

### RESEARCH

### **Open Access**



# Lipopolysaccharide alters CEBPß signaling and reduces estradiol production in bovine granulosa cells

Mackenzie J. Dickson<sup>1</sup>, I. Martin Sheldon<sup>2</sup> and John J. Bromfield<sup>1\*</sup>

### Abstract

**Background:** Bacterial infection of the uterus in postpartum dairy cows limits ovarian follicle growth, reduces blood estradiol concentrations, and leads to accumulation of bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in ovarian follicular fluid. Although treating granulosa cells with LPS in vitro decreases the expression of the estradiol synthesis enzyme *CYP19A1* and reduces estradiol secretion, the molecular mechanisms are unclear. The transcription factor CCAAT enhancer binding protein beta (CEBP $\beta$ ) not only facilitates the transcription of LPS regulated cytokines, but also binds to the promoter region of *CYP19A1* in humans, mice, and buffalo. We hypothesized that LPS alters CEBP $\beta$  signaling to reduce *CYP19A1* expression, resulting in decreased estradiol secretion.

**Methods:** Bovine granulosa cells were isolated from small/medium or large follicles and treated with LPS in the presence of FSH and androstenedione for up to 24 h.

**Results:** Treatment with LPS increased *CXCL8* and *IL6* gene expression and reduced estradiol secretion in granulosa cells from both small/medium and large follicles. However, LPS only reduced *CYP19A1* expression in granulosa cells from large follicles. Treatment with LPS increased *CEBPB* expression and reduced CEBPβ nuclear localization in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles, but not granulosa cells from large follicles.

**Conclusions:** Although LPS reduces estradiol synthesis in bovine granulosa cells, the effects of LPS on *CYP19A1* and CEBP $\beta$  are dependent on follicle size.

Keywords: Granulosa cell, Estradiol, Lipopolysaccharide, Inflammation

### Background

Bacterial infections are ubiquitous in the postpartum uterus of the cow and uterine disease develops in up to 40% of cows within three weeks following calving (Sheldon et al. 2009). Disease caused by uterine infection is associated with subfertility and increases the likelihood of cows leaving the herd (Carvalho et al. 2019; LeBlanc et al. 2002). Interestingly, the ovary is rarely a site of

\*Correspondence: jbromfield@ufl.edu

<sup>1</sup> Department of Animal Sciences, University of Florida, PO. Box 110910, Gainesville, FL 32611-0910, USA

Full list of author information is available at the end of the article

bacterial infection, but uterine disease limits dominant follicle growth and reduces estradiol production (Sheldon et al. 2002). Even after the resolution of uterine disease, the granulosa cells that line ovarian follicles exhibit an altered transcriptome compared to healthy cows (Horlock et al. 2020; Piersanti et al. 2019). In parallel, oocytes collected from cows with uterine infection have a reduced capacity to develop to the morula stage after in vitro fertilization and embryo culture (Dickson et al. 2020). Although these observations suggest that uterine infection is associated with a perturbed intrafollicular environment and compromised fertility in cows, the molecular mechanisms are unclear.



© The Author(s) 2022. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

Bacterial components, including lipopolysaccharide (LPS) derived from Gram-negative bacteria cell wall, accumulate in the follicular fluid of cows diagnosed with uterine disease (Herath et al. 2007; Piersanti et al. 2019). Granulosa cells express Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), which is the receptor for LPS (Herath et al. 2007), and treating granulosa cells with LPS stimulates the synthesis of interleukin (IL)- 1β, IL-6, IL-8, and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF $\alpha$ ) (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011; Herath et al. 2007; Price et al. 2013; Shimizu et al. 2012; Williams et al. 2008). Additionally, granulosa cells treated with LPS in vitro reduce estradiol secretion (Herath et al. 2007; Price et al. 2013; Williams et al. 2008), which is likely due to the concurrent reduction of aromatase (CYP19A1) expression in granulosa cells of small follicles (<5 mm), medium follicles (4-8 mm) and dominant follicles (>8 mm) (Herath et al. 2007; Li et al. 2017; Onnureddy et al. 2015; Price et al. 2013; Shimizu et al. 2012; Yenuganti et al. 2017). However, the molecular mechanisms by which LPS treatment decreases CYP19A1 expression and subsequently reduces estradiol secretion in cattle remain elusive.

Estradiol production is a coordinated process involving both theca and granulosa cells (Fortune 1986). Steroidogenic acute regulatory protein (STAR) transports cholesterol into the inner mitochondrial matrix of granulosa and theca cells which is then converted to progesterone (Miller 2007); however, only theca cells can convert progesterone to androstenedione which is then utilized by granulosa cells to convert androstenedione to testosterone via 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (HSD17B1). Granulosa cells then convert testosterone to estradiol via aromatase (CYP19A1) (Yoshimoto and Guengerich 2014). Previous research testing the effects of LPS on steroidogenic capacity of theca cells are inconclusive, as work has focused on the ability of granulosa cells to convert androstenedione to estradiol (Herath et al. 2007; Magata et al. 2014; Shimizu et al. 2016).

The transcription factor, CCAAT enhancer binding protein beta (CEBP $\beta$ ), is modulated by LPS and also promotes leukocyte transcription of LPS-induced cytokines like IL-6 and TNF $\alpha$  (Greenwel et al. 2000; Stein and Yang 1995). In addition, CEBP $\beta$  has been shown to bind a consensus sequence in the *CYP19A1* promoter of buffalo granulosa cells (Yenuganti et al. 2017) and human endometriosis stromal cells (Yang et al. 2002). Interestingly, *Cebpb* knockout results in the upregulation of *Cyp19a1* expression in the mouse ovary (Sterneck et al. 1997). However, there is no consensus about whether CEBP $\beta$  activity increases or decreases *CYP19A1* expression. It is unknown if LPS influences the action of CEBP $\beta$  or if CEBP $\beta$  can modulate *CYP19A1* expression and estradiol secretion in bovine granulosa cells.

Here, we aimed to determine the mechanism by which LPS treatment downregulates granulosa cell *CYP19A1* expression and results in reduced estradiol production in bovine granulosa cells. We hypothesized that LPS alters CEBPβ signaling to reduce *CYP19A1* expression, resulting in decreased estradiol secretion. To test this hypothesis, we employed in vitro culture of bovine granulosa cells from small/medium (2–8 mm) and large (>8 mm) follicles to determine the role of CEBPβ in LPS-mediated changes to *CYP19A1* expression and estradiol secretion.

### Methods

General procedures for granulosa cell isolation, culture and challenge with LPS are derived from previous reports (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011; Price et al. 2013; Horlock et al. 2022; Horlock et al. 2021). Bovine ovaries from cattle of undetermined breeds were obtained as part of the commercial operation of a local abattoir (Florida Beef, Inc., Zolfo Springs, FL) and transported to the laboratory for use within 6 h of collection. Ovaries were transported at 22°C in 0.9% saline containing 1% penicillin/ streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Walton, MA). At the laboratory, ovaries were washed three times in warm (38.5°C) saline containing 1% penicillin/streptomycin. The use of abattoir tissues for experimentation does not require animal ethics approval from the local University of Florida Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC).

### Granulosa cell culture

Between 10 and 15 ovaries from 5 to 10 cows were processed together to provide cells for each biological replicate. Cells from small/medium diameter (2-8 mm) follicles were collected by slicing the surface of ovaries with a scalpel blade and vigorously rinsing the ovary in collection medium (Minitube; Verona, WI). Resultant collection medium was then filtered using a sterile 100 µm cell strainer (Corning Inc; Corning, NY) to remove cumulus oocyte complexes and tissue debris. The remaining filtrate was then passed through a sterile 40 µm filter (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to collect granulosa cells. Granulosa cells were retained in the filter and rinsed using complete cell culture medium (Medium 199 (Gibco; Thermo Fisher Scientific), with a final concentration of 10% fetal calf serum (FCS; Corning Inc), 1% insulin-transferrin-sodium selenite (ITS; 10 mg/L human recombinant insulin, 5.5 mg/L human recombinant transferrin, 6.7 µg/L selenious acid; Corning Inc), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin; Thermo Fisher Scientific), and 1% L-glutamine (2 mM L-alanyl-L-glutamine dipeptide in 0.85% NaCl; GlutaMAX; Thermo Fisher Scientific) (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011). The resultant cell suspension

was centrifuged at  $500 \times g$  for 10 min. A red blood cell lysis was performed on the cell pellet by the addition 900 µL of cell culture grade H<sub>2</sub>O (Hyclone; Chicago, IL), immediately followed by the addition of 100  $\mu$ L of sterile 10× phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Cells were washed with Dulbecco's PBS (DPBS) without calcium or magnesium (Hyclone) by centrifugation at  $500 \times g$  for 10 min. The resultant cell pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of complete culture medium containing hyaluronidase (100 U/ mL; Millipore Sigma; Burlington, MA) and vortexed for 10 s every 3 min for 10 min. Cells were again washed by centrifugation at  $500 \times g$  for 10 min in complete cell culture medium. Cell concentration was adjusted to  $1.5 \times 10^6$  cells/mL and plated (TPP, Trasadingen, Switzerland) in 500 µL (24-well plates for RNA isolation and supernatant) or 2 mL (6-well plates for protein isolation) of complete cell culture medium and cultured at 38.5°C with 5%  $CO_2$  in humidified air.

Cells from large diameter (>8 mm) follicles were aspirated using a sterile needle and syringe into granulosa cell collection medium (Medium 199, 0.5% BSA (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 20 mM HEPES (Hyclone), 2 mM sodium pyruvate (Gibco), 50  $\mu$ g/mL heparin (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011). Following initial aspiration, granulosa cells were treated in the same manner as granulosa cells isolated from small/medium diameter follicles, with the exception of the treatment with hyaluronidase.

For cells from small/medium follicles, non-adherent cells were aspirated from the culture medium after 12-14 h of culture, and adherent granulosa cells were washed in warm DPBS and cultured for a further 24 h in complete culture medium. For cells from large follicles, granulosa cells were cultured undisturbed for 48 h to allow for cell adherence. Immediately prior to the application of treatment, cells were washed in warm DPBS, and all treatments were applied using complete medium (phenol red-free Medium 199 (Gibco) with a final concentration of 10% charcoal-stripped FCS (Corning), 1% ITS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin (50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin), 1% L-glutamine (GlutaMAX), 1 ng/mL porcine follicle stimulating hormone (Folltropin-V; Vetoquinol, Lavaltrie, Canada), and 1 µM androstenedione (Thermo Fisher Scientific) (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011).

# Testing various concentrations of LPS on granulosa cell responses

To determine the impact of LPS concentration on estradiol production, granulosa cells from small/medium follicles were treated with control medium or with medium containing ultrapure LPS (*E. coli* 0111-B4; tlrl-3pelps, Invivogen, San Diego, CA) in sequential ten-fold increasing concentrations, from 1 to  $10^4$  ng/mL for 24 h (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011). Granulosa cells from large follicles were treated with control medium or with medium containing LPS at concentrations of  $10^3$  or  $10^4$  ng/mL for 24 h (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011). The experiment was repeated using 10 independent biological replicates of granulosa cells from small/medium follicles and 9–14 independent biological replicates of granulosa cells from large follicles. Each biological replicate consisted of 10–15 ovaries. Following treatment, supernatants were collected and stored at -20°C, and cells were stored at -80°C in RLT lysis buffer (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for RNA isolation or PhosphoSafe extraction buffer (Millipore Sigma) with protease inhibitor (Halt Protease Inhibitor Cocktail; Thermo Fisher Scientific) for

## Assessing the temporal effects of LPS on granulosa cell responses

protein isolation.

To assess estradiol production over time, granulosa cells from small/medium follicles were treated with either medium alone or medium containing  $10^4$  ng/mL LPS for 0.5, 2, 4, 8, or 12 h (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011). This experiment was repeated using six independent biological replicates. Following treatment, supernatants were collected and stored at -20°C, and cells were stored in RLT lysis buffer or PhosphoSafe extraction buffer with protease inhibitor at -80°C.

### Testing the capacity of excess androstenedione to ameliorate LPS mediated effects on granulosa cells

To determine the impact of androstenedione availability on granulosa cell secretion of estradiol, granulosa cells from small/medium follicles were treated with medium containing a final concentration of 0, 1 or 100  $\mu$ M androstenedione in the presence or absence of 10<sup>3</sup> ng/mL LPS for 24 h (Gutiérrez et al. 1997). This experiment was performed in six independent biological replicates. Following treatment, supernatants were collected and stored at -20 °C, and cells were stored at -80°C in RLT lysis buffer.

### RNA isolation and real time RT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated from granulosa cells using the RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quality and quantity of RNA was assessed by an ultraviolet–visible spectrophotometer, Nanodrop2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For verification of cell culture purity, total RNA was isolated from cells at the time of cell isolation prior to plating, at the time of initial treatment (36 or 48 h after initial plating), and 24 h after treatment (60 or 72 h after initial plating). Reverse transcription was performed on 1  $\mu$ g of RNA using the Verso cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Primers for PCR were designed using the NCBI database and are detailed in Table 1. All primers were validated to ensure they met the MIQE guidelines of  $r^2 > 0.98$  and efficiency of 90–110% (Bustin et al. 2009), and product size was verified by agarose gel electrophoresis and melt curve analysis. Each PCR reaction consisted of 20 µL containing cDNA, iTaq Universal SYBR green master mix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and 500 nM of each sequence specific primer with exception of CYP17A1 which included 300 nM of each primer. A Bio-Rad CFX Connect light cycler was employed with an activation step at 95°C for 30 s followed by 40 cycles consisting of denaturation at 95°C for 5 s followed by annealing and extension at 60°C for 30 s for the two-step protocol. Three genes (AMH, CYP17A1, STAR) required a three-step protocol with an activation step at 95°C for 30 s followed by 40 cycles consisting of denaturation at 95°C for 5 s, primer specific annealing for 5 s (AMH, 58°C; CYP17A1, 57°C; STAR, 54°C) and extension at 60°C for 30 s. A no template negative control, replacing cDNA with water was

Table 1 Primer sequences used for real time RT-PCR

Gene	Primer sequence	Accession number
АМН	5'-GTGGTGCTGCTGCTAAAGATG 3'-TCGGACAGGCTGATGAGGAG	NM_173890.1
ACTB	5'-CAGAAGCACTCGTACGTGGG 3'-TTGGCCTTAGGGTTCAGGG	NM_173979.3
CEBPB	5'-ACAGCGACGAGTACAAGATCC 3'-GACAGTTGCTCCACCTTCTTCT	NM_176788.1
CXCL8	5'-GCAGGTATTTGTGAAGAGAGCTG 3'-CACAGAACATGAGGCACTGAA	NM_173925.2
CYP17A1	5'-CTCCAGCATTGGCGACCTTA 3'-GAAGCGCTCGGGCATGAA	XM_024985958.1
CYP19A1	5'-CGCAAAGCCTTAGAGGATGA 3'-ACCATGGCGATGTACTTTCC	NM_174305.1
FSHR	5'-GCAGTCGAACTGAGGTTTGTT 3'-TTGGAGAACACGTTTGCCTCT	NM_174061.1
GAPDH	5'-AGGTCGGAGTGAACGGATTC 3'-ATGGCGACGATGTCCACTTT	NM_001034034.2
HDAC1	5'-TTACGACGGGGATGTTGGAA 3'-GGCTTTGTGAGGGCGATAGA	NM_001075460.1
HDAC10	5'-CTCGGCTTCACTGTCAACCT 3'-TCAGGGTCGAACTCAAAGGC	NM_001037444.2
HSD17B1	5'-CGTGAGGGATGCAGATTCCA 3'-GTTACACACCAGCACGTCCA	NM_001102365.1
IL6	5'-ATGACTTCTGCTTTCCCTACCC 3'-GCTGCTTTCACACTCATCATTC	NM_173923.2
LHCGR	5'-TGCCTTTGACAACCTCCTCAAT 3'-GATGCTTAGGTATTTTAACCGAGG	NM_174381.1
PTPRC	5'-CTCGATGTTAAGCGAGAGGAAT 3'-TCTTCATCTTCCACGCAGTCTA	NM_001206523.1
STAR	5'-AGAAGGGTGTCATCAGAGCG 3'-TGGTCCTTGAGGGACTTCCA	NM_174189.3

included for each primer set. Relative mRNA expression for each gene of interest was calculated using the  $2^{-\Delta Ct}$  method relative to the geometric mean of the reference genes (*ACTB* and *GAPDH*) after verification of stable expression (Khan et al. 2016).

Standard RT-PCR using Dream Taq Hot Start green PCR master mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was performed to evaluate the presence of hematopoietic immune cells (*PTPRC*) and theca cells (*CYP17A1*) in cell preparations. A thermocycler (MultiGene Optim-Max Thermal Cycler, Labnet International; Edison, NJ) was employed to perform RT-PCR using an activation step of 95°C for 2 min, and 30 cycles consisting of 95°C for 30 s, specific annealing temperature for 30 s (*PTPRC*, 60°C; *CYP17A1*, 57°C), and extension at 72°C for 1 min, followed by a final extension step of 72°C for 10 min. Amplification products were visualized after agarose gel electrophoresis using Diamond Nucleic Acid Dye (Promega, Madison, WI) and a Gel Doc EZ Gel Documentation System (Bio-Rad).

### Protein extraction and immunoblotting

Samples were isolated in PhosphoSafe extraction buffer with protease inhibitor before quantifying protein concentration using a bicinchoninic protein assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Equal concentrations of protein  $(10 \ \mu g)$ were loaded into 10% precast polyacrylamide gels (Mini-Protean TGX; Bio-Rad) and subjected to electrophoresis at 100 V for 1 h. Separated proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes using wet transfer for 4 h at 45 V at 4°C. The Revert 700 total protein stain (Li-cor, Lincoln, NE) was employed to verify equal protein loading using a Li-Cor Odyssey CLx infrared imager (Li-cor). For immunoblotting, membranes were blocked overnight in 5% BSA in tris-buffered saline (TBS) with 0.1% Tween (TBS/T, pH 7.6) or 3% milk in TBS/T. Primary antibodies were diluted in 5% BSA in TBS/T (mouse anti-human aromatase, 1:250; MCA2077S; Bio-Rad) or TBST alone (rabbit anti-human CEBPβ, 1:1000; NBP1-46,179 Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO) and incubated for 6 h at 4°C with agitation. Membranes were washed three times with agitation for 5 min in TBS/T and incubated with an appropriate secondary antibody (1:5000, Li-COR) conjugated with infrared dye 680RD or 800CW in blocking solution for 1 h at room temperature (20-22°C) with agitation. Membranes were washed three times for 5 min in TBS/T and visualized on a Li-COR Odyssey CLx infrared imager. Target protein was normalized to total protein stain (Additional file 1: Fig. S1) from the same blot using the western blot function on the Li-COR Odyssey CLx infrared imager.

### Immunocytochemistry for nuclear localization of CEBPB

Chamber slides (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were used to culture granulosa cells for immunocytochemistry. Slides were preincubated with 100 µL of FCS for 30 min at room temperature (20-22°C) prior to aspiration and subsequent addition of granulosa cells. Granulosa cells were plated directly onto slides at a concentration of  $2 \times 10^5$  cells/mL in complete culture medium. Before application of treatments, granulosa cells isolated from small/medium follicles were cultured for 24 h and granulosa cells isolated from large follicles were cultured for 48 h to allow cells to adhere to the serum coated glass slide. After pre-incubation in complete culture medium, granulosa cells were washed in DPBS and medium was replaced with serum-free medium overnight prior to application of treatment to ensure a baseline quiescent localization of CEBPB. Immediately prior to treatment, cells were washed in DPBS and treated with either complete medium alone (containing 10% FCS) or complete medium containing 10<sup>4</sup> ng/mL LPS for 6 h or 24 h. Immediately following the treatment period, cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde for 15 min at room temperature (20-22°C). Cells were washed three times in DPBS and stored at 4°C. Slides were washed in PBS with 0.1% Tween (PBS/T) twice for 5 min each, and permeabilized in PBS containing 0.1% Triton-X for 10 min. Cells were washed three times in PBS/T and incubated in blocking solution containing 1% normal goat serum and 1% BSA in PBS for 1 h at room temperature (20-22°C). Cells were then incubated with rabbit anti-human CEBPβ antibody (1:500, Novus Biologicals) overnight with agitation at 4°C before washing three times in PBS/T and incubation with anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 secondary antibody (1:800, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 1 h at room temperature. Cells were washed and mounted using 50% glycerol in PBS containing 1.5 µg/mL Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Slides were imaged using a Zeiss Axio Observer 7 (Zeiss, Jena, Germany) fitted with an Andor DSD2 Confocal Unit and Zyla Plus 4.2-megapixel camera using a Plan-Apochromat 40× objective lens. A minimum of seven independent fields of view were quantified in granulosa cells of five replicates from small/medium follicles and seven replicates from large follicles. A no primary control was included to assess background staining. Nuclear localization of CEBPB was quantified using ImageJ by splitting the image into individual color channels, converting to a binary image and overlaying nuclear Hoechst location with CEBPβ labeling and calculating the mean fluorescence intensity of CEBPB for each nucleus (Schneider et al. 2012).

### Quantification of estradiol production

Estradiol accumulation in supernatants was measured by enzyme immunoassay (Estradiol sensitive ELISA, DRG International, Springfield, NJ) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and previously validated for cell culture supernatants (Bromfield et al. 2013). All samples were run in duplicate, and the limit of detection was 10.6 pg/mL. Samples were diluted if needed in standard zero buffer. The intra-assay coefficient of variation ranged from 1.49 to 5.6% depending on the experiment. The ELISA is reported to have 0% cross reactivity to androstenedione, corticosterone, progesterone or testosterone.

### Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS v26 (IBM Corporation, Armonk, NY). A general linear model was used to analyze estradiol, gene expression, protein abundance, and fluorescent intensity data. Gene expression data were log transformed for normality following a Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. Fixed effects depended on experiment, but replicate was always considered a random effect. For dose-dependent experiments, dose was used as the fixed effect and the least significant difference function was used for pairwise comparisons between doses. For time-course experiments and immunocytochemistry, time, LPS and the interaction between time and LPS were used as fixed effects and the least significant difference function was used for pairwise comparisons within a single timepoint. For the androstenedione experiment, androstenedione supplementation, LPS, and the interaction between androstenedione and LPS were used as fixed effects and the least significant difference function was used for pairwise comparisons within a single androstenedione dose. Statistical significance was set at  $P \le 0.05$ . Graphs were made using GraphPad Prism v9 (San Diego, CA) and depict estimated marginal means±standard error of the mean, unless otherwise stated.

### Results

### Lipopolysaccharide increases mRNA expression of inflammatory mediators and decreases estradiol secretion in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles

The purity of granulosa cells at the time of isolation from small/medium follicles was assessed to determine the presence of contaminating theca (*CYP17A1*) or CD45<sup>+</sup> hematopoietic immune cells (*PTPRC*) (Herath et al. 2007; Richards et al. 2018). Expression of *PTPRC* (Additional file 1: Fig. S3A) or *CYP17A1* (Additional file 1: Fig. S3B) was not detected in granulosa cells at the time of isolation from small/medium follicles, suggesting granulosa cell isolation yielded pure cultures. However, moderate

*CYP17A1* expression was observed in granulosa cells isolated from large follicle after a total of 72 h of culture, suggesting that a small number of contaminating theca cells have proliferated during the culture of granulosa cells from large follicles (Additional file 1: Fig. S3B).

Granulosa cells from small/medium follicles were treated with increasing concentrations LPS for 24 h in the presence of 1 ng/mL FSH and 1  $\mu$ M androstenedione (Fig. 1; n=10). Exposure of granulosa cells to 10<sup>4</sup> ng/mL LPS increased mRNA expression of both *CXCL8* and *IL6* compared to controls (Fig. 1A, B;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Granulosa cell mRNA expression of *CYP19A1* or *HSD17B1* was not affected by treatment with LPS for 24 h (Fig. 1C, D). In the absence of LPS, granulosa cells accumulated  $11.3 \pm 2.5$  ng/mL of estradiol in culture medium by 24 h. Interestingly, granulosa cells treated with either  $10^3$  or  $10^4$  ng/mL of LPS decreased estradiol accumulation by 29.8% and 47.6%, respectively compared to controls (Fig. 1E;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Treatment of granulosa cells with  $10^4$  ng/mL LPS for 24 h did not affect aromatase abundance measured by western blot (Fig. 1F; n = 4). As granulosa cells from small/medium follicles accumulated less estradiol in response to LPS in the absence of altered *CYP19A1* or *HSD17B1*, the mRNA expression of factors known to contribute to estradiol synthesis were evaluated (Fig. 2; n = 10). Expression of *AMH*, *ESR1*, *FSHR*, *LHGHR*, *STAR*, *HDAC1*, or *HDAC10* mRNA were all detected in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles but were not significantly affected by treatment with LPS for 24 h (Fig. 2A–G).

Because estradiol accumulation decreased after exposure of granulosa cells to  $10^3$  ng/mL of LPS for 24 h with no change to the expression of *CYP19A1*, *HSD17B1* mRNA or aromatase abundance, we evaluated gene expression in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles treated with  $10^4$  ng/mL of LPS for 0.5, 2, 4, 8 and 12 h anticipating temporal changes to gene expression







that were not observed after 24 h (Fig. 3; n=6). Treatment of granulosa cells from small/medium follicles with LPS increased mRNA expression of *CXCL8* by 0.5 h compared to controls and remained elevated by 12 h (Fig. 3A;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Treatment with LPS increased mRNA expression of *IL6* after 4 h compared to controls that remained elevated by 12 h (Fig. 3B;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Expression of *CYP19A1*, *HSD17B1*, and *STAR* (Fig. 3C–E) mRNA was not significantly affected by LPS treatment compared to controls; however, the mRNA expression of *CYP19A1* did increase over time ( $P \le 0.05$ ) independent of LPS treatment (Fig. 3D). Interestingly, LPS did not affect estradiol accumulation after 12 h compared to controls (Fig. 3F).

Collectively, granulosa cells of small/medium follicles responded to LPS by increasing mRNA expression of inflammatory mediators, and reduced estradiol secretion in the absence of altered *CYP19A1* expression or aromatase abundance.

# Excess androstenedione does not ameliorate LPS mediated reduction to estradiol accumulation in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles

Androstenedione supplementation is required for cultured granulosa cells to synthesize estradiol. As we observed decreased estradiol secretion after treatment with LPS for 24 h with no significant change in CYP19A1 or HSD17B1 mRNA expression or aromatase abundance, we aimed to determine if androstenedione availability contributed to LPS-mediated estradiol decreases in the presence of FSH (Fig. 4; n=6). In the absence of androstenedione, estradiol accumulation of granulosa cells was  $0.04\pm0.03$  ng/mL after 24 h and was similar  $(0.08 \pm 0.04 \text{ ng/mL})$  following treatment with  $10^3 \text{ ng/mL}$ of LPS. Overall, androstenedione increased 24 h estradiol accumulation independent of LPS (Fig. 4A;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Interestingly, 100 µM androstenedione decreased 24 h estradiol accumulation compared to 1 µM androstenedione, regardless of treatment with LPS (Fig. 4A; P < 0.05). Supplementation with and rostenedione (1 or 100  $\mu$ M) decreased expression of STAR mRNA compared to cells with no androstenedione (Fig. 4D; P < 0.05), while supplementation with 1  $\mu$ M and rost endione, but not 100 µM androstenedione, increased the mRNA expression of CYP19A1 compared to cells cultured in the absence of androstenedione (Fig. 4C;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Androstenedione supplementation did not affect HSD17B1 mRNA expression (Fig. 4B). Overall, treatment with LPS had no effect on mRNA expression of HSD17B, CYP19A1



for 0.5, 2, 4, 8, or 12 h. Gene expression of *CXCL8* (**A**), *IL6* (**B**), *HSD17B1* (**C**), *CYP19A1* (**D**) and *STAR* (**E**) were quantified by qPCR (n = 6). Accumulation of 17 $\beta$ -estradiol (**F**) was quantified at 12 h using ELISA (n = 6). Gene expression data were log transformed and data were analyzed using a general linear model with replicate as a random effect and the fixed effects of LPS, time, and the interaction of LPS and time followed by least significant difference pairwise comparisons. Data are presented as the estimated marginal means  $\pm$  S. E. M. Statistical significance for each test is presented when significant. \* indicates  $P \le 0.05$  compared to medium alone at a specific timepoint

or *STAR* (Fig. 4B-D). These data suggest that androstenedione supplementation is required by granulosa cells from small/medium follicles for estradiol accumulation, excess androstenedione impairs estradiol accumulation, and LPS mediated reductions in estradiol accumulation is independent of androstenedione availability.

### Lipopolysaccharide increases mRNA expression of inflammatory mediators and decreases estradiol secretion in granulosa cells from large follicles

To assess the impact of follicle size on the capacity of granulosa cells to respond to LPS, granulosa cells were isolated from large diameter (<8 mm) follicles and treated with  $10^3$  or  $10^4$  ng/mL LPS or control medium for 24 h in the presence of 1 ng/mL FSH and 1  $\mu$ M androstenedione (Fig. 5; n=9-14). After initial isolation from large follicles, cells displayed moderate *PTPRC* mRNA expression which was negligible 48 h after initial isolation and prior to the application of treatment and was absent 72 h after initial isolation (Additional file 1: Fig. S3C). The mRNA expression of *CYP17A1* was absent at the of initial isolation, but steadily increased up to 72 h after the end of the treatment period, suggesting a very small number of contaminating theca cells that proliferated during culture (Additional file 1: Fig. S3D).

Treatment with LPS for 24 h increased mRNA expression of *CXCL8* and *IL6* in granulosa cells from large follicles compared to controls (Fig. 5A, B;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Expression of *HSD17B1* mRNA was decreased after LPS treatment compared to controls (Fig. 5C;  $P \le 0.05$ ), while treatment with 10<sup>4</sup> ng/mL LPS reduced *CYP19A1* mRNA expression by 44.2% compared controls (Fig. 5D; P > 0.05). In the absence of LPS, granulosa cells from large follicles accumulated 9.5 ± 4.7 ng/mL of estradiol in 24 h which was reduced by 27.7% in cells treated with 10<sup>4</sup> ng/ mL of LPS (Fig. 5E;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Despite LPS reducing estradiol accumulation and *CYP19A1* gene expression, LPS had no effect on aromatase abundance measured by western blot (Fig. 5F; n = 4).

# Lipopolysaccharide alters the expression of CEBPB mRNA and intracellular localization of CEBP $\beta$ in granulosa cells

Expression of *CEBPB* mRNA was increased in granulosa cells of small/medium follicles treated with  $10^4$  ng/mL of LPS in the presence of 1 ng/mL FSH and 1  $\mu$ M androstenedione for 24 h compared to controls (Fig. 6A;  $P \le 0.05$ ), but not in granulosa cells from large follicles (Fig. 6C; n = 6-9). While CEBP $\beta$  protein was detected in granulosa cells of small/medium and large



follicles by western blot, treatment with LPS did not

alter total CEBP $\beta$  abundance (Fig. 6B and D; n = 4). The effect of LPS on CEBPß nuclear localization was evaluated in granulosa cells treated with 10<sup>4</sup> ng/mL of LPS or medium alone for 6 or 24 h in the presence of 1 ng/mL FSH and 1 µM androstenedione. Nuclear localization of CEBP $\beta$  was evaluated in  $163.8 \pm 24.8$ granulosa cells from small/medium follicle per replicate (Fig. 7A; n=5). Treatment of granulosa cells from small/medium follicles with LPS decreased nuclear abundance of CEBPB by 27.3% compared to controls, regardless of the treatment time (Fig. 7B;  $P \le 0.05$ ). Nuclear localization of CEBP $\beta$  was evaluated in  $104.5 \pm 77.3$  granulosa cells from large follicles per replicate (Fig. 8A; n = 7). Treatment of granulosa cells of large follicles with LPS tended to decrease nuclear abundance of CEBP<sub>β</sub> by 37.9% compared to controls, regardless of the treatment time (Fig. 8B; P = 0.09). Collectively, these data suggest that LPS treatment reduces CEBP $\beta$  nuclear localization without altering total CEBP $\beta$  abundance.

### Discussion

The mechanistic link between LPS treatment and reduced *CYP19A1* gene expression and estradiol synthesis in bovine granulosa cells is unknown. Here, bovine granulosa cells were isolated from small/medium follicles or large follicles and treated with LPS in vitro. As expected LPS increased gene expression of the pro-inflammatory mediators, *IL6* and *CXCL8*, and decreased estradiol accumulation after 24 h in both granulosa cell populations. Interestingly, LPS only reduced *CYP19A1* gene expression in granulosa cells from large follicles after 24 h, but not in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles, while aromatase protein abundance was not affected by LPS in either granulosa cell population. In parallel, gene expression of *CEBPB* was increased after LPS treatment in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles but remained



unchanged in granulosa cells from large follicles, while total protein abundance of CEBP $\beta$  was not altered by LPS in either granulosa cell population. Most interesting, LPS reduced nuclear translocation of CEBP $\beta$  in granulosa cells from small/medium follicles within 6 h which was still evident after 24 h.

While the cause of uterine infection associated subfertility is unknown, it likely involves organs other than the uterus, including the ovary. Despite the rarity of ovarian infection, uterine diseases are associated with reduced dominant follicle growth and estradiol production (Sheldon et al. 2002). Cows with a uterine infection accumulate LPS in dominant follicles, with LPS concentrations positively correlated with the severity of disease (Herath et al. 2007; Piersanti et al. 2019). Under culture conditions, purified granulosa cells mount a response to LPS via TLR4 to increased synthesis of inflammatory mediators such as IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, and IL-8 (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011; Price et al. 2013), and reduce estradiol secretion and *CYP19A1* gene expression (Herath et al. 2007; Price et al. 2013; Shimizu et al. 2012). Furthermore, the transcriptome of granulosa cells from cows with prior uterine disease is altered months after the resolution of uterine disease, suggesting long-term effects of infection on the follicular environment (Horlock et al. 2020; Piersanti et al. 2019). In the buffalo, histone deacetylases and CEBP $\beta$  regulate *CYP19A1* expression (Mehta et al. 2015; Yenuganti et al. 2017), while in mice, *Cebpb* knock out renders females infertile because granulosa cells cannot luteinize and corpus luteum function fails (Sterneck et al. 1997). Therefore, we hypothesized that LPS alters CEBP $\beta$ signaling to reduce *CYP19A1* expression and decrease estradiol secretion in bovine granulosa cells.

Granulosa cells begin expressing *CYP19A1* mRNA after follicle recruitment (4 mm) and continue to increase expression and estradiol synthesis until follicle are large



and preovulatory (Xu et al. 1995). In response to the preovulatory surge of luteinizing hormone, granulosa cells rapidly decrease *CYP19A1* mRNA expression (Komar et al. 2001; Richards 1994). Previous studies demonstrate that granulosa cells from small (<5 mm), medium (4–8 mm) or large (>8 mm) follicles reduce estradiol synthesis in response to LPS (Herath et al. 2007; Price et al. 2013; Shimizu et al. 2012). In parallel, granulosa cells from large follicles but not small or medium follicles decrease *CYP19A1* mRNA expression in response to LPS (Herath et al. 2007). As such, developmental stage of follicles predicates the response to LPS regarding estradiol synthesis.

The transcription factor CEBP $\beta$  modulates cellular processes involved in inflammation and fertility (Poli 1998; Sterneck et al. 1997). Synthesis of CEBP $\beta$  is induced by cytokines such as IL-6 or TNF $\alpha$  (Akira et al. 1990; Greenwel et al. 2000), while inflammatory mediators, including *IL6*, *CXCL8*, and *TNF* have consensus sequences for CEBP $\beta$  in their promoter regions (Matsusaka et al. 1993; Stein and Yang 1995; Wedel et al. 1996), suggesting regulation by feedback loops. Indeed, while CEBP $\beta$  has the capacity to regulate cytokine expression and possibly aromatase expression, the proinflammatory cytokines IL-6 or TNF $\alpha$  that are increased after LPS exposure can themselves also regulate estradiol synthesis (Taylor and Terranova 1996; Basini et al. 2002).

The role for CEBP $\beta$  in granulosa cell function varies between species. In mice and rats, human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) induces *Cebpb* expression in granulosa cells from antral follicles (Sirois and Richards 1993), and aromatase expression remains elevated in *Cebpb* knockout mice (Sterneck et al. 1997), suggesting a regulatory role for CEBP $\beta$  on aromatase in the mouse. Conversely, in bovine granulosa cells from large follicles (8–12 mm) CEBP $\beta$  abundance decreases following treatment with hCG (Liu et al. 1999) when estradiol synthesis and *CYP19A1* mRNA expression decrease.

Expression of *CYP19A1* mRNA is regulated by multiple promoters depending on the specific tissue type, with the proximal promoter II acting as the primary regulator of *CYP19A1* mRNA expression in granulosa cells





of mice, humans, and cows (Fürbass et al. 1997; Golovine et al. 2003; Means et al. 1991), however, promoter I.1 also contributes to *CYP19A1* mRNA expression in

the main effects of LPS and time, and presented as the estimated marginal means  $\pm$  S. E. M

bovine granulosa cells (Fürbass et al. 1997; Lenz et al. 2004). Interestingly, there is strong sequence homology (80%) between humans and cows for promoter II but

not for promoter I.1 (<50%). The bovine CYP19A1 promoter I.1 contains two consensus sequences for CEBPB and four CAAT transcription elements which are predicted to act as binding sites for CEBPB, while promoter II contains three CAAT elements (Fürbass et al. 1997). The regulatory role of CEBP $\beta$  on promoter II of CYP19A1 is conflicting. Binding of CEBPβ to promoter II in human adipose fibroblasts (Zhou et al. 2001), or promoter I.3/II sites in uterine leiomyomas cells stimulates CYP19A1 gene expression (Ishikawa et al. 2008), while CEBPB knockdown decreases CYP19A1 mRNA expression (Ishikawa et al. 2008), suggesting CEBPβ is a positive regulator of CYP19A1 gene expression. Conversely, overexpression of CEBPB reduces CYP19A1 promoter II activity in endometrial stromal cells (Yang et al. 2002). As the role for CEBP $\beta$  in the regulation of *CYP19A1* is not consistent amongst cell types or species, the relationship between a CEBPß and CYP19A1 expression in bovine granulosa cells cannot be inferred.

There is a binding site for CEBPβ in proximal promoter II of the CYP19A1 gene in buffalo granulosa cells, and LPS increases CEBP<sub>β</sub> binding to promoter II, increases total abundance and nuclear localization of CEBPB, reduces CYP19A1 mRNA expression and reduces estradiol synthesis in granulosa cells from small/medium buffalo follicles (Yenuganti et al. 2017). In contrast, our data show that LPS increased CEBPB gene expression, reduced CEBPB nuclear localization, decreased estradiol accumulation, but did not affect CYP19A1 mRNA expression in bovine granulosa cells from small/medium follicles; however, in granulosa cells from large bovine follicles LPS reduced nuclear localization of CEBPB and estradiol accumulation while CYP19A1 mRNA expression was again not affected. Although both cows and buffalo are part of the Bovidae family, there may be differences in CEBPB activity in response to LPS and subsequent control of estradiol synthesis. Biological variation between experimental replicates may also play a role in the interpretation of data presented here, as such increasing the number of biological replicates may produce different statistical findings while not necessarily addressing the biological mechanisms of LPS affected estradiol synthesis.

To demonstrate a mechanistic link between CEBPβ and estradiol synthesis, a knockdown of *CEBPB* mRNA in bovine granulosa cells is required. We have been successful in knocking down targets in bovine granulosa cells previously using siRNA (Bromfield and Sheldon 2011), and while we could knockdown *CEBPB* mRNA in bovine endometrial cells (data not shown) we failed in our attempts to knockdown *CEBPB* in bovine granulosa

cells here using siRNA, GapmeR or shRNA technologies. The future use of chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) sequencing would allow us to identify the genes CEBP<sub>β</sub> is regulating in response to LPS and to determine if CEBPβ is directly involved in CYP19A1 regulation in bovine granulosa cells. The role for other LPS mediated factors in estradiol regulation also needs to be considered. For example, ERK1/2 signaling is a primary driver of LPS/TLR4 responses, and mice lacking Erk1 and Erk2 in granulosa cells have erroneous Cyp19a1 downregulation following the preovulatory LH surge (Fan et al. 2011, 2009). Perhaps, there are intermediary molecules, such as ERK1/2, that contribute to CYP19A1 regulation. In the absence of a specific CEBPB knock down in bovine granulosa cells, caution must be taken to interpret associations described here in place of mechanistic causation.

### Conclusions

In conclusion, LPS increased inflammatory responses, and decreased estradiol accumulation of bovine granulosa cells from small/medium and large follicles. However, only granulosa cells of large follicles decreased expression of *CYP19A1* mRNA after treatment with LPS. Interestingly, LPS decreased CEBP $\beta$  nuclear translocation in granulosa cells of small/medium follicles. These data suggest that while LPS reduces estradiol synthesis in bovine granulosa cells, there are likely follicle stage specific mechanisms of estradiol regulation at play that may include CEBP $\beta$ .

### **Supplementary Information**

The online version contains supplementary material available at https://doi. org/10.1186/s43170-022-00133-3.

Additional file 1: Figure S1. Total protein stains from western blots. Each protein sample (10 µg) was loaded into a 10% gel and run for 1 h at 100 V. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose and stained for total protein. Membranes were imaged and guantified on the Li-Cor Odyessy CLx. Membranes used for western blot of granulosa cells from small/ medium follicles (A, C) or large follicles (B, D) to detect aromatase (A-B) or CEBPB (C-D) are shown and correspond to blots presented in the results section. Figure S2. Uncropped western blots. Each protein sample (10 µg) was loaded into a 10% gel and run for 1 h at 100 V. Proteins of granulosa cells from small/medium follicles (A, C) or large follicles (B, D) were transferred to nitrocellulose and blotted for aromatase (A-B) or CEBPB (C-D). Membranes were imaged and guantified on the Li-Cor Odyessy CLx. Membranes shown below correspond those shown as cropped images in the results section (Fig. 1F, 5F, 6B and 6D). Figure S3. Assessment of granulosa cell culture purity. Bovine granulosa cells (GC) from small/ medium (A-B) follicles or large (C-D) follicles were tested for the expression of the immune cell marker PTPRC (A, C) or the luteal cell marker CYP17A1 (B, D). Expression was evaluated after initial isolation (A) or following a period of culture, as indicated. Whole blood, testis, liver, corpus luteum (CL), peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) and water (H<sub>2</sub>O) were used as controls

#### Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Eddie Cummings for collecting ovaries from the slaughterhouse and the graduate students of Dr. Peter Hansen's laboratory for their cooperation in collecting granulosa cells.

### Author contributions

MJD, IMS, JJB conceived the experiments and wrote and proofread the manuscript, MJD conducted the experiments. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### Funding

This study was supported by Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health & Human Development of the National Institutes of Health under Award Number R01HD084316 and by Agriculture and Food Research Initiative Competitive Grant No. 2020-67015-31015 from the USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

### Availability of data and materials

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

### Declarations

**Ethics approval and consent to participate** Not applicable.

### **Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

### Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Department of Animal Sciences, University of Florida, P.O. Box 110910, Gainesville, FL 32611-0910, USA. <sup>2</sup>Swansea University Medical School, Swansea University, Swansea SA2 8PP, UK.

Received: 21 June 2022 Accepted: 27 September 2022 Published online: 22 October 2022

#### References

- Akira S, Isshiki H, Sugita T, Tanabe Kinoshita OS, Nishio Y, Nakajima T, et al. A nuclear factor for IL-6 expression (NF-IL6) is a member of a C/EBP family. EMBO J. 1990;9:1897–906. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1460-2075.1990. tb08316.x.
- Basini G, Mainardi GL, Bussolati S, Tamanini C. Steroidogenesis, proliferation and apoptosis in bovine granulosa cells: role of tumour necrosis factor-alpha and its possible signalling mechanisms. Reprod Fertil Dev. 2002;14:141–50. https://doi.org/10.1071/rd01049.
- Bromfield JJ, Sheldon IM. Lipopolysaccharide initiates inflammation in bovine granulosa cells via the TLR4 pathway and perturbs oocyte meiotic progression in vitro. Endocrinology. 2011;152:5029–40. https://doi.org/10. 1210/en.2011-1124.
- Bromfield JJ, Sheldon IM. Lipopolysaccharide reduces the primordial follicle pool in the bovine ovarian cortex ex vivo and in the murine ovary in vivo. Biol Reprod. 2013;88(4):98. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolreprod.112. 106914.
- Bustin SA, Benes V, Garson JA, Hellemans J, Huggett J, Kubista M, et al. The MIQE guidelines: minimum information for publication of quantitative real-time PCR experiments. Clin Chem. 2009;55:611–22. https://doi.org/ 10.1373/clinchem.2008.112797.
- Carvalho MR, Peñagaricano F, Santos JEP, Devries TJ, Mcbride BW, Ribeiro ES. Long-term effects of postpartum clinical disease on milk production, reproduction, and culling of dairy cows. J Dairy Sci. 2019. https://doi.org/ 10.3168/jds.2019-17025.

- Dickson MJ, Piersanti RL, Ramirez-Hernandez R, de Oliveira EB, Bishop JV, Hansen TR, et al. Experimentally induced endometritis impairs the developmental capacity of bovine oocytes. Biol Reprod. 2020;103:508–20. https://doi.org/10.1093/biolre/ioaa129.
- Fan HY, Liu Z, Shimada M, Sterneck E, Johnson PF, Hedrick SM, et al. MAPK3/1 (ERK1/2) in ovarian granulosa cells are essential for female fertility. Science. 2009;324:938–41. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1171396.
- Fan HY, Liu Z, Johnson PF, Richards JAS. CCAAT/enhancer-binding proteins (C/ EBP)- $\alpha$  and - $\beta$  are essential for ovulation, luteinization, and the expression of key target genes. Mol Endocrinol. 2011;25:253–68. https://doi.org/10. 1210/me.2010-0318.
- Fortune JE. Bovine theca and granulosa cells interact to promote androgen production. Biol Reprod. 1986;35:292–9. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolreprod35.2.292.
- Fürbass R, Kalbe C, Vanselow J. Tissue-specific expression of the bovine aromatase-encoding gene uses multiple transcriptional start sites and alternative first exons. Endocrinology. 1997;138:2813–9. https://doi.org/ 10.1210/endo.138.7.5257.
- Golovine K, Schwerin M, Vanselow J. Three different promoters control expression of the aromatase cytochrome P450 gene (Cyp19) in mouse gonads and brain. Biol Reprod. 2003;68:978–84. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolr eprod.102.008037.
- Greenwel P, Tanaka S, Penkov D, Zhang W, Olive M, Moll J, et al. Tumor necrosis factor alpha inhibits type I collagen synthesis through repressive CCAAT/ Enhancer-binding proteins. Mol Cell Biol. 2000;20:912–8.
- Gutiérrez CG, Campbell BK, Webb R. Development of a long-term bovine granulosa cell culture system: induction and maintenance of estradiol production, response to follicle-stimulating hormone, and morphological characteristics. Biol Reprod. 1997;56:608–16. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolr eprod56.3.608.
- Herath S, Williams EJ, Lilly ST, Gilbert RO, Dobson H, Bryant CE, et al. Ovarian follicular cells have innate immune capabilities that modulate their endocrine function. Reproduction. 2007;134:683–93. https://doi.org/10. 1530/REP-07-0229.
- Horlock AD, Piersanti RL, Ramirez-Hernandez R, Yu F, Ma Z, Jeong KC, et al. Uterine infection alters the transcriptome of the bovine reproductive tract three months later. Reproduction. 2020;160:93–107. https://doi.org/ 10.1530/REP-19-0564.
- Horlock AD, Ormsby TJR, Clift MJD, Santos JEP, Bromfield JJ, Sheldon IM. Manipulating bovine granulosa cell energy metabolism limits inflammation. Reproduction. 2021;161:499–512. https://doi.org/10.1530/REP-20-0554.
- Horlock AD, Ormsby TJR, Clift MJD, Santos JEP, Bromfield JJ, Sheldon IM. Cholesterol supports bovine granulosa cell inflammatory responses to lipopolysaccharide. Reproduction. 2022;164:109–23. https://doi.org/10. 1530/REP-22-0032.
- Ishikawa H, Fencki V, Marsh EE, Yin P, Chen D, Cheng Y-H, et al. CCAAT/Enhancer binding protein β regulates aromatase expression via multiple and novel cis-regulatory sequences in uterine leiomyoma. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2008;93:981–91. https://doi.org/10.1210/jc.2007-2507.
- Khan MI, Dias FC, Dufort I, Misra V, Sirard MA, Singh J. Stable reference genes in granulosa cells of bovine dominant follicles during follicular growth, FSH stimulation and maternal aging. Reprod Fertil Dev. 2016;28:795–805. https://doi.org/10.1071/RD14089.
- Komar CM, Berndtson AK, Evans ACO, Fortune JE. Decline in circulating estradiol during the periovulatory period is correlated with decreases in estradiol and androgen, and in messenger RNA for P450 aromatase and P450 17α-hydroxylase, in bovine preovulatory follicles. Biol Reprod. 2001;64:1797–805. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolreprod64.6.1797.
- LeBlanc SJ, Duffield TF, Leslie KE, Bateman KG, Keefe GP, Walton JS, et al. Defining and diagnosing postpartum clinical endometritis and its impact on reproductive performance in dairy cows. J Dairy Sci. 2002;85:2223–36. https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(02)74302-6.
- Lenz S, Pöhland R, Becker F, Vanselow J. Expression of the bovine aromatase cytochrome P450 gene (Cyp19) is primarily regulated by promoter 2 in bovine follicles and by promoter 1.1 in corpora lutea. Mol Reprod Dev. 2004;67:406–13. https://doi.org/10.1002/mrd.20000.
- Li H, Guo S, Cai L, Ma W, Shi Z. Lipopolysaccharide and heat stress impair the estradiol biosynthesis in granulosa cells via increase of HSP70 and

inhibition of smad3 phosphorylation and nuclear translocation. Cell Signal. 2017;30:130–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cellsig.2016.12.004.

- Liu JJ, Antaya M, Boerboom D, Lussier JG, Silversides DW, Sirois J. The delayed activation of the prostaglandin G/H synthase-2 promoter in bovine granulosa cells is associated with down-regulation of truncated upstream stimulatory factor-2. J Biol Chem. 1999;274:35037–45. https://doi.org/10. 1074/jbc.274.49.35037.
- Magata F, Horiuchi M, Miyamoto A, Shimizu T. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) inhibits steroid production in theca cells of bovine follicles in vitro: distinct effect of LPS on theca cell function. J Reprod Dev. 2014;60:280–7.
- Matsusaka T, Fujikawa K, Nishio Y, Mukaida N, Matsushima K, Kishimoto T, et al. Transcription factors NF-IL6 and NF-κB synergistically activate transcription of the inflammatory cytokines, interleukin 6 and interleukin 8. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 1993;90:10193–7. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.90.21. 10193.
- Means GD, Kilgore MW, Mahendroo MS, Mendelson CR, Simpson ER. Tissuespecific promoters regulate aromatase cytochrome P450 gene expression in human ovary and fetal tissues. Mol Endocrinol. 1991;5:2005–13.
- Mehta A, Ravinder Onteru SK, Singh D. HDAC inhibitor prevents LPS mediated inhibition of CYP19A1 expression and 17β-estradiol production in granulosa cells. Mol Cell Endocrinol. 2015;414:73–81. https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.mce.2015.07.002.
- Miller WL. Steroidogenic acute regulatory protein (StAR), a novel mitochondrial cholesterol transporter. Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Cell Biol Lipids. 2007;1771:663–76. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbalip.2007.02.012.
- Onnureddy K, Ravinder, Onteru SK, Singh D. IGF-1 attenuates LPS induced proinflammatory cytokines expression in buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*) granulosa cells. Mol Immunol. 2015;64:136–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molimm. 2014.11.008.
- Piersanti RL, Horlock AD, Block J, Santos JEP, Sheldon IM, Bromfield JJ. Persistent effects on bovine granulosa cell transcriptome after resolution of uterine disease. Reproduction. 2019;158:35–46. https://doi.org/10.1530/ REP-19-0037.
- Poli V. The role of C/EBP isoforms in the control of inflammatory and native immunity functions. J Biol Chem. 1998;273:29279–82. https://doi.org/10. 1074/jbc.273.45.29279.
- Price JC, Bromfield JJ, Sheldon IM. Pathogen-asssociated molecular patterns initiate inflammation and perturb the endocrine function of bovine granulosa cells from ovarian dominant follicles via TLR2 and TLR4 Pathways. Endocrinology. 2013;154:3377–86. https://doi.org/10.1210/en.2013-1102.
- Richards JS. Hormonal control of gene expression in the ovary. Endocr Rev. 1994;15:725–51. https://doi.org/10.1210/edrv-15-6-725.
- Richards JS, Ren YA, Candelaria N, Adams JE, Rajkovic A. Ovarian follicular theca cell recruitment, differentiation, and impact on fertility: 2017 update. Endocr Rev. 2018;39:1–20. https://doi.org/10.1210/er.2017-00164.
- Schneider CA, Rasband WS, Eliceiri KW. NIH ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. Nat Methods. 2012;9:671–5. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.2089.
- Sheldon IM, Noakes DE, Rycroft AN, Pfeiffer DU, Dobson H. Influence of uterine bacterial contamination after parturition on ovarian dominant follicle selection and follicle growth and function in cattle. Reproduction. 2002;123:837–45.
- Sheldon IM, Cronin J, Goetze L, Donofrio G, Schuberth HJ. Defining postpartum uterine disease and the mechanisms of infection and immunity in the female reproductive tract in cattle. Biol Reprod. 2009;81:1025–32. https://doi.org/10.1095/biolreprod.109.077370.
- Shimizu T, Miyauchi K, Shirasuna K, Bollwein H, Magata F, Murayama C, et al. Effects of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and peptidoglycan (PGN) on estradiol production in bovine granulosa cells from small and large follicles. Toxicol Vitr. 2012;26:1134–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tiv.2012.06.014.
- Shimizu T, Echizenya R, Miyamoto A. Effect of lipopolysaccharide on progesterone production during luteinization of granulosa and theca cells in vitro. J Biochem Mol Toxicol. 2016;30:206–11. https://doi.org/10.1002/jbt.21783.
- Sirois J, Richards JS. Transcriptional regulation of the rat prostaglandin endoperoxide synthase 2 gene in granulosa cells. Evidence for the role of a cis-acting C/EBPβ promoter element. J Biol Chem. 1993;268:21931–8. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0021-9258(20)80630-9.
- Stein B, Yang MX. Repression of the interleukin-6 promoter by estrogen receptor is mediated by NF-kappa B and C/EBP beta. Mol Cell Biol. 1995;15:4971–9. https://doi.org/10.1128/mcb.15.9.4971.
- Sterneck E, Tessarollo L, Johnson PF. An essential role for C/EBPB in female reproduction. Genes Dev. 1997;11:2153–62.

- Taylor CC, Terranova PF. Lipopolysaccharide inhibits in vitro luteinizing hormone-stimulated rat ovarian granulosa cell estradiol but not progesterone secretion. Biol Reprod. 1996;54:1390–6. https://doi.org/10.1095/ biolreprod54.6.1390.
- Wedel A, Sulski G, Ziegler-Heitbrock HWL. CCAAT/enhancer binding protein is involved in the expression of the tumour necrosis factor gene in human monocytes. Cytokine. 1996;8:335–41. https://doi.org/10.1006/cyto.1996. 0046.
- Williams EJ, Sibley K, Miller AN, Lane EA, Fishwick J, Nash DM, et al. The effect of *Escherichia coli* lipopolysaccharide and tumour necrosis factor alpha on ovarian function. Am J Reprod Immunol. 2008;60:462–73.
- Xu Z, Garverick HA, Smith GW, Smith MF, Hamiton SA, Youngquist RS. Expression of messenger ribonucleic acid encoding cytochrome P450 sidechain cleavage, cytochrome P450 17alpha-hydroxylae, and cytochrome P450 aromatase in bovine follicles during the first follicular wave. Endocrinology. 1995;136:981–9.
- Yang S, Fang Z, Suzuki T, Sasano H, Zhou J, Gurates B, et al. Regulation of aromatase P450 expression in endometriotic and endometrial stromal cells by CCAAT/enhancer binding proteins (C/EBPs): decreased C/EBPβ in endometriosis is associated with overexpression of aromatase. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2002;87:2336–45. https://doi.org/10.1210/jc.87.5.2336.
- Yenuganti VR, Ravinder Singh D. Endotoxin induced TLR4 signaling downregulates CYP19A1 expression through CEBPB in buffalo granulosa cells. Toxicol Vitr. 2017;42:93–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tiv.2017.04.012.
- Yoshimoto FK, Guengerich FP. Mechanism of the third oxidative step in the conversion of androgens to estrogens by cytochrome P450 19A1 steroid aromatase. J Am Chem Soc. 2014;136:15016–25. https://doi.org/10.1021/ja508185d.
- Zhou J, Gurates B, Yang S, Sebastian S, Bulun SE. Malignant breast epithelial cells stimulate aromatase expression via promoter II in human adipose fibroblasts: an epithelial-stromal interaction in breast tumors mediated by CCAAT/enhancer binding protein β1. Cancer Res. 2001;61:2328–34.

### **Publisher's Note**

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

### Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

### At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more biomedcentral.com/submissions

