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Androgen-Induced Relaxation of Uterine Myocytes Is Mediated by Blockade of Both Ca(2+) Flux and MLC Phosphorylation

Citation for published version:

Makieva, S, Hutchinson, LJ, Rajagopal, SP, Rinaldi, SF, Brown, P, Saunders, PTK & Norman, JE 2016, 'Androgen-Induced Relaxation of Uterine Myocytes Is Mediated by Blockade of Both Ca(2+) Flux and MLC Phosphorylation' Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism, vol. 101, no. 3, pp. 1055-65. DOI: 10.1210/jc.2015-2851

Digital Object Identifier (DOI):

10.1210/jc.2015-2851

Link:

Link to publication record in Edinburgh Research Explorer

Document Version: Peer reviewed version

Published In: Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism

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1	Androgen-induced relaxation of uterine myocytes is mediated by blockade of both Ca ²⁺ flux and
2	MLC phosphorylation.
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16	
17	Abbreviated title: Androgens relax the uterine muscle
18	Key terms: Myometrium, Contraction, Androgen, Pregnancy, Preterm Labour, Tocolytics
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26	Disclosure Statement: The authors have nothing to disclose. JEN has had funding from Tommy's the
27	Baby Charity and the MRC to understand the physiology of parturition and to investigate mechanisms
28	of uterine relaxation.

- *Funding:* This work was funded by the Principal Career Development and Albert McKern
- 30 studentships to S.M, and funding from Tommy's for consumables.
- 31 Word count: 3595 Number of figures and tables: 6

34 Abstract

35 Context: Uterine quiescence must be maintained until pregnancy reaches term. Premature activation36 of myometrial contractility leads to preterm labour and delivery.

37 Objective: To scrutinise the potential of androgens to relax the myometrium and the mechanism of38 their action.

Samples: A pregnancy-derived myometrial smooth muscle cell line (PHM1-41), myometrial strips
prepared from tissues obtained from pregnant women [lean (n=9) and obese (n=6)] undergoing
elective C-section at term and from non-pregnant C57BL/6 mice (n=5) were each utilised.

Design: The contraction of collagen-embedded PHM1-41s and the stretch-induced contraction of human and murine myometrial strips were assessed following incubation with testosterone (T), dihydrotestosterone (DHT) and T conjugated to BSA (TBSA). Intracellular calcium ([Ca²⁺]) and phosphorylated myosin light chain (PMLC) concentrations were quantified in PHM1-41s using a Fluo-4 Ca²⁺ assay and in-cell Westerns (ICW) respectively.

47 **Setting:** University Research Institute.

48 Results: DHT and T, but not TBSA, impaired the contractile function of PHM1-41s and of human and 49 murine myometrial strips. The response was rapid (observed within minutes), sustainable for up to 48 50 hours, and not abolished on knockdown of the androgen receptor (AR). DHT (100 µM) reduced the 51 amplitude of lean strip contraction to $2\% \pm 2$ of the pre-treatment value and T (100 μ M) to $3.3\% \pm 1$. 52 These values for obese strips were $15\% \pm 6.7$ and $11\% \pm 6.7$ respectively. At the same doses, in murine 53 strips, DHT reduced the amplitude to 4.8%±3 and T to 4.9%±3. DHT (50 µM) pre-treatment reduced 54 the OXT-stimulated increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$ (p<0.0001, n=6) and PMLC (p<0.05, n=5) in PHM1-41s. 55 Conclusion: Lipid soluble androgens could be developed as tocolytic agents for the treatment of

56 preterm labour.

57 Introduction

58 Preterm birth (PTB), defined as birth before 37 weeks of pregnancy, accounts for 5-18% of all 59 recorded births worldwide (1). Importantly, PTB is associated with long-term neurodevelopmental 60 outcomes and an increased risk for respiratory and gastrointestinal complications in the offspring (2). 61 The major obstetric precursor leading to PTB is spontaneous preterm labour, the outcome of preterm 62 onset of regular myometrial contractions. The first line management of threatened PTB is initiation of 63 tocolytic medications to suppress these contractions. Their mode of action is gene-transcription 64 independent and involves rapid inhibition of key components in the contraction cascade, for example 65 the oxytocin receptor (OXTR) and the various calcium (Ca^{2+}) channels (3). Tocolytics reduce the 66 availability of intracellular Ca^{2+} ([Ca^{2+}]), prevent the phosphorylation of myosin light chain (MLC) 67 and, thereby, the synchronised contraction of the myometrium. The currently used short-term tocolytic 68 agents, such as Nifedipine, an L-type Ca²⁺ channel blocker, and OXTR antagonists, have high 69 tocolytic efficacy in the short term, but their lack of longer term effect limits their effect on perinatal 70 mortality (4,5). Conversely, magnesium sulfate - an inhibitor of MLC phosphorylation – which is the 71 most commonly used tocolytic in the USA, is associated with maternal side effects and has low 72 tocolytic efficacy (6).

73 Steroid hormones are currently the focus of much interest for PTB treatment and prevention. 74 Prophylactic administration of vaginal progesterone (P) to pregnant women at high risk has been 75 shown to reduce the rate of PTB by 50% (7). Our research group has previously demonstrated that 76 exposure of spontaneously contracting myometrial strips to progesterone (P) resulted in a rapid (<30 77 minutes) reduction in the amplitude and integral of contraction, in line with P's well-established role 78 in maintenance of pregnancy (8). In addition to P, one study reported that androgens in micromolar 79 doses also relaxed human myometrial contractions ex vivo (9). We have recently reviewed all the 80 evidence for a role of androgens in maintenance of pregnancy (10). Considering that a) tocolytics in 81 current use delay delivery only by 24 hours to 7 days, b) P supplementation prevents only one-third of 82 all recurrent PTBs and finally c) and rogens produced by the placenta could be involved in the 83 maintenance of pregnancy, we hypothesised that androgens should be investigated as novel PTB 84 therapeutic agents. However, there is limited evidence on the efficacy of androgens, and the mechanism of action of androgens in preventing uterine contractions is poorly understood. Herein, we sought to address the effects of androgens on myometrial contractions and explore how they interact with the contractile apparatus. Specifically, we aimed to deduce a) whether T, dihydrotestosterone (DHT; non-aromatisable metabolite of T) and the cell-surface impermeable T (TBSA) inhibit the contraction of uterine myocytes *in vitro* and *ex vivo* in both human and mouse and b) to test the hypothesis that androgens prevent uterine contractions via reduction in the concentration of [Ca²⁺] and, hence, reduction in the phosphorylation of MLC.

92 Materials and Methods

93 Human Tissue

94 Biopsies were obtained from the upper margin of the lower segment of myometrium from women 95 undergoing elective caesarean section (ECS) as previously described (11) at the Simpson's Centre for 96 Reproductive Health at the Royal Infirmary of Edinburgh, following informed written consent. Ethics 97 approval for recruitment of all pregnant women was granted by the West of Scotland Research Ethics 98 Committee 4 (09/S0704/3) to the Edinburgh Reproductive Tissue BioBank. Biopsies were collected 99 from lean (LN: 19<BMI<25) and obese (OB: BMI>25) women delivering at term (>37 weeks of 100 gestation) prior to the onset of labour. Patients with twin pregnancies and pregnancy complications 101 were excluded. The recovered biopsies were collected in ice-cold Rosewell Park Memorial Institute 102 1640 medium (RPMI; Gibco), rinsed in PBS and dissected into 2x2x15 mm strips parallel to the 103 muscle fibre bundles.

104 Mouse Tissue

Experimental procedures were licensed (PPL 60/4241; PIL 60/13875) under the UK Home office
Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act (1986). Murine uterine horns were harvested from 8-week old
non-pregnant C57BL/6 mice supplied by Charles River (London, UK) and prepared into uterine strips
(1 cm long each).

109 Human Uterine Myocytes

Pregnant human myometrial 1-41 (PHM1-41) cells were obtained from a single late-term pregnant donor as previously described (12). PHM1-41s were cultured as detailed elsewhere (13,14) with the exception that we used phenol red-free high-glucose Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Lonza, UK). A PHM1-41 cell line in which the AR had been silenced (hAR-PHM1-41s) was produced using microRNA lentivirus. A scramble microRNA lentivirus (in which the AR remained active) was used as a negative control (Scr-PHM1-41s) as detailed in Supplemental Data and shown in

116 Supplemental Figure 2.

117 Experimental compounds

118 DHT, T, Nifedipine, T3-(O-carboxymethyl)oxime:BSA (TBSA) were purchased from Sigma (Poole, 119 UK) and oxytocin (OXT) from Alliance Pharmaceuticals (Chippenham, UK). DHT and T were 120 reconstituted in ethanol (etOH), Nifedipine in DMSO and OXT was diluted in dH₂O. TBSA, with 121 conjugation ratio T (30 molecules):BSA (1 molecule), was reconstituted in PBS. Anti-Phosphorylated 122 Myosin Light Chain (PMLC) polyclonal antibody (Cell Signaling, UK) was used in 1:50, anti- α -123 Tubulin monoclonal antibody (Sigma) in 1:1000 and secondary antibodies 800CW and 680RD in 124 1:10000 (Li-Cor Biosciences, UK).

125 Organ bath

126 The assessment of myometrial contractility utilising organ bath is well established (8,13,15,16). 127 Briefly, human myometrial and mouse uterine strips were attached by silk suture (Mersilk 3-0, 128 Ethicon Inc) to a force transducer (ML0186/10 Panlab ADInstruments, UK) and stretched under 129 passive resting tension (20 mN) in Krebs buffer (115 mM NaCl, 5.9 mM KCl, 1.2 mM MgCl₂, 130 1.2 mM NaH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM Na₂SO₄, 2.5 mM CaCl₂, 25 mM NaHCO₃, 10 mM Glucose, pH 7.4) 131 equilibrated with 95% O₂-5% CO₂ at 37°C. Strips were allowed an equilibration period of 2 hours to 132 develop spontaneous rhythmic contractile activity before addition of DHT or T in cumulative 133 concentrations (10 µM to 100 µM) or TBSA (0.5 µM equivalent to 100 µM dose of T). Each treatment 134 was applied for 30 minutes for human tissue and 10 minutes for mouse. Equivalent doses of vehicle 135 (etOH or PBS) were applied; the minimum and maximum concentration of etOH used was 0.03% and 136 0.3% respectively. At the end of each experiment, the strips were stimulated with KCl (55 mM) and 137 washed with fresh Krebs buffer to verify tissue viability/recovery. Data was recorded with LabChart 7 138 acquisition software (AD Instruments). The average frequency, peak amplitude and force integral 139 (area under curve; A.U.C.) following each treatment were calculated for each strip as a percentage of 140 its pre-treatment values.

141 Gel contraction assay

142 Cells were embedded in type I collagen in 24-well plates at 10⁵ cells/well as previously described 143 (13,14). Briefly, the collagen/cell suspension was allowed to polymerise and the gels were detached 144 and incubated at 37°C for 24 and 48 hours with treatments prepared in 5% (v/v) charcoal-stripped fetal 145 bovine serum (FBS) DMEM. Untreated or vehicle-treated cells developed a basal contraction, which 146 manifested as a decrease in the gel area and was first evident 24 hours post detachment. The gels were 147 photographed using a Leica MZ6 light microscope/camera (Mayfair, UK) at 0, 24 and 48 hours. 148 Adobe Photoshop CS6 (CA, USA) was used to measure gel area. The measurement (pixels) for each 149 gel area at 24 and 48 hours was reported as a percentage of the gel area at the 0-hour time point. The 150 viability of cells in gels was assessed using CellTitre 96 AQueousOne Solution Cell Proliferation 151 Assay kit (Promega, UK).

152 In-cell Western (ICW) blot analyses

153 Due to the rapid oscillations between the phosphorylated and dephosphorylated states of MLC and in 154 order to accurately capture the cell transient contractile state, we utilised ICW, to quantify PMLC in 155 PHM1-41s as described elsewhere (13,17). Briefly, cells were seeded into black-wall/optically clear-156 bottom tissue culture treated 96-well plates (PerkinElmer) to a concentration of 1.8x10⁴ cells/well in 157 charcoal-stripped 5% (v/v) FBS DMEM. Following application of treatments, cells were fixed in 158 3.7% (v/v) formaldehyde (Sigma) and incubated with primary and secondary antibodies. The plate 159 was scanned using the Li-Cor Odyssey Infrared Imaging System (Li-Cor Biosciences). The intensity 160 of PMLC fluorescence was calculated relative to α-Tubulin in the same well.

161 Calcium assay

162 The BDTM Calcium Assay Kit (BD Biosciences) was employed to measure $[Ca^{2+}]$ concentration in 163 PHM1-41s. The assay was performed as described in Li et al (18). Briefly, PHM1-41s were seeded in 164 white 96-well plates with a clear bottom (Perkin Elmer) in charcoal stripped 5% (v/v) FBS DMEM at 165 a density of $3x10^4$ cells/well. Following attachment, the cells were first incubated with the Ca^{2+} 166 indicator, and then treated with DHT or vehicle (etOH). The plates were placed onto a fluorometric 167 imaging plate reader (FLIRP)-NOVOstar (BMG Labtech, Germany) with built-in injectors. Prior to 168 the injection of a compound, the basal cellular fluorescence, which denoted the concentration of 169 [Ca²⁺], was recorded for 20 seconds using the MARS Data Analysis Software (BMG Labtech).
170 Following injection, the changes in the fluorescence were recorded for 40 seconds. The readout was
171 the highest fluorescence measurement recorded (peak) following injection and that was compared
172 between treatments.

173 Statistics

174 All analysis was conducted with GraphPad Prism v6.0 (La Jolla, USA). For human and mouse, n 175 represents the number of individual patients or mice. For cells studies, the n number denotes the 176 number of times the experiment was repeated and the number of replicates per experiment is indicated 177 in the figure legends. For statistical analysis, all percentage-presented data were arcsine-transformed. 178 Data was analysed as indicated in the figure legends and presented as the mean \pm SEM; p<0.05 was 179 considered statistically significant.

180 **Results**

181 Androgens inhibit the contraction of uterine myocytes embedded in collagen gels

182 We set out to explore the effect of lipid soluble androgens DHT and T and of the cell-impermeable 183 TBSA on the contraction of PHM1-41s cells. PHM1-41 cells were embedded in gels and incubated 184 with vehicle (etOH), DHT or T (1 µM, 50 µM, 100 µM) or TBSA (0.5 µM) for 24 and 48 hours. Over 185 time, vehicle gels developed a basal contraction resulting in a decrease in the gel area (Figure 1A). At 186 24 hours, the vehicle area was 77.2%±3.4 of the original (measured at 0 hours) (Figure 1B) and at 48 187 hours the area decreased to 65.2%±3.8 (Figure 1C). In contrast, the gel area of cells treated with DHT 188 and T at 50 μ M and 100 μ M (Figure 1A), but not 1 μ M, was significantly greater compared to the 189 time-matched vehicle gel area, suggesting that both androgens prevented basal contraction. At 24 190 hours, the DHT (100 µM) gel area was 95.8%±1.2 (p<0.0001 vs vehicle) of the area recorded at 0 191 hours (Figure 1B) and 82%±6.4 (p<0.05 vs vehicle) at 48 hours (Figure 1C). For T (100 μM), these 192 values were 94.9%±1.1 (p<0.001 vs vehicle) at 24 hours (Figure 1B) and 87.72%±5.5 (p<0.001 vs 193 vehicle) at 48 hours (Figure 1C). TBSA treatment (Figure 1D) did not prevent basal contraction at 24 194 (Figure 1E) and 48 hours (Figure 1F), suggesting that the T-mediated inhibition of contraction is 195 unlikely to be cell-surface receptor mediated. In addition, the finding that DHT (50 µM) prevented the 196 basal contraction of PHM1-41s in which expression of the AR was silenced (hAR-PHM1-41s; Figure 197 **1** G, H) suggested that AR is unlikely to be involved in the induction of relaxation by androgens. 198 Finally, a viability assay ruled out the hypothesis that androgens at high micromolar doses induce cell 199 death (Figure 1I). We conclude that long (>24 hours) exposure to lipid soluble androgens can inhibit 190 uterine smooth muscle contraction *in vitro* via an AR-independent mechanism that is likely to be 191 mediated by penetration through the cell membrane.

202 Androgens relax human and mouse uterine smooth muscle ex vivo

203 We examined the effect of short-term (<6 hours) exposure of androgens on spontaneous contractions 204 of LN and OB human (Figure 2) and mouse (Figure 3) myometrium. Cumulative doses of DHT and 205 T were applied onto human myometrial (Figure 2A) and murine uterine strips (Figure 3A) all 206 contracting in organ bath chambers. Progressive significant reductions in average amplitude and 207 A.U.C. were observed as the dose of T or DHT was increased from 10 µM to 100 µM for human (LN: 208 Figure 2B, D; OB: Figure 2F, H) and murine (Figure 3B, D) tissue. Only at the 100 µM dose, the 209 frequency of contraction significantly decreased following treatment with DHT and T for LN 210 (Figure 2C), OB (Figure 2G) and murine (Figure 2C) tissue. In order to inform future in vivo 211 experiments, we calculated the IC50 values of DHT and T on amplitude and A.U.C. of contraction 212 (Table 1). The IC50 values were not significantly different between the OB and LN groups and 213 between human and mouse tissue. Contractions of myometrial strips were not affected by TBSA 214 (0.5 µM) in human (LN: Figure 2E, OB: Figure 2I) or mouse (Figure 3E).

The organ bath studies combined with the gel contraction studies allowed the observation that lipid soluble androgens induce a rapid but sustained inhibition of uterine contractions.

217 Androgens inhibit MLC phosphorylation in uterine myocytes

Elevation in $[Ca^{2+}]$ activates the Ca²⁺ sensor calmodulin, which binds to MLC kinase, activating MLC phosphorylation and subsequent contraction. We aimed to deduce whether DHT treatment prevented the phosphorylation of MLC (PMLC) in contracting PHM1-41s. OXT was utilised to stimulate contraction of collagen embedded-PHM1-41s. A 24- and 48-hour treatment with OXT enhanced contraction, which manifested as a decrease in gel area, with the area being smaller than that of vehicle (**Figure 4A**). After 24 hours (**Figure 4B**) the average vehicle gel area was 83.4%±6.9 of the original gel area (measured at 0 hours) and it was significantly different (p<0.001) when compared to the time-matched OXT gel area ($66\% \pm 1.9$). The co-treated OXT+DHT gel area was 82.8% ± 2.8 and significantly bigger than that the OXT gel area (p<0.01), demonstrating that DHT prevented the OXTstimulated contraction (**Figure 4B**). The co-treated OXT+DHT gel area reduced to 78.2% ± 1.2 after 48 hours (**Figure 4C**) and was significantly different (p<0.0001) to the time-matched OXT gel area ($42.2\% \pm 3.7$).

230 To determine whether the effect of DHT involved blockade of MLC phosphorylation, we assessed the 231 impact of DHT pre-treatment on PMLC concentration following acute (30 seconds) stimulation with 232 OXT. Acute stimulation with OXT induced a dramatic increase (p<0.001) in the concentration of 233 fluorescently-detected PMLC and a short (15 minutes) pre-incubation with DHT, but not vehicle, 234 significantly (p<0.05) prevented the increase in PMLC following acute OXT (Figure 4E). 235 Interestingly, pre-incubation with a Ca^{2+} channel blocker Nifedipine, prior to acute OXT, also 236 significantly (p<0.01) prevented the increase in PMLC concentration (Figure 4G). We conclude that 237 DHT inhibits PHM1-41s contraction via inhibition of MLC phosphorylation. The similarity between 238 the actions of DHT and the L-type Ca^{2+} channel blocker Nifedipine with regards to prevention of 239 MLC phosphorylation, contributes to the notion of an indirect effect of DHT on PMLC, potentially 240 mediated via blockade of Ca^{2+} channels and subsequent decrease in $[Ca^{2+}]$.

241 Androgens inhibit Ca^{2+} flux in uterine myocytes

242 We set to explore the hypothesis that DHT pre-treatment would prevent the increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$ 243 concentration in PHM1-41s. OXT was used to stimulate a rapid increase in [Ca²⁺] concentration. 244 Addition of OXT to untreated PHM1-41s induced an immediate 2-fold increase above baseline 245 (p<0.0001) in the concentration of $[Ca^{2+}]$ (Figure 5B). The effect of OXT on $[Ca^{2+}]$ was examined 246 following pre-treatment with either DHT or vehicle. DHT pre-treatment induced a dose-dependent 247 reduction in the OXT-stimulated increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$, which was significant when compared to the 248 OXT-stimulated increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$ in the vehicle pre-treated cells (Figure 5B, C, D). These data 249 suggest that DHT blocks Ca²⁺ flux in uterine myocytes and impacts downstream MLC 250 phosphorylation.

251 **Discussion**

252 A relaxant effect of androgens on smooth muscle contraction has been reported in different systems 253 (19-23). Ten years ago, a single study demonstrated that various androgens, including DHT and T, 254 relaxed human myometrial strips contracting under resting tension in organ bath chambers (9). The 255 authors described the response as rapid (minutes), transcription independent (not prevented by protein 256 synthesis inhibitors), achievable with pharmacological (micromolar) doses, and as reversible. Herein 257 we show for the first time that a) only lipid soluble androgens (T, DHT) effectively relax obese and 258 lean human and murine myometrial contractions, b) the response is immediate (minutes) but can be 259 sustained for longer times (days) even in the presence of cell viability, c) the mechanism of relaxation is a reduction in the availability of $[Ca^{2+}]$ concentration, which subsequently results in reduction of 260 261 MLC phosphorylation in the uterine myocytes and, finally d) the mechanism of relaxation is AR-262 independent.

263 Other studies have reported the effects of sex hormones on $[Ca^{2+}]$ and PMLC concentrations in other 264 cell types and tissues. For example, DHT treatment of Fura-2-loaded isolated rat vas deferens cells 265 blunted the KCl-induced elevation in $[Ca^{2+}]$, while short incubation with estradiol (E2) inhibited the 266 histamine-induced increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$ in Fura-2-loaded airway smooth muscle (ASM) cells (24.25). 267 These findings are in line with the inhibitory effect of DHT on OXT-stimulated increase in $[Ca^{2+}]$ 268 concentration in Fura-4-loaded PHM1-41s in our study. Consistent with our finding that DHT blunted 269 the effect of OXT on PMLC, incubation with E2 and P in micromolar doses inhibited increases in 270 PMLC in retinal epithelial and colon muscle cells (26,27).

271 It is reasonable to speculate that and rogens restrict Ca^{2+} flux in uterine myocytes. Such an effect can be achieved either by physical interaction with Ca²⁺ channels or indirectly by interaction with 272 molecules residing on the cell membrane, which are known to regulate Ca^{2+} channel activity (28). A 273 274 physical interaction of androgens with Ca²⁺ channels has never been described but there is some evidence to support an indirect effect of androgens on Ca²⁺ channels. The antagonism of OXT by DHT 275 276 observed in our study might suggest that androgens interact with the mechanism by which OXTR 277 signalling activates capacitive and non-capacitive Ca²⁺ entry in PHM1-41s (29). The binding of OXT 278 to OXTR, a G protein-coupled receptor, activates transmembrane receptor operated Ca²⁺ channels 279 (ROCCs) to induce Ca²⁺ flux from the extracellular space into the cell but can also stimulate the IP3

280 cascade, which results in the activation of IP3 receptors on the sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) and 281 release of Ca^{2+} from the internal store into the cytoplasm (28,30). Therefore, it is plausible that DHT 282 blocked either the ROCCs-associated pathway or the downstream activators of the IP3 pathway, 283 which manifested as a decrease in total concentration of $[Ca^{2+}]$ in PHM1-41s. However, evidence from 284 a coronary muscle study, where T failed to inhibit caffeine- and carbachol-induced (activators of IP3-285 pathway) Ca²⁺ release from the SR, suggests that androgens are likely to block the ROCCs-associated 286 Ca^{2+} flux rather than the IP3 pathway (31). We hypothesise two mechanisms by which and rogens 287 could decrease the ROCCs-associated Ca^{2+} flux: a) Bind to a cell surface-associated binding protein 288 that interacts with the OXTR and induce conformational changes to the receptor, which could result in 289 impaired interaction of OXTR with the G-protein or b) overload the plasma membrane and change 290 membrane fluidity, which could prevent the OXTR from interacting with the G-protein. Notably, if a 291 membrane-initiated response were to mediate the effect of T in the myometrium, TBSA would be 292 expected to inhibit the myometrial contractions in our study. However, TBSA did not induce 293 relaxation, suggesting that the action of T is unlikely to be mediated via cell-surface receptors but 294 requires penetration into, or through, the cell membrane. Therefore, it is possible that penetration of 295 hydrophobic androgens into the negatively charged lipid bilayer altered the contractile function of 296 PHM1-41s via impairment of cell membrane fluidity, which is known to affect active and passive 297 transport of various molecules (32). The mechanism by which OXTR causes the opening of ROCCs is 298 not clear (33), however, understanding this mechanism would help determine how androgens interact 299 with the contractile cascades and inform whether they could be utilised as alternative tocolytics.

300 It is noteworthy that Nifedipine's uterorelaxant effect comes to prominence within 20 minutes of 301 administration to pregnant women presenting with preterm contractions, and the impact of a single 302 dose can last for up to 6 hours (34). The rapid response of myometrium to Nifedipine resembles the 303 immediate (minutes) response to androgens observed in our study ex vivo in the term and possibly 304 preterm (Supplemental Figure 1) myometrium. Adding to the similarity noted between the two 305 responses, we showed that short incubations with DHT or Nifedipine each reduced the OXT-306 stimulated PMLC in PHM1-41s, suggesting that both compounds can rapidly manipulate components 307 of the contractile apparatus.

308 With the aim of decreasing maternal and fetal side effects during tocolysis and delaying pregnancy 309 until term, there is growing interest in the discovery and validation of alternative tocolytics. The 310 benefits and harms of supplemental P, which inhibits human myometrial contraction with similar 311 IC50s (16) to androgens in our study, are currently under investigation. Nifedipine, as well as other 312 Ca^{2+} channel blockers, can cross the placenta and elicit adverse effects upon the fetus (3) but the 313 placenta is known to possess mechanisms that inhibit the transport of androgens (35). In particular, the 314 placenta can aromatise native androgens, such as T, to estrogens to protect the fetus from virilisation. 315 A female fetus would only be in danger of virilisation if the androgen was administered during the 316 masculinisation window, which is reported to exist during the first trimester of pregnancy (36). 317 Conversely, animal studies have informed that maternal androgen excess is associated with the 318 development of PCOS in the offspring (37). However, in the majority of these studies, androgen 319 excess was achieved by a daily administration of non-aromatisable DHT in high concentrations from 320 mid-gestation up to term (38,39). We believe it is unlikely that androgens will cause PCOS in female 321 offspring, if given in native form for short periods to stop preterm-initiated contractions in the third 322 trimester.

Further basic understanding of the dose response and the mechanism of action of androgens on uterine contractions are required to inform the design of preclinical studies on androgens as tocolytic agents. Notably, the IC50 values generated here could help design experiments whereby administration of DHT or T to existing mouse models of PTB (40) could be used to investigate if androgens can induce uterine relaxation. Such studies could contribute to the discovery of much needed novel preterm birth therapeutics.

329 Acknowledgements

The authors thank Professor B. Sanborn (Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO, USA) for her
gift of PHM1-41 cells, Dr A. Henke (University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK) for his gift of rat tail
collagen, the Edinburgh Reproductive Tissues BioBank for providing myometrial samples and Mr
Ronnie Grant for figure illustration.

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454 Figures and Table Legends

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455 Figure 1: DHT and T, but not TBSA, inhibited the contraction of human myometrial cells embedded 456 in collagen gels. PHM1-41s were embedded in collagen gels in 24-well plates and incubated with 457 vehicle, DHT, T or TBSA for 24 and 48 hours. Over time, vehicle gels developed a basal contraction, 458 which manifested as a decrease in the gel area (A). The gel area at each time point was measured and 459 reported as a percentage of the original gel area. The post treatment percentages of the original gel 460 area were compared to those of vehicle. DHT and T (50 µM and 100 µM) incubation for 24 (B) and 48 461 (C) hours significantly inhibited the basal contraction of PHM1-41s; *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 462 compared to vehicle (etOH), n=7 (6 replicates). TBSA treatment at 0.5 µM (0.5 µM equivalent to 463 100 μ M dose of T) did not inhibit the basal gel contraction after 24 (E) and 48 hours incubation (F); 464 **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001, ns=non-significant compared to vehicle (etOH+PBS), n=5 (6 replicates). 465 Silencing of AR in PHM1-41s did not prevent the effect of DHT (50 µM) on the basal contraction. 24-466 hour (G) and 48-hour (H) incubation with DHT (50 μ M) induced a significantly smaller reduction in 467 the gel area of wt PHM1-41s, scramble miR-infected (Scr-PHM1-41s; negative control) and hAR 468 miR-infected (hAR-PHM1-41s) cells (i.e., with knock down of the AR); ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 469 comparison between vehicle and DHT groups, a=not significant: comparison with wt-PHM1-41s 470 vehicle, b=not significant: comparison with Scr-PHM1-41s vehicle, c= not significant: comparison 471 with wt-PHM1-41s-DHT group, d= not significant: comparison with Scr-PHM1-41s-DHT group, n=5 472 (6 replicates). I: Viability of PHM1-41 cells post incubation with DHT and T (100 µM) for 48 hours. PHM1-41 cells were embedded in collagen gel and treated with DHT and T. Viability assay was
performed on the gels 48 hours post treatment. Treatments with DHT and T did not affect viable cell
number, which manifested as no change in cell metabolic activity; ns=non-significant compared to
vehicle (etOH), n=4. Cell viability data were analysed using Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's post-hoc
test. Gel contraction data were analysed using one-way ANOVA with either Tukey's post-hoc test (**B**, **C**, **E**, **F**) or Sidak's multiple comparison test (**G**, **H**).

479 Figure 2: DHT and T, but not TBSA, rapidly relaxed spontaneous contractions of myometrium 480 obtained from LN and OB women undergoing ECS at term. A: Representative recordings show the 481 effect of DHT, T and TBSA on stretched-induced myometrial contractions of the LN group. Each 482 contracting LN and OB myometrial strip was incubated with either cumulative doses (10 µM-100 µM) 483 of vehicle, DHT or T, or with a single dose of TBSA (0.5 uM equivalent to 100 uM dose of T). Each 484 dose was applied for 30 minutes. Concentration response curves were generated to show the effect of 485 DHT, T and vehicle on average amplitude, frequency and A.U.C. of LN (B-D) and OB (F-H) 486 myometrial contraction. For LN, the amplitude (B) and A.U.C. (D) of contraction decreased in a dose-487 dependent manner following either DHT or T; the decrease was significant at all doses tested. At 488 100 μ M dose of DHT, the amplitude of contraction reduced to 2%±2 of the original value (**B**) and the 489 A.U.C. to $4.5\% \pm 2$ (**D**). T (100 µM) also reduced the amplitude of contraction to $3.3\% \pm 1.3$ (**B**) and the 490 A.U.C. to $15.8\% \pm 3.8$ (**D**). The frequency (**C**) of contraction significantly decreased with the 100 μ M 491 dose of DHT and T (p<0.0001 compared to vehicle). For OB, the amplitude (F) and the A.U.C. (H) of 492 contraction decreased in a dose-dependent manner following either DHT or T; the decrease was 493 significant at all doses tested. At 100 μ M, DHT reduced the amplitude to 15%±6 (**F**) and the A.U.C. to 494 $4.3\% \pm 2.7$ (H). At the same dose, T reduced the amplitude to $11\% \pm 6.7$ (F) and the A.U.C. to $10\% \pm 5$ 495 (H). The frequency (G) of contraction significantly decreased only with the 100 µM dose of DHT and 496 T (p<0.01 compared to vehicle). Data were analysed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc 497 test. TBSA did not relax LN (E) or OB (I) human myometrial contractions; the effect of TBSA on the 498 A.U.C. of contraction was no different to the effect induced by the vehicle (PBS). Data were analysed 499 with two-tailed t-test; ns=non-significant, LN: n=5/1 strip per treatment, OB: n=6/1 strip per 500 treatment.

501 Figure 3: DHT and T, but not TBSA, relaxed murine spontaneous uterine contractions. A: 502 Representative recordings show the effect of DHT, T and TBSA on stretched-induced contractions of 503 uterine horn strips. Each contracting strip was incubated with either cumulative doses (10 uM-504 100 μ M) of vehicle, DHT or T, or with a single dose of TBSA (0.5 μ M). Each dose was applied for 505 10 minutes. Concentration response curves were generated to show the effect of DHT. T and vehicle 506 on average amplitude (B), frequency (C) and A.U.C. (D) of contraction. The amplitude (B) and 507 A.U.C. (C) of contraction were dose-dependently decreased; the decrease was significant at all doses 508 tested, DHT (100 μ M) reduced the amplitude to 4.8%±3 (**B**) and the A.U.C. to 10.4%±5 (**D**). T (100 509 μ M) reduced the amplitude to 4.9% \pm 3 (**B**) and the A.U.C to 4.8% \pm 2.9 (**D**). Only the 100 μ M dose of 510 DHT significantly decreased the frequency of contraction (p < 0.001 compared to vehicle). For T, the 511 frequency was significantly reduced at both 80 µM (p<0.001 compared to vehicle) and 100 µM 512 (p<0.0001 compared to vehicle) dose. Data were analysed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-513 hoc test (n=5 mice/1 strip per treatment). E: TBSA did not inhibit murine uterine horn strip 514 contraction; the effect of TBSA on the A.U.C. of contraction was no different to the effect induced by 515 the vehicle (PBS). Data were analysed with two-tailed t-test; ns=non-significant, n=5 mice /1 strip per 516 treatment.

517 Table 1: DHT and T IC50 values were generated from the concentration response curves for518 amplitude and A.U.C.

519 Figure 4: DHT treatment prevented the phosphorylation of MLC stimulated by OXT in human 520 myometrial cells. The effect of DHT pre-treatment on OXT-stimulated contraction and OXT-521 stimulated MLC phosphorylation was investigated. PHM1-41s cells were embedded in collagen gels 522 and incubated with vehicle (dH₂O + etOH), OXT (100 nM), DHT (50 µM) or OXT+DHT for 24 hours 523 and 48 hours (A). The gel area was measured and reported as a percentage of the original gel area (0 524 hour time point). The OXT gel area was significantly smaller when compared to the vehicle gel area, 525 however co-treatment with DHT+OXT prevented the OXT alone-induced effect on the gel area at 24 526 (**B**) and 48 hours (**C**); ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 comparison between OXT and vehicle, ##p<0.01, 527 ####p<0.0001 comparison between OXT and OXT+DHT, n=5 (6 replicates). D: PHM1-41s were 528 seeded into 96-well plates and either directly exposed to acute (30 seconds) treatment with vehicle 529 (H₂O) or OXT (100 nM), or initially pre-treated (15 minutes) with vehicle (etOH) or DHT (50 μ M) 530 and then stimulated with acute OXT. E: The concentration of PMLC was significantly higher in the 531 wells following acute OXT compared to the PMLC in the wells treated with the acute vehicle; 532 ###p<0.001, n=5 (6 replicates). The concentration of PMLC in the vehicle pre-treated cells was higher 533 compared to the concentration of PMLC in the DHT pre-treated cells when both were exposed to 534 acute OXT; p<0.05, n=5 (triplicate). F: PHM1-41 cells were either directly exposed to acute vehicle 535 (H₂O) or OXT (100 nM) or first pre-treated (15 minutes) with vehicle (DMSO) or Nifedipine (50 µM) 536 and then exposed to acute OXT. G: The concentration of PMLC in the DMSO pre-treated cells was 537 higher compared to the concentration of PMLC in the Nifedipine pre-treated cells when both were 538 exposed to acute OXT; ####p<0.0001 comparison between acute OXT and acute vehicle, **p<0.01 539 comparison between Nifedipine+OXT and vehicle+OXT, n=5 (triplicate). Data were analysed using 540 one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test.

541 Figure 5: DHT treatment prevented the rapid increase in [Ca²⁺] concentration stimulated by OXT in 542 human myometrial cells. A: Cells were seeded into 96-well plates and either not treated or treated with 543 vehicle (etOH) or DHT (10 minutes) and then injected with OXT (10 nM). The injection of OXT to 544 untreated wells rapidly increased the concentration of [Ca²⁺] above baseline (red plot). The DHT pre-545 treatment (10 minutes) significantly reduced the response to OXT injection. OXT injection to vehicle (etOH) pre-treated wells increased the concentration of $[Ca^{2+}]$ above baseline significantly more than 546 547 to DHT (B: 300 nM, C: 800 nM, D: 50 µM) pre-treated wells; *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001 548 comparison between the groups vehicle (etOH)+OXT and DHT+OXT, ###p<0.001, ####p<0.0001 549 comparison between the groups vehicle (H_2O) and OXT, n=6 (4 replicates). Data were analysed using 550 one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test.

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