Luteinizing hormone stimulates ingression of granulosa cells within the mouse preovulatory follicle.

Corie M. Owen and Laurinda A. Jaffe

Department of Cell Biology, University of Connecticut Health Center, Farmington, CT 06030 USA

*Authors for correspondence (coowen@uchc.edu, ljaffe@uchc.edu)

RUNNING TITLE: Granulosa cell ingression

KEY WORDS: Ovarian follicle, luteinizing hormone receptor, granulosa cell, ingression, ovulation, mouse

SUMMARY STATEMENT: In response to luteinizing hormone, granulosa cells expressing its

receptor elongate into the mouse ovarian follicle interior; the ingression may contribute to

changes in follicular structure that enable ovulation.

ABSTRACT

Luteinizing hormone (LH) induces ovulation by initiating signaling by the mural granulosa

cells that surround a mammalian oocyte in an ovarian follicle. However, much remains

unknown about how LH activation of its receptor (LHR) modifies the structure of the follicle

such that the oocyte is released and the follicle remnants are transformed into the corpus

luteum. The present study shows that the preovulatory surge of LH stimulates LHR-

expressing granulosa cells, initially located almost entirely in the outer layers of the mural

granulosa, to rapidly extend inwards, intercalating between other cells. The proportion of

LHR-expressing cell bodies in the inner half of the mural wall increases until the time of

ovulation, with no change in the total number of cells expressing the receptor. Many of the

initially flask-shaped cells appear to detach from the basal lamina, acquiring a rounder shape

with multiple filipodia. Following the ingression of the LHR-expressing cells, but still hours

before ovulation, the follicular wall develops numerous invaginations and constrictions. LH

stimulation of granulosa cell ingression may contribute to changes in the follicular structure

that enable ovulation.

INTRODUCTION

Mammalian oocytes are maintained and grow within ovarian follicles, structures comprised of many concentric layers of somatic cells. Directly around the oocyte are cumulus cells, and outside of these are mural granulosa cells, a basal lamina, and a theca layer including steroidogenic cells, fibroblasts, smooth muscle cells, and vasculature (Richards et al., 2018) (Figure 1A). During each reproductive cycle, granulosa cells of preovulatory follicles start to express receptors for luteinizing hormone (LH) (Baena et al., 2020; Bortolussi et al., 1979; Uilenbroek and Richards, 1979), which is released from the pituitary to stimulate ovulation. The LH receptor (LHR) is expressed on a subset of the outer granulosa cells, as well as some theca cells (Baena et al., 2020; Bortolussi et al., 1977; Bortolussi et al., 1979; Eppig et al., 2002; Peng et al., 1991; Richards et al., 1976; Uilenbroek and Richards, 1979). Binding of LH to its receptor induces meiotic resumption in the oocyte and changes in gene expression in the granulosa cells, via a G-protein-coupled signaling cascade (Das and Arur, 2022; Duffy et al., 2019; Hughes and Murphy, 2021; Jaffe and Egbert, 2017; Liu et al., 2014; Richards and Ascoli, 2018; Sposini and Hanyaloglu, 2018).

Activation of the LHR also causes complex structural changes in the follicle. These include chromosomal and cytoskeletal rearrangements as meiosis progresses in the oocyte (Harasimov et al., 2023), secretion of an extracellular matrix from the cumulus cells and loss of connections between these cells and the oocyte (Clarke, 2022; Eppig, 1982), and thinning of the mural granulosa and theca layers at the apex where ovulation will occur (Downs and Longo, 1983; Lipner and Cross, 1968; Martin and Talbot, 1987; Migone et al., 2016). The thinning of the apical layers is correlated with vasoconstriction and reduced blood flow in the apical region of the theca (Migone et al., 2016). At the time of ovulation, the basal lamina around the granulosa cells breaks down and blood vessels from the theca grow inwards as the remnants of the follicle transform into the corpus luteum, which produces progesterone to support pregnancy (Stocco et al., 2007).

As ovulation approaches, the mural granulosa and theca layers in the basal lateral region of the follicle develop constrictions, and these are thought to contribute to expelling the oocyte and surrounding cumulus cells (Brown et al., 2010; Gothié, 1967; Ko et al., 2006; Martin and Talbot, 1981; Szołtys et al., 1994; Talbot and Chacon, 1982). The preovulatory constrictions may be mediated in part by contraction of smooth muscle cells in the overlying theca (Martin and Talbot, 1981), in response to endothelin-2 produced by the granulosa cells (Ko et al., 2006;

Ko et al., 2022; Palanisamy et al., 2006). However, granulosa-specific deletion of endothelin-
2 in mice only partially inhibits ovulation (Cacioppo et al., 2017), indicating that additional
factors may contribute to the follicular constriction.

One such factor is suggested by evidence that LH induces migration (Bianco et al., 2019;
Grossman et al., 2015) and shape changes (Ben-Ze'ev and Amsterdam, 1989; Karlsson et al.,
2010) in isolated granulosa cells. Since cell migration and shape changes can regulate tissue
architecture in other developmental systems (Lecuit and Lenne, 2007; Walck-Shannon and
Hardin, 2014), including the *Drosophila* ovarian follicle (Parsons et al., 2023), we examined
whether LH stimulates cell motility in LHR-expressing granulosa cells within ovarian follicles.

By collecting ovaries for imaging at designated times after a physiological LH stimulus, we
obtained a precise timecourse of changes in LHR localization over the period leading to
ovulation. We discovered that LH stimulates granulosa cells that express its receptor to extend
inwards in the follicle, intercalating between other granulosa cells. This LH-stimulated
granulosa cell motility may influence the structure of the follicle as it prepares for ovulation and
transformation into a corpus luteum.
105
106

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

LH release was stimulated by intraperitoneal injection of kisspeptin (Owen et al., 2021), a neuropeptide that causes gonadotropin releasing hormone to be secreted from the hypothalamus, which in turn causes release of LH into the bloodstream (Stevenson et al., 2022). The rise in serum LH peaks ~1.5 hours after kisspeptin injection and is comparable in amplitude and duration to the endogenous LH surge (Owen et al., 2021).

With the experimental conditions used here, ovulation occurred between 11 and 12 hours after injection of mice with kisspeptin (Figure 1B). The timing and number of oocytes released were similar comparing HA-LHR and wild-type mice, and similar comparing kisspeptin and human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG), which is commonly used to stimulate ovulation (Figure 1B). Based on these kinetics, ovaries from HA-LHR mice were collected, fixed, and frozen, either before kisspeptin injection, or at 2 hour intervals afterwards (Figure 1C). Ovary cryosections were then labelled with an HA antibody, and the localization of HA-LHR expressing cells was analyzed.

LH induces inward extension of LHR-expressing granulosa cells within the preovulatory follicle

The localization of cells expressing the LHR was investigated after a physiological LH stimulus, using a recently developed mouse line with a hemagglutinin (HA) tag on the endogenous LHR (HA-LHR) to allow specific immunolocalization of the LHR protein (Baena et al., 2020). The heterogenous expression of the LHR within the mural epithelium allows individual cells to be well visualized (Baena et al., 2020). The mural granulosa region of a mouse preovulatory follicle is comprised of ~5-15 layers of cells, located between the basal lamina and the fluid-filled antrum (Baena and Terasaki, 2019; Baena et al., 2020; Norris et al., 2007; Figures 1A, 2A, S1). Before LHR stimulation, almost all of the LHR-expressing cell bodies in the mural granulosa are located in its outer half, and within this region, expression is heterogeneous (Baena et al., 2020). Many of the LHR-expressing granulosa cells have an elongated flask-like shape, with the cell bodies containing their nuclei located a few cell layers away from the basal lamina and long processes extending back to the basal lamina, forming a pseudostratified epithelium (Baena et al., 2020; Lipner and Cross, 1968; Figures 2A, S1). In the present study, only ~7% of the total LHR-expressing granulosa cell bodies were found in the inner half of the mural granulosa region before LHR stimulation (Figure 3A,B).

At 2 hours after kisspeptin injection (~30 minutes after the peak of the induced LH surge),

the percentage of LHR-expressing cell bodies in the inner mural layer had increased to ~21%

(Figures 2B, 3B, S2). At later time points after kisspeptin injection, this percentage continued

to increase, reaching ~35% at 10 hours (Figures 2C-F, 3B, S3-S6). Ovulation occurred at ~12

hours after kisspeptin (Figures 1B, 2G, S7). Injection with PBS instead of kisspeptin did not

change the percentage of LHR-expressing cells in the inner mural granulosa layer at 6 hours,

indicating that the localization change is dependent on LH (Figures 3B, S8).

During the 10 hours after kisspeptin injection, there was no change in the percentage of

mural granulosa cells expressing HA-LHR protein (Figure 3C). Because studies of rat ovaries

have shown that LHR stimulation decreases LHR mRNA and LHR ligand binding in

homogenates (LaPolt et al., 1990; Richards et al., 1976; Segaloff et al., 1990; Zheng et al.,

2020), the lack of effect of LHR stimulation on the number of granulosa cells expressing the

LHR over the 10-hour period after injection of mice with kisspeptin was surprising. Therefore,

the HA-LHR protein content of ovaries from mice injected with kisspeptin was assessed by

quantitative western blotting. The results indicated the LHR protein levels were unchanged

over the 12-hour period after injection (Figure S9). Possible explanations for this apparent

difference from previous reports include differences in hormonal stimulation protocols (Zheng

et al., 2020) and differences between rats and mice. In addition, it is possible that as previously

noted (LaPolt et al., 1990), the observed decrease in LHR ligand binding could be due to

internalization of the LHR in granulosa cells (Sposini and Hanyaloglu, 2018) rather than a

decrease in total LHR protein.

LH induces an epithelial-to-mesenchymal-like transition in LHR-expressing granulosa

cells

High resolution Airyscan images of ovaries from mice before and after kisspeptin injection

showed that by 6 hours many LHR-expressing cells in the follicle interior were rounder

compared to the predominantly flask-shaped cells seen near the basal lamina prior to LHR

stimulation (Figures 3D,E, S10, S11). At 6 hours, many of the LHR-expressing cells had lost a

visible attachment to the basal lamina, suggesting that these cells had detached, undergoing

an epithelial-to-mesenchymal-like transition (Figures 3E,F, S11). Alternatively, the cellular

processes connecting these cell bodies to the basal lamina might have been too thin to see

with light microscopy or might not have been contained within the 10 μm thick section. These

cells often had numerous filopodia extending in many directions, as well as membrane blebs

(Figure 3E,F), consistent with the presence of filopodia and blebs on other migratory cells
(Paluch and Raz, 2013; Truszkowski et al., 2023; Xue et al., 2010).
175

LH induces invaginations of the basal lamina and constrictions of the follicle wall
The LH-induced extension of the LHR-expressing granulosa cells into the inner half of the
mural layer, and the associated changes in cell shape, raised the question of how these cellular
events might correlate with changes in the shape of the follicle as a whole. Labeling of the
basal lamina in equatorial sections of follicles in ovaries revealed that follicular shape changes
began as early as 6 hours after kisspeptin injection, 6 hours before ovulation (Figures 4, S1B,
S4B, S5B, S6B). In follicles in ovaries from mice that had not been injected with kisspeptin, the
basal lamina was smooth, with only occasional inward deflections (Figure 4A, C). However, at
6-10 hours after kisspeptin injection, the basal lamina showed numerous invaginations, ranging
in depth from 5 to 100 μm (Figures 4B-D). The invaginations were localized almost entirely on
the basolateral sides of the follicles, and their number increased between 6 and 10 hours after
kisspeptin injection (Figure 4E). In addition to the invaginations, equatorial sections of follicles
at 8 and 10 hours after kisspeptin injection usually showed large constrictions, where the follicle
wall appeared to have contracted on the baso-lateral side (Figures 4C, S5, S6). At 8 hours,
many had a concavity on the apical side (Figures 4B, C, S5).
Invaginations and constrictions in the follicular wall have been reported previously, in studies
of mice, rats, and hamsters (Brown et al., 2010; Gothié, 1967; Ko et al., 2006; Martin and
Talbot, 1981; Szołtys et al., 1994; Talbot and Chacon, 1982). Almost all of these previously
described shape changes were seen at the time of ovulation or within the hour preceding it,
although one study of rats described such shape changes at ~2 hours before ovulation (Szołtys
et al., 1994). Our studies indicate that follicular shape changes begin as early as 6 hours before
ovulation.
The early changes in follicular shape reported here precede the synthesis of endothelin
mRNA by the granulosa cells, which is first detected at 11 hours after injection of mice with the
LHR agonist hCG (Palanisamy et al., 2006), corresponding to ~1 hour before ovulation (Figure
1B). Therefore, endothelin-induced constriction of the follicle mediated by contraction of
smooth muscle cells in the theca (Ko et al., 2006; Ko et al., 2022) cannot account for these
early changes in follicular shape. The extension of LHR-expressing cells into the basolateral
follicle wall could be one of the contributing factors.

Investigation of the possible relationship between these invaginations and constrictions and
the preceding ingression of LHR-expressing granulosa cells within the follicle could be
furthered by knowledge of the cytoskeletal changes that cause the cells to extend, such that
the ingression could be inhibited. Notably, activation of the actin severing and depolymerizing
protein cofilin is required for LH-stimulated granulosa cell motility in vitro (Karlsson et al., 2010),
suggesting a possible function of cofilin in granulosa cell ingression within the follicle in vivo.
Cofilin is also essential for other developmental processes involving cellular extension, such
as axon growth (Tedeschi et al., 2019). Mice with genetically modified cofilin or other
cytoskeletal proteins in their granulosa cells could be used to investigate the cytoskeletal
mechanisms that mediate LH-induced granulosa cell ingression in preovulatory follicles, and
the consequences for follicular shape changes and ovulation. Acting together with contractile
events occurring outside of the basal lamina (Ko et al., 2006; Ko et al., 2022; Migone et al.,
2016), LH-induced ingression of LHR-expressing cells within the mural granulosa layer is a
new component in the complex sequence of structural changes in the follicle that lead to
ovulation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice

Protocols covering the maintenance and experimental use of mice were approved by the Institutional Animal Care Committee at the University of Connecticut Health Center. Mice with an HA tag on the endogenous LH receptor were as described by Baena et al. (2020); homozygotes were used for all experiments. The HA-LHR and wildtype mouse background was C57BL/6J.

Hormone injections of mice for collection of ovaries and assessment of ovulation

Ovaries containing preovulatory follicles were obtained by injecting 22–24-day-old mice intraperitoneally with 5 I.U. equine chorionic gonadotropin (ProSpec #HOR-272). 44 hours later, the mice were injected with 1 nmol kisspeptin-54 (Cayman Chemical, #24477) to stimulate an endogenous LH surge (Owen et al., 2021). Ovaries were dissected at indicated time points after kisspeptin injection.

To assess ovulation, cumulus-oocyte complexes were collected from oviducts dissected after hormone injections as described above. For figure 1B, some mice were injected with human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG, 5 I.U., ProSpec #HOR-250) instead of kisspeptin. Cumulus-oocyte complexes were dissociated by pipetting and then counted.

Preparation of ovary cryosections for immunofluorescence microscopy

Ovaries were frozen, fixed, cryosectioned, and labelled for immunofluorescence microscopy as previously described (Baena et al., 2020). Sections were 10 μm thick. Antibody sources and concentrations are listed in Table S1. Equatorial sections of follicles, defined as sections including the oocyte, were used for imaging.

Confocal and Airyscan imaging

Ovarian cryosections were imaged with a confocal microscope (LSM800 or LSM980, Carl Zeiss Microscopy). To image entire follicle cross-sections, a 20x/0.8 NA Plan-Apochromat objective was used. Small regions of follicles were imaged using a 63x/1.4 NA Plan-Apochromat objective with an Airyscan detector to enhance resolution. Images of optical sections were reconstructed using the 2-dimensional Airyscan processing at standard strength. Brightness and contrast were adjusted after analysis in Fiji software.

Image analysis

To quantify the percentage of HA-LHR expressing cell bodies that were located in the inner half of the mural granulosa layer (Figure 3A,B), inner and outer halves were defined as previously described (Baena et al., 2020). In brief, the width of the mural granulosa layer from antrum to basal lamina was measured at 8 radial positions for each follicle, and halfway points were marked. These points were then connected to define the boundary of the inner and outer mural. The basal lamina position was identified by locating the outer edge of the outermost layer of granulosa cells, or by labeling with an antibody against laminin gamma 1. HA-LHR expressing cell bodies were identified as DAPI-stained nuclei that were surrounded by HA labeling, and were counted in inner and outer mural granulosa cell regions using the Cell Counter Tool in Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). The percentage of HA-LHR expressing cells in the inner mural was calculated by dividing the number of HA-LHR expressing cells in the inner mural by the total number of HA-LHR-expressing cells in the inner and outer mural regions. The percentage of mural granulosa cells that expressed the HA-LHR (Figure 3C) was calculated by dividing the total number HA-LHR expressing cells by the total number of DAPI-stained nuclei.

Basal lamina invaginations were analyzed using images of equatorial sections in which the basal lamina was labelled with an antibody against laminin gamma 1 (Table S1). Invaginations were defined as regions where the basal lamina curved inwards to a depth of 5-100 μm, with a width of ≤150 μm. The depth of each invagination (Figure 4D) was determined by drawing a line connecting the 2 points on the basal lamina at which it curved inwards, and then measuring the distance between that line and the deepest point of the invagination. For counts of the number of invaginations per cross-section (Figure 4E), the apical region of the follicle was defined as the mural granulosa region adjacent to the surface epithelium. The basolateral region was defined as the rest of the mural granulosa.

Western blotting

For measurement of HA-LHR protein content (Figure S9), ovaries were collected at designated time points and sonicated in 1% SDS with protease inhibitors (Norris et al., 2008). Protein concentrations were determined with a BCA assay (Thermo Scientific, #23227) and 40 μg of total protein was loaded per lane. Western blots were probed with an antibody against the HA epitope, developed using a fluorescent secondary antibody (Table S1), and detected

with an Odyssey imager (LICOR, Lincoln, NE). Blots were co-imaged with the Revert stain for

total protein (LICOR), and HA-LHR fluorescence intensity was normalized to the Revert

fluorescence intensity for each lane. Values were then normalized to that for the ovary without

kisspeptin injection.

Statistics

Analyses were conducted as indicated in the figure legends using Prism 9 (GraphPad

Software, Inc, La Jolla, CA). All values are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean

(SEM).

Acknowledgements

We thank Lydia Sorokin and Siegmund Budny for generously providing the laminin antibody,

Deb Kaback and Tracy Uliasz for technical assistance, Mark Terasaki, Jeremy Egbert, Rachael

Norris, Siu-Pok Yee, Valentina Baena, Tabea Marx, Chris Thomas, and Melina Schuh for

helpful discussions, and John Eppig for critical reading of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Funding

This work was supported by the *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health

and Human Development (R37 HD014939 to L.A.J., and F31 HD107918 to C.M.O.).

Data availability

All relevant data can be found within the article and its supplementary information.

REFERENCES

Baena, V. and Terasaki, M. (2019). Three-dimensional organization of transzonal

projections and other cytoplasmic extensions in the mouse ovarian follicle. *Sci Rep* **9**,

1–13.

Baena, V., Owen, C. M., Uliasz, T. F., Lowther, K. M., Yee, S.-P., Terasaki, M., Egbert, J.

R. and Jaffe, L. A. (2020). Cellular heterogeneity of the luteinizing hormone receptor

and its significance for cyclic GMP signaling in mouse preovulatory follicles.

Endocrinology **161**, bqaa074.

Ben-Ze'ev, A. and Amsterdam, A. (1989). Regulation of cytoskeletal protein organization

and expression in human granulosa cells in response to gonadotropin treatment.

Endocrinology **124**, 1033–1041.

Bianco, S., Bellefleur, A.-M., Beaulieu, É., Beauparlant, C. J., Bertolin, K., Droit, A.,

Schoonjans, K., Murphy, B. D. and Gévry, N. (2019). The ovulatory signal

precipitates LRH-1 transcriptional switching mediated by differential chromatin

accessibility. *Cell Reports* **28**, 2443-2454.e4.

Bortolussi, M., Marini, G. and Dal Lago, A. (1977). Autoradiographic study of the

distribution of LH(HCG) receptors in the ovary of untreated and gonadotrophin-primed

immature rats. *Cell Tissue Res.* **183**, 329–342.

Bortolussi, M., Marini, G. and Reolon, M. L. (1979). A histochemical study of the binding of

125I-HCG to the rat ovary throughout the estrous cycle. *Cell Tissue Res* **197**, 213–

226.

Brown, H. M., Dunning, K. R., Robker, R. L., Boerboom, D., Pritchard, M., Lane, M. and

Russell, D. L. (2010). ADAMTS1 cleavage of versican mediates essential structural

remodeling of the ovarian follicle and cumulus-oocyte matrix during ovulation in mice.

Biol Reprod **83**, 549–557.

Cacioppo, J. A., Lin, P.-C. P., Hannon, P. R., McDougle, D. R., Gal, A. and Ko, C. (2017).
Granulosa cell endothelin-2 expression is fundamental for ovulatory follicle rupture.
Sci Rep **7**, 817.

Clarke, H. J. (2022). Transzonal projections: Essential structures mediating intercellular
communication in the mammalian ovarian follicle. *Mol Reprod Dev* **89**, 509–525.

Das, D. and Arur, S. (2022). Regulation of oocyte maturation: Role of conserved ERK
signaling. *Mol Reprod Dev* **89**, 353–374.

Downs, S. M. and Longo, F. J. (1983). An ultrastructural study of preovulatory apical
development in mouse ovarian follicles: effects of indomethacin. *The Anatomical*
Record **205**, 159–168.

Duffy, D. M., Ko, C., Jo, M., Brannstrom, M. and Curry, T. E. (2019). Ovulation: parallels
with inflammatory processes. *Endocrine Reviews* **40**, 369–416.

Eppig, J. J. (1982). The relationship between cumulus cell-oocyte coupling, oocyte meiotic
maturation, and cumulus expansion. *Dev Biol* **89**, 268–272.

Eppig, J. J., Wigglesworth, K. and Pendola, F. L. (2002). The mammalian oocyte
orchestrates the rate of ovarian follicular development. *PNAS* **99**, 2890–2894.

Gothié, S. (1967). Contribution à l'etude cinétique de l'ovulatoin chez la Souris prépubère. *C*
R Seances Soc Biol Fil **161**, 554–556.

Grossman, H., Chuderland, D., Ninio-Many, L., Hasky, N., Kaplan-Kraicer, R. and
Shalgi, R. (2015). A novel regulatory pathway in granulosa cells, the LH/human
chorionic gonadotropin-microRNA-125a-3p-Fyn pathway, is required for ovulation.
The FASEB Journal **29**, 3206–3216.

Harasimov, K., Uraji, J., Mönnich, E. U., Holubcová, Z., Elder, K., Blayney, M. and
Schuh, M. (2023). Actin-driven chromosome clustering facilitates fast and complete
chromosome capture in mammalian oocytes. *Nat Cell Biol* **25**, 439–452.

Hughes, C. H. K. and Murphy, B. D. (2021). Nuclear receptors: Key regulators of somatic
cell functions in the ovulatory process. *Molecular Aspects of Medicine* **78**, 100937.

Jaffe, L. A. and Egbert, J. R. (2017). Regulation of mammalian oocyte meiosis by
intercellular communication within the ovarian follicle. *Annu. Rev. Physiol.* **79**, 237–
260.

Karlsson, A. B., Maizels, E. T., Flynn, M. P., Jones, J. C., Shelden, E. A., Bamburg, J. R.
and Hunzicker-Dunn, M. (2010). Luteinizing hormone receptor-stimulated
progesterone production by preovulatory granulosa cells requires protein kinase A-
dependent activation/dephosphorylation of the actin dynamizing protein cofilin. *Mol*
Endocrinol **24**, 1765–1781.

Ko, C., Gieske, M. C., Al-Alem, L., Hahn, Y., Su, W., Gong, M. C., Iglarz, M. and Koo, Y.
(2006). Endothelin-2 in ovarian follicle rupture. *Endocrinology* **147**, 1770–1779.

Ko, C. J., Cho, Y. M., Ham, E., Cacioppo, J. A. and Park, C. J. (2022). Endothelin 2: a key
player in ovulation and fertility. *Reproduction* **163**, R71–R80.

LaPolt, P. S., Oikawa, M., Jia, X. C., Dargan, C. and Hsueh, A. J. (1990). Gonadotropin-
induced up- and down-regulation of rat ovarian LH receptor message levels during
follicular growth, ovulation and luteinization. *Endocrinology* **126**, 3277–3279.

Lecuit, T. and Lenne, P.-F. (2007). Cell surface mechanics and the control of cell shape,
tissue patterns and morphogenesis. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* **8**, 633–644.

Lipner, H. and Cross, N. L. (1968). Morphology of the membrana granulosa of the ovarian
follicle. *Endocrinology* **82**, 638–641.

Liu, X., Xie, F., Zamah, A. M., Cao, B. and Conti, M. (2014). Multiple pathways mediate
luteinizing hormone regulation of cGMP signaling in the mouse ovarian follicle. *Biol*
Reprod **91**, 9.

Martin, G. G. and Talbot, P. (1981). The role of follicular smooth muscle cells in hamster
ovulation. *J Exp Zool* **216**, 469–482.

Martin, G. G. and Talbot, P. (1987). Formation of the rupture site in preovulatory hamster
follicles: morphological and morphometric analysis of thinning of the granulosa and
thecal layers. *Gamete Res* **17**, 303–320.

Migone, F. F., Cowan, R. G., Williams, R. M., Gorse, K. J., Zipfel, W. R. and Quirk, S. M.
(2016). In vivo imaging reveals an essential role of vasoconstriction in rupture of the
ovarian follicle at ovulation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **113**, 2294–2299.

Norris, R. P., Freudzon, L., Freudzon, M., Hand, A. R., Mehlmann, L. M. and Jaffe, L. A.
(2007). A Gs-linked receptor maintains meiotic arrest in mouse oocytes, but
luteinizing hormone does not cause meiotic resumption by terminating receptor-Gs
signaling. *Dev Biol* **310**, 240–249.

Norris, R. P., Freudzon, M., Mehlmann, L. M., Cowan, A. E., Simon, A. M., Paul, D. L.,
Lampe, P. D. and Jaffe, L. A. (2008). Luteinizing hormone causes MAP kinase-
dependent phosphorylation and closure of connexin 43 gap junctions in mouse
ovarian follicles: one of two paths to meiotic resumption. *Development* **135**, 3229–
3238.

Owen, C. M., Zhou, X., Bernard, D. J. and Jaffe, L. A. (2021). Kisspeptin-54 injection
induces a physiological luteinizing hormone surge and ovulation in mice. *Biology of*
Reproduction **104**, 1181–1183.

Palanisamy, G. S., Cheon, Y.-P., Kim, J., Kannan, A., Li, Q., Sato, M., Mantena, S. R.,
Sitruk-Ware, R. L., Bagchi, M. K. and Bagchi, I. C. (2006). A novel pathway
involving progesterone receptor, endothelin-2, and endothelin receptor B controls
ovulation in mice. *Mol Endocrinol* **20**, 2784–2795.

Paluch, E. K. and Raz, E. (2013). The role and regulation of blebs in cell migration. *Curr*
Opin Cell Biol **25**, 582–590.

Parsons, T. T., Mosallaei, S. and Raftery, L. A. (2023). Two phases for centripetal
migration of Drosophila melanogaster follicle cells: initial ingression followed by
epithelial migration. *Development* **150**, dev200492.

Peng, X.-R., Hsueh, A. J. W., Lapolt, P. S., Bjersing, L. and Ny, T. (1991). Localization of
luteinizing hormone receptor messenger ribonucleic acid expression in ovarian cell
types during follicle development and ovulation. *Endocrinology* **129**, 3200–3207.

Richards, J. S. and Ascoli, M. (2018). Endocrine, paracrine, and autocrine signaling
pathways that regulate ovulation. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* **29**, 313–325.

Richards, J. S., Ireland, J. J., Rao, M. C., Bernath, G. A., Midgley, A. R. and Reichert, L.
E. (1976). Ovarian follicular development in the rat: hormone receptor regulation by
estradiol, follicle stimulating hormone and luteinizing hormone. *Endocrinology* **99**,
1562–1570.

Richards, J. S., Ren, Y. A., Candelaria, N., Adams, J. E. and Rajkovic, A. (2018). Ovarian
follicular theca cell recruitment, differentiation, and impact on fertility: 2017 update.
Endocr Rev **39**, 1–20.

Schindelin, J., Arganda-Carreras, I., Frise, E., Kaynig, V., Longair, M., Pietzsch, T.,
Preibisch, S., Rueden, C., Saalfeld, S., Schmid, B., et al. (2012). Fiji - an Open
Source platform for biological image analysis. *Nat Methods* **9**, 10.1038/nmeth.2019.

Segaloff, D. L., Wang, H. Y. and Richards, J. S. (1990). Hormonal regulation of luteinizing
hormone/chorionic gonadotropin receptor mRNA in rat ovarian cells during follicular
development and luteinization. *Mol Endocrinol* **4**, 1856–1865.

Sposini, S. and Hanyaloglu, A. C. (2018). Driving gonadotrophin hormone receptor
signalling: the role of membrane trafficking. *Reproduction* **156**, R195–R208.

Stevenson, H., Bartram, S., Charalambides, M. M., Murthy, S., Petitt, T., Pradeep, A.,
Vineall, O., Abaraonye, I., Lancaster, A., Koysombat, K., et al. (2022). Kisspeptin-
neuron control of LH pulsatility and ovulation. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* **13**,
951938.

Stocco, C., Telleria, C. and Gibori, G. (2007). The molecular control of corpus luteum
formation, function, and regression. *Endocrine Reviews* **28**, 117–149.

Szołtys, M., Galas, J., Jabłonka, A. and Tabarowski, Z. (1994). Some morphological and
hormonal aspects of ovulation and superovulation in the rat. *J Endocrinol* **141**, 91–
100.

Talbot, P. and Chacon, R. S. (1982). In vitro ovulation of hamster oocytes depends on
contraction of follicular smooth muscle cells. *J Exp Zool* **224**, 409–415.

Tedeschi, A., Dupraz, S., Curcio, M., Laskowski, C. J., Schaffran, B., Flynn, K. C.,
Santos, T. E., Stern, S., Hilton, B. J., Larson, M. J. E., et al. (2019). ADF/Cofilin-
Mediated Actin Turnover Promotes Axon Regeneration in the Adult CNS. *Neuron* **103**,
1073-1085.e6.

Truszkowski, L., Batur, D., Long, H., Tarbashevich, K., Vos, B. E., Trappmann, B. and
Raz, E. (2023). Primordial germ cells adjust their protrusion type while migrating in
different tissue contexts in vivo. *Development* **150**, dev200603.

Uilenbroek, J. T. and Richards, J. S. (1979). Ovarian follicular development during the rat
estrous cycle: gonadotropin receptors and follicular responsiveness. *Biol Reprod* **20**,
1159–1165.

Walck-Shannon, E. and Hardin, J. (2014). Cell intercalation from top to bottom. *Nat Rev*
Mol Cell Biol **15**, 34–48.

Xue, F., Janzen, D. M. and Knecht, D. A. (2010). Contribution of filopodia to cell migration:
a mechanical link between protrusion and contraction. *Int J Cell Biol* **2010**, 507821.

Zheng, C., Gulappa, T., Menon, B. and Menon, K. M. J. (2020). Association between LH
receptor regulation and ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome in a rodent model.
Reproduction **160**, 239–245.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Follicle organization, time course of kisspeptin-induced ovulation, and

experimental design. A) Tissue layers of a preovulatory mouse follicle. B) Time course of

kisspeptin-induced ovulation in wild-type and HA-LHR-expressing mice. The time course of

hCG-induced ovulation in wild-type mice is shown for comparison. Oviducts were collected at

the indicated time points, and the numbers of ovulated oocytes were counted (n= 3 mice per

each condition). C) Collection of ovaries after kisspeptin injection, for analysis of the

localization of HA-LHR-expressing cells by confocal microscopy. KP = kisspeptin. Figures A

and C were generated in BioRender.com.

Figure 2. LH induces inward extension of LHR-expressing cells within the preovulatory

follicle. A-G) Confocal images of representative 10 μm thick equatorial cryosections of

follicles in ovaries before and 2-12 after injection of HA-LHR-expressing mice with kisspeptin.

The sections were labelled for HA immunofluorescence (green), and nuclei were labelled with

DAPI (blue). Each panel shows a maximum projection of a stack of 10 optical sections

imaged at 1 μm intervals with a 20x/0.8 NA objective. Scale bars = 100 μm. F and G were

captured using a lower zoom than the other images to account for increased follicle size.

Figure 3. LH induces ingression of LHR-expressing cells and an epithelial-

mesenchymal-like transition. A) Schematic of ingression of LHR-expressing cells within the

follicle. B) Time course of the increase in the percentage of HA-LHR-expressing cell bodies in

the inner half of the mural granulosa region after kisspeptin injection. No change in the

distribution of HA-LHR expressing cells was seen at 6 hours after a control injection of PBS.

C) No effect of kisspeptin on the percentage of mural granulosa cells that express the HA-

LHR. Measurements in B and C were made from images in supplemental figures S1-S6, and

S8. For each time point after kisspeptin, 1100-3000 cells from each of 7-14 follicles from 3-7

mice were analyzed. Each point on the graphs represents an individual follicle, and bars

indicate mean ± SEM. Data were analyzed via one-way ANOVA with the Holm-Sidak

correction for multiple comparisons (****$P < 0.0001$). The percent of HA-LHR expressing cells

in the inner mural in the 6 hour PBS treatment was significantly different from all treatments

except 0 hr. There were no significant differences among time points for data in C. D,E)

Images of representative 10 μm thick equatorial cryosections of preovulatory follicles in

ovaries from HA-LHR-expressing mice before (D) or 6 hours after kisspeptin injection (E).

Each panel shows a maximum projection of a stack of 10 x 1 μm optical sections taken with a

63x/1.4 NA objective using the Airyscan detector. Scale bars = 10 μm. F) Filopodia and

blebbing observed at the 6-hour time point. Images are maximum projections of a stack of 30

x 0.69 μm optical sections taken with 63x/1.4 NA objective using the Airyscan detector. Scale

bar = 5 μm.

Figure 4. LH induces basal lamina invaginations and constrictions in the basolateral

region of the follicle. A,B) Representative images of follicles before kisspeptin injection (A)

and 8 hours afterwards (B), labeled for laminin gamma 1 (white). Scale bars = 100 μm. C)

Tracings of the basal lamina of follicles in equatorial sections at 0, 6, 8, or 10 hours after

kisspeptin injection (from images in Figures S1B, S4B, S5B, S6B). The tracings are aligned

such that the apical region is on the right, as indicated by the double line. Apical was defined

as the region that is directly adjacent to the surface epithelium, while basolateral was defined

as any portion of the follicle that is not in contact with the surface epithelium. Scale bar = 100

μm. D) Depth of invaginations in follicles at 0, 6, 8, and 10 hr post kisspeptin. Each symbol

represents one invagination. E) Total number of invaginations in apical and basolateral

regions of follicles at 0, 6, 8, and 10 hr post kisspeptin. Each symbol represents one follicle.

Data for D and E were generated using datasets in Figures S1B, S4B, S5B, S6B). 6-7

follicles from 2-4 mice were analyzed for each time point. Asterisks indicate significant

differences (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$) between groups after two-

way ANOVA with the Holm-Sidak correction for multiple comparisons.

533   Figure 1.

539 Figure 2.

545   Figure 3.

551   Figure 4.

552