Title: Testosterone-Induced Metabolic Changes in Seminal Vesicle Epithelial cells Alter

Plasma Components to Enhance Sperm Fertility

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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

affects the seminal plasma composition were investigated. A factor that improves the linear

motility of sperm was secreted from the seminal vesicles, which were synthesized 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

oleic acid synthesis. Oleic acid was shown to be taken up by sperm and to promote linear motility,

thereby improving fertilization rates both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. ACLY was a critical factor in this

metabolic change, which produces oleic acid and enhances their fertilization ability *in vivo*. In

conclusion, the critical role of testosterone-induced metabolic changes in the seminal vesicles is

to ensure the synthesis of oleic acid, which is important for sperm fertilization *in vivo*. These

findings provide new perspectives for the development of potential biomarkers of male fertility

and advances 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 accounts for 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)*.

Spermatogenesis occurs in the testes. While passing through the epididymis, sperm undergo a maturation process, but sperm do not fully acquire their fertilizing ability in the epididymis. *(5–7)*. Therefore, sperm collected from the epididymis cannot fertilize oocytes unless they acquire the ability to fertilize in *in vitro* and cannot maintain sustained liner motility required for migration from the uterus to the oviduct *(8, 9)*. Thus, when epididymal sperm are artificially inseminated to the cervix or uterus, fertilization rates are low *(10–12)*. However, when epididymal sperm are mixed with seminal plasma at the time of ejaculation or when sperm are exposed to seminal plasma *in vitro*, even for only a brief period, they acquire *in vivo* fertilization potential and are capable of passing through the female reproductive tract and fertilizing ovulated oocyte *in vivo* *(13)*. Thus, sperm formation occurs in the testis; they mature in the epididymis but only acquire the *in vivo* fertilization ability after exposure to seminal plasma.

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.

Some specific factors that male accessory glands 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 observation that fructose *(24)* and citric acid *(25)* concentrations in seminal plasma of control mice and rats are higher than in castrated animals indicates that specific functions of the accessory glands might be affected by testicular-derived testosterone that is known to activate the intracellular androgen receptor (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 human, androgen levels decrease with aging, and their concentrations have been reported to cause a decrease in male fertility, especially ejaculated sperm motility. Therefore, the reduction of androgen concentrations may affect the metabolic mechanisms of the accessory reproductive glands and alter the composition of seminal plasma with aging. However, the metabolic mechanisms that impact sperm functions are governed by a complex of enzymatic reactions. Therefore, the intricate interplay between testosterone and seminal plasma synthesis in the accessory reproductive glands requires further investigation.

In this study, we first performed various bioassays to identify which accessory reproductive 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, and the oleic acid ensures

the linear motility and fertilization ability of sperm.

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 by preparing fluids from the

seminal vesicle secretion 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 circular 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). 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 day-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 cytometric analysis of the cell

cycle on day 7 showed that the G0/G1 phase was significantly increased. The G2/M1 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 activity of seminal vesicle epithelial cells

In the presence of testosterone, the addition of glucose significantly activated the extracellular

oxidation rate (ECAR) normalized by the total number of live cells compared to that in epithelial

cells cultured without testosterone (Fig.4A-C). However, there was no difference in the

Oligomycin-sensitive ECAR, indicating that testosterone may increase glucose metabolism but

does not enhance the expression of a group of enzymes involved in the glycolytic pathway. 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 synthesized

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. These

results suggest that testosterone does not reduce transient enzyme activity in mitochondria but

rather weakens the metabolic pathway of the mitochondrial TCA cycle and/or the electron

transport chain due to the changes in gene expression patterns in seminal vesicle epithelial cells.

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, the expression of *Acly*, which encodes

an enzyme that reconverts citric acid formed in the TCA cycle to Acetyl CoA and induces cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis, was significantly increased by testosterone. 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 was significantly upregulated by continuous flutamide administration *in vivo*, whereas the gene expression of *Acly* and *Acc* was significantly decreased by flutamide administration. 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 3B).

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 translocalized 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 *Evovl6* was decreased

by the flutamide treatment (Supplemental Figure 4B).

Oleic acid (18:1) is taken up by sperm and promotes their linear motility

We observed that seminal vesicles secrete testosterone-dependent factors that induce sperm to

move linear and that seminal vesicle epithelial cells synthesize and secrete oleic acid in a

testosterone-dependent manner. In order to examine whether oleic acid is a factor that induces

sperm linear motility, we examined whether or not oleic acid is taken up by sperm and then

changes in sperm motility pattern. When epididymal sperm were incubated with fluorescently

labeled oleic acid, the fluorescent signal was selectively detected in the midpiece of the sperm

after quenching of extracellular fluorescence (Fig.7A). The fluorescence intensity of sperm

detected by flow cytometry significantly increased in a dose-dependent manner (Fig.7B, C).

Oleic acid did not affect sperm and progressive motile at any concentration compared to the

control (Fig.7D,E). In oleic acid-treated sperm, VSL was significantly increased in a dose-

dependent manner in the 0 to 50 nM (Fig.7F). LIN values were highest when 10 nM oleic acid

was added (Fig.7G). A flux analyzer was used to monitor real-time changes in mitochondrial β-

oxidation normalized by the number of sperm to quantify metabolic changes in mitochondrial

activity. The injection of 10 nM oleic acid induced a significant increase in OCR. Etomoxir, a β-

oxidation inhibitor, significantly decreased the OCR that was induced by oleic acid (Fig.7H,

Supplemental Figure 5A). In situ ATP detection by BioTracker ATP-Red revealed that the

percentage of sperm with high ATP production was significantly increased under the presence

of oleic acid (Fig.7I). To investigate the effect of oleic acid on the linear motility of sperm and

its effect on the fertilization ability of sperm, *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) was performed. When

the sperm number was sufficient, there was no change in the cleavage rate after *in vitro*

fertilization, but when the sperm count was reduced to less than one-tenth of the conventional

level, the cleavage rate increased compared to the control (Fig.7J,K). Due to the strong effect of

the decapacitation factor, we found that seminal vesicle fluid reduces the fertilization rate in IVF

(Supplemental Figure 5B). This results from inhibiting tyrosine phosphorylation of sperm and

acrosome reaction by seminal vesicle secretions. However, oleic acid did not have this inhibitory

effect (Supplemental Figure 5C-F).

To examine whether the addition of oleic acid to low quality seminal plasma (collected from

flutamide-treated mice) restores *in vivo* the fertilization potential of epididymal sperm, sperm

treated with seminal plasma collected from control or flutamide-treated mice was used for

artificial insemination. The *in vivo* fertilization rate was about 70% when sperm was treated with

the seminal vesicle secretions from control mice (SV); however, the fertilization rate was

significantly lower in the group that sperm was treated with the seminal vesicle secretions from

flutamide-treated mice (Flu) (SV: 73.1 ± 3.0%, Flu: 44.9 ± 4.5%). Although not significant,

adding oleic acid to the seminal secretions of flutamide-treated mice (Flu+OA) increased the

fertilization rate to 61.3 ± 3.9% (Fig.7L). These results indicated that the physiological role of

oleic acid is to increase the probability of fertilization by keeping the linear sperm motility. This

increases the likelihood of the sperm passing through the female reproductive tract and

environments that are unfavorable to sperm survival.

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 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 epithelial cells (Fig.8A,B). Viral infection with siRNAs encoding *Acly*-

targeted siRNAs markedly decreased the amount of ACLY (Fig.8C). When ACLY was knocked

down using shRNA, the proliferation arrest caused by testosterone was released, and the cells
began to proliferate again (Fig.8D). This knockdown of ACLY increased the oxygen
consumption of seminal epithelial cells in the control and testosterone-treated group (Fig.8E,F).
Thus, ACLY expression is associated with mitochondrial metabolic pathway activity in seminal
epithelial cells. Furthermore, the knockdown of ACLY also significantly suppressed
testosterone-induced fatty acid synthesis in seminal epithelial cells (Fig.8G). 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.8H-J). Supernatants from epithelial cells
of the testosterone-added group induced motility and linear motility (Highest VSL and LIN;
Fig.8K-N). However, the knockdown of ACLY significantly reduced the effects of the culture
supernatant on sperm motility and LIN (Fig.8K-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.
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This characteristic metabolic mechanism induced by testosterone is also observed in
human seminal 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.9A). 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.9B). The characteristics of metabolic activity of human seminal epithelial cells were
also similar to those of mice, with testosterone significantly enhancing the ECAR response
(Fig.9C-E), but significantly reducing the capacity for oxygen consumption in mitochondria
(Fig.9F-H). Moreover, fluorescent-glucose uptake was increased by testosterone and decreased
by the inhibitor of GLUT4 function (Fig.9I). Additionally, while testosterone also significantly
increased fatty acid synthesis, this increase was completely abolished by the GLUT4 inhibitor
(Fig.9J). 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.9K-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 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 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 oleic acid that ensures sperm

motility and function.

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 and the oleic acid stimulated sperm motility and enhanced *in vivo*

fertilization success. It could be assumed that a decrease in testosterone levels causes

abnormalities in the components of human semen. Specifically, the results open the possibility

of translational studies to understand human male infertility, especially in cases of failure to
conceive by natural mating or artificial insemination.

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. Differences in fatty acid concentrations,
including oleic acid, in seminal plasma may provide a predictive marker for the fertilization
potential of both human and domestic animal semen. Furthermore, the addition of oleic acid to
low-quality semen improved fertilization rates associated with artificial insemination, offering a
strategy for improving artificial insemination. In our previous study, the addition of fatty acids
to the thawing medium of frozen bull sperm improved linear motility and viability *(21)*. The
similarities between mouse and human seminal vesicle epithelial cells demonstrated in this study
have strong potential for the clinical application of these observations.

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 and normal reproductive performance in males
(Fig.10). This study advances our understanding of the role of testosterone in glucose
metabolism and fatty acid synthesis and lays the groundwork for future research and potential
therapeutic interventions in reproductive biology and fertility.

MATERIALS AND METHODS
Study design
The objective of this study was to elucidate the mechanisms of sperm plasma synthesis that
enhance sperm fertility. 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 fertilization. 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.
455
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.
470
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 drops 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, the sperm were

added into HTF medium at a final concentration of 2×10^5 spermatozoa/mL for conventional

experiments or 1×10^4 10 nM OA treated sperm/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$_2$O/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".

For mouse sperm analysis, NaHCO3-free HTF medium was prepared according to Balbach et al. *(62)*. Plates were coated with concanavalin A (0.5 mg/mL, Fujifilm Wako Chemicals) overnight the day before assay. Each well was seeded with 180 μL of NaHCO3- Free HTF medium containing 3,000,000 sperm cells. Sperm were injected with oleic acid (final concentration: 10 nM) with or without etomoxir (final concentration: 40 nM, E1905, Sigma-Aldrich).

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.

Quantification of sperm oleic acid uptake by flow cytometry

To detect the fluorescence intensity of each sperm sample using flow cytometry, sperm

collected from the epididymis were incubated with 1, 10 or 100 μM of fluorescently labeled oleic

acid (F-OA-01, NANOCS, New York, NY, USA). After washing, fluorescence were analyzed by

flow cytometry using a 530/30 nm bandwidth filter and measured as mean intensity. A total of

100,000 sperm events were analyzed. The localization of fluorescence in sperm was determined

using an APX100 Digital Imaging System.

Evaluation of acrosome damage

The acrosome status of sperm was assessed using 25 µg/mL fluorescein isothiocyanate-

conjugated peanut agglutinin (FITC-PNA; L7381, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and 2.4 nM

propidium iodide (PI; L 7011, Invitrogen) were used for evaluation. After incubation in the dark

at 37°C for 10 min. The fluorescence of FITC and PI were analyzed by flow cytometry using a

530/30 and 695/40 nm bandwidth filter, respectively. Damaged sperm were analyzed—FITC

fluorescence positive, but PI negative gate (Q4). A total of 100,000 sperm events were analyzed.

The sperm population is shown in Supplementary Figures 5 and 6.

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%.

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. When detecting phosphotyrosine, containing 5%

(w/v) bovine serum albumin was used as a blocking agent. The membranes were incubated

overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies: anti-phosphotyrosine antibody (1:10,000; 8959; Cell

Signaling), 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 Enhanched

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.

ATP production in sperm

After 1 hour of incubation in the presence or absence of oleic acid (10 nM), ATP in sperm was

visualized by BioTracker ATP-Red (SCT045, Sigma-Aldrich). The sperm were incubated with 10

nM of working solution containing BioTracker ATP-Red dye at 37 °C for 60 min in the dark.

After washing, the sperm pellet was resuspended in the base medium and analyzed with the flow

cytometry using a 488 nm laser and a filter with a bandwidth of 574/26 nm. A total of 100,000

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

Artificial insemination

To examine the involvement of seminal vesicle secretions in fertilization, sperm from

C57BL/6N mice were injected directly into the uterine bodies of superovulated CD1 mice by

syringe, as previously described with minor modifications *(17, 22)*. CD1 female mice were

injected intraperitoneally with 8 IU eCG to stimulate follicle development and used as recipients

for artificial insemination 48 hours later. Artificial seminal fluid was prepared in HTF medium to

a final concentration of 10 mg/mL of collected control or frutamide-derived seminal vesicle

secretions. As rescue experiment, 10 nM of oleic acid was added to the frutamide-derived seminal

secretions. Cauda epididymis sperm was suspended with above artificial seminal fluid (1×10^6

sperm/mL), and a total of 40 µL (20 µL each per uterus) was injected through the cervix of the

female mice. After artificial insemination, 7.5 IU of hCG was injected to stimulate ovulation.

Subsequently, a mixture of vaseline and paraffin with a ratio of 10:1 was injected to form an

artificial plug around the cervix. After 36~48 hours of sperm injection, the putative eggs were

retrieved from the oviducts. The number of two-cell embryos and mature unfertilized eggs were

counted and used to estimate the fertilization success rate.

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

Supplementary Data

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Conceptualization: TY, TU, MS

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Visualization: TY, MS

Funding acquisition: MS

Supervision: MS

Writing – original draft: TY

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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

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Changes in Glycolysis and Oxidative Phosphorylation during Mouse Sperm Capacitation.

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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.

1014 **Fig.2**

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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.

1035 **Fig.3**

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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.

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1050   **Fig.4**

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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%.

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1069 **Fig.5**

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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.

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1079   **Fig.6**

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

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

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.

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1109   **Fig.7**

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Figure 7. Oleic acid is incorporated to sperm, which enhances linear motility and mitochondrial activity. (A) Epididymal sperm were incubated with fluorescently labeled oleic acid (OA) and the fluorescence intensity after quenching was observed by a fluorescence microscope. (B) The fluorescence intensity of fluorescence-conjugated OA in sperm was detected by flow cytometry. (C) Average fluorescence intensity of sperm at different concentrations of fluorescence-conjugated OA. (D-G) OA improved sperm motility parameters. Sperm collected from mouse epididymis was incubated with OA for 60 min: (D) Motile, (E) Progressive motile, (F) Straight-Line Velocity; VSL and (G) Linearity; LIN (H) Increase in the Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of cultured sperm was measured using flux analyzer after treatment with 10 nM OA or 10 nM OA + 40 nM Etomoxir (Eto). Ctrl: the sperm cultured in HTF medium. Each well was seeded with 180 μL of NaHCO3- Free HTF medium containing 3,000,000 sperm. (I) The percentage of ATP-Red positive sperm after 1 hour incubation with or without 10 nM OA, measured using BioTracker ATP-Red staining and flow cytometry. (J,K) The sperm, after 1 hour of incubation with or without 10 nM OA, were used for the IVF test and analyzed for the rate of oocytes reaching cleavage. and blastocyst stage. (J) Cleavage rate. (K) Blastocyst rate. (L) Artificial insemination using sperm treated for 1 hour with "pseudo" seminal plasma from control (Ctrl), flutamide-treated (Flu) mice and supplement of 10 nM OA (Flu+OA) followed by an evaluation of the fertilization rates. Note that the donor mice for sperm and seminal vesicle secretions were different. Data are mean ± SEM. n=3-11 independent replicates. 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. Student's t-test was used for comparison between the two groups.

1138 **Fig.8**

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1140 **Figure 8. Testosterone-regulated ACLY induces metabolic shifts in seminal vesicle epithelial**

1141 **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 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.

1172   **Fig.9**

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1174   **Figure 9. Testosterone regulates the metabolic activity of human seminal epithelial cells.** (A)

1175   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. (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). 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.

1195 **Fig.10**

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Figure 10. Metabolic changes in the seminal vesicle epithelial cells by testosterone improve

the fertility of sperm. Left part: 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. Right part: Oleic

acid, incorporated into the sperm midpiece, increases the oxygen consumption rate (OCR) in

sperm mitochondria and increases ATP production. Therefore, oleic acid in seminal plasma is

important for male fertility because it improves sperm linear motility and fertilization ability.

1206

 Supplemental Figure 1

A

	Average	SEM
Motility (%)	91.5	7.5
Progressive motile (%)	57.5	6.6
VCL (μm/sec)	190.8	9.4
VSL (μm/sec)	74.7	3.5
LIN (%)	38.0	3.6
Viscosity of HTF (mPa·s)	0.8	0.01

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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) A
representative flow cytometry pattern of JC-1 staining of sperm that was not treated with drugs
(HTF). (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.

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1223 **Supplemental Figure 2**

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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.

1240 **Supplemental Figure 3**

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1242 **Supplemental Figure 3. ACLY expression in in vivo seminal vesicle** (A) Representative

1243 Western blot images of ACLY and α-tubulin in three sets of seminal vesicle collected from 50

1244 mg/kg flutamide subcutaneously for 7 days (Flut) or vehicle treated mice (Ctrl). (B) ACLY

1245 immunostaining: seminal vesicles from wild-type mice, flutamide-treated mice, and 12-month-

1246 old aging mice. Scale bar is 50 μm.

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1249   **Supplemental Figure 4**

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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).

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1258   **Supplemental Figure 5**

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Supplemental Figure 5. The effects of oleic acid and seminal vesicle secretions on sperm

function (A) Tracing of oxygen consumption rate (OCR) basal and injection with 10 nM oleic

acid (OA) or OA + 40 nM Etomoxir (Eto). (B) The sperm, after 1 hour of incubation with or

without seminal vesicle secretions (SV) from nontreated (Ctrl) or flutamide-treated mice(Flu),

were used for IVF, and the cleavaged oocytes were observed. The absolute number of oocytes

collected from the oviduct and the cleavage rate are shown. (C) Western blot analysis for

phosphotyrosine (P-Tyr) in capacitated spermatozoa (Ctrl; 1-hour incubation in HTF medium)

and treated with SV from healthy mice or 10 nM oleic acid (OA). (D) Quantitative analysis of

GLUT4 relative to α-tubulin obtained from Western blot. (E) Flow cytometric analysis of the

sperm after 1 hour incubation in control medium (HTF) and medium containing SV or 10 nM OA,

using fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated peanut agglutinin (PNA-FITC; to distinguish

between acrosome-reacted and non-reacted cells) and propidium iodide (PI; to distinguish

between dead and viable cells). (F) The percentage of viable sperm with an acrosome reaction

(PI-, PNA-FITC+) was evaluated by flow cytometry in the 4th quadrant (4Q; red square). Data

are mean ± SEM. At least three independent replicates. Percentage data were subjected to arcsine

transformation before statistical analysis. (B) Dunnett's test was used to analyze the cleavage rate.

Different letters represent significantly different groups. (D,F) 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.

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1282 **Supplemental Figure 6**

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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. (C) Histograms of BioTracker Red staining.

Blue line indicates the range of positive cells used in Figure 7I. (D) The dot plots of

fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated peanut agglutinin (PNA-FITC; x-axis) and

propidium iodide (PI; y-axis).

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1296   **Supplemental Figure 7**

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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. (A) 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. (B) 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.

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1307   **Supplemental Figure 8**

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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.

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

Gene	Forward primer (5'→3')	Reverse primer (5'→3')
Acc	GCCTCTTCCTGACAAACGAG	TGACTGCCGAAACATCTCTG
Acly	AGGTCTCTGCAGCCATGT	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

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