Title: Testosterone-Induced Metabolic Changes in Seminal Vesicle Epithelial cells Alter Plasma Components to Enhance Sperm Motility

Authors: Takahiro Yamanaka[1], Zimo Xiao[1], Natsumi Tsujita[1], Mahmoud Awad[1,2], Takashi Umehara[1], Masayuki Shimada[1,3]*

Affiliations:

[1] Graduate School of Integrated Sciences for Life, Hiroshima University; Higashihiroshima, Hiroshima, Japan

[2] Department of Histology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, South Valley University; Qena, Egypt

[3] Graduate School of Innovation and Practice for Smart Society, Hiroshima University; Higashihiroshima, Hiroshima, Japan

*Corresponding author. Masayuki Shimada, Ph.D. E-mail: mashimad@hiroshima-u.ac.jp, Tel/Fax: (+81)-824-24-7899

One Sentence Summary: Testosterone induces ACLY expression in seminal vesicles, a key factor in forming seminal plasma to acquire *in vivo* fertilization ability of sperm.

Abstract:

Male factors account for almost half of the causes of infertility. In rodents and humans, most of the components of semen are supplied by the seminal vesicles, and they support male reproductive ability, but there are many unknown details. In this study, the metabolic changes in the seminal vesicle epithelial cells were focused on, and the mechanisms by which testosterone affected the seminal plasma composition were investigated. A factor improving the linear motility of sperm was secreted from the seminal vesicles, and it was produced in an androgen-dependent manner. Bioassays, gene expression, and flux analysis studies demonstrated that testosterone promotes glucose uptake in seminal vesicle epithelial cells via GLUT4, resulting in fatty acid synthesis. ACLY was a critical factor in this metabolic change, which produced fatty acid, especially oleic acid. In conclusion, the critical role of testosterone-induced metabolic changes in the seminal vesicles is to ensure the synthesis of fatty acid. These findings provide new

31   understanding the male fertility mechanisms and may perspective for the development of potential

32   biomarkers of male fertility and advance in the treatment of male infertility.

Main Text:

INTRODUCTION

Infertility is defined by the World Health Organization (WHO) as the failure to conceive within 12 months despite contraceptive-free sexual intercourse. Its prevalence has increased over the decades and is observed in 17.5% of couples worldwide *(1)*. The male partner is thought to be solely or in combination responsible for 50% of infertility cases, and the male factor in the etiology of infertility is highly recognized. Male fertility depends largely on the quality of semen composed of sperm and seminal plasma and decreases with aging *(2–4)*.

Sperm that have completed spermatogenesis in the testis acquire their potential to fertilize while maturing in the epididymis *(5–7)*. The physiological change of sperm during fertilization process are collectively referred to as "capacitation". This change includes a large amplitude of flagella (called hyperactivation) and developing the capacity to undergo the acrosome reaction, and can be induced by culturing sperm collected from the epididymis in a medium containing bicarbonate and cholesterol acceptors *(8, 9)*. However, once capacitation is complete, sperm cannot maintain that state for a long time. Therefore, even if epididymal sperm that have not been exposed to seminal plasma are artificially inseminated into the cervix or uterus, the fertilization rate remains low *(10–12)*. That is because, *in vivo*, during ejaculation, exposure of epididymal sperm to seminal plasma masks the unintended capacitation as they pass through the female reproductive tract and ensures fertilization of sperm that reach the oviduct *(13)*. In other words, seminal plasma plays an important role in fine-tuning the timing of sperm capacitation and in maintaining the sustained sperm motility needed to reach the oviduct.

Seminal plasma is mainly produced in the seminal vesicles (approximately 65-75%), with approximately 20-30% produced by the prostate, and small amounts secreted by the bulbourethral and urethral glands *(14)*. The mixing of seminal fluid with accessory reproductive gland fluid during ejaculation causes semen to clot and liquefy in humans and causes vaginal plug formation in rodents. Vaginal plugs not only inhibit continuous mating but also play a role in maintaining sperm in the uterus and ensuring male fertility *(13)*. TGFβ, a component of seminal plasma, increases antigen-specific Treg cells in the uterus of mice and humans, which induces immune tolerance, resulting in pregnancy *(15, 16)*. Furthermore, SVS2, secreted from the seminal vesicle, is also known to be required for sperm to escape attack by the female immune system in the uterus

(17). In addition, seminal plasma contains various biochemical components that support sperm

metabolism, including lipids and organic acids. Differences in the relative size of the accessory

reproductive glands reflect differences in the seminal plasma composition. Accordingly, there are

considerable differences in the properties of seminal plasma between animal species. Specifically,

Rosecrans et al. *(18)* found significant differences in the levels of most biochemical components

in seminal plasma compared to blood, with specific factors like fructose being rarely detected in

blood but abundant in seminal plasma. Our previous studies *(19–21)* documented that seminal

plasma also contains creatine and fatty acids taken up by sperm within minutes. These substances

play crucial roles in regulating sperm metabolic pathways and enhancing sperm motility. These

observations indicate that seminal plasma not only alters the female immune system to protect

sperm but also directly influences sperm metabolic pathways, facilitating the transformation of

sperm capable of *in vivo* fertilization.

Several specific factors produced by the male accessory glands that contribute to seminal

plasma and impact male fertility have been elucidated. For example, surgical removal of seminal

vesicles in male mice and rats was associated with infertility *(17, 22, 23)*. The observations that

fructose *(24)* and citric acid *(25)* concentrations in seminal plasma of control mice and rats are

higher than in castrated animals suggest that the specific metabolism of the accessory glands

might be affected by testosterone derived from the testes, which activate intracellular androgen

receptors (AR; NR3C4) required for gene regulation of transcription. AR-deficient mice have

been found to be infertile *(26)*, and long-term administration of androgen receptor antagonists,

like flutamide, abolished male fertility *(27, 28)*. AR-deficient mice and transcriptome analyses

have identified specific targets of AR *(29, 30)*. In both mice and humans, androgen levels

decrease with aging, and their concentrations have been reported to cause a decrease in male

fertility, especially ejaculated sperm motility. In addition to impairments in spermatogenesis, a

decline in androgen levels may also disrupt the metabolic functions of the accessory glands and

alter the composition of seminal plasma. Therefore, the intricate interplay between testosterone

and seminal plasma synthesis in the accessory glands requires further investigation.

In this study, various bioassays were done to identify which accessory glands are essential for

sperm fertility. Subsequently, comparative *in vivo* and *in vitro* analyses were performed using a

hypoandrogenic model. In addition, biochemical and molecular techniques such as RNA-seq, flux

analysis, mass spectrometry, and knockdown experiments were employed. These analyses

revealed that testosterone promotes the synthesis of oleic acid in seminal vesicle epithelial cells

and its secretion into seminal plasma.

RESULTS

The effect of androgen-dependent changes in mouse seminal vesicle secretions on the

linear motility of sperm

A direct comparison was conducted to clarify the effects of secretions from the prostate and

seminal vesicles on the motility parameters of epididymal sperm. Since it is difficult to collect the

ejaculated semen of mice, a pseudo-seminal plasma was prepared using seminal vesicle secretions

and homogenized prostate tissue (Fig.1A, Supplemental Fig.1A). When seminal vesicle

secretions were added to the HTF medium, the sperm motility, progressive motile, the straight

line velocity (VSL), and the percentage of linearity (LIN) values increased significantly compared

to when only prostate extract was used. However, the curvi-linear velocity (VCL) did not change

(Fig.1B-F). Meanwhile, the secretions from the prostate and seminal vesicles did not affect the

viscosity of the medium (Fig.1G). These results indicate that sperm exposure to seminal plasma

factors significantly improves sperm linear motility (high VSL and LIN).

Androgens regulate the functions of seminal vesicles. Therefore, to elucidate whether the

seminal vesicle factors, which enhance sperm linear motility, are synthesized in an androgen-

dependent manner, bioassays were performed using seminal vesicle secretions collected from

control mice or mice treated daily for 7 consecutive days with flutamide, an androgen receptor

antagonist (Fig. 1H, Supplemental Fig.1B). The results showed that Motile, Progressive motile,

LIN, and VSL were significantly reduced in the sperm cultured in seminal vesicle secretions from

flutamide-treated (Flutamide) compared to the sperm cultured in seminal vesicle secretions from

controls (Ctrl) (Fig.1I-L). The reduction of VSL, Motile, and Progressive motile were also

significantly lower in the sperm treated with seminal vesicle secretions from over 12 months old

mice that showed low circulating testosterone levels as compared with the sperm treated with

seminal vesicle secretions from young adult mice (3 months old mice) (Supplemental Fig.2A,B).

Furthermore, JC-1 staining to measure mitochondrial membrane potential, which is important for

sperm linear motility, showed a significantly lower percentage of high mitochondrial membrane

potential in sperm treated with the secretions of seminal vesicles from flutamide-treated mice and

over 12 months old mice (Fig.1M, Supplemental Fig.1C,D, Supplemental Fig.2C). Since

flutamide treatment and aging also affect spermatogenesis and sperm motility, it should be noted

that epididymal sperm donors differ from seminal vesicle donors (Fig. 1H). Due to the strong

effect of the decapacitation factor, it was found that seminal vesicle fluid, regardless of the

presence or absence of androgens, reduces the fertilization rate in *in vitro* fertilization

(Supplemental Figure 1E). The baseline information for the epididymal sperm used in the

experiment showed that the sperm were normal (Supplemental Fig.1A). These results indicated

that androgen-dependent changes in seminal vesicle functions alter the levels/activity of seminal

vesicle secretion factors, which regulate sperm linear motility. The changes in seminal vesicle

functions were also induced by aging.

Testosterone-androgen receptor activity suppresses the proliferation of seminal vesicle epithelial

cells

To understand the difference between seminal vesicles that secrete factors for enhancing sperm

linear motility and those that are impaired in this function, we performed histological analysis of

seminal vesicles recovered from mice treated and non-treated with flutamide. In control mice, the

seminal vesicle epithelial cells were in a single layer, and androgen receptors were localized in the

nuclei of seminal vesicle epithelial cells (Fig.2A). However, in mice treated with continuous

administration of flutamide, seminal vesicle epithelial cells were multilayered, and the strong

accumulation of androgen receptors in nucleus was not observed (Fig.2A). To investigate the cause

of this multilayering of cells, we performed Ki67 staining, a marker of cell proliferation, and

apoptosis detection by TUNEL staining (Fig.2B). The results showed that the percentage of Ki67-

positive cells increased significantly after treatment with flutamide, but the percentage of TUNEL-

positive cells did not change, suggesting that the testosterone-androgen receptor pathway is

responsible for the inhibition of proliferation of seminal vesicle epithelial cells (Fig.2C). These

changes of abnormal morphology and high proliferation activity were also observed in seminal

vesicle of more than 12 months old mice that showed the low level of testosterone in serum

(Supplemental Figure 2D-F). Therefore, seminal vesicle epithelial cells were collected and cultured

in primary culture, as shown in Fig. 2D. The changes in cell number were counted, and the cell

cycle was analyzed by flow cytometry. When cultured without testosterone (c), the number of

seminal vesicle epithelial cells increased time-dependent manner. However, the addition of

testosterone significantly decreased the number of seminal vesicle epithelial cells during the 8-day

culture period in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig.2E). Flow cytometry on day 7 revealed a

significant increase in the proportion of cells in the G0/G1 phase and a corresponding decrease in

the G2/M phase. The G2/M phase was significantly decreased by the addition of testosterone (Fig.

2F,G). These results indicate that the testosterone-androgen receptor pathway inhibits seminal

vesicle epithelial cells in cell division.

Testosterone alters metabolic gene expression in seminal vesicle epithelial cells

To better understand the roles of testosterone in suppressing the proliferation of seminal vesicle

epithelial cells, RNA sequencing was done using the epithelial cells cultured with or without

testosterone. DEG (Differential Expressed Genes) analysis revealed that a total of 23,459 genes

were identified, including 997 upregulated genes and 3463 downregulated genes in seminal

vesicle epithelial cells by testosterone relative to control (Fig.3A). Genes largely upregulated

by testosterone included those already reported in seminal vesicles *(17, 22, 31)*, such as the

Seminal Vesicle Secretion (*Svs*) family (*Svs1~6*), *Pate4*, *Spinkl*, *Ceacam10*, and *Sva* (Fig.3B,C).

Therefore, the primary culture of seminal vesicle epithelial cells used in this experiment was

considered to maintain the characteristics of seminal vesicle epithelial cells *in vivo*. Many genes

were downregulated by testosterone, and those with a high rate of variation included collagen

synthase and *Mmp2*, which are involved in extracellular matrix formation (Fig.3C). However,

KEGG analysis, rather than individual genes, was used to predict functions altered by

testosterone. It was found that the expression of genes involved in the metabolic pathway was

the most highly affected by testosterone (Fig.3D). Because there is a close relationship between

cell proliferation and metabolic activity and between metabolic substrates in seminal plasma and

sperm motility, we hypothesized that testosterone induced changes in seminal vesicle epithelial

cell metabolism alter the components of seminal plasma to mediate the enhancement of sperm

motility.

Testosterone shifts the metabolic flux of seminal vesicle epithelial cells

In the presence of testosterone, the addition of glucose significantly activated the extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) normalized by the total number of live cells compared to that in epithelial cells cultured without testosterone (Fig.4A-C). These data indicate that testosterone enhances glucose utilization. This leads to the interpretation that testosterone increases the flow of glycolysis by increasing glucose uptake and alters metabolic flux distribution. To determine the metabolic fate of glycolytic end products, seminal vesicle epithelial cells were cultured with and without testosterone. Subsequently, the concentrations of pyruvate and lactate in the culture supernatant normalized by the total number of live cells were measured. The addition of testosterone significantly decreased the pyruvate concentration; however, the lactate concentration did not change significantly (Fig.4D,E). Therefore, we analyzed mitochondrial metabolism using a flux analyzer, predicting that more glucose is metabolized, pyruvate is metabolized from phosphoenolpyruvic acid through glycolysis in response to testosterone, and is further metabolized in the mitochondria. Unexpectedly, when measuring mitochondrial respiratory metabolism normalized by the total number of live cells with a Flux analyzer, the basal respiratory rate (the electron transport chain activity) was significantly decreased by testosterone (Fig.4F-J). Oligomycin-sensitive respiration was also significantly suppressed by exposure to testosterone. Furthermore, the FCCP uncoupled respiration and spare respiration capacity were also significantly decreased in response to testosterone treatment. Overall, these data indicate that testosterone promotes the redistribution of metabolic flux. In other words, testosterone increased glycolysis in seminal vesicle epithelial cells while decreasing mitochondrial respiration. To determine whether these changes were accompanied by changes in gene expression of specific metabolic-related enzymes, we analyzed gene expression levels.

Testosterone causes changes in the expression of genes encoding enzymes involved in glucose catabolism and anabolism

The expression of genes involved in glucose catabolism and anabolism in the *in vitro* culture system of seminal vesicle epithelial cells was analyzed by qPCR (Fig.5). The gene expression of glucose transporter (*Glut*) and enzymes involved in the glycolytic pathway was not significantly

affected by testosterone, consistent with the results of metabolic flux analysis, which showed that the glycolytic pathway was not enhanced despite the activation of the glycolysis. Furthermore, testosterone did not significantly affect the expression of genes encoding enzymes involved in the TCA cycle in mitochondria. However, the expression of enzymes involved in the electron transport chain was significantly decreased. Interestingly, testosterone significantly increased the expression of Acly, which encodes a cytoplasmic enzyme that converts citrate transported from the TCA cycle into acetyl-CoA, a substrate that is essential for fatty acid synthesis. Although *Hmgcr*, which encodes the rate-limiting enzyme involved in cholesterol synthesis, was unchanged, the expression of *Acc*, which encodes the rate-limiting enzyme for fatty acid synthesis, was significantly upregulated by testosterone. These characteristic testosterone-induced changes in gene expression observed in cultured cells were also detected by ACLY immunostaining of *in vivo* seminal vesicle samples (Supplemental Figure 3). Specifically, the expression of genes encoding a group of enzymes of the electron transport chain (*mtNd6*) was significantly upregulated by continuous flutamide administration *in vivo*, whereas the gene expression of *Acly* and *Acc* was significantly decreased by flutamide administration (Supplemental Figure 3B). Immunostaining results showed that ACLY was detected specifically in seminal vesicle epithelial cells, and their staining appeared to be reduced by flutamide treatment. The lower level of ACLY was also observed in seminal vesicle epithelial cells of over 12 months old mice (Supplemental Figure 3C).

Mechanism of testosterone-induced enhancement of glucose uptake and, thereby, fatty acid synthesis

Since it is known that testosterone regulates the intracellular localization of GLUT4, we focused on the intracellular localization of GLUT4 and its glucose uptake capacity *(32, 33)*. The effect of testosterone on glucose uptake in seminal vesicle epithelial cells was analyzed using fluorescence-labeled glucose. As expected from the results of flux metabolic analyses, testosterone treatment significantly increased glucose uptake (Fig.6A). Indinavir, a functional inhibitor of GLUT4, significantly suppressed glucose uptake and significantly decreased fatty acid synthesis (the amount of fatty acids accumulated in the cell), which was increased by testosterone (Fig.6A,B).

Furthermore, immunostaining analysis of the localization of GLUT4 in seminal vesicles

revealed that GLUT4 was translocated outside the nucleus of seminal vesicle epithelial cells

under the presence of testosterone (Fig.6C). These data suggest that GLUT4 was partially

localized at the plasma membrane and contributed to glucose uptake. In contrast, in seminal

vesicles from mice treated with flutamide continuously, no strong signal was detected at the

presumed location of GLUT4 near the plasma membrane of seminal vesicle epithelial cells, even

though the protein expression level was not affected (Fig.6C,D). The same characteristics were

observed in aged mice.

Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the fatty acids synthesis was performed by GC-MS.

In seminal vesicles, C16:0, C18:0, and C18:1 were detected, in which C18:1 was decreased to

an undetectable level in seminal vesicles of mice treated with the flutamide (Supplemental

Figure 4A). In the cultured seminal vesicle epithelial cells, C18:1, oleic acid, was significantly

increased by the addition of testosterone as observed in the seminal vesicle (Fig.6E). The

expression of *Elovl6* encoding ELOVL6, which desaturates C18:0 saturated fatty acids to C18:1,

was significantly up-regulated by testosterone (Fig.6F,G). The testosterone-induced change was

also detected in *in vivo* samples (seminal vesicle), where the expression of *Elovl6* was decreased

by the flutamide treatment (Supplemental Figure 4B).

In order to examine whether these lipids are the factors that induces sperm linear motility, we

examined whether or not the addition of lipid mixture changed in sperm motility pattern

(Supplemental Figure 5). The lipid mixture did not affect sperm motility at any concentration

compared to the control (LM 0%). However, VSL was significantly increased in sperm with 1%

lipid mixture added.

ACLY expression is upregulated by testosterone and is essential for the metabolic shift of

seminal vesicle epithelial cells that mediates sperm linear motility

ACLY is upregulated in seminal vesicle epithelial cells as a factor that enables the utilization

of citric acid from the TCA cycle for fatty acid synthesis outside the mitochondria. Therefore,

we performed siRNA knockdown experiments on ACLY to clarify the impact of ACLY on the

cellular metabolic shift. The addition of testosterone significantly increased the amount of ACLY

protein in seminal vesicle epithelial cells (Fig.7A,B). Viral infection with siRNAs encoding *Acly*-

targeted siRNAs markedly decreased the amount of ACLY (Fig.7C). When ACLY was knocked

down using shRNA, the proliferation arrest caused by testosterone was released, and the cells

began to proliferate again (Fig.7D). This knockdown of ACLY increased the oxygen

consumption of seminal vesicle epithelial cells in the control and testosterone-treated group

(Fig.7E,F). Thus, ACLY expression is associated with mitochondrial metabolic pathway activity

in seminal vesicle epithelial cells. Furthermore, the knockdown of ACLY also significantly

suppressed testosterone-induced fatty acid synthesis in seminal vesicle epithelial cells (Fig.7G).

According to the GC-MS quantification results, the amount of fatty acids secreted into the

culture medium was also reduced by ACLY knockdown. In particular, the enhancement of oleic

acid secretion by testosterone was inhibited by ACLY knockdown (Fig.7H-J). Supernatants from

epithelial cells of the testosterone-added group induced motility and linear motility (Highest

VSL and LIN; Fig.7K-N). However, the knockdown of ACLY significantly reduced the effects

of the culture supernatant on sperm motility and LIN (Fig.7K-N). These results found that cell

proliferation stops when a metabolic shift mediated by ACLY occurs, and glucose is reallocated

to fatty acid synthesis. Fatty acid synthesis is an important function of the seminal vesicles, and

it was found that when testosterone is present, fatty acid synthesis enhancement and cell

proliferation stop simultaneously. However, it is not known what effects occur when cell

proliferation stops.

This characteristic metabolic mechanism induced by testosterone is also observed in

human seminal vesicle epithelial cells

To determine whether these findings in mice could be applied to humans, the commercially

available human seminal vesicle epithelial cells were used for following studies (Fig.8A). The

growth curves showed that cell proliferation was inhibited by 100 ng/mL of testosterone

compared to the control; a pattern similar to that observed in murine seminal vesicle epithelial

cells (Fig.8B). The characteristics of metabolic activity of human seminal vesicle epithelial cells

were also similar to those of mice, with testosterone significantly enhancing the ECAR response

(Fig.8C-E), but significantly reducing the capacity for oxygen consumption in mitochondria

(Fig.8F-H). Moreover, fluorescent-glucose uptake was increased by testosterone and decreased

by the inhibitor of GLUT4 function (Fig.8I). Additionally, while testosterone also significantly

increased fatty acid synthesis, this increase was completely abolished by the GLUT4 inhibitor

(Fig.8J). According to the quantitative results obtained using GC-MS, the amount of fatty acids

secreted into the culture medium also decreased due to the inhibition of GLUT4 by indinavir. In

particular, it was shown that oleic acid secretion is completely dependent on glucose via GLUT4

(Fig.8K-M).

DISCUSSION

Seminal plasma has a variety of functions, including sperm transport, nutritional support,

interactions with the female reproductive tract, and especially the regulation of its relationship

with the female immune system. Mammalian seminal plasma is secreted mainly from the

seminal vesicle and is rich in cytokines, prostaglandins, and SVS family members *(34)*. For this

reason, recent studies have focused on the immunomodulatory function of seminal plasma in the

female reproductive tract. On the other hand, fructose and lipids in seminal plasma are the major

energy sources for sperm *(35)*. However, although metabolomic analyses of seminal plasma

have shown that metabolic substrates are present at higher concentrations in seminal plasma than

in blood *(18, 24, 25)*, how these substrates are synthesized and specifically how they alter sperm

motility has not been determined. Moreover, though the motility of ejaculated spermatozoa is

known to decrease with aging, few reports have revealed age-related changes in the seminal

vesicles, which are responsible for seminal plasma synthesis.

In this study, we focused on the reproductive organs that synthesize seminal vesicle secretion

as target organs for testosterone and found that factors formed by testosterone-dependent

metabolic changes in seminal vesicles activate sperm mitochondria and enhance their linear

motility. Testosterone is known to activate intracellular ARs and alter intracellular metabolic

pathways in skeletal muscle *(36)*, prostate cells *(37)* and cardiomyocytes *(33)*. ARs are known

to directly regulate the expression of glycolytic and lipid metabolic genes *(33, 38, 39)*. In the

present study, the nuclear localization of AR in seminal vesicle epithelial cells (i.e., functioning

as a transcription factor) and the activation of the glycolytic system by testosterone were similar

to those in the above cell types. In seminal vesicle epithelial cells, an increased trend in the

expression of *Glut3* and an enhancement of GLUT4 function were observed in a testosterone-

dependent manner. Such effects of testosterone on glucose metabolism have also been reported

in skeletal muscle, liver, and adipose tissue, where testosterone leads to the phosphorylation of

GLUT4 and enhances its translocation to the plasma membrane *(40, 41)*. This is consistent with

the results of our metabolic flux analyses, which show that testosterone increases the rate of

glycolysis in seminal vesicle epithelial cells by increasing glucose uptake. We further confirmed

that GLUT4 is the transporter that mediates this glucose uptake using indinavir, a GLUT4-

specific inhibitor.

This study suggests that fatty acid synthesis is an important function of the seminal vesicles,

which provide an environment where the ejaculated sperm can carry out active metabolism. The

shift to fatty acid synthesis was consistent with the cessation of cell proliferation in the presence

of testosterone. This mechanism could prevent the seminal vesicles from excessively consuming

the substrates necessary for sperm motility. Manipulation of ACLY expression in mouse

myoblasts and embryonic stem cells has been shown to alter the TCA cycle into a "non-normal

cycle" *(42)*. One advantage of the non-normal TCA cycle is its ability to retain carbon instead

of combusting it and to regenerate the cytosolic NAD+ needed to maintain glycolysis *(42, 43)*.

It suggests that ACLY, activated by testosterone, may suppress proliferation by skipping several

steps in the mitochondrial TCA cycle and minimizing ATP production associated with aerobic

respiration in seminal vesicle epithelial cells.

Testosterone has been reported to cause hypertrophy of cardiac myocytes *(44, 45)*. Cell

hypertrophy is partly due to the accumulation of fatty acids in the cytoplasm, which causes

significant damage to cellular functions *(46, 47)*. On the other hand, normal cell hypertrophy,

especially in myofibers, involves the activation of signaling molecules such as Myc, hypoxia-

inducible factor, and Pi3k-Akt-mTor, which regulate metabolic reprogramming in cancer by

increasing glucose uptake in the presence of oxygen *(48–50)*. In the present study, induction of

ACLY expression by testosterone not only decreased cycling in the TCA cycle, but also promoted

glucose assimilation, which played an important role in fatty acid synthesis. Thus, in tissues

where fatty acid synthesis is promoted, either β-oxidation-dependent ATP production in

mitochondria or the secretion of fatty acids occurs to maintain cellular function *(51–53)*

providing evidence to explain why the presence of fatty acids in the cell has no adverse effect.

In accessory reproductive glands, such as the prostate and seminal vesicles, the glucose uptake

is activated in a testosterone dependent. However, mitochondrial respiration is not enhanced,

cell proliferation is not induced, and the metabolites are used as a substrate for sperm motility.

This may be because, in the prostate, pyruvate synthesized by the glycolytic system in response

to testosterone is converted to acetyl CoA, which is then converted to citric acid in the TCA

cycle, citric acid is released as the main component of seminal plasma *(37)*.

The testosterone-dependent growth of cancerous prostate epithelial cells may be due to genetic

mutations, such as elevated expression of the gene encoding aconitase, which converts citric acid

to isocitrate, which blocks the TCA cycle and inhibits citric acid secretion *(54)*. On the other

hand, in the analysis of seminal vesicle epithelial cells, testosterone treatment induced the

expression of *Acc*, which encodes the rate-limiting enzyme for fatty acid synthesis, and *Elovl6*,

which desaturates to oleic acid, significantly increasing total saturated fatty acid and oleic acid

content. Therefore, testosterone promotes glucose conversion into fatty acids, especially oleic

acid, in seminal vesicle epithelial cells. Although there is a commonality in the activation of the

glycolytic system testosterone target tissues, the different expression patterns of genes involved

in metabolism in mitochondria may exert their specific functions in each tissue. In addition to

genes involved in fatty acid synthesis such as *Fasn* and *Elovl6*, *Acly* is also encoded in a region

in close proximity to human chromosome 17 and mouse chromosome 11, suggesting that in

seminal vesicle epithelial cells, this region is targeted to promote gene expression. The co-

regulation of these genes in seminal vesicle epithelial cells leads to synthesizing the fatty acids.

Decreased testosterone synthesis in the testes is a phenomenon observed with aging associated

with decreased spermatogenesis *(55)*. However, the probability of obtaining sperm without ICSI

or IVF is extremely low, despite the presence of sufficient numbers of sperm with normal-

morphology *(56–58)*. This indicates that testosterone plays a major role not only in

spermatogenesis but also in the functional maturation of sperm. In this study, metabolic

abnormalities induced by inhibition of androgen receptor function caused abnormal proliferation

of seminal vesicle epithelial cells in aged mice. In other words, the findings of the seminal vesicle

epithelial cell culture experiments and flutamide treatment may mimic the changes that occur

with aging. Oleic acid synthesis by testosterone-dependent metabolic pathways was regulated in

seminal vesicle epithelial cells. It could be assumed that a decrease in testosterone levels causes

abnormalities in the components of human semen. In particular, the results open up the

possibility of a translational study to detect low testosterone levels in men by testing for oleic

acid in semen.

Because seminal plasma contains components specific to certain male reproductive organs,

differences in protein composition may reflect pathological processes in these specific organs

(59). However, although proteomic and metabolomic analyses of seminal plasma have been

performed *(31, 59)*, the functional changes in seminal plasma, especially the effects on *in vivo*

fertilization potential, are not fully understood. This is because there are many challenges to

measuring the direct relationship between sperm metabolism and movement patterns. It has been

suggested that the potential importance of the effect of oleic acid on improving fertility, yet it is

too early to conclude this in this study. If a direct causal relationship between fatty acid

composition and improved sperm motility is established, differences in the concentration of fatty

acids in the seminal plasma will become a predictive marker of the fertilizing ability of semen.

The interspecies differences between humans and mice should be interpreted with caution, and

the translational aspects to humans are speculative, but this study revealed a testosterone-

dependent mechanism of oleic acid production in seminal vesicle epithelium.

Overall, the results of the studies described herein strongly support the hypothesis that

testosterone-dependent glucose to oleic acid conversion processes are required for normal

seminal plasma functions in the seminal vesicle (Fig.9). This study advances our understanding

of the role of testosterone in glucose metabolism and fatty acid synthesis and lays the

groundwork for future research in reproductive biology and fertility.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

The objective of this study was to elucidate the mechanisms of seminal plasma synthesis.

Testosterone-dependent changes in the seminal plasma function were examined by comparative

analysis of adult mice and flutamide-treated mice. The bioassays of extracts from male accessory

glands by epididymal sperm motility analysis were used to examine the seminal plasma

components important for sperm function. We also isolated the mouse seminal vesicle epithelial

cultured cells, and investigated the synthesis mechanism of the seminal plasma components using

RNA-seq, FluxAnalyzer, and shRNA knockdown. Finally, we performed validation using the

human epithelial cells.

Chemicals and Animals

Unless otherwise noted, chemicals used in this study were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St.

Louis, MO, USA) or Nacalai tesque (Osaka, Japan). Pregnant mare serum gonadotropin (PMSG)

and human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) were purchased from Asuka Seiyaku (Tokyo, Japan).

All procedures during animal experiments were reviewed and approved by the Animal Care and

Use Committee of Hiroshima University (Hiroshima, Japan; C21-9-3) and conducted according

to regulations. Specific pathogen-free C57BL/6NCrl male mice or Crl: CD1 (ICR) female mice

were purchased from Jackson Laboratory Japan (Kanagawa, Japan) and housed in an

environmentally controlled room with a 12-hour light/dark cycle, a temperature of $23 \pm 3°C$, and

free access to laboratory food (MF; Oriental Yeast Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and tap water. 8- to

16-week-old male or female mice were used for the experiments. Flutamide-treated mice were

injected subcutaneously for 7 days with 50 µg/g (body weight) of flutamide dissolved in corn oil.

Vehicle-treated mice received 100 µL of corn oil subcutaneously for 7 days. The aged males were

12 to 16 months old.

Bioassay using pseudo-seminal plasma and epididymal sperm

Prostate (mixed anterior, dorsal, lateral, and ventral) and seminal vesicles were collected from

adult C57BL/6NCrl mice. Seminal vesicle secretions were obtained by pressing the seminal

vesicles immediately after euthanasia. Prostatic extracts were obtained by homogenizing the

prostate immediately after euthanasia. Seminal vesicle secretions and prostate extracts collected

from one male mouse were dissolved in 500 µL and 200 µL of mHTF medium without BSA *(60)*,

respectively, then centrifuged at 2000 × g for 5 min at room temperature, and the supernatant was

collected, and protein levels were determined. The seminal vesicle secretions from flutamide-

treated mice were also collected similarly.

Cauda epididymis sperm recovered from male mouse were dispersed in 500 µL of mHTF

without BSA and centrifuged at 300 × g, 3 min to wash out epididymis-derived factors. The final

protein concentration of prostate and seminal vesicle secretion was adjusted to 10 mg/mL. An

aliquot (2 mL) of the pooled prostate or seminal vesicle extracts was conducted the viscosity

measurement data using Tuning Fork Vibro Viscometers (SV-1A, A&D Company, Tokyo, Japan).

The epididymis sperm was mixed with seminal vesicle secretion and/or prostate extract as shown

in Fig.1 and Supplementary Figure 1. The samples were incubated at 37°C for 60 min in a

humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air. Sperm motility patterns were then examined using

computer-assisted sperm analysis (CASA; HT CASA-Ceros II, Hamilton Thorne, Beverly, MA,

USA), with software version 1.11.9. The following sperm motility parameters were analyzed:

percentage of motile sperm (denoted by a path velocity >40 μm/s and a VSL >20%), percentage

of motile sperm with progressive motility (denoted by a path velocity >40 μm/s and a straightness

ratio >60%). Straight-Line Velocity; VSL: The distance between the first and last tracking points

of the sperm trajectory divided by the elapsed time. Curvi-Linear Velocity; VCL: The sum of the

distances between the centers of brightness in each frame divided by the elapsed time. Linearity;

LIN: Measures the straightness of the path. LIN is derived from the ratio of VSL/VCL multiplied

by 100.

Serum testosterone levels

The serum was separated from the clot by centrifugation at 1,500 × g for 15 min. Testosterone

levels in the serum samples were determined by a rodent testosterone ELISA test kit (ERKR7016,

Endocrine Technologies, Inc., Newark, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's manual.

Mitochondrial activity

Mitochondrial activity of sperm was measured using a MitoPT® JC-1 Assay Kit (911, Immuno

Chemistry Technologies, LLC, Bloomington, MN, USA) according to our previous study *(20)*.

Briefly, sperm were incubated with 200 μL of working solution containing 5,5',6,6'-tetrachloro-

1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolyl carbocyanine iodide (JC-1) dye at 37 °C for 30 min in the dark.

Using 10 μM of antimycin control (A8674; Sigma) under the same incubation conditions, we

confirmed that the JC-1 reaction is sensitive to changes in membrane potential. The sperm

suspension was centrifuged and washed twice with the base medium. After washing, the sperm

pellet was resuspended in the base medium and analyzed with an Attune® NxT Acoustic Focusing

Cytometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) using a 488 nm laser and a filter

with a bandwidth of 574/26 nm. The intensity of the average value was analyzed as the mean

fluorescence intensity (MFI) of JC-1 orange aggregates. A total of 100,000 sperm events were

analyzed. The sperm population is shown in Supplementary Figure 6.

***In vitro* fertilization (IVF)**

3 weeks old CD1 female mice were injected intraperitoneally with 4IU eCG to stimulate

follicle development and 5 IU hCG at 48 hours later. COCs collected from the oviductal

ampulla 16 h after hCG injection were placed into 100 μL of human tubal fluid (HTF) medium.

Sperm were collected from the cauda epididymis of 15 weeks or older C57BL/6N male mice in

100 μL of HTF medium. After 60 min of incubation with or without treatments (Ctrl, Flu or

HTF), the sperm were added into HTF medium at a final concentration of

2×10^5 spermatozoa/mL, and coincubated with the COCs. After 6h incubation, oocytes were

washed three times thoroughly and cultured in 250 μL of KSOM medium (MR 106-D; Sigma).

The cleavage rate was determined on Day 1 (Day 0=day of IVF), and the appearance of

blastocysts was recorded on Day 5.

Immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence

Seminal vesicles were fixed overnight in 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde/PBS, dehydrated in 70%

(v/v) ethanol, and embedded in paraffin. Paraffin-embedded fixed sections (4 μm) were

deparaffinized and hydrated with xylene and ethanol, respectively. Some slides were stained with

hematoxylin and eosin (HE). For antigen retrieval, sections were placed in citrate buffer (pH 6.0),

microwaved until boiling and allowed to stand at the temperature of pre-boil (95°C) for 15

minutes. Sections were incubated with 3% (v/v) hydrogen peroxide in methanol to block

endogenous peroxidase and then incubated with Normal Goat Serum Blocking Solution for rabbit

antibody (S-1000, Vector Laboratories, Newark, CA, USA) to block nonspecific sites. The

sections were then incubated overnight with primary rabbit antibodies: anti-AR antibody (1:100;

ab133273; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), anti-Ki67 antibody (1:1000; ab15580; Abcam) or anti-

ACLY antibody (1:200; ab40793; Abcam). Positive signals were visualized by DAB (3,3′-

Diaminobenzidine, 040-27001, Fujifilm Wako, Osaka, Japan) using the VECTASTAINE

LifeABC kit (PK-6101, Vector Laboratories) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Apoptotic

cells (including fragmented DNA) were detected using the In Situ Cell Death Detection Kit POD

(11684817910, Roche Ltd., Basel, Switzerland). To avoid false-positive or false-negative results,

DNAse-treated sections were used as positive controls, and TdT-untreated sections were used as

negative controls for apoptosis.

Nuclei were visualized with hematoxylin (Sakura Finetek, Tokyo, Japan). Ki-67 and apoptotic

positive cells were quantified using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health; Bethesda, MD,

USA), with software version 2.1.0/1.53u. Randomly selected sections were stained, and images

were obtained from randomly selected fields in each section. The positive percentage is defined

as the percentage of positively stained cells in the total number of epithelial cells evaluated. Only

positive staining was considered, regardless of staining intensity. For immunofluorescence, after

blocking nonspecific sites, the sections were incubated with a primary antibody: anti-GLUT4

antibody (1:200; ab33780; Abcam). After washing with 0.3% (v/v) Triton X-100 in PBS (-), Cy3-

labeled goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:200, C-2306, Sigma) and DAPI (VECTESHIELD Mounting

Medium with DAPI, H-1200, Vector Laboratories) were used to visualize the antigen and nuclei.

Digital images were taken using an APX100 Digital Imaging System and CellSens imaging

software (EVIDENT, Tokyo, Japan), with software version 4.1.1.

Isolation and culture of seminal vesicle epithelial cells

Seminal vesicles were removed from euthanized mice, cut open vertically to expose the seminal

vesicle cavity, and incubated with Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS; $CaCl_2 \cdot 2H_2O$ 0.185 g/L,

$MgSO_4$ 0.098 g/L, KCl 0.400 g/L, KH_2PO_4 0.060 g/L, NaHCO3 0.350 g/L, NaCl 8.000 g/L,

Na_2HPO_4 0.048 g/L, D-Glucose 1.0 g/L, dissolved in ultrapure water). Tissues were digested with

10 mL of HBSS containing 25 mg/mL pancreatin and 0.25% (v/v) trypsin EDTA for 1 hour at

4°C, 45 minutes at room temperature, and 15 minutes at 37°C, and epithelial cells were obtained.

These were passed through a 70 µm nylon filter (352350, Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) and

seeded into collagen-coated 12-well plates (4815-010, IWAKI, Shizuoka, Japan). Cells were

cultured in DMEM/F-12, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; 10438-018, Thermo Fisher Scientific

Inc.), 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin. The culture condition was 37°C, 5% CO_2,

95% air, and humidity.

Human seminal vesicle epithelial cells (4460, ScienCell Research Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA,

USA) were purchased, seeded in 2 µg/cm^2 poly-L-lysine-coated plates, and cultured in epithelial

cell medium (4101, ScienCell Research Laboratories). The cells were seeded at 10000 cells/cm^2

on collagen-coated plates the day before 100 ng/mL testosterone treatment. Testosterone was

dissolved in ethanol, and the final concentration of ethanol was adjusted to 0.1% (v/v) when used

for cultured cells. The culture medium was replaced every 48 hours.

Cell proliferation curve

The seminal vesicle epithelial cells were seeded at 10000 cells/cm^2 and then were cultured in

various concentrations of testosterone. The cells were washed with HBSS (without $CaCl_2$-

$2H_2O$/$MgSO_4$) at the time of cell counting and collected using 0.25% (v/v) trypsin. The recovered

cells were suspended in DMEM/F-12 medium, and cell numbers were determined using an

Automated Cell Counter TC20TM (BIO-RAD Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) to calculate the

number of cells contained per well (4 cm^2).

Cell cycle analysis

The recovered cells as described above were fixed in 2-5 ml of cold (4°C) 70% methanol for

at least 30 minutes on ice. After centrifugation at 500g for 5 minutes at 4°C to obtain pellets, the

cell pellet was suspended in 50 µM propidium iodide and 20 × diluted RNase (19101, QIAGEN

Inc., Venlo, Netherlands) and then were incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. After twice washing

with 1 ml of PBS at 300 g for 3 min at 4°C, the cells were analyzed by flow cytometry. The cell

population is shown in Supplementary Figure 8. A total of 20,000 events were analyzed.

RNA-sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from cells using the RNeasy Mini Kit (74106, QIAGEN). Three

independent samples were assayed to evaluate the reproducibility of the experimental procedures.

The quality of total RNA (1 µg) submitted for sequencing was checked using a Bioanalyzer

(Agilent Technologies Inc., Santa Clara, CA, USA), and all RNA integrity numbers were >7.0.

The libraries for RNA sequencing were sequenced with 2 × 150-bp paired-end reads on a

NovaSeq6000 (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The obtained sequencing data were analyzed

using RaNA-seq *(61)*, an open bioinformatics tool for rapid RNA-seq data analysis. FASTQ files were preprocessed in the pipeline using the Fastp tool, and expression was quantified using Salmon. DEseq2 was used to identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs) with adjusted p-values less than 0.05 between the testosterone-treated groups in transcripts per million (TPM) between control and testosterone-treated cells. The pathways were identified from the KEGG database on RaNA-seq.

Extracellular flux analysis

Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) and ECAR were measured using an extracellular flux analyzer (XF HS Mini; Agilent Technologies). Eight-well plates for the XF HS Mini were coated with fibronectin (5 µg/mL, F1141, Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), incubated overnight, and then washed with Roswell Park Memorial Laboratory medium for XF (Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium; RPMI, 103576-100, Agilent Technologies; containing 1% FBS) for XF before analysis. Mouse seminal vesicle epithelial cells or human seminal vesicle epithelial cells treated with 100 ng/mL testosterone for 7 days were suspended in RPMI medium at a concentration of 10,000 cells/180 µL, or mouse seminal vesicle epithelial cells infected with shRNA were suspended at a concentration of 2000 cells/180 µL in each well. After centrifugation at 300 × g for 3 minutes, the plates were placed in an incubator at 37°C and 100% air and used for analysis within 1 hour.

For glucose metabolism assessment, cells were sequentially treated as indicated with D-Glucose (10 mM; 103577-100, Agilent Technologies), Oligomycin (1 µM; O4876, Sigma-Aldrich), and 2-Deoxy-Glucose (50 mM; D8375, Sigma-Aldrich).

For mitochondrial respiration measurement, cells were sequentially treated as indicated with Oligomycin (1 µM), carbonyl cyanide 4-(trifluoromethoxy) phenylhydrazone (FCCP; 5 µM, SML2959, Sigma-Aldrich), and Rotenone (1 µM; R8875, Sigma-Aldrich)/Antimycin A (1 µM; A8674, Sigma-Aldrich). Cellular metabolism readouts, such as glycolysis, glycolytic reserve, basal OCR, Maximum respiration, ATP Production, Spare respiratory capacity, were determined using the Agilent Seahorse Wave software with software version 3.0.0.41. However, to avoid many ambiguities and problems with interpretation, "glycolysis" is written as "Glucose-induced

ECAR", "glycolytic reserve" as "Oligomycin-sensitive ECAR", "maximum respiration" as "FCCP uncoupled respiration", and "ATP production" as "Oligomycin-sensitive respiration".

Measurement of pyruvate and lactic acid

For measurements, mouse or human seminal vesicle epithelial cells were treated with 100 ng/ml testosterone for 6 days. The culture supernatant was collected after 24 hr of additional culture. Pyruvate consumption was measured using the Pyruvate Assay kit (MET-5029, Cell Biolabs, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The fluorescence intensity was measured using a microplate reader (ex. 570 nm/em. 615 nm). Lactate released into the medium was measured using the Lactate Assay kit (L256, DOJINDO LABOLATORIES Co., Ltd., Kumamoto, Japan). The absorbance was measured using a microplate reader (wave length=450nm).

qPCR

The cDNA was synthesized from 40 ng of total RNA using oligo(dT)$_{15}$ primers (3805, Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan) and an Avian myeloblastosis virus (AMV) reverse transcriptase from Promega (M5101, Madison, WI, USA). The cDNA and primers were added to Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (4367659, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) in a total reaction volume of 15 μl. Conditions were set to the following parameters: 10 min at 95°C, 15 sec at 95°C, and 1 min at 60°C. Cycles were repeated 45 times. Specific primer pairs were selected and analyzed, as shown in Table S1. Expression was first normalized to housekeeping gene *Rpl19*, and fold change was calculated relative to the mean of the control samples.

Glucose uptake test of seminal vesicle epithelial cells and lipid determination of culture supernatants

Mouse or human seminal vesicle epithelial cells treated with or without 100 ng/mL testosterone for 6 days were used for this experiment. Cells were treated with or without the GLUT4 inhibitor indinavir (100 nM) and 100 ng/mL testosterone for an additional 24 hours. Collected 15,000 cells were subjected to Glucose Uptake Assay Kit-Green (UP02; DOJINDO), and fluorescence intensity was measured using a microplate reader (ex. 485 nm/em. 535 nm).

Total lipid content in cultured medium was quantified using a lipid quantification kit (STA-617

Fluorometric, Cell Biolabs, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The fluorescence

intensity was measured using a microplate reader (ex. 485 nm/em. 535 nm).

Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis

Fatty acid measurements in culture supernatant and seminal vesicle secretions were done

according to our previous work *(21)*. Fatty acids in the samples were extracted and methylated

using a fatty acid methylation kit (06482-04, Nacalai Tesque) and then purified using a fatty acid

methyl ester purification kit (06483-94, Nacalai Tesque). The methylated sample (3.0 mL) was

dried and dissolved in 50 μL of elution solution. Samples were subjected to GC-MS.

Fatty acids were determined on an Agilent 7890A GC system coupled with a JMS-T 100 GCv

mass detector at the Natural Science Research Center, Hiroshima University (N-BARD). Sample

(1.0 µL aliquot) was injected to SP®-2560 capillary GC column (100 m × 0.25 mm i.d. × 0.2 μm

film thickness; 24056, Sigma-Aldrich). For measurements, helium was used as the carrier gas at

a constant flow rate of 2.0 mL/min. The GC oven temperature was gradually increased from

100°C to 300°C at a rate of 10°C/min and held at 300°C for 20 minutes. Ionization was performed

using electron ionization with an electron energy of 70 eV. Mass spectra were obtained in scan

mode (mass scan range 29-800 m/z). NIST MS Search v.2.0 was used to detect and identify of

fatty acids.

Sperm motility parameters with the lipid Mixture

Sperm recovered from the cauda epididymis of male mice were dispersed in 500 µL of mHTF

without BSA and centrifuged at 300 × g for 3 minutes to wash out epididymis-derived factors.

The sperm pellets were resuspended in HTF medium with or without a lipid mixture (LM) that

included 2 μg/mL arachidonic acid, 10 μg/mL linoleic acid, 10 μg/mL linolenic acid, 10 μg/mL

myristic acid, 10 μg/mL oleic acid, 10 μg/mL palmitic acid, and 10 μg/mL stearic acid (L0288,

Sigma-Aldrich). The sperm were then incubated for 60 minutes at 37°C under a humidified

atmosphere of 5% CO2. Sperm motility patterns were subsequently examined using CASA.

ACLY knock down experiment using shRNA

The U6 shRNA lentiviral vector of the *Acly* gene (mAcly[shRNA#1]; a virus packaging service,

VectorBuilder, Chicago, IL, USA) was used for knockdown experiments. The ACLY sequence

targeted by the shRNA vector used in this study was 5′-GCAGCAAAGATGTTCAGTAAA-3′.

Lentivirally transduced cells were prepared according to manufacture protocol. Immediately after

isolation, the mouse seminal vesicle epithelial cells were cultured overnight in a medium

containing 5 μg/mL polybrene (VectorBuilder) and lentiviral particles expressing an shRNA

targeting ACLY or a scramble (Multiplicity of Infection of 10). After an additional overnight

incubation in a fresh culture medium, the cells were incubated for 5 days in a medium containing

1 μg/ml puromycin (19752-64, Nacalai tesque). 100 ng/mL of testosterone was added to all

procedures for the testosterone-treated group. Infection efficiency, calculated based on the

number of GFP-positive cells using an APX100 Digital Imaging System, ranged between 70%

and 90%.

For sperm motility analysis, sperm were collected and washed with mHTF from the culture

supernatant and cauda epididymis. The samples were incubated at 37°C for 60 minutes in a

humidified atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in air. The sperm motility pattern was then examined using

CASA.

Western blot analysis

Protein samples of mouse seminal vesicle epithelial cells, seminal vesicle tissue, and sperm

were prepared by homogenization in cell lysis buffer (04719964001, cOmplete™ Lysis-M

EDTA-free, Roche) and diluted with an equal volume of sample buffer solution containing 2-ME

(2 ×) for SDS-PAGE (30566-22, Nacalai tesque). The extracts (10 μg protein) were separated by

SDS-polyacrylamide gel (10%) electrophoresis and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride

membranes (10600069, Cytiva, Tokyo, Japan). The membranes were then treated with Tris-

buffered saline and Tween 20 (TBST, 20 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20)

containing 5% (w/v) Non-Fat Dry milk (MORINAGA MILK INDUSTRY Co., Ltd., Tokyo,

Japan) for the nonspecific reaction was blocked. The membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C

with primary antibodies: anti-GLUT4 antibody (1:100; ab33780; Abcam), anti-ACLY antibody

(1:10,000; ab40793; Abcam) or anti-α/β-Tubulin antibody (1:1,000; 2148S; Cell Signaling). The

next day, membranes were washed with TBST and incubated with HRP-labeled antibody specific

for rabbit IgG (1:4000; 7074S; Cell Signaling). The bands were visualized by using Enhanced

Chemiluminescence detection systems (RPN2232, Cytiva) and ChemiDoc^{TM} MP Imaging System

(BIO-RAD Laboratories). The bands were analyzed by using the software ImageJ. Densitometry

analysis was performed using the ImageJ Gel Analysis tool, and the background of the gel was

also removed individually for each band. The full-length blotting images are shown in

Supplementary Figure 7.

Statistical analysis

Quantitative data were presented as means ± SEM. The Bartlett's test was used to confirm

whether the variances were equal for each group in experiments consisting of three or more

groups. All statistical details of the experiments are given in the figure legends. R [(version

4.3.1 (2023-06-16)] was used for statistical analysis. Data were considered statistically

significant at $p < 0.05$.

Data availability

Nucleotide sequence data reported are available in the DDBJ Sequenced Read Archive under

the accession numbers DRA017090. Additional information needed to reanalyze the data

reported in this paper is available from the principal contact upon request.

List of Supplementary Materials

Supplemental Figures 1 to 8

Table S1

Acknowledgments:

The authors would like to thank JoAnne S. Richards for carefully proofreading the manuscript

and useful comments.

Funding:

This work was supported in part by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 23K14069 to TU and

23H00361 to MS.

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: TY, TU, MS

Methodology: TY, ZX, NT, MA, TU

Investigation: TY, ZX, NT, MA, TU

Visualization: TY, MS

Funding acquisition: TU, MS

Supervision: MS

Writing – original draft: TY

Writing – review & editing: TY, TU, MS

Competing interests:

MS holds stocks in and receives a salary from Hiroshima Cryopreservation Service Co. as a director. In addition, MS has received royalties and grants from Hiroshima Cryopreservation Service Co. M.S. has received consulting fees from Rohto Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd.. TU holds stocks in and receives a salary from Lullabio Inc. as a director and has received honoraria from Rohto Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. The other authors declare they have no competing interests.

References

1. World Health Organization., Infertility prevalence estimates: 1990–2021. *Global report* , 1–98 (2023).

2. S. A. Kidd, B. Eskenazi, A. J. Wyrobek, Effects of male age on semen quality and fertility: a review of the literature. *Fertil Steril* **75**, 237–248 (2001).

3. A. Mumcu, A. Karaer, B. Dogan, G. Tuncay, Metabolomics analysis of seminal plasma in patients with idiopathic Oligoasthenoteratozoospermia using high-resolution NMR spectroscopy. *Andrology* **8**, 450–456 (2020).

4. Y. Xu, H. Lu, Y. Wang, Z. Zhang, Q. Wu, Comprehensive metabolic profiles of seminal plasma with different forms of male infertility and their correlation with sperm parameters. *J Pharm Biomed Anal* **177**, 112888 (2020)

5. S. Elbashir, Y. Magdi, A. Rashed, R. Henkel, A. Agarwal, Epididymal contribution to male

infertility: An overlooked problem. *Andrologia* **53**, e13721 (2021).

6. M. J. Cosentino, A. T. K. Cockett, Review Article: Structure and Function of the Epididymis

Transport of Spermatozoa. *Urol Res* **14**, 229–240 (1986).

7. B. Howarth, Fertilizing ability of cock spermatozoa from the testis epididymis and vas deferens

following intramagnal insemination. *Biol Reprod* **28**, 586–590 (1983).

8. R. Yanagimachi, The movement of golden hamster spermatozoa before and after capacitation.

J Reprod Fertil **23**, 193–196 (1970).

9. R. Yanagimachi, Mammalian Fertilization. E. Knobil, J.D. Neill (Eds.), *The physiology of*

reproduction, Raven Press, 189–317 (1994).

10. P. Gaddum-Rosse, Some observations on sperm transport through the uterotubal junction of

the rat. *Am J Anat* **160**, 333–341 (1981).

11. R. Shalgi, T. T. Smith, R. Yanagimachi2, A Quantitative Comparison of the Passage of

Capacitated and Uncapacitated Hamster Spermatozoa through the Uterotubal Junction. *Biol*

Reprod **46**, 419–424 (1992).

12. H. Li, P. Hung, S. S. Suarez, Ejaculated Mouse Sperm Enter Cumulus-Oocyte Complexes

More Efficiently In Vitro than Epididymal Sperm. *PLoS One* **10**, e0127753 (2015)

13. T. Noda, M. Ikawa, Physiological function of seminal vesicle secretions on male fecundity.

Reprod Med Biol **18**, 241–246 (2019).

14. P. Verze, T. Cai, S. Lorenzetti, The role of the prostate in male fertility, health and disease. *Nat*

Rev Urol **13**, 379–386 (2016).

15. E. Balandya, W. Wieland-Alter, K. Sanders, T. Lahey, Human Seminal Plasma Fosters CD4+

Regulatory T-cell Phenotype and Transforming Growth Factor-β1 Expression. *American Journal*

of Reproductive Immunology **68**, 322–330 (2012).

16. T. Shima, K. Inada, A. Nakashima, A. Ushijima, M. Ito, O. Yoshino, S. Saito, Paternal antigen-

specific proliferating regulatory T cells are increased in uterine-draining lymph nodes just before

implantation and in pregnant uterus just after implantation by seminal plasma-priming in

allogeneic mouse pregnancy. *J Reprod Immunol* **108**, 72–82 (2015).

17. N. Kawano, N. Araki, K. Yoshida, T. Hibino, N. Ohnami, M. Makino, S. Kanai, H. Hasuwa,

M. Yoshida, K. Miyado, A. Umezawa, Seminal vesicle protein SVS2 is required for sperm

survival in the uterus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **111**, 4145–4150 (2014).

18. R. R. Rosecrans, R. S. Jeyendran, M. Perez-Pelaez, W. P. Kennedy, Comparison of

Biochemical Parameters of Human Blood Serum and Seminal Plasma. *Andrologia* **19**, 625–628

(1987).

19. T. Umehara, T. Kawai, M. Goto, J. A. S. Richards, M. Shimada, Creatine enhances the

duration of sperm capacitation: a novel factor for improving in vitro fertilization with small

numbers of sperm. *Human Reproduction* **33**, 1117–1129 (2018).

20. Z. Zhu, T. Kawai, T. Umehara, S. A. M. Hoque, W. Zeng, M. Shimada, Negative effects of

ROS generated during linear sperm motility on gene expression and ATP generation in boar sperm

mitochondria. *Free Radic Biol Med* **141**, 159–171 (2019).

21. M. M. Islam, T. Umehara, N. Tsujita, M. Shimada, Saturated fatty acids accelerate linear

motility through mitochondrial ATP production in bull sperm. *Reprod Med Biol* **20**, 289–298

(2021).

22. T. Noda, Y. Fujihara, T. Matsumura, S. Oura, S. Kobayashi, M. Ikawa, Seminal vesicle

secretory protein 7, PATE4, is not required for sperm function but for copulatory plug formation

to ensure fecundity. *Biol Reprod* **100**, 1035–1045 (2019).

23. K. Queen, C. B. Dhabuwala, C. G. Pierrepoint, The effect of the removal of the various

accessory sex glands on the fertility of male rats. *J Reprod Fertil* **62**, 423–426 (1981).

24. Mann T, Studies on the metabolism of semen; fructose as a normal constituent of seminal

plasma; site of formation and function of fructose in semen. *Biochem J* **40**, 481–491 (1946).

25. Humphrey GF, Mann T, Studies on the metabolism of semen; citric acid in semen. *Biochem J*

44, 97–105 (1949).

26. C. Chang, S. O. Lee, R. S. Wang, S. Yeh, T. M. Chang, Androgen receptor (AR) physiological

roles in male and female reproductive systems: lessons learned from AR-knockout mice lacking

AR in selective cells. *Biol Reprod* **89**, 1–16 (2013).

27. C. Fix, C. Jordan, P. Cano, W. H. Walker, Testosterone activates mitogen-activated protein

kinase and the cAMP response element binding protein transcription factor in Sertoli cells. *Proc*

Natl Acad Sci U S A **101**, 10919–10924 (2004).

28. K. Nagaosa, A. Kishimoto, R. Kizu, A. Nakagawa, A. Shiratsuchi, Y. Nakanishi, Perturbation

of spermatogenesis by androgen antagonists directly injected into seminiferous tubules of live

mice. *Reproduction* **133**, 21–27 (2007).

29. L. B. Smith, W. H. Walker, The regulation of spermatogenesis by androgens. *Semin Cell Dev*
Biol **30**, 2–13 (2014).

30. P. S. Cooke, W. H. Walker, Male fertility in mice requires classical and nonclassical androgen
signaling. *Cell Rep* **36**, 109557 (2021).

31. S. P. Smyth, B. Nixon, A. L. Anderson, H. C. Murray, J. H. Martin, L. A. MacDougall, S. A.
Robertson, D. A. Skerrett-Byrne, J. E. Schjenken, Elucidation of the protein composition of
mouse seminal vesicle fluid. *Proteomics* **22**, e2100227 (2022).

32. H. Murata, P. W. Hruz, M. Mueckler, Indinavir inhibits the glucose transporter isoform Glut4
at physiologic concentrations. *AIDS* **16**, 859–863 (2002).

33. C. Wilson, A. Contreras-Ferrat, N. Venegas, C. Osorio-Fuentealba, M. Pávez, K. Montoya, J.
Durán, R. Maass, S. Lavandero, M. Estrada, Testosterone increases GLUT4-dependent glucose
uptake in cardiomyocytes. *J Cell Physiol* **228**, 2399–2407 (2013).

34. G. F. Gonzales, Function of seminal vesicles and their role on male fertility. *Asian J Androl* **3**,
251–258 (2001).

35. A. Lenzi, M. Picardo, L. Gandini, F. Dondero, Lipids of the sperm plasma membrane: from
polyunsaturated fatty acids considered as markers of sperm function to possible scavenger therapy.
Hum Reprod Update **2**, 246–256 (1996).

36. M. T. Haren, A. M. Siddiqui, H. J. Armbrecht, R. T. Kevorkian, M. J. Kim, M. J. Haas, A.
Mazza, V. B. Kumar, M. Green, W. A. Banks, J. E. Morley, Testosterone modulates gene
expression pathways regulating nutrient accumulation, glucose metabolism and protein turnover
in mouse skeletal muscle. *Int J Androl* **34**, 55–68 (2011).

37. L. C. Costello, R. B. Franklin, Testosterone and prolactin regulation of metabolic genes and
citrate metabolism of prostate epithelial cells. *Horm Metab Res* **34**, 417–424 (2002).

38. K. Gonthier, R. T. K. Poluri, É. Audet-Walsh, Functional genomic studies reveal the androgen
receptor as a master regulator of cellular energy metabolism in prostate cancer. *J Steroid Biochem*
Mol Biol **191**, 105367 (2019).

39. M. F. Troncoso, M. Pavez, C. Wilson, D. Lagos, J. Duran, S. Ramos, G. Barrientos, P. Silva,
P. Llanos, C. Basualto-Alarcón, B. D. Westenbrink, S. Lavandero, M. Estrada, Testosterone
activates glucose metabolism through AMPK and androgen signaling in cardiomyocyte
hypertrophy. *Biol Res* **54**, 1–16 (2021).

40. Chen X, Li X, Huang HY, Li X, Lin JF, Effects of testosterone on insulin receptor substrate-

1 and glucose transporter 4 expression in cells sensitive to insulin. *Zhonghua Yi Xue Za Zhi* **86**,

1474–1477 (2006).

41. K. Sato, M. Iemitsu, K. Aizawa, R. Ajisaka, Testosterone and DHEA activate the glucose

metabolism-related signaling pathway in skeletal muscle. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* **294**,

E961–E968 (2008).

42. P. K. Arnold, B. T. Jackson, K. I. Paras, J. S. Brunner, M. L. Hart, O. J. Newsom, S. P.

Alibeckoff, J. Endress, E. Drill, L. B. Sullivan, L. W. S. Finley, A non-canonical tricarboxylic acid

cycle underlies cellular identity. *Nature* **603**, 477–481 (2022).

43. A. Luengo, Z. Li, D. Y. Gui, L. B. Sullivan, M. Zagorulya, B. T. Do, R. Ferreira, A. Naamati,

A. Ali, C. A. Lewis, C. J. Thomas, S. Spranger, N. J. Matheson, M. G. Vander Heiden, Increased

demand for NAD+ relative to ATP drives aerobic glycolysis. *Mol Cell* **81**, 691–707 (2021).

44. B. B. Yeap, Testosterone and cardiovascular disease risk. *Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes*

Obes **22**, 193–202 (2015).

45. J. D. Marsh, M. H. Lehmann, R. H. Ritchie, J. K. Gwathmey, G. E. Green, R. J. Schiebinger,

Androgen receptors mediate hypertrophy in cardiac myocytes. *Circulation* **98**, 256–261 (1998).

46. G. F. Grabner, H. Xie, M. Schweiger, R. Zechner, Lipolysis: cellular mechanisms for lipid

mobilization from fat stores. *Nat Metab* **3**, 1445–1465 (2021).

47. B. Mittendorfer, Origins of metabolic complications in obesity: adipose tissue and free fatty

acid trafficking. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* **14**, 535–541 (2011).

48. H. Wackerhage, I. J. Vechetti, P. Baumert, S. Gehlert, L. Becker, R. T. Jaspers, M. H. de

Angelis, Does a Hypertrophying Muscle Fibre Reprogramme its Metabolism Similar to a Cancer

Cell? *Sports Med* **52**, 2569–2578 (2022).

49. R. J. De Berardinis, N. S. Chandel, Fundamentals of cancer metabolism. *Sci Adv* **2**, e1600200

(2016).

50. G. L. Semenza, Hypoxia-inducible factors in physiology and medicine. *Cell* **148**, 399–408

(2012).

51. B. Morant-Ferrando, D. Jimenez-Blasco, P. Alonso-Batan, J. Agulla, R. Lapresa, D. Garcia-

Rodriguez, S. Yunta-Sanchez, I. Lopez-Fabuel, E. Fernandez, P. Carmeliet, A. Almeida, M.

Garcia-Macia, J. P. Bolaños, Fatty acid oxidation organizes mitochondrial supercomplexes to

sustain astrocytic ROS and cognition. *Nat Metab* **5**, 1290–1302 (2023).

52. M. Duta-Mare, V. Sachdev, C. Leopold, D. Kolb, N. Vujic, M. Korbelius, D. C. Hofer, W. Xia,

K. Huber, M. Auer, B. Gottschalk, C. Magnes, W. F. Graier, A. Prokesch, B. Radovic, J. G.

Bogner-Strauss, D. Kratky, Lysosomal acid lipase regulates fatty acid channeling in brown

adipose tissue to maintain thermogenesis. *Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Cell Biol Lipids* **1863**, 467–

478 (2018).

53. S. C. C. Huang, B. Everts, Y. Ivanova, D. O'Sullivan, M. Nascimento, A. M. Smith, W. Beatty,

L. Love-Gregory, W. Y. Lam, C. M. O'Neill, C. Yan, H. Du, N. A. Abumrad, J. F. Urban, M. N.

Artyomov, E. L. Pearce, E. J. Pearce, Cell-intrinsic lysosomal lipolysis is essential for alternative

activation of macrophages. *Nat Immunol* **15**, 846–855 (2014).

54. K. H. Tsui, T. H. Feng, Y. F. Lin, P. L. Chang, H. H. Juang, p53 downregulates the gene

expression of mitochondrial aconitase in human prostate carcinoma cells. *Prostate* **71**, 62–70

(2011).

55. S. Almeida, L. Rato, M. Sousa, M. G. Alves, P. F. Oliveira, Fertility and Sperm Quality in the

Aging Male. *Curr Pharm Des* **23**, 4429–4437 (2017).

56. T. Murata, Y. Ishitsuka, K. Karouji, H. Kaneda, H. Toki, Y. Nakai, S. Makino, R. Fukumura,

H. Kotaki, S. Wakana, T. Noda, Y. Gondo, β-cateninC429S mice exhibit sterility consequent to

spatiotemporally sustained Wnt signalling in the internal genitalia. *Sci Rep* **4**, 6959 1–7 (2014).

57. B. A. Stone, A. Alex, L. B. Werlin, R. P. Marrs, Age thresholds for changes in semen

parameters in men. *Fertil Steril* **100**, 952–958 (2013).

58. J. L. Frattarelli, K. A. Miller, B. T. Miller, K. Elkind-Hirsch, R. T. Scott, Male age negatively

impacts embryo development and reproductive outcome in donor oocyte assisted reproductive

technology cycles. *Fertil Steril* **90**, 97–103 (2008).

59. A. P. Drabovich, P. Saraon, K. Jarvi, E. P. Diamandis, Seminal plasma as a diagnostic fluid

for male reproductive system disorders. *Nat Rev Urol* **11**, 278–288 (2014).

60. T. Umehara, N. Tsujita, Z. Zhu, M. Ikedo, M. Shimada, A simple sperm-sexing method that

activates TLR7/8 on X sperm for the efficient production of sexed mouse or cattle embryos. *Nat*

Protoc **15**, 2645–2667 (2020).

61. C. Prieto, D. Barrios, RaNA-Seq: Interactive RNA-Seq analysis from FASTQ files to

functional analysis. *Bioinformatics* **36**, 1955–1956 (2019).

Figures and Figure legends

Fig.1

Figure 1. Effects of seminal vesicle fluid and prostate fluids on sperm motility (A) The effects

of secretions from the prostate and seminal vesicles on sperm motility were directly compared.

(B-F) The effects of secretions from the prostate (Pros) or seminal vesicles (SV) on the motility

parameters of epididymal sperm were tested: (B) Motile, (C) Progressive motile, (D)   Curvi-

Linear Velocity; VCL, (E) Straight-Line Velocity; VSL and (F) Linearity; LIN is the ratio of VSL

to VCL of sperm that was incubated with the mixture of seminal vesicle secretions or prostate

extracts. (G) Viscosity of a solution containing prostate or seminal vesicle secretion with a protein

concentration of 10 mg/mL. (H) Experimental design to evaluate the effect of seminal vesicle

secretions collected from male mice treated with or without flutamide (50 mg/kg subcutaneously

every day for 7 days) on sperm. Note that the donor mice for sperm and seminal vesicle secretions

were different. (I-L) Performed bioassay using seminal vesicle fluid after treatment with vehicle

(Ctrl) or flutamide: (I) Motile, (J) Progressive motile, (K) LIN, (L) VSL. (M) The high

mitochondrial membrane potential (hMMP) was checked by the JC-1 kit. Antimycin (Anti) was

used as the negative control for hMMP. Data are mean ± SEM. n=3-9 independent replicates. The

viscosity measurement data were from n=3 repeated experiments using pooled prostate or seminal

vesicle extracts from at least 20 mice. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine transformation

before statistical analysis. (B-G, I-L) Significance was tested in comparison using Student's t-test.

(M) Since the results of the Bartlett test were significant, a two-way ANOVA using a generalized

linear model was performed. Both the flutamide administration and antimycin addition were

significant. The interaction was not significant. Games-Howell was performed as a post hoc test.

Different letters represent significantly different groups.

Fig.2

Figure 2. The testosterone-androgen receptor pathway inhibits the cell proliferation of seminal vesicle epithelial cells. (A) The localization of the androgen receptor (AR; NR3C4) in seminal vesicle of control (Ctrl) mice and those treated with flutamide (Fult). Scale bar=50 μm from 10× magnification for left panel and 20 μm from 20× magnification for right panel in each group. (B,C) Cell proliferation and apoptosis in seminal vesicle of control (Ctrl) mice and those treated with flutamide (Fult): (B) Representative images of Ctrl and Flut staining for Ki67 (top) and TUNEL (bottom). Scale bar=20 μm. (C) Percentage of Ki67 positive cells (top) and TUNEL positive (bottom) in Ctrl and Flut-treated seminal vesicle sections. (D) Experimental design to evaluate the effects of testosterone on the proliferation of seminal vesicle epithelial cells *in vitro*. The epithelial cells were culutured with or without testosterone for 8 days. (E) Growth curves of seminal vesicle epithelial cells that cultured with 0 (c), 1, 10 and 100 ng/mL of testosterone. (F,G) Cell cycle status was determined by flow cytometry. Data are mean ± SEM. n=3-5 mice or independent replicates. Each replicate experiments with 3-6 wells containing pooled cells from 3-5 mice. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine transformation before statistical analysis. Significance was tested in comparison to Ctrl using Student's t-test. The cell number data at d8 was compared with the control using Dunnett's test.

Fig.3

Figure 3. Testosterone changes the expression of genes involved in metabolic pathway in
seminal vesicle epithelial cells. (A) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes. RNA
sequencing was performed using RNA extracted from the seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured
with or without 100 ng/mL testosterone. Genes with a significant expression change are
highlighted as red dots. It found 4460 significant genes for a cutoff of P<0.05. (B) MA plot of
differential expression results. The seminal vesicle specific genes are highlighted as red dots
rather than significant genes. (C) Top 10 genes upregulated or downregulated by testosterone,
respectively, for altered gene expression. (D) Conducted KEGG analysis to identify differences
in pathway enrichment by testosterone, identifying the most variability in metabolic pathway
genes. It shows the number of differential expressed genes annotated to Gene Ontology shows (x

axis). p-value which measure the statistical significance of a possible functional enrichment for

each term.

Fig.4

Figure 4. Testosterone regulates glucose metabolism and mitochondrial ATP production in seminal vesicle epithelial cells. (A-C) Extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) analysis by an extracellular flux analyzer in seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with 100 ng/mL testosterone (Testo) or vehicle (Ctrl) for 7 days: (A) ECAR kinetics of seminal vesicle epithelial cells using an extracellular flux analyzer. (B) Glucose induced ECAR and (C) Oligomycin-sensitive ECAR. (D,E) The concentrations of pyruvate and lactate in the culture supernatant.

These measurements were normalized based on cell count and viability. (D) Pyruvate

concentration in the medium where seminal vesicle epithelial cells were cultured with or

without testosterone for 24 hours. (E) Lactate concentration. (F-J) Mitochondrial respiration

measurement by an extracellular flux analyzer: (F) Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) kinetics of

seminal vesicle epithelial cells with or without 100 ng/mL testosterone. (G) Basal OCR, (H)

FCCP uncoupled respiration, (I) Spare respiratory capacity and (J) Oligomycin-sensitive

respiration. Data are mean ± SEM of n = 3 replicate experiments with 3-6 wells containing

pooled cells from 3-5 mice or medium. Student's t-test was used to compare Ctrl and Testo. The

cells were normalized to 10,000 viable cells/well immediately before analysis. The viability of

the cells before experiments was 86-93%.

Fig.5

Figure 5. Effect of testosterone on gene expression of enzymes involved in the glucose

metabolic pathway in seminal vesicle epithelial cells. To elucidate the effects of testosterone

on gene expression of enzymes involved in glucose catabolism and anabolism in seminal vesicle

epithelial cells. ctrl: 7 days of culture with vehicle. Testo: 7 days of culture with 100 ng/mL

testosterone. Data are mean ± SEM of n = 3 replicate experiments with 3-6 wells containing

pooled cells from 3-5 mice. Student's t-test was used to compare Ctrl and Testo.

Fig.6

1000 **Fig.6 Testosterone enhances glucose uptake and fatty acid synthesis via GLUT4 trans-**

1001 **localization in seminal vesicle epithelial cells.** (A) The glucose uptake ability of seminal vesicle

1002 epithelial cells was detected using fluorescence-tagged glucose. The cells were cultured with 100

ng/mL testosterone and/or indinavir (100 μM) for 7 days and then further treated with glucose uptake probe-green for 15 min, and intracellular fluorescence was measured by flow cytometry (n=4). (B) Lipid accumulation in the medium where seminal vesicle epithelial cells were incubated for 24 hours (n=6). (C) Immunostaining of GLUT4 in flutamide-treated or vehicle mice derived seminal vesicle. Scale bar is 50 μm. (D) Western blot images of GLUT4 and α/β-tubulin in three sets of seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with 100 ng/mL testosterone (Testo) or in vehicle (Ctrl) for 7 days. Quantitative analysis of GLUT4 relative to α-tubulin obtained from Western blot. (E) Fatty acid composition in the medium was analyzed using gas chromatography. (F) Quantification of *Elovl* family gene expression by RT-qPCR. (G) Pathway of glucose assimilation to oleic acid. Data are mean ± SEM. n=3-6 independent replicates. Each replicate experiments with 3-6 wells containing pooled cells from 3-5 mice or medium. (A,B) The glucose uptake and lipid measurements were normalized based on cell count and viability. A two-way ANOVA was performed. Both the Indinavir and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test was performed as a post hoc test. Different letters represent significantly different groups. Student's t-test was used for comparison between the two groups.

1028 **Fig.7**

Figure 7. Testosterone-regulated ACLY induces metabolic shifts in seminal vesicle epithelial

1029

1030 **Figure 7. Testosterone-regulated ACLY induces metabolic shifts in seminal vesicle epithelial**

1031 **cells.** (A) Western blot images of ACLY and α/β-tubulin in three sets of seminal vesicle epithelial

cells cultured with 100 ng/mL testosterone (Testo) or in vehicle (Ctrl) for 7 days. (B) Quantitative analysis of ACLY relative to α-tubulin obtained from Western blot. (C) siRNA knockdown experiments of ACLY in seminal vesicle epithelial cells. ACLY protein levels in scrambled shRNA or ACLY shRNA-transfected seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with or without 100 ng/mL testosterone were determined by Western blot. (D) Number of cells at 7 days after incubation. (E,F) Changes in oxygen consumption of seminal vesicle epithelial cells were analyzed by a flux analyzer: (E) Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) kinetics of seminal vesicle epithelial cells transfected with scrambled shRNA or ACLY shRNA. (F) Basal OCR. (G) The impact of ACLY knockdown on testosterone-induced fatty acid synthesis was measured. These measurements were normalized based on cell count and viability. The viability of the cells before experiments was 67-81%. (H-I) Fatty acid composition in the cultured supernatants was analyzed using gas chromatography. (H) Palmitate (C16:0). (I) Stearic acid (C18:0). (J) Oleic acid (C18:1). (K-N) The effect of culture supernatants of testosterone-treated cells on sperm motility was evaluated, especially after ACLY knockdown. (K) Motile. (L) Progressive motile. (M) Straight-Line Velocity; VSL. (N) Linearity; LIN. Data are mean ± SEM. n=3-6 independent replicates. Repeated experiments were performed with cells recovered from 3 wells containing pooled cells from 3 to 5 mice. Student's t-test was used for comparison between the two groups. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine transformation before statistical analysis. (B) Significance was tested in comparison using Student's t-test. (D,G-M) A two-way ANOVA was performed. Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test was performed as a post hoc test. (D) Both the ACLY knockdown and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. (G) Both the ACLY knockdown and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was not significant. (H,I) Only the ACLY knockdown were significant. The interaction was not significant. (J) Both the ACLY knockdown and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. (F,N) Since the results of the Bartlett test were significant, a two-way ANOVA using a generalized linear model was performed. Games-Howell was performed as a post hoc test. (E) Only the ACLY knockdown were significant. The interaction was not significant. (N) Testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. Different letters represent significantly different groups.

1062 **Fig.8**

1063

1064 **Figure 8. Testosterone regulates the metabolic activity of human seminal vesicle epithelial**

1065 **cells.** (A) Representative image of human seminal vesicle epithelial cells. (B) Growth curves of

seminal vesicle epithelial cells with 100 ng/mL testosterone (Testo) or without (Ctrl). (C-H) Extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) kinetics and Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) kinetics of human seminal vesicle epithelial cells after 6 days of culture with or without 100 ng/mL testosterone using a flux analyzer. (D) Glucose induced ECAR and (E) Oligomycin-sensitive ECAR. (G) Basal OCR, (H) FCCP uncoupled respiration. (I) The glucose uptake ability of seminal vesicle epithelial cells was detected using fluorescence-tagged glucose. (J) Lipid accumulation in the medium where human seminal vesicle epithelial cells were incubated for 24 hours. (K-M) Fatty acid composition in the cultured supernatants was analyzed using gas chromatography. (K) Palmitate (C16:0). (L) Stearic acid (C18:0). (M) Oleic acid (C18:1). Data are mean ± SEM. n=3 independent replicates. Student's t-test was used for comparison between the two groups. (C-J) These measurements were normalized based on cell count and viability. The viability of the cells before experiments was 88-96%. (I,K,L) Since the results of the Bartlett test were significant, a two-way ANOVA using a generalized linear model was performed. Games-Howell was performed as a post hoc test. Both the Indinavir and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. (J) A two-way ANOVA was performed. Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test was performed as a post hoc test. Both the Indinavir and testosterone treatment were significant. The interaction was significant. Different letters represent significantly different groups.

1086 **Fig.9**

1087

Figure 9. Testosterone-induced metabolic reprogramming in seminal vesicle epithelial cells.

Testosterone promotes glucose uptake by changes in the localization of GLUT4 in seminal vesicle

epithelial cells. ATP-citrate-lyase (ACLY) activated by testosterone promotes fatty acid synthesis

by skipping some tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle steps. Simultaneously, cell proliferation in the

epididymal epithelial cells is suppressed. Testosterone also promotes the synthesis of oleic acid

from acetyl-CoA synthesized by ACLY.

1094

1095 **Supplemental Figure 1**

1096

Supplemental Figure 1. Sperm quality control data and exploratory research into the effects

of seminal vesicle secretions on sperm fertilization (A) The baseline information for the

epididymal sperm used in Fig 1 and Supplemental Fig 2A. Curvi-Linear Velocity; VCL, Straight-

Line Velocity; VSL and Linearity; LIN is the ratio of VSL to VCL of sperm incubated in HTF

medium one hour. (B) Serum testosterone levels in seminal vesicle secretion donors. (C) Typical

flow cytometry patterns for JC-1 staining From left to right: Unstained, untreated (HTF), and

antimycin-treated sperm. R7 and R8 were gated to obtain positive rates of over 60% for HTF and

antimycin, respectively. (D) The effect of various drugs on the proportion of high mitochondrial

membrane potential (hMMP; R7). Data are mean ± SEM. At least three independent replicates.

(B) Significance was tested in comparison using Student's t-test. (D) Percentage data were

subjected to arcsine transformation before statistical analysis. Differences between groups were

assessed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). When ANOVA was significant, differences

among values were analyzed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test for multiple

comparisons. Different letters represent significantly different groups.

1111

1112 **Supplemental Figure 2**

1113

Supplemental Figure 2. Characteristics of the seminal vesicle in aging mice (A) The effects

of secretions from aged seminal vesicle fluid on sperm motility. Straight-Line Velocity; VSL,

Motile, and Progressive motile. (B) Serum testosterone (T4) levels in young (3 months old) or

aged (12 months) mice. (C) The high mitochondrial membrane potential (hMMP) was checked

by the JC-1 kit. (D) Hematoxylin/Eosin (HE) staining in seminal vesicles of young and aged

mice. Scale bar=50 μm for left panel and 20 μm for right panel. (E) Representative images

staining for Ki67. Scale bar=50 μm. (F) The localization of the androgen receptor (AR; NR3C4)

in the seminal vesicles of aged mice. Scale bar=50 μm. (E,F) Images were obtained at 10×

magnification. Data are mean ± SEM. At least three independent replicates. Percentage data

were subjected to arcsine transformation before statistical analysis. (A,B) Significance was

tested in comparison using Student's t-test. (C) A two-way ANOVA was performed. Tukey's

Honest Significant Difference test was performed as a post hoc test. Both the age and antimycin

treatment were significant. The interaction was not significant. Different letters represent

significantly different groups.

1128

Supplemental Figure 3

Supplemental Figure 3. ACLY expression in *in vivo* seminal vesicle (A) Representative

Western blot images of ACLY and α-tubulin in three sets of seminal vesicle collected from 50

mg/kg flutamide subcutaneously for 7 days (Flut) or vehicle treated mice (Ctrl). (B)

Quantification of *Acly mtNd1, mtNd6 and Acc* gene expression by RT-qPCR. Data are mean ±

SEM. Student's t-test was used for comparison between the two groups (n=3). (C) ACLY

immunostaining: seminal vesicles from wild-type mice, flutamide-treated mice, and 12-month-

old aging mice. Scale bar is 50 μm.

1138

1139   **Supplemental Figure 4**

A

Fatty acid components

B

1140

Supplemental Figure 4. Oleic acid synthesis *in vivo* regulated by the testosterone-androgen

receptor system (A) Fatty acid composition of seminal vesicle extracts in flutamide-treated (Flu)

or vehicle mice (Ctrl) pretreated with a methylation kit was analyzed by gas chromatography.

*Moles contained per unit wight of seminal vesicle secretions. (B) Quantification of *Elovl6* gene

expression by RT-qPCR. Data are mean ± SEM. Student's t-test was used for comparison between

the two groups (n=5).

1147

1148 **Supplemental Figure 5**

1149

Supplemental Figure 5. The effects of lipid mixture on sperm function. The lipid mixture

(LM) improves the VSL of sperm. Here, LM means that sperm were cultured in HTF medium

containing a lipid mixture for 1 hour, and the control (LM 0%) means without LM. Curvi-Linear

Velocity; VCL, Straight-Line Velocity; VSL and Linearity; LIN is the ratio of VSL to VCL. Data

are mean ± SEM of n = 3 replicate experiments. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine

transformation before statistical analysis. Differences between groups were assessed by one-way

analysis of variance (ANOVA). When ANOVA was significant, differences among values were

analyzed by Tukey's Honest Significant Difference test for multiple comparisons. Different letters

represent significantly different groups.

1159

1160

1161 **Supplemental Figure 6**

1162

Supplemental Figure 6. Gating strategy of flow cytometry for sperm (A) Gating strategy for

the selection of single sperm. Using forward scatter (FSC)-A and side scatter (SSC)-A dot plots,

similar size and complexity cells were firstly selected (R1). In FSC-A and FSC-H dot plots and

FSC-A and FSC-W dot plots, similar-size cells were accumulated near area; thus, using these

plots, again similar-size cells were selected (R2, R3). The cells in R3 were used for below

analysis. (B) The dot plots of 5,5',6,6'-tetrachloro-1,1',3,3'-tetraethylbenzimidazolyl

carbocyanine iodide (JC-1) green (x-axis) and red (y-axis). The percentage of JC-1 red-

positive sperm (R7) was used for the analysis.

1171

1172 **Supplemental Figure 7**

1173

Supplemental Figure 7. Full-length blotting images of western blotting (A) Full-length

blotting images of GLUT4 and α/β-TUBLIN in seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with

100 ng/mL testosterone (Testo) or in vehicle (Ctrl) in Figure 6D. (B) Full-length blotting images

of ACLY and α/β-TUBLIN in seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with 100 ng/mL

testosterone (Testo) or in vehicle (Ctrl) in Figure 8A. (C) Full-length blotting images of ACLY

and α/β-TUBLIN in seminal vesicle epithelial cells in Figure 8C. ACLY protein levels in

scrambled shRNA or ACLY shRNA-transfected seminal vesicle epithelial cells cultured with or

without 100 ng/mL testosterone were determined by Western blot.

1182

1183 **Supplemental Figure 8**

1184

Supplemental Figure 8. Gating strategy of flow cytometry for seminal vesicle epithelial cells

Gating strategy for the selection of single sperm. Using forward scatter (FSC)-A and side scatter

(SSC)-A dot plots, similar size and complexity cells were firstly selected (R1). In FSC-A and

FSC-H dot plots and FSC-A and FSC-W dot plots, similar-size cells were accumulated near area;

thus, using these plots, again similar-size cells were selected (R2, R3). The cells in R3 were

applied to the propidium iodide (PI) histogram plot. Labelling DNA with PI allows fluorescence-

based analysis of the cell cycle. The intensity of PI fluorescence correlates with the amount of

DNA in each cell. Comparing the G1 and G2 phases, the amount of DNA doubles in the G2 phase,

so the fluorescence intensity of the cell population also doubles.

1194

1195

Table S1. Primer sequences used for quantitative real-time PCR.

Gene	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
Acc	GCCTCTTCCTGACAAACGAG	TGACTGCCGAAACATCTCTG
Acly	AGGTCTCTCTGCAGCCATGT	AAGCTTTCCTCGACGTTTGA
Aco2	CTAGCCTCAGCCCAGTGAAC	CCTTCAGCCACCAGTGAAAT
Cs	CAGATGCCCACAGAGGAACA	AGCTTGGCAATGAGGTCCAT
ElovI6	CCCGAACTAGGTGACACGAT	CCGCAAGGCGTAGTAAGAGT
Fasn	AGCACACATCCTAGGCATCC	TGTCGTGTCAGTAGCCGAGT
Fh	AGCAATGCATATTGCTGCTG	CGCATACTGGACTTGCTGAA
Glut1	AAACATGGAACCACCGCTAC	AGGCCAACAGGTTCATCATC
Glut2	GCCTGTGTATGCAACCATTG	TGGCCCAATCTCAAAGAAAC
Glut3	TGTCACAGGAGAAGCAGGTG	GCTCCAATCGTGGCATAGAT
Glut4	ACTCTTGCCACACAGGCTCT	AATGGAGACTGATGCGCTCT
Hk1	TATCGGTCCAGCACGTATGC	ACATCGTGACCCACACAGTC
Hk2	GGGTAGCCACGGAGTACAAA	TGGATTGAAAGCCAACTTCC
Hmgcr	TGGAGATCATGTGCTGCTTC	GCGACTATGAGCGTGAACAA
Idh2	CCGTCTTCAGAGAGCCAATC	GAAATGGACTCGTCGGTGTT
Mdh2	GCTTTGTCTTCTCCCTCGTG	CAAAGTCCTCGCCTTTCTTG
Nd1	CAGGATGAGCCTCAAACTCC	CCGGTTTGTTTCTGCTAGGG
Nd6	GGTTGGTTGTCTTGGGTTAGC	TAGATCCCCAAGTCTCTGGA
Ogdh	ACATGGCACAGTGCATCATT	ACATCTGCAGAAACCGCTCT
Pdha	GGGGACGTCTGTTGAGAGAG	TGTGTCCATGGTAGCGGTAA
Sdhb	ACTGGTGGAACGGAGACAAG	GTTAAGCCAATGCTCGCTTC
Suclg2	CTTTGGTGGGATCGTCAACT	AACAGCTTTCTTGGCTGCAT
L19	GGCATAGGGAAGAGGAAGG	GGATGTGCTCCATGAGGATGC

1196