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Pharmacogenetics of FSH action

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Abstract

Purpose of the review—To review the current knowledge of genetic variants in the two genes affecting the individual responsiveness to follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) action—the FSH beta-subunit (*FSHB*) and the FSH receptor (*FSHR*), as well as the pharmacogenetic ramifications of the findings.

Recent findings—Four common variants in *FSHB/FSHR* were shown to exhibit significant effect on FSH action: linked *FSHR* variants Thr307Ala and Asn680Ser determining common receptor isoforms, and gene expression affecting polymorphisms *FSHR* –29G/A and *FSHB*–211G/T. In women, the *FSHR* Thr307Ala/Asn680Ser polymorphisms show consistent predictive value for estimating the most optimal rFSH dosage in controlled ovarian hyperstimulation (COH). The same variants exhibit a potential for the pharmacogenetic assessment of the treatment of PCOS. The *FSHR*–29G/A variant was also shown to contribute to ovarian response to COH. Pilot studies have suggested the *FSHB*–211TT-homozygous oligozoospermic men with genetically determined low concentration of FSH, as potentially the best responders to FSH treatment; furthermore, modulation of this response by *FSHR* polymorphisms is possible.

Summary—Genetic variants in *FSHB/FSHR* exhibit a potential for pharmacogenetic applications in selecting appropriate treatment options (timing and dosage) in male and female conditions requiring or benefitting from FSH therapy.

Keywords

Follicle-Stimulating Hormone; *FSHB*–211G/T SNP; *FSHR*Thr307Ala/Asn680Ser; *FSHR*–29G/A SNP; pharmacogenetics

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Introduction

Follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) together with the other gonadotrophic hormone, luteinizing hormone (LH), is produced by the anterior pituitary gland, and it acts along the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis to regulate the crucial functions of the ovary (female sex steroid production and follicular maturation) and testis (spermatogenesis) (Fig. 1) [1,2]. Today, treatments with recombinant FSH (rFSH) are a mainstay in several areas of reproductive medicine. Knowledge is accumulating that the efficiency of rFSH therapy is modulated by polymorphisms in genes regulating the dynamics of FSH action.

Function of FSH in women and men

In women, pulsatile gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) secretion from the hypothalamus maintains similarly pulsatile secretion of FSH and LH from the anterior pituitary, and drives in the ovary the hormonal and cellular events that regulate the maturation of Graafian follicles and granulosa cell estrogen production. FSH is also essential to prevent apoptosis and to stimulate proliferation of granulosa cells. Knockout female mice lacking FSH or FSH receptor (FSHR) exhibit infertility, small ovaries, blockage in folliculogenesis, defects in granulosa cell proliferation and function, and suppressed aromatase activity [3,4], and provide accurate phenocopies for similar mutations in women. Outside reproduction, and quite surprisingly, recent studies have suggested a possible extragonadal role of FSH in postmenopausal bone loss [5,6*] and in the neovascularization surrounding malignant tumours [7*]. More data is required to draw the conclusions on extragonadal actions of FSH.

In men, GnRH regulates similarly the pulsatile secretion of LH and FSH. Lower responsiveness to GnRH pulsatility in men has been explained by androgen exposure during embryonic development leading to different functionality of the hypothalamic GnRH system [8]. In the male, FSHRs are located in testicular Sertoli cells. During fetal, neonatal and pubertal development, FSH activates the proliferation of Sertoli cells that is crucial for normal testes development and promotes mitosis in spermatogonia [9*,10*]. In adult men, FSH is important for the maintenance of the metabolic functions of Sertoli cells that are essential for the maintenance of qualitatively and quantitatively normal spermatogenesis, germ cell survival and male fertility [11,12]. In male mice, FSH β -subunit or FSHR deficiency did not lead to infertility, although the animals displayed decreased Sertoli cell number, reduced testes size, sperm count and motility [3]. Interestingly, in mice the inactivating *FSHR* mutations represent phenocopies of murine *fs hb* and *fs h k* knockouts, but the human *FSHB* inactivation induces a more extreme phenotype (azoospermia) compared to male mice, for a so far unknown reason. More information is thus also needed to improve our knowledge on the FSH actions in men.

Key genes involved in FSH action

The efficiency of FSH action is regulated by three main factors—the intrinsic bioactivity of the hormone, its serum concentration, and the efficacy of FSHR signal transduction in response to hormonal stimulation. The rate-limiting step in FSH production is the transcription of the FSH beta subunit coding *FSHB* gene [13]. The other component in the biologically active FSH heterodimer, the common alpha subunit, is produced normally in excess and is not known to limit the production of bioactive FSH [14]. Activation of FSH receptor coded by the *FSHR* gene is necessary for the hormonal functioning of FSH [15]. Other genetic variants affecting FSH action may localize in genes involved in the HPG axis either upstream (e.g. *GnRH*, *INHBA*, *INHBB*) or downstream (e.g. *CYP19A1*, *ESR1*, *ESR2*, etc.) of the pituitary level (Fig. 1), but their clinical value in pharmacogenetic applications requires further studies.

Follicle stimulating Hormone beta subunit gene (*FSHB*)

The human *FSHB* gene (MIM: 136530, chr. 11p13, gene 4262 bp, protein 119 amino acids) belongs to the glycoprotein hormone (LH, FSH, TSH) beta gene family (*GtHB*) and is expressed in gonadotroph cells within the anterior pituitary gland [16**]. It is characterized by a low number of polymorphisms mostly within noncoding regions and spread as high-frequency alleles in human populations (Fig. 2A). These variants are in strong linkage disequilibrium (LD) with each other and form two main *FSHB* haplotypes [17].

Only five inactivating *FSHB* mutations (all in exon 3) have been reported in nine individuals (Fig. 2A) (reviewed in [16**]). These mutations result in premature stop-codon or loss of a cysteine residue affecting proper subunit folding. Homozygous or compound heterozygous female patients exhibited impaired pubertal development and primary amenorrhea. Male patients had normal or impaired puberty and azoospermia.

A regulatory SNP within the *FSHB* promoter –211G/T (rs10835638) is the only identified genetic variant with direct major effect on serum FSH concentrations in men. In Estonians, the median serum FSH of TT- compared to GG-genotype carriers was in young men 78% [18] and among infertility patients 48.5% of control levels [19**]. The association of the T-allele with reduced serum FSH was confirmed in a large cohort of Baltic young men [20**], as well as in Italian [21**] and German [22] infertility patients. The reduction in circulating FSH levels was accompanied by significantly reduced serum Inhibin B and testosterone, as well as by lower testis size and sperm concentration (Fig. 2B). Genetically determined low concentration of FSH during development might affect testicular cell proliferation and lead to impaired testicular function. Increased frequency of the T-allele in Estonian infertility patients suggested a possible contribution of the *FSHB* gene position –211G/T to the male reproductive potential.

In addition, the C-allele of an *FSHB* synonymous change (2623T/C, Tyr58Tyr, exon 3, rs6169; Fig. 2A) has been associated with an increased risk for polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS) [23] and with later age at menarche [24].

Follicle stimulating Hormone Receptor gene (*FSHR*)

The human *FSHR* gene (MIM: 136435, chr. 2p21, gene 192 kb, protein 695 amino acids) encodes for FSH receptor that belongs together with LHR and TSHR to the glycoprotein hormone receptor subfamily of the G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) [15]. *FSHR* is primarily expressed in ovarian granulosa and testicular Sertoli cells, but its expression in endometrium [25], osteoclasts [5] and vascular endothelium surrounding malignant tumours [7*] has recently been reported. Of the >1300 SNPs in the *FSHR* gene, eight (six non-synonymous) locate in the coding region (Fig. 3).

Activating *FSHR* mutations lead to constitutively active receptor signalling in the absence of hormone binding due to a conformational alteration of the transmembrane domain (Fig. 3; reviewed in [26*]). In the single man found with such a mutation (Asp567Gly), the phenotype was persistent spermatogenesis in the absence of circulating gonadotrophins (after hypophysectomy) [27]. This clinical phenotype has been reproduced in transgenic mutant male mice [28,29]. In heterozygous women with such mutations the phenotype is pregnancy-associated ovarian hyperstimulation, mainly due to responsiveness of the mutated receptor to hCG. In female mice, gain-of-function *fsHR* mutations lead to distinct pathological changes in ovarian structure and function, e.g. accelerated loss of follicles [30]. Inactivating *FSHR* mutations caused in men impaired spermatogenesis and in women hypergonadotropic ovarian failure [26*].

Most of the functional studies on *FSHR* polymorphisms have concerned two substitutions in exon 10, Thr307Ala (rs6165) and Asn680Ser (rs6166) [31]. These polymorphisms are in strong LD and exhibit almost equal distribution of the two main isoform variants (Thr307-Asn680, Ala307-Ser680) in Europeans. As *FSHR* isoforms differ in sensitivity to FSH stimulation, they have a significant effect on female serum FSH concentration and ovarian *FSHR* response [32,33,34*,35**,36*]. Women with the Ser680/Ser680 genotype exhibit longer menstrual cycles as another sign of reduced ovarian response to FSH [37]. In addition, in Taiwanese women the *FSHR* Asn680 variant was reported to reduce the risk of endometriosis [38], and in Italian women the Ala307-Ser680 gene variant homozygosity (least sensitive receptor) was associated with lower risk to Alzheimer disease [39]. In contrast, no effects of *FSHR* Thr307Ala and Asn680Ser variants on adult male serum FSH and efficiency of spermatogenesis have been proven. Additionally, the carrier status of the *FSHR* isoforms has been suggested to influence the susceptibility to testicular [34*,40] and ovarian cancer [41-43], but due to a small number of studies no clear-cut associations or definitive conclusions can be drawn.

A novel *FSHR* polymorphism -29G/A (rs1394205) located in the 5'-UTR was shown to alter the transcriptional activity, and it was associated with female hypertension [44]. A recent study demonstrated significantly reduced *FSHR* at mRNA and protein level in granulosa cells of subjects with *FSHR*-29 minor A-allele homozygosity compared to G-allele homozygotes [45**]. The *FSHR*-29 AA-genotype was significantly enriched among Indian women with primary or secondary amenorrhea compared to normally cycling fertile women, and the AA-subjects with primary amenorrhea exhibited increased serum FSH levels consistent with inadequate receptor stimulation [46*]. Reduced testis volume and slightly lower sperm counts in *FSHR*-29 A-allele male carriers has also been reported [47].

As *FSHR* is a large gene, it may contain several other functional variants in addition to the few studied SNPs. A recent genome-wide association study (GWAS) pinpointed an *FSHR* intronic SNP (rs2268363) being associated with the development of erectile dysfunction in African-American men after radiotherapy for prostate cancer [48]. A significant association of several *FSHR* polymorphisms was detected with preterm birth [49].

Pharmacogenetic potential of *FSHB* and *FSHR* gene variants

Serum FSH levels are measured for the assessment of fertility potential and gonadal function. In both sexes, abnormal serum FSH level suggests impaired gonadal function. Low FSH indicates a deficiency in the hypothalamic GnRH secretion or pituitary gonadotrophin synthesis and/or secretion (Fig. 1). Gonadotrophin levels are inadvertently high in primary gonadal failure due to insufficient negative feedback of gonadal sex steroids and/or inhibin. In the clinical diagnostic utility the correct interpretation of estimated serum FSH (as abnormally low or high) is not always straightforward as automated commercial immunoassays exhibit between-method sensitivity and measurement variability [50]. An option to treat deficient gonadotrophin secretion is non-invasive medication by FSH injections or pulsatile GnRH infusions. Another common application of FSH treatment is during ovarian priming for *in vitro fertilization* (IVF) treatment.

Pharmacogenetics of disturbed action of FSH in women

Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)

PCOS represents a common clinical condition (6-10% of women) characterized by unbalanced FSH (normal or reduced) levels in relation to LH (increased). It results in increased LH/FSH ratio and excessive ovarian androgen production causing impaired

menstrual cycle, ovulatory dysfunction and symptoms of androgen excess (e.g. hirsutism) [51,52]. Familial disposition to the syndrome suggests a genetic risk [53]. Biological evidence, and candidate gene and genome-wide association studies point to the link between PCOS and polymorphisms in gonadotrophin and their receptor genes [54,55**,56]. Meta-analysis across eight studies showed significant reduction in PCOS risk in homozygotes for the *FSHR* Asn680/Asn680 major isoform (OR = 0.639; 95% CI: 0.416, 0.980) [57*].

Treatment of infertility of PCOS patients consists of ovulation induction by clomiphene citrate (CC) and/or rFSH. PCOS patients homozygous for the *FSHR* Ser680 allele exhibited high resistance to CC [58]. Consistent with the impaired FSH action, anovulatory (46%) compared to oligo-ovulatory (10%) PCOS patients were shown to have a higher chance of pregnancy after ovulation induction with rFSH, whereas CC treatment was less effective [59]. Interestingly, in a recent study in Italian PCOS women the *FSHR* Ala307Thr heterozygotes exhibited a higher ovarian responsiveness to exogenous rFSH than subjects homozygous for *FSHR* isoforms [60].

Premature ovarian failure/insufficiency (POF, POI)

In 1-2% of women, this is a condition accompanied by elevated FSH levels due to impaired ovarian response to FSH-stimulation [61,62]. There is no clear association or pharmacogenetic perspective in the conducted studies targeting the *FSHR* Ala680Ser variant [34*,57*]. Recently, epistasis between *FSHR* Asn680Ser and polymorphisms in *CYP19A1* (aromatase) was associated with POF [63**].

The pharmacogenetic relevance of the *FSHR*-29G/A and *FSHB*-211G/T polymorphisms in PCOS and POF patients remains to be studied.

Postmenopausal hormone therapy and osteoporosis

In postmenopausal women, *FSHR* Asn680Ser Asn/Asn-individuals have an increased risk of osteoporosis [64*]. Still, the direct effect of FSH on bone must first be confirmed in human before any pharmacogenetic studies of polymorphisms modulating FSH action are relevant.

Pharmacogenetics of FSH action in ovulation induction in assisted reproduction

Controlled ovarian hyperstimulation (COH)

Identification of predictive factors of ovarian response is important in order to apply the most optimal schemes of ovulation induction and ovarian stimulation resulting in high rates of good-quality oocyte recovery and pregnancies, with minimal side-complications of the treatment to the patients. Currently, the *FSHR* Thr307Ala, Asn680Ser polymorphisms are the only ones with reliable consistent predictive value and potentially applicable in clinical tests for estimating the required rFSH dosage in COH. The Ala307-Ser680 variant is associated with elevated FSH requirement, reduced COH outcome and lower clinical pregnancy rate, whereas Thr307-Asn680 is associated with good response during COH [32,33,34*,45**,65*]. However, no clear conclusions can yet be drawn from the available data on association of the *FSHR* Asn680Ser and *ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome* (OHSS) affecting up to 5% of patients undergoing IVF [26*,34*,35**,65*,66].

An *FSHR* promoter polymorphism -29G/A (rs1394205) may also contribute to ovarian response to COH. A seminal study showed that *FSHR*-29 AA-homozygous women with lower *FSHR* expression required higher doses of FSH for ovulation induction [67]. A follow-up study revealed that almost 72% of subjects with the AA-genotype were poor ovarian responders [45**]. In addition to SNPs, the variability in response to rFSH treatment in COH

may be modulated by *FSHR* variants due to alternative splicing. Deletion of exon 2 was associated with low response to FSH and deletion of exon 6 with high response [68*]. Abnormal *FSHR* splice variants were identified in 30% of young patients. However, the profiling of splice variants in routine molecular diagnostics and pharmacogenetics applications might be challenging.

No data is available on the role of the *FSHB* –211G/T SNP in determination of the outcome of COH.

Pharmacogenetics of FSH action in men

Idiopathic infertility

It has been claimed that FSH treatment of male infertility could be performed on selected patients utilizing some predictive parameters able to identify *a priori* responders with high probability [69,70]. For example, elevated plasma levels of FSH have been shown as a negative predictor for the usefulness of FSH treatment. Grigorova *et al.* [19**] suggested that one potential group of responders to the FSH therapy may be men diagnosed with idiopathic infertility, but exhibiting genetically inherited, constitutively lower serum FSH. Determination of the genotype of the *FSHB* promoter polymorphism (–211G/T) could potentially allow identification of the patients, whose primary cause of the infertility problems may be inadvertently low FSH production (Fig.2). The results of the first pilot study following this hypothesis showed that Italian infertile men carrying the *FSHB*–211 T-allele were the best responders to FSH treatment [21**]. All patients (9/9) in the TT-homozygote group responded to FSH treatment positively. Among the GG-homozygotes and GT-heterozygotes the fraction of men that increased their sperm count after FSH therapy was 34.2% (13/38) and 65.0% (13/20), respectively.

Another pilot pharmacogenetic study has suggested that response to FSH treatment is may be further modulated by *FSHR* isoforms. Only the carriers of *FSHR* Ala307-Ser680 allele were reported with improved sperm parameters [71**].

Timing of treatment in cases of genetically altered FSH action

Recently, it has been suggested that neonatal gonadotrophin therapy, instead of treatment in adulthood might have additional benefits [72**]. As an example, in boys diagnosed with congenital hypogonadotropic hypogonadism at birth, prepubertal treatment had positive effect in testicular endocrine function and on genital development and growth, which could potentially improve the response to spermatogenesis inducing treatments in adulthood [73].

Conclusion

The previously established *FSHR* Thr307Ala/Asn680Ser variant, as well as the other more recently identified polymorphisms (*FSHB*–211G/T, *FSHR*–29G/A) provide convincing evidence for their functional relevance in men and women. These polymorphisms exhibit a potential for pharmacogenetic applications in selecting appropriate treatment options in conditions requiring or benefitting from FSH therapy.

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Key points

- The efficiency of FSH action is regulated by three main factors—the serum levels of circulating hormone, its intrinsic bioactivity and the efficacy of FSHR signal transduction in testicular and ovarian target cells
- Four common variants in *FSHB*/*FSHR* were shown to exhibit significant effect on FSH action: linked *FSHR* variants Thr307Ala and Asn680Ser determining common protein isoforms, and gene expression affecting polymorphisms *FSHR*–29G/A and *FSHB*–211G/T
- In women, the *FSHR* Thr307Ala/Asn680Ser polymorphisms show consistent predictive value for estimating the most optimal rFSH dosage in COH, and these variants also exhibit a potential for the pharmacogenetic assessment in PCOS patients
- Recently, the *FSHR*–29G/A polymorphism was shown to modulate ovarian response to COH
- In men, pilot studies have demonstrated the *FSHB*–211 TT-homozygotes with genetically determined low FSH as potentially the best responders to rFSH treatment, and the response may also be modulated by *FSHR* polymorphisms

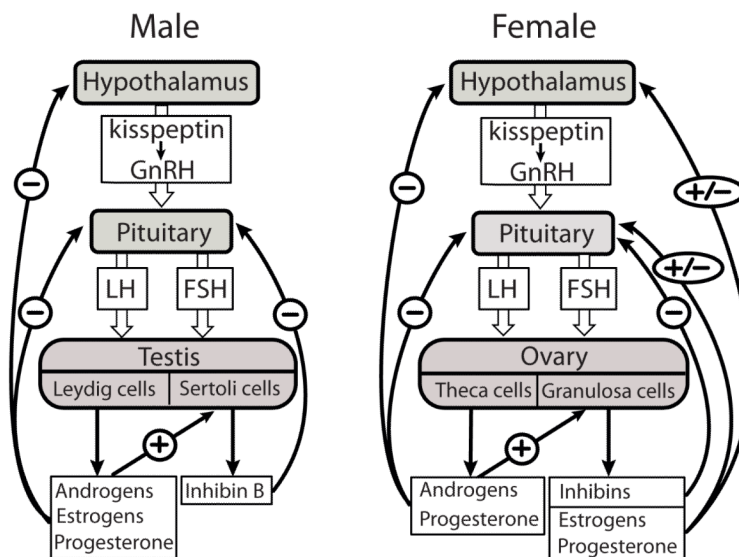


Figure 1. Schematic feedback control of the human hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis. In males and females, kisspeptin-triggered pulsatile secretion of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) from the hypothalamus stimulates the release of pituitary gonadotrophins (FSH and LH). FSH binds to its receptors located in testicular Sertoli and ovarian granulosa cells, and stimulates the secretion of inhibins that suppress FSH production from the pituitary. LH interacts with receptors on testicular Leydig cells and ovarian theca and granulosa cells, thereby stimulating the production of steroid hormones that stimulate their target cells in the reproductive tract. Steroid hormones (androgens, estrogens, progesterone) produced by ovaries and testes exert their negative (males) and negative and positive (females) endocrine feedback to hypothalamic-pituitary level by regulating the synthesis and secretion of kisspeptin, GnRH and gonadotrophins.

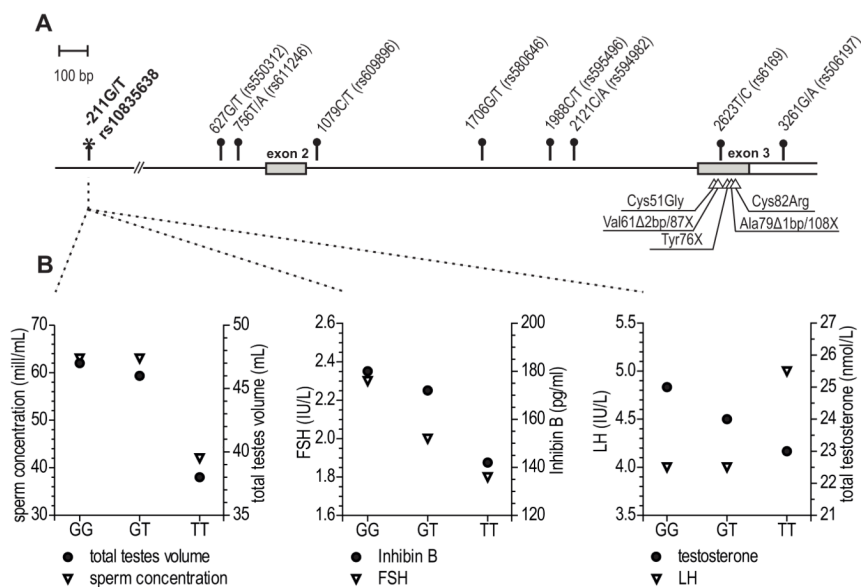


Figure 2.

(A) Genetic variation in the *FSHB* gene; **(B)** Phenotypic effects of the carrier status of alternative genotypes of *FSHB* promoter polymorphism -211G/T (rs10835638) on male reproductive parameters

(A) *FSHB* transcribed regions are indicated by boxes and translated sequences are denoted by grey areas. Common polymorphisms (minor allele frequency >10%) that form two major gene haplotypes (96.6% of analysed samples [17]) are shown as circle-headed bars and their positions are denoted relative to the *FSHB* transcription start-site. The *FSHB*-211G/T promoter SNP is indicated by an asterisk. *FSHB* mutations identified in infertile patients are shown by triangles and their localization in the mature FSH beta peptide is indicated.

(B) Effect of the *FSHB* gene promoter polymorphism -211G/T (rs10835638) on male hormonal and testicular parameters: total testis volume and sperm concentration (*left panel*), serum FSH and Inhibin B levels (*middle panel*), serum LH and total testosterone levels (*right panel*). Individuals are subgrouped according to their *FSHB* promoter position -211G/T genotype. Median values of reproductive parameters are presented based on Grigorova *et al.* [20**].

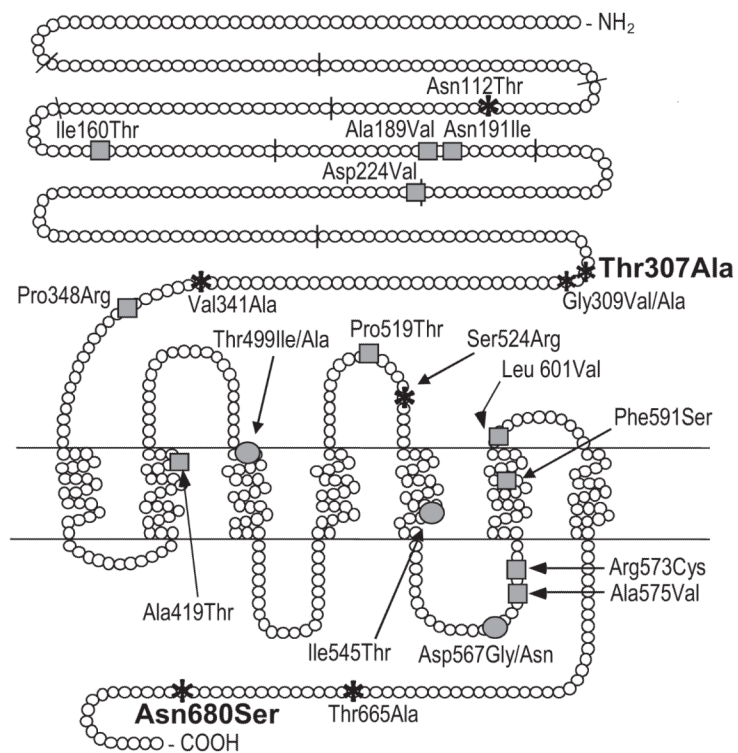


Figure 3.

The distribution of currently known functional polymorphisms, and activating and inactivating mutations across the human *FSHR* gene. The *FSHR* exon boundaries are marked with *short bars* striking through the protein sequence. *Grey circles* depict the activating, *greysquares* inactivating mutations, and the *asterisks* the polymorphisms. The two polymorphisms Thr307Ala and Asn680Ser with currently known pharmacogenetic significance and exhibiting linkage disequilibrium in most populations are marked in bold. An additional polymorphism that has been indicated to have pharmacogenetic potential is *FSHR*-29G/A located in 5'-untranslated region and thus, not presented in this figure.