The effect of Vitamin D (1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3) on human theca and granulosa cell function.

Abstract

Numerous observational and interventional studies have investigated the link between

Vitamin D (VD) deficiency and reproductive outcomes, with contradictory results. VD is known

to regulate steroidogenic enzymes crucial for human granulosa and cumulus cell function and

genes that play a critical role in folliculogenesis have a vitamin D response element (VDRE) on

their promoters. This study investigated whether deficient levels of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 altered

ovarian cell function; and if the ovary could obtain bioactive 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 via local enzymatic

expression of *CYP27B1*, to counteract systemic deficiency. A variety of cells and tissues were

used for the *in vitro* experiments as practicable.

We have shown for the first time an increase in VDR expression in <u>theca</u> of larger compared

to smaller follicles, which along with the ability of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 to decrease Anti-Mullerian

hormone (AMH) expression, supports a role for 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 in theca and granulosa cell

function. Conversely, we have shown that very levels of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 equivalent to

hypovitaminosis, inhibited thecal production of androstenedione and cAMP-driven E2

production. Human thecal and unluteinised GC are incredibly hard to obtain for research

purposes, highlighting the uniqueness of our data set. For the first time we have

demonstrated that deficient levels of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 also down-regulated insulin receptor

expression, potentially reducing insulin sensitivity. We have shown that the ovary expresses

CYP27B1 allowing it to make local bioactive 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 which along with the upregulation

in VDR expression in all ovarian cellular compartments, could be protective locally in

counteracting systemic VD deficiency. To conclude a severely deficient VD environment

(<2nM or <1ng/ml) could contribute to impaired ovarian cell function and hence potentially

affect folliculogenesis/ovulation, but levels associated with mild deficiency may have less

impact, apart from in the presence of hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance.

Introduction

Vitamin D (VD), is a fat soluble prohormone which has both well-established actions such as

its classical role in calcium homeostasis and skeletal integrity (Dusso, 2005), and putative ones

such asanti-inflammatory and immunosuppressive roles(Aranow, 2011). The discovery of

vitamin D receptors (VDR) on male and female gonadal cells prompted investigations into the

role of vitamin D in reproduction and fertility (reviewed in Lerchbaum & Obermayer-Pietsch,

2012); (Lorenzen, 2017).

VD is derived minimally from the diet in the form of vitamin D2, with the major source being

the photolytic conversion of 7-dehydrocholesterol in the skin to cholecalciferol (vitamin D3)

catalysed by UVB radiation (reviewed in Bouillon R *et al*, 2008). Both forms of VD are

biologically inert and require activation through sequential hydroxylation in the liver and

kidneys. The initial hydroxylation in the liver by 25-hydroxylase enzyme (encoded by *CYP2R1*)

results in 25-hydroxyvitamin D3 *aka calcidiol* (25-(OH)-D3), an inert stable metabolite that

circulates bound to VD-binding protein (VDBP). The stability of the bound circulating 25-(OH)-

D3 means that it is used as an indicator of VD status in an individual (Holick, 2007)). 25-(OH)-

D3 is then further metabolised to the biologically active form $1,25-(OH)_2$-D3 (*aka calcitriol*),

primarily in the kidneys, a reaction catalysed by the mitochondrial enzyme 1α-hydroxylase

(encoded for by *CYP27B1*) (Schuster, 2011); (Luk J, 2012).

1-α-hydroxylase has also been found in extra-renal tissue indicating local conversion of 25-

(OH)-D3 to the active 1α,25-$(OH)_2$-D3. *CYP27B1* expression has been detected in follicles from

macaque and porcine ovaries (Xu J et al, 2018; Grzesiak M et al, 2020) and these studies

showed that 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 regulated follicle growth. Expression of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 mRNA and

protein was also demonstrated in human granulosa luteal cells (GLCs) and in both benign and

malignant ovarian tissue (Fischer D et al, 2009). Thus, it is clear that ovarian expression of 1-

α-hydroxylase is capable of producing active 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 locally within the ovary from

circulating precursors.

The ability of active 1α,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 to exert its profound actions is mediated exclusively by

VDR, a member of the nuclear hormone receptor super-family. In addition to its non-genomic

actions outside of the nucleus, VDR acts as a ligand-inducible transcription factor (Haussler

MR, 2013), enabling it to regulate 3% of the human genome (Holick, 2007). Normally 1α,25-

$(OH)_2$-D3 enters the cell by diffusion where it binds to and activates VDR to form a

heterodimer complex with retinoid X receptor (RXR): this complex interacts with VD response

elements (VDREs) found in the promoter regions of both positively and negatively controlled

genes (Cheskis & Freedman, 1994). The localization of VDR to numerous cell types highlights

the importance of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 as a regulatory hormone in many systems; consequently, VD

deficiency is recognised to be associated with numerous pathological conditions which is

usually reversed upon supplementation (Holick MF *et al*, 2011;2012).

Current guidelines define VD deficiency as 25-(OH)-D3 levels <20ng/ml (or <50nmol/L); with

levels of 21-29ng/ml (52.5-72.5nmol/L) characterized as VD insufficiency and >30ng/ml

(>75nmol/L) considered as sufficient (Holick MF *et al*, 2011; 2012) (Pilz S, 2019). Due to

avoidance of direct exposure to sunlight and/or nutrient-deficient diets, global deficiency of

VD is commonplace in both men and women, but this is exacerbated in northern climates due

to lack of sunshine.

The first indication that VD affected female fertility was shown by VD-deficient rats with

reduced fertility rates and litter sizes (reviewed in Lorenzen *et al*, 2017). VD has been shown

to interact and regulate steroidogenic enzymes that are crucial for human granulosa and

cumulus cell function (Merhi Z *et al*, 2014). Interestingly, genes for insulin receptor *(InsR)*,

anti-Müllerian hormone *(AMH)* and *CYP19A1* (encoding aromatase) that play a critical role in

folliculogenesis have VDRE on their promoters (Tiejun S *et al*, 1998); (Maestro B *et al*, 2003);

(Krishnan AV *et al*, 2007 & 2010), suggesting a role for VD in female fertility. This is supported

by studies showing that *in vitro* supplementation of VD promoted oocyte growth in *in-vitro*

developed macaque antral follicles (Xu J et al, 2016). Furthermore, there is a growing body of

evidence that VD has a role to play in fertility outcomes in assisted reproductive technology

and in women with polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS), but the results are conflicting

(reviewed Lorenzen M. B., 2017).

PCOS is well-recognised as one of the most common endocrine disorders in women,

manifesting with increased androgen production, irregular menstrual cycles, and

dysregulated ovarian function. (Pellatt L *et al*, 2010). Additionally, there is a clear link between

vitamin D, glucose clearance and insulin secretion, such that insulin sensitivity is reduced in

vitamin D-deficient women with PCOS, sometimes independently of obesity (Łagowska *et al*,

2018). The compensatory hyper-insulinaemia is known to further amplify the increased thecal

androgen secretion in these ovaries (Nestler J.E., 1998) and vitamin D replacement has been

shown to reduce serum androgens in some cases (Menichini D., 2020). Interestingly this

reduction in hyperandrogenemia can occur in the absence of changes in insulin sensitivity,

suggesting a possible direct mechanism of action of VD (reviewed in Menichini D., 2020),

though it has to be acknowledged that obesity is a common confounding factor.

Women with PCOS have lower serum 25-(OH)-D3 levels compared to fertile controls (Krul-

Poel YHM *et al*, 2018) (Eftekhar M *et al*, 2020) and yet studies investigating the effects of VD

deficiency/VD levels on reproductive outcomes produce extremely variable results (reviewed

in Lorenzen M. *et al*, 2017). Whilst this could be due to factors such as differing study design,

low participant numbers, different ethnicities etc, there is also a lack of understanding of the

mechanistic actions of VD in ovarian physiology, and the effect of varying levels of VD ligand

interaction with its receptor, which may explain the observed outcomes.

The aim of our study was to investigate the function of ovarian cells in a low vitamin D

environment (i.e., ≤20nM), thereby providing mechanistic insight to account for the variable

reproductive outcomes observed clinically in women with deficient serum levels of VD. Ideally

we would have performed all experiments using human primary ovarian cells and tissues but

the scarcity of this source meant we had to use a variety of model systems. In addition, whole

ovaries were never given for research, as part were retained for pathology.

Our collaboration with St. Lukes Hospital, Malta gave us access to human primary ovarian

cells and tissues, which was a valuable and scarce resource. Follicles were dissected from

partial human ovarian specimens to yield granulosa and theca cells for culture, and pieces of

cortex and stroma that were snap frozen. The ovarian follicles (preantral and early antral) are

in the cortical region. The stroma refers to components of the ovary that are not follicles and

include general components such as immune cells, blood vessels, stromal cells and extra-

cellular matrix. Over time pre-menopausal oophorectomy was justifiably phased out.

Where feasible we have utilised our stored specimens and material, along with human

luteinised granulosa cells (GLCs) from women undergoing IVF for functional experiments. For

more complex experiments requiring large number of cells, we have utilised the KGN

granulosa cell line. For preliminary immunohistochemistry (IHC) to determine VDR

distribution in various ovarian compartments, fixed mouse ovaries were used as no

appropriate human samples were available.

Materials and Methods

121 All reagents were obtained from Sigma, Poole, UK, unless stated otherwise, and all

122 plasticware was purchased from Fisher Scientific, UK.

Tissue samples for *in vitro* experiments

A variety of cells and tissues were used for the *in vitro* experiments of this study as detailed

below.

Human Ovarian Tissues: Informed written consent was obtained from women undergoing

trans-abdominal hysterectomy with bilateral oophorectomy for benign gynaecological

conditions at St George's Hospital, London and St Luke's Hospital, Malta. Ethical approval was

granted by the relevant committee in each institution and informed consent obtained. Clinical

details were obtained including age, gynaecological history, menstrual frequency, and day of

cycle. The ovaries removed from each patient were seen by a pathologist before a portion of

each was taken to the laboratory for dissection. Morphology and ovulatory status were

assigned as previously published and were based on ovarian size, follicle sizes and numbers,

the presence of a dominant follicle or corpus luteum and the amount and density of stroma

as determined by dissection, in conjunction with patient history (Mason HD *et al*, 1994; Gilling

Smith C *et al*, 1994). The timing of surgery was random. Patient details, number of follicles

obtained, and tissue used in each experiment are shown in Table 1. Follicles were isolated

from the surrounding stroma, the diameter measured, and granulosa cells (GC) collected as

previously described (Mason H. D. *et al*, 1990; 1996). Finally, the theca cell layer was carefully

peeled off and digested in an enzyme cocktail for 30mins at 37C with gentle agitation (Mason

H. D. *et al*, 1990; 1996). GC and theca cells were cultures as outlined in subsequent sections,

other ovarian tissue samples were immersed in RNA-later or flash-frozen and archived at -

80C for further analysis.

Luteinised granulosa cells (GLC) were obtained from follicular aspirates obtained during

oocyte retrieval from women undergoing *in-vitro* fertilisation (IVF) treatment (see

introduction) at various assisted conception units including those at King's College Hospital

and The Lister Hospital. Local ethics committee approval for each unit was sought and

informed consent was obtained from all women.

KGN granulosa cell (KGN-GC) line, that are established to correspond to immature granulosa

cells from smaller antral follicles, were used to provide mechanistic insight (Nishi *et al*., 2001).

The distribution of VDR and AMH protein in various ovarian tissue compartments was

assessed using *ovaries from mice (strain 129Sv)* aged between 4 and 5 months. These were

euthanised as part of separate ethically approved projects at SGUL and ovaries donated to

this study.

Immunohistochemistry of AMH and VDR in mouse ovarian sections.

Ovaries were fixed in paraformaldehyde (4%) at 4C, dehydrated in a gradient ethanol series,

cleared in methyl salicylate, embedded in wax and 5µm serial sections cut. Every 3rd section

was stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Adjacent sections were used for

immunohistochemistry with anti-VDR (1:100, rat) and anti-AMH (1:50, mouse) monoclonal

antibodies (Abcam, Cambridge, UK. Details listed in Table 2) as per manufacturers' protocol

with modifications and appropriate controls.

Briefly, slides were dewaxed and rehydrated, and the antigen epitopes exposed by heating

the slides in a 0.01M citrate buffer (pH 6, National Diagnostics) bath until boiling point for 20

minutes. Peroxidases were blocked by 3% hydrogen peroxide (VWR) in methanol (National

Diagnostics) for 10 minutes. Sections were then blocked with relevant anti-serum to reduce

non-specific binding for 1h at room temperature. Slides were then incubated with the

relevant primary antibody overnight at 4C, followed by 1-hour incubation at room

temperature with 0.1% monoclonal biotin-labelled secondary antibody (Vector) (Table 2).

Visualisation was carried out with Avidin Biotin Complex (ABC) peroxidase solution followed

by 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) (Vector Laboratories). A haematoxylin counterstain was also

used for 10 seconds to label nuclei blue. After a brief dehydration through an ethanol series,

slides were mounted using Histomount (National Diagnostics). Negative controls omitted

primary antibody. Images were captured using the Hamamatsu NanoZoomer 2.0-Rs Slide

Scanner for analysis with the NDP.view 2 software (courtesy of the Image Resource Facility,

SGUL).

mRNA and protein expression of VDR in ovarian tissue/cellular compartments

The mRNA expression of VDR in human ovarian cortex, stroma and theca tissue

compartments was assessed using archived frozen tissue collected as described above. All

tissue was stored and used under HTA regulations. Tissues were defrosted on ice and

homogenised in lysis buffer (RLT lysis buffer, Qiagen, Netherlands) using the FastPrep®

TissueLyser 24 and the FastPrep® Lysing Matrix A 2mL tubes containing a garnet matrix and a

ceramic sphere (MP Biomedicals). After homogenisation RNA was extracted, reverse

transcribed and real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) performed for VDR relative to L19 (the

reference gene), as previously described (Rice S *et al*, 2006). In addition, the expression of

VDR in the KGN-GC was established using standard PCR as well as qPCR (see Table 3 for details

of primers and cycling conditions). For protein extraction the tissue was homogenised in RIPA

buffer with a cocktail of phosphatase inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich, Merck, Gillingham, Dorset),

using a sonicator three times for 30s each time. Samples were maintained on ice throughout

to prevent overheating and denaturation of proteins. The lysed samples were micro-

centrifuged at 4C for 10min at maximum speed. Pelleted debris was discarded, and the

protein lysate stored at -80C prior to Bradford assays (for measurement of protein

concentration) and western blotting.

GC, theca and GLC culture experiments

The granulosa or theca cells were pooled from several follicles based on the experimental

protocol and cultured in McCoys 5A medium supplemented with penicillin/streptomycin, L-

glutamine and amphotericin B (all purchased from Invitrogen, UK). Granulosa cells were

plated in 96-well plates at $5x10^4$ and theca cells at $5x10^5$ cells per well as previously described

(Mason *et al*, 1990; Willis *et al*, 1996). To increase the adhesion of theca cells to the plate,

plates were first coated in ECM gel (McCaig, 2002).

Cells were incubated in culture medium (plus experimental treatments) for 48 hours with a

range of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 concentrations (0.2, 2 and 20nM serially diluted down from a stock

concentration of 2μM). Testosterone ($5x\ 10^{-7}$ M) was used as a substrate for conversion to

oestradiol in the granulosa cells and steroid levels measured in the medium by

radioimmunoassay (Hillier SG *et al*, 1980); (Gilling-Smith C *et al*, 1994); (Willis DS *et al*, 1996).

To confirm that cells were healthy, 10ng/ml LH was used as a positive control in luteinised

GCs and theca, and 5ng/ml FSH in cells dissected from small follicles (LH and FSH supplied by

Endocrine Services, Biddeford-upon-Avon, UK). Isolation of GLC was performed as previously

described (Wright R *et al*, 2002). Cells were plated in 96-wells at 5×10^4 cells per well in 200μl

of serum (5%) supplemented medium for 48 hours, after which the medium was removed

and replaced with experimental treatment as detailed above. GLCs were also exposed to the

vitamin D analogue ED1089 (kindly donated by Dr. Kay Colston, SGUL), to examine

comparative efficacy and demonstrate specificity.

KGN-GC culture experiments

To model the effect that VD deficiency may have on ovarian function, KGN-GC were grown

and passaged in 10% DMEM-F12 supplemented with L-glutamine and penicillin/streptomycin

(Invitrogen), at 37∘C in 95% air/CO_2. Cells were plated in 12-well plates (3×10^3 cells/well) and

cultured in 1% DMEM-F12 (charcoal-stripped) overnight. Cells were serum-starved for 2h and

then treated with forskolin (25μM), to reproduce the effect of LH on cAMP stimulation, ±

1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 at 0.02, 0.2, 2 and 20nM and cultured for a further 48h. Testosterone (5×10^{-7}M) was added to all cultures as the aromatase substrate for conversion to oestrogen.

^{7}M) was added to all cultures as the aromatase substrate for conversion to oestrogen.

Similarly, the effect of VD on AMH mRNA expression was investigated in cells treated with

forskolin and VD as described above, using only the upper and lower doses of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3

from the range above at 0.02 and 20nM. At the end of the relevant culture time, RNA was

extracted, reverse transcribed and real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) performed for *CYP19A1*

(encoding aromatase) as described previously (Rice S *et al*, 2013). We have previously

established that *CYP19A1/aromatase* mRNA, protein expression and enzyme activity are all

tightly correlated in this model and hence any of these techniques can be used

interchangeably to assess changes (Rice *et al*, 2006; Rice *et al*, 2013).

To investigate the effect of VD on aromatase promoter II (PII) activity, cells were plated at a

density of 2×10^4 cells/well in 96-well plates. After overnight incubation, they were transfected

with a *CYP19A1 PII-516* reporter construct expressing firefly Luciferase, along with a control

plasmid expressing Renilla luciferase from a constitutive promoter, and a transcription

enhancing element, PVAi, as previously described (Rice S *et al*, 2013). After 2h serum-

starvation, cells were treated as described above for 24 hours with quadruplicate

replicates/treatment, and luciferase reporter assays were carried out using the Dual-Glo

Luciferase Assay System (Promega).

To mimic a situation of chronic insulin exposure, cells were treated with insulin for 48h at

post-prandial (10ng/ml) and hyperinsulinemic (100ng/ml) levels in the presence and absence

of the lowest [0.02nM] and highest [20nM] 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 levels tested in the experiments.

The effect of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 on aromatase and insulin receptor (InsR) mRNA expression was

measured by qPCR.

Radioimmunoassay (RIA) for P, E2 and Androstenedione

Conditioned media was collected from the cells at 48 hours, frozen at -20C and E2, P and

androstenedione measured using a modified 'in-house' RIA, with tritiated steroids and

charcoal separation (Hillier SG *et al*, 1980); (Gilling-Smith C *et al*, 1994); (Willis DS *et al*, 1996).

The components of the assay were: tritiated steroid label (Amersham Pharmaceuticals, Bucks,

UK), steroid antiserum (sheep anti-human from Guildhay, Guildford, UK) and standards and

quality controls (QCs) (approximately 1, 6 and 35% of the top standard), prepared from

powdered steroid (Sigma Co Ltd, Poole, UK). Conditioned medium was diluted to be within

the midrange values for each assay and therefore on the linear part of the standard curve.

Each sample was tested in duplicate.

Immunoprecipitation (IP)

To investigate the effect of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 on VDR:RXR dimer formation, KGN cells were plated

at a density of 5×10^5 cells/well in a 6-well plate and treated as described above with and

without forskolin, testosterone and 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 at 0.02 and 20nM for 48h. At the end of

culture time, media was removed, cells washed with ice-cold PBS and lysed with ice-cold RIPA

buffer as previously described (Dilaver N *et al*, 2019). The protein concentration of the lysate

was measured by Bradford assay and prior to immunoprecipitation, equal amounts of protein

lysate from each treatment group were pre-cleared on A/G-coupled Sepharose beaded

(Pierce) support (binding capacity 27mg mouse IgG or ≥ human IgG/ml settled resin) for one

hour at 4C to reduce non-specific ligand binding. Immunoprecipitation of the cleared lysates

was performed overnight at 4C with 5μg of anti-VDR antibody or anti-RXRα monoclonal

antibodies (Abcam – Table 2). The beaded complexes were washed several times with NP-40

lysis buffer, after which protein complexes were dissociated by boiling for 10 mins with 1X

SDS-DTT reducing buffer (protocol adapted from Luderer HF *et al*, 2011). The collected

supernatant was stored at -80C for subsequent Western blotting analysis. Negative controls

included retention of pre-cleared beads which were eluted and run on western blots,

alongside the total lysates.

Western Blotting of VDR and RXR

Protein concentrations were measured using the Bradford assay (BioRad, Hertfordshire) and

equal amounts of protein obtained from lysing ovarian tissues or from immunoprecipitation

experiments, were resolved with Western blotting as previously described (Dilaver N *et al*,

2019). PVDF(fl) (Immobilon, Millipore Merk, Massachusetts) membranes with transferred

proteins were incubated with rat anti-human VDR or rabbit anti-human RXR (both used at

1:1000) and/or mouse anti-human β-actin (1:2000). Fluorescently conjugated relevant

secondary antibodies (1:5000) (see Table 2 for details of antibodies) were used for

visualisation using the Odyssey Imaging System (Li-Cor Biosciences) (Dilaver N *et al*, 2019).

Experimental Quantification and Statistical Analysis

All data are represented as the mean ± SEM of triplicate or more observations (detail in legends) from a minimum of 3 or more independent experiments, unless otherwise stated. qPCR data were analysed using the ΔΔCt method as described in detail previously (Rice S *et al*, 2006), with normalisation to L19 and subsequent normalisation to the Ct value of the control (untreated). To use the ΔΔCt method, the amplification efficiency for each GOI and reference gene must be in the recommended range of 90-100%. This was rigorously applied to our study by the inclusion of a standard curve for every qPCR assay conducted. Data from Western blots represent the mean densitometry measurements taken from all individual experiments using Image Studio software (Licor™) and normalised to ß-actin (loading control) and where relevant, to the untreated (control) samples. For the IP experiments, the densitometry values were also adjusted for the quantity of protein in the sample. Results for steroid RIA were calculated using Assay Zap V2.69 software (Biosoft, Cambridge, UK). Intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation were below 5% and 6% respectively.

Statistical significance was determined by ANOVA followed by post hoc multiple comparison tests; unpaired Student's or paired t test when 2 groups were compared (depending on the design of the experiment) or a one-sample t test when comparing with normalised control values, using GraphPad Prism™. Significance was set at $P \leq 0.05$.

Results

We analysed expression (via qPCR, IHC and WB) of key elements (VDR and *CYP27B1)* involved in the synthesis and signalling pathway of VD in various ovarian cellular compartments. We then proceeded to investigate the effect of a range of doses of VD on steroid output (RIA)

from primary theca and unluteinised granulosa cells dissected from antral follicles of varying

sizes cultured *in vitro*. The effect of VD on oestradiol (E2) production (RIA and qPCR) was also

analysed in luteinised GLCs and the KGN cell-line. Since VD is known to interact with other

factors involved in granulosa cell proliferation, we chose two of particular interest, namely

AMH and insulin to investigate via qPCR. Finally, we examined the relationship via IP between

varying doses of VD and the degree of binding to VDR and RXR receptors, which then complex

to VDREs to modulate its actions.

Expression of VDR and *CYP27B1* in ovarian tissue and cellular compartments

IHC was used to detect the extent of VDR protein expression in sequential mouse ovary

sections, and the anti-VDR antibody revealed strong and extensive staining throughout all

mouse ovarian tissue compartments including the cellular components of the follicles (figure

1a (negative control) and 1b). Closer examination revealed more intense staining in thecal

cells of LAF compared to SAF (inset figures 1b). The general uniformity and ubiquity of VDR

expression was in marked contrast to staining with anti-AMH antibody in the sequential

section, which showed a distinctive pattern of expression i.e., greater staining in GC of SAF

compared to LAF, with no staining in theca or ovarian compartments (figure 1c).

This finding in the mouse ovary was extended by measuring VDR mRNA levels in human theca

cells dissected from human follicles of varying sizes to ascertain whether expression levels

changed with follicle size. VDR mRNA levels were significantly higher in theca from larger

antral follicles (LAF) and those approaching preovulatory sizes (7-12mm, n=11), compared to

those from smaller antral follicles (SAF) (5-6mm, n=4) (unpaired t-test, *p=0.013; figure 2a)

which supported the observations in the mouse ovary (fig 1b).

In addition, VDR mRNA (fig 2b) and protein (fig 2c) expression were also detected in human cortex and stroma... There was no statistically significant difference between the two compartments. *CYP27B1* mRNA was expressed in human ovarian stroma as assessed by qPCR, though there was considerable variation in expression levels between different biological samples (fig 2d).

Effect of 1,25 (OH)2-D3 on steroid production in ovarian cells.

VD and theca steroidogenesis: Overall, in theca from LAF (15-22mm), exposure to all doses of $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ consistently suppressed Androstenedione production (mean 22% suppression) but had no effect on androstenedione production from SAF (n=4-8, Two-way ANOVA, p=0.048 for treatment and p=0.002 for follicle size) (fig 3a). Treatment with $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ had no effect on either P or 17-OH-P production (supplemental figures S1 and S2).

VD and unluteinised GC steroidogenesis: There was no effect of $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ at any dose on E2 production in GCs taken from follicles <10mm diameter (n=4; figure 3b); however, in follicles >10mm there appeared to be a trend to increasing E2 with $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ though this was not significant (figure 3b). In addition, $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ did not alter the normal responsiveness to FSH in SAF (n=4, ANOVA p<0.0001) (figure 3c).

VD and E2 production in GLC: The effect of VD on E2 production from luteinised granulosa cell culture was then investigated. Luteinisation of GC occurs once follicles have been exposed to the mid-cycle ovulatory LH surge. As expected, exposure of the cells to LH produced a substantial stimulation in the production of E2, surprisingly this was considerably attenuated by $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ at both 2nM and 20nM doses (figure 3d) (ANOVA p<0.0001; post-hoc t-test

**p<0.005). This contrasts with the results from unluteinised GC from small follicles in which

1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 had no effect on FSH-stimulated E2 production (figure 3c). Interestingly

culturing GLC with the VD analogue EB1089 also appeared to suppress E2 production in a

dose-related manner (figure 3e), though the data did not reach statistical significance (ANOVA

n/s). There was, however, no effect on progesterone production in the cells by any dose of

VD (supplemental figure S3).

Effect of VD on aromatase expression in KGN-GC: To determine the mechanism by which

1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 was altering E2 production in primary cells, KGN cells were cultured with

forskolin to increase cAMP and hence aromatase activity (equivalent to stimulation by either

gonadotrophin, which both act via cAMP). Very low 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 levels [0.02 & 0.2nM]

significantly down-regulated Fsk-stimulated aromatase mRNA expression (n=6, One-way

ANOVA**p=0.0018; post-hoc t-tests *p<0.05, **p<0.005), but when doses approached

sufficiency levels [2 and 20nM] this attenuation was reversed. An identical pattern was seen

in PII transfected KGN cells demonstrating that 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 affected aromatase activity as

well as expression (figures 4a & 4b) (n=3; ANOVA****p<0.0001; post-hoc t-tests *p=0.02,

**p=0.0095).

Effect of VD on other factors implicated in regulation of follicle growth.

Insulin: There is compelling evidence that systemic VD levels are correlated with insulin

sensitivity (Łagowska *et al*, 2018); however, there is little supportive evidence at a cellular

level. Chronic exposure of granulosa cells to high (100ng/ml) insulin significantly

downregulated expression of total InsR mRNA (p=0.001), and this reduction was surprisingly

potentiated by both doses of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3: 20nM (<50% of basal) and 0.02nM (<25% of

basal) (n=5-8; One-way ANOVA *p=0.048, one-sample t-tests to the control ***p<0.0005,

**p<0.005, *p<0.05) (figure 5a). This profound attenuation of insulin receptor expression by

1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 in the presence of chronic insulin exposure did not have a concomitant

reduction on aromatase expression in the same cells. In fact, the presence of insulin reversed

the attenuation of basal aromatase levels brought about by low dose VD (figure 5b).

AMH: Forskolin down-regulated AMH expression compared to basal (<50%), which was

further potentiated in the presence of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3, with a more potent attenuation by

20nM 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 compared to 0.02nM (figure 5c) (n=3, ANOVA *p=0.02; multiple

comparison t-test *p<0.05).

Investigating the differential effects of varying doses of VD ligand.

Data presented so far indicate that those doses of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 equivalent to extremely

deficient levels have differential effects compared to those approaching sufficiency. To

determine a possible mechanism, the relationship between levels of VD ligand and the

proportion of either VDR or RXR was investigated. KGN-GC treated with extremely low or

sufficient doses of 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3 in the presence of Fsk, were immunoprecipitated with either

anti-VDR or anti-RXR antibodies. The VDR-IP pulls down all forms of VDR:homodimers,

heterodimers and solo receptor as does the RXR-IP. The immuno-precipitated samples were

then immunoblotted using either anti-VDR or anti-RXR antibodies to assess just the

heterodimer association between RXR and VDR in the relevant IP samples (figure 6). The

subsequent western blot membranes were analysed in a variety of ways (tables 4a and

4b).There was a significant reduction in levels of VDR associated with RXR-IP in the presence

of VD [20nM] combined with Fsk compared to basal, FSk alone or Fsk+ 0.02nM 1,25-(OH)$_2$-D3

(table 4a) However, there was no change in RXR levels associated with VDR-IP (table 4b).

Discussion

We have discovered widespread distribution of VDR in the human ovary, pointing to a likely

critical role for VD in female reproduction. We have demonstrated for the first time, a clear

relationship between increasing VDR expression in theca and follicle size, highlighting a

possible important functional role for Vitamin D in antral follicle progression.

Our findings in human theca were supported by the results of histological analysis of mouse

ovarian follicles which showed an increase in the intensity of VDR expression in theca of LAFs.

That activation of these receptors is playing a role in follicle growth was demonstrated by the

fact that VD3 supplementation promoted the survival and growth of *in vitro* cultured

preantral follicles to the antral stage in the primate ovary (Xu J, 2018). Our finding of protein

expression of VDR in human cortex and stroma was also matched by extensive and uniform

expression of VDR protein in granulosa cells, cortex, and stroma of mouse ovaries, further

indicating an important role for VD throughout the ovary. This is also supported by the fact

that female VDR knockout mice have impaired folliculogenesis with no progression beyond

primary and secondary stages and low oestradiol levels (Yoshizawa T, 1997).

The detection of *CYP27B1* mRNA expression in human ovarian stroma was intriguing as it

indicated that the human ovary is capable of being an extra-renal site of active $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$

synthesis, as supported by studies in other species (Xu J *et al*, 2018). The contribution of any

locally produced bioactive $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ is difficult to determine, but could play an important

role in counteracting systemic VD deficiency. Active $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ negatively regulates

expression of CYP27B1, hence regulating its own circulating concentrations (Bouillon R *et al*,

2008)*.

This increasing expression of VDR in the growing follicle at the LAF stage corresponds to

increasing steroidogenesis and the acquisition of LH receptors. It had been documented that

incubation of human cumulus GC with VD at normal levels affects steroid output (Merhi Z *et*

al, 2014), but we wished to investigate the extent of and mechanisms by which exposing cells

to a 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3-deficient environment affected steroidogenesis. To that end we incubated

cells with 20, 2, 0.2 or 0.02nmol/L (since serum levels <50nmol/L is defined as severe

deficiency) (Holick MF *et al*, 2011). A recent study of women of childbearing age in rural

northern China found the prevalence of severe VD deficiency was 16% in the 1151 women

studied, with a median serum level of only of 5.63ng/ml (equivalent to 14nmol/L) (Lin S *et al*,

2021); indicating that severe hypovitaminosis of this magnitude occurs in the population.

Interestingly, 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 is established to act at nanomolar, or even picomolar,

concentrations, as a direct regulator of specific target genes in VDR-expressing cell and

tissues. It also binds to VDR with an affinity of 0.1nM (reviewed in Carlsberg, 2022).

In GC, gonadotrophins stimulate oestrogen synthesis via cAMP-mediated signalling, and it is

well-established that a cAMP-response element (CRE) sequence has been identified within

promoter II (PII); the predominant aromatase promoter used in the ovary (Michael MD, 1997).

Changes in the 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 environment had no effect on E2 production from GC of either

SAFs/LAFs, in the presence or absence of FSH and FSH responsiveness was retained.

Conversely in luteinised granulosa cells (GLCs), 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 did prevent the LH-mediated

stimulation of E2 production. It is without doubt that 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 can decrease E2

production as the same effect was observed with the VD analogue in GLCs.

This would imply that attenuation by VD only occurred when GC acquired LHR or else is

dependent on levels of cAMP generated, since LH stimulates more cAMP activity than FSH

(Aharoni D *et al*, 1995). This is supported by the observation that extremely low doses of 1,25-

$(OH)_2$-D3 down-regulated forskolin-stimulated aromatase expression and activity in KGN cells

(which do not have LHR), an effect that was lost once dosing levels were increased.

This contrasted with theca, where a low $1,25$-$(OH)_2$-D3 significantly attenuated

androstenedione production from theca of LAF (15-22mm) but not of SAF (<10mm).

Surprisingly, $1,25$-$(OH)_2$-D3 had no effect on progesterone or 17-OH-P production from theca

of all sized follicles indicating that this inhibitory action presumably occurs in the *CYP17*

pathway, but only in LAFs when they have upregulated VDR expression. Like observations in

theca, there was no effect of $1,25$-$(OH)_2$-D3 on progesterone production from GLCs.

The bi-phasic dose-response effects of $1,25$-$(OH)_2$-D3 on aromatase expression, was a direct

influence on the transcriptional activity of PII, as seen in the PII transfection assay results.

Analysis of PII has revealed the presence of two VDRE - proximal and distal, with an overlap

between the proximal VDRE and CRE (Krishnan AV *et al*, 2010). A key factor could be the

mechanism of ligand-binding of VD to its receptor. VDR functions as both a monomer,

homodimer, and a heterodimer with RXR, and the alteration of the ratio of these complexes

within a cell is dependent on the amount of VD ligand present (Cheskis B *et al*, 1994).

Depending on the proportion of each, these complexes will bind to VDRE on genes and attract

either co-repressors/activators to enhance or suppress gene expression and activity.

Increased levels of VD decreased the amount of DNA-bound VDR homodimer complexes and

promote the formation of VDR-RXR heterodimers (Carlsberg C, 2022; Cheskis B *et al*, 1994;

Haussler MR *et al*, 2013).

Unliganded VDR-RXR heterodimers are initially bound to a VDRE and recruit co-repressor

complexes, which prevents basal transcription through the activity of histone deacetylase.

Once sufficient ligand has bound, the repressors are substituted by co-activator complexes,

allowing gene transcription to commence (Carlsberg C, 2022; Dwivedi PP *et al*, 1998; Perissi

V *et al*, 2010). The results of our IP experiments showed a difference in the levels of VDR

associated with immunoprecipitated RXR, at different concentrations of VD ligand in the

presence of forskolin. In the presence of higher concentrations of VDR ligand there appears

to be less VDR associated with immunoprecipitated RXR. However, it must be pointed out

that it was not possible from our experiments to determine the proportion of heterodimers

in the cytoplasmic or nuclear compartments (and hence non-genomic/genomic forms) as we

used whole cell lysates. To answer this, we would need to carry out further experiments

(beyond scope of this study) to explore VDR sub-cellular trafficking between nuclear and

cytoplasmic compartments and components of the repressor/activator complexes bound to

chromatin. Interestingly, the ability of forskolin to alter the association of the intracellular

dimers would indicate the presence of a ligand-independent cAMP activated pathway outside

the nucleus (Luk J *et al*, 2012); (Haussler MR *et al*, 2013) which could account for the different

outcomes observed when using either FSH or LH.

As stated earlier, women with PCOS commonly present with increased serum levels of AMH

(reflecting the pool of stalled SAF) and hyperinsulinemia, both of which are also linked to VD

status (Luk J, 2012; Lorenzen M. B., 2017). To investigate this link, we replicated

hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance *in vitro* by chronically exposing KGN cells to insulin at

either post-prandial (10ng/ml) or hyperinsulinemic (100ng/ml) doses. The HI dose

downregulated expression of insulin receptor mRNA by more than 50% reproducing insulin

resistance, whereas there was no significant effect noted at post-prandial treatment levels.

To our surprise, culture of cells in an extremely low and deficient VD environment caused an

even further attenuation of insulin receptor expression in the presence of both doses of

insulin. This effect only occurred in the presence of insulin, as 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 alone had no

effect on insulin receptor expression. Systemic VD deficiency is clearly linked to a reduction

in insulin sensitivity (independent of BMI) as others have shown (Muscogiuri G *et al*, 2017),

and this insulin receptor reduction may be a contributory mechanism. Interestingly, in the

same cells a combination of insulin and 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 had no effect on aromatase, unlike in

the forskolin experiments, again indicating that this was a cAMP-driven process, possibly

linked to overlap between VDRE and CRE on PII as described previously.

It is well established that follicle progression in the normal human ovary requires down-

regulation of AMH expression to permit FSH-driven activity (Pellatt L *et al*, 2010). The IHC

analysis of mouse ovaries also revealed high AMH expression in SAF which was substantially

reduced in pre-ovulatory follicles. This is thought to normally occur via LH down-regulating

AMH expression (Pierre A *et al*, 2013). Using forskolin instead of LH to achieve down-

regulation, we demonstrated that this reduction in AMH was potentiated by 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3

[0.02nM] with a further reduction occurring with higher doses of 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 [20nM].

Interestingly treatment with 1,25-$(OH)_2$-D3 alone had no significant effect on AMH mRNA

levels, indicating again that this only occurs when the cAMP pathway is activated.

In hen GC from 3-5mm and 6-8mm follicles, vitamin D3 was shown to substantially decrease

AMH mRNA expression, with a more robust effect seen in the LAF (Wojtusik J, 2012). In

addition, Mehri *et al* showed that in AF (<14mm) from women with insufficient/deficient

follicular fluid levels of 25-OH-D3, there was significantly higher AMHR-II mRNA level

compared to those with normal VD levels (Merhi Z *et al*, 2014). In the same study, 25-OH-D3

was shown to decrease AMH-mediated pSMAD 1/5/8 nuclear localisation in cumulus GC,

indicative of reduced AMH signalling. Hence at a local ovarian level, our data and other

studies, clearly showed that VD is involved in AMH regulation and expression, which could

impact on follicle progression particularly in conditions such as PCOS. At a systemic level

however, evidence for correlations between serum vitamin D and serum AMH levels are

contradictory and dependent on a woman's ovulatory status (Moridi I *et al*, 2020).

To summarise, we have shown that Vitamin D clearly has a role to play in the theca and

granulosa cell function and hence growth of ovarian follicles, as shown by the increased

expression of VDR in follicles of increasing size. In addition, we have shown that Vitamin D

may promote follicle progression by downregulating the expression of AMH, thereby reducing

AMH's well-documented inhibitory effect on follicle growth (Pellatt L *et al*, 2010). Vitamin D

is known to affect steroidogenesis and we have demonstrated that levels of $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$

equivalent to hypovitaminosis, inhibited thecal production of androstenedione. In addition,

extremely low levels of vitamin D had an attenuating effect on cAMP-driven aromatase

expression, which translated to decreased E2 production. Encouragingly this reduction in E2

is reversed as levels of $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ increased; apart from in the presence of LH in luteinised

GC, which could have consequences for regular ovulation in women with severe Vitamin D

deficiency. For the first time we have demonstrated that deficient levels of $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$ also

down-regulated insulin receptor expression, potentially reducing insulin sensitivity. This could

have serious implications for women with hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance, typically

seen in PCOS; indicating that insulin resistant women should try and maintain sufficient levels

of systemic vitamin D for regular ovarian function. The ability of the ovary to make local

bioactive $1,25\text{-}(OH)_2\text{-}D3$, was demonstrated by the expression of *CYP27B1.* This together with

the upregulation of VDR expression in all ovarian cellular compartments, could potentially

counteract the effect of systemic VD deficiency and protect the local ovarian environment.

To conclude a severely deficient VD environment (<2nM or <1ng/ml) could contribute to

impaired ovarian cell function and hence potentially affect folliculogenesis/ovulation, but

levels associated with mild deficiency may have less impact, apart from in the presence of

hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance.

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Statement regarding use of archived tissue: Research and the Human Tissue Act 2004 -

Consent IS REQUIRED to use and store tissues for research; UNLESS: The relevant material is

classed as an existing holding i.e., held prior to 1st September 2006 and/or the relevant

material is imported.

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    Figure Legends:

Fig 1a: Negative control (no VDR primary antibody) of the sectioned mouse ovary with a

variety of small antral follicles (SAF) and large antral follicles LAF).

Fig 1b: IHC of VDR expression in the corresponding adjacent section of the same mouse ovary.

There is extensive expression of VDR protein throughout cortex, stroma and cellular

compartments i.e. both GC (arrowheads) and theca (arrows) of both SAF and LAF. Though the

intensity of staining in theca appears to be greater in theca of LAF compared to SAF *(inset*

pictures enlarged).

Fig 1c: IHC of AMH expression in the corresponding adjacent section of mouse ovary. AMH

protein is expressed strongly in GC of SAF (white arrowhead) with minimal expression in GC

of LAF (black arrowhead). There is <u>no expression</u> in theca cells (black arrows) or in

cortex/stroma.

Fig 2a: mRNA expression of VDR quantified by qPCR, in <u>human theca</u> taken from human

ovarian follicles (both normal and polycystic ovaries), showed significantly lower expression

in SAF (5-6mm ●) compared to LAF (7-12mm ▲). *(Unpaired t-test, two-tailed*p=0.0128; 5-*

6mm (n=4); 7-12mm (n=11)).

Fig 2b: VDR mRNA expression quantified by qPCR in human cortex (grey bar ●, *n=6*) and

stroma (white bar ■, *n=5*). There was no significant difference in expression.

Fig 2c: VDR protein expression levels quantified by western blotting, in human ovarian cortex (*n=5; grey bar* ■*)* and stroma (*n=4; white bar* ●), also showed no significant difference in expression. *Densitometry values on y-axis multiplied by 1000 for scaling purposes.*

Fig 2d: CYP27B1 mRNA expression quantified by qPCR, in human ovarian stroma samples – both normal and PCO *(n=8).*

Fig 3a: Effect of 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ on androstenedione production from <u>theca</u> taken from small (<10mm, white bars, *n=4 subjects, total follicles=15*) and large follicles (15-22mm, grey bars, *n=5 subjects, total follicles=5*) from normal ovaries. 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ suppressed androstenedione production significantly but only in theca from large follicles. Results expressed as a percentage change from control, where the control was taken as 100%. *(Two-way ANOVA p=0.05, source of variation follicle size **p=0.002, treatment*p=0.048; Tukeys post-hoc multiple comparison *p<0.05).*

Fig 3b: 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ had no effect on E$_2$ production from <u>granulosa cells</u> taken from small antral follicles (<10mm, white bars; *n=3 subjects, total follicles=11*) and large antral follciles (>10mm, grey bars; *n=6 subjects, total follicles=8*) from normal ovaries. Results showed no effect of 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ (vd 0.2-20nM) on E$_2$ production. The results are expressed as mean percentage change from control where the control is taken as 100%.

Fig 3c: 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ at 2 (spotted bar) & 20nM (hashed bar) had no effect on E$_2$ production from <u>granulosa cells </u>in the absence (white bars)/presence(dark grey bars) of FSH (5ng/ml), which as expected significantly simulated E2 production. The results are expressed as mean

percentage change from control where the control is taken as 100%. *(n=4 subjects; total*

follicles=49. ANOVA ****p<0.0001; **p<0.005 Sidak's multiple comparison test).

Fig 3d: Effect of 1,25(OH)$_2$D$_3$ (at 2 & 20nM) on E$_2$ production from granulosa-lutein cells in the

presence of LH (10ng/ml). LH significantly stimulated E2 production, which was significantly

attenuated in the presence of VD *(n=4; ANOVA **p<0.005; Post-hock Sidak's multiple*

comparison test. Alphabetical annotations are used to denote differences in statistical

significance).

Fig 3e: A similar dose-dependent reduction in E2 production was seen in granulosa-lutein cells

cultured in the presence of the VD analogue EB1089, though this did not reach statistical

significance (*n=3*).

Fig 4a: Aromatase mRNA expression levels were measured in KGNs cultured with forskolin

(Fsk) to stimulate aromatase and different doses of VD (0.02-20nM). Testosterone (5×10^{-7}M)

was used as an aromatase substrate. VD at the lowest two doses significantly down-regulated

Fsk-stimulated aromatase expression, but as the doses increased this attenuation was lost.

(One-way ANOVA ***p=0.0002; Tukey's multiple comparisons test con vs fsk **p<0.005; con

vs 2 **p<0.005; con vs 20 *p<0.05; fsk vs VD0.02 *p<0.05; fsk vs VD0.2*p<0.05 (n=6).

Alphabetical annotations are used to denote differences in statistical significance).

Fig 4b: KGN cells were transfected with PII-specific-Luc reporter construct and treated as for

the qPCR experiments. The luciferase assay showed that the effect of VD doses on aromatase

expression was direct action on aromatase transcription, with very low doses down-

regulating Fsk-stimulated PII activity. As VD concentrations increased this attenuation was

lost. *(One-way ANOVA****p<0.0001; Tukey's multiple comparison- C/C+T vs Fsk***; Con vs*

2***; Con vs 20***; Fsk vs 0.02**; Fsk vs 0.2*; 0.02 vs 2* (n=3). Alphabetical annotations are

used to denote differences in statistical significance).

Fig 5a: Expression of <u>Insulin receptor</u> (InsR) mRNA expression ± insulin and VD at various doses

in KGNs. Chronic exposure to high insulin (100ng/ml) significantly reduced InsR expression

(spotted white bars), which was further attenuated in the presence of very low VD (light grey

spotted bars). This combined suppression of InsR was seen even with VD at sufficient levels

compared to basal (dark grey spotted bars). *One column t-test p=0.0014 Ins100; p=0.001*

VD20+Ins10; p=0.0003 VD0.02+Ins100; p=0.0522 VD20+Ins10; p=0.0318 VD20+Ins100. One-

way ANOVA*p=0.048; (n=5-8). Values expressed as mean±SEM.

Fig 5b: Expression of <u>aromatase</u> mRNA expression ± insulin and VD at various doses in KGNs.

Insulin had no effect on aromatase expression but reversed the attenuation of basal

aromatase expression brought about by low dose VD exposure (light grey spotted bars). *One*

way ANOVA *p=0.0307; Unpaired t-test: VD0.02 vs VD0.02+Ins100 *p=0.0118 (2 tail); VD0.02

vs VD20 +p=0.0324 (1-tail) (n=5-8) Values expressed as mean ± SEM).

Fig 5c: mRNA expression of AMH in the presence of VD (at 0.02 and 20nM) and forskolin (Fsk)

in KGNs. Fsk reduced AMH expression below basal (white spotted bars) and this was further

attenuated in the presence of $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ with the strongest reduction seen in the presence

of 20nM VD (dark grey spotted bars) *(ANOVA*p=0.02; Tukey's multiple comparison *p<0.05).*

Fig 6: Representative image of western blot of protein from KGN cells cultured ± Fsk and VD

at 0.02 and 20nM; immuno-precipitated with anti-VDR antibody (1:1000) and western blotted

with anti-RXR antibody (1:1000) to detect RXR:VDR heterodimers. Equal quantities of protein

were loaded onto each lane to allow for comparisons. *Lanes: 1=control, 2=Fsk,*

3=Fsk+VD20,4=Fsk+VD0.02 Red band=anti-RXRα, Green band=anti-VDR (IP-VDR).

Supplemental Figure Legends:

Fig S1: $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ had no effect on progesterone production from <u>theca</u> taken from LAF (15-

22mm, grey bars, *n=5 subjects, total follicles=5*) from normal ovaries. *(ANOVA n/s).*

Fig S2: $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ had no effect on 17-hydroxy-progesterone (17-OH-P) production from

<u>theca</u> taken from LAF (15-22mm, grey bars, *n=5 subjects, total follicles=5*) from normal

ovaries. *(ANOVA n/s).*

Fig S3: $1,25(OH)_2D_3$ had no effect on progesterone production from <u>granulosa-lutein cells</u>

(n=4; ANOVA n/s).

Fig 1a

Fig 1b

Fig 1c

Fig 2a

Fig 2b

Fig 2c

Fig 2d

Fig 3a

Fig 3b

Fig 3c

Fig 3d

Fig 3e

Fig 4a

Fig 4b

Fig 5a

Fig 5b

Fig 5c

Fsk	–	+	–	+	–	+
VD 0.02nM	–	–	+	+	–	–
VD 20nM	–	–	–	–	+	+

Fig 6