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探討副睪中第一型硫氫氧化酶的分泌調控機制

Investigation of the Regulatory Mechanism of Epididymal

Quiescin Q6 Sulfhydryl Oxidase 1 Protein Secretion

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致謝

很榮幸兩年前能加入 JT Lab 這個大家庭，讓我這個從 0 開始的研究生可以在愛與包容的幸福環境中成長，兩年前的自己完全沒有想到可以完成一本論文，也沒有想到兩年的收穫可以這麼多，不僅是學識上的進步，我比以前更有自信的面對困境並學會自己解決問題的能力，也更懂得思辯應答的技巧。

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中文摘要



哺乳類動物的精子經由睪丸製造釋出後尚未完全成熟，精子要在副睪中進行不同形式與程度的蛋白質轉譯後修飾才會獲得完整的受孕能力與活動力，眾多修飾過程中，雙硫鍵催化過程對於精子的蛋白質結構穩定和頭部染色體濃縮扮演著很重要的角色。過去我們實驗室之前透過蛋白質鑑定，找到了一個參與雙硫鍵催化過程的關鍵蛋白質：第一型精漿蛋白硫氫氧化（quiescin sulphydryl oxidase 1, QSOX1），並且發現此蛋白質在副睪的不同區段（前、中、後）有不同的含量，此外，也發現此蛋白質可附著於副睪前端精子的頂體區域，然而此蛋白質在精子成熟過程中扮演的角色尚未被完全瞭解。

本論文希望藉由探討 QSOX1 的分泌調控機制，讓我們更加了解此蛋白在副睪中的特性，進而在未來能進一步探討 QSOX1 在精子成熟過程中的所扮演的角色。透過西方墨點法及免疫螢光染色法，我們發現 QSOX1 的分泌在 30 天大的小鼠副睪中有顯著的上升，此結果說明調控此蛋白質分泌的機制可能是透過體內睪固酮的增加或是透過副睪管腔中精子的刺激而導致，藉由二維共培養系統的建立，我們進一步測試上述兩個者對 QSOX1 的分泌是否具有影響，結果顯示，加入睪固酮對於 QSOX1 的分泌並沒有顯著的影響，而在精子共培養的組別中，培養液中的 QSOX1 有顯著性的增加。此外，相較於副睪後段較成熟的精子，副睪前端的精子能更有效的刺激 QSOX1 的分泌。透過高效液相層析串聯質譜儀分析和比較蛋白質體分析，我們進一步從培養液中鑑定出額外的 582 個分泌型蛋白質，推測其中的一些（258 個）蛋白質可能由精子釋放並刺激 QSOX1 的分泌。

綜合以上結果，QSOX1 的分泌主要是經由精子的刺激而不是由睪固酮，但其作用分子與機制與切確的刺激因子為何有待進一步的研究。

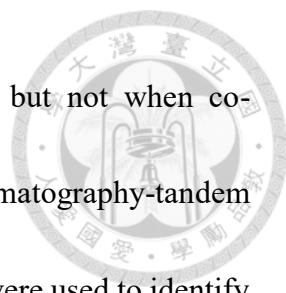
關鍵詞: 副睪蛋白質分泌，精漿蛋白硫氫氧化酶 1，精子共培養系統，蛋白質體學分析

Abstract



Spermatozoa are not fully mature after being released from the testis. They gradually become mature and acquire the capacity for progressive motility and fertilization ability through post-translational modifications that occur in different segments of the epididymis. Among these modifications, disulfide bond formation is essential for sperm protein and structure stability, including chromatin condensation, sperm midpiece, and tail stabilization. The quiescin sulfhydryl oxidase 1 (QSOX1), which catalyzes the thiol-oxidation reaction has been identified in the epididymis. We have demonstrated that QSOX1 exhibits a region-specific distribution in the epididymis, and appears at the acrosome region of the caput sperm. However, the functional role and the regulation of QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis are still unknown.

This thesis focuses on the understanding of secretory regulation of QSOX1 in the epididymis. Through Western blotting and indirect immunofluorescent studies, we showed that mouse secretory QSOX1 was upregulated at postnatal day 30, suggesting the potential involvement of testosterone and/or sperm cells on the regulation and stimulation of QSOX1 secretion. To closely mimic *in vivo* situation, we set up a 2D polarized co-culture system to investigate the effects of these stimuli and to measure the level of QSOX1 secretion *in vitro*. Our data showed that QSOX1 secretion was increased after



co-incubating with sperm cells (especially in caput sperm cells) but not when co-incubating with testosterone or its metabolites, DHT. Liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) and comparing proteome analysis were used to identify and characterize the possible regulatory molecules that were being released from sperm. We identified 582 secretory proteins that were exclusively present in the sperm-enriched group and further categorized 258 caput sperm proteins that might be responsible for stimulating QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis.

In conclusion, our study provides solid evidence that QSOX1 secretion is likely regulated by sperm-epididymis epithelium interaction rather than by testosterone stimulation. This result may further explain the role of QSOX1 upon sperm maturation.

Key words: epididymal protein secretion, QSOX1, sperm co-culture, proteome analysis

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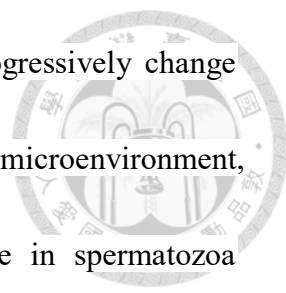
CHAPTER1 Introduction



1.1. Interactions between spermatozoa and the epididymis

Produced by the testis, mammalian spermatozoa completed their morphological changes (i.e. spermiogenesis) within the testis. They gain additional fertility and motility after undergoing post-testicular modifications in the epididymis. The idea of post-testicular modification was first described in the early nineteenth century, and later been proven to be essential for spermatozoa maturation and storage [1-3].

The epididymis is a long, complex, convoluted duct with a single layer of epithelium surrounding the lumen and connects the efferent ducts to the vas deferens [4]. The composition of epididymal epithelial cells contain several cell types creating a complex microenvironment suitable for the maturing spermatozoa, Anatomically, the epididymis consists of three main regions, from head to tail are caput, corpus, and cauda. Each region exhibits a highly regional-specific microenvironment because the proportion of different cell types sequentially changes throughout the epididymis [5, 6]. In addition, the epididymal-blood barrier restricts the exchange between luminal components and blood plasma and thus protect spermatozoa from circulating toxic components during their last maturation steps [7].

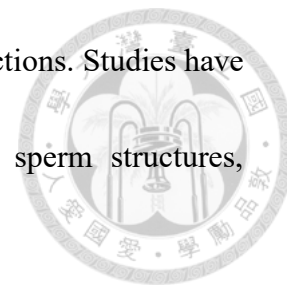


Due to the characteristics described above, spermatozoa progressively change their maturation status in parallel with the changes of the epididymal microenvironment, indicates that epididymis plays an important and essential role in spermatozoa maturation, transport, concentrate, protection, and storage [8]. During this sequential modification, spermatozoa lack active gene transcription and *de novo* protein translation [9]; therefore, all those additional changes on sperm were primarily driven by interactions between spermatozoa and the complex components bathed within the epididymal lumen and lead to protein, sugar, lipid additional to or removal from the sperm membrane surface [10].

1.2. The importance of disulfide bond formation during sperm transit in the epididymis

During post-testicular modification processes, spermatozoa undergo substantial remodeling on the membrane. The changes of sperm membrane composition could result from the removal of surface proteins from the testicular sperm, modifications on the pre-existing surface proteins or the binding of additional epididymal proteins to the maturing epididymal spermatozoa [6]. Among different changes and modifications, the disulfide bond formation process is essential for the stabilization of sperm structure. Disulfide bonds are formed between the sulfur atoms of pairs of cysteine residues

within or across proteins and can affect protein structure and/or functions. Studies have suggested that oxidation of thiol groups can stabilize various sperm structures, including chromatin, sperm midpiece and tail (Fig. 1) [11].



1.2.1. Membrane modification

The amount of disulfide bond on the sperm membrane (in both head and tail) exhibits a progressive increase from caput toward cauda epididymis and coincides with the advances of maturation stages of sperm cells, the evidence supporting that disulfide bond formation on the spermatozoa is a part of the maturation process during sperm epididymal transit [12]. Among different maturation processes, the increased potential for forwarding motility is the most obvious alteration [13]. Scientists had demonstrated that sulfhydryl oxidation is important for the maintenance and stabilization of sperm tail structure and contributes to normal motility wave patterns [14, 15]. During epididymal transit, the beating pattern of sperm flagellar gradually becomes more vigorous [16]. Many proteins have been shown to be sperm motility-promoting proteins after additional disulfide bonds were formed within their protein structure. For example, outer dense fiber protein 1 (ODF1), one of the flagellar proteins are oxidized to form disulfides during epididymal transit and is associated with the bending torque of the tail.

Hetherington et al. demonstrated that sperm cells from OFD1 knock out mice exhibit thinner filament fibers and fail to fertilize oocyte [17].



1.2.2. *Nucleus stabilization*

It has been reported that sperm chromatin condensation was positively correlated to sperm capacity for fertilizing an oocyte in natural [18]. Disulfide bond formation occurs within sperm nuclear protamine is part of sperm chromatin condensation processes [19]. Much of the research showed that protamine can condense sperm chromatin and stabilized the sperm head morphology by forming the intermolecular disulfide bonds to sperm DNA [20]. Condensation of sperm chromatin is essential for fertility, and early embryo development, therefore, intermolecular disulfide bonds formation is required for the acquisition of fertilization ability of spermatozoa [21].

Base on the above-mentioned studies, disulfide bond formation plays a critical role during sperm maturation. Defects in disulfide bond formation will result in sperm dysfunction and fertility failure. However, the exact mechanism of thiol to disulfide bond processes as well as candidate proteins trigger or regulate this fertility essential process in the epididymis is still unclear.

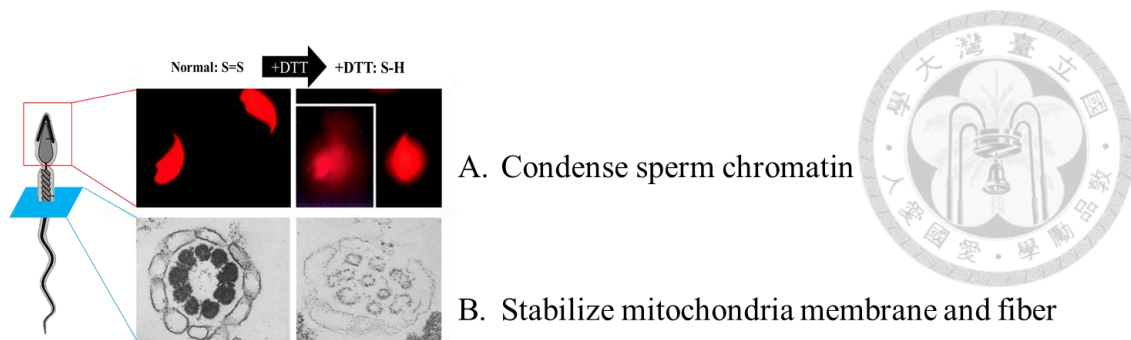


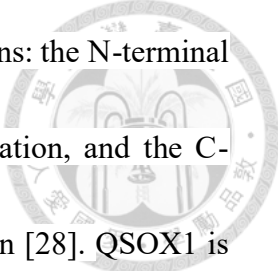
Figure 1. Importance of disulfide bond formation to sperm stabilization.

(modified from [22, 23])

1.3. Introduction of QSOX1 protein

The quiescin sulfhydryl oxidase (QSOX), which can catalyze the thiol-oxidation reaction $2R-SH + O_2 \rightarrow R-SS-R + H_2O_2$, have been identified in several tissues including in male genital tract in mammalian species [24]. The possible functions of QSOX protein in the male genital tract were first described in the epididymal and seminal fluids of rodent species [25]. These include generation of disulfide bonds within seminal plasma proteins or spermatozoa, the preservation of spermatozoan membrane integrity, antimicrobial activity (through the release of H_2O_2), and the protection of spermatozoa against the harmful effects of thiol after ejaculation [26].

There are two known isoforms of QSOX proteins, QSOX1 and QSOX2, and in this thesis, we focus specifically on QSOX1 isoform. *QSOX1* was observed up-regulated in human fibroblasts when these cells reached quiescence state, hence being named the Quiescin Q6 gene at first discovery [27]. QSOX1 protein is characterized as

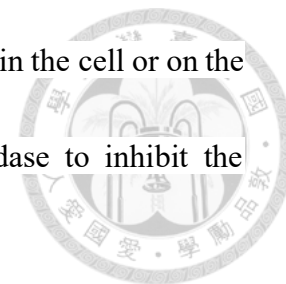


a FAD-dependent transmembrane protein with two functional domains: the N-terminal thioredoxin TRX domain which can catalyze disulfide bond formation, and the C-terminal Erv enzyme domain which is responsible for redox reaction [28]. QSOX1 is ubiquitously expressed in almost all organs/tissues, and its expression level is particularly high in the tissue involved in disulfide-rich proteins secretion (for example skin apocrine glands, pancreas, reproductive tracts), suggesting QSOX1 may involve in the oxidative folding process of secreted proteins [24, 29, 30]. At the cellular level, QSOX1 protein can be detected in the ER, Golgi and secretory granules indicating QSOX1 may participate in disulfide bond formation of secretory proteins that are regulated by secretory pathway [29, 31, 32]. In addition to protein folding, QSOX1 has also been shown to involve in the elaboration of the extracellular matrix, redox regulation, cell cycle control [27, 30, 33].

1.3.1. *QSOX1 variants*

Two splice variants of the human *QSOX1* gene have been reported, QSOX1a with a complete transmembrane domain is translated by the whole sequence of 3314 nucleotide bases, which encodes 747 amino acids. QSOX1b, a spliced variant from QSOX1a, is a secretory protein in the absence of the transmembrane domain, which encodes a peptide of 604 amino acids [27, 29]. Based on their cellular localization and

properties, QSOX1a may trigger the disulfide bonds formation within the cell or on the cell surface, whereas QSOX1b may function as a secreted oxidase to inhibit the function of extracellular reducing agents [34].



1.3.2. *QSOX1 in the epididymis and its relationship with sperm*

In the epididymis, QSOX1 is detected mainly in the principal cells. The secretory QSOX1 isoform in mouse is called QSOX1c with a molecular weight of 63kDa, it is the dominant isoform detected in the mouse epididymis, and shows region-specific distribution through the epididymis. From the immunofluorescence staining of our earlier study, QSOX1c is first detected in the distal region of the caput epididymis and progressively enrich from caput toward cauda (Fig. 2). The luminal detection of QSOX1c suggests that this protein may be secreted into the lumen by epididymal epithelial cells and likely play a role at different maturing stages of spermatozoa [35].

The activity of sulfhydryl oxidase in the epididymis has been described by Chang and Morton in 1975, and this activity can maintain thiol/disulfide homeostasis of sperm cells without any additional need of cofactors. They suggested that this protein is a protective enzyme that can preserve spermatozoa structure and function in the epididymis [36]. From our earlier data, we observed that QSOX1c associated at different regions of sperm surface on the sperm head, mid-piece, and principal piece of

the tail (Fig. 3) [35]. However, the regulatory pathway directing QSOX1c secretion and the actual functions of the QSOX1c association on the sperm membrane surface and its relationship with the sperm maturation process remain unknown.

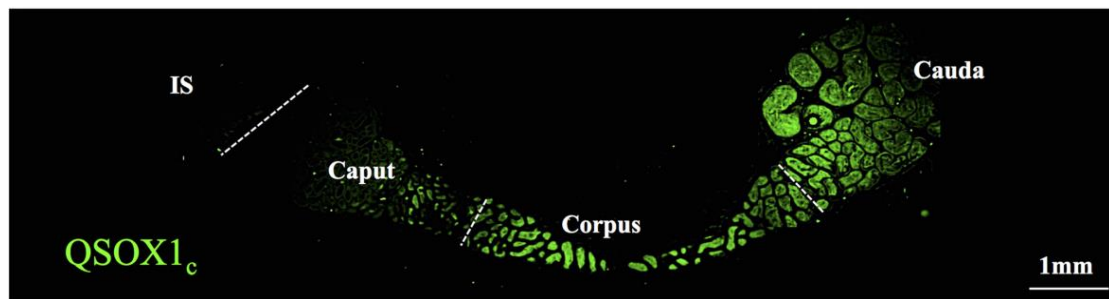
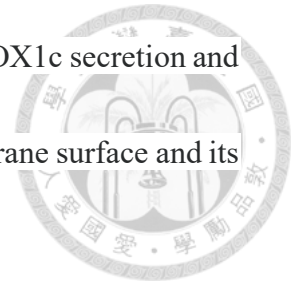


Figure 2. QSOX1c shows the region-specific distribution in the mouse epididymis. [35]

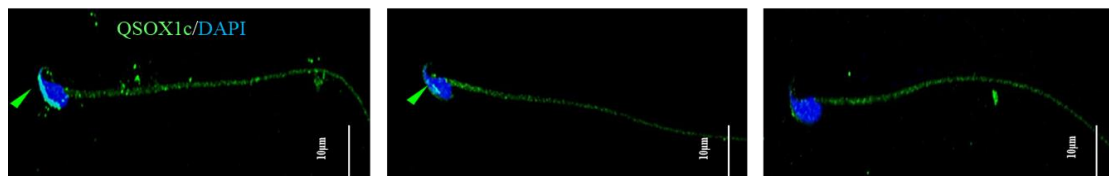


Figure 3. QSOX1c exhibits distinctive association on different maturation status sperm. [35]

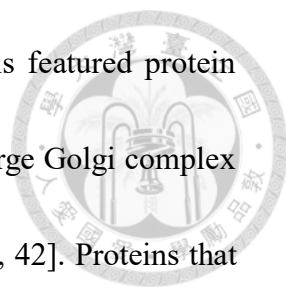
1.4. Protein secretion in the epididymis



1.4.1. *Different secretory pathways*

The proteins in the epididymal lumen are originating from various sources [6]. (1) Testicular compounds flow into the proximal region of the epididymis through the efferent ducts: these components, for instance, testicular factor basic fibroblast growth factor can regulate gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase activity in the epididymis can normally be rapidly absorbed by the caput region of the epididymis. [37]. (2) The *de novo* proteins synthesized and secreted by epididymis epithelial cells: for example, WAP-type four-disulfide core domain protein 8 (WFDC8) [38]. (3) Proteolysis products from the pre-existing proteins within the original luminal environment: for example, angiotensin I-converting enzyme (ACE) which is known as a proteolysis product of sperm protein [39]. (4) Metabolic byproducts originated from spermatozoa during the transition and maturation processes. For instance, acetylcarnitine is a byproduct of sperm energy metabolism [40].

Among all the above-mentioned protein sources, proteins that are synthesized and secreted by epididymal epithelium cells contribute to the major protein source found in the epididymis lumen [6]. The protein secretory activity can be divided into two major pathways, the classical merocrine secretion, and the non-classical apocrine secretion.



In the classical pathway of merocrine secretion, the principal cells featured protein secretion contain abundant rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER), a large Golgi complex and detectable coated pits on the apical side of the cell surface [41, 42]. Proteins that are classified into this secretory pathway are synthesized in the ER, glycosylated in the Golgi complex, and then packed into large secretory granules (150-300 nm) or small Golgi derived vesicles (60-70 nm) [43]. Those vesicles contain proteins formed by the Golgi will subsequently move to and fuse with the cell surface plasma membrane and then release those contents into the epididymal lumen [44-46]. Some researches indicated that the secretion activity of large secretory granules are mostly regulated by specific stimuli, while the small vesicles undergo the constitutive secretion without any additional stimulation [47].

Another secretory pathway called apocrine secretion is ER/Golgi independent non-classical pathway. It has been reported that the biosynthesis of proteins that will undergo apocrine secretion is hormone-dependent [48]. Membrane-bound secretory granules are not involving in this pathway, rather, a portion of the plasma membrane from the apical cell shows the protrusions blebs upon the release of vesicle contents. In the epididymal principal cells, these blebs are directed towards the lumen side [49]. Although scientists initially considered those apical bleb structures were artifacts from fixation procedures during electron microscopy staining, but later advanced fixation

methods proved the vascular perfusion and apical blebs are prominent features of principal cells in several species [50, 51]. In the mouse and human epididymis, apical blebs are observed throughout the entire lumen and exhibit different morphologies, suggesting that the formation process is dynamic and heterogeneous. After apical blebs detach from the membrane surface and release into the lumen, the membrane of these blebs become fragmented and their contents including ER elements, free ribosomes, glycogen and vesicle of various sizes, such as epididymosome can thereafter be released.

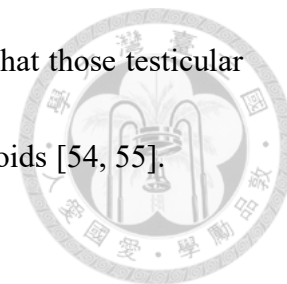
1.4.2. Potential regulation mechanisms for epididymal protein secretion

Previous studies have reported that half of the epididymal proteins are modulated by androgen in either positively or negatively manner. Other 43% of the proteins are modulated by factors like estrogen, retinoids, temperature and so on. The rest of the 6% of the proteins are not affected or regulated by any currently known factors [6, 52].

1.4.2.1. Testicular regulation

Testicular factors flow into the epididymis involve in the control of the caput protein secretion [6]. According to Brooks, these factors contain both stimulatory and inhibitory components [53]. This suggestion is supported by the *in vivo* efferent duct ligation study as some proteins were disappeared after efferent ducts ligation and cannot

be rescued by high dosage testosterone administration, indicating that those testicular factors are nonandrogenic and are likely proteinous rather than steroids [54, 55].



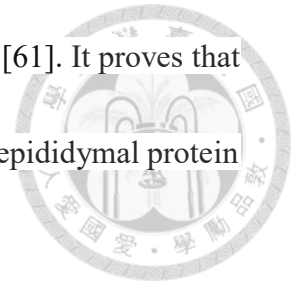
1.4.2.2. Androgen regulation

Testosterone and dihydrotestosterone (DHT) are the major androgens in the epididymis. Testosterone produced by Leydig cells in the testis will convert to dihydrotestosterone by 5-alpha-reductase in the epididymis [56]. Androgen can be delivered not only to the apical part of the epithelium through the epididymal flow, but it can also be delivered from the basal epithelium through the circulation [57]. Numerous studies have demonstrated that these androgens control the development and function of the epididymis in a concentration-dependent manner [58]. Besides relying on the luminal concentration of the androgens, the secretory activity of some epididymal proteins also depends on the expression of the steroid receptors such as androgen receptors (AR) and estrogen receptors (ER) on the surface [56].

1.4.2.3. Spermatozoa regulation

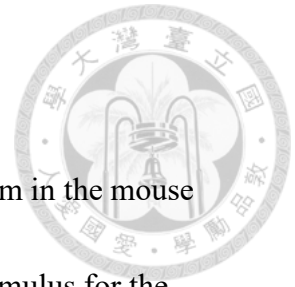
The testicular factors-dependent and androgen-dependent mechanisms likely regulate the majority portion of epididymal proteins secretion [59]. However, spermatozoa *per se* has been shown to affect epididymal physiology and protein secretion [60]. For example, *in vitro* co-cultured of spermatozoa with specific regions

of primary bovine epididymal cells stimulated the protein secretion [61]. It proves that spermatozoa can act as a lumicrine factor and initiate the effects on epididymal protein secretion via interactions with the epididymal epithelium.



1.5. Aim of this thesis

As secretory QSOX1 isoform, QSOX1c is the dominant isoform in the mouse epididymis. The aim of this thesis is to investigate the regulatory stimulus for the secretion of mouse epididymal QSOX1. This may facilitate our understanding of the role of QSOX1 protein and its isoforms on the sperm physiology and the sperm maturation process in general.



CHAPTER 2 Materials and methods

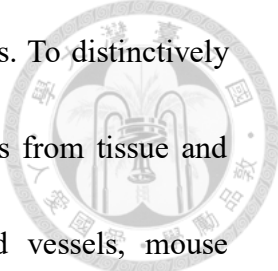


2.1. Animals

Experimental procedures involving the alive animals were conducted with the approval of IACUC protocols at National Taiwan University (Taiwan NTU-104-EL-00081). Specific pathogen-free outbred ICR mice were purchased from BioLASCO Taiwan Co., Ltd (Taipei, Taiwan). Mice were housed in the certified animal facility at the National Taiwan University Veterinary Hospital under the controlled-lighting regime (12 h light: 12 h dark), the temperature was maintained at 21-22 °C, and supplied with food and water ad libitum.

2.2. Tissue and protein sample preparation

Mice were euthanized with CO₂ followed by cervical dislocation. Organs from male ICR mice were carefully dissected from fat and connective tissue, then separated for paraffin-embedded sample blocks and for protein analysis (for Western blotting). For paraffin block, organs were first fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin on the shaker for 24 h (no longer than 48 h) at room temperature, standard dehydration and paraffin embedding procedures were followed and subsequently sectioned at 5 µm thickness for immunostaining processes.



For Western blotting, protein samples were prepared as follows. To distinctively analyze the QSOX1 level in epididymis tissue and lumen, proteins from tissue and lumen fluid were separated. After removing the fat and blood vessels, mouse epididymis was punched by an 18G syringe needle in PBS on a temperature-controlled dissecting stage and further incubated for 5 min at 37 °C to allow the release of sperm cells from the epididymal lumen. Then the swim out sperm with epididymal fluid were collected as the epididymal fluid sample. Epididymis tissue without fluid was homogenized on ice in homogenization buffer (250 mM sucrose (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), 1 mM EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), 20 mM Tris/HEPES (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), 1 % Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), pH 7.4) using glass homogenizer. Epididymal fluid, tissue homogenates were supplemented with protease inhibitor (EDTA free cocktail tablet, Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and store at -80 °C until use.

To prepare whole-cell lysate of the epididymal epithelium cell line, the SV40-immortalized mouse caput epididymal epithelial (meCap18) stable cell line, a kind gift from Dr. Petra Sipila (Turku University, Turku, Finland), meCap18 was extracted with RIPA Lysis Buffer (AMRESCO, OH, USA) and supplemented with protease inhibitor (EDTA free cocktail tablet, Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and store at -80 °C until use.

2.3. Stable cell line culture



MeCap18 were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium, (DMEM, Gibco, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Gibco, USA). The cells were maintained in a humidified incubator at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Immortalized Mouse Distal Caput Epididymal Epithelial Cell Line (DC2, Applied Biological Material Inc., BC, Canada) were cultured in Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Medium, (IMEM, Gibco, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Gibco, USA). The cells were maintained in a humidified incubator at 33°C with 5% CO₂. For sub-culturing, cells were first rinsed twice in Dulbecco's Phosphate-Buffered Saline (dPBS) (Gibco) before being trypsinized with 0.25% trypsin. Cells were detached by incubation with trypsin for 15 min at 37°C. Cells suspension was collected and centrifuged at 1500 xg for 10 min, at 4°C. The cell pellet was subsequently resuspended with cell culture medium and seeded back to a new flask at a proper density according to the experimental requirements.

2.4. Immunofluorescent staining



For paraffin slide staining, tissue sections were deparaffinized with 100% xylene, rehydrated with 100%-80% ethanol, and washed in deuterium-depleted water (DDW).

Slides were subsequently transferred to 10 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for heated-mediated antigen retrieval (HMAR) using a specialized microwave at 95°C for 2 cycles of 5 min each. After deparaffinization, slides were permeabilized with 100% pre-cold methanol for 10 min at -20°C. Permeabilized samples were rinsed twice with PBS, followed by a 1 h incubation in blocking buffer (5% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in PBS) at room temperature. Sections were subsequently incubated with primary antibodies, anti-QSOX1 (1:100 in PBS, Abcam83712) for 1 h at room temperature and then overnight at 4°C. After rinse 3 times with filtered PBS, slides were incubated with secondary antibody, donkey anti-rabbit Alexa594 (1:150 dilution in blocking buffer, Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 1.5 h at dark before further rinsed 3 times with filtered PBS. Finally, nuclei were stained with mounting medium in the presence of diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Vector Lab, Orton Southgate, Peterborough, UK). Slides were observed and fluorescent images were taken under the Olympus IX83 epifluorescent microscopy (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

For cell staining, cells were first grown on the coverslips coated with Poly-L-lysine (Sigma, P4832) in a proper density (i.e. 2×10^5 cells were seeded in each well in a 12-

well plate and allowed further growing for 24 h). After cells reach an 80% confluency, they were rinsed twice with filtered PBS, fixed, and permeabilized with 80% acetone at -20°C for 10 min. Fixed cells were dried in a ventilated hood before proceeding further for blocking for 30 min at room temperature using 1% filtered BSA. Standard immunostaining procedures were followed as mentioned above.

2.5. Electrophoresis, SDS-PAGE, and Western blotting

The concentration of all protein samples was quantified using the BCA Protein Assay Kit (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL, USA) following the manufacturer's protocols. The equal amount of total protein from each sample was mixed with 1X LDS sample loading buffer (Invitrogen) and 10% reducing agent (50 mM dithiothreitol, DTT, Invitrogen) and boiled for 10 min at 95°C in a dry bath. After denaturing the protein, samples were immediately vortexed to prevent further aggregation, briefly spin down, and cooled on ice before loading on the gel. Proteins were separated by an 8-15% gradient SDS-PAGE gel (gradient T-Pro EZ Gel Solution, T-Pro Biotechnology, NTC, TW) using Bio-Rad Mini-PROTEIN[®] electrophoresis system (Bio-Rad Laboratories Ltd., Hertfordshire, DX).

For SDS-PAGE protein gel staining, a highly sensitive method was used. SDS-PAGE was first fixed by fixation buffer (50% methanol, 7% acetic acid) twice for 30 min, then stained by SYPRO ruby gel stain (Invitrogen) for overnight at room

temperature in dark. After SYPRO ruby stain, the gel was washed by washing buffer (10% methanol, 7% acetic acid) for 1 h to remove the excessive staining and visualized by ChemiDoc™ Imaging Systems (Bio-Rad).



For Western blotting, proteins on the SDS-PAGE gel were transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Immobilon-P, Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). After blocking with 5% milk (Difco skim milk powder, BD) dissolved in 1X TBST (5 mM Tris, 250 mM sucrose, pH 7.4 with 0.05% v/v Tween 20) for 1 h at room temperature on shaker, the membrane was washed once with TBST and further incubated with primary antibodies against QSOX1 (1:200) and GFP (1:500) for 1 h at room temperature, and then for overnight at 4 °C. For loading control, EEF2 (1:50000) and beta-actin (1:1000) were used and primary antibody incubation was carried out at room temperature for 1 h. Blots were subsequently incubated with secondary antibody for 1 h at room temperature, washed with TBST three times and protein signals were chemically developed by the Clarity™ Western ECL Blotting Substrates (Bio-Rad) and visualized by ChemiDoc™ Imaging Systems (Bio-Rad).

2.6. Human QSOX1-eGFP plasmid construction

The plasmid containing human QSOX1 (hQSOX1) nucleotide sequence was purchased from GenScript Corporation (Piscataway, NJ). The 2263 bp QSOX1

sequence was cloned in pcDNA3.1(+)-P2A-eGFP vector by *Bam*HI/*Not*I restriction enzymes. To amplify the plasmid, the hQSOX1-eGFP plasmid was transformed into One Shot TOP10 Competent E.coli (Invitrogen), and the bacteria were spread onto ampicillin containing LB agar plate and incubated at 37°C for 12-16 h. Isolated single colonies were picked up and amplify in the LB broth containing ampicillin at 37°C for 12-16 h on a constant rotating (255 rpm) shaker. The plasmid was extracted by QIAprep® Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The concentration and the quality of the plasmid were determined by Picodrop Microliter UV/Vis Spectrophotometer (Pico p100, Hinxton, UK).

To validate the plasmid structure, the plasmid was cleavage by restriction enzyme BamHI-HF and NotI-HF. The cleaved vector and DNA fragment were separated by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualized by ultraviolet illumination after ethidium bromide staining.

2.7. *In vitro* hormone treatment assays and cell-spermatozoa co-culture assays

2.7.1. *Cell transfection*

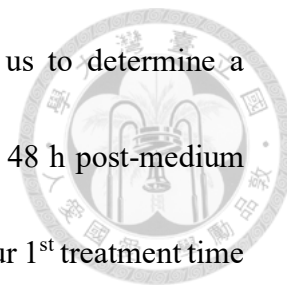
Human QSOX1-eGFP plasmid was chemically transfected to meCap18 and DC2 by Lipofectamine™ 3000 Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen). In brief, approximately 2×10^6 cells were cultured with DMEM and IMEM (supplement with 10% FBS and 1%

Antibiotic-Antimycotic) in 24-well plate for 24 h to reach 90% confluence. Thirty minutes before transfection, medium was refreshed. Standard transfection protocol and procedures were followed according to the manufacturer's instruction. 24 h after the transfection, transfection efficacy was evaluated by Olympus IX83 epifluorescent microscopy. To further validate the expression and secretion of hQSOX1-eGFP in transfected cells, the transfected cells proceed with indirect immunofluorescent staining as described above. Secretory hQSOX1-eGFP protein was detected by Western blotting using both anti-QSOX1 (Abcam) and anti-GFP (Invitrogen) from the collected medium.

2.7.2. *Establishment of in vitro co-culture system*

To establish the co-culture model, hQSOX1-eGFP protein secretion activity was first evaluated in the cell culture medium. hQSOX1-eGFP transfected cells were washed with dPBS to remove FBS and phenol red from the original culture medium. Phenol red and FBS free FluoroBrite™ DMEM medium containing 1% Antibiotic-Antimycotic was added to each well for further incubation. Cell culture medium was collected at different the time point (12, 24, 36, 48, and 60 h after incubation) and centrifuged at 3000 xg at 4°C for 10 min to remove the cellular debris. Fluorescent intensity correlated to the concentration of hQSOX1-eGFP in the medium was then measured by SpectraMax® M5 Multi-Mode Microplate Readers (Molecular Devices).

Based on the fluorescent intensity accumulating curve allowing us to determine a treatment starting point, we chose the secretion plateau time point 48 h post-medium exchange (after changing medium into FluoroBrite™ DMEM), as our 1st treatment time point.

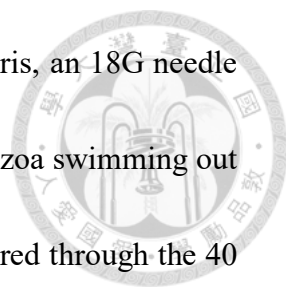


2.7.3. *Androgen treatment assays*

After the protein secretion of QSOX1-eGFP transfected cells reach a plateau in the absence of exogenous stimulation (at 48 h post-medium exchange), 5 nM, 10 nM, 20 nM, and 40 nM testosterone (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and DHT (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) were respectively added into each well. To examine the effects of androgen, fluorescent intensity was measured at a 4 h interval.

2.7.4. *Animal preparation and acquisition of epididymal spermatozoa*

Adult male mice, (over 12 weeks of age), were used in this study. After euthanization with CO₂, mouse epididymides were removed immediately and bathed in pre-warmed Whitten's HEPES medium (100 mM NaCl, 4.7 mM KCl, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM MgSO₄, 5.5 mM glucose, 1 mM Pyruvic acid, 4.8 mM Calcium L-lactate hydrate, 20 mM HEPES, PH 7.4). Spermatozoa from the caput and cauda regions were collected separately. Briefly, epididymides were subjected to the removal of fat and blood vessels under the dissecting microscopy on a Thermo controlled (37°C) working



stage (Tokai HIT, Japan). To prevent the contamination of cells debris, an 18G needle was used to create pores on the epididymis tissue to allow spermatozoa swimming out of the epididymis. Sperm suspension was collected and further filtered through the 40 μm pore size Falcon™ Cell Strainers (Fisher Scientific), with a 15 min incubation for allowing motile spermatozoa to swim up at 37°C. Motile spermatozoa collected from the upper three-quarters of the suspension used to conduct further co-culture assay. The remain epididymal fluid was replaced to cell culture medium to prevent the epididymal fluid contamination. Direct interaction and indirect interaction assay were set up using Transwell® (Corning, 3470) with a 0.4 μm pore size membrane (Fig. 7A).

2.8. Proteomics analyses

2.8.1. *Sample preparation*

To identify the potential protein candidates that are responsible for sperm-epithelium communication, culture medium from the co-culture system described above were collected. Without and with sperm co-culture groups were control and sample group. After removing the cell debris (centrifuged at 3000 $\times g$ for 10 min at 4°C), the medium was further concentrated via vivaspin concentrators with a molecular weight cut-off at 3000 kDa (GE Healthcare). To achieve sufficient concentration of the collected medium, the co-culture supernatant was centrifuged at 3260 $\times g$ at 4°C until a

15 to 30-fold decrease in sample volume was achieved. During the concentration procedures, both solvent and low molecular-weight solutes would flow through the membrane and the remaining proteins were collected from the upper side of the membrane. After resuspension of the concentrated medium, filtered PBS was used to gradually replace the concentration buffer. To visualize the differences between groups, electrophoresis was carried out and the SDS-PAGE gel was stained with SYPRO-ruby gel stain as mentioned above.

2.8.2. *In-soluble digestion of proteins / MS analysis*

For identifying the protein candidates that are being secreted into the medium upon sperm-epithelium co-culture experiments, LC/MS/MS was performed. Soluble protein samples were first denatured by reduction buffer (2 mM DTE / 8 M Urea) for 1hr at 37°C. Lys-C (1 h, 37°C) and Trypsin (16 h, 37°C) were subsequently used as the digestion enzymes, and the digested peptides were suspended in 0.1% formic acid and were desalted by zip tip. LC/MS/MS was performed using Orbitrap Fusion™ Tribrid™ Mass Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific™).

The mass spectra data files were analyzed using Mascot Daemon (version: 2.6.0; Matrix Science, London, UK) searched against the SwissProt Mus musculus protein database (dated: 5/17/2019). Only two missed cleavages were allowed and a MASCOT score ≥ 35 to identify proteins of interest (score: E-value < 0.05 are reported). These

protein IDs were converted into Uniprot gene ID for future categorization and molecule function annotation studies. Protein IDs that reach the above-mentioned requirements were first categorized into three major subgroups: (1) sperm origin, (2) epithelium/luminal fluid origin and (3) uncategorized based on published literature [62, 63].

2.8.3. *Gene ontology (GO) analysis and network analysis*

Following GO analysis, PANTHER (protein analysis through evolutionary relationships) (v14.1) was used to classify proteins based on their protein biological process and molecular function.

The protein network analysis was conducted using the Cytoscape (v3.7.1) with the addition of ClueGo plugin (v2.5.4) [64]. GO Biological Process Annotation (downloaded 27.02.2019) for caput sperm protein, epididymal lumen protein, and uncharacterized protein were compared for gene enrichment (right-sided hypergeometric test) using Benjamini-Hochberg multiple test correction. Network parameters were set as follows: GO Tree Levels (min = 3, max = 8), GO term restriction (min #genes = 5, min % = 4), and GO Term Connection Restriction (Kappa score threshold = 0.4). Only terms with a p-value ≤ 0.05 were shown.

CHAPTER 3 Results



3.1 Post-natal QSOX1 protein expression and secretion in the epididymis.

To investigate the potential stimuli for post-natal QSOX1 secretion, epididymis tissue sections from 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 80-day-old ICR mice were subjected to immunofluorescent study using anti-QSOX1c antibody which can specifically detect secretory QSOX1c. The fluorescence micrographs illustrating the overall expression patterns of QSOX1c in the epididymis were presented in Figure 4. In the epididymis of the 20 and 60 day-old mice, only weak, but unified luminal QSOX1c signal was detected throughout the epididymis. In marked contrast, an increase in positive QSOX1c signal was detected in the lumen of the corpus segment of epididymis in 30-day-old mice and gradually shift toward to cauda segment of the epididymis in 40-day-old (Fig. 4).

To further quantify the dynamic changes of QSOX1c at different post-natal stages, Western-blotting analysis was carried out. As shown in Figure 5A-B, the QSOX1c signal was detected at 63kDa in both epididymis tissue homogenate and epididymal fluid extracted from the epididymal lumen, and the signal intensity was gradually increased along with post-natal development of the animal (Fig. 5A-B). As the total amount of QSOX1 protein increased in an older animal, to subjectively quantify the

ratio of “secreted QSOX1 (i.e. QSOX1c)” at different developmental stages, the intensity of QSOX1c signal measured in the fluid was normalized with the intensity total QSOX1 signal in the whole tissue homogenates. As showed in Figure 5C, a two-fold (2.42 times) increase of QSOX1c protein in the epididymal lumen was detected in day 30 post-natal samples, and the signal became steadily afterward (Fig. 5C)

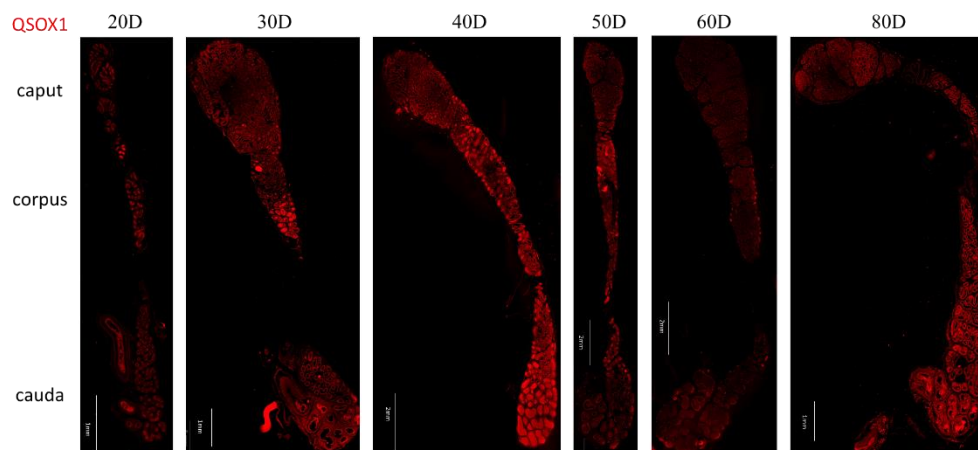


Figure 4. Detection of secretory QSOX1c in the mouse epididymis.

Epididymal tissue sections from mice of different post-natal (20,30, 40, 50, 60, 80 days) ages were subjected to anti-QSOX1c antibody examination. As shown on the left that from the top to the bottom of those images depicted three major epididymal segments, caput corpus and cauda, and positive QSOX1c was showed in red color.

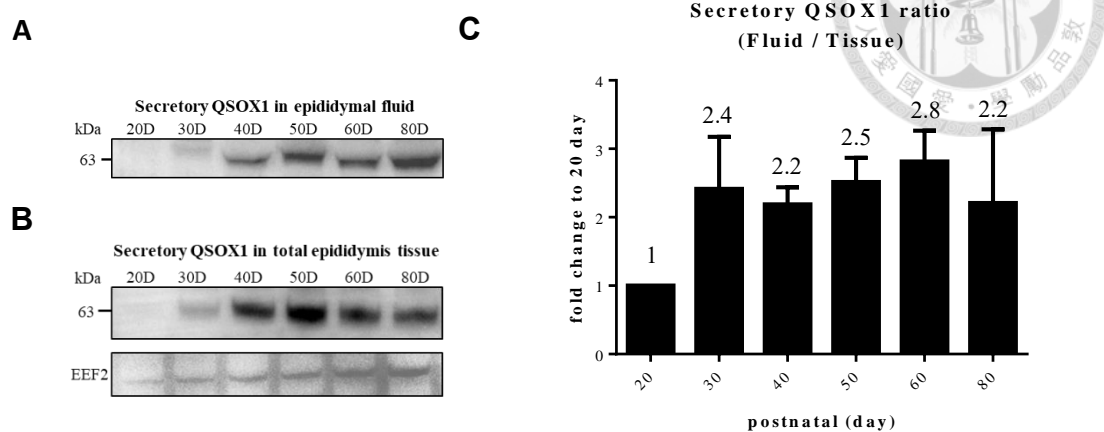
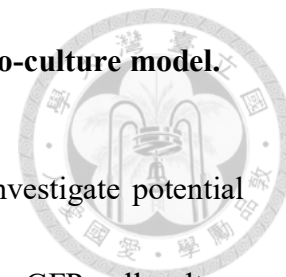


Figure 5. QSOX1 protein secretion ratio at different postnatal stages of mouse epididymis.

Protein samples were collected from the epididymis from 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 80-days-old mice (A) Distinct signal at 63kDa from the Western blotting results indicated secretory QSOX1c level in the epididymal fluid. (total protein loaded: 30 μ g) (B) Epididymis tissue homogenates (Total protein loaded: 30 μ g) without epididymal fluid was analyzed by Western blotting. EEf2 as an internal control was used for loading control. (C) Ratios between secretory QSOX1 (QSOX1c) and total epididymal QSOX1 protein were quantified. X-axis indicated the post-natal age of the mice, and the Y-axis showed the fold change of Western-blotting signal as compared with those at day 20.

3.2 Successful QSOX1 overexpression system established for co-culture model.



To demonstrate QSOX1 secretion behavior *in vitro* and to investigate potential exogenous stimuli for QSOX1 secretion, the transfected QSOX1-eGFP cell culture model was set up. The construction map was shown in Figure 4A. After transformation constructed plasmid into competent E.coli TOP10 cells (Invitrogen), positive colonies were selected for further DNA extraction. The structure of the plasmid was validated by restriction enzyme digestion which was expected to cleave *constructed vector* into two distinct bands at 6200bp (for *eGFP vector*), and at 2263bp (for *QSOX1*). As showed in Figure 4B, the three chosen colonies all displayed two distinctive bands upon plasmid purification.

The corrected plasmid was then amplified by E.coli, and transiently transfected into meCap18 stable cell line to overexpress the QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein. As showed in Figure 4C, the cells were successfully transfected, and the QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein located at the same peri-nuclear cellular localization as the endogenous QSOX1 (Fig. 4D). The overexpression of QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein was further validated by Western blotting as a single protein band corresponded to the molecular weight of the QSOX1-GFP fusion protein was identified at 97kDa in the culture medium from transfected cells indicating the positive secretory activity of QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein (Fig. 4E).

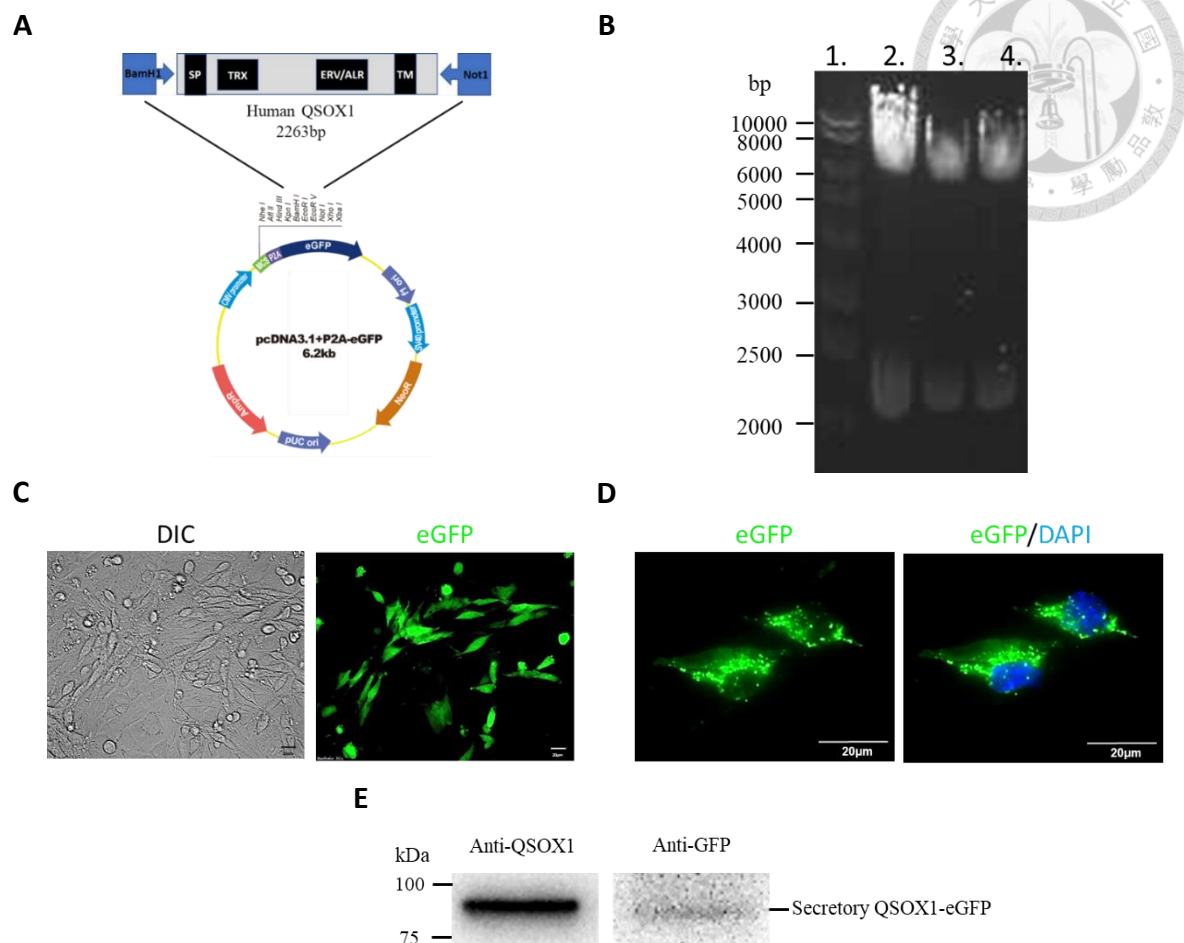
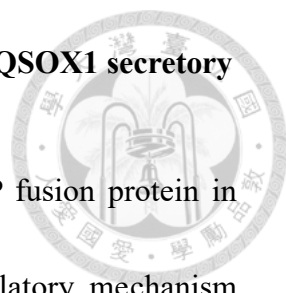


Figure 6. Plasmid construction of recombinant human QSOX1-eGFP and transfection results in the meCap18 stable cell line.

(A) The whole sequence of *human QSOX1* was subcloned into a *BamHI-NotI* restriction site in the *pcDNA 3.1-eGFP* vector. (B) Extracted DNA was separated by 1% agarose gel under 150mv for 40 mins. Lane 1: 1 K DNA ladder, lane 2-4: BamHI-HF and NotI-HF digestion products from three different *E.coli* colonies. (C) Low magnification images of meCap18 cells showed the transfection efficiency of QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein. (D) In line with known cellular localization of endogenous QSOX1, the QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein (shown in green) was distributed in the peri-nuclear cytosol of epididymal epithelium. (E) The western blotting analysis was applied to demonstrate the presence of QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein in the cell culture medium. Both QSOX1 and eGFP proteins were identified at the same molecular weight showing QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein can be secreted into the medium.

3.3 *In vitro* co-culture system revealed regulatory stimulus for QSOX1 secretory



After validation on the secretion capability of QSOX1-eGFP fusion protein in transfected cell (Fig. 6E), we continued to investigate the regulatory mechanism underlying QSOX1 protein secretion using *in vitro* sperm-epididymal epithelium (meCap18) co-culture system. A schematic illustration on the experimental setup was shown in Figure 7. Transfected monolayer meCap18 secreting the fusion protein in the medium was used and culture medium was collected for the detection of fluorescent intensity which can be correlated with the secretory activity of QSOX1 upon stimulation. To minimize the detection and measurement bias from unstable QSOX1-eGFP secretion in the absence of exogenous stimuli, the starting time point for additional stimuli was first determined. 24 h after cell transfection, regular culture medium (with serum) was replaced by serum-free FluoroBrite™ DMEM (as time point 0) to maximize the detection of accumulative fluorescence intensity. As showed in Figure 7 (left panel), QSOX1-eGFP concentration was gradually increased during the first 36 h and became steady after 36 h post-medium exchange. Due to the experimental variability at 36 h (data are not shown), we considered 48 h time point was the most stable and appropriate time point for the addition of exogenous stimuli (e.g. hormones or spermatozoa).

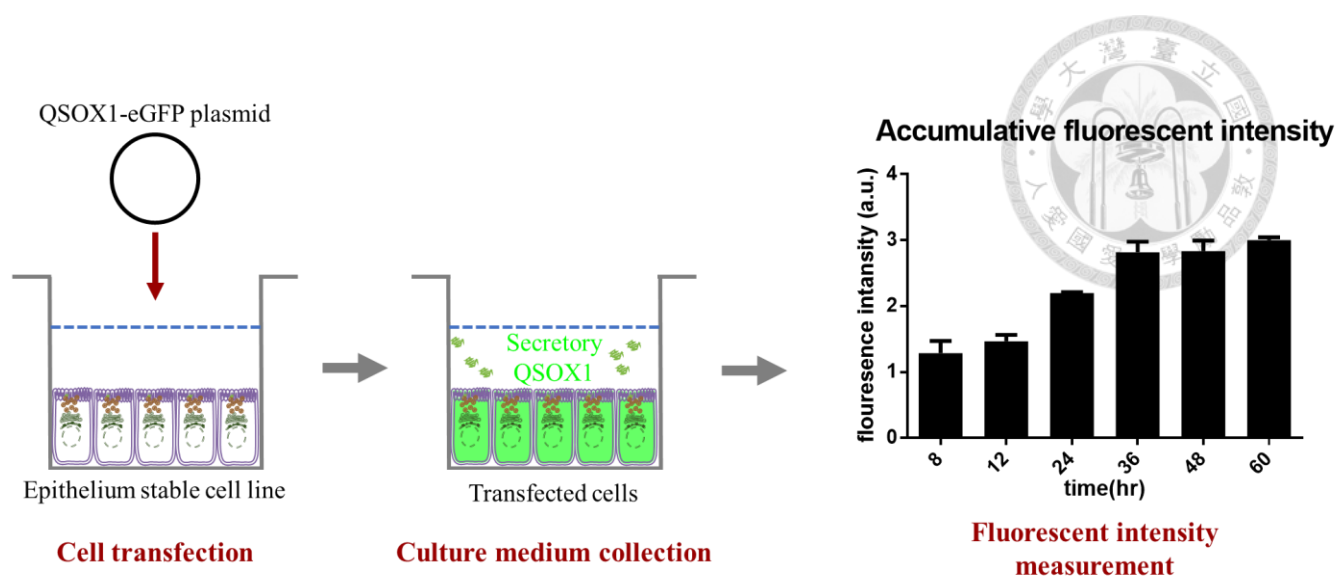


Figure 7. Illustration of procedures for the co-culture model and the measurement of secretory QSOX1.

Amplified QSOX1-eGFP plasmid was transiently transfected into meCap18. FluoroBrite™ DMEM was used for reducing autofluorescence and maximize the detection of the fluorescent signals. The eGFP fluorescent intensity which correlated QSOX1 concentration in the medium was measured at 8, 12, 24, 36, 48, and 60 h post-medium exchange. Data were represented as Mean \pm SEM.

3.3.1 Androgen showed little effects on QSOX1 secretion in epididymal epithelium cells



Two important events occurring at post-natal day 30 are the emergence of spermatozoa in the epididymal lumen and the 1st testosterone surge, to test the effects of androgen on epididymal QSOX1 secretion, transfected meCap18 cells and DC2 cells were separately treated with two most commonly seen forms of androgen: testosterone (T) and dihydrotestosterone (DHT). For data presented in this sets of experiments, the y-axis was expressed as fold change to control (without stimuli). The x-axis indicated the incubation time post-medium exchange as mentioned above. Both T and DHT were added into the medium at 48 h time point.

Based on earlier studies and measured physiological serum androgen concentration [65], 5 nM, 10 nM, 20 nM, and 40 nM testosterone and DHT were used. Androgen was added into cell culture medium at 48 h time point. As shown in Figure 8A, 12 h after co-incubation of testosterone (60 h time point), a significant increase (1.1-1.3 fold) in QSOX1 secretion was measured. When a different mouse epididymal epithelium stable cell line, DC2 was used, similar to that of meCap18 cell line, only little effect (~1.3 fold increase) on QSOX1 secretion was observed after 40nM testosterone treatment for 4 h (Fig. 8B); therefore, testosterone and DHT treatments only have little effects on QSOX1 secretion behavior under our *in vitro* experimental

setup.

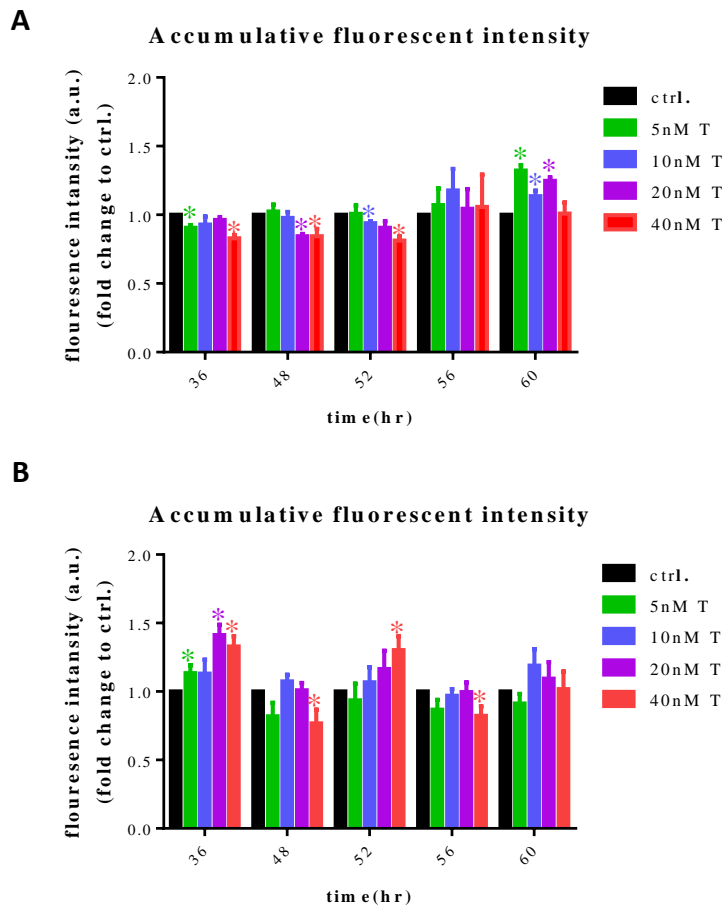


Figure 8. Effect of testosterone treatments on QSOX1 secretion behavior *in vitro*.

Actual raw values from each time point were normalized to the control group and expressed as fold change. Time points 36 h and 48 h were groups without any treatment. (A) Results of the effect of testosterone on meCap18. (B) Results of the effect of testosterone on DC2. Black bar: control (only transfected cells without testosterone). Green bar: 5 nM T. Blue bar: 10 nM T. Purple bar: 20 nM T. Red bar: 40 nM T. Data were represented as Mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$, in comparison with control; NS = no significant difference to control.

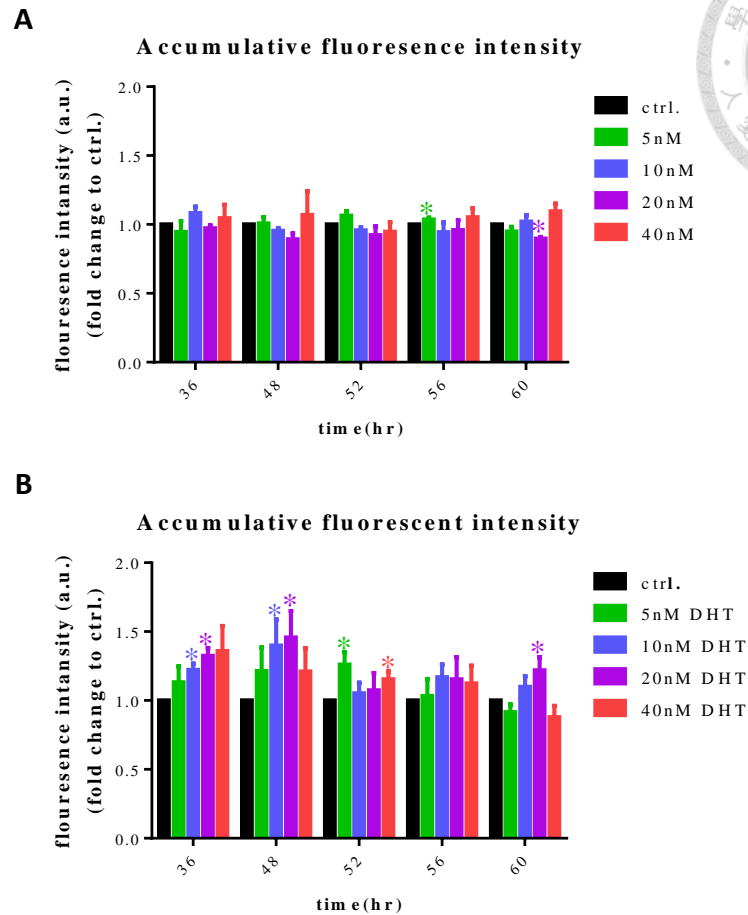


Figure 9. Effect of DHT treatments on QSOX1 secretion behavior *in vitro*.

Actual raw values from each time point were normalized to the control group and expressed as fold change. Time points 36 h and 48 h were groups without any treatment. (A) Results of the effect of DHT on meCap18. (B) Results of the effect of DHT on DC2. Black bar: control (only transfected cells without testosterone). Green bar: 5 nM DHT. Blue bar: 10 nM DHT. Purple bar: 20 nM DHT. Red bar: 40 nM DHT. Data were represented as Mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$, in comparison with control; NS = no significant difference to control.

3.3.2 *Spermatozoa facilitate QSOX1 secretion*

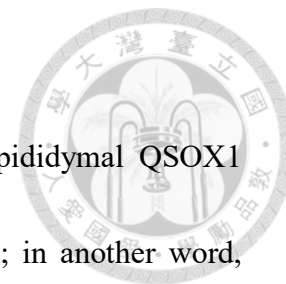


Since spermatozoa is a potential candidate for regulating QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis. The sperm and meCap18 co-culture system were carried out to evaluate direct and indirect interactions. For the direct experimental setup, sperm cells recovered from either caput or cauda region was co-incubated with epididymal epithelium in which sperm cells can directly interact with the meCap18 (Fig. 10A). For indirect experimental setup, sperm cells were separated from meCap18 by Transwell® system to prevent direct physical contact with the meCap18 (Fig. 11A).

In the direct co-culture system, significant increase in QSOX1 secretion was observed after 4 h when 2 million caput sperm cells were co-incubated (Fig. 10B, red bars). When 1 million caput sperm cells were used, significant changes were detected after 8 h co-incubation (Fig. 10B, blue bars). The stimulation of QSOX1 secretion seemed to require a threshold number of sperm cells as adding 0.5 million sperm cells didn't facilitate QSOX1 secretion (Fig. 10B, green bars); moreover, QSOX1 secretion pattern also exhibited a time-dependent manner as showed in Figure 10B. To examine whether sperm cells of different maturation stages (e.g. caput sperm vs. cauda sperm) can elicit distinct QSOX1 secretion behavior, we also recovered cauda sperm cells for further direct co-incubation treatment. As showed in Figure 10C, only 2 million cauda sperm cells were able to result in significant secretion of QSOX1 after 8 h (time point

56 h) of co-incubation (Fig. 10C).

To investigate whether sperm cells are able to stimulate epididymal QSOX1 secretion without direct physical interactions with the epithelium; in another word, whether sperm cells are able to stimulate epididymal QSOX1 secretion via secreting sperm-origin molecules, an indirect co-culture system using Transwell® separator with 0.4 um membrane pore size was applied (Fig. 11A). When 0.5, 1, and 2 million caput sperm were added into the upper chamber, QSOX1 level was 1.9, 2.3, and 4.9 times more than those of control at 4 h of co-incubation, 1.7, 1.7, and 3.1 times more than those of control at 8 h of co-incubation and 2.0, 2.1, and 3.6 times more than those of control at 12 h of co-incubation (Fig. 11B). In contrast, when cauda sperm cells were used, only 2 million cauda sperm cells can stimulate QSOX1 secretion, and the level of QSOX1 concentration detected in the medium was much lower (1.12 times more than control at 52 h time point and 1.17 times more than control at 56 h time point) than when caput sperm cells were used (Fig. 11C). During the sperm isolation processes, spermatozoa were isolated from standard swim-out process on the temperature-controlled stage, and epididymal fluid was further replaced by culture medium via centrifugation and washing step (1 time, 800g, 5min); however, it is still possible that remaining epididymal fluid may lead to misinterpretation of QSOX1 secretion in our *in vitro* study. To demonstrate the effects of epididymal fluid on QSOX1 secretion,



meCap18 was incubated with epididymal fluid in the absence of sperm cells. As shown in Fig. 11D, after epididymal fluid incubation for 12 h, a minor increase of QSOX1 level (1.4 fold) was detected when compared with control group; however, the fold change was minor when compared with experimental group in the presence of spermatozoa(3.3 fold) (fig. 11D).

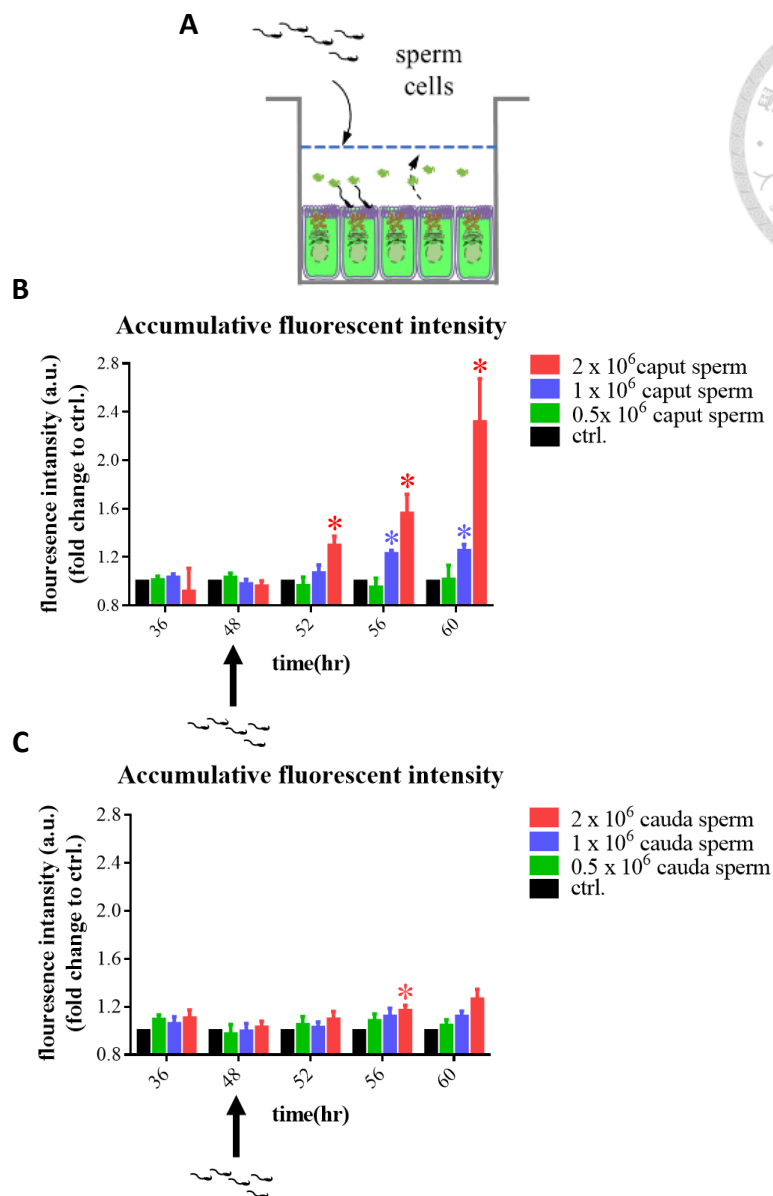


Figure 10. Effect of different mature status spermatozoa on QSOX1 secretion in direct co-culture system.

(A) Schema of direct co-culture systems. (B) Results of QSOX1 secretion from direct co-culture system using caput spermatozoa. (C) Results of QSOX1 secretion from direct co-culture system using cauda spermatozoa. (B-C) X-axis: transfected cell incubation time after changing the medium into Fluorbrite DMEM; y-axis: fluorescent intensity which correlated to QSOX1 concentration. Black bar: control group, only transfected cells; green bar: 0.5 million spermatozoa treatment; blue bar: 1 million spermatozoa treatment; red bar: 2 million spermatozoa treatment. Data were

represented as Mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$, in comparison with control; NS = no significant difference to control.

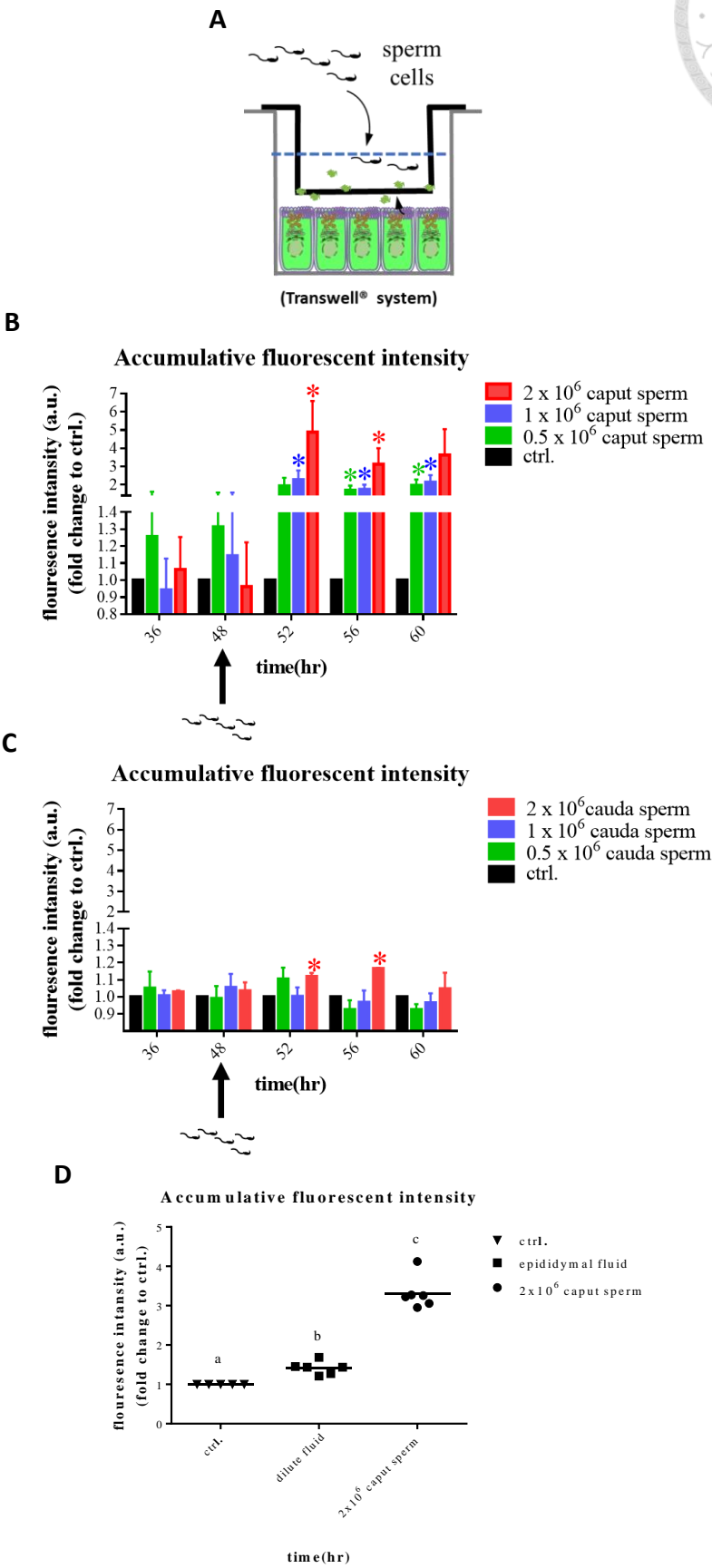


Figure 11. Effect of different mature status spermatozoa on QSOX1 secretion in indirect co-culture system.

(A) Schema of indirect co-culture systems. (B) Results of QSOX1 secretion from indirect co-culture system using caput spermatozoa. (C) Results of QSOX1 secretion from indirect co-culture system using cauda spermatozoa. (D) The effects of epididymal fluid on mecap18. (B-C) X-axis: transfected cell incubation time after changing the medium into Fluorbrite DMEM; y-axis: fluorescent intensity which correlated to QSOX1 concentration. Black bar: control group, only transfected cells; green bar: 0.5 million spermatozoa treatment; blue bar: 1 million spermatozoa treatment; red bar: 2 million spermatozoa treatment. Data were represented as Mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$, in comparison with control; NS = no significant difference to control.

3.4 Spermatogenesis defect (*Elp1*^{-/-}) mouse showed low level of epididymal

QSOX1 protein expression.



To further investigate the effect of sperm on QSOX1 protein expression and secretion, well-established *Cre/loxP* system was used for generating sperm null knock out mouse. As described in earlier publication, *Vasa* as the promoter can specifically express Cre protein in germ cells which can give rise to germ-line specific knockout animal when mated with *loxP* site flanked animals. In this study, *Elp1* (also known as *IKBKAP* [inhibitor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells, kinase complex-associated protein] in mouse) is a critical gene in meiosis process was flanked by two *loxP* sites. After recombination, the spermatogenesis process was disrupted in *Vasa-Cre* and *Elp1*^{flx/flx} animal and is characterized with the absence of sperm cells in the epididymis (In collaboration with Dr. Fu-Jung Lin at Department of Biochemical Science and Technology, NTU). As shown in Figure 12, the epididymis from wild type mouse and *Elp1* knock-out mouse were homogenized for Western-blotting analysis, and the data indicated that *Elp1* knock out mouse exhibited low level of secretory QSOX1c, suggesting the role of spermatozoa on the protein expression of epididymal QSOX1c (Fig. 12).

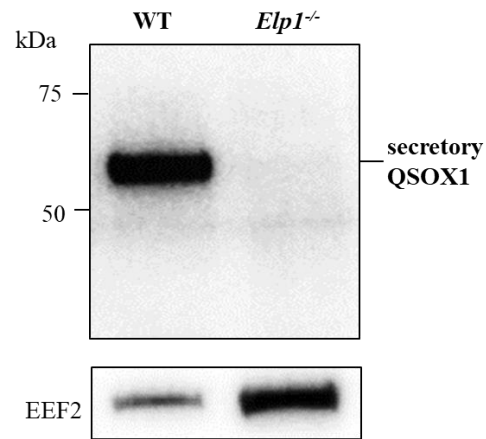


Figure 12. QSOX1c expression in *Elp1* knock out mouse epididymis.

Anti-QSOX1c antibody was used to detect secretory QSOX1 in the spermatogenesis defect transgenic animal. A single band at 63 kDa was observed in wild type mouse epididymis, but not in *Elp1*^{-/-} mouse. EEf2: internal control; total protein loaded: 35ug/well.

3.5 Proteomic analysis



To identify different molecule present in the culture medium, 1-D SDS-PAGE was first performed. Culture medium from both with or without sperm group were first concentrated, and protein concentrations were determined as above-mentioned, 90ug of total protein was loaded into each well and separated by electrophoresis. Sypro ruby (Invitrogen) was used to visualize the differences, a set of protein signals around 20-25kDa was observed exclusively from the medium containing sperm cells (Fig. 13A); however, due to the poor resolution of in gel-staining, in solution protein analysis was further performed.

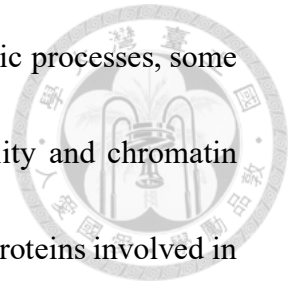
LC/MS/MS identified 1358 and 1871 protein IDs in the control and treatment group, respectively (Fig. 13B). Based on selection criteria mentioned in the Materials and Methods section (two missed cleavages were allowed, and a MASCOT score ≥ 35), we further selected 582 proteins of interest (Fig. 13B, small green circle) for future analyses. Compared with proteome database published by recent papers [62, 63], those 582 protein IDs can further be classified into three groups: caput sperm origin protein (majority part for further analysis, see table 1 for the complete list of 258 protein IDs), epididymal epithelium origin protein, and uncharacterized protein (Fig. 13C).

Proteins of different origin (sperm, epididymal epithelium, and uncategorized) were subjected to bioinformatic analysis. To analyze the functions of these protein, GO

annotation approach was used; to analysis the potential biological involvement of these proteins, biological process analysis was applied. Processes related to biological adhesion, cellular component organization or biogenesis, cellular process, developmental process, immune system process, localization, metabolic process, multicellular organismal process, reproduction response to stimulus were observed in all of the three groups. However, cell proliferation was only observed exclusively in uncharacterized group of proteins (Fig. 14A). The results of molecular function annotation indicated that binding activity and catalytic activity were the top two main functions of these proteins (Fig. 14B)

In order to study the correlation of these 582 proteins, a comparative network analysis was conducted to find GO Biological Process terms enriched in each group (Fig. 15). Terms with caput sperm protein, epididymal fluid protein and uncharacterized protein were shown in orange, blue and green respectively. The correlation of those proteins was performed by the overlapping of the terms and the edge distance. Proteins identified as caput spermatozoa origin showed specific terms like mitochondria biological processes, Golgi vesicle transport, regulation of apoptosis. Proteins that are categorized as luminal fluid specific protein involved in the regulation of receptors, negative regulation of protein complex assembly. For those of uncharacterized proteins, most of them were related to the regulation of RNA processes. Although the majority

of the 582 proteins were involved in metabolic processes and catalytic processes, some proteins showed in all clusters are related to sperm fertility, motility and chromatin assembling. As the GO analysis is for predicting protein functions, proteins involved in stimulating QSOX1 secretion can be predicted. The top3 pieces of GO biological process ontology for caput sperm group described cellular process, localization, and metabolic process. Proteins in those terms had catalytic activity or involved in transport events (Fig. 16). The predictions were described in chapter 4.



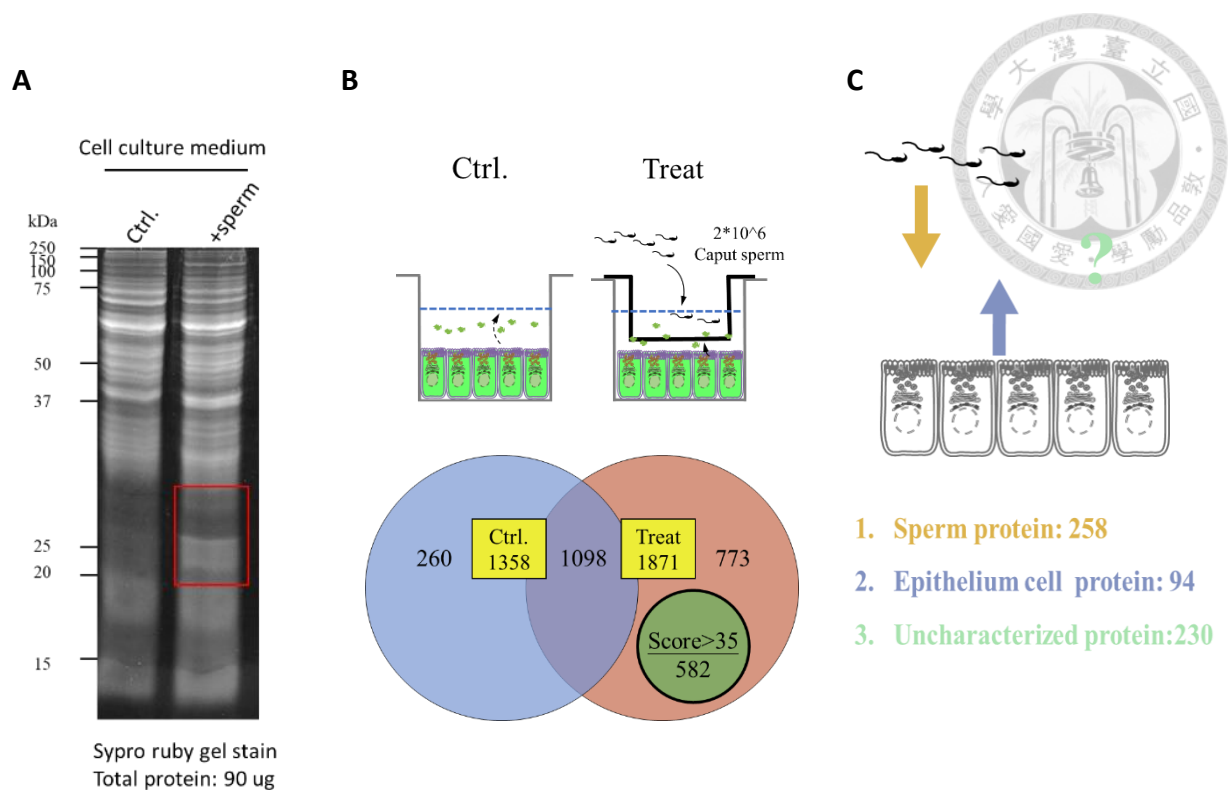
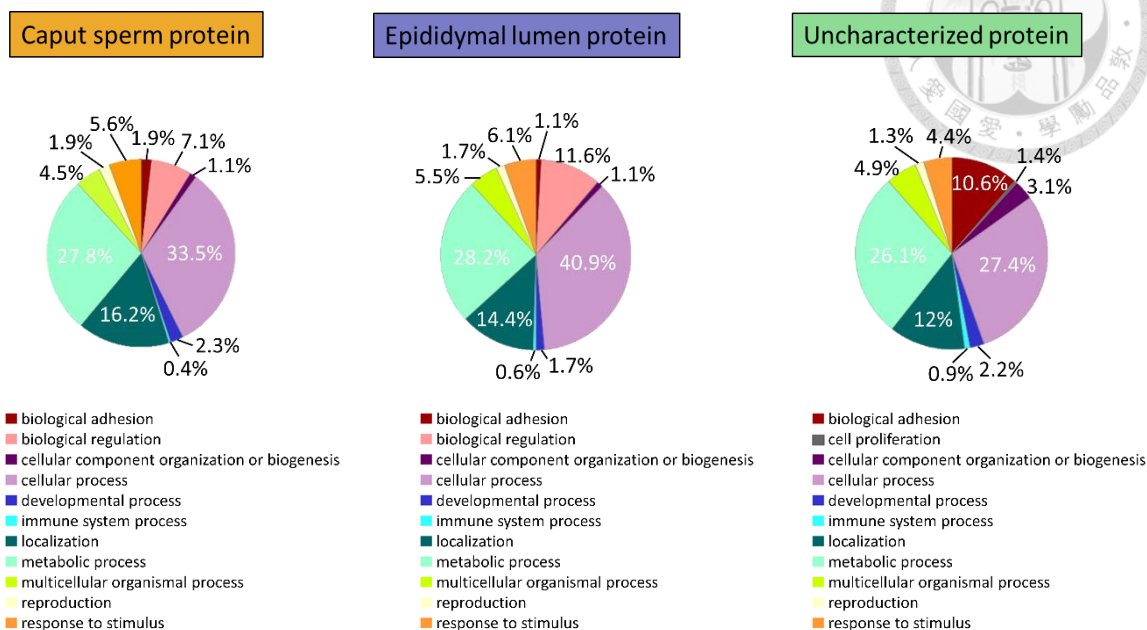


Figure 13. Summary of proteomic analysis.

(A) Representative 15% Sypro Ruby-stained gel. Left panel: culture medium from control group (transfected meCap18 cell); right panel: culture medium from sperm treated group (B) Mass spectrometry identified 1358 and 1871 protein IDs in control (Ctrl.) and sperm-treated (Treat) group, respectively. Venn diagram illustrating the overlapping relationship of protein identification between control and treatment groups. Among 773 proteins that were exclusively presented in treatment group, 582 proteins reached the selection criteria of MASCOT scoring ≥ 35 (showed in green). (C) Those 582 unique proteins presented in sperm co-culture medium were classified based on their origins. 258 proteins were classified as caput sperm proteome (orange arrow), 94 proteins belonged to epididymal epithelial proteome (blue arrow), and 230 proteins were uncharacterized.

A



B

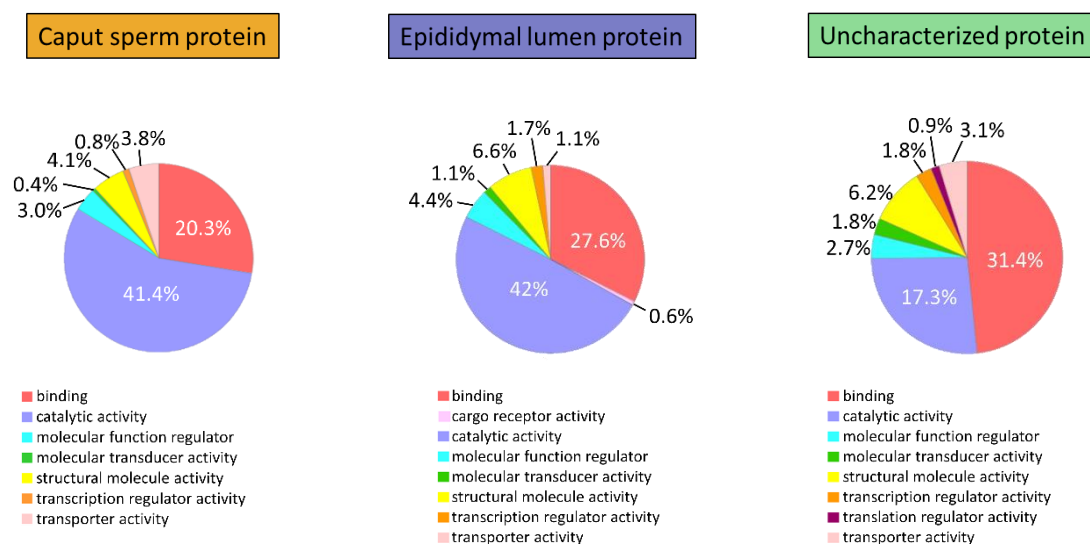


Figure 14. GO analysis performed using PANTHER (v14.1).

Panther gene ontology (GO) analysis for differentially enriched proteins in caput sperm protein group, epididymal lumen protein group, and uncharacterized group. (A) Enriched proteins in different groups were classified in different categories based on the biological processes, and (B) were also classified based on the molecular functions.

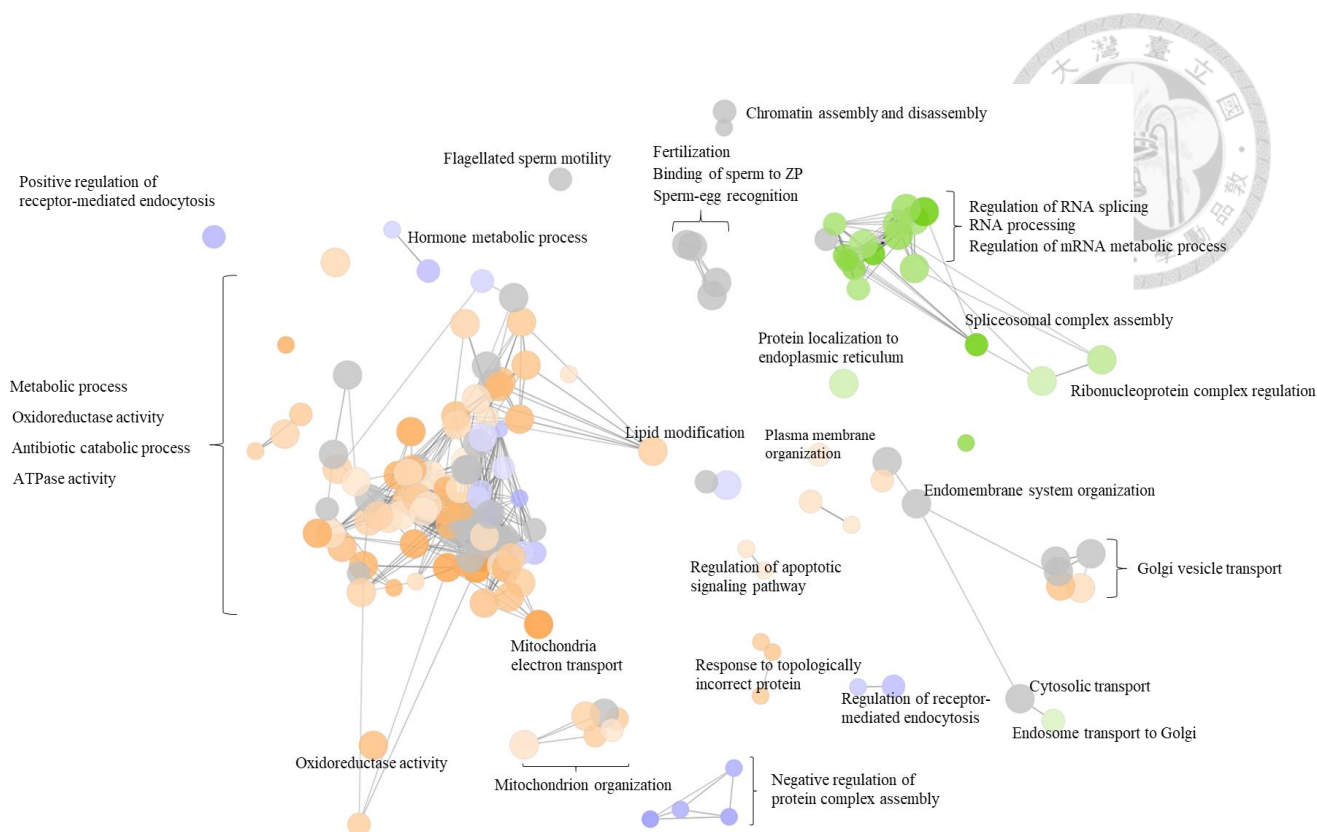


Figure 15. Enriched biological process GO annotation clusters distribution view.

Diagram indicating functional enrichment of GO categories for caput sperm group (in orange), fluid protein group (in blue) and uncharacterized protein group (in green). Functionally grouped network with terms as nodes linked based on their kappa score level (≥ 0.4). The node size represents the term enrichment significance. Functionally related groups partially overlap. No difference in grouped terms are shown in gray.

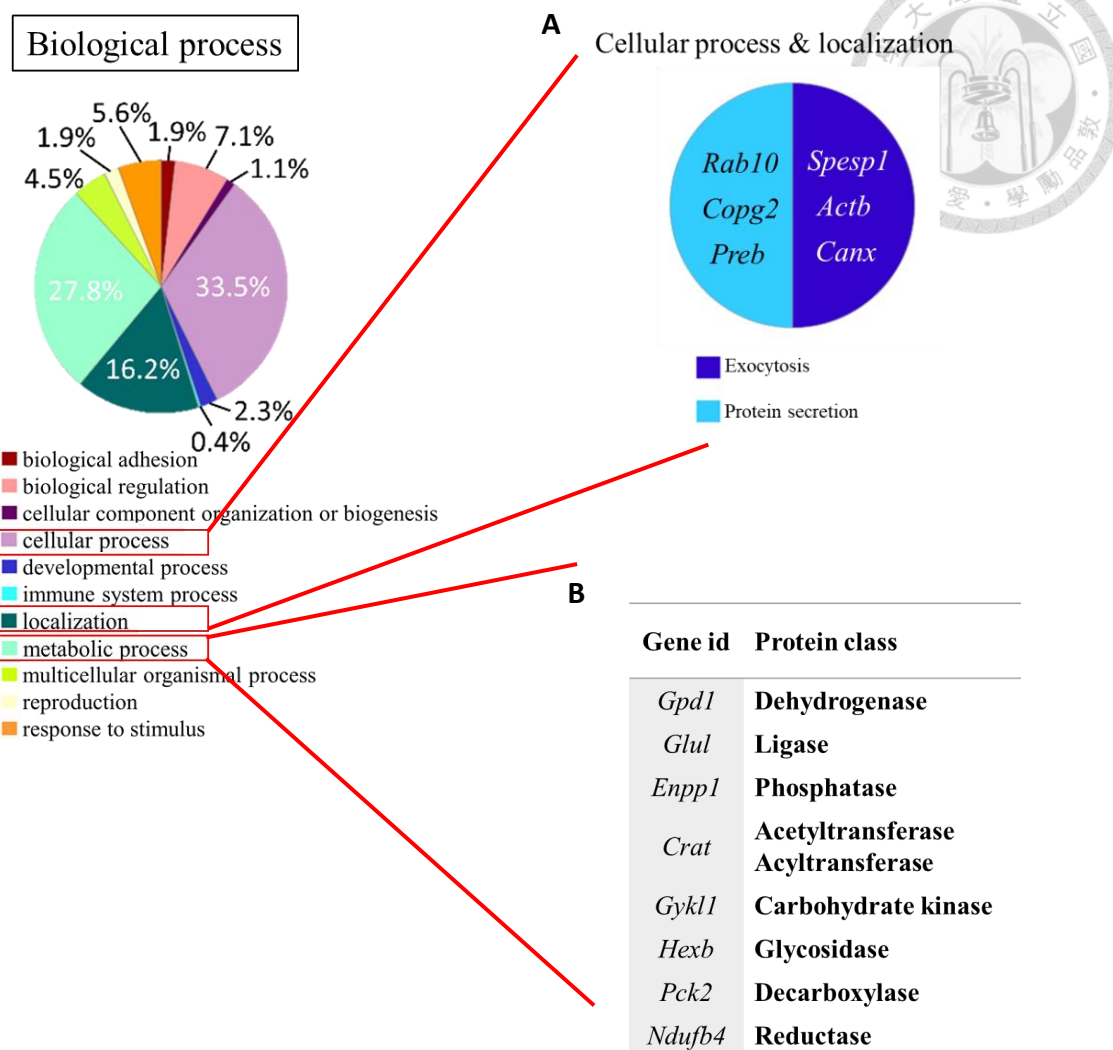


Figure 16. Proteins classified in the top3 sub-class terms of the biological process ontology.

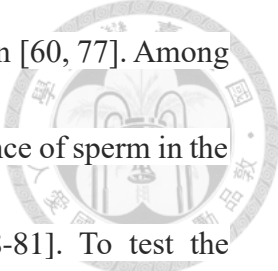
The top3 pieces of GO biological process ontology for caput sperm group. (A) Under the cellular process and localization was 6 proteins involved in secretion and exocytosis events. (B) The majority of the metabolic process was enzyme.

Chapter 4. Discussion



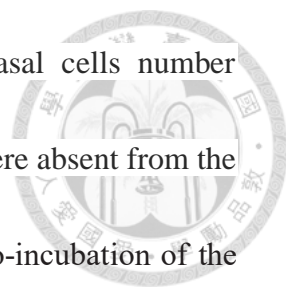
The mammalian epididymis supplies a complex microenvironment necessary for sperm maturation [66]. Regional variations in the epithelium gene and luminal protein profiles have been described in several species, such as the rat [67], mouse [68], boar [69], and human [70]. The observed diversity is partly owing to the dynamic and constant processes of absorption and secretion by the epididymal epithelium cells [71]. The specificity of the epididymal secretion at each epididymal segment is gradually established during postnatal development [72]. For example in mouse, the differentiation of the epididymal epithelium starts in the caput region around 2 weeks after birth, and followed by the corpus segment at 3 weeks and finally, the cauda regions around 4 weeks [73]. It has been shown that postnatal epididymal protein secretion is dynamic and under specific regulation at different postnatal development time point [74], in line with this, we observed that QSOX1 secretion activity was significantly increased at postnatal day 30 suggests that QSOX1 secretion might be regulated by specific luminal stimuli at around postnatal day 30.

Androgens (primarily testosterone and its more active metabolite dihydrotestosterone (DHT)) are the major group of hormones that control epididymal biological processes, such as differentiation and the function of the epididymal epithelium [75, 76]. However, other factors, such as testicular factors or spermatozoa



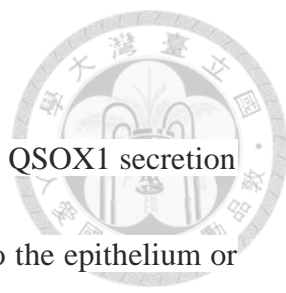
may also be involved in the regulation of epididymal protein secretion [60, 77]. Among those potential regulatory factors, 1st androgen surge and the emergence of sperm in the epididymis are critical events occurring at postnatal day 30 [78-81]. To test the androgen effects, two cell lines were used in the *in vitro* evaluation system. Hormone requires its corresponding surface receptor to initiate cellular effects, due to limited androgen receptor expressed in the meCap18 stable cell line [82], it might not efficiently stimulate the QSOX1 secretion in meCap18 cells. To overcome these potential reasons, another mouse epididymis epithelium cell line called DC2 (distal caput epididymal epithelial cells), which show normal expression of androgen receptor on cell surface [83], was also used for androgen stimulation test. We observed that testosterone and DHT (ranged from 5-40 nM) treatments showing little effects on QSOX1 protein secretion behavior (compare to spermatozoa stimulation results) in both meCap18 and DC2, suggesting that androgens, at least testosterone, and DHT may not be the major regulators for QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis.

The essential role of epididymis on the maturation process of sperm cells has been studied intensively in the past decades; while most of the studies focused on uni-directional influences of the epididymal epithelium to sperm, whether sperm cells can actively participate in the regulation of epididymis biological processes is poorly understood. Nevertheless, the effect of sperm cells on the epididymal epithelium is



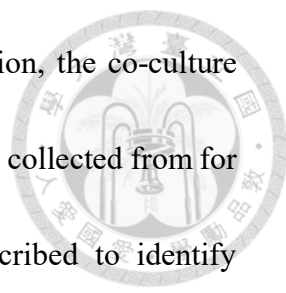
likely occurring at different levels. For example, epididymis basal cells number decreased and expressed fewer F4/80 antigen when spermatozoa were absent from the proximal lumen [84]. Moreover, Carlos et al. demonstrated that co-incubation of the epididymal epithelium with spermatozoa enhanced epididymal protein secretion and greatly changed the pattern of secretory protein expression in caput cells [61]. In order to investigate the effect of spermatozoa on QSOX1 secretion, an *in vitro* co-culture system was established. Spermatozoa and epithelium co-culture has been described in much literature to study the relationship between spermatozoa and reproductive tracts [85-88]. For example, in 1992, Klinefelter described a Transwell® co-culture system that separated rat spermatozoa and primary rat epididymal epithelium cells [89]. In this study, to investigate the effects of sperm cells on the epididymal epithelium, spermatozoa were co-incubated with meCap18 stable cell line using both direct co-culture and Transwell® indirect co-culture systems. From the direct co-culture system, both caput and cauda sperm can facilitate QSOX1 secretion, and under our experimental setup, we observed caput sperm cells were more efficient and more potent than that of cauda sperm. This is likely due to the fact that when compared with cauda sperm cells, proteins on the surface of caput sperm are less stable and require QSOX1 to facilitate intra-molecular disulfide bond formation to stabilize their structure. The other reason could be the region specific bioreaction, those cauda sperm need to

specifically stimulate cauda epithelium instead of caput epithelium.



The possible stimulatory mechanisms underlying our observed QSOX1 secretion could due to either direct physical contact of spermatozoa *per se* to the epithelium or from the indirect stimulation of proteins and molecules that are being secreted/shed from sperm cells. To investigate the later possibility, spermatozoa were separated by Transwell® system as described earlier [89]. Compared to cauda sperm, QSOX1 secretion was significantly increased under caput sperm stimulation supporting our earlier speculation that caput sperm may require more QSOX1 to facilitate their surface modification than those of cauda sperm. Interestingly, we observed that the amount of QSOX1 secretion in the indirect caput sperm co-culture system was about 3 times more than the direct caput sperm co-culture system. These results suggested that (1) sperm can alter epithelium behavior via direct contact [90] and may have negative effect on QSOX1 secretion in epididymis, (2) sperm cells can stimulate QSOX1 secretion without direct physical interaction with the epididymal epithelium, likely due to their active shedding off proteins and molecules upon the transit in the epididymis, and the shed proteins and molecules from sperm cells might be more efficient to stimulate QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis; however, detail mechanism and exact regulation require further investigation.

As we hypothesized that sperm cells can actively secrete or passively shed off

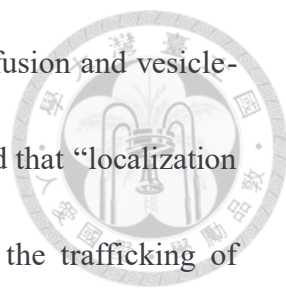


proteins and molecules that subsequently stimulate QSOX1 secretion, the co-culture medium from the lower chamber of indirect Transwell® system was collected from for proteomic analysis. Many proteomic approaches have been described to identify protein candidates, for instance, one-dimensional and two-dimensional differential gel electrophoresis gel staining, protein microarrays, and Mass spectrometry-based method [91]. Among those that have been described, the liquid chromatography (LC)-MS or tandem MS (MS/MS)-based proteomics technologies provides highly sensitive analytical capabilities for generating proteomic profiles [92]. From our 1-D protein gel staining, a set of additional protein signal was detected in the medium when sperm cells were added; however, due to the low resolution of this approach, LC/MS/MS was conducted to identify the complete proteome profile in both control and sperm-treated groups. LC/MS/MS identified 1358 and 1871 proteins in the control and treatment group, respectively. After subtracting protein IDs that were identified in both groups, 582 candidate proteins were exclusively presented in the sperm-treated group. Among these 582 proteins that were detected from the lower chamber of indirect Transwell® system, some may be the proteins released by spermatozoa (and passed through the pored membrane), some may be the proteins secreted by meCap18 which were stimulated by spermatozoa. Based on comparative proteomics with previous studies that have characterized the mouse caput sperm proteome and caput lumen fluid

proteome, these 582 proteins were classified into three groups: caput sperm protein, epididymal epithelium protein, uncharacterized protein. A previous study of the mouse caput sperm proteome 258/582 proteins and 94/582 proteins were classified into caput sperm protein (sperm origin) and epididymal epithelium protein (epididymal epithelium origin), respectively; the rest of 230 proteins were classified as uncharacterized protein (unknown origin) in this study.

In recent years, bioinformatics, protein network analysis, functional annotations, and pathway information advance the phenotype characterization of identified protein IDs [93]. Based on our data, a number of GO categories are enriched specifically in the caput sperm proteins group, epididymal epithelium protein group, and uncharacterized protein group. Gene set enrichment analysis was developed to classified the major protein profile in each group. Moreover, top 3 biological processes showed up in all three groups were a cellular process (e.g. metabolic process, cellular component organization, cellular response to stimulus), metabolic process (e.g. cellular, organic, primary metabolic process) and localization (e.g. cellular localization, the establishment of protein localization, macromolecule localization). To our specific interest, caput sperm origin proteins in culture medium involved in those top3 ontology could be the stimuli in the regulatory pathway of QSOX1 secretion.

The biological processes on the establishment of localization are known to



participate in exocytosis, vesicle budding from membrane vesicle fusion and vesicle-mediated transport to the plasma membrane. These results suggested that “localization proteins” in the co-culture medium might involve in regulating the trafficking of epididymal secretory proteins. The results of molecular function annotation indicated that binding activity (including protein binding, heterocyclic compound binding, small molecule binding) and catalytic activity (including hydrolase activity, oxidoreductase activity, transferase activity) were the top two main functions of these proteins. In the network analysis result, the main group of proteins from caput sperm and epithelium were classified in the metabolic process, suggested that QSOX1 secretion regulation might be related to sperm metabolic process, and maybe upregulated by the metabolic by-products released from sperm cells.

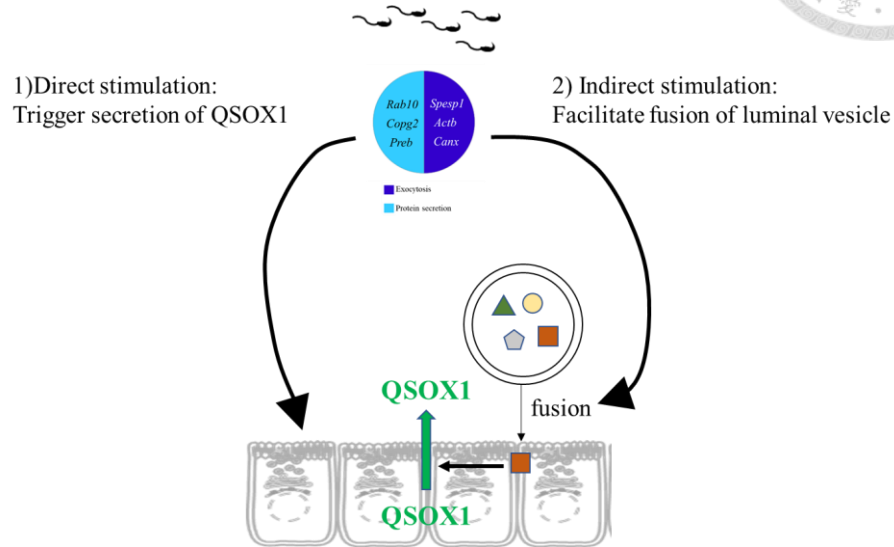
To look more details on the proteins classified in the top3 biological process of caput origin protein group, there are 6 proteins participated in protein trafficking or fusion events. The predicted relationship of those proteins and QSOX1 secretion is shown in Figure 17. After released by sperm, those protein can directly reach to the epithelium cells and trigger QSOX1 secretion, or the membrane fusion protein can indirectly stimulated QSOX1 secretion by helping vesicles (containing stimuli) fusion to epithelium membrane (Fig. 17). In the top3 biological process ontology, proteins with catalytic activity behavior are the main group of proteins. The predicted

relationship of those enzymes and QSOX1 secretion is shown in Figure 18. Another possibility for QSOX1 secretion might be that epididymal sperm releases factors that subsequently stimulate metabolic processes of epithelium and indirectly stimulate or accelerate the secretion of QSOX1 from the epididymal epithelium (Fig 18, lower panel).

In conclusion, based on our *in vitro* co-culture model, androgens are not the major stimuli for QSOX1 secretion; however, the QSOX1 secretion level was up-regulated in the presence of spermatozoa indicated that epididymal spermatozoa can facilitate QSOX1 secretion. Although we have identified some specific molecules originated from spermatozoa which might be the potential stimuli for QSOX1 secretion, the exact mechanism and molecules involved in the regulation of epididymal QSOX1 secretion require further studies. Future works should focus on functional study targeting specific molecules identified in the medium (especially those of sperm origin) to demonstrate the regulatory mechanism of QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis.



A



B

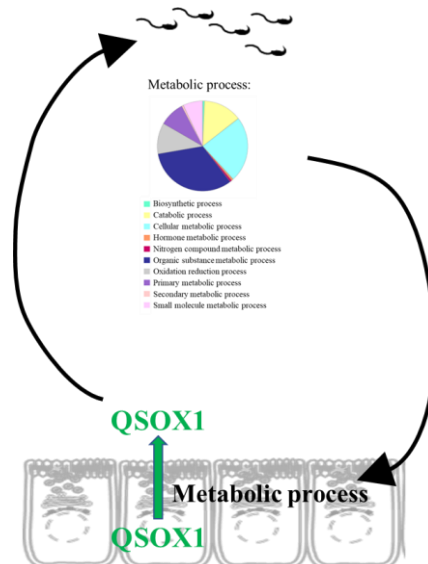
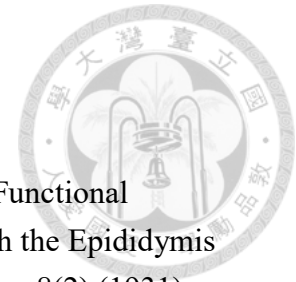


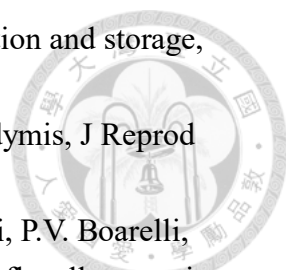
Figure 17. Predicted regulatory pathway of QSOX1 secretion in the epididymis.

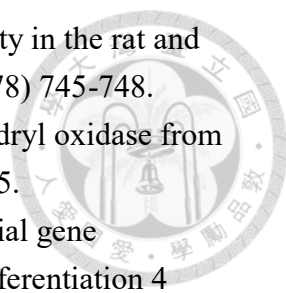
(A) The relationship of the QSOX1 secretion and those proteins participated in exocytosis and membrane fusion process. (B) The relationship of the QSOX1 secretion and the enzyme release from sperm.

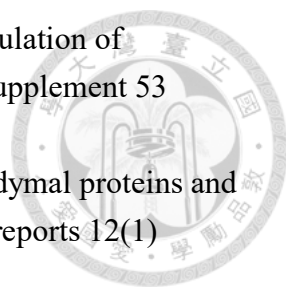
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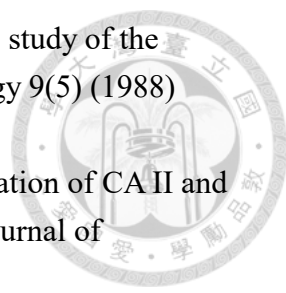


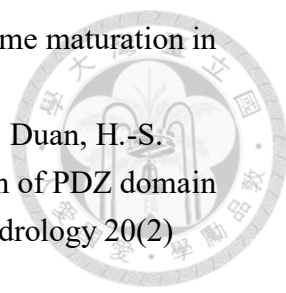
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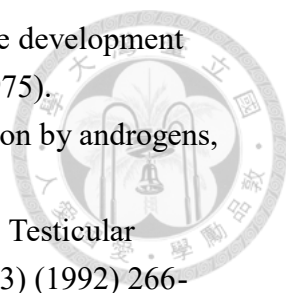
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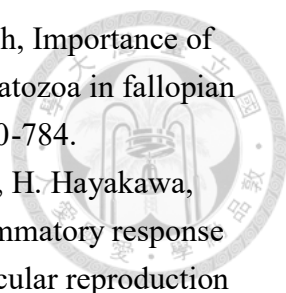
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Table 1. List of caput sperm origin protein IDs in sperm epithelium co-culture

medium

Family/Member	Database	Accession	uniprot id	Score	Mass	Num. of mz	Num. of significant sequences	Num. of significant embAI	Description
4	NCBIprot	ACTB_MOUSE	L886	39161	85	85	20	20	22.18 pnt. beta-actin (aa 27-375), partial [Mus musculus]
2	NCBIprot	LDHC_MOUSE	L886	1757	35889	71	71	22	23.41 L-lactate dehydrogenase C chain OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ldhc PE=1 SV=2
9	1	NCBIprot	AATM_MOUSE	Gnc2	1504	47382	72	72	18.35 separate aminotransferase precursor [Mus musculus]
15	1	NCBIprot	KC18_MOUSE	Kc18	1186	47309	40	40	9.27 Keratin, type I cytokeletal 18 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Kc18 PE=1 SV=5
28	1	NCBIprot	TNLI_MOUSE	Tnli	1120	26653	37	37	0.69 Tnli-1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Tnli PE=1 SV=2
32	1	NCBIprot	GNNA_MOUSE	Gnli	1000	42092	48	48	17.17 Guanine synthase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Gnli PE=1 SV=6
36	1	NCBIprot	LMNB1_MOUSE	Lmb1	873	66719	44	44	10.37 Iamb1 B [Mus musculus]
17	2	NCBIprot	ALDH2_MOUSE	Alad2	813	56502	36	36	4.26 Aldolase dehydrogenase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Alad2 PE=1 SV=1
48	1	NCBIprot	HSP72_MOUSE	Hsp72	790	26674	29	29	2.63 Heat shock-related 70 kDa protein 7 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hsp72 PE=1 SV=2
1	3	NCBIprot	CHMP3_MOUSE	Chp3	790	26674	29	29	0.57 TPX3, cAMP nuclear protein complex-associated intermediate cell-cell protein [Mus musculus]
51	1	NCBIprot	ALIA1_MOUSE	Alia1	790	26674	29	29	5.06 Keratin (dehydrogenase) OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Alia1 PE=1 SV=4
48	2	NCBIprot	KC23_MOUSE	Kc23	790	26674	29	29	1.93 Keratin, type II cytokeletal 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Kc23 PE=1 SV=4
24	3	NCBIprot	HTO1_MOUSE	Htp1	641	11112	28	28	1.34 Hypoxia up-regulated protein 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Htp1 PE=1 SV=1
67	1	NCBIprot	HSP90_MOUSE	Hsp90	625	59944	29	29	3.14 Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein K OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hsp90 PE=1 SV=1
72	1	NCBIprot	HSP70_MOUSE	Hsp70	625	59944	29	29	2.26 Serum albumin OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hsp70 PE=1 SV=3
73	1	NCBIprot	ALBU_MOUSE	Alb	625	68648	24	24	2.29 Albumin alpha-3 chain OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Alb PE=1 SV=1
32	7	NCBIprot	HSP71_MOUSE	Hsp71	611	70593	25	25	1.33 Heat shock 70 kDa protein 1-like OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hsp71 PE=1 SV=4
1	4	NCBIprot	HSP70_MOUSE	Hsp70	611	70593	25	25	0.69 IQ motif containing GTPase activating protein 1 [Mus musculus]
82	1	NCBIprot	KC19_MOUSE	Kc19	555	44515	24	24	5.14 Keratin, type I cytokeletal 19 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Kc19 PE=1 SV=1
28	2	NCBIprot	ZPBP1_MOUSE	Zbp1	511	39206	21	21	2.29 Zona pellucida-binding protein 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Zbp1 PE=1 SV=2
104	1	NCBIprot	PYLA_MOUSE	Pyli	473	24304	17	17	0.26 CAD protein OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Pyli PE=1 SV=1
119	1	NCBIprot	ODOL_MOUSE	Odh	459	11675	21	21	0.94 2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Odh PE=1 SV=3
126	1	NCBIprot	SIXO_MOUSE	Siox	424	60718	19	19	1.87 Sulfite oxidase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Siox PE=1 SV=2
141	1	NCBIprot	STW7_MOUSE	Stw7	422	25693	18	18	6.21 Guanine synthase Ma 7 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Stw7 PE=1 SV=1
134	2	NCBIprot	MANA_MOUSE	Man1	418	57878	18	18	2.02 Methylmalonate-semialdehyde dehydrogenase [acylating], mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Man1 PE=1 SV=1
144	1	NCBIprot	LDHD_MOUSE	Ldh1	417	57878	16	16	1.91 Probable D-lactate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ldh1 PE=1 SV=1
155	1	NCBIprot	CTNB1_MOUSE	Ctnb1	404	85444	14	14	0.26 Catenin beta-1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ctnb1 PE=1 SV=1
136	1	NCBIprot	OSB2_MOUSE	Osbn	404	85444	14	14	0.36 Catenin beta-2 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Osbn PE=1 SV=1
162	1	NCBIprot	ECCT_MOUSE	Ectf	396	50678	17	17	2.52 Keratin, type II cytokeletal 7 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ecct PE=1 SV=1
24	7	NCBIprot	BEAT_MOUSE	Beat	395	39710	16	16	2.61 Core histone macro-H2A.1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=H2afy PE=1 SV=3
162	1	NCBIprot	QBRAC1_MOUSE	Qbr1	387	80712	15	15	0.99 gelatin inhibitor 2 [Mus musculus]
179	1	NCBIprot	SACA1_MOUSE	Saca1	375	33321	12	12	1.77 Sperm acrosome membrane-associated protein 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Saca1 PE=1 SV=1
195	1	NCBIprot	NICD2_MOUSE	Nicd2	357	47323	21	21	1.8 18
196	1	NCBIprot	THM_MOUSE	Thm	356	41803	15	15	1.4 14
124	2	NCBIprot	PLSL_MOUSE	Lsl1	351	70105	18	18	1.8 18
203	1	NCBIprot	AT2A2_MOUSE	Ata2	346	114784	15	15	1.1 11
215	1	NCBIprot	CTNA1_MOUSE	Ctna1	331	10074	13	13	1.1 11
219	1	NCBIprot	BSS_MOUSE	Bss	327	24190	17	17	1.2 12
221	1	NCBIprot	MBA2_MOUSE	Mba2	323	54582	14	14	1.1 11
223	1	NCBIprot	BMP7_MOUSE	Bmp5	323	54582	14	14	1.1 11
206	3	NCBIprot	PRIC_MOUSE	Ppic	318	39660	14	14	1.1 11
235	1	NCBIprot	SBR1_MOUSE	Sbr1	301	72539	10	10	8 8
243	1	NCBIprot	ADAM7_MOUSE	Adam7	301	81922	16	16	14 14
246	1	NCBIprot	ACA_MOUSE	Aca	299	150622	19	19	16 16
249	1	NCBIprot	DC10_MOUSE	Dm10	296	50525	12	12	12 12
261	1	NCBIprot	RS2_MOUSE	Rsd2	286	51202	19	19	12 12
279	1	NCBIprot	LCN5_MOUSE	Lcn5	272	21000	7	7	6 6
280	1	NCBIprot	QBRV2_MOUSE	Lamb1b	272	42022	7	7	5 5
284	1	NCBIprot	PERC1_MOUSE	Prc1	271	21681	9	9	6 6
205	2	NCBIprot	CALX_MOUSE	Cax	266	64971	15	15	10 10
11	2	NCBIprot	BEPL1_MOUSE	Bep1	261	774155	11	11	11 11
134	5	NCBIprot	GSTA1_MOUSE	Gsta1	260	25933	10	10	6 6
295	1	NCBIprot	RP2_MOUSE	Rp2	258	69020	9	9	8 8
299	1	NCBIprot	RL3_MOUSE	Rl3	245	46681	11	11	7 7
303	1	NCBIprot	MCC6_MOUSE	Mcc6	243	83848	11	11	9 9
315	1	NCBIprot	FABP9_MOUSE	Fabp9	241	15008	7	7	6 6
134	8	NCBIprot	GSTK4_MOUSE	Gsta5	246	26017	15	15	13 13
330	1	NCBIprot	BRCA1_MOUSE	Brcan	243	34956	8	8	4 4
321	1	NCBIprot	CAV2_MOUSE	Cav2	243	31326	4	4	4 4
324	1	NCBIprot	NLTP_MOUSE	Nltp	242	59088	11	11	8 8

325	1	SwatProt	CLUS_MOUSE	Clu	241	51623	13	13	8	8	0.93	Clusterin OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Clu PB=1 SV=1
326	2	NCBIprot	SODM_MOUSE	Sod2	236	24619	10	10	5	5	1.35	mannose isomerase dismutase [Mus musculus]
341	1	SwatProt	RPLI_MOUSE	Rpl1	228	68486	10	10	6	6	0.45	Dolichyl-diphosphoceramidate- protein glycosyltransferase subunit 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Rpl1 PB=1 SV=1
344	1	SwatProt	MA2B2_MOUSE	Ma2b2	222	11537	10	10	9	9	0.45	Bridgman-specific alpha-mannosidase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ma2b2 PB=1 SV=2
355	1	SwatProt	BCH1_MOUSE	Bch1	216	36095	6	6	6	6	1.03	Delta(5,7)-Delta(2,4)-dienoyl-CoA isomerase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Bch1 PB=1 SV=1
381	1	SwatProt	GGG45_MOUSE	Gg45	211	82318	8	8	8	8	0.51	Gdlna subfamily A member 5 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=GG45 PB=1 SV=2
400	1	SwatProt	ACRO_MOUSE	Ac	204	48898	6	6	6	6	0.68	Acroin OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ac PB=1 SV=1
408	4	SwatProt	BBP44_MOUSE	Bbp44	203	46823	12	12	9	9	1.26	Endoplasmic reticulum resident protein 44 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=BBP44 PB=1 SV=1
415	1	NCBIprot	ORF13_MOUSE	Orf13	200	45561	6	6	7	7	0.92	cAMP-dependent protein kinase type II-alpha regulatory subunit [Mus musculus]
430	1	SwatProt	LMAN1_MOUSE	Lman1	195	40404	6	6	10	10	0.38	Vesicular intermembrane protein VPR3 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=LS-Spnp1 PB=1 SV=2
432	1	SwatProt	SPSP_MOUSE	Spasp1	191	44674	10	10	10	10	1.56	Spenn equatorial segment protein 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=SPSP PB=1 SV=2
433	1	SwatProt	PTPL_MOUSE	Ptpl	191	33467	11	11	7	7	1.36	Palmitoyl-protein thioesterase 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=PTPL PB=1 SV=2
435	1	SwatProt	ODP3_MOUSE	Odin	189	38912	8	8	6	6	0.92	Pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 component subunit beta, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=ODP3 PB=1 SV=1
443	1	SwatProt	CAC2_MOUSE	Cac1	181	70794	8	8	8	8	0.62	Carnitine O-acetyltransferase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Cac1 PB=1 SV=2
453	2	SwatProt	ARE3_MOUSE	Are3	178	26377	7	7	5	5	1.78	Alp-thioesterin factor 3 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=ARE3 PB=1 SV=2
462	1	SwatProt	HEXB_MOUSE	Hexb	171	61077	10	10	10	10	1.01	Beta-hexosaminidase subunit beta OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=HEXB PB=1 SV=2
497	1	SwatProt	CD166_MOUSE	Alcam	169	65051	7	7	7	7	0.78	CD166 antigen OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Alcam PB=1 SV=3
500	1	SwatProt	IPR22_MOUSE	Pyd2	169	38090	6	6	5	5	0.53	Inorganic pyrophosphatase 2, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Pyd2 PB=1 SV=1
521	3	SwatProt	CISY_MOUSE	Cs	160	51703	6	6	5	5	0.51	Citrate synthase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Cis2 PB=1 SV=1
528	1	SwatProt	TEHL_MOUSE	Acat	159	44787	7	7	7	7	0.95	Acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Acat PB=1 SV=1
533	1	SwatProt	MCI9_MOUSE	Chad3	158	26318	3	3	3	3	0.62	MCCOS complex subunit Mcc19 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Chad3 PB=1 SV=1
534	1	SwatProt	RCH1_MOUSE	Rch1	158	38090	8	8	8	8	1.44	Retinoldehydrogenase 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Rch1 PB=1 SV=1
535	1	SwatProt	LMAN1_MOUSE	Lman1	157	57753	5	5	4	4	0.34	Protein ERGIC-53 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Lman1 PB=1 SV=1
537	1	SwatProt	GBB1_MOUSE	Gbb1	157	57353	6	6	5	5	0.76	Granule nucleotide-binding protein G10(GS)/G12(GT) subunit beta-1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Gb1 PB=1 SV=3
541	2	SwatProt	SC23A_MOUSE	Sc23a	156	86106	7	7	6	6	0.35	Protein transport protein Sc23A OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Sc23a PB=1 SV=2
545	1	SwatProt	DYRP3_MOUSE	Dypp3	155	54213	8	8	7	7	0.73	Dysferlin 3 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Dypp3 PB=1 SV=1
547	1	SwatProt	ROR1_MOUSE	Ror1	155	23987	7	7	5	5	1.87	Receptor 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Ror1 PB=1 SV=1
548	1	SwatProt	HB2_MOUSE	Hbb-b2	153	15868	6	6	5	5	2.73	Hemoglobin subunit beta-2 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hbb-b2 PB=1 SV=2
549	4	SwatProt	MYH10_MOUSE	Myh10	151	228855	3	3	3	3	0.06	Myosin-10 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Myh10 PB=1 SV=2
559	1	SwatProt	TOM22_MOUSE	Tom22	150	15527	3	3	3	3	1.24	Mitochondrial import receptor subunit TOM22 homolog OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Tom22 PB=1 SV=3
562	1	SwatProt	TAF1_MOUSE	Taf1	150	121729	5	5	3	3	0.11	TAF11 element modulatory factor OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Taf1 PB=1 SV=2
563	1	SwatProt	AT1A1_MOUSE	Atf1a1	149	112910	5	5	5	5	0.21	Sedlin/propionin-translocator ATPase subunit alpha-1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=AT1A1 PB=1 SV=1
578	1	SwatProt	KAD3_MOUSE	Kad3	146	25410	6	6	6	6	1.71	GTP-AMP phosphotransferase AK3, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Kad3 PB=1 SV=3
579	1	SwatProt	BGAL_MOUSE	Gbl1	146	73074	4	4	4	4	0.26	Beta-galactosidase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Gbl1 PB=1 SV=1
575	1	NCBIprot	B2BWRB_MOUSE	Gna446	146	61604	4	4	2	2	0.15	Brain-containing monooxygenase 13 [Mus musculus]
585	1	NCBIprot	GC8B_MOUSE	Gnb1	144	18577	4	4	4	4	0.97	Gnb protein [Mus musculus]
593	2	SwatProt	RAB1B_MOUSE	Rab1b	142	22173	5	5	4	4	1.14	Ras-related protein Rab-1B OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Rab1b PB=1 SV=1
605	1	SwatProt	HBC1_MOUSE	Hbb1	137	43010	6	6	6	6	0.81	3-hydroxyisobutyryl-CoA lyase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Hbc1 PB=1 SV=1
608	1	SwatProt	CAP1_MOUSE	Cbp1	136	29781	5	5	3	3	0.53	ATP-dependent Clp protease proteolytic subunit, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Cap1 PB=1 SV=1
616	1	SwatProt	OPF1_MOUSE	Dna	134	67989	4	4	4	4	0.29	Dna-proteinase complex, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Opf1 PB=1 SV=1
619	1	SwatProt	RL13_MOUSE	Rbl13	133	32420	5	5	5	5	1.38	Ribosomal protein L13 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=RL13 PB=1 SV=3
621	1	SwatProt	ASG1_MOUSE	Asg1	133	33928	5	5	5	5	0.87	Immunoglobulin heavy chain constant region 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Asg1 PB=1 SV=1
628	1	SwatProt	SH2D3_MOUSE	Sh2d3	131	35417	6	6	4	4	0.61	3-hydroxyisobutyryl dehydrogenase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Sh2d3 PB=1 SV=1
631	1	SwatProt	LTPD4_MOUSE	Ltpd4	131	26799	5	5	3	3	0.67	ATP-dependent protein kinase, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=LTPD4 PB=1 SV=1
641	1	SwatProt	FAHD1_MOUSE	Fahd1	130	25156	3	3	3	3	0.65	Acetyltransferase FAHD1, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=FAHD1 PB=1 SV=2
648	1	SwatProt	ACOT2_MOUSE	Acot2	128	49626	5	5	4	4	0.41	Acyl-CoA thioesterase 2, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Acot2 PB=1 SV=2
659	1	NCBIprot	BAW07_MOUSE	Serpina1	128	4974	3	3	3	3	0.32	Alpha-1-antitrypsin 1-1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Serpina1 PB=1 SV=4
661	1	SwatProt	H10_MOUSE	H10	123	54462	9	9	9	9	0.07	zonadherin precursor [Mus musculus]
677	2	SwatProt	AT2B4_MOUSE	Anb24	122	13294	4	4	2	2	0.5	Ethanol H10 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=H10 PB=2 SV=4
670	1	SwatProt	STY14_MOUSE	Sty14	122	75974	4	4	4	4	0.14	Plasma membrane calcium-transporting ATPase 4 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=ATP4 PB=1 SV=1
690	1	SwatProt	GGRE_MOUSE	Ggpd	122	88872	3	3	3	3	0.25	Synaptotagmin-like protein 4 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Sty14 PB=1 SV=1
698	1	SwatProt	LEH1A1_MOUSE	Leh1a1	119	82937	5	5	4	4	0.16	CDH10/CEH10, cadherin-like protein OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=LEH1A1 PB=1 SV=2
718	1	SwatProt	NSP_MOUSE	Nsf	117	82561	7	7	7	7	0.44	Mitochondrial proton/calcium exchanger protein OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Nsf PB=1 SV=1
726	1	SwatProt	GRPL1_MOUSE	Gprl1	114	27057	3	3	3	3	0.62	Vesicle-fusing ATPase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=GRPL1 PB=1 SV=2
742	1	SwatProt	ISGCA_MOUSE	Isgca	113	22403	4	4	4	4	1.12	Isodihydroxyacetone dehydratase OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=ISGCA PB=1 SV=1
750	1	SwatProt	ETFB_MOUSE	Etfb	109	27166	4	4	4	4	0.84	Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit beta OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=ETFB PB=1 SV=3
757	3	SwatProt	NELC3_MOUSE	Nelc3	108	38171	3	3	3	3	0.04	NELC repeat-containing protein 3 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=NELC3 PB=1 SV=1
777	1	SwatProt	AT2B1_MOUSE	Anb21	107	13462	4	4	4	4	0.14	Plasma membrane calcium-transporting ATPase 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=AT2B1 PB=1 SV=1
788	1	SwatProt	TM6S2_MOUSE	Tm6s2	107	72580	6	6	5	5	0.33	Transmembrane 9 superfamily member 2 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=TM6S2 PB=1 SV=1
770	1	SwatProt	BPFL_MOUSE	Bpfl	104	39884	4	4	4	4	0.33	4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate decarboxylase-like protein OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=BPFL PB=2 SV=1
771	1	SwatProt	STCB1_MOUSE	Shcd2	104	50082	5	5	5	5	0.23	Succinate-CoA lyase (ADP-forming) subunit beta, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=STCB1 PB=1 SV=2
777	1	SwatProt	FSCB_MOUSE	Fscb	103	114909	4	4	4	4	0.16	Pyruvate decarboxylase-binding protein OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=FSCB PB=1 SV=1

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1527	1	SnasProt	NDU81.MOUSE	Nduf81	37	79726	3	3	3	3	0.17	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 75 kDa subunit, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Nduf81 PF=1 SV=2
1544	1	SnasProt	ABCD3.MOUSE	Abcd3	36	75426	1	1	1	1	0.06	ATP-binding cassette sub-family D member 3 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Abcd3 PF=1 SV=2
1548	1	SnasProt	RAB10.MOUSE	Rab10	36	22227	1	1	1	1	0.21	Ras-related protein Rab-10 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Rab10 PF=1 SV=1
1560	1	SnasProt	TM9SF4.MOUSE	Tm9sf4	35	74644	2	2	2	2	0.12	Transmembrane 9 superfamily member 4 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=TM9SF4 PF=1 SV=1
1562	1	SnasProt	SCAM1.MOUSE	Scamp1	35	38004	1	1	1	1	0.12	Secretory carrier-associated membrane protein 1 OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Scamp1 PF=1 SV=1
1564	1	SnasProt	SUCA.MOUSE	Sucd1	35	36132	1	1	1	1	0.12	Succinate-CoA liase [ADP/GDP-forming subunit alpha, mitochondrial OS=Mus musculus OX=10090 GN=Sucd1 PF=1 SV=4