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Hyperglycosylated hCG activates LH/hCG-receptor with lower activity than hCG

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ABSTRACT

While human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) appears to have an essential role in early pregnancy, it is controversial whether the hyperglycosylated form of hCG (hCG-h), which is the major hCG isoform during the first 4–5 weeks of pregnancy, is able to activate LH/hCG receptor (LHCGR). To address this, we utilized different extensively characterized hCG and hCGβ reference reagents, cell culture- and urine-derived hCG-h preparations, and an in vitro reporter system for LHCGR activation. The WHO hCG reference reagent (99/688) was found to activate LHCGR with an EC50-value of 3.3 ± 0.6 pmol/L (n = 9). All three studied hCG-h preparations were also able to activate LHCGR, but with a lower potency (EC50-values between 7.1 ± 0.5 and 14 ± 3 pmol/L, n = 5–11, for all P < 0.05 as compared to the hCG reference). The activities of commercial urinary hCG (Pregnyl) and recombinant hCG (Ovitrelle) preparations were intermediate between those of the hCG reference and the hCG-h. These results strongly suggest that the hCG-h is functionally similar to hCG, although it has lower potency for LHCGR activation. Whether this explains the reduced proportion of hCG-h to hCG reported in patients developing early onset pre-eclampsia or those having early pregnancy loss remains to be determined.

1. Introduction

The glycoprotein hormones luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) and human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) are heterodimers consisting of a non-covalently linked common α-subunit (hCGα) and different β-subunits determining their biological activity (Pierce and Parsons, 1981). While TSH and FSH have specific receptors, hCG and LH signal through a common LH/hCG receptor (LHCGR), which is highly expressed in ovaries and testes, but also at low levels in some other tissues, like breast and uterus (reviewed in Ascoli et al., 2002). Ligand binding to a Gαs protein-coupled LHCGR activates the cAMP system and subsequently cAMP-dependent protein kinases, but some other signaling routes have also been reported (reviewed in Ascoli et al., 2002). The major function of hCG is to maintain progesterone production in the corpus luteum, essential for pregnancy.

In addition to the intact hCG heterodimer, the free β-subunit of hCG (hCGβ), which is produced especially in non-trophoblastic tumors (Stenman et al., 2004), has been proposed to be bioactive (Cole and Butler, 2012), although it does not activate the LHCGR (Catt et al., 1973; Ryan et al., 1988). We have recently shown that both hCG and hCGβ stimulate trophoblast invasion independent of the LHCGR (Lee et al., 2013). Especially in urine, which is often used as a source for purification of hCG and hCGβ, part of the hCGβ occurs as a...
proteolytically processed, or nicked, isoform (hCGβn) in which the peptide chain is cleaved between Gly47 and Val48, and less often between amino acids 43–44, 44–45 and 75–76 (Bidart et al., 1988; Puisieux et al., 1990; Elliott et al., 1997). hCGβn fragments are connected by disulfide bridges and are able to form a heterodimer (hCGn) with α-subunit, but this dimer has a very low or no activity at the LHCGR (Sakakibara et al., 1990). hCGβ can be further processed in the kidneys to a hCG core fragment (hCGβcf), which, in addition to lacking several amino acids in the region 41–54, is also devoid of the five N-terminal amino acids as well as amino acids 93–145 forming the C-terminal peptide (CTP). hCGβcf is unable to form a dimer with hCGα (Birken et al., 1988; Nisula et al., 1989). Plasma contains very low levels of hCGn and hCGβcf (Hoermann et al., 1994; Alfantah et al., 1992).

Invasive cytotothrophoblasts and several cancers, especially trophoblastic and testicular cancer, produce hyperglycosylated hCG (hCG-h) (Ryan et al., 1988; Valmu et al., 2006; Kovalevskaya et al., 1999, 2002a; Stenman et al., 2011; Lempiäinen et al., 2012). hCG-h is characterized by large glycan moieties and defined as hCG detected by a monoclonal antibody B152 that recognizes a core-2 glycan attached to Ser-132 of hCGβ and surrounding peptide structures (Valmu et al., 2006; Birken et al., 1999, 2003a). hCG-h is the major form of hCG found in serum during the first 4–5 weeks of pregnancy (Kovalevskaya et al., 1999; Stenman et al., 2011). Specific determination of hCG-h is clinically useful for cancer diagnostics and prognosis, but also for prediction of pregnancy complications (reviewed in Stenman et al., 2004; Stenman et al., 2006; Stenman and Alfantah, 2013), e.g., during the first trimester of pregnancy, a reduced proportion of hCG-h to hCG predicts early onset pre-eclampsia (Keikakkala et al., 2013). In cancer diagnostics, hCG-h may be especially useful for detection of non-seminomatous germ cell tumors of the testis, where elevated concentrations also indicate elevated hCG-h may be especially useful for detection of non-seminomatous germ cell tumors of the testis, where elevated concentrations also in- dicate adverse prognosis (Lempiäinen et al., 2012).

It has been suggested that hCG-h is functionally different from non- hyperglycosylated hCG (Cole, 2010; Fournier et al., 2015). Such suggested activities include stimulation of trophoblast and cancer cell invasion, and activation of the TGFβ-receptor (Cole and Butler, 2012; Handschuh et al., 2007; Evans et al., 2015; Berndt et al., 2013). However, in our studies on highly purified and well characterized hCG and hCGβ preparations, with different degrees of hyperglycosylation, we have not seen any clear glycosylation-related modulation of pro- invasive activity of hCG-h/β-h (Lee et al., 2013). Furthermore, activation of the TGFβ-receptor may be due to TGFβ-contamination in the hCG-h preparations used (Koistinen et al., 2015). Thus, it remains controversial whether hyperglycosylation of hCG has specific (patho)physiological significance or is just a consequence of the altered glycosylation in cancer and trophoblast cells of early pregnancy. While the activation of LHCGR by hCG is well established, studies on the activity of hCG-h on LHCGR activation have given discordant results (Berndt et al., 2013; Crochet et al., 2012; Mazina et al., 2015a), ranging from inactivity to somewhat reduced activity. This may be due to differences between various hCG preparations used and their poor characterization, but also the assays used. To address these contradictory findings, we studied LHCGR activation by several extensively characterized hCG preparations and report that hCG-h is able to activate the LHCGR, although with lower potency than hCG.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. hCG, hCGβ and their hyperglycosylated forms

WHO international reference preparations for hCG (code 99/688), nicked hCG (99/642), hCGβ (99/650) and nicked hCGβ (99/692) were obtained from National Institute for Biological Standards and Control (NIBSC, Potters Bar, Hertfordshire, UK). Recombinant hCG (Oviturelle) and urinary hCG (Pregnyl) were purchased from Merck Serono Europe (Darmstadt, Germany). hCG-h from early pregnancy (pregnancy week 5) and a patient with testicular cancer were purified from urine by several chromatography steps, including a Sepharose column coupled with B152 antibody, as previously reported (Valmu et al., 2006). Informed consent was obtained from all individuals whose urine samples were used for purification of hCG-isofoms and the use of the samples have been approved by the institutional ethics committee at Helsinki University Hospital. Glycans of these hCG-h preparations and significant enrichment of hyperglycosylated hCG, as defined by the presence of core-2 type O-glycan attached to Ser-132, upon B152 purification have been described previously (Valmu et al., 2006). hCG-h from conditioned culture media (day 12) of human embryonic stem cells (hESC line H9; WiCell Research Institute, Madison, WI) differ- entiated into trophoblast-like cells with FGF2 inhibition and BMP4 activation (Koel et al., 2017) was purified with B152 antibody affinity chromatography. The hCG concentrations (including hCG-h) were de- termined by a commercial immunofluorometric assay (PerkinElmer, Turku, Finland), and hCGβ, hCGβcf and hyperglycosylated forms of hCG and hCGβ by specific in-house immunoassays calibrated against WHO standards, except for hCG-h assay, which was calibrated with human choriocarcinoma JEG-3 cell derived hCG (Lee et al., 2013; Alfantah et al., 1992; Stenman et al., 2011; Lempiäinen et al., 2008). The limit of detection of all assays was < 2 pmol/L and the intra-assay coefficient of variation < 10% at concentrations above 10 pmol/L.

2.2. Western immunoblotting

hCG or hCGβ (15–80 nmol/L) were denatured by boiling in NuPAGE® LDS Sample Buffer (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) to which 2.4% β-mercaptoethanol and 13 mmol/L dithiothreitol (DTT) were added. Samples of 20 µl were loaded onto SDS-polyacrylamide gel (NuPAGE® Novex™ 4–12% Bis-Tris Gel, Life Technologies). After electrohoresis in MES buffer (Life Technologies) the proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes, blocked overnight at 4°C with 1% BSA in 50 mmol/L Tris-buffered saline (TBS), pH 7.7, and with 3% milk powder in TBS at room temperature for one hour. The primary antibody against hCGβ (A0231, DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark) in 3% milk powder in TBS was incubated with the membrane for two hours at room temperature. After washing with TBS containing 0.1% Tween, the membrane was incubated with peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (711-035-152, Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Ely, UK) for one hour at room temperature. After washing, detection was performed with ECL solution (32209, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL).

2.3. LHCGR activation assay

For monitoring LHCGR activation we used Madin-Darby Canine Kidney (MDCK) cells stably expressing human LHCGR and quantified receptor-triggered changes in cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) levels by a Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) biosensor (Mazina et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2017). This method allows highly sensitive detection of LHCGR activation, with the limit of detection (LoD) and limit of quantitation (LoQ) for hCG being 0.96 pmol/L and 2.9 pmol/L, re- spectively.

The biosensor expression vector mTurq2Δ_Epac(CD,ΔDEP)_td (C)173Ven (H188) (Klaarenbeek et al., 2015) was kindly provided by Dr. Kees Jalink from the Netherlands Cancer Institute, and modified to be used in BacMam system as previously described (Mazina et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2017). Briefly, the pcDNA3.1+ expression vector with the H188 gene was cloned into the pFastBac™ 1 vector, and the polyhedrin promoter from the pFastBac™ 1 vector was replaced with the powerful mammalian cytomegalovirus promoter. The resulting construct was used to produce bacmid DNA, which was subsequently transfected into Spodoptera frugiperda Sf9 insect cells to obtain the BacMam virus. The virus was amplified, and the stocks stored at −80°C. The viral titers were determined experimentally by a cell size-based assay using SF9 cells (Mazina et al., 2015b). The mammalian MDCK cell line used for
To establish kinetic parameters for activation of LHCRG pathways by different hormones, the increase of $\Delta$FRET was plotted against time after addition of each hormone preparation. For each hormone, one $\Delta$FRET vs time curve was chosen per individual measurement. To ensure maximum quality of data (i.e., representing not too fast kinetics yet a sufficient measurement window), the chosen curve usually featured data measured at hormone concentrations above its $EC_{50}$ value, but not hormone concentrations giving maximal activation. Each curve was then fitted to a one-phase association equation using GraphPad Prism 6.0; $Y_0$ value was fixed at 0. The rate constant obtained for each curve was then divided by the corresponding concentration of ligand; the average of the pooled data for one ligand yielded the value of the apparent association rate constant $k_{on,app}$. As we had no information on the concentration of LHCRG in the system, but LHCRG was over-expressed, we did not compensate $k_{on,app}$ values for receptor concentration assuming that the latter was equal in all measurements.

In studies exploring absence of binding of hCGβ to LHCRG, transfected cells were incubated for 2 h with 100 μL of PBS or solutions of hCGβ (99/650) (final concentration of 1800 pmol/L; 7 wells) or hCGβn (99/692) (1200 pmol/L; 7 wells) in PBS. Measurement of biosensor signal prior to or following addition of the samples confirmed that no change in FRET occurred during 2 h incubation with hCGβn. hCGβ induced a signal, which could be attributed to contamination of the preparation with a small amount of hCG as detected by an immunoassay (Table 1). Next, 10 μL of a dilution series of hCG (99/668) was added to both of the aforementioned series, and another 2 h measurement was performed. In the second measurement, $EC_{50}$ values were established for hCG (99/668) after preincubation with hCGβ or hCGβn. The content of hCG in the hCGβ (99/650) sample was taken into account when calculating $EC_{50}$ value for hCG (99/668).

3. Results

Since the hCG may exist in many different forms, like nicked hCG, which is common in hCG preparations isolated from urine and has been reported to lack LHCRG stimulating activity, we characterized the preparations used by specific immunoassays for hCG heterodimer, free hCGβ, hCGβcf and hyperglycosylated hCG/hCGβ (Table 1). The hCG reference contained about 20% of hyperglycosylated hCG and the hCG-h preparations were ~100% hyperglycosylated. Nicked hCG was detected by reducing Western blotting for hCGβ (Fig. 1). While the nicked hCGβ reference (Fig. 1, lane 8) contained only nicked form, the nicked hCG reference (lane 4) appeared to contain a significant amount, about 50%, of non-nicked form. Pregnyl (lanes 1 and *) also contained some nicked hCG/hCGβ. It is noteworthy that recombinant hCG (Ovitrelle, lane 2) showed an additional lower molecular weight band of hCGβ, suggesting the presence of a variant form of hCG.

As expected, hCG activated LHCRG with high efficiency, while hCGβ was devoid of activity or had only residual activity corresponding to the minor hCG contamination in the samples (Table 1, Fig. 2). The $EC_{50}$ value for LHCRG activation by the hCG reference (Table 1, preparation #1) was 3.3 ± 0.6 pmol/L (mean ± SEM, n = 9). All hCG-h preparations (§4, §5 and §6) had lower potency than hCG, the $EC_{50}$ values varying between 7.1 ± 0.5 and 14 ± 3 pmol/L ($P < 0.05$ for all, unpaired t-test with Welch’s correction, n = 5–11). The maximal stimulation at high concentrations of hCG (#1–3) and hCG-h (#4–6) were very similar (P > 0.05 for all hCG-h preparations as compared to hCG). Nicked hCG (#7) had relatively low activity (24 ± 6 pmol/L, $P < 0.05$ as compared to the hCG reference), which was compatible with the presence of non-nicked intact hCG in the preparation (Table 1, Fig. 1). The activities of commercial urinary hCG (Pregnyl, §2) and recombinant hCG (Ovitrelle, §3) were intermediate between those of the hCG reference and hCG-h preparations (for Ovitrelle, P < 0.05 as compared to the hCG reference).

The kinetics of LHCRG activation by different hCG preparations was determined by elucidating the apparent on-rate constants ($k_{on,app}$)
Table 1
hCG and hCGβ preparations used for LHCGR activation studies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparation</th>
<th>hCG (%)</th>
<th>hCGβ (%)</th>
<th>hCGβ/h (%)</th>
<th>hCGβn (%)</th>
<th>LHCG activation, EC50 (pmol/L)</th>
<th>LHCG activation, kobsapp (s⁻¹)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. hCG (99/688)</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>3.3 ± 0.6 (n = 9)</td>
<td>(1.2 ± 0.2) x 10⁶ (n = 6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. hCG (Pregnyl)</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>&lt; 10</td>
<td>6.1 ± 1.6 (n = 5)</td>
<td>(9.5 ± 1.8) x 10⁷ (n = 3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. hCG (Ovitrelle)</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>7.5 ± 1.6 (n = 9)*</td>
<td>(8.6 ± 1.6) x 10⁸ (n = 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. hCG-h (TCa)</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>10 ± 2 (n = 3)*</td>
<td>(3.7 ± 1.7) x 10⁹ (n = 3)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. hCGβ (PW 5)</td>
<td>87.9</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>14 ± 3 (n = 5)*</td>
<td>(3.2 ± 0.9) x 10⁸ (n = 5)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. hCG-h (stem cell)</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>7.1 ± 0.5 (n = 11)**</td>
<td>(6.4 ± 0.6) x 10⁹ (n = 11)*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. hCGn (99/642)</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>24 ± 6 (n = 5)*</td>
<td>(2.1 ± 0.8) x 10⁸ (n = 5)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. hCGβ (99/660)</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>99.6</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>&gt; 1000 (n = 3)***</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. hCGβ (99/692)</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>98.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>&gt; 1000 (n = 3)***</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* PW, pregnancy week; TCa, non-seminomatous germ cell tumor of testis.
% Percentage of molar amount of intact hCG and free hCGβ in the preparations (these represent both non-hyperglycosylated and hyperglycosylated forms).
\( \text{hCGβ} \) Percentage of hyperglycosylated forms of hCG and hCGβ [hCG(β)-h] is indicative as the assay recognizes hCGβ-h with somewhat lower affinity than hCG-h.
\( \text{hCGβ} \) The amount of nicked hCGβ (hCGβn) is a rough estimate based on Western immunoblotting (Fig. 1). –, undetectable; n.a., not analyzed.
\( \text{hCGβ} \) Activation of LHCGR by different preparations as defined by the concentration needed for half-maximal activation (EC50) and kinetics of the activation (\( k_{\text{obs}} \)).

Data represents mean ± SEM of 3–11 separate assays (all with three replicates). The concentrations used for LHCGR assay are based on hCG concentration (preparations #1–7) or in case of hCGβ (preparations #8–9) on hCGβ concentration. * indicates \( P \leq 0.05 \), ** \( P \leq 0.01 \) and *** \( P \leq 0.001 \) as compared to WHO international hCG reference reagent (99/688) (i.e., preparation #1). n.a., not analyzed.
\( \text{hCGβ} \) The numbers in parenthesis refer to the NIBSC codes of the preparations.
\( \text{hCGβ} \) < 1.0% of the immunoreactive hCGβ represents core fragment (hCGβcf) form as determined by a specific immunoassay (Alfthan et al., 1992).

Table 1, Fig. 1. Detection of nicked hCGβ by Western blotting. *, Note that hCG (Pregnyl) also contained nicked hCGβ, which is well visible only after longer exposure of the blot with film as shown in the right lane.

4. Discussion
While hCG appears to have an essential role in early pregnancy, it has remained controversial whether the hyperglycosylated form of hCG, i.e., hCG-h, which is the major isoform of hCG secreted by the placenta during the first 4–5 weeks of pregnancy (Kovalevskaya et al., 1999, 2002a; Stenman et al., 2011), is able to activate LHCGR (Berndt et al., 2013; Crochet et al., 2012; Mazina et al., 2015a). We show here, using highly purified and characterized hCG preparations, that hCG-h activates LHCGR, although with lower potency than non-hyperglycosylated hCG, suggesting functional similarity of these two hCG-isoforms, but also that glycosylation may regulate the activity of hCG during early pregnancy.

The bioactivity of hCG-isoforms has often been studied using cellular systems of non-human species, in which LHCGR is structurally somewhat different from the human receptor (Troppmann et al., 2013). For studies on the differences between hCG-isoforms on LHCGR activation, it is important to use an assay utilizing human LHCGR, like the one used in this study. Using this model we showed that all three studied hCG-h preparations had significantly lower potency for LHCGR activation than the WHO hCG reference, which contained about 20% of hCG-h, the rest representing non-hyperglycosylated form as detected by specific immunoassays. The hyperglycosylated preparations included early pregnancy, testicular cancer and differentiated stem cell-derived hCG-h, indicating that the lower activity is not limited to a certain hCG-h preparation. As shown previously (Catt et al., 1973; Ryan et al., 1988), hCGβ was not able to activate LHCGR. Interestingly, commercial recombinant hCG (Ovitrelle) showed lower activity than the hCG reference and similar trend was observed also for Pregnyl. This may be because of the heterogeneity of Pregnyl, i.e., it contained some hCG-h and nicked hCG, and is known to contain several impurities (Koistinen et al., 2015; Yarram et al., 2004). Ovitrelle seemed to contain two major components, which may represent glycosylation variants. This heterogeneity in SDS electrophoresis has been described also previously (Riccetti et al., 2017) and may explain the reduced activity.

The lower potency of hCG-h for LHCGR activation was supported by our kinetics studies, showing that the effect of hCG-h was slower than that of hCG. Furthermore, we have previously shown that conditioned cell culture medium from human choriocarcinoma JEG-3 cells, which produce hCG-h resembling that from early pregnancy and cancer patients (Valmu et al., 2006), activates LHCGR (Mazina et al., 2015a). When this hCG has been enriched from the media by Concanavalin-A lectin-affinity chromatography, it has been found to be less active than
non-hyperglycosylated hCG (Berndt et al., 2013). Contrary to these results, it has been reported that purified hCG-h is unable to activate LHCGR, as determined by the lack of induction of progesterone production in luteinized granulosa cells stimulated with hCG-h (Crochet et al., 2012). These earlier discordant results may be explained by differences between various hCG-h preparations, as many of the studies have been compromised by poor characterization of the preparations used. Especially nicking of the hCG, which is common in hCG isoforms isolated from urine (Bidart et al., 1988; Puisieux et al., 1990; Elliott et al., 1997; Cole et al., 1993), compromises interpretation of the results. We found that the activity of the nicked hCG reference corresponded and, thus, is likely to be explained by the presence of intact non-nicked hCG, which has been estimated to represent 10–15% (Birken et al., 2003b), or even more based on our Western blotting
results, of total hCG in this preparation.

The only apparent difference between hCG-h and hCG is in their glycosylation. In theory, this may affect the tertiary structure of hCG/hCG-h and/or dimer formation with α-subunit, but it is feasible that the glycan(s) are directly responsible for differences in activation of the LHCG. The variation we observed between different hCG-h preparations may result from variation in glycan structures (Valm et al., 2006), typical for glycoproteins (Varki, 2017; Koistinen et al., 2003). Previously, the signaling of hCG through LHCG has been found to be dependent on its glycosylation, e.g., deglycosylated hCG does not induce signaling, although it is able to bind to LHCG (Sairam, 1989; Richard et al., 2007). While our results show that hCG-h activates LHCG less efficiently than hCG, the used reporter system is not able to address whether this is due to the steric effects of glycans in hCG-h decreasing the binding to the receptor or due to decreased signal transduction after the hormone has bound to its receptor. Noteworthy, in our experiments excess of hCGβ did not inhibit the response generated by the hCG reference. This suggests that, unlike deglycosylated hCG, HCGβ does not bind to the LHCG as also reported previously (Catt et al., 1973). Especially, the glycan attached to Asn-52 in hCGα appears to be important for LHCG activation (Matzuk et al., 1989), but the regulation of hCG activity by glycosylation is complex, and thus other glycans are also likely to play a role. Such a regulation of glycoprotein activity for their cognate receptors has been well established in several systems (Varki, 2017). Interestingly, LH and hCG, both of which signal through LHCG, have been found to have somewhat different effects downstream of LHCG activation, including modulation of activity of certain protein kinases and gene expression (Casarini et al., 2012, 2018). Whether hCG and hCG-h are different in this respect (Arey and López, 2011) remains to be studied.

The lower potency of hCG-h to stimulate LHCG may have (patho) physiological consequences during the first few weeks after the implantation, when hCG-h is the major hCG isoform (Kovalevskaya et al., 1999, 2002a; Stenman et al., 2011). Later, on, after 4–5 weeks of pregnancy, when hCG-h is still the dominant hCG isoform, its levels are already significantly increased, which may compensate its lower potency in LHCG activation in corpus luteum and other tissues. This is supported by our observation that maximal activation of LHCG was similar with both hCG and hCG-h, although higher concentrations of hCG-h were needed for that. During the first weeks of pregnancy, hCG-h is likely to stimulate trophoblast invasion independently of the LHCG activation (Lee et al., 2013), but it may also have LHCG mediated function(s), in addition to corpus luteum, also in uterine and other cells (Ascoli et al., 2002). Interestingly, a recent study reported a woman with an inactive mutaLHCGR who maintained a normal pregnancy after becoming pregnant with ovum donation (Mirti et al., 2014). This suggests that the maintenance of pregnancy through LHCG activation is not necessary and that during pregnancy the main hCG effect may be mediated by other mechanisms than LHCG activation. Clinical studies have suggested that low concentrations of hCG-h or low ratio of hCG-h to hCG already on the day of implantation is associated with pregnancy loss (Cole, 2012; Sasaki et al., 2008). However, during that time the levels of hCG-h and hCG are extremely low, making their accurate detection difficult. Contrary to these findings, in IVF treatments it has been found that during the first weeks after embryo transfer the proportion of hCG-h to hCG stayed higher in women with early pregnancy loss, as compared to those with a successful IVF pregnancy (Kovalevskaya et al., 2002b). Later during the first trimester of the pregnancy a reduced proportion of hCG-h to hCG has been found to indicate risk for early onset pre-eclampsia (Rekikala et al., 2013). Although these studies suggest that hCG-h is involved in normal early pregnancy and perhaps also in early onset pregnancy complications, its specific role remains to be established. It is important to note, that the half-life of hCG-h/hCG in circulation and, thereby, the biopotency may also be affected by differences in glycosylation (Mi et al., 2014). So far, the half-life of hCG-h is not known.

We have previously shown that when human embryonic stem cells are differentiated into trophoblast-like cells with FGF2 inhibition and BMP4 activation they produce hCG-h (Koe et al., 2017), which suggests that these differentiated cells are similar to early pregnancy cytotrophoblast cells (Kovalevskaya et al., 2002a). Here we report that the hCG-h produced by these differentiated embryonic stem cells is able to activate LHCG. Thus, this stem cell model would be suitable for studying the function(s) of trophoblast derived hCG-h.

In conclusion, we showed here that hyperglycosylated hCG-h is able to activate LHCG, although with lower potency than hCG. This strongly suggests that the hCG-h is functionally similar to hCG. Whether this explains the reduced proportion of hCG-h to hCG found in patients developing early onset pre-eclampsia or those having early pregnancy loss remains to be determined.

Disclosure summary

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