

G. FERREIRA-DIAS<sup>1\*</sup>, A.S. COSTA<sup>1</sup>, L. MATEUS<sup>1</sup>, A. KORZEKWA<sup>2</sup>,  
D.A. REDMER<sup>3</sup>, D.J. SKARZYNSKI<sup>2</sup>

## PROLIFERATIVE PROCESSES WITHIN THE EQUINE CORPUS LUTEUM MAY DEPEND ON PARACRINE PROGESTERONE ACTIONS

<sup>1</sup>C.I.I.S.A., Faculdade de Medicina Veterinária TU Lisboa, Lisboa, Portugal; <sup>2</sup>Institute of Animal Reproduction and Food Research of PAS, Olsztyn, Poland; <sup>3</sup>Dept. of Animal and Range Sciences, North Dakota State University, Fargo, ND, U.S.A.

Soon after ovulation, the corpus luteum (CL) starts secreting progesterone ( $P_4$ ), a hormone necessary for implantation. The aim of the study was to evaluate whether  $P_4$  exerts an autocrine/paracrine action on luteal angiogenic activity and  $P_4$ , prostaglandin  $E_2$  ( $PGE_2$ ) and NO production in the mare. Corpora hemorrhagica (CH) and mid-luteal phase CL (MCL) were cultured with (i) no hormone (Control); (ii)  $P_4$ ; (iii) a  $P_4$  precursor - pregnenolone; or (iv) a  $P_4$  antagonist - onapristone [ $10^{-4}M$ ;  $10^{-5}M$ ; all steroids]. NO production decreased in MCL, with respect to CH, when treated with  $P_4$  [ $10^{-4}M$ ] and pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}M$ ].  $PGE_2$  increased from CH to MCL, and showed a tendency to rise in pregnenolone treated luteal tissues ( $10^{-4}M$ ;  $p=0.06$ ). In the CH,  $P_4$  decreased with pregnenolone [ $10^{-4}M$ ] compared to control,  $P_4$  [ $10^{-5}M$ ], onapristone [ $10^{-4}M$ ;  $10^{-5}M$ ] and pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}M$ ] ( $p<0.05$ ). In the MCL, pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}M$ ] decreased ( $p<0.05$ ) and  $P_4$  tended to decrease ( $p=0.06$ ) bovine aortic endothelial cell (BAEC) mitogenesis. Onapristone [ $10^{-4}M$ ] increased BAEC proliferation with respect to  $P_4$  ( $p=0.01$ ). Since there was no direct effect of treatments on BAEC, these data suggest that long-lasting effects of  $P_4$  and its precursor may inhibit angiogenic factor(s) production by equine MCL, preparing for CL functional and structural regression.

Key words: *corpus luteum, mare, nitric oxide, onapristone, progesterone, pregnenolone, prostaglandins.*

### INTRODUCTION

Although the temporal pattern of pulsatile progesterone ( $P_4$ ) is well established in the mare (1), the factors regulating  $P_4$  synthesis and its actions on the corpus

luteum (CL) itself are not fully understood. In the mare, endocrine and vascular changes occur throughout physiologic growth and regression of the corpus luteum (2, 3). In this species, synthesis of  $P_4$  starts early in the luteal structure, with a simultaneous increase in  $P_4$  receptors (PR) in large luteal cells, luteal microvascularization, proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) expression, and large luteal cell count, until the mid-luteal phase (3, 4). The hormone  $P_4$  has been shown to act as a luteotropin (5), maintaining the synthesis of this steroid in the ovary (6 - 8). Acting as an autocrine factor by a PR-dependent mechanism,  $P_4$  suppresses the onset of apoptosis in the CL in several species (7 - 12).

Ovarian steroids and angiogenic factors, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF), endothelial growth factor and epidermal growth factor, are important modulators of nitric oxide (NO) synthesis (13 - 18). This important signalling molecule is a powerful vasodilator that has been known to play a role in the reproductive system (14, 19, 20). In the mare, NO appears to be involved in follicular growth and ovulation (20). Nitric oxide has also been shown to increase the production of prostaglandins in the bovine CL (21), and to decrease  $P_4$  in the rat (22). Impaired steroidogenesis by NO has been also reported in the rabbit (23), human (24), and cow (25). Actually, NO may be involved in the autocrine/paracrine luteolytic cascade induced by  $PGF2\alpha$  in the cow (25). However, in the ewe, NO may be antiluteolytic and prevent luteolysis (26), while in the rat it has a dual role, being protective in the mid luteal phase and pro-oxidant/luteolytic in the late luteal phase (27).

Besides being the major hormone of the luteal tissue,  $P_4$  also regulates prostaglandin (PG) synthesis by the CL. The synthesis of prostaglandins in the early CL may have numerous physiological functions such as intercellular communication, regulation of blood flow or cellular differentiation (28), that have not yet been clearly understood, especially in the mare.

Since the role of  $P_4$  on luteal function in the mare is still not clear, the main aim of the study was to evaluate whether  $P_4$  exerts an autocrine/paracrine action on luteal angiogenic activity and in the production of  $P_4$ , prostaglandin  $E_2$  ( $PGE_2$ ) and NO.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### *Mares*

Starting on the Spring equinox until the end of August, luteal tissue and venous blood were collected *post mortem* at an abattoir from randomly designated cycling mares. Reproductive and clinical histories of all mares were unknown, but as assessed by veterinary inspection, they were in good physical condition for human consumption.

### *Collection and preparation of luteal tissues*

Immediately after slaughter, ovaries were collected from 8 mares and luteal tissue structures were classified according to their macroscopic aspect as: early structures (corpora hemorrhagica, CH; n=4) and mid-luteal phase CL (MCL; corpora lutea associated with follicles 15 to 20 mm in diameter;

n=4). Small samples of corpora lutea were cut, rinsed thrice in sterile PBS with gentamycin [50µg/ml], and transported, on ice, to the laboratory in culture medium for further incubation. Culture medium consisted of Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium and Ham's F-12 medium (1:1, v:v), 0.1% BSA and gentamycin [50µg/ml] (all reagents from Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA).

### *Treatment with Steroids*

To determine whether endogenous  $P_4$  exerts an autocrine/paracrine action on the CL angiogenic activity, exogenous  $P_4$  and its precursor pregnenolone were tested *in vitro*. Besides, in order to evaluate if  $P_4$  acts at the classical PR level, the action of the PR antagonist onapristone was also studied. In order to accomplish this, luteal tissue (CH=4; MCL=4), was minced into small explants (approximately 1mm<sup>3</sup>), weighed, rinsed in sterile PBS with gentamycin [50µg/ml], and 60mg of tissue were placed in 2ml of culture medium in polystyrene culture tubes (Sarstedt, Numbrecht, Germany). The assays were run in triplicate. Luteal tissues were pre-incubated for 1h in medium, on a shaker (Titertek; Huntsville, AL, USA; 150 rpm), in a tissue incubator (Biosafe Eco-Integra Biosciences, Chur, Switzerland; 37°C, 5%CO<sub>2</sub>, 95% air). Under the same experimental conditions, 24h incubation was then carried out with either (i) no exogenous hormone (Control); or with (ii) progesterone ( $P_4$ ); (iii) pregnenolone; or (iv) onapristone added to the culture media [10<sup>-4</sup>M; 10<sup>-5</sup>M; all steroids]. These experiments were carried out in the presence of endogenous  $P_4$ . Negative controls consisted of culture media, without or with exogenous steroid hormones added, incubated in the absence of luteal tissue. Conditioned media by luteal tissues and from negative controls were stored at -70°C to be later analyzed for their ability to stimulate bovine aortic endothelial cell (BAEC) proliferation *in vitro* and for nitric oxide (NO),  $P_4$  and prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> (PGE<sub>2</sub>) production.

### *Endothelial cell proliferation assay*

#### *Preliminary studies*

The ability of media conditioned by equine luteal tissue to stimulate proliferation of BAEC was assessed by using Alamarblue™ reagent (Serotec Ltd, Oxford, UK). This reagent is designed to measure quantitatively the proliferation of various animal cell lines based on metabolic activity in response to a chemical reduction of a growth substrate and detection of cellular incorporation of a fluorometric/colorimetric growth indicator (29).

Since no specific information concerning the use of this cell proliferation indicator on BAEC was available, preliminary assays were carried out to determine the optimum incubation time of BAEC in 30% conditioned media. Briefly, BAEC were cultured in 30% conditioned medium in a 24-well culture plate (Nuclon-Nunc®) and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 95% air, at 1x10<sup>4</sup> cells/ml to 7x10<sup>4</sup> cells/ml for 24, 48 and 72h. Then, culture medium was replaced by the same volume of DMEM (without phenol) containing 10% Alamarblue™. Absorbance was read at 570 and 600nm (SpectrMax 340 PC, Molecular Devices) every hour for 7h for determination of the percentage of indicator reduction. These preliminary results established the optimum BAEC incubation time to be 48h, since it was the time that showed a greater percentage of reduction of Alamarblue™ among the various cell concentrations and final cell count. Optimal reading time was after a 5h incubation, since it corresponded to the value where linear correlation between the percentage of reduction of the indicator and cell density was the highest (R<sup>2</sup>=0.9507). This value was calculated according to Alamarblue™ manufacturer's instructions.

#### *Samples testing for BAEC proliferation capacity*

Bovine aortic endothelial cells (2x10<sup>4</sup>cells/ml) were allowed to adhere to the bottom of a 24-well culture plate (Nuclon-Nunc®), in a tissue incubator at 37°C, 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, 95% air for 14h. Afterwards, 30% conditioned samples were added to each well in triplicate, and incubated for

another 48h. Conditioned media was then replaced by fresh DMEM without phenol and 10% Alamarblue™. Two internal negative controls were used as follows: culture media was pipetted into two extra wells without BAEC, and 10% Alamarblue™ was added to only one of them. Absorbance was read at 570 and 600nm after a 5h incubation and amount of reduced reagent was calculated. Proliferative response of BAEC to luteal tissue conditioned media was evaluated by comparing the percentage of reduction of this media with media from negative controls (with no luteal tissue), which were considered 100% of cell mitogenesis (3, 30).

### *Determination of nitric oxide*

The *in vitro* production of NO by early and mid luteal phase corpora lutea was assessed according to the protocol for Griess reagent as previously reported (31). The amount of NO produced was determined, against a standard graph of sodium nitrite, at 540nm (Labsystems iEMS Reader MF). Nitric oxide production (ng) per mg of tissue was calculated and data subjected to statistical analyses.

### *Progesterone and PGE<sub>2</sub> determination*

Since luteal tissue was collected from mares of unknown reproductive history, their estrous cycle determination was based on *post-mortem* observation of the internal genitalia and further P<sub>4</sub> analysis. The presence of *corpora lutea* in the ovary indicated that the mares were in the luteal phase of the estrous cycle, which was always confirmed by plasma P<sub>4</sub> concentration >1 ng/ml. Jugular blood (10ml) was collected from all mares into heparinized tubes (monovettes®- Sarstedt) and transported on ice to the laboratory. After blood centrifugation, plasma was kept at -20°C until P<sub>4</sub> determinations were performed.

A solid-phase radioimmunoassay (Coat-a-Count Progesterone, Diagnostic Product Corp., Los Angeles, U.S.A.) was used for P<sub>4</sub> analyses in both plasma and luteal tissue conditioned media. Plasma P<sub>4</sub> intra-assay coefficient of variation for 6.4nmol/L (2 ng/ml) was 9.5%. For the determinations of P<sub>4</sub> in the culture medium, respective intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation for 15.9 nmol/L (5 ng/ml) were 1.9 % and 5.7%.

Concentrations of PGE<sub>2</sub> in the culture medium were determined with an enzyme immunoassay as described previously (32). The PGE<sub>2</sub> standard curve ranged from 0.39 ng/mL to 100 ng/mL, and the ED<sub>50</sub> of the assay was 6.25 ng/mL. The intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation were 1.6% and 11.0%, respectively.

### *Statistical Analysis*

All data, concerning BAEC proliferation assays, plasma P<sub>4</sub> concentrations, and *in vitro* NO, P<sub>4</sub> and PGE<sub>2</sub> concentrations in luteal tissue culture media were analyzed by use of a one-way ANOVA. Significance was defined as values of  $P < 0.05$ . Post-hoc comparison tests (LSD test) were performed whenever a significant difference was detected (Statistic for Windows, Statsoft, Inc., 1995, Tulsa, OK, U.S.A.).

## RESULTS

### *Endothelial cell proliferation assay*

Equine luteal tissue alone showed the capability to increase BAEC proliferation (Fig. 1), when compared to negative controls ( $p < 0.05$ ). No difference was

observed on BAEC proliferation among treatments for negative controls (no tissue added) (data not presented). Since no hormonal treatment had any direct effect on BAEC proliferation ( $p>0.05$ ), these data show that cell proliferation depended on angiogenic activity of the luteal structures submitted to the various exogenous steroids tested and not to the treatments themselves.

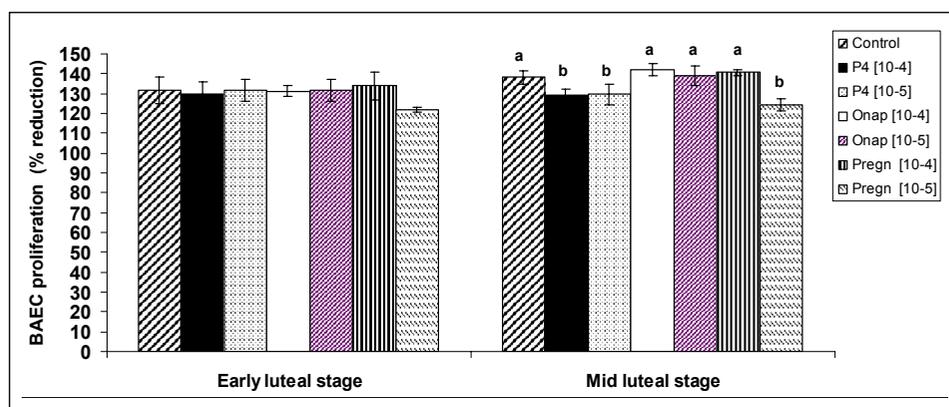
In the early luteal structures, angiogenic activity was not affected by any treatment tested, since BAEC proliferation was similar for all groups. However, in the MCL, exogenous  $P_4$  [ $10^{-4}M$ ;  $10^{-5}M$ ] had a tendency ( $p=0.06$ ) to reduce BAEC mitogenesis, with respect to controls (*Fig. 1*). Also, these corpora lutea, whenever in the presence of pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}M$ ], lowered BAEC proliferation when compared to other treatments ( $p<0.05$ ), except with  $P_4$  [ $10^{-4}M$ ;  $10^{-5}M$ ]. When the  $P_4$  receptor inhibitor onapristone [ $10^{-4}M$ ] was used in the MCL culture, BAEC proliferation increased with respect to  $P_4$  ( $p=0.01$ ; *Fig. 1*). The lowest concentration of onapristone [ $10^{-5}M$ ] also showed a tendency ( $p=0.06$ ) to stimulate endothelial cells multiplication.

### Nitric oxide production

In this study, the concentration of NO in luteal tissue conditioned media showed a significant decrease in the mid-luteal stage with respect to the early luteal stage ( $p<0.05$ ) when luteal tissues were treated with  $P_4$  [ $10^{-4}M$ ] and pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}M$ ] (*Fig. 2*).

### Progesterone and $PGE_2$ production

Progesterone concentrations in the plasma from the mares used in this study showed differences in the synthesis of this hormone, depending on the nature of

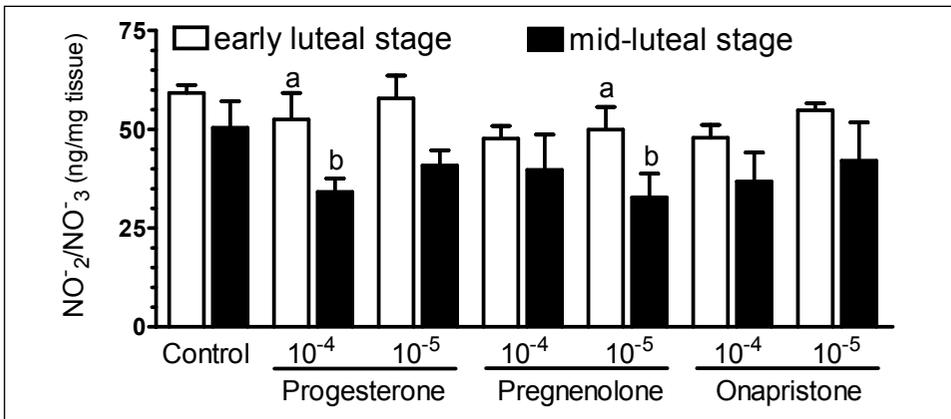


*Fig. 1.* Mitogenic capacity of early and mid luteal stage CL on bovine aortic endothelial cells (BAEC) in the presence or absence (control) of different steroid hormones. Values reported are means  $\pm$  SEM of reagent reduction. Values (a and b) differ significantly ( $p<0.05$ ; LSD test).

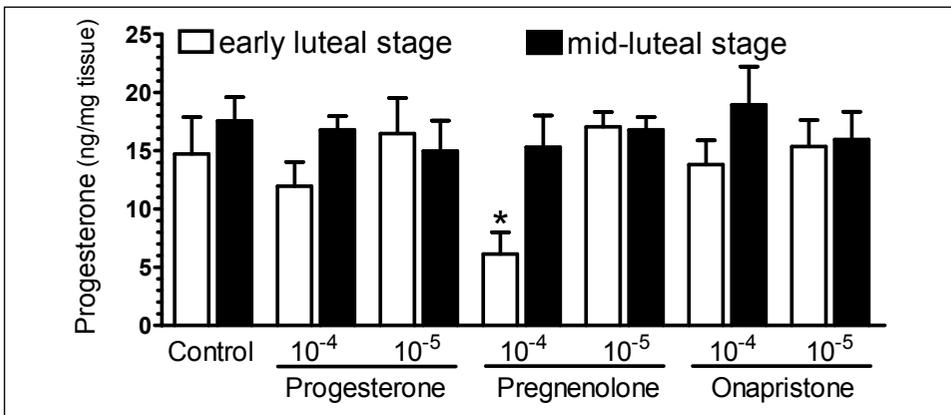
the luteal structures present (*i.e.* CH, MCL). There was a significant rise in  $P_4$  from CH stage ( $7.5\text{ng/ml}\pm 0.8$ ) to mid luteal phase CL ( $14.1\text{ng/ml}\pm 0.9$ ;  $p<0.001$ ).

In the culture medium conditioned by CH treated with pregnenolone [ $10^{-4}\text{M}$ ],  $P_4$  concentration decreased with respect to control,  $P_4$  [ $10^{-5}\text{M}$ ], onapristone [ $10^{-4}\text{M}$ ;  $10^{-5}\text{M}$ ] and pregnenolone [ $10^{-5}\text{M}$ ] groups ( $p<0.05$ ; *Fig. 3*). However, the release of  $P_4$  in culture media conditioned by MCL revealed no difference among treatments ( $p>0.05$ ; *Fig. 3*). In addition, for each treatment, no difference in  $P_4$  levels was observed between CH and MCL.

The analysis of medium  $\text{PGE}_2$  from luteal tissue culture revealed differences in the synthesis of this eicosanoid, depending on the luteal stage (*i.e.* CH, MCL).



*Fig. 2.* *In vitro* NO production by early and mid luteal stage CL, in the presence or absence (control) of different steroid hormones. Values reported are means $\pm$ SEM. Values (a and b) differ significantly ( $p<0.05$ ; LSD test).



*Fig. 3.* *In vitro* progesterone production by early and mid luteal stage CL, in the presence or absence (control) of different steroid hormones. Values reported are means $\pm$ SEM. Values (\*) differ significantly ( $p<0.05$ ; LSD test).

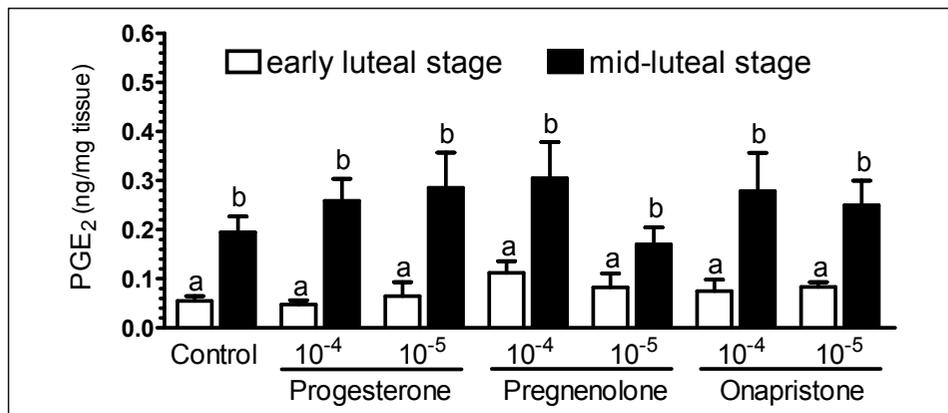


Fig. 4. *In vitro* prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> production by early and mid luteal stage CL, in the presence or absence (control) of different steroid hormones. Values reported are means  $\pm$  SEM. Values (a and b) differ significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ; LSD test).

There was a significant rise in PGE<sub>2</sub> from CH stage ( $0.055 \text{ ng/mg tissue} \pm 0.010$ ) to mid luteal phase CL ( $0.164 \text{ ng/mg tissue} \pm 0.032$ ;  $p < 0.01$ ; Fig. 4). Although there was a tendency for PGE<sub>2</sub> secretion to increase in luteal tissues treated with pregnenolone ( $10^{-4} \text{ M}$ ;  $p = 0.06$ ), there were no significant differences in PGE<sub>2</sub> secretion among all treatments ( $p > 0.05$ ; Fig. 4).

#### DISCUSSION

Vascularization of the female reproductive system during the cyclic period is influenced by the ovarian steroid hormones progesterone (P<sub>4</sub>) and estradiol (33). In the process of luteal regression, degeneration of steroidogenic and endothelial cells and blood vessels is essential (34). Actually, endothelial cells in bovine corpora lutea may be strongly involved in the luteolytic process, since large luteal cells undergo luteolysis when stimulated by PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  only in the presence of endothelial cells (35). Besides, microvascular endothelial cells are the first ones to undergo apoptosis in the CL (36). In the mare, during the late luteal phase, overall apoptosis increases (2), and PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  may play a role on luteal vascular regression by decreasing endothelial cell proliferation (37). Actually, a significant increase is observed in the expression of active caspase-3 - the effector enzyme of apoptosis - in large luteal cells, in all equine luteal structures when compared to early luteal tissue (37). In the present study, there was no direct effect of treatments on BAEC proliferation, showing that the steroids themselves are not influencing BAEC proliferation but most likely the angiogenic factors produced by steroid treated luteal tissue. The decrease in endothelial cell proliferation observed in mare's mid luteal phase CL, when in the presence of progesterone or

its precursor, could be due not only to a lack of synthesis of angiogenic factors, but also to a rise in anti-angiogenic factors, such as thrombospondins (38), angiostatin and endostatin (38 - 40). These factors may be modulating angiogenesis and luteal regression (39, 40). Some anti-angiogenic factors might be involved in luteal formation to avoid excessive vascular development and to mediate endothelial cells apoptosis during regression (41). Long-lasting effects of  $P_4$  and its precursor pregnenolone may inhibit angiogenic factor(s) or stimulate anti-angiogenic factor(s) production by equine MCL. However, the PR antagonist onapristone did not allow for this fall in BAEC proliferation. This may suggest that in the equine mid-luteal phase CL, inhibition of angiogenesis by progestagens is preparing for CL functional and structural regression. Besides this decrease in BAEC proliferation in the mid-luteal phase CL, incubated in the presence of  $P_4$  or its precursor pregnenolone, NO production was also lower. Therefore, it appears that inhibition of the angiogenic activity in the equine CL by exposure to long term progestagens might be a NO mediated process. However, NO anti-angiogenic properties as previously suggested for porcine granulosa cells (18), need to be further investigated.

Even though the highest plasma  $P_4$  production was observed in the mid luteal phase, as previously reported for the mare (3), *in vitro* release of this hormone did not increase in the MCL with respect to CH, when luteal tissue was not treated with any exogenous hormone (Control group). In the present study, onapristone, a  $P_4$  receptor antagonist, did not decrease *in vitro*  $P_4$  concentration at any stages of the luteal phase studied. Other reports on the *in vitro* use of onapristone showed it was able to reduce  $P_4$  release to the culture media in the early CL, but not in the MCL (7). Also, after short incubation times,  $P_4$  [ $10^{-5}$  M] stimulated *in vitro*  $P_4$  content in early luteal tissue, while onapristone [ $10^{-4}$  M] did not reduce it, with respect to controls (8). However, similar doses to the ones used in the present study have been effective on reducing *in vitro*  $P_4$  release by bovine corpora lutea cells at shorter incubation times (42). Bovine luteal cells obtained from an early pregnancy CL, when in the presence of PR antagonists (onapristone and RU-486) for 48h, also showed no difference in  $P_4$  concentrations in the culture media, when compared to controls (10). The reason why no change in  $P_4$  concentrations was observed in the present study is not clear. Since the doses of onapristone used were based on previous *in vitro* studies on bovine luteal cells (9, 11), this lack of responsiveness might be due to species differences or to methodological aspects (luteal tissue vs. luteal cells). Such paracrine regulation of luteal cells by endothelial cells may be mediated by factors produced by endothelial cells such as prostaglandin  $I_2$  ( $PGI_2$ ) and endothelin-1 (ET-1) (35), which exert luteotropic and luteolytic effects on luteal cells, respectively (43, 44).

In an early study, mean  $P_4$  concentration determined in the equine luteal tissue in six cycling mares was  $7\mu\text{g/g}$  (45). Therefore, the relatively low concentrations of the PR antagonist used in this study might explain this lack of  $P_4$  inhibition. However, other explanations should not be discarded. This observation may be

due to the fact that this steroid hormone may act via nonclassical receptor target sites by binding to the cell membrane (46). However, in the mare this mechanism of P<sub>4</sub> action in the corpus luteum seems unlikely, since PR have been detected in increasing intensity in large luteal cells, from early CL to MCL (4). In addition, the lack of response to onapristone could also be ascribed to P<sub>4</sub> receptor desensitization to continuous stimulation. This biological adaptation of desensitization of receptors is characterized not only by loss of receptor responsiveness but also of receptor number, affinity, and ability to activate second messengers systems (7, 47, 48).

In the present study, a fall in P<sub>4</sub> was observed in culture media of the CH incubated in the presence of pregnenolone [10<sup>-4</sup>M] compared to control, P<sub>4</sub> [10<sup>-5</sup>M], onapristone [10<sup>-4</sup>M;10<sup>-5</sup>M] and pregnenolone [10<sup>-5</sup>M](p<0.05). The dose of the P<sub>4</sub> precursor pregnenolone used in this experiment might be crucial for stimulation of P<sub>4</sub> synthesis. Although treatment of sheep large and small luteal cells with pregnenolone caused an increase in P<sub>4</sub> *in vitro* production (49), during pregnancy P<sub>4</sub> did not affect its own secretion by bovine (50) and ovine luteal slices (51). In the cow and sheep, high doses of P<sub>4</sub> given chronically (twice per day) during the early luteal phase shortens the estrous cycle (52, 53). No difference on P<sub>4</sub> release was observed for any treatment for the CLM, or between CH and MCL. Additional experiments will be required to determine the effects and mechanisms of P<sub>4</sub> on equine luteal endocrine function and/or involution. Besides, in the present experiment BAEC death throughout the incubation period should be considered as a potential explanation for some of the effects on P<sub>4</sub> production, and not solely direct regulation of luteal steroidogenesis (54).

It has been shown that the luteotropic effect of P<sub>4</sub> on the bovine CL is mediated by oxytocin (OT) and/or prostaglandins (7, 8). PGE<sub>2</sub> has been found to be the most potent luteotropin in the ovine and bovine CL (55, 56). Therefore, we examined whether P<sub>4</sub> may affect luteotropic PGE<sub>2</sub> production in the equine CL tissue. Equine luteal tissue from the early and mid luteal phases showed the ability to release PGE<sub>2</sub> *in vitro*, as previously reported for equine dispersed luteal cells (57). However, there were no significant differences in PGE<sub>2</sub> secretion among all treatments. Lack of P<sub>4</sub> effect on prostaglandin secretion is also one possible explanation of why P<sub>4</sub> did not regulate its own secretion in the equine CL, as it has been shown in bovine CL cells and tissue (7, 8). Moreover, it has been shown that the enzyme PGE<sub>2</sub>-9-ketoreductase (9k-PGR) (58 - 60) or other newly found PG synthases (*i.e.*: aldoketoreductase – AKR1B5) (61) can convert PGF<sub>2α</sub> to PGE<sub>2</sub> or *vice versa*. Thus, modulation of PG-converting enzymes activity may be the mechanism by which P<sub>4</sub> switches prostanoid metabolism in equine CL from production of luteotropic PGE<sub>2</sub> to luteolytic PGF<sub>2α</sub>. Moreover, since 9k-PGR and AKR1B5 possess 20α-HSD activity (61), it is possible that these enzymes also inter-convert prostaglandins and concomitantly inactivate P<sub>4</sub> within the CL. In addition, steroids - mainly P<sub>4</sub>, are suggested to play a mandatory role in regulation of both 9k-PGR and AKR1B5 activity and expression (59, 61).

Although P<sub>4</sub> inhibits 20 $\alpha$ -HSD expression in the rat corpus luteum (62), it has been shown that the expression and activity of PG converting enzymes (9k-PGR and AKR1B5) increase after long- lasting P<sub>4</sub> exposure in the ovine and bovine female reproductive tract (59 - 61). Therefore, the high activity of such multifunctional enzymes (9k-PGR and AKR1B5) that combine two converting functions (inactivation of P<sub>4</sub> and generation of luteolytic PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  from luteotropic PGE<sub>2</sub>) may be a possible reason for the lack of the luteotropic effects of P<sub>4</sub> observed in this study in equine luteal tissue. Further studies are needed to clarify this hypothesis.

In conclusion, long-lasting effects of P<sub>4</sub> and its precursor may inhibit angiogenic factor(s) production by equine mid luteal phase CL, preparing for luteal functional and structural regression. Besides, the simultaneous decrease in *in vitro* NO production and BAEC proliferation in mid luteal phase corpora lutea submitted to progestagens may suggest that inhibition of angiogenic activity in the equine CL might be mediated by NO. The apparent discrepancy among our findings on NO, P<sub>4</sub> and PGE synthesis, might be due to differences in cell-to-cell contact, differences in cell composition, namely steroidogenic and non-steroidogenic cells, that might affect the synthesis of these hormones in the equine CL. Therefore, luteal angiogenesis and endocrine functions in the mare are very complex processes that might be regulated by many different factors and needs further investigation.

*Acknowledgments:* This work was supported by Grants CIISA 45 Corpo Lúteo, from CIISA and POCTI/CVT/39519/2001, from Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT), Portugal, by the Polish Academy of Sciences, Poland, and by National Research Initiative Competitive Grant no. 2002-35203-12246 from the USDA Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service. The authors wish to thank Dr. Paula Serrão, Mrs. Ana Maria Amaral and Mrs. Patrícia Diniz for technical assistance.

#### REFERENCES

1. Ginther OJ. Reproductive anatomy. In *Reproductive Biology of the Mare - Basic and Applied Aspects*, OJ Ginther (ed). Cross Plains, Wis: Equiservices, 1992, pp. 233-290.
2. AL-zi'abi MO, Watson ED, Fraser HM. Angiogenesis and vascular endothelial growth factor expression in the equine corpus luteum. *Reproduction* 2003; 125: 259-270.
3. Ferreira-Dias G, Pinto Bravo P, Mateus L, Redmer D, Medeiros J.A. Microvascularization and angiogenic activity of equine corpus lutea throughout the estrous cycle. *Dom Anim Endoc* 2006; 30:247-259.
4. Roberto da Costa RP, Branco V, Pessa P, Robalo Silva J, Ferreira-Dias G. Progesterone receptors and proliferating cell nuclear antigen expression in the equine luteal tissue. *J Reprod Fert Devel* 2005; 17: 659-666.
5. Rotchild I. The regulation of the mammalian corpus luteum. *Rec Prog Horm Res* 1981; 37: 183-198.
6. Chappell PE, Lydon JP, Conneely OM, O'Malley BW, Levine JE. Endocrine effects in mice carrying a null mutation for the progesterone receptor gene. *Endocrinology* 1997; 138: 4147-4152.

7. Skarzynski DJ, Okuda K. Sensitivity of bovine corpora lutea to prostaglandin  $F_{2\alpha}$  is dependent on progesterone, oxytocin and prostaglandins. *Biol Reprod* 1999; 60: 1292-1298.
8. Kotwica J, Rekawiecki R, Duras M. Stimulatory influence of progesterone on its own synthesis in bovine corpus luteum. *Bull Vet Inst Pulawy* 2004; 48: 139-145.
9. Ottander U, Hosokawa K, Loi K, Bergh A, Ny T, Olofsson J. A putative stimulatory role of progesterone acting via progesterone receptors in the steroidogenic cells of the human corpus luteum. *Biol Reprod* 2000; 62: 655-663.
10. Rueda BR, Hendry IR, Hendry III WJ, Stormshak F, Slyden OD, Davis JS. Decreased progesterone levels and progesterone receptor antagonist promote apoptotic cell death in bovine luteal cells. *Biol Reprod* 2000; 62(2): 269-276.
11. Okuda K, Korzekwa A, Shibaya M, et al. Progesterone is a suppressor of apoptosis in bovine luteal cells. *Biol Reprod* 2004; 71: 2065-2071.
12. Liszewska E, Rekawiecki R, Kotwica J. Effect of progesterone on the expression of bax and bcl-2 and on caspase activity in bovine luteal cells. *Prostaglandins other Lipid Mediators* 2005: 67-81.
13. Batra S, Al-Hijji J. Characterization of nitric oxide synthase activity in rabbit uterus and vagina: downregulation by estrogen. *Life Sciences* 1998; 62: 2092-2100.
14. Roberto da Costa RP, Ferreira-Dias G, Mateus L, et al. Endometrial nitric oxide production and nitric oxide synthases in the equine endometrium: relationship with microvascular density during the estrous cycle. *Dom Anim Endoc* 2006; in press.
15. Rupnow HL, Phernetton TM, Shaw CE, Modrick ML, Bird IM, Magness RR. Endothelial vasodilator production by uterine and systemic arteries. VII. Estrogen and progesterone effects on eNOS. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2001; 280: H1699-H1705.
16. van der Zee R, Murohara T, Luo Z, et al. Vascular endothelial growth factor/vascular permeability factor augments nitric oxide release from quiescent rabbit and human vascular endothelium. *Circulation* 1997; 95: 1030-1037.
17. Zheng J, Bird IM, Melsaether AN, Magness RR. Activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade is necessary but not sufficient for basic fibroblast growth factor- and epidermal growth factor-stimulated expression of endothelial nitric oxide synthase in ovine fetoplacental artery endothelial cells. *Endocrinology* 1999; 140 (3): 1399-1407.
18. Grasselli F, Basini G, Bussolati S, Tamanini C. Effects of VEGF and bFGF on proliferation and production of steroids and nitric oxide in porcine granulosa cells. *Reprod Dom Anim* 2002; 37: 362-368.
19. Jaroszewski JJ, Skarzynski DJ, Okuda K. Nitric oxide as a local regulator in the mammalian ovary. In *Reproductive Biotechnology: Reproductive Biotechnology Update and its Related Physiology*, H Miyamoto, N Manabe (eds). Elsevier Scientific Pub., Tokyo, Japan, 2001, pp. 105-112.
20. Pinto CRF, Paccamonti DL, Eilts BE, Short CR, Godke RA. Effect of nitric oxide synthase inhibitors on ovulation in hCG-stimulated mares. *Therio* 2002; 58(5): 1017-1026.
21. Jaroszewski JJ, Hansel W. Intraluteal administration of a nitric oxide synthase blocker stimulates progesterone and oxytocin secretion and prolongs the life span of the bovine corpus luteum. *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 2000; 224: 50-55.
22. Olson LM, Jones-Burton CM, Jablonka-shariff A. Nitric oxide decreases estradiol synthesis of rat luteinized ovarian cells: possible role for nitric oxide in functional luteal regression. *Endocrinology* 1996; 137: 3531-3539.
23. Gobetti A, Boiti C, Canali C, Zerani M. Nitric oxide synthase acutely regulates progesterone production by in vitro cultured rabbit corpora lutea. *J Endocrinol* 1999; 160: 275-283.
24. Johnson MC, Diaza HA, Stocco C, Palomino A, Devoto L, Veja M. Antisteroidogenic action of nitric oxide on human corpus luteum in vitro: mechanism of action. *Endocrine* 1999; 11: 31-36.
25. Skarzynski DJ, Jaroszewski JJ, Bah MM, et al. Administration of a nitric oxide synthase inhibitor counteracts prostaglandin  $F_2$ -induced luteolysis in cattle. *Biol Reprod* 2003; 68: 1674-1681.

26. Weems YS, Lennon E, Uchima T, et al. Is nitric oxide luteolytic or antiluteolytic? *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 2005; 78: 129-138.
27. Motta AB, Estevez A, Tognetti T, Gimeno MAF, Franchi AM. Dual effects of nitric oxide in functional and regressing rat corpus luteum. *Mol Human Reprod* 2001; 7(1): 43-47.
28. Wiltbank MC, Ottobre JS. Regulation of intraluteal production of prostaglandins. *Reprod Biol Endocrin* 2003; 1: 91-112.
29. Lancaster MV, Fields RD. Antibiotic and cytotoxic drug susceptibility assays using reazurin and poisoning agents. 1996; U.S. Patent No. 5,501,959.
30. Redmer DA, Grazul AT, Kirsch DJ, Reynolds LP. Angiogenic activity of bovine corpora lutea at several stages of luteal development. *J Reprod Fert* 1988; 82: 627-634.
31. Jaroszewski JJ, Bogacki M, Skarzynski DJ. Progesterone production in bovine luteal cells treated with drugs that modulate nitric oxide production. *Reproduction* 2003; 125: 389-395.
32. Skarzynski DJ, Kobayashi S, Okuda K. Influence of nitric oxide and noradrenaline on prostaglandin F<sub>2α</sub>-induced oxytocin secretion and intracellular calcium mobilization in cultured bovine luteal cells. *Biol Reprod* 2000; 63:1000-1005.
33. Meschia G. Circulation to female reproductive organs. In *Handbook of Physiology*. JT Shepherd, FM Abboud (eds). Bethesda, American Physiological Society, 1983, Vol 3, part 1. pp. 241-269.
34. Stouffer RL, Martinez-Chequer JC, Molsknee TA, Xu F, Hazzard TM. Regulation and action of angiogenic factors in primate ovary. *Arch Med Res* 2001; 32: 567-575.
35. Girsh E, Greber Y, Meidan R. Luteotrophic and luteolytic interaction between bovine small and large luteal-like cells and endothelial cells. *Biol Reprod* 1995; 52: 954-962.
36. Davis JS, Rueda BR, Spanel-Borowski K. Microvascular endothelial cells of the corpus luteum. *Reprod Biol Endocrinol* 2003;1: 89-103.
37. Ferreira-Dias G, Mateus L, Costa AS, et al. Progesterone and caspase-3 activity in equine cyclic corpora lutea. *Reprod Domest Anim* 2006; (in press).
38. Hazzard TM, Rohan RM, Molskness TA, Fanton JW, Dámato RJ, Stouffer RL. Injection of antiangiogenic agents into the macaque preovulatory follicle: disruption of corpus luteum development and function. *Endocrine* 2002; 17: 199-206.
39. Maisonpierre PC, Suri C, Jones PF, et al. Angiopoietin-2, a natural antagonist for Tie2 that disrupts in vivo angiogenesis. *Science* 1997; 277: 55-60.
40. Espinosa Cervantes MC, Rosado Garcia A. Angiogenesis in reproductive physiology. Follicular development, formation and maintenance of the corpus luteum. *Gynecol Obstet Mex* 2002; 70: 17-27.
41. Tamanini C, De Ambrogi M. Angiogenesis in developing follicle and corpus luteum. *Reprod Domest Anim* 2004; 39: 206-216.
42. Bah MM, Acosta TJ, Pilawski W, Deptula K, Okuda K, Skarzynski DJ. Role of intraluteal prostaglandin F<sub>2α</sub>, progesterone and oxytocin in basal and pulsatile progesterone release from developing bovine corpus luteum. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 2006; 79: 218-229.
43. Milvae RA, Hansel W. The effects of prostacyclin(PGI<sub>2</sub>) and 6-keto-PGF<sub>2α</sub> on bovine plasma P<sub>4</sub> and LH concentrations. *Prostaglandins* 1980; 20: 641-647.
44. Iwai M, Hasegawa M, Taii S, et al. Endothelins inhibit luteinization of cultured porcine granulosa cells. *Endocrinology* 1991; 129: 1909-1914.
45. Van Rensburg SJ, van Niekerk CH. Ovarian function, follicular oestradiol-17β, and luteal progesterone and 20α-hydroxypregn-4-en-3-one in cycling and pregnant equines. *Ondersepoort J Vet Res* 1968; 35:3 01-318.
46. Peluso JJ. Placing progesterone in the apoptotic pathway. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 1997; 8: 267-271.
47. Collins S, Lohse MJ, O'Down B, Caron MG, Lefkowitz RJ. Structure and regulation of G protein-coupled receptors: the β<sub>2</sub>-adrenergic receptors as a model. *Vitam Horm* 1991; 46: 1-37.

48. Lohse MJ. Molecular mechanisms of membrane receptor desensitization. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1993; 1179: 171-188.
49. Wiltbank MC, Belfiore CJ, Niswender GD. Steroidogenic enzyme activity after acute activation of protein kinase (PK) A and PKC in ovine small and large luteal cells. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 1993; 97: 1-7.
50. Weems YS, Lewis AW, Randel RD, Weems CW. Effects of prostaglandins (PG) E<sub>2</sub> and F<sub>2α</sub>, trilostane, mifepristone, palmitic acid (PA), indomethacin, ethamoxytriphetol, PGE<sub>2</sub> + PA, or PGF<sub>2α</sub> + PA on PGE<sub>2</sub>, PGF<sub>2α</sub>, and progesterone secretion by bovine corpora lutea of mid-pregnancy in vitro. *Chin J Physiol* 2002; 45: 163-168.
51. Kim L, Weems YS, Bridges PJ, et al. Effects of indomethacin, luteinizing hormone, prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>, trilostane, mifepristone, ethamoxytriphetol on secretion of prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin F<sub>2α</sub> and progesterone by ovine corpora lutea of pregnancy or the estrous cycle. *Prostaglandins* 2001; 63: 189-203.
52. Garrett JE, Geisert RD, Zavy MT, Morgan GL. Evidence for maternal regulation of early conceptus growth and development in beef cattle. *J Reprod Fert* 1988; 84: 437-446.
53. Ottobre JS, Lewis GS, Thayne WZ, Inskeep EK. Mechanism by which progesterone shortens the estrous cycle of the ewe. *Biol Reprod* 1980; 23:1046-1053.
54. Diaz FJ, Anderson LE, YL Wu, Rabot A, Tsai SJ, Wiltbank MC. Regulation of progesterone and prostaglandin F<sub>2α</sub> production in the CL. *Mol Cel Endocrinol* 2002; 191: 65-80.
55. Weems YS, Bridges PJ, Tanaka Y, et al. PGE<sub>1</sub> or PGE<sub>2</sub> not LH regulates secretion of progesterone in vitro by the 88-90 day ovine corpus luteum of pregnancy. *Prostaglandins* 1997; 153: 337-353.
56. Weems YS, Lammoglia MA, Vera-Avila HR, et al. Effect of luteinizing hormone, PGE<sub>2</sub>, 8-EPI-PGE<sub>1</sub>, 8-EPI-PGE<sub>2</sub>, trichosanthin, and pregnancy specific protein B on secretion of progesterone in vitro by corpora lutea from nonpregnant and pregnant cows. *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat* 1988; 55: 27-42.
57. Watson ED, Sertich PL. Secretion of prostaglandins and progesterone by cells from corpora lutea of mares. *J Reprod Fertil* 1990; 88(1): 223-229.
58. Watson J, Shepherd TS, Dodson KS. Prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>-9-ketoreductase in ovarian tissues. *J Reprod Fertil* 1979; 57: 489-496.
59. Beaver CJ, Murdoch WJ.. Ovarian and uterine prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>-9-ketoreductase activity in cyclic and pregnant ewes. *Prostaglandins* 1992; 44: 37-42.
60. Asselin E, Fortier MA. Detection and regulation of the messenger for a putative bovine endometrial 9-keto-prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> reductase: effector of oxytocin and interferon-τ. *Biol Reprod* 2000; 62: 125-131.
61. Madore E, Harvey N, Parent J, Chapdelaine P, Arosh JA, Fortier MA. An aldose reductase with 20 α-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activity is most likely the enzyme responsible for the production of prostaglandin F<sub>2α</sub> in the bovine endometrium. *J Biol Chem* 2003; 278: 11205-11212.
62. Sugino N, Telleria CM, Gibori G. Progesterone inhibits 20a-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase expression in the rat corpus luteum through the glucocorticoid receptor. *Endocrinology* 1997;138: 4497-4500.

Received: September 15, 2006

Accepted: October 16, 2006

Author's address: Prof. Graça Ferreira-Dias, Ph.D., DVM, CIISA, Faculdade de Medicina Veterinária, Av. da Universidade Técnica, 1300-477 Lisboa, Portugal. Phone: +(351)213652859; Fax: +(351)213652889; e-mail: gmlfdias@fmv.utl.pt