

# Expression of mRNA and protein of IL-18 and its receptor in human follicular granulosa cells

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## Abstract

**Purpose** There is no information available about the IL-18 receptor in ovarian follicles, so the present study attempts to demonstrate the expression of IL-18 and its receptor in human granulosa cells (GCs).

**Methods** To evaluate the concentration of IL-18 in serum and follicular fluid (FF), we collected serum and FF from 102 women undergoing oocyte retrieval. Also, to detect expression of IL-18 and its receptor by luteinized GCs, these cells were pooled six times from a total of twenty individual patients with 5–16 follicles each. The IL-18 concentration was determined by ELISA and the expression of IL-18 and its receptor by immunocytochemistry and reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction.

**Results** Our results showed that the median IL-18 concentration in serum, 159.27 pg/ml (IQR 121.41–210.1), was significantly higher than in FF, 142.1 pg/ml (IQR 95.7–176.5),  $p < 0.001$ . Moreover, we found that IL-18 and its receptor are expressed by GCs.

**Conclusion** The presence of IL-18 in FF and the expression of IL-18 and its receptor by GCs suggest an important role for this cytokine in ovarian function.

**Keywords** Granulosa cells · IL-18 · IL-18 receptor · IVF · ICSI

## Introduction

Cytokines are increasingly recognized as potentially important local regulators of ovarian function [1]. Interleukin 18 (IL-18), which supposed as an IL-1 family member, was originally characterized as interferon- $\gamma$ -inducing factor and is present in the serum of animals with endotoxemia [2]. Like IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-18 is a cytoplasmic protein synthesized as a biologically inactive 24-kDa precursor molecule lacking a signal peptide that requires cleavage into an active and mature 18 kDa molecule by the intracellular cysteine protease called IL-1 $\beta$ -converting enzyme (caspase-1) [3]. IL-18 is primarily produced by hematopoietic cells and also by several nonhematopoietic cell types, such as monocytes, macrophages, osteoblasts, adrenal cortex, keratinocytes, T and B cells, and dendritic cells. Some authors reported the expression of IL-18 in reproductive tissue, e.g., in different compartments of human term placenta, maternal–fetal interface, human chorion, decidua, endometrial tissue, and human testes [4–13].

IL-18 is a multifunctional, proinflammatory cytokine that plays a key role in the host defense against several infectious agents. It is known to participate in the regulation of both Th1 and Th2 responses and it also up-regulates innate and acquired immunity [14]. Also association of IL-18 with low blood glucose [15], insulin resistance [16], hypertension [17], dyslipidemia [18], and atherosclerosis

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[19] has been observed in previous studies. Recently, it was reported that high levels of IL-18 in serum were also observed in various complicated pregnancies, including premature rupture of membranes [20]. Furthermore Pacora et al. [10] reported that microbial invasion of the amniotic cavity in either preterm or term parturition was associated with a significant increase in the levels of IL-18 in the amniotic fluid.

Gutman et al. [21] described a high correlation between both pre-ovulatory follicular fluid (FF) and serum levels of IL-18 with the number of retrieved oocytes. Some authors found significantly higher IL-18 levels in patients with ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome (OHSS) and polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) on the day of oocyte retrieval and suggest that the serum IL-18 levels on that day may predict OHSS and PCOS. Lower levels of IL-18 have also been found to characterize unexplained infertility [12, 21–27]. However, Nikolaeva et al. [28] have reported that lower concentration of IL-18 in seminal plasma is associated with pregnancy in female patients exposed to seminal plasma during IVF/ICSI treatment. Besides, in a meta-analysis study, a positive association between the  $-137G/C$  polymorphism of IL-18 and risk of recurrent pregnancy loss has been demonstrated which shows importance of this cytokine in pregnancy and female fertility [29].

The biological functions of IL-18 are mediated through its receptor (IL-18R). IL-18R resembles IL-1R and shares with it a signal transduction pathway [30]. Expression of IL-18R was confirmed on both Th1 lymphocytes and NK cells, whereas it was not observed on Th2 lymphocytes [31]. The interaction between IL-18R and its ligand could be modified by the presence of IL-18 binding protein (IL18BP) which blocks the binding of IL-18 to IL-18R [32, 33]. Kilic et al. [34] found IL-18 and its binding protein in serum and ovarian follicular fluid. Increased concentrations of IL-18 might be a promising prognostic marker for in vitro fertilization (IVF) success [35, 36].

There is no information available about the IL-18 receptor in ovarian follicles, so the present study attempts to demonstrate the presence of IL-18 and its receptor in human granulosa cells (GCs).

## Materials and methods

### Patients

Serum and FF on the day of oocyte retrieval were obtained from 102 patients undergoing IVF ( $n = 24$ ) or intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI,  $n = 78$ ) at the Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Kiel. We recruited patients with male factor infertility (andrological) or tubal cause of infertility. Patients with other causes of

infertility such as endometriosis and PCOS were excluded. Patient who underwent OHSS during ovulation induction also were excluded. The women's age ranged from 20 to 46 years (median 33 years), and the size of the follicles from 19 to 24 mm. The local ethics committee for human research approved the study, and informed consents were obtained from all patients.

### Controlled ovarian hyper stimulation

The patients were superovulated with recombinant follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH, Serono or Organon, Munich, Germany) or human menopausal gonadotropin (hMG, Menogon, Ferring, Kiel, Germany) after down-regulation with GnRH agonists. Monitoring of follicle development by real-time ultrasonic scans and detection of serum E<sub>2</sub> levels were performed from the sixth day of stimulation to the day of follicular puncture. Once the leading follicle measured  $>16$ – $18$  mm in diameter and the  $17\text{-}\beta$ , E<sub>2</sub> level was adequately increased, but still  $<3.000$  pg/mL in serum, 10,000 IU of hCG (Choragon; Ferring) was administered subcutaneously. Total injected doses of gonadotropins up to the day of hCG injection ranged between  $2277.50 \pm 563.17$  to  $3174.96 \pm 1318.07$  IU according to the ovarian responsiveness. Follicles were aspirated 36 h after administration of hCG and GCs were harvested from the FF after oocyte collection. Patients who their male partners had severe andrological problems and also patients with three times failed in previous IVF cycles underwent ICSI. Patients who their partner had normal spermogram underwent IVF.

### IL-18 assay in serum and follicular fluid

Blood and FF were taken from 102 patients on the day of follicle puncture, processed by centrifuge for 10 min at  $350 \times g$  at  $5^\circ\text{C}$ , shock frozen and kept at  $-80^\circ\text{C}$ . After pickup of the oocytes, the FF underwent the same treatment as the blood. IL-18 levels in serum and FF were measured in duplicate by a solid-phase ELISA using the human IL-18 kit (R&D, Wiesbaden, Germany). A fourfold dilution for serum and FF was performed with the Calibrator Diluent RD6P. This assay employs the quantitative sandwich enzyme immunoassay technique. IL-18 levels ranged between 25.6 to 1000 pg/mL, with a sensitivity of 2.5 pg/mL. Precision was 4.93–9.92 (C.V.%) for intra-assay and 5.2–10.7 (C.V.%) for inter-assay. Only those cases were included in this study in which both FF and serum could be simultaneously collected on the day of oocyte retrieval.

### Isolation of granulosa cells from follicular fluid

The FF of 20 individual patients (on 6 follicular puncture days, 5–16 follicles per patient) were processed by

centrifuge at  $350\times g$  for 5 min, and the supernatant was removed. The cells were resuspended in 5–10 mL of HAM's F-10 medium (Sigma, Deisenhofen, Germany). The medium was supplemented with penicillin (100 IU/mL; Sigma) and streptomycin (100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ; Sigma). The cells were separated over a gradient containing 2 mL 64% and 2 mL 36% of a Percoll solution (Sigma). After centrifugation at  $450\times g$  for 15 min at room temperature, the interphase cells were pooled and washed twice with Dulbecco's Hanks' balanced salt (D-HBSS) [37, 38]. The cells were resuspended in 3 mL of D-HBSS. To remove the CD 45-positive blood cells (such as lymphocytes), 50  $\mu\text{L}$  of magnetic Dynabeads M-450 CD 45 (DYNAL INC., Sigma) were added. The supernatant of the cell suspension was collected in magnetic rank. These GCs were used for detection of IL-18 and its receptor by immunohistochemical and RT-PCR techniques.

The presence of monocytes/macrophages in separated GCs was tested immunocytochemically by the monoclonal antibody Ki-M<sub>1</sub>P as reported by Radzun et al. [39].

#### Processing for immunocytochemical detection of IL-18R and IL-18 in human GCs

Isolated GCs were suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), set with 1% (wt/vol) human serum albumin, and used for the preparation of cytopins (8 cytopins per follicular puncture day). Air-dried cytopins (24 h) were fixed in acetone for 10 min. The expression of IL-18 receptor on the GC surface was detected by immunocytochemistry with a monoclonal mouse antihuman IL-18R- $\alpha$  antibody (R&D, MAB 840, diluted 1:20 in 5% normal human serum in Tris buffer [TBS]), as secondary biotinylated rabbit anti-mouse immunoglobulins (Dako, E0354) and the avidin biotin complex (ABC)-labeled alkaline phosphatase (Dako). Alkaline phosphatase was visualized by AP-Red substrate chromogen mixture for 20–30 min at room temperature (Zymed, Kiel, Germany). Applying the same method, IL-18 in GCs was detected by the corresponding primary monoclonal antibody of mouse antihuman IL-18 (R&D, D043-3). The slides were washed in distilled water, counterstained with Mayer's hematoxylin (distilled 1:4 vol/vol in water, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) for 5 min, and then mounted with Histo-mount solution (Zymed). As negative controls, nonimmune serum was used instead of the primary antibody.

#### Extraction of RNA

The GCs were lysed in 1 mL of trizol (GIBCO/BRL, Karlsruhe, Germany) for 10 min. Total cellular RNA was isolated from cell lysates, as described by Chomczynski and Sacchi [40]. The extracted total RNA was mixed with 45  $\mu\text{L}$  of RNA Secure solution (MBI, Fermentas, St.

Leon-Rat, Germany) and heated at 60 °C for 10 min. It was then set with 2  $\mu\text{L}$  of DNase (MBI, Fermentas) in 5  $\mu\text{L}$  10  $\times$  DNase buffer (MBI, Fermentas), kept for 30 min at 37 °C, 15 min at 70 °C, and stored at –20 °C. RNA concentration was determined photometrically. All solutions were prepared using diethylpyrocarbonate-treated water (DEPC water).

#### Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction analysis

Two micrograms of total cellular RNA was reverse transcribed using the Revert Aid TM H Minus First Strand Synthesis Kit (MBI, Fermentas) for 60 min at 42 °C. Complementary DNA (cDNA) was heated at 70 °C for 10 min. This first-strand synthesized cDNA was used directly for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification.

One-half of each reverse transcription (RT) reaction mixture was used in 40 cycles of PCR amplification in the Minicycler Biozym (Oldentof, Germany) using 1 U Taq polymerase (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), the oligonucleotides forward 5'-cca agg aaa tcg gcc tct at-3' (position 396) and reverse 5'-ccc cca att cat cct ctt tt-3' for IL-18 (position 764), as well as 5'-gtt gag ttg aat gac aca gg-3' (position 289, sense primer) and 5'-tcc act gca aca tgg tta ag-3' (position 711, antisense primer) for IL-18R $\alpha$  chain [41]. The PCR amplification was performed in 40 cycles, each cycle consisting of 1 min at 95 °C, 1 min at 60 °C (for IL-18), 1 min at 53 °C (for IL-18R), and 1 min at 72 °C.

The primers used for glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) were: forward 5'-gtc agt ggt gga cct gac ct-3' and reverse 5'-tga gga ggg gag att cag tg-3' with a product size of 400 bp. The PCR amplification for GAPDH was performed in 25 cycles, each cycle consisting of 1 min at 94 °C, 1 min at 59 °C, and 1 min at 72 °C. Negative controls consisted of the complete composite of PCR reagents and primers without cDNA. After amplification, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of the PCR mix was electrophoresed in a 2% agarose gel. DNA molecular weight marker VIII from Roche (Mannheim, Germany) was used as a size marker.

#### Statistical evaluation and IRB approval

All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) version 20. Based on the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, normal distribution for the parameters could not be assumed. Therefore, in descriptive statistics, median and interquartile ranges (IQR) were given. Mann–Whitney *U* test was used to compare quantitative parameters. Correlation was measured by Spearman's rank correlation coefficients ( $r_s$ ). *p* value <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant throughout the study. Patient

written consent was obtained from all participants. Under the stipulations of the Universitätsklinikum Schleswig–Holstein (UKSH), Kiel Institutional Review Board (IRB), approval did not obtain for a retrospective observational study.

## Results

### IL-18 levels in serum and FF on the day of oocyte retrieval

On the day of oocyte retrieval, the median IL-18 level in serum, 159.27 pg/ml (121.41–210.1), was significantly higher than that in FF, 142.1 pg/ml (95.7–176.5),  $p < 0.001$ . On the basis of nonnormal distributed values of IL-18 levels in serum and FF, we found a positive correlation (Spearman's rho  $r_s = 0.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ , Fig. 1).

Moreover, we observed significant positive correlations between some clinical parameters with IL-18 levels of serum and/or FF on the day of follicular puncture (FP) as follows: BMI with levels of IL-18 in serum and FF ( $r_s = 0.24$  and  $r_s = 0.2$ , respectively); number of total retrieved oocytes, E2 and progesterone levels only with FF levels of IL-18 ( $r_s = 0.23$ ,  $r_s = 0.2$  and  $r_s = 0.24$ , respectively).

There were no significant statistical differences between IL-18 levels of FF or serum with patients' age and levels of injected total dose from first stimulation day up to the day of hCG injection and the number of transferred embryos. Serum levels of IL-18 in patients who treated with rFSH ( $n = 74$ ) were 169.05 pg/ml (120.2–221.9) and in patients who received hMG ( $n = 28$ ) were 151.1 pg/

ml (128.9–182.3) which showed no significant differences between the two groups ( $p = 0.258$ ). Also our result demonstrated that FF levels of IL-18 between patients who treated with rFSH (142.53 pg/ml; 103.8–191.04) and hMG (132.1 pg/ml; 98.9–151) were not statistically different ( $p = 0.191$ ).

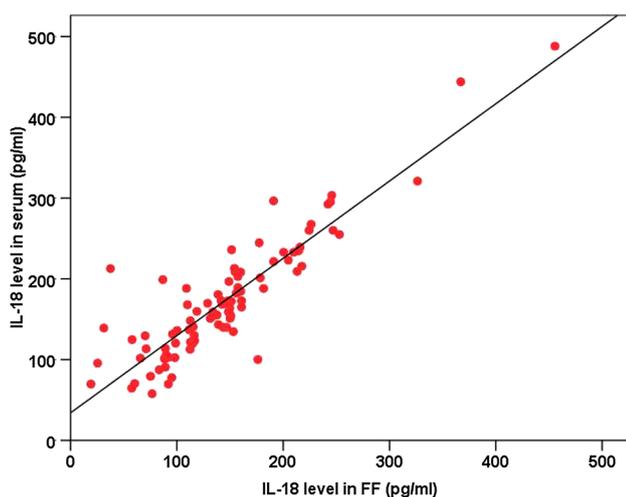
The median IL-18 levels in FF and serum of patients who underwent ICSI, 140.4 pg/mL (98.6–178.2) and 164.3 pg/ml (123.6–213), respectively, were higher than in those who underwent IVF 147.6 pg/mL (88.2–156.3) and 149.4 pg/mL (101.1–156.3), respectively, but this difference did not meet statistical significance. We found that serum IL-18 levels in patients with tubal cause of infertility ( $n = 34$ ) were 153.6 pg/mL (129–188.6) and in patients with andrological infertility ( $n = 68$ ) were 164.9 pg/mL (121.7–212.9). Also IL-18 levels in follicular fluid of patients with tubal cause and andrological cause of infertility were 128.8 pg/mL (98.8–151.1) and 149 pg/mL (104.5–177.4), respectively. However, we did not find any significant differences in serum and FF levels of IL-18 between the two groups of patients ( $p = 0.483$  and  $0.225$ , respectively). From total 102 patients, 32 became pregnant (31.37%). There were no differences in IL-18 levels of serum and FF between patients who became pregnant and those not.

### Immunocytochemical detection of IL-18 and its receptor on GCs

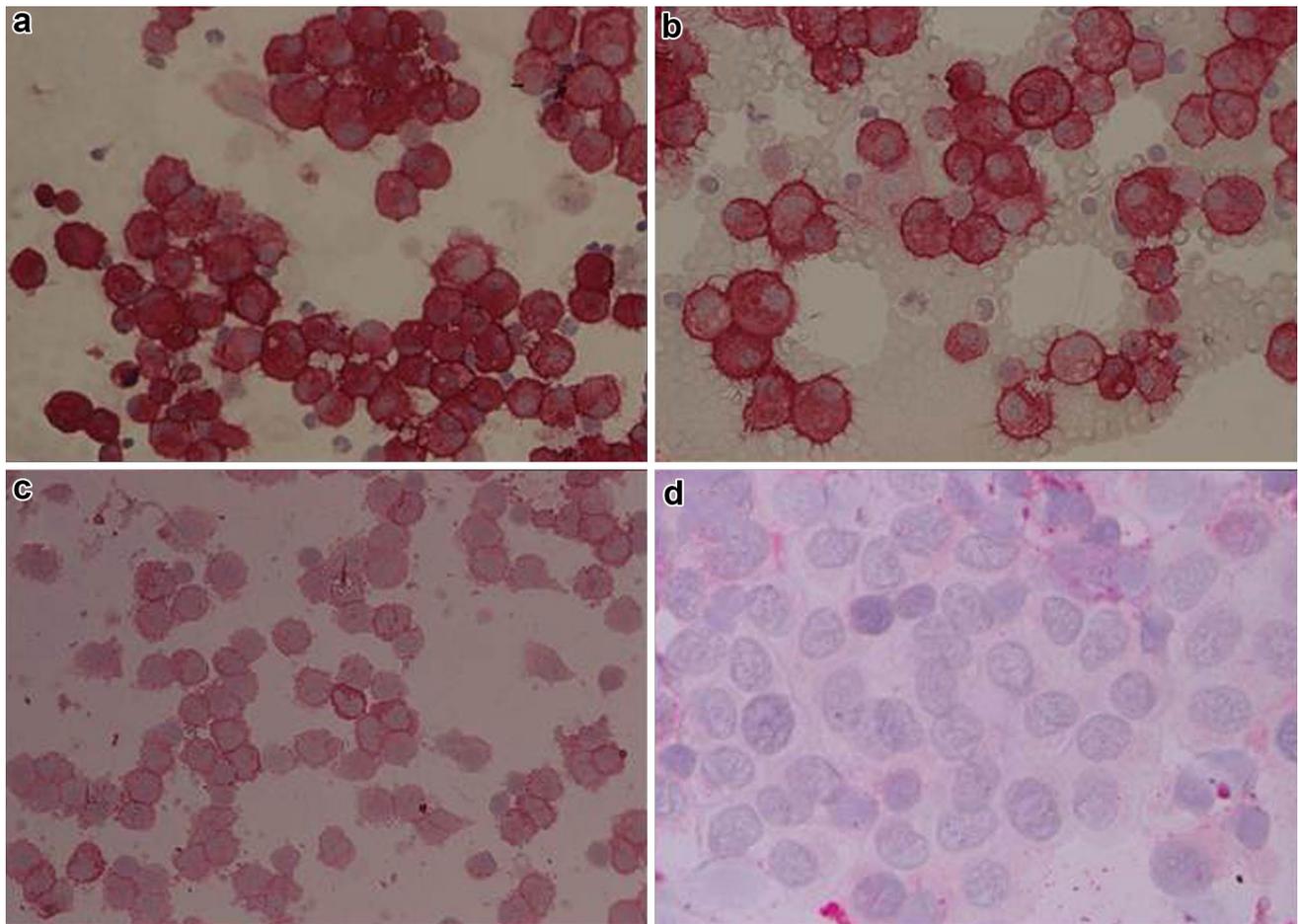
By means of immunocytochemistry, we were able to prove that human follicular GCs express IL-18 (Fig. 2a). Figure 2b demonstrates the localization of the IL-18R gene product on the surface of a GC. Figure 2c as a positive control shows the localization of human IL-18R on the surface of monocyte cells isolated from blood and 2d as negative control, GCs without the primary antibody. All of GCs were positive to IL-18 and its receptor. The immunoreactive signals of IL-18 were distributed in the cytoplasm of GCs, whereas its receptor was preferentially localized on the membrane of GCs. The purity of our GC preparations (absence of macrophages) was >99% in all samples, as demonstrated by the immunocytochemical application of the monoclonal antibody Ki-M<sub>1</sub>P which recognizes CD 68.

### Detection of IL-18 and its receptor on GCs by RT-PCR

By applying RT-PCR on cDNA of IL-18 and its receptor, amplicons of 368 and 422 bp were detected (Fig. 3). The results clearly showed that corresponding amplicons are detectable for IL-18 (Fig. 3, lanes b–d) and IL-18R (Fig. 3, lanes e–g) in samples from GCs, monocytes, and placenta. Amplicons of 400 bp (Fig. 3, lanes h–j) were detected for GAPDH.



**Fig. 1** Correlation between IL-18 concentrations in serum and follicular fluid (FF) on the day of oocyte retrieval ( $n = 90$ ,  $r_s = 0.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ )



**Fig. 2** Immunocytochemical demonstration of IL-18 and its receptor (IL-18R). **a** IL-18 in the cytoplasm and also its localization on the cell membrane surface of human follicular granulosa cells (GCs). **b** Localization of IL-18R on the surface of GCs. **c** Localization of

IL-18 on the surface of monocytes, isolated from blood as positive control. **d** GCs without the primary antibody as negative control. Immunoalkaline phosphatase reaction. Magnification, 600

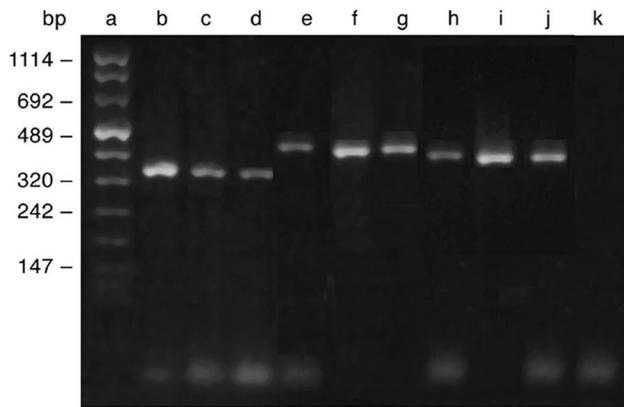
## Discussion

By applying immunocytochemical methods, we could show the expression of human IL-18 in follicular luteal GCs and the localization of its receptor on the surface of GCs, a finding so far not reported. Detection of IL-18 in this study is well in line with the findings of Sarapick et al. [36]. They recently described the presence and local production of mRNA IL-18 in the human mural and cumulus granulosa cells. Kilic et al. [34] found IL-18 and IL-18 binding protein in serum and ovarian follicular fluid. The expression of its receptor on GCs, which is important to clarify the mechanism of IL-18, is now described in this study. The biological functions of IL-18 are mediated through its receptor (IL-18R). IL-18R resembles IL-1R and shares same signal transduction pathway [30]. Expression of IL-18R was confirmed on both Th1 lymphocytes and NK cells, whereas it was not observed on Th2 lymphocytes [31, 42]. As monocytes, in addition to placenta,

may express IL-18 and its receptor [4–7], these samples were used as positive controls throughout this study. The purity of our GC preparations (absence of macrophages) based on the immunocytochemical test was >99% which allows us to conclude that the obtained results are reliable.

Using RT-PCR, a 368-bp amplicon for IL-18 and a 422-bp amplicon, which characterizing the amplification of IL-18R, could be detected. This result is supported by findings of previous studies for expression of the IL-18R on human dendritic cells in peripheral blood and epidermis, as well as monocyte-derived dendritic cells and lymphocytes and placenta [4, 41].

The mammalian ovulation event can be considered from the perspective of an inflammatory reaction, with proinflammatory cytokines producing and functionally interacting throughout the process [36, 43]. IL-18 is known to induce cytokines that are important for both folliculogenesis and ovulation, including IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , and IFN- $\gamma$  [44, 45].



**Fig. 3** In vitro reverse transcription (RT) polymerase chain reaction (PCR) of IL-18 and its receptor (IL-18R). Lane a separation of a molecular weight marker; lanes b–d IL-18 amplicon in human granulosa cells (GCs), in human monocytes and in human placenta as positive control, respectively; lanes e–g IL-18R amplicon in human GCs, in human monocytes and in human placenta as positive control, respectively; lanes h–j glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) amplicon in human GCs, human monocytes and placenta, respectively; lane k negative control omitting RT

In the present study, we could show that IL-18 and its receptor were localized in human luteinized follicular GCs. GCs can synthesize both IL-18 and IL-18R. GCs seem to represent one of the sources and targets of IL-18. The expression of IL-18 and its receptor in follicular GCs suggests that IL-18 may play a role as an inflammatory factor involved in ovulation. The concomitant occurrence of IL-18 and IL-18R in GCs implies that IL-18 may exert an effect on GCs via autocrine or paracrine mechanisms. IL-18 which is secreted from other cell types in the ovaries (such as granulocytes or macrophages) may affect the biological activity of GCs via the IL-18 receptor expressed on these cells.

In the present study, we measured the concentration of IL-18 in FF and serum on the day of oocyte retrieval. IL-18 concentration in serum was higher than in FF. Higher levels of IL-18 in serum compared with FF were described by Gutman et al. [21]. As we detected for the first time, the follicular granulosa cells are the major source of IL-18 and its receptors expression sites. This means that IL-18 in FF implies an intrafollicular production and a potential autocrine or paracrine role of IL-18 within the follicular microenvironment. Furthermore, there was a significant positive correlation between IL-18 levels in serum and FF. Moreover, there were significant positive correlations between IL-18 levels of serum and FF and BMI on the day of FP. Other authors have also documented increased levels of IL-18 in serum of patients with higher BMI, and it was reported that the polycystic ovary syndrome and obesity increase IL-18 levels [46]. Another study has showed that weight loss in obese women leads to a reduction in IL-18

levels [47]. The median IL-18 levels in serum and FF of patients who underwent ICSI were higher than in those who underwent IVF. The possible reason for higher levels of IL-18 in ICSI patients is that in candidate couples for ICSI, women has healthy ovaries and men has pathologic spermogram, so the ovaries produces more IL-18 than IVF patients who have female factor infertility. This is in accordance with our earlier finding relating to granulocyte [48] and macrophage colony-stimulating factors [49].

In conclusion, we found that IL-18 is synthesized and secreted in GCs prior to ovulation. Therefore, we speculate that IL-18 is produced locally in the ovary in response to gonadotropins and gonadal hormones as a consequence of an inflammatory reaction and plays an important role in folliculogenesis and mechanism of ovulation. With regard to IL-18 concentrations in serum and FF, follicles are one of the major production sites of IL-18 and one of the contributors to the level of IL-18 in serum during folliculogenesis and ovulation.

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#### Compliance with ethical standards

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

**Ethical approval** Under the stipulations of the Universitätsklinikum Schleswig–Holstein (UKSH), Kiel Institutional Review Board (IRB), approval did not obtain for a retrospective observational study.

**Informed consent** Patient written consent was obtained from all participants.

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