

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA MARIA
CENTRO DE CIÊNCIAS RURAIS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM MEDICINA VETERINÁRIA**

**CARACTERIZAÇÃO DO SISTEMA CALICREÍNA-
CININA DURANTE O PROCESSO OVULATÓRIO DE
BOVINOS**

DISSERTAÇÃO DE MESTRADO

Gustavo Freitas Ilha

Santa Maria, RS, Brasil

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CARACTERIZAÇÃO DO SISTEMA CALICREÍNA-CININA DURANTE O PROCESSO OVULATÓRIO DE BOVINOS

por

Gustavo Freitas Ilha

Dissertação apresentada ao Curso de Mestrado do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária, Área de Concentração em Fisiopatologia da Reprodução, da Universidade Federal de Santa Maria (UFSM, RS), como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de **Mestre em Medicina Veterinária.**

Orientador: Prof. João Francisco Coelho de Oliveira

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A Comissão Examinadora, abaixo assinada, aprova a Dissertação de Mestrado

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elaborada por
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como requisito parcial para obtenção do grau de
Mestre em Medicina Veterinária

Comissão Examinadora:

João Francisco Coelho de Oliveira, Dr.
(Presidente/Orientador)

Alceu Mezzalira, Dr. (UDESC)

Juliano Ferreira, Dr. (UFSM)

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RESUMO

Dissertação de Mestrado
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Medicina Veterinária
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CARACTERIZAÇÃO DO SISTEMA CALICREÍNA-CININA DURANTE O PROCESSO OVULATÓRIO DE BOVINOS

AUTOR: GUSTAVO FREITAS ILHA

ORIENTADOR: JOÃO FRANCISCO COELHO DE OLIVEIRA

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O sistema calicreína-cinina (KKS) tem sido descrito como um importante mediador de processos fisiológicos. Calicreínas utilizam o cininogênio (KNG) como substrato para formar a bradicinina, que é o principal peptídeo ativo do KKS o qual atua através de dois tipos de receptores, o B₁R e B₂R. O objetivo deste estudo foi caracterizar os principais componentes do KKS em diferentes compartimentos ovarianos durante o processo ovulatório de bovinos. A expressão de RNAm de KNG, B₁R e B₂R foi mensurada em células da teca e granulosa, e concentração de bradicinina e atividade de calicreína no fluido folicular de folículos peri-ovulatórios bovinos. Para obter um folículo peri-ovulatório ($\geq 12\text{mm}$), vinte e sete vacas foram submetidas a um protocolo de sincronização deaios e ovariectomizadas por colpotomia 0, 3, 6, 12 ou 24 horas após uma injeção de um análogo ao GnRH (gonadorelina; 100 μg , IM). O fluido folicular foi aspirado para os ensaios enzimáticos e as células da teca e granulosa dissecadas para análise do RNAm. A expressão do RNAm em células foliculares foi avaliada por PCR em tempo real e os dados representados em relação ao gene constitutivo ciclofilina. A concentração de bradicinina e atividade de calicreína foram mensuradas no fluido folicular por imunoenensaio enzimático e clivagem de substrato seletivo, respectivamente, e sua absorvância mensurada por leitor de placas. A expressão de RNAm para o KNG não variou em ambos os tipos celulares nos diferentes tempos ($P>0,05$), enquanto que para B₂R a expressão em células da teca e expressão para B₁R nas células da teca e granulosa apresentaram diferentes padrões durante o período peri-ovulatório ($P<0,05$). A concentração de bradicinina e a atividade de calicreína no fluido folicular foram diferentes ($P<0,05$) de acordo com o tempo durante o processo ovulatório. Estes resultados demonstram que o KKS está presente e há indicativos de sua regulação durante a ovulação em bovinos.

Palavras-chave: ovulação; sistema calicreína-cinina; bradicinina; ovário; bovino.

ABSTRACT

Master Course Dissertation
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CHARACTERIZATION OF KALLIKREIN-KININ SYSTEM DURING THE OVULATION PROCESS IN BOVINE

AUTHOR: GUSTAVO FREITAS ILHA
ADVISER: JOÃO FRANCISCO COELHO DE OLIVEIRA
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The kallikrein-kinin system (KKS) has been described as an important mediator of physiologic processes. Kallikreins use kininogen (KNG) as substrate to generate bradykinin, the principal active peptide of the KKS which acts through two types of receptors, the B₁R and B₂R. The objective of this study was to characterize some components of KKS in different compartments of ovary during the ovulation process in bovine. mRNA expression pattern of KNG, B₁R and B₂R was assessed in theca and granulosa cells and bradykinin concentration and kallikrein-like activity in follicular fluid of bovine peri-ovulatory follicles. In order to obtain a peri-ovulatory follicle ($\geq 12\text{mm}$), twenty-seven cows were submitted to estrus synchronization protocol and ovariectomized by colpotomy at 0, 3, 6, 12 or 24 hours after a GnRH-analog injection (gonadorelin; 100 μg , IM). Follicular fluid was aspirated for enzymatic assays and granulosa and theca cells were harvested for mRNA analysis. The mRNA expressions in follicular cells were evaluated by real-time RT-PCR and data represented as relative to housekeeping gene cyclophilin. Bradykinin concentration and Kallikrein-like activity was measured in follicular fluid by enzymatic immunoassay and selective substrate cleavage, respectively, and the absorbance measured using a plate reader. KNG mRNA expression was similar for both follicular cell types ($P>0.05$), while B₂R expression in theca cells and B₁R expression in theca and granulosa cells showed different profiles during peri-ovulatory period ($P<0.05$). Bradykinin concentration and kallikrein-like activity in follicular fluid were different ($P<0.05$) according the time during ovulation process. The results provide an important characterization of the presence and possible regulation of KKS during ovulation in bovine.

Key words: ovulation; kallikrein-kinin system; bradykinin; ovary; bovine.

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

A liberação de uma célula germinal feminina, o óvulo, pelo ovário é um evento chave na reprodução dos mamíferos (RICHARDS et al., 2002). Esse processo, chamado de ovulação, é o somatório de processos sequenciais que ocorrem simultaneamente em vários microambientes do ovário levando à ruptura do folículo culminando com a liberação do oócito maturo (RICHARDS et al., 2002). Esse evento tem sido comparado a uma resposta inflamatória devido a evidências de que folículos ovulatórios possuem eventos similares a tecidos inflamados (ESPEY, 1980). A sequência de eventos que ocorrem durante esse processo inicia no folículo ovulatório após o pico do hormônio luteinizante (LH), o qual atua tanto nas células da teca quanto nas células da granulosa ativando diferentes cascatas e sinalização (RICHARDS et al., 2002). Tais cascatas induzem a transcrição de genes específicos, os quais são expressos antes da ruptura do folículo (ESPEY, 1980; RICHARDS et al., 2002). No entanto, fatores intrafoliculares que iniciam e controlam o processo ovulatório ainda não estão totalmente esclarecidos.

O sistema caliceína-cinina (KKS) possui uma variedade de funções fisiológicas (BHOOLA et al., 1992), incluindo a participação no processo inflamatório em muitos tecidos (CLEMENTS et al., 1997). A bradicinina é a principal cinina mediadora da função do KKS nos diferentes tecidos. É gerada a partir da quebra do substrato primário, o cininogênio de alto peso molecular, pela enzima caliceína plasmática (BHOOLA et al., 1992). Os efeitos do KKS ocorrem via dois tipos de receptores que são o B₁R e o B₂R, embora a afinidade da bradicinina pelos receptores B₁R seja muito pequena, se comparada à afinidade pelos receptores B₂R (BHOOLA et al., 1992; MARCEAU et al., 1998).

A bradicinina é degradada rapidamente *in vivo*, com meia vida em torno de 16 segundos (BALLDIN et al., 1980), sua degradação é feita principalmente pela enzima conversora de angiotensina (ACE), também chamada de cininase II (MOREAU et al., 2005). Nosso grupo de pesquisa tem estudado o sistema renina-angiotensina (RAS), no qual a angiotensina II foi relacionada com uma série de eventos que controlam e desencadeiam as funções reprodutivas nas fêmeas, como desenvolvimento folicular, ovulação e maturação oocitária (FERREIRA et al., 2007; BARRETA et al., 2008; PORTELA et al., 2008). A ACE, responsável pela quebra da angiotensina I em angiotensina II é a principal responsável pela interação entre o RAS e KKS (CAMPBELL, 2003; SCHMAIER, 2003; SHEN & EL-DAHR, 2006). Assim, torna-se importante o estudo da participação do KKS na fisiologia reprodutiva, bem como a sua relação com o RAS nestes eventos fisiológicos. Melhores detalhes sobre a

participação do KKS estão sendo realizados *in vivo* por nosso grupo afim de melhor explicar a regulação desse sistema durante o processo ovulatório de bovinos, e posteriormente estudar sua relação com o RAS.

Baseado na idéia de que o processo ovulatório é relacionado a uma reação inflamatória, o envolvimento do KKS na ovulação tem sido estudado em espécies de ovulação múltipla (KIMURA et al., 2001). Estudos prévios nessa linha de pesquisa mostraram um aumento da atividade do KKS durante a ovulação em algumas espécies, tais como, roedores e suínos (SMITH & PERKS, 1983; ESPEY et al., 1986; GAO et al., 1992). Apesar das evidencias da participação do KKS em ovários de mamíferos, pouco é sabido sobre a distribuição celular e regulação dos componentes desse sistema em ovários monovulatórios. A partir disso, a proposta deste estudo foi determinar a distribuição temporal, nos diferentes compartimentos ovarianos, dos principais componentes do KKS durante o processo ovulatório de bovinos.

2. REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

2.1 - Ovulação

O desenvolvimento do folículo e ovulação são controlados por dois tipos de hormônios pituitários, o hormônio folículo estimulante (FSH) e o LH (ESPEY, 1980). Em *bos taurus*, somente folículos com diâmetro $\geq 12\text{mm}$ atingem concentrações adequadas de receptores de LH (LHR) (SARTORI et al., 2001). Esses folículos são chamados de pré-ovulatórios, os quais, a partir do pico de LH sofrem uma série de eventos regulatórios (RICHARDS, 1994). Entende-se por período peri-ovulatório o tempo entre o pico de LH e a ovulação, caracterizando-se pelas mudanças morfológicas, bioquímicas e moleculares que culminam com a liberação do oócito maturo (RICHARDS & PANGAS, 2010). A ligação do LH aos LHR, os quais são ligados a proteína G, nas células da teca e granulosa, ativam a adenilil ciclase que catalisa a formação de AMPc (Adenosina monofosfato cíclica) levando a ativação transitória da proteína cinase A e assim dando início à cascata de ovulação. Juntamente com esse evento inicia-se o processo de luteinização, mas esses são funcionalmente dissociados (ESPEY, 1980; RICHARDS et al., 2002). A partir do pico de LH, o oócito inicia sua competência a reiniciar a meiose, e os andrógenos sintetizados nas células da teca são transportados para as células da granulosa onde a enzima aromatase converte-os para 17 β -estradiol (ESPEY, 1980).

Com o pico de LH termina a expressão de genes associados com a foliculogênese e os padrões de sinalização rapidamente induzem a transcrição de genes ovulatórios específicos. Esses genes são expressos antes da ruptura do folículo (SIROTKIN, 2010) e iniciam ou alteram as cascatas de sinalização celulares causando ruptura folicular e promovendo o remodelamento folicular para formação do corpo lúteo (RICHARDS et al., 2002). Muitos eventos são espacialmente restritos a microambientes específicos dentro ou ao redor do folículo para permitir com sucesso a expulsão do complexo cumulus-oócito a partir do rompimento do folículo (DUGGAVATHI & MURPHY, 2009).

Os três principais grupos bioquímicos estudados durante o processo ovulatório são as rotas da progesterona, das prostaglandinas e das proteases (ESPEY, 1980). A progesterona foi sugerida também como mediadora da ovulação (FORTUNE et al., 2009). No ovário, o pico de LH rapidamente e seletivamente induz receptores de progesterona (PR) nas células da granulosa de folículos pré-ovulatórios (NATRAJ & RICHARDS, 1993). De outro modo, a deficiência desses receptores reduz a expressão de fatores de transcrição induzidos por

hipóxia (HIFs), os quais aumentam antes da ovulação e estão envolvidos tanto nesse processo quanto na formação do corpo lúteo (SIROTKIN, 2010). Da mesma forma, o bloqueio dos HIFs pode prevenir o efeito das gonadotrofinas na ovulação (KIM et al., 2009).

As proteases envolvidas no processo ovulatório mais estudadas são as enzimas ativadoras do plasminogênio (PAP), as metaloproteinases de matriz (MMPs) e ADAMTS -1 (A Disintegrin And Metalloproteinase with Thrombo Spondin motifs), esses são importantes para a ovulação, mas ainda estão sendo estudados (ROBKER et al., 2000). MMPs incluem uma variedade de subtipos que possuem expressão diferente de acordo com o tipo celular, teca ou granulosa (RICHARDS et al., 2002).

É sabido que o pico de LH pode estimular as proteínas cinases A B, e RAS e isso parece ser crucial para a ovulação (FAN et al., 2009) além de aumentar níveis de STAR e enzimas esteroidogênicas (CYP11A1, CYP17, HSD3B) e expressão de LHR (YOUNG & MCNEILLY, 2010). Em células da granulosa o LH também induz a expressão de fatores de crescimento associados ao fator de crescimento epidermal (EGF) como anfirregulina, epirregulina e β -celulina, que se ligam aos receptores EGF nessas células e induzem a expressão dos genes da cascata de produção de prostaglandinas (SHIMADA et al., 2006).

Células da granulosa do folículo pré-ovulatório respondem ao FSH, estradiol e IGF-1. São altamente proliferativas e expressam genes específicos que regulam o ciclo celular como, por exemplo, ciclina D2 (RICHARDS, 1994). Essas células da granulosa se diferenciam em resposta a esses hormônios em adquirirem a habilidade de sintetizar estradiol via enzima aromatase e ao responder ao LH. A sinalização ocorre através de receptores nucleares (DUGGAVATHI et al., 2008) que ativam AMPc e os membros da família EGF (PANIGONE et al., 2008). Apesar de haver uma grande densidade de receptores nas células da teca, o processo de ovulação só ocorre quando as células da granulosa adquirem receptores para LH (RICHARDS, 1994). Esse induz a transcrição de vários fatores nas células da granulosa, entre eles o fator I de regulação do crescimento (Egr -1), o CAAT regulador de ligação da proteína beta (C/EBP β) e o PR (NATRAJ & RICHARDS, 1993; RICHARDS & PANGAS, 2010). Proteínas cinases ativadoras de mitose (MAPK) intracelulares são padrões de sinalização em células da granulosa relacionadas com a ovulação, principalmente ERK 1 e ERK 2 são induzidas por LH e conseqüentemente relacionadas a ruptura do folículo e formação do corpo lúteo (FAN et al., 2008). De outra forma, a interleucina 6 pode mediar alguns processos a partir da ligação dos receptores de progesterona nas células da granulosa e as citocinas também são produzidas por células ovarianas durante a ovulação, mas isto ainda precisa ser melhor elucidado (RICHARDS & PANGAS, 2010).

Apesar das células da teca apresentarem um padrão de expressão de genes importantes para a ovulação, uma significativa função a elas ainda não está claramente elucidada. Se a ovulação é de fato relacionada com inflamação, talvez a camada celular da teca possua um papel adicional, como por exemplo, uma barreira impedindo a liberação inapropriada do oócito ou para sua proteção (RICHARDS et al., 2002). Antes da ruptura do folículo deve ocorrer a digestão da matriz extracelular (MEC) nas camadas da teca e túnica albugínea na superfície do ovário (ESPEY, 1980; RICHARDS et al., 2002), processo no qual a protease catépsina L pode estar envolvida (ESPEY, 1980).

A presença das prostaglandinas no processo ovulatório leva a idéia que este processo seja parecido com uma resposta inflamatória. As prostaglandinas são produzidas a partir do ácido aracônico pela ação das cicloxigenases (COX) 1 e 2 (SILVA et al., 2000). A COX-1 expressa em muitos tecidos de forma constitutiva (DEWITT & SMITH, 1995) enquanto COX-2 é uma enzima induzível relacionada a processos patofisiológicos (HINZ & BRUNE, 2002). Gonadotrofinas aumentam a expressão de COX-2 nas células da granulosa, mas não há mudança alguma na expressão de COX-1 (RICHARDS, 1997). Em bovinos a expressão de RNAm e proteína para COX-2 tem sido demonstrada em células da granulosa de folículos pré-ovulatórios (LIU et al., 1997; LIU & SIROIS, 1998). Após o pico de LH, o aumento na expressão de COX-2 está associado com a elevação nas concentrações das prostaglandinas no fluido folicular (SIROIS, 1994; LIU et al., 1997), assim como uma maior expressão do receptor para $PGF2\alpha$, nas células foliculares bovinas (BRIDGES & FORTUNE, 2007).

Devido ao fato de que o processo ovulatório seja semelhante a uma resposta inflamatória, alguns grupos de pesquisa estão estudando o papel do KKS nesse evento fisiológico (GAO et al., 1992; HOLLAND et al., 2001; KIMURA et al., 2001; BRANN et al., 2002). Este sistema está relacionado com o RAS (CAMPBELL, 2003; SCHMAIER, 2003), aumentando sua suspeita de participar desse evento fisiológico, pois a angiotensina II, principal peptídeo do RAS, recentemente foi reconhecida como essencial para a ovulação (FERREIRA et al., 2007).

2.2 - Sistema calicreína-cinina no ovário

O KKS possui uma variedade de funções fisiológicas que incluem vasodilatação, ativação e inativação de proteases, estimulação da síntese de prostaglandinas e contratibilidade da musculatura lisa (BHOOLA et al., 1992). O cininogênio é a proteína precursora das cininas e é clivado pelas cininases para gerar calidina e bradicinina, a principal cinina mediadora das respostas do KKS (BHOOLA et al., 1992; CAMPBELL,

2003). As cininas atuam via dois tipos de receptores, o tipo 1 (B_1R) e o tipo 2 (B_2R) (MARCEAU et al., 1998; LEEB-LUNDBERG et al., 2005). O B_2R normalmente predomina nos tecidos, enquanto o B_1R é induzido pela injúria tecidual (CAMPBELL, 2003).

Existem dois tipos de cininogênio no plasma dos mamíferos, chamados de cininogênio de baixo peso molecular (LMWK) e cininogênio alto peso molecular (HMWK) os quais são estruturalmente parecidos (KITAMURA et al., 1987). Os cininogênios são os únicos precursores do KKS e são codificados por um único gene (CAMPBELL, 2003), localizado no cromossomo 3q26 o qual tem origem a partir de duas duplicações sucessivas do gene primordial do cininogênio (MOREAU et al., 2005). O gene precursor consiste em 11 exons, os primeiros nove codificam a cadeia pesada, enquanto o décimo é responsável pela codificação da bradicinina e a cadeia leve é codificada pelo exon 11. Ambos HMWK e LMWK possuem uma sequência idêntica de aminoácidos que inicia na cadeia pesada (N-terminal) e continua 12 aminoácidos além da porção da bradicinina, mas diferencia da porção C-terminal, como um “splicing” alternativo, proporcionando assim as duas metades com cininogênios diferentes de cadeia leve (KITAMURA et al., 1987). Na verdade, as proteínas nativas são produzidas como polipeptídios de cadeia única, e as nomenclaturas da cadeia leve ou pesada se referem à sua ponte dissulfeto gerada a partir da ativação da caliceína (MOREAU et al., 2005). Devido a este fator tem sido indicado que LMWK e HMWK são estruturalmente relacionados (KITAMURA et al., 1987), pois ambos possuem uma sequência idêntica, que é a cadeia pesada (KITAMURA et al., 1987; MOREAU et al., 2005).

As cininogenases, as quais são proteases serinas que usam os cininogênios como substrato para gerar bradicinina e calidina, são membros de uma família multigênica em muitas espécies (CLEMENTS et al., 1997). Esta família de enzimas está envolvida em diversas respostas biológicas (HOLLAND et al., 2001), sendo estudadas tanto como biomarcadores quanto para modelos de regulação hormonal (LAWRENCE et al., 2010). Em humanos, caliceína plasmática forma bradicinina a partir do HMWK enquanto a caliceína tecidual forma calidina do LMWK (BHOOLA et al., 1992). Em contraste, tanto a caliceína plasmática quanto a tecidual gera bradicinina em roedores, que pode também ser gerada pela clivagem da calidina mediada por aminopeptidase (CAMPBELL, 2003).

A pré-caliceína e a caliceína estão presentes em células da granulosa de folículos imaturos e maduros em bovinos (PLENDL et al., 2002). O padrão da atividade de caliceína e de genes que a codificam é maior após o pico de LH e diminui até o momento que se aproxima da ovulação em ratos (GAO et al., 1992; HOLLAND et al., 2001). Esses diferentes padrões de expressão suportam uma diferente função para as caliceínas durante o processo

ovulatório (HOLLAND et al., 2001). Embora os genes que codificam calicreínas tem se mostrado como hormônio responsivos ainda não é claro que esses genes sejam metas específicas e diretas para a atuação desses hormônios (LAWRENCE et al., 2010). Portanto, mais estudos na regulação das calicreínas devem esclarecer os pontos entre a regulação hormonal e expressão de calicreínas (HOLLAND et al., 2001).

Bradicinina é um nonapeptídeo, da família das cininas, potente mediador da maioria das respostas do sistema calicreína-cininas (BHOOLA et al., 1992; CAMPBELL, 2003). Esta cinina foi relacionada com a indução da ovulação em coelhos (YOSHIMURA et al., 1988) e ratas (HELLBERG et al., 1991) além de potencializar a ação do LH nesta espécie (BRANNSTROM & HELLBERG, 1989). Existem evidências em que a bradicinina está envolvida na contração da parede folicular durante a ovulação em humanos (HELLBERG & NORSTROM, 1990). Além disso, estimula parcialmente a maturação nuclear do oócito em ratas, porém o mecanismo é desconhecido (HELLBERG et al., 1991). A bradicinina também pode ser um importante mediador de sinais esteróides no hipotálamo com função na liberação de LH pela hipófise (SHI et al., 1998).

Outros estudos indicaram que a bradicinina e um produto de sua degradação, a bradicinina 1-5, estão presentes nos folículos nos ovários de fêmeas suínas, sugerindo a importância da bradicinina no desenvolvimento folicular e ovulação (KIHARA et al., 2000). Essa cinina aumenta a expressão de MMPs em células da granulosa de suínos e esse pode ser o mecanismo utilizado pelo peptídeo na indução da ovulação nessa espécie (KIMURA et al., 2001).

A bradicinina é degradada rapidamente *in vivo*, com meia vida em torno de 16 segundos (BALLDIN et al., 1980). Várias cininas capazes de metabolizar as cininas tem sido estudadas (ERDOS & DEDDISH, 2002), entre elas a enzima conversora de angiotensina (ACE I), a aminopeptidase P, endopeptidase neutra (NEP) e as carboxipeptidases M e N (MOREAU et al., 2005). Estes estão presentes na forma solúvel em fluidos biológicos e dependem da espécie animal, abordagem, meio biológico e contexto fisiopatológico (ERDOS & DEDDISH, 2002).

Os efeitos do KKS ocorrem via dois tipos de receptores que são o B₁R e o B₂R, embora a afinidade da bradicinina pelos receptores B₁R seja muito pequena, se comparada à afinidade pelos receptores B₂R (BHOOLA et al., 1992; MARCEAU et al., 1998). O B₁R media a ação da des-Arg⁹-BK e Lys-des-Arg⁹-BK, que são os metabólitos bioativos formados através das ações das carboxipeptidases sobre a bradicinina e calidina, respectivamente (LEEB-LUNDBERG et al., 2005). Esses receptores estão ligados a proteína G e possuem

padrão distinto de expressão nos tecidos, pois, enquanto os receptores B₁R são induzidos por inflamação ou dano tecidual, os receptores B₂R são constitutivamente expressos em vários locais, como células da musculatura lisa e células endoteliais e são os responsáveis pelas principais ações do KKS (ABADIR et al., 2003).

Em eventos reprodutivos, o B₁R foi somente demonstrado em células de ovários de hamsters (AUSTIN et al., 1997). Por outro lado, muitos pesquisadores tem estudado os receptores B₂R (KIHARA et al., 2000; KIMURA et al., 2001; PLENDL et al., 2002; OHKURA et al., 2003; SINGH et al., 2010). A localização dos receptores B₂R em ovário suíno por hibridização e imunohistoquímica já foi descrita (KIMURA et al., 2001) e a sua expressão nas células da granulosa é diferente de acordo com a espécie (OHKURA et al., 2003). Esses pesquisadores indicaram que o nível de receptores B₂R no ovário de ratas é razoavelmente constante, e que o efeito biológico da bradicinina nesse órgão pode ser dependente de concentrações dos ligantes produzidos pelo KKS.

Devido às evidências do papel do KKS em ovaries de mamíferos, e ao fato de que pouco é sabido sobre a regulação dos seus componentes nos distintos compartimentos ovarianos e em ovários monovolatórios. Torna-se importante o conhecimento do papel deste sistema durante o processo ovulatório ajudando a um melhor entendimento das funções fisiológicas, aplicação em biotecnologias da reprodução e no tratamento de infertilidade. A proposta do presente estudo foi caracterizar a presença e regulação dos principais componentes do KKS durante o processo ovulatório de bovinos.

3. CAPÍTULO 1

TRABALHO ENVIADO PARA PUBLICAÇÃO:

CHARACTERIZATION OF KALLIKREIN-KININ SYSTEM DURING THE OVULATION PROCESS IN BOVINE

**Gustavo Freitas Ilha, Joabel Tonello dos Santos, Alisson Minozzo da
Silveira, Karina Gutierrez, Camila de Campos Velho Gewehr, Sara
Marchesan, Juliano Ferreira, Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves, João Francisco
Coelho de Oliveira**

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CHARACTERIZATION OF KALLIKREIN-KININ SYSTEM DURING THE OVULATION PROCESS IN BOVINE

Gustavo Freitas Ilha^I, Joabel Tonello dos Santos^I, Alisson Minozzo da Silveira,
Karina Gutierrez^I, Camila dos Santos Velho Gewehr^{II}, Sara Marchesan^{II}, Juliano
Ferreira^{III}, Paulo Bayard Dias Gonçalves^{IV}, João Francisco Coelho de Oliveira^{IV*}

Abstract

The kallikrein-kinin system (KKS) has been described as an important mediator of physiologic processes. Kallikreins use kininogen (KNG) as substrate to generate bradykinin, the principal active peptide of the KKS which acts through two types of receptors, the B₁R and B₂R. The objective of this study was to characterize some components of KKS in different compartments of ovary during the ovulation process in bovine. mRNA expression pattern of KNG, B₁R and B₂R was assessed in theca and granulosa cells and bradykinin concentration and kallikrein-like activity in follicular fluid of bovine peri-ovulatory follicles. In order to obtain a peri-ovulatory follicle (≥ 12 mm), twenty-seven cows were submitted to estrus synchronization protocol and ovariectomized by colpotomy at 0, 3, 6, 12 or 24 hours after a GnRH-analog injection (gonadorelin; 100 μ g, IM). Follicular fluid was aspirated for enzymatic assays and granulosa and theca cells were harvested for mRNA analysis. The mRNA expressions in follicular cells were evaluated by real-time RT-PCR and data represented as relative to housekeeping gene cyclophilin. Bradykinin concentration and Kallikrein-like activity was measured in follicular fluid by enzymatic immunoassay and selective substrate cleavage, respectively, and the absorbance measured using a plate reader. KNG mRNA expression was similar for both follicular cell types ($P > 0.05$), while B₂R expression in theca cells and B₁R expression in theca and granulosa cells showed different profiles during peri-ovulatory period ($P < 0.05$). Bradykinin concentration and kallikrein-like activity in follicular fluid were different ($P < 0.05$) according the time during ovulation process. The results provide an important characterization of the presence and possible regulation of KKS during ovulation in bovine.

Key words: ovulation, kallikrein-kinin system, bradykinin, ovary, bovine.

^IPostgraduate Program in Veterinary Medicine, UFSM. Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

^{II}Postgraduate Program in Chemistry, UFSM. Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

^{III}Laboratório de Neurotoxicidade, Labneuro, UFSM. Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

^{IV}Laboratório de Biotecnologia e Reprodução Animal, BioRep, UFSM. Santa Maria, RS, Brazil.

*e-mail: jf@biorep.ufsm.br. *Author for correspondence.

31 1. Introduction

32 The ovulation is characterized as a sequence of events that occur in a responsive
33 preovulatory follicle after a surge of luteinizing hormone (LH) [12, 31]. This event is
34 controlled by a complex interaction of factors, on that is including endocrines mechanisms,
35 cellular messengers, proteases, cinases and activating enzymes [12]. The ovulation process,
36 that culminates at the rupture of follicle releasing the oocyte on the surface of the ovary, has
37 been compared to an inflammatory response and involves simultaneously several ovarian
38 microenvironments [31].

39 The kallikrein-kinin system (KKS) is an important mediator of inflammatory
40 response for acts on vasodilatation, activation and inactivation of proteases, stimulation of
41 prostaglandin biosynthesis, as well as induction of smooth muscle contractility [4, 14, 25].
42 Kininogen (KNG) is a precursor protein of KKS, plasma kallikrein use KNG as substrate to
43 generate bradykinin while tissue kallikrein liberates kallidin, that is cleaved to bradykinin [4,
44 11] . Bradykinin is a nonapeptide kinin main mediator of KKS responses [4, 8]. This system
45 acts by two types of receptors, the type 1 (B₁R) and the type 2 receptor (B₂R),

46 Therefore the ovulation resembles an inflammatory process and the KKS is involved
47 at inflammatory function, this system has been suggested as a possible important mediator of
48 ovulatory process [5, 17-19]. Some groups have been studding this system in other
49 reproductive processes in different species. The role of KKS was already described to
50 participate of gonadotropin hormone secretion [35-36], follicular development [18], embryo
51 implantation and uterine contraction at parturition [26, 39].

52 Despite the increasing evidences for the role of KKS in the ovaries of mammals,
53 little is known about the regulation of these components at distinct ovarian compartments and
54 in monovulatory ovaries. On the other hand, the intrafollicular factors that initiate and control
55 the ovulatory process are not well understood [13]. Thus, the knowledge of the role of this
56 system during the ovulatory process can allow a better control of physiological function to be
57 applied to reproduction biotechnology and treatment of infertility. The purpose of the present
58 study was characterizes the presence and regulation of some KKS components during the
59 ovulation process in bovine.

60 2. Material and methods

61 The procedures performed in this experiment were approved to the Ethics
62 and Animal Welfare, Universidade Federal de Santa Maria, 23081.007716/2010-61 protocol.

63 2.1. Animals and experimental design

64 Twenty-seven cyclic beef cows, predominantly hereford and angus, with an average
65 body condition score of 3 (1–5, emaciated to obese) were pre-synchronized to obtain a GnRH
66 (≥ 12 mm; [32]) responsible follicle at beginning of experiment. The protocol utilized was first
67 described [13], on day zero was administered estradiol benzoate (EB, 2mg, IM) with
68 progesterone intravaginal device (DIB®, 1g, Intervet/Schering-Plough, Brasil). At day 9,
69 DIB was removed and the animals received PGF2 α analog (Cloprostenol, 250 μ g, IM,
70 Sincrocio®, Ourofino, Brazil). In females that had ≥ 12 mm pré-ovulatory follicles at Day 10,
71 was administered GnRH analog (Gonadorelin, 100 μ g IM, Profertil®, Tortuga, Brazil) and the
72 ovaries were removed 0, 3, 6, 12 e 24 h after GnRH by colpotomy [10].

73 Immediately after ovariectomy, follicular fluid, granulosa and theca cells were
74 recovery from the largest follicle and stored at -80°C [7]. The granulosa cells were stored in
75 buffer RLT° (600UL, Qiagen, Mississauga, Canada) and the theca cells in trizol (600uL,
76 Invitrogen, Brasil), both in cryogenic tubs.

77 2.2. Nucleic Acid Extraction and Real-Time RT-PCR

78 Total RNA was extracted using Trizol (theca cells) or silica based protocol
79 (granulosa cells; Qiagen, Mississauga, Canada) according to the manufacturer's instructions
80 and was quantified by absorbance at 260 nm. Total RNA (1 μ g) was first treated with 0.2U
81 DNase (Invitrogen, Brazil) at 37°C for 5 minutes to digest any contaminating DNA, followed
82 by heating to 65°C for 3 minutes. The RNA was reverse transcribed (RT) in the presence of 1
83 μ M oligo(dT), primer, 4 U Omniscript RTase (Omniscript RT Kit; Qiagen, Mississauga,
84 Canada), 0.5 μ M dideoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP) mix, and 10 U RNase Inhibitor
85 (Invitrogen, Brazil) in a volume of 20 μ L at 37°C for 1 hour. The reaction was terminated by
86 incubation at 93°C for 5 minutes.

87 Real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was conducted in a Step One Plus
88 instrument (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Canada) with Platinum SYBR Green qPCR
89 SuperMix (Invitrogen, Brazil) and bovine-specific primers KNG (Initiator *sense*:
90 TTGGCTGTGTGCATCCCATA and *anti-sense*: AGGTGGGAATGACTGGTGTTG); B₂R
91 (Initiator *sense*: TCACCAACATCCTCCTGAACTCT and *anti-sense*:

92 CGTGGCCTTCCTCTCAGTCT); and B₁R (Initiator *sense*: CTCGACGGCGTCTGAACAC
93 and *anti-sense*: CGGATGTTCTCTGCCAGAA). Common thermal cycling parameters (3
94 minutes at 95°C, 40 cycles of 15 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 60°C, and 30 seconds at
95 72°C) were used to amplify each transcript. Melting-curve analyses were performed to verify
96 product identity. Samples were run in duplicate and were expressed relative to Cyclophilin as
97 housekeeping gene. The relative quantification of gene expression across treatments was
98 evaluated using the ddCT method [23]. Briefly, the dCT is calculated as the difference
99 between the CT of the investigated gene and the CT of Cyclophilin in each sample. The ddCT
100 of each investigated gene is calculated as the difference between the dCT in each treated
101 sample and the dCT of the sample with lower gene expression (higher dCT). The fold change
102 in relative mRNA concentrations was calculated using the formula 2^{-ddCT} . Bovine-specific
103 primers were taken from literature or designed using Primer Express Software v3.0 (Applied
104 Biosystems, USA) and synthesized by Invitrogen, Canada. The cross-contamination in
105 granulosa and theca cells was tested by Real time PCR by deletion of mRNA that encodes
106 P450 aromatase (CYP19A1) and 17 α -hydroxylase (CYP17A1), respectively. Granulosa cells
107 that expressed CYP17A1 and theca cells that expressed CYP19A1 were discarded [7].

108 2.3. Kallikrein-like activity in follicular fluid

109 The activity of a tissue kallikrein-like enzyme was measured on the selective
110 peptide-nitroanilide substrate D-Val-Leu-Arg-paranitroaniline (D-Val-Leu-Arg-pNA,
111 dissolved in ultrapure water to a concentration of 1.5 mM and stored at 4°C). The method
112 used for measurement of tissue kallikrein as previously described [30] with some
113 modifications. To determine the kallikrein activity, 25 μ l of follicular fluid were added in 50 μ l
114 of assay buffer (0.2M Tris-HCl, pH 8.2, with 0.01M EDTA) and 25 μ l of substrate (D-Val-
115 Leu-Arg-pNA, 0.375mM) in 96 wells micro plates. The incubation mixtures were maintained
116 at 37 °C and the reaction was followed measuring the absorbance at 405 nm (measured in a
117 Plate reader, Bioteck, USA), from zero until 100 minutes (0, 3, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80,
118 90 e 100 minutes). For each experiment, we carried out a standard curve with the product
119 generated by reaction (p-nitroaniline, 0.003-3 mM).

120 2.4. Estimation of kinin levels in follicular fluid

121 The bradykinin enzyme was measured by enzyme immunoassays used a high-
122 sensitivity kit for BK (Bachem, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 50 μ l
123 of standard solutions or test samples were added to immunoplate multiwells, 25 μ l of each
124 primary antiserum and biotinylated peptide solution were then added, and the plates were

125 incubated for 2h at room temperature with mild agitation. The plates were then washed five
126 times, and 100µl of diluted streptavidin-conjugated horseradish peroxidase solution was
127 added to each well. After a 60min incubation at room temperature, the immunoplates were
128 washed five times, and 100 µl of 3,3',5,5'-tetramethyl benzidine dihydrochloride (TMB)
129 solution was added to each well. After a further 30min incubation at room temperature, the
130 reaction was stopped with 100 µl of 2 N HCl. Absorbance was read at 450nm (measured in a
131 Plate reader, Bioteck, USA), using 100 µl of TMB solution and 100 µl 2 N HCl as a blank
132 control.

133 2.5. Statistical analysis

134 The differences on continuous data between hours during the ovulation process were
135 accessed by paired Student's T test using cow as subject. Data were tested for normal
136 distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test and normalized when necessary. All analyses were
137 performed using JMP software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, USA) and a $P < 0.05$ was considered
138 statistically significant. Data are presented as means \pm sem.

139 3. Results

140 3.1. The ovulation process model

141 This experimental design aimed to recovery peri-ovulatory follicles in different
142 periods of ovulation process. For this, the cows were ovariectomized 0, 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours
143 after LH peak induction and follicular cells, granulosa and theca, and follicular fluid were
144 used for characterization of KKS during this physiologic event. There were no differences
145 regarding follicular diameter in different time-points before ovariectomy (evaluated through
146 ultrasound; data not shown). The concentration of oestradiol increased 3h after treatment with
147 GnRH, that is expected time of endogenous LH peak, and gradually decreased thereafter, until
148 24 hours (data not shown).

149 3.2. Gene expression of KNG, B₁R and B₂R in follicular cells

150 The KKS precursor expression, or KNG, was similar for both follicular cell types,
151 granulosa and theca, during the ovulation ($P > 0.05$, Figure 1A and 1B). The mRNA expression
152 of B₂R receptor was constant during the ovulation process in granulosa cells, with no
153 difference ($P > 0.05$) at different times after LH peak induction (Figure 1C). However, in theca
154 cells the mRNA B₂R receptor expression showed an increase ($P < 0.05$) after GnRH (hour
155 zero) injection until 6h, and decrease gradually at 12h remaining constant until 24h (Figure

156 1D). The B₁R receptor mRNA expression was different in both follicular cells types during
157 the assessed times. In granulosa cells (Figure 1E) the expression increased only at 6h and
158 decrease after this. In theca cells (Figure 1F) B₁R expression increase at 3h and 6h decreasing
159 at 12h and then remaining constant until 24h.

160 3.3. Follicular fluid concentration of kallikrein and bradykinin

161 The activity of kallikrein and the levels of kinins was measured for identify these
162 components of KKS in follicular fluid and to test the hypothesis that after LH surge, during
163 ovulation process, these components are regulated. Results for kallikrein-like activity in
164 follicular fluid showed a decrease ($P<0.05$) between the LH ovulatory peak induction (hour
165 zero) and 24h (Figure 2A), however there was no difference between zero and 12h.
166 Bradykinin showed difference ($P<0.05$) during ovulation. BK increased after zero hour until
167 6h, decreasing until 12h and remaining constant until 24h (Figure 2B).

168 4. Discussion

169 The results confirm the presence of some components of KKS during the ovulation
170 and show the differences in mRNA profiles in bovine ovaries. In this study we used an in vivo
171 approach to study the ovulation event in bovine. This specie, in contrast with rodents, is a
172 great monovulatory model and has a wide time between the LH surge and ovulation, around
173 24 to 30 hours. The presence of components of KKS system in bovine ovary was first shown
174 in cultured granulosa cells [28]. According previous studies it was not clear if the KKS was
175 synthesized at the ovary or are of hepatic origin, since an unknown mechanism would be
176 responsible for moving such compounds into the follicles [18]. Our results support that KNG
177 is synthesized at ovary. These are the first results, using a sensitive semi-quantitative RT-PCR
178 and enzymatic assay for KKS components, where this system is assessed in different
179 follicular cells types and in follicular fluid after LH surge induction until the moment
180 preceding ovulation in a monovulatory specie.

181 KNG was expressed in both follicular cells and did not differ at the times during this
182 event in bovine (Figure 1A and 1B). The kininogens are the sole precursors of the KKS and
183 are coded by a single gene [8, 25]. There are at least two distinct kininogens in mammalian
184 plasma, designated low molecular weight (LMWK) and high molecular weight (HMWK)
185 kininogens and was indicated that LMWK and HMWK are structurally related [20]. Both
186 HMWK and LMWK have an identical aminoacid sequence starting named heavy chain [20,
187 25]. On this study the primer used for KNG was designed based on the sequence of the heavy
188 chain, so we assessed mRNA expression for total KNG, both LMWK and HMWK

189 kininogens, in different times and follicular cells at ovulation in bovine. KNG is highest in
190 mature tertiary follicles of cultured bovine granulosa cells [28]. Different of our results, in
191 equine chorionic gonadotropin (eCG) primed-immature rats the total ovarian KNG levels
192 showed a progressive rise at time immediately preceding the beginning of ovulation [5, 14].

193 The enzyme that cleaves KNG, named kallikrein, was identified in follicular
194 fluid confirming the hypothesis that this enzyme participates and is possible regulated
195 during the ovulatory process in cattle (Figure 2A). There is a decrease after LH peak
196 induction in relationship the moment before the ovulation moment, about 24 to 30h near the
197 time of ovulation. Kallikreins, which are serine proteases that use KNG by substrate to
198 generate the kallidin and bradykinin, are a member of a multigene family in several species
199 [9]. This family of enzymes are involved in a diverse range of biological responses [17], and
200 holds great promise not just as a panel of biomarkers and potential therapeutic targets, but
201 also as an important model of hormonal regulation [21]. The expression and hormonal
202 regulation of the tissue kallikrein gene family in the rat was previously extensively
203 characterized [9]. While, pre-kallikrein and kallikrein has been described in cultured bovine
204 granulosa cells of immature follicles cells and mature follicles cells, respectively [28].

205 The pattern of kallikrein activity and kallikrein genes in rat ovaries is high after LH
206 peak induction and decrease as it approaches the time of ovulation in the well-established
207 ovulatory model eCG primed, hCG stimulated immature rat [14, 17]. Our results suggest a
208 similarity in kallikrein activity during ovulation in rats and cattle. Tissue kallikrein does play
209 a role in ovulation, however, further studies are required to determine the sites of action.
210 Although all kallikrein genes have been shown to be hormone-responsive, it is not yet clear
211 which genes are specific and direct targets of each hormone receptor [21]. Future studies on
212 the hormonal regulation of kallikreins should clarify this point and distinguish between
213 hormone-related and hormone-regulated kallikrein expression.

214 Bradykinin, the mainly peptide of KKS, is present in follicular fluid and has an up
215 regulation after GnRH treatment, reaching peak at 6h and decrease after this during the
216 ovulation process in bovine (Figure 2B). Bradykinin is a nonapeptide kinin produced potent
217 mediator of a wide variety of KKS responses [4, 8]. This peptide induces ovulation in
218 perfused rabbit [40] and rat ovaries [16] and potentiates the action of LH [6]. There are
219 evidences that this peptide is involved in follicular-wall contraction during ovulation [15].
220 These researches indicate a modulator role of bradykinin, possibly involving prostacyclin late
221 in the ovulatory process, in the rat. Other studies demonstrated that when using porcine
222 ovaries, not only all components of the KKS but also its product, bradykinin, are present

223 within the follicles [18]. On the other hand, bradykinin in neurons appear to be important
224 mediators of steroid signals in the hypothalamus to produce the LH surge, through B₂R in
225 female rat [36]. This study showed the presence of bradykinin in follicular fluid, but more
226 studies have to do for clarify the importance of this kinin in bovine reproduction.

227 Bradykinin is known to be degraded rapidly in vivo, with a half-life of about 16
228 seconds [2]. Various peptidases are capable of metabolizing kinins have been extensively
229 reviewed [11]. These are angiotensin I-converting enzyme (ACE), aminopeptidase P, neutral
230 endopeptidase 24.11 (NEP, neprilysin), and carboxypeptidases M and N [25]. They are all
231 present in a soluble form in biologic fluids and depend on the animal species, the analytical
232 approach, the biological milieu, and the pathophysiological context [25]. In similar ovulation
233 experiment model, our group showed that ACE mRNA expressions were transiently up
234 regulated reaching greater expression 6h post-GnRH treatment in theca but not in granulosa
235 cells (SIQUEIRA et al. data not published). On the other hand, mRNA expression of NEP
236 increased 12 and 24h after GnRH treatment in granulosa cells but not in theca cells (SANTOS
237 et al. data not published). These results show a possible participation of peptidases at
238 bradykinin at down regulation in bovine follicles but more studies are necessary to explain
239 this hypothesis.

240 The expression of KKS receptors in different follicular cell types showed that B₁R
241 was induced in both follicular cells types while B₂R was constitutively expressed in granulosa
242 cells (Figure 1E and 1F) and possible induced in theca cells (Figure 1D and 1E). These two
243 types of G-protein-coupled receptors mediate the cellular effects of kinins [22, 24]. The
244 effects of bradykinin and kallidin are believed to be mediated particularly the B₂R [4, 24].
245 Whereas the B₁R mediates the action of des-Arg⁹-BK and Lys-des-Arg⁹-BK, the second set
246 of bioactive kinins formed through the actions of carboxypeptidases on bradykinin and
247 kallidin, respectively [22]. These receptors are expressed under biologically different
248 circumstances [24]. B₂R are constitutively expressed on many cell types and are responsible
249 for the majority of the observed effects of kinins, however B₁R is induced only in
250 inflammation [1, 28].

251 At reproductive events, B₁R was only showed in chinese hamster ovary cells [1],
252 while some researchers has been studding B₂R [18-19, 27-28, 37]. The presence of B₂R is
253 different into de species [18], and the expression is constant in theca and granulosa porcine
254 cells and in mouse ovaries [19, 27]. The results of our study, besides highlight the difference
255 of B₂R expression into species, shows that there are B₁R and B₂R expression in theca and
256 granulosa cells in bovine ovary and demonstrates that the pattern of expression is different

257 between the two follicular cells types. Moreover, for the first time demonstrated that the
258 expression of B₁R in both follicular cells and B₂R in theca cells can be regulated during
259 ovulation in cattle. With these results we can postulate a possible regulation of these KKS
260 receptors at ovulation in cattle.

261 Our research group has been studying the renin-angiotensin system (RAS), in which
262 angiotensin II was related to a series of events that control and trigger the reproductive
263 functions in females, such as follicle development, ovulation and oocyte maturation [3, 13,
264 29, 38]. Some researches has been working which the interaction in some physiological
265 events between the RAS and KKS [8, 33-34]. Better information about reproductive functions
266 of have to be understood. Thus, it becomes important to study the involvement of KKS in
267 reproductive physiology, as well as their relationship with KKS.

268 This study, using an in vivo approach, confirms the presence of some components of
269 KKS during the ovulation in bovine. According our results, KNG is synthesized in ovary,
270 kallikrein has a possible down regulation while bradykinin has an up regulation and decrease
271 after this. We show that there are B₁R and B₂R expression in theca and granulosa cells and
272 demonstrates that the pattern of expression is different between the two follicular cells types
273 and in different times. In summary, the KKS is present and there are evidences of its
274 regulation at the ovulatory process in bovine. More research has to do for clarify the
275 regulation and importance of KKS during this physiological event.

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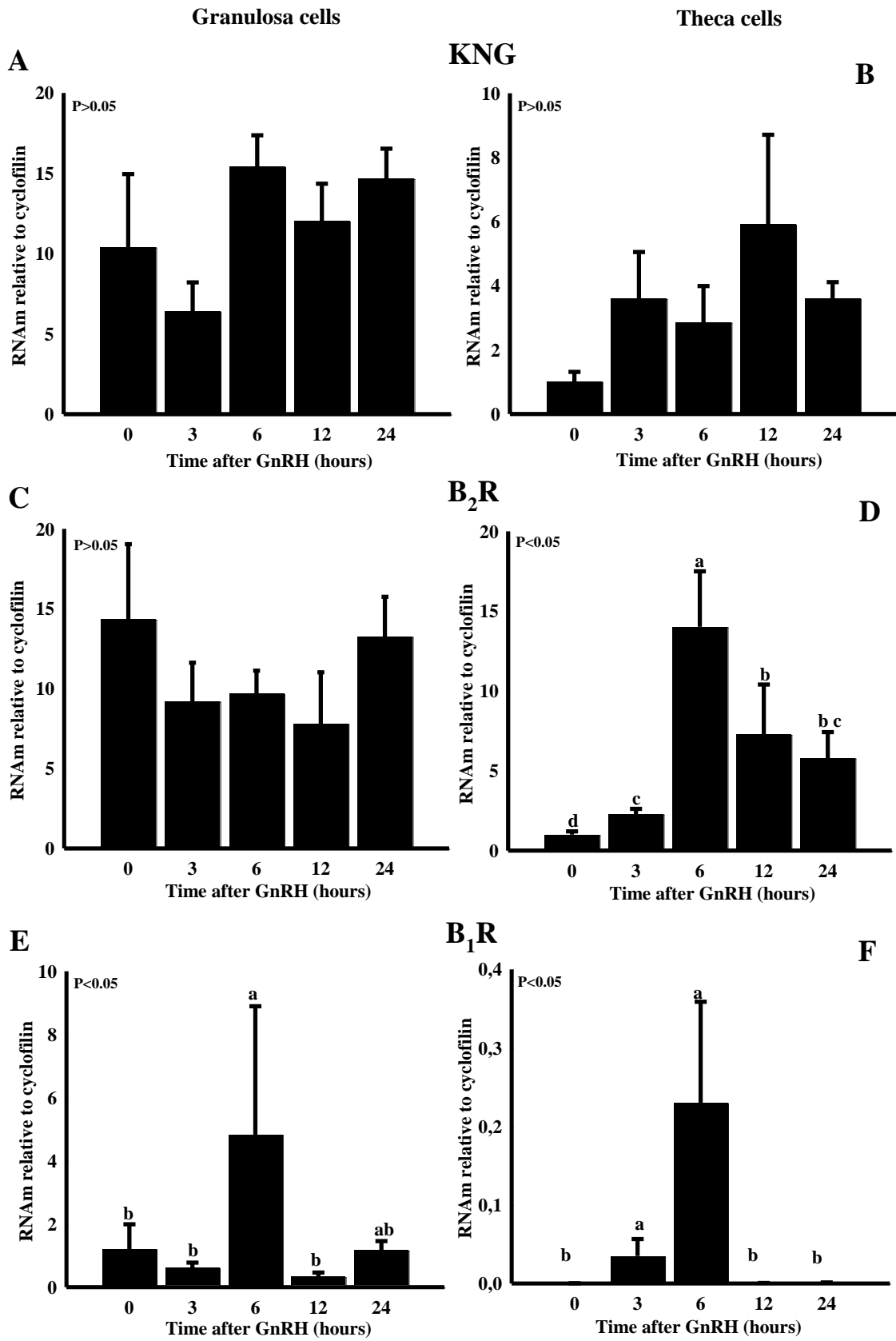
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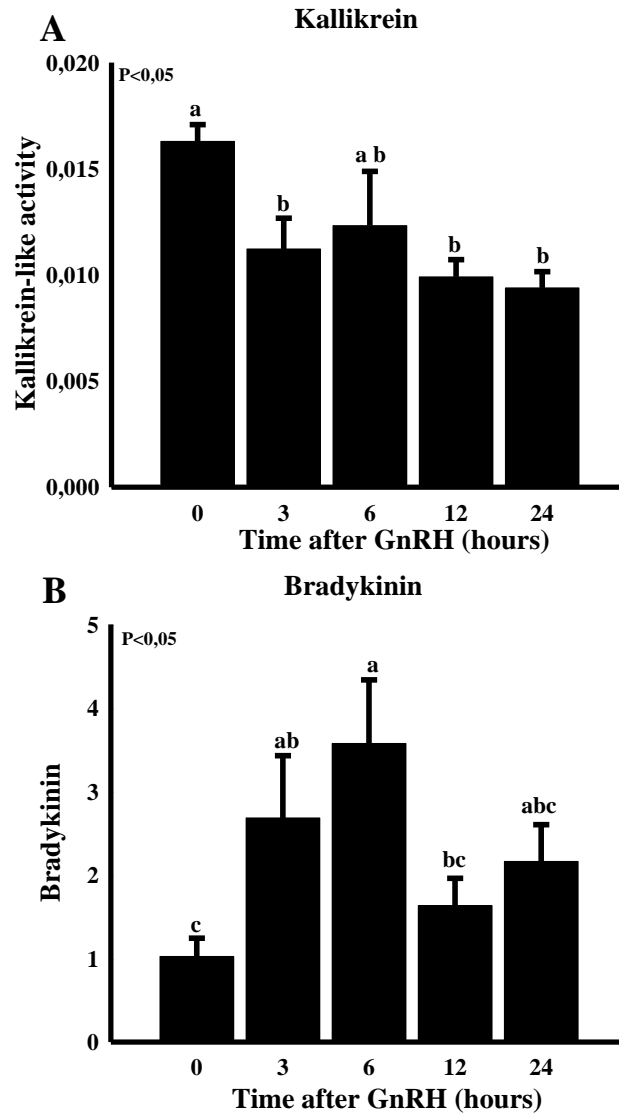
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380 Figure 1. mRNA expression of KNG (A and B), B₂R (C and D) e B₁R (E and F) in follicular cells, granulosa and
381 theca, relative to housekeeping cyclophilin. To obtain a pre-ovulatory bovine follicle (>12mm) the animals were
382 pre-synchronized and the follicular cells were recovery in different times after GnRH analog injection. Different
383 letters indicates statistical difference (P<0.05).



385 Figure 2. Kallikrein activity (nm/mg protein/min, A) and bradykinin (ng/ mg protein, B) in follicular fluid in pre-
 386 ovulatory follicles. To obtain a pre-ovulatory bovine follicle (>12mm) the animals were pre-synchronized and
 387 the follicular fluid was recovery in different times after GnRH analog injection. Different letters indicates
 388 statistical difference ($P < 0.05$).

389

4. CONCLUSÃO

O presente estudo confirmou, *in vivo*, a presença dos principais componentes do sistema calicreína-cinina durante o processo ovulatório de bovinos. Os resultados mostram que o KKS é produzido no ovário e que além da sua presença há indicativos de sua regulação durante a ovulação. Mais pesquisas devem ser realizadas nesta área a fim de esclarecer essa possível regulação e a importância do sistema calicreína-cinina durante este evento fisiológico.

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