> indgren et al. 2013
AdipoR2	All	Fertile (male and female)		Yamauchi T <i>et al.</i> 2007





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