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**Inhibition of human prostate smooth muscle contraction by
the LIM kinase inhibitors, SR7826 and LIMKi3**

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1 Introduction

1.1 Definition

Lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS) refer to a group of urological symptoms which can be categorized into storage (syn. irritative) and voiding (syn. obstructive) symptoms. The voiding/obstructive symptoms include poor or intermittent stream, hesitancy, terminal dribbling, incomplete voiding, overflow incontinence and urinary retention (UR). The storage/irritative symptoms appear as increasing frequency or urgency of urination, nocturia, and could also be painful during urination (Gratzke et al., 2015).

LUTS were once emphasized to be mainly caused by benign prostatic hyperplasia (BPH), however, recent studies found that LUTS were often not just related to BPH (Abrams, 1994; Chapple et al., 2008), and increased evidences indicated and clarified the understanding of the LUTS as a functional unit, and the multifactorial etiology could be responsible for associated and diverging symptoms. In fact, recent studies have demonstrated that bladder dysfunction including detrusor overactivity (DO) and detrusor underactivity (DU), functional or structural abnormalities of urinary tract and surrounding tissues may cause LUTS (Drake, 2014; He et al., 2016). In addition, some non-urological disorders such as metabolic syndrome may also represent etiologies of LUTS (Bergdahl et al., 1998; Koskimaki et al., 2001; McDonald et al., 2017).

1.2 Epidemiology

LUTS are common among both female and male patients, while prevalence

reported from epidemiological studies differed, ranging from 13% (Boyle et al., 2003b) to 67% (Lee et al., 2011). It is widely accepted and indicated from most of studies that the prevalence of LUTS increases with age (Coyne et al., 2009; Irwin et al., 2006; Irwin et al., 2009; Irwin et al., 2011; Stewart et al., 2003). Nearly 10% of male and 11% of married females aged 40-49 years reported moderate or severe symptoms, while at the age of 70-79 years old, the percentages increased remarkably to 40% and 28% for male and female, respectively (Boyle et al., 2003b). Another recent study on male population also reported that 40% of men over the age of 40 complained of moderate to severe LUTS, and 70% of men above the age of 70 years, while the proportion of men suffered from LUTS increased to 90% in cohort over the age of 85 years (Hollingsworth and Wilt, 2014). Older male population has a higher incidence of LUTS than older female (Boyle et al., 2003a; Irwin et al., 2011), approximately 2/3 of elderly men in a previous studied population reported to suffer at least one LUTS complaint (Garraway et al., 1991; Nielsen et al., 1994).

As the predicted aging of the worldwide population, the future worldwide prevalence is expected to increase accordingly. It was estimated that voiding symptoms will affect more than 600 million men in 2018 worldwide, which will cause high economic burden for the society (Irwin et al., 2011; MacKenzie and Aning, 2016; Taub and Wei, 2006). Regarding any LUTS, i. e. voiding and irritative symptoms, even around 1.5 billion in men, and 3.1 billion patients may be expected in 2018 for both genders (Irwin et al., 2011).

1.3 Etiology

Multifactorial etiology contributes to associated symptoms. It is widely accepted that aging might be one of the most important factors for LUTS

(Vahabi et al., 2017). Figure 1 shows several further potential causes of LUTS. Distal ureteric stones or stricture could cause partial obstruction in ureter during voiding, which is characterized by difficulty in voiding and reduced urine flow rate.

BPH, which causes benign prostate obstruction (BPO) and bladder outlet obstruction (BOO), is responsible for symptoms such as dysuria, painful urination, hesitancy, straining, splitting and spraying, intermitted stream, terminal dribbling, incomplete voiding, overflow incontinence, feeling of incomplete emptying, post-micturition dribbling, and finally urinary retention (UR) (Abrams et al., 2002; Chapple, 2011). Altogether, voiding symptoms suggestive of BPH are caused and characterized by a lowered urinary flow (Q_{max}) (Roehrborn, 2008). It is widely accepted, that increased prostate size due to hyperplastic growth on the one hand, and an increased smooth muscle tone in the hyperplastic prostate may both cause compression of the urethra, which impairs bladder emptying and urinary flow and results in symptoms (Cioanta and Muschter, 2000; Guneyli et al., 2017; Hennenberg et al., 2014b; Oelke et al., 2015).

In parallel or even in addition to LUTS suggestive of BPH, irritative symptoms due to overactive bladder (OAB) are common. These are caused by involuntary detrusor contractions, which will result in symptoms including increased daytime frequency, nocturia, urgency, urinary incontinence (Apostolidis et al., 2017; Chapple, 2011; Izett et al., 2017; Lee and Kuo, 2017a). The origin of these contractions may be neurogenic, but may also include other factors such as spinal cord injury, prostate surgery or external radiation of prostate cancer (Kowalczyk, 2003). LUTS caused by chronic pelvic pain syndrome could present symptoms as dysuria, increased urgency of urination or painful urination but without evidence of urinary tract infection (Doggweiler et al., 2017).

Bladder tumor that locates in bladder outlet might cause BOO and is characterized by increased detrusor pressure and reduced urine flow rate. Detrusor underactivity (DU) may also cause difficulties in voiding and chronic UR, what may be difficult to distinguish from BOO (Gratzke et al., 2015).

Besides, some other diseases have been found to be risk factors for LUTS, for example, nocturnal polyuria, which is characterized by increased excretions of water and sodium during sleeping time but normal excretions in daytime. It is speculated that nocturnal polyuria and natriuresis are responsible for most nocturia in elderly men with LUTS (Matthiesen et al., 1996).

Foreign body, most observed in bladder, have been reported to cause LUTS, and most of these patients might present urinary tract infection or painful urination (Bansal and Yadav, 2016). Besides, non-uological disease such as Parkinson's disease (McDonald et al., 2017), drug abuse (Peng et al., 2014), metabolic disorders (Hammarsten and Peeker, 2011), and arthritis (Koskimaki et al., 2001) have been also suspected to associate with LUTS.

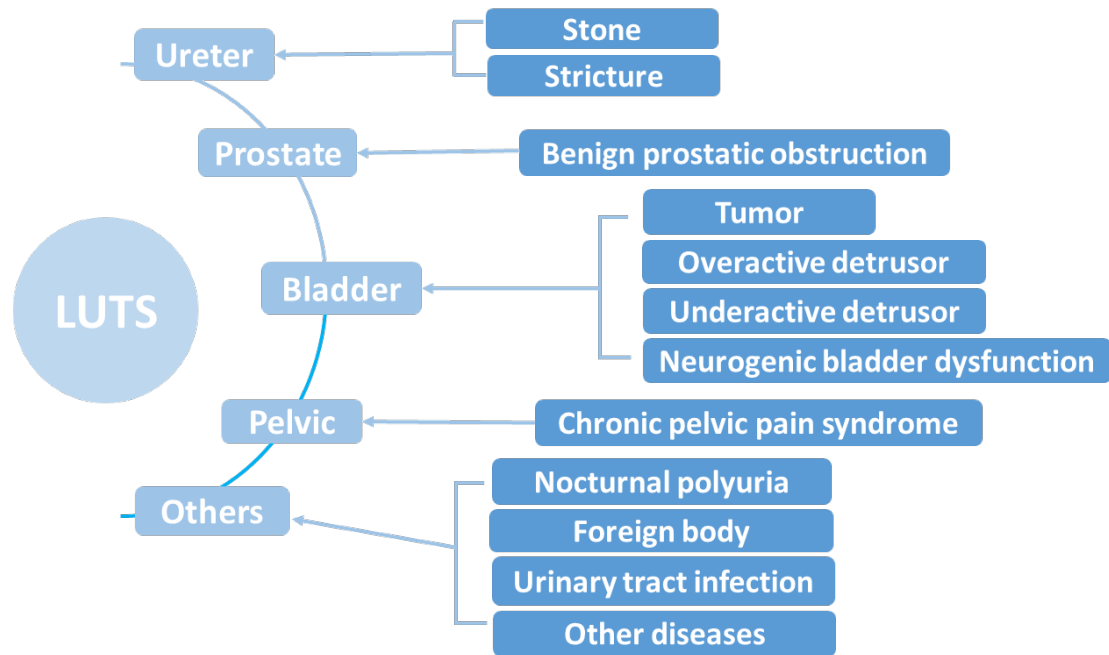


Figure 1: potential causes of LUTS (Gratzke et al., 2015). LUTS may be primarily caused by the prostate and the bladder. Other factors may cause LUTS as well, which need to be considered particularly during diagnosis of LUTS.

1.4 The role of BPH in LUTS

Although it becomes increasingly clear that BPH is not the single contributor to LUTS, it remains one of the most crucial factors. In fact, BPH could be observed in the majority of elder men and might then cause LUTS (Milani and Djavan, 2005). Considering the expected demographic transition in Western and Asian countries with a growing population of elderly men, the importance of LUTS suggestive of BPH will increase in the near future (Lepor, 2005).

The age of initiation of the growth of BPH was estimated to be from 30 years and upwards. Nearly 50% of men >50 years old will present pathological evidence of BPH, and the percentage was supposed to increase to more than 80% in the groups of patients with an age of 80 years old or older (Berry et al.,

1984). In fact, approximately every man at some point in his life will have LUTS secondary to BPH (Lepor, 2005).

The pathophysiology of LUTS is considered to include BOO (bladder neck abnormality, hyperplastic prostate or urethral stricture), or bladder dysfunction (DU or DO) (Lee and Kuo, 2017b). The pathophysiology of BOO in men with BPH consists of static and dynamic factors (Lepor, 2005). The static obstruction means that the hyperplastic prostate may cause compression of both the urethra and bladder outlet which could result in increased resistance to urine flow (Hennenberg et al., 2014a). The dynamic obstruction is due to an increased tension of prostate smooth muscle, which causes obstruction of the urethra (Hennenberg et al., 2014b).

It is widely recognized that activation of α_1 -adrenoceptors in the prostate causes smooth muscle contraction, which contributes to increases smooth muscle tone and BOO in BPH (Hennenberg et al., 2014b). Previous studies have reported that the density of α_1 -adrenoceptors was significant higher in prostate tissues from patients with BPH than those without (Ishigooka et al., 1997; Kondo et al., 1993; Price et al., 1993; Walden et al., 1999), suggesting that enlarged prostates can reduce the urine flow rate via increased responsiveness to α_1 -adrenergic prostate smooth muscle contraction.

It is widely accepted that the amount of prostate smooth muscle contributes to BOO, and that the improvement in LUTS suggestive of BPH by α_1 -blockers might be related to relaxation of prostate smooth muscle (Hennenberg et al., 2014b; Lepor, 2005; Oelke et al., 2014). Consequently, α_1 -blockers are the first line option for treatment of LUTS suggestive of BPH (Hennenberg et al., 2014a; Oelke et al., 2012a). They will induce smooth muscle relaxation in the prostate and thereby reduce voiding symptoms.

1.5 Pharmacological treatment for LUTS

1.5.1 Current therapies

α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonists (α_1 -blockers)

α_1 -blockers are considered to be the medication showing fastest reduction of LUTS secondary to BPH. The current α_1 -blockers available for clinical use are tamsulosin, alfuzosin, terazosin, doxazosin, which are similar in overall clinical impact (Djavan et al., 2004a; Milani and Djavan, 2005). α_1 -blockers can reduce the prostate tone and BOO via inhibiting the effect of endogenously released noradrenaline on prostate smooth muscle cells. Previous studies showed that α_1 -blockers increased the Q_{\max} by around 20-25% and reduced International Prostate Symptom Score (IPSS) by around 30-40% (Djavan et al., 2004b; Kang et al., 2011; Manjunatha et al., 2016; Michel et al., 1998; Seo and Kim, 2012). α_1 -blockers can reduce both voiding and storage symptoms, and the efficacy seems to be more remarkable in those patients with prostates less than 40 mL (Roehrborn et al., 2008b; Roehrborn et al., 2010). α_1 -blockers take only a few weeks to fully develop the efficacy and show well tolerability and safety during the treatment (Michel et al., 1998).

5 α -reductase inhibitors (5-ARIs)

Testosterone is converted to dihydrotestosterone (DHT) mediated by the enzyme 5 α -reductase and thereby has its effects on the prostate, to cause prostate hyperplasia and LUTS (Andriole et al., 2004). 5-ARIs inhibit the activation of 5 α -reductase and induce apoptosis of prostate epithelial cells (Rittmaster et al., 1996). The current 5-ARIs available for clinical use are finasteride, dutasteride and epristeride. Prostate size was observed to be reduced by approximately 18-28% by these compounds, and levels of circulating prostate-specific antigen (PSA) were decreased by approximately

50% after six to twelve months of treatment with 5-ARIs (Vaughan, 2003). These effects could be more remarkable after long-term treatment (Naslund and Miner, 2007). 5-ARIs improve IPSS by around 15-30% and increase Q_{\max} by around 1.5-2.0 mL/s after two to four years of treatment for those patients with LUTS due to BPH (Kirby et al., 2003; McConnell et al., 1998; Roehrborn et al., 2002). Also, 5-ARIs reduce either the risk of AUR or the need for surgery (Roehrborn, 2008).

Muscarinic receptor antagonists

Muscarinic receptors locate on bladder smooth muscle cells. They are activated by acetylcholine, causing contraction of the detrusor. Consequently, muscarinic receptor antagonists are used to reduce detrusor smooth muscle contraction in order to treat OAB due to DO (Hennenberg et al., 2014a; Hennenberg et al., 2017b). The current muscarinic receptor antagonists licensed for clinical use are tolterodine, solifenacin, propiverine, oxybutynin, fesoterodine, and darifenacin. Antimuscarinics can significant reduce urgency episodes, urgency incontinence, frequency of micturition and nocturia in patients with OAB (Herschorn et al., 2010; Kaplan et al., 2010; Roehrborn et al., 2006; Yokoyama et al., 2009). More benefit was observed in men with smaller prostates (PSA levels <1.3 ng/mL) from receiving antimuscarinics (Roehrborn et al., 2008a).

Antimuscarinics might decrease the strength of bladder detrusor, and increase the post-void residual (PVR) urine in men with mild to moderate BOO (Abrams et al., 2006). Also, the increased risk of UR after treatment of antimuscarinics should be considered from the theoretical view.

Putative novel muscarinic receptor antagonists have been explored in preclinical studies. Izalpinin which was extracted from *Alpinia oxyphylla*, showed an inhibitory effect in muscarinic detrusor contraction in vitro (Yuan et

al., 2014). Mokry et al. reported that propantheline significantly decreased the acetylcholine-induced smooth muscle contraction of guinea pigs urinary and bladder, while the inhibiting effects revealed a little less effective compared with oxybutynin (Mokry et al., 2005).

Phosphodiesterase (PDE) inhibitors

PDE inhibitors (PDEIs) can reduce the smooth muscle tone in the urethra, prostate, and detrusor via increasing intracellular cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). The current PDEI licensed for treatment of LUTS is tadalafil. Efficacy of PDE5Is could be observed one week following initiation of treatment with a reduction of IPSS by 22-37% (Oelke et al., 2012b), and after four weeks of treatment with the PDE5Is, approximately 79.3% of studied men were reported to have clinical meaningful improvement (Oelke et al., 2015). PDE5Is reduces smooth muscle tone and significant increases Q_{max} , but shows not any effect on increasing the risk of PVR (Porst et al., 2013).

Other PDE isoforms have been also explored. TC-E 5005, a phosphodiesterase 10-selective inhibitor, was found to inhibit phenylephrine-, U46619-, endothelin 1-3-induced, concentration-dependent contractions as well as electric field stimulation (EFS)- induced, frequency-dependent contractions of prostate strips in vitro (Hennenberg et al., 2016). PDE 4 inhibitors (PDE4Is), Ro 20-1724, rolipram, and RP 73401 also exhibited inhibiting effects on the tension induced by norepinephrine of isolated prostatic tissue, and the efficacy turned out to be stronger than PDE5Is, sildenafil and BAY 13-1197 (Kedia et al., 2012). Reversion of smooth muscle tension with various inhibiting effects could be observed with the PDE1 inhibitor Vinpocetine, the PDE2 inhibitor EHNA, and PDE4 inhibitor rolipram (Kedia et al., 2009).

β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists (β_3 -agonists)

β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists can induce detrusor relaxation of bladder via stimulating the β_3 -adrenoceptors which are expressed in smooth muscle cells of the bladder (Afeli et al., 2013; Alexandre et al., 2016). The current β_3 -adrenoceptor agonist approved for clinical use in adults with OAB is mirabegron. β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists can significantly reduce the symptoms of OAB, including frequency of micturition and urgency incontinence. Comparing with placebo, β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists showed no remarkable adverse effects on voiding urodynamic parameters such as Q_{max} , bladder contractility index and detrusor pressure of maximum flow. Therefore, the risk of increased PVR after treatment of β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists might be little (Nitti et al., 2013; Takeda et al., 2003). However, the efficacy and safety of β_3 -adrenoceptor agonists in long-term therapy remain unclear (Hennenberg et al., 2014a; Michel and Gravas, 2016).

Some novel selective β_3 -adrenoceptors have been reported. A recent study showed that 138-355 could cause bladder detrusor relaxation in vitro via stimulating β_3 -adrenoceptor (Yamanishi et al., 2006). Another new compound, GW427353, was observed to relax detrusor at low concentrations ($<10\mu\text{M}$) and to suppress spontaneous detrusor contraction at higher concentrations ($>50\mu\text{M}$) (Biers et al., 2006).

Limits of current therapies

α_1 -blockers remarkably reduce the IPSS and increase Q_{max} , with a reduction of IPSS by 30-40% and increases of Q_{max} of 20-25% (Djavan et al., 2004b; Hennenberg et al., 2014a). However, considerable effects of placebo were also found in the control group, which showed an IPSS improvement by approximately 10–34%, and an Q_{max} increase up to 27% (Hennenberg et al.,

2014b). α_1 -blockers show no effect on reducing the prostate volume, preventing the occurrence of acute UR or the need for surgery (Roehrborn, 2006). As to 5-ARIs, it might only be considered in men with moderate to severe LUTS, for patients with prostates size < 40 mL, 5-ARIs might not be more efficacious than placebo (Boyle et al., 1996). Besides, the onset of efficacy of 5-ARIs is quite slow (usually requires three months), and monotherapy is not effective enough for patients with moderate-to-severe LUTS after initiation of therapy (Naslund and Miner, 2007).

This disappointing efficacy may be responsible for high discontinuation rates, which is associated with LUTS treatment by α_1 -blockers: thus, one year after first prescription of α_1 -blockers, only 35 % of patients still continued medication (Cindolo et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2015). Up to 69 % of patients may not be satisfied by treatment with α_1 -blockers, and still 36-45 % are even unsatisfied by combination therapy of α_1 -blockers with 5-ARIs (Fullhase et al., 2013). Indeed, insufficient efficacy of α_1 -blockers is a main reason to change to another medication (Kim et al., 2014). This reflects low responder rates: in 30-35 % of patients, improvements in total IPSS by α_1 -blockers are below 25 % (Chapple et al., 2011; Matsukawa et al., 2013). Regarding Q_{\max} , responder rates may be even similar under treatment with α_1 -blockers and placebo (Chapple et al., 2011). Finally, low adherence to medical LUTS therapy was identified as an independent risk factor for hospitalization for BPH and for surgery (Cindolo et al., 2015). Together, this demonstrates, that the efficacy of α_1 -blockers underlies certain limits, despite their widespread application, so that new options with higher efficacy are mandatory (Hennenberg et al., 2014b).

PDE5Is were recommended to treat LUTS in recent years, however, their tolerability and safety in long-term use (> 1 year) remain unclear, and their effects on reducing prostate size and slowing disease progression are still needed to be identified. Although combination therapies such as α_1 -blockers +

5-ARIs, or α_1 -blockers + muscarinic receptor antagonists have been recommended, the increase of relevant adverse effects should be also considered (Gratzke et al., 2015).

Plant extracts

Herbal drugs are made of seeds, pollen, roots, bark, or fruits. Up to date, a growing number of plant extracts, such as izalpinin and phellodendron amurense have been reported to show effects on reducing smooth muscle contraction of either bladder (Brandli et al., 2010; Capasso et al., 2004; Fouda et al., 2007; Furer et al., 2015; Ito et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2003; Levin et al., 2002; Onoruvwe et al., 2001) or prostate (Arruzazabala et al., 2006; Brandli et al., 2010; Xu and Ventura, 2010) from animals (rat, rabbit, or pig). A possible mechanism on modulating Ca^{2+} release from intracellular stores was demonstrated to be responsible for the inhibitory effect of the flavonoid galangin (Dambros et al., 2005), however, the precise mechanisms of most reported plant extracts are still unclear, and the confirmation of their effects in vivo are warranted.

1.5.2 Novel compounds in pathophysiology and experimental therapy of LUTS

Current pharmacological therapies available for LUTS are characterized by limited efficacy, and the disappointing effects may cause high discontinuation rates of patients. This makes medical treatment of LUTS still be a challenge, therefore development of novel pharmacological options is still quite required (Chapple et al., 2011; Fullhase et al., 2013; Hennenberg et al., 2014b; Lee et al., 2015; Matsukawa et al., 2013). In fact, in recent years, a number of novel compounds have been found to be possible potential candidate therapy options

for LUTS, and some of them are to be further explored for clinical application.

P2X₁-purinoceptor antagonists

Adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP) was demonstrated as an excitatory cotransmitter with noradrenaline from sympathetic nerves which innervates the prostate smooth muscle contraction of guinea-pig (Buljubasich and Ventura, 2004) and rat (Ventura et al., 2003). 50-fold greater potency of endogenous purinoceptor agonist ATP was observed in aged mice than young adult mice, and nerve-mediated smooth muscle contraction containing a component elicited by P2X₁ purinoceptor could only be observed in prostates from aged mice, but not from young adult mice (White et al., 2015).

In vitro experiments showed that P2X₁-purinoceptor selective antagonists prevented augmentation of rat detrusor contractile response induced by hypoxia-glucopenia and reoxygenation (Elliott et al., 2013), which means P2X₁-purinoceptor antagonists might be a possible future therapeutic option for increased purinergic-mediated detrusor contractions.

Cannabinoids agonist

Previous studies have indicated the importance of the endocannabinoid system in LUT dysfunction (Pacher et al., 2006). A cannabinoid agonist, WIN 55212-2, has been shown to inhibit electric field stimulation-induced contractions of rat prostate smooth muscle (Tokanovic et al., 2007). In human prostatic strips, CP 55940, a cannabinoid receptor 1/cannabinoid receptor 2 agonist, also showed inhibiting effects on nerve-induced contractions (Gratzke et al., 2010). Later studies also reported that cannabidiol was observed to reduce acetylcholine-induced smooth muscle contraction both from rat and human prostates (Capasso et al., 2011). Although cannabinoids agonists are now

proved to be effective on reducing contractility, the inhibitory effects seemed to be only modest (Gratzke et al., 2010; Tokanovic et al., 2007).

Prostaglandin pathway regulators

There are mounting evidences that inflammation may act as a risk factor for the development of BPH and LUTS (Kramer et al., 2007). Prostaglandin (PG) E₂ has been observed to reduce contractile response of rat prostate gland via acting at EP₂ subtype (Tokanovic et al., 2010). A recent study showed that MF191, an antagonist of PGE₂ receptor subtype 4 (EP₄), has significant effects on cyclophosphamide or PGE₂-induced overactive bladder in rats (Chuang et al., 2012). ONO-8539, an antagonist of PGE₂ receptor subtype 1 (EP₁), showed significant efficacy, safety and tolerability for patients with OAB in a phase II study (Chapple et al., 2014).

PG-caused LUTS symptoms could be released by other non-PG inhibitors. Latest studies have found that fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) inhibitors, transient receptor potential melastin 8 ion channel (TRPM8) -selective antagonist (DFL23448) and oleoyl ethyl amide (OEtA), exhibited effects on increasing micturition intervals, micturition volumes, and bladder capacity in rat presented OAB induced by PGE₂ (Gandaglia et al., 2014; Mistretta et al., 2016). However, the use of PGs for LUTS might be limited when considering their widespread effects throughout the whole body.

Cyclooxygenase (Oelke et al.), also known as prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase (PTGS), is an enzyme responsible for the formation of PG. Diclofenac and NS-398 have been demonstrated to reduce serotonin, noradrenaline, and neurokinin A-induced isolated ureter contractions from pig in a concentration-dependent manner via inhibiting COX subtype 2 (Mastrangelo et al., 2000). A later study reported that indomethacin, a non-selective COX inhibitor, also

showed remarkable effect on reducing spontaneous detrusor contraction from isolated bladder of pig (Rahnama'i et al., 2013). The antibiotic erythromycin showed inhibiting effects on reducing rat detrusor contractile response induced by EFS, carbachol, ATP, and potassium via inhibiting the voltage-sensitive calcium channels and releasing calcium from intracellular stores (England et al., 2004).

Protein kinases (PK)

It has been well established that prostate smooth muscle contraction is linked to a number of intracellular signaling pathways under physiologic and pathophysiologic conditions, which include several protein kinases and GTPases (Hennenberg et al., 2014b). It has been demonstrated that dysfunction of Protein kinase C (PKC) is implicated to cause smooth muscle disorders. It has been shown that low concentrations of PKC inhibitors, bisindolylmaleimide1 (Bim-1) and Ro318220 (both in 50 nM), and a PKC activator, phorbol-12,13-dibutyrate (PDBu) (1 μ M) reduced the sensitivity of detrusor to carbachol and decreased spontaneous contractions (Hypolite et al., 2015).

RhoA couples to excitatory receptors and activates Rho kinase, which further inhibits myosin light chain phosphatase and maintains a contracted state of actin filaments (Hennenberg et al., 2006; Somlyo and Somlyo, 2004). The RhoA/Rho kinase pathway has been explored using novel compounds which are emerging. Y-27632, a specific inhibitor of Rho kinase, attenuated the spontaneous and EFS-induced smooth muscle contractions of human ureteral strips in dose-dependent manners (Hong et al., 2005). Similar effects were also observed in KCl-induced ureter contractions from rabbits with unilateral ureteric obstruction (Turna et al., 2007). Y-27632 inhibited carbachol-mediated contractile responses in mouse prostate gland in low concentration (10 μ M),

and inhibited noradrenaline-mediated contractile responses in high concentration (10-30 μM) (White et al., 2013). In human detrusor, Y-27632 and another Rho kinase inhibitor, HA1100, both inhibited carbachol-induced contractions in the concentration of 10 μM (Kirschstein et al., 2014). The RhoA/ROCK-mediated Ca^{2+} sensitization was also reported to involve in the human prostate contraction. Contraction of human prostatic stromal cells induced by endothelin-1 could be enhanced by over-expressed RhoA, but decreased by Y-27632 or fasudil. In human prostate strips, the noradrenaline-induced contraction could also be inhibited by Y-27632 or fasudil (Takahashi et al., 2007). Finally, Y-27632 also inhibited thromboxane-induced contractions of human prostate strips, besides α_1 -adrenergic contractions (Strittmatter et al., 2011).

P21-activated kinase (PAK) acts together with Rac, which involves in a wide range of cellular functions such as cytoskeleton organization, smooth muscle contraction, and neuronal functions (Wang et al., 2016b). The PAK inhibitors FRAX486 (30 μM) and IPA3 (300 μM) have been observed to significantly inhibit prostate smooth muscle contraction induced by EFS, but not by noradrenaline or phenylephrine (Wang et al., 2016b). Besides, FRAX486 also showed inhibiting effects on endothelin-1- and -2-induced contractions (Wang et al., 2016b). Reduced growth of prostate stromal cells (WPMY-1 cells) was observed by both inhibitors at the same concentrations (Wang et al., 2016b).

Rac is a small monomeric GTPase which is involved in the regulation of smooth muscle tone via cytoskeletal organization (Wang et al., 2015). The Rac inhibitors NSC23766 (100 μM) and EHT1864 (100 μM) have been found to significantly reduce prostate smooth muscle contractile responses induced by noradrenaline, phenylephrine and EFS (Wang et al., 2015). Both inhibitors revealed effects of cytoskeletal disorganization and impairment in the growth of WPMY-1 prostate cells in these concentrations (Wang et al., 2015).

Src family kinases (SFKs) are tyrosine kinases involved in various key cellular functions such as rearrangement of actin structures via cycling in and out of focal adhesions (Min et al., 2012). A recent study showed that two SFK, AZM475271 and, reduced prostate smooth muscle contractile responses to noradrenaline-, phenylephrine- and EFS in vitro. Stronger inhibiting effect could be observed in combination of PP2 and PF573228 (a focal adhesion kinase inhibitor) when compared to PP2 alone (Wang et al., 2016a). Reduced proliferation in wildtype of WPMY-1 cells after incubation with each inhibitor could be observed but not in cells with c-Src-deficiency(Wang et al., 2016a). Finally, first evidence for a role of focal adhesions for promoting prostate smooth muscle contraction was derived by a study, showing that inhibitors of focal adhesion kinases inhibit adrenergic and neurogenic contractions of human prostate strips (Kunit et al., 2014).

Other compounds

A growing number of other types of compounds are also emerging, which show varying effects on the contractility of ureter, bladder, or prostate gland in various species. A role of TRPA1 agonists in inhibiting electrically induced isolate-ureters contractions has been proposed (Weinhold et al., 2017). Blebbistain, a myosin II inhibitor, showed significant effect on reducing nerve-evoked detrusor overactivity in a rat model (Zhang et al., 2011). Considering the large amount of patients suffering from LUTS, the development of novel therapy targets aiming to induce smooth muscle relaxation in the prostate and other LUT regions would be quite necessary and promising.

1.6 Mechanisms of prostate smooth muscle contraction

It is widely accepted that an increase in the free intracellular calcium level is a precondition to activate the smooth muscle contractile proteins, while calcium sensitization is important for the ability of smooth muscle cells to maintain a contractile response in the presence of submaximal intracellular calcium levels (Webb, 2003). Agonist receptors in prostate stroma are regarded as the triggers the contraction of prostate smooth muscle. The α_1 -adrenoceptors (α_1 ARs) belong to the G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) superfamily which occur in α_{1a} , α_{1b} , and α_{1d} AR subtypes in prostate stroma; it was demonstrated that the function of α_{1a} AR predominates in the prostate smooth muscle (Andersson et al., 1997). Agonist such as noradrenaline or phenylephrine binds to α_1 ARs and increases phospholipase C (PLC) activity, which produces two potent second messengers inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) and diacylglycerol (Gandaglia et al.). IP₃ causes release of calcium (Ca²⁺), while DAG activates PKC (Wang et al., 2014). The binding of Ca²⁺ and calmodulin results in activation of myosin light chain (MLC) kinase, which further phosphorylates the light chain of myosin to combine with actin and leads to cross-bridge cycling and smooth muscle contraction (Dougherty et al., 2014). When the PLC is activated, a small GTP-binding protein RhoA is also activated by Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor (RhoGEF). RhoA could increase the activity of Rho kinase that leads to inhibition of myosin phosphatase and maintains the phosphorylation of light chain of myosin so that to promote the contractile state (Webb, 2003). Similarly, PKC promotes contraction also by inhibition of myosin light chain phosphatase (Hennenberg et al., 2008).

In addition to adrenoceptors, non-adrenergic mediators such as endothelin-1 (Hennenberg et al., 2014b) and thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂) (Strittmatter et al., 2011) are also demonstrated to promote smooth muscle contraction. Contractions by endotheline-1 and TXA₂ might be additive, and even exceed

α_1 -adrenergic tone (Hennenberg et al., 2017a). Endothelin-1 is demonstrated to cause contraction of smooth muscle in two signaling pathways. After the binding of endothelin-1 and its receptor, the PLC/ diacylglycerol (Gandaglia et al.) /IP3 signaling pathway is activated. Meanwhile, the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) is also activated, which further phosphorylates the caldesmon to promote contractile state (Bouallegue et al., 2007). TXA₂ receptors are detected in prostate smooth muscle cells, contraction of prostate smooth muscle induced by TXA₂ may involve in Ca²⁺/ calmodulin- and Rho kinase- dependent mechanisms (Strittmatter et al., 2011).

Recently, it has been proposed that effects of α_1 -blockers stay incomplete due to contributions of non-adrenergic mediators, as these mediators may evoke contraction of prostate smooth muscle in parallel to α_1 -adrenoceptors (Hennenberg et al., 2013; Hennenberg et al., 2014b). Not surprisingly, but importantly, contractions of these non-adrenergic mediators will not be inhibited by α_1 -blockers, so that they may maintain prostate smooth muscle tone and urethral obstruction even under therapy with α_1 -blockers (Hennenberg et al., 2016). Consequently, the benefit from α_1 -blockers may be limited, as long as non-adrenergic contractions still promote smooth muscle tone alongside to α_1 -adrenoceptors (Hennenberg et al., 2016). Probably, simultaneous actions of different mediators on prostate smooth muscle cells are the normal case in vivo. Therefore, it has been postulated, that novel strategies for future therapies with higher efficacy than α_1 -blockers may only be successful, if they target adrenergic and non-adrenergic contractions at once (Hennenberg et al., 2016).

Several intracellular effectors have been discovered to closely involve the contraction of prostate smooth muscle. P21-Activated Kinase (PAK) was demonstrated to promote release of noradrenaline from sympathetic neurotransmission to smooth muscle cells, which thereby activated

postsynaptic α_1 -adrenoceptors to cause smooth muscle contraction. Meanwhile, PAK could be also activated by endothelin receptor A/B, and establishes intracellular signaling pathway including Ca^{2+} /PKC/Rho kinase to promote the contraction of prostate smooth muscle (Wang et al., 2016b). It was recognized that small G-proteins play a key role in smooth muscle contraction (Kitazawa et al., 1989). Rac belongs to the small G-proteins, three Rac isoforms (Rac1-3) were all detected in prostate tissues (Wang et al., 2015). It was reported that Rac has a key role in regulating cytoskeletal organization which is responsible for contraction (Zhou et al., 2010). Focal adhesion kinase (Nitti et al.) is demonstrated to be the principal requirement for the correct assemble of adhesome proteins to dense plaques which enables the attachment of cytoskeleton to membranes and of membranes to extracellular matrix, finally promoting prostate smooth muscle contraction (Hennenberg et al., 2014b; Kunit et al., 2014). Besides, FAK may be also involved in phosphorylation of Ca^{2+} channel (Gerthoffer and Gunst, 2001).

Together and regardless of upstream signaling pathways, there are three prerequisites, which are indispensable for smooth muscle contraction, comprising 1) phosphorylation of myosin light chains, 2) actin organization and polymerization to filaments, and 3) attachment of filaments to membranes and extracellular matrix by dense plaques (Walther et al., 2012). Actin filaments are essential elements of the cytoskeleton, changes in actin polymerization and reorganization are responsible for cellular migration and a prerequisite for smooth muscle contraction (Gunst and Zhang, 2008; Kirschstein et al., 2015). Although the actomyosin system and actin polymerization could be activated independently, the development of smooth muscle contraction requires activation of both processes (Gunst and Zhang, 2008). Effectors on cytoskeleton or actin, such as LIM domain kinase (LIMK) (Bernard, 2007), ARF6 (Herlemann et al., 2017), and heat shock protein (HSP) (Hedges et al., 1999) are the key point in most of the signaling pathways during

the contractile process.

1.7 The role of LIMKs

LIM kinases (LIMKs) are serine/threonine kinases, which occur in two isoforms, LIMK1 and LIMK2. LIMKs regulate actin polymerization through phosphorylation of the actin depolymerizing factors (ADF)/cofilin, and thereby cause filament organization and stress fibre formation (Bernard, 2007). It has been demonstrated that LIMKs act as key factors in regulating muscle contraction through various signaling pathways which mainly include Rho/ROCK/LIMK1/2, cAMP/PKA/LIMK1/2, Rac/PAK/LIMK1/2, and Cdc42/MRCK/LIMK2 pathways (Webb, 2003) (Figure 2).

Although LIMK have been reported to act as crucial regulators in cofilin phosphorylation and actin polymerization, as far as we can retrieve, studies on effects LIMK selective inhibitors or the role of LIMK during smooth muscle contraction have not yet been explored in any organ. This might probably because specific small molecular inhibitors were not available before, but now, as two LIMK inhibitors SR7826 and LIMKi3 are available, this enables us to evaluate their effects on contraction of prostate smooth muscle.

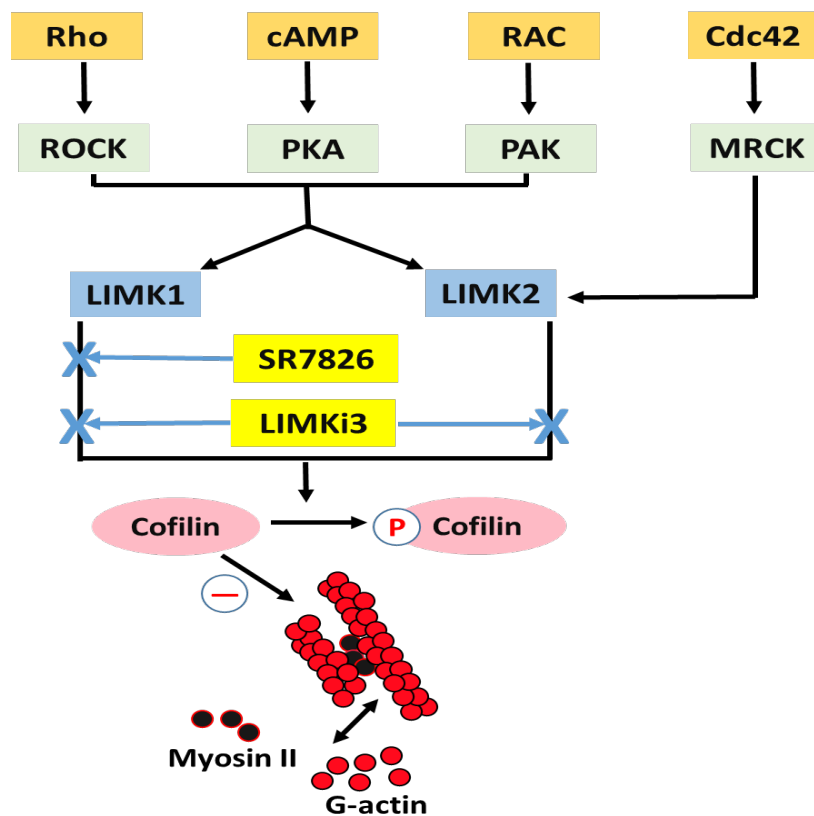


Figure 2: Assumed roles of LIMK1 and LIMK2 in smooth muscle contraction. LIMKs phosphorylate cofilin to phospho-cofilin, the inactive cofilin thereby causes smooth muscle contraction by actin polymerization. This process could be induced by several signaling pathways, e.g. Rho/ROCK/LIMK1/2, cAMP/PKA/LIMK1/2, Rac/PAK/LIMK1/2, and Cdc42/MRCK/LIMK2 pathways. Two LIMK inhibitors SR7826 and LIMKi3, are supposed to inhibit LIMK1 and LIMK1/2, respectively. Because actin polymerization is an indispensable prerequisite for smooth muscle contraction, a role of LIMK for promoting smooth muscle contraction may be assumed – but this has never been shown. Abbreviation: LIMKs, LIM domain kinases; Rho, rhodopsin; ROCK, Rho kinase; cAMP, Cyclic adenosine monophosphate; PKA, protein kinase A; RAC, ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate; PAK, p21-activated kinase; Cdc42, cell division cycle 42; MRCK, Cdc42-binding kinase.

2. Objective of this thesis

In BPH, smooth muscle contraction in the prostate drives urethral obstruction, which often results in LUTS. Consequently, inhibition of contraction is an important strategy for medical therapy, but available options still show insufficient efficacy. Development of future options with higher efficacy requires adequate understanding of contractile mechanisms and identification of novel targets in the prostate. However, despite the high clinical relevance of contractile mechanisms in the prostate, they are still incompletely understood. Recently, a possible role of LIMK has been suggested for actin polymerization in different cell types. Because actin polymerization is an ultimate prerequisite for smooth muscle contraction, a role of LIMK for regulation of smooth muscle tone may be assumed. Surprisingly and to the best of my knowledge, this has not been examined or reported to date. Therefore, the aim of this thesis was to study a possible role of LIMK for prostate smooth muscle contraction.

Specifically, the aim was to address the following questions:

- (1) Are LIMKs expressed in the human prostate?
- (2) Does the LIMK inhibitor SR7826 inhibit α_1 -adrenoceptor-induced contractions of human prostate strips?
- (3) Does the LIMK inhibitor SR7826 inhibit neurogenic contractions of human prostate strips?
- (4) Does the LIMK inhibitor SR7826 inhibit non-adrenergic contractions of human prostate strips?
- (5) Does the LIMK inhibitor LIMKi3 inhibit α_1 -adrenoceptor-induced contractions of human prostate strips?
- (6) Does the LIMK inhibitor LIMKi3 inhibit neurogenic contractions of human prostate strips?
- (7) Does the LIMK inhibitor LIMKi3 inhibit non-adrenergic contractions of

human prostate strips?

(8) Is actin polymerization in prostate stromal cells susceptible to LIMK inhibitors?

3. Materials and methods

3.1 Reagents and devices

Table 1. Reagents used in this study.

Products	Manufacturer
Potassium chloride (KCl)	Roth, Germany
Sodium chloride (NaCl)	Roth, Germany
Calcium chloride dihydrate (CaCl ₂ •2H ₂ O)	Roth, Germany
Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate (MgSO ₄ •7H ₂ O)	Roth, Germany
Glucose	Roth, Germany
Sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO ₃)	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Potassium hydrogen phosphate (KH ₂ PO ₄)	Applichem, Germany
Noradrenalin	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Phenylephrine	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Methoxamine hydrochloride	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Custodiol	Köhler, Germany
U46619	Tocris, UK
Endothelin-1	Enzo, USA
LIMKi3	Tocris, UK
SR 7826	Tocris, UK
Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	Roth, Germany
RPMI 1640	Gibco, USA
10 % fetal calf serum (FCS)	Gibco, USA
phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)	Gibco, USA
Milk powder	Roth, Germany
Rabbit phospho-LIMK1 (thr508)/ LIMK2	Cell Signaling Technology, USA

(thr505) antibody	
Rabbit anti LIMK1 antibody	GeneTex, USA
Rabbit anti cofilin (D59)	Cell Signaling Technology, USA
Mouse anti p-cofilin 1	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Mouse monoclonal anti calponin 1/2/3	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Mouse monoclonal anti pan-cytokeratin	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Mouse monoclonal anti β -actin antibody	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Mouse monoclonal anti PSA antibody	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Horse anti mouse IgG	Vector Laboratories, USA
Horse anti goat IgG	Vector Laboratories, USA
Rabbit anti LIMK1 antibody	GeneTex, USA
Rabbit anti p-cofilin antibody	Cell Signaling Technology, USA
Rabbit anti cofilin antibody	Cell Signaling Technology, USA
Mouse anti pan-cytokeratin antibody	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Mouse anti calponin 1/2/3 antibody	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA
Cy5-conjugated goat anti rabbit IgG	Abcam, UK
Cy3-conjugated goat anti mouse IgG	Millipore, USA
Fluorescein isothiocyanate- conjugated	Millipore, USA
Rabbit anti goat IgG	
4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole-dihydrochl oride (DAPI)	Invitrogen, USA
Phalloidin	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
MgCl ₂	Promega, USA
Revrse Transcription buffer 10 \times	Promega, USA
dNTP Mix	Promega, USA
Random Primers	Promega, USA
AMV Revrse Transcriptase	Promega, USA
RNase Inhibitor	Promega, USA
RNase Free Water	Promega, USA

SYBR™ Green	Roche, USA
RT2 qPCR Primer (LIMK1 & LIMK2)	QIAGEN, Germany
RNeasy Micro Kit	QIAGEN, Germany
AllPrep DNA/RNA/Protein Mini Kit	QIAGEN, Germany
BSA	Gibco, USA
5-Ethynyl-deoxyuridine (5-EdU)	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Buffer additive CS219074	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
6-FAM-Azide	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
5/6-Sulforhodamine101-PEG3-Azide	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
5-TAMRA-PEG3-Azide	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Eterneon-Red 645 Azide	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
10X Reaction Buffer	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Triton X-100	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Mounting solution	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Dithiothreitol (DTT)	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA)	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
Tris base	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
LB agar	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Tryptone	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
Yeast extract	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
GelRed	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Agarose	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
Film developers	Kodak, USA
Polyvinylidene-Fluoride (PVDF)	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
chemiluminescence (ECL) Hyperfilm	GE Healthcare, Germany

Solutions used in organ bath were listed in Table 2.

Table 2: Composition of solutions used in organ bath.

Solution	Component	
Krebs- Henseleit solution 1 (KH1)	NaCl	172.4g
	KCl	8.8g
	CaCl ₂ •2H ₂ O	9.2g
	KH ₂ PO ₄	4.1g
	MgSO ₄ •7H ₂ O	7.4g
Krebs- Henseleit solution 2 (KH2)	NaHCO ₃	32.5g
Solution in Organ bath (Guirgis et al.)	Distilled water	1000ml
	KH-1	43.5ml
	Glucose	1.62g
	KH-2	43.5ml

Devices used in this study were listed in Table 3.

Table 3: Devices used in this study.

Products	Manufacturer
Tissue Bath System- 720MO	DMT (Danish Myotechnology), Denmark
Electrical Stimulation Fields	DMT (Danish Myotechnology), Denmark
Lab pump	KNF- Neuberger, USA
Thermostat	Memmert, Germany
American Type Culture Collection	ATCC Manassas, USA
Light Cycler PCR system	Roche, Switzerland
Protran® nitrocellulose membranes	Schleicher & Schuell, Germany
Gel electrophoresis system	Bio- rad, Germany
Superfrost® microscope slides	Thermo Fisher, USA
Laser scanning microscope	Leica SP2, Germany
Lab-Tek chamber slides	Thermo Fisher, USA
Cell culture incubator	Thermo Fisher, USA
Waterbath	Thermo Fisher, USA

3.2 Human prostate

Human prostate tissues were obtained from patients undergoing radical prostatectomy for prostate cancer (n= 123). Prostate tissues from those patients who previously received transurethral resection of prostate (TURP) or brachytherapy were excluded. All prostates were sent to the Department of Pathology immediately after prostatectomy and subsequently macroscopically examined by an experienced pathologist. Tissues were then taken from areas of

the periurethral zone, where no signs of neoplasia, cancer or inflammation were macroscopically observed.

The research was carried out according to the Declaration of Helsinki of the World Medical Association, and has been approved by the ethics committee of Ludwig-Maximilians University, Munich, Germany. Prostate tissues were either stored in Custatdiaol[®] at 4 °C for organ bath studies for a maximum of 90 min, or at -80 °C after shock frozen in liquid nitrogen for molecular research.

3.3 Cell culture

The cell line WPMY-1 used in this study which were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC Manassas, VA, USA), is an immortalized cell line from human prostate stroma without malignant transformation. Cells were recovered from liquid nitrogen and cultured in RPMI 1640 (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum (FCS) (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 1% penicillin (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA)/ Streptomycin (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂. Cells were washed with PBS (pre-warmed to 37°C by water-bath) (Gibco, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and then incubated in 1 ml accutase (37 °C) for 5 min. After applying 10 ml of complete culture media to block the digestion process, cells were recollected by centrifugation (1,200 rpm, 5 min). Cell pellets were resuspended with culture media and transferred to flasks. Cells were detached after accutase digestion and centrifuged and resuspended in freezing media of 1ml (FBS with 10% DMSO), then transferred to a cryotube and stored at -80 °C for short-term or nitrogen tank for long-term storage.

3.3 Real time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

3.3.1 RNA isolation and concentration measurement

- For isolation from prostate tissues, the tissue amount was 30 mg. Tissues were homogenized performed with FastPrep®- 24 system with marix A (MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France). For isolation from prostate cells, the amount of cells was 1×10^7 .
- Add Buffer RLT (600 μ l) to prostate tissues or cells.
- Centrifuge the lysate at maximum speed for 3 min, then remove the supernatant by pipetting.
- Add 600 μ l 70% ethanol to the lysate and mix completely by pipetting (no centrifuge in this procedure).
- Transfer 700 μ l of the sample (including the precipitate) to the RNeasy Mini spin column placed in a 2 ml Eppendorf tube. Close the lid and centrifuge at maximal speed for 15 sec, and then discard the flow-through.
- Add 700 μ l Buffer RW1 to the RNeasy spin column, centrifuge at maximal speed for 15 sec, and then discard the flow-through.
- Add 500 μ l Buffer RPE to the RNeasy spin column, centrifuge at maximal speed for 15 sec, and then discard the flow-through.
- Add 500 μ l Buffer RPE to the RNeasy spin column, centrifuge at maximal speed for 2 min, and then discard the flow-through.
- Place the RNeasy spin column in a new RNase- free collection tube (1.5 ml), add 50 μ l RNase- free water to the spin column membrane, centrifuge at maximal speed for 1 min, and then collect the flow-through (repeat this procedure if necessary).
- Concentration measurement of RNA was performed with Nanodrop spectrophotometer, Nuclease- free water was used for blanking before measuring.

3.3.2 Reverse Transcription (RT)

RNA sample was incubated at 70 °C for 10 min, 1 µg of RNA sample was reverse transcribed using Reverse Transcription System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) (Table 4).

Table 4: RT-PCR reaction system.

Components	Volumes (µl)
Random hexamer oligodeoxyribonucleotides	0.5
Ribonuclease inhibitor	0.5
Reverse-transcriptase (23 U/µl)	0.65
dNTP mix, 10 mM	2
10xRT buffer	2
MgCl ₂ , 25 mM	4
RNase-free water	10.35

3.3.3 Primer design

Based on the RefSeq accession numbers, NM_001204426 for LIMK1, NM_001031801 for LIMK2 and NM_002046 for Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), primers were provided by Qiagen (Hilden, Germany) as ready-to-use mixes.

3.3.4 Real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

RT-PCR for LIMK1, LIMK2 and GAPDH was performed with a Roche Light Cycler (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). PCR reactions were carried out in a volume of 25 µl which contained 5 µl LightCycler® FastStart DNA MasterPlus

SYBR Green I (Roche, Basel, Switzerland), 1 μ l template, 1 μ l primer, and 18 μ l water. The settings run on the Light Cycler were used as followed:

Denaturation	95°C	10 min	
Denaturation	95°C	15 sec	} 45 cycles
Annealing and 3xtension	60°C	60 sec	

Melting curve

Cooling

$\Delta\Delta$ CP crossing points (CP) method was used to express the results (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Δ CP was defined as the value which number of cycles (Abrams et al.) for LIMKs subtracted the Ct values at which the fluorescence signal exceeded a defined threshold of GAPDH (Δ CP= $C_{tLIMK} - C_{tGAPDH}$). Values were then calculated as $2^{-\Delta CP}$ and normalized to each other.

3.4 Western blotting

- **Samples preparation:**

Fresh prostate tissues were cut into several small strips at the size of approximately 6 x 1 x 1 mm³ and separated into two groups (control and inhibitor, or control and agonist, solvent was used as control). Tissues were placed in 6-well plates which filled with 10 ml custodiol®, and allowed to reach an equilibration period after 20 min before adding inhibitors (1 μ M of SR7826 or LIMKi3), agonist (30 μ M of phenylephrine or U46619) or control (solvent). Plates were then under continuous shanking at 37 °C for incubation.

For the detection of SR7826- or LIMKi3-induced cofilin phosphorylation, the incubation duration was 2 h, control groups were incubated with

solvent DMSO in same conditions. For the detection of agonist-induced cofilin and LIMK phosphorylation, the incubation durations were 10 min or 45 min for phenylephrine, or 1 h for U46619, control groups were incubated with solvent (water for phenylephrine, and ethanol for U46619) in same conditions. Tissues were then frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until needed.

- Homogenization of the prostate tissues in a buffer containing 10 μ M phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride, 10 μ g/ml leupeptine hemisulfate, 1 mM benzamide, and 25 mM Tris/HCl using a FastPrep®-24 system with matrix A (MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France).
- Centrifugation of the homogenates at 20,00g for 4 min, transfer of the supernatant to a new Eppendorf Tubes.
- Assaying the protein concentration in supernatant using the Dc-Assay kit (Biorad, Munich, Germany) according to the manual instruction.
- Boiling the supernatant for 10 min with sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany).
- Subjecting the samples (20 μ g/lane) to SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis for separation of the proteins.
- Electroblotting of the proteins on Protran® nitrocellulose membranes (Schleicher & Schuell, Dassel, Germany).
- Blocking the membranes with PBS containing 5 % milk powder (Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) at 4 °C overnight.
- Incubation of the membranes with rabbit phospho-LIMK1 (thr508)/LIMK2 (thr505) antibody (#3841) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), rabbit anti LIMK1 (GTX10561-50) (GeneTex, Irvine, CA, USA), rabbit anti cofilin (D59) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse anti p-cofilin 1 (sc-365882), mouse monoclonal anti calponin 1/2/3 (sc-136987), mouse monoclonal anti pan-cytokeratin (sc-8018), mouse monoclonal anti β -actin antibody (sc-47778) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), or mouse monoclonal anti PSA (sc-7316) at 4 °C

overnight. All primary antibodies were diluted in PBS containing 0.1 % Tween 20 (PBS-T) and 5 % milk powder.

- Washing the membranes with PBS-T three times every five minutes.
- Incubation with the secondary biotinylated horse anti mouse or horse anti goat IgG (BA-1000, BA-2000, BA-9500) (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA), then application of avidin and biotinylated HRP from the “Vectastain ABC kit” (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA), both were diluted 1:200 in PBS. Incubation lasted for 1 h at room temperature.
- Washing the membranes with PBS-T three times every five minutes.
- Washing the membranes with PBS once.
- Developing the blots with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) using ECL Hyperfilm (GE Healthcare, Germany).

3.5 Fluorescence staining

- Sample preparation: human prostate tissues were embedded in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) compound, and snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until needed.
- Cutting the prostate specimens into sections (8 µm thick) using a cryostat and then mounted on Superfrost® microscope slides (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA). (Slides should be warmed to room temperature before staining)
- Washing the slides with PBS.
- Post-fixing the sections using methanol at -20 °C and blocked in 1 % bovine serum for 30 min.
- Incubation of the sections with primary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. Primary antibodies were used in different sections according to the target proteins detections and listed as followed: rabbit anti LIMK1 (GTX10561-50) (GeneTex, Irvine, CA, USA), rabbit anti p-cofilin (serine

3) (77G2) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), rabbit anti cofilin (D59) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse anti pan-cytokeratin (sc-8018), or mouse anti calponin 1/2/3 (sc-136987) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Control groups were stained without any primary antibody.

- Washing the sections with PBST for three time every five minutes.
- Incubation of the sections with biotinylated secondary antibodies for 30 minutes at room temperature. Secondary antibodies were used in different sections according to the target proteins detections and listed as followed: Cy5-conjugated goat anti rabbit IgG (ab6564) (Abcam, Cambridge, UK), Cy3-conjugated goat anti mouse IgG (AP124C) (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA), and fluorescein isothiocyanate- (FITC-) conjugated rabbit anti goat IgG (AP106F) (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).
- Washing the sections with PBST for three time every two minutes.
- Counterstaining the Nuclei with 4', 6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole-dihydrochloride (DAPI) (Invitrogen, Camarillo, CA, USA).
- Rinsing in PBST for three time every five minutes.
- Dehydration through 95% ethanol for two min, and then 100% ethanol for twice every 3 min.
- Coverslip with anti-fade mounting medium.
- Analyzing the fluorescence with separate detectors using a confocal fluorescence microscope.

3.6 Prostate tissue tension measurements

- Krebs–Henseleit solution preparation for organ bath: put 43.5 ml KH1 and 1.62 g glucose into distilled water of 1000 ml, gas charged constantly with carbogen (95 % O₂, 5% CO₂) for 25 to 30 min, then adding 43.5 ml KH2

and gas charged for at least 5 min. KH was stored in flask and warmed and maintained at 37 °C in a thermostatic container.

- Pretension: chambers of organ bath were filled with KH solution of 10ml, KH solution was maintained at a temperature of 37 °C and carbogen (95 % O₂, 5% CO₂) was constantly charged in the chamber. Prostate strips were cut from fresh prostate tissues in the size of approximate 6 × 3 × 3 mm and then fixed in the organ bath. All the tissues were stretched to 4.9 mN and left to obtain equilibration for 45 min, during this period, spontaneous decreases in tone could be usually observed, so tension was readjusted for three times before the tone reached a stable resting tension of 4.9 mN.
- Maximal contraction of prostate strips: 400 µl of 2 M KCl (final concentration: 80mM in chamber) was added to each chamber to induce the maximal contraction of prostate strip, after that, the chambers were washed with KH solution for three times in a total volume of 30 ml.
- Inhibitors/agonist preparation and incubation: SR7826 and LIMKi3 were dissolved in DMSO, 10 µl of 1 mM SR7826, or 10 µl of 1 mM LIMKi3 was added in chamber as experiment group, and reached the final concentration to 1 µM, respectively. 10 µl of DMSO was added in chamber as control. Both inhibitors and solvent were applied to prostate strips at least 30 min before adding agonists or electrical field stimulus (EFS).
- Agonist- and EFS- induced contractions: frequencies of EFS in this study were set as 2 Hz, 4 Hz, 8 Hz, 16 Hz, and 32 Hz. Agonists and concentrations used in this study were listed in table 5-9 as follow:

Table 5. Concentrations of noradrenaline in organ bath.

Concentration	Volume	Final concentration in organ bath
0.1 mM	10 μ l	0.1 μ M
0.1 mM	20 μ l	0.3 μ M
1 mM	7 μ l	1 μ M
1 mM	20 μ l	3 μ M
10 mM	7 μ l	10 μ M
10 mM	20 μ l	30 μ M
10 mM	70 μ l	100 μ M

Table 6. Concentrations of phenylephrine in organ bath.

Concentration	Volume	Final concentration in organ bath
0.1 mM	10 μ l	0.1 μ M
0.1 mM	20 μ l	0.3 μ M
1 mM	7 μ l	1 μ M
1 mM	20 μ l	3 μ M
10 mM	7 μ l	10 μ M
10 mM	20 μ l	30 μ M
10 mM	70 μ l	100 μ M

Table 7. Concentrations of methoxamine in organ bath.

Concentration	Volume	Final concentration in organ bath
0.1 mM	10 μ l	0.1 μ M
0.1 mM	20 μ l	0.3 μ M
1 mM	7 μ l	1 μ M
1 mM	20 μ l	3 μ M
10 mM	7 μ l	10 μ M
10 mM	20 μ l	30 μ M
10 mM	70 μ l	100 μ M

Table 8. Concentrations of U46619 in organ bath.

Concentration	Volume	Final concentration in organ bath
0.1 mM	10 μ l	0.1 μ M
0.1 mM	20 μ l	0.3 μ M
1 mM	7 μ l	1 μ M
1 mM	20 μ l	3 μ M
10 mM	7 μ l	10 μ M
10 mM	20 μ l	30 μ M

Table 9. Concentrations of endothelin-1 in organ bath.

Concentration	Volume	Final concentration in organ bath
0.4 mM	2.5 μ l	0.1 μ M
0.4 mM	5 μ l	0.3 μ M
0.4 mM	17.5 μ l	1 μ M
0.4 mM	50 μ l	3 μ M

- Agonist- and EFS- induced contractions calculation: KCl- induced prostate smooth muscle contraction was set as 100%, agonists- and EFS- induced contractions were expressed as % of KCl- induced contractions.

3.7 Phalloidin staining

- Cells were digested by trypsin, then transferred and plated on Lab-Tek chamber slides (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA) at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO₂ for culture until reaching a degree of fusion to 80%.
- Cells were applied with SR7826 or LIMKi3 in the concentrations of 5 μM and 10 μM, respectively for 24 h. Control group was applied with solvent DMSO.
- Washed the cells with PBS (pre-warmed to 37°C by water-bath) for twice.
- Cells were fixed by 3.7% paraformaldehyde solution at room temperature for 5 – 10 min, and washed again PBS (pre-warmed to 37°C by water-bath).
- Cells were stained with 100 μM fluorescein isothiocyanate- (FITC-) labeled phalloidin (Sigma-Aldrich, Munich, Germany) at room temperature for 40 min.
- Washed the cells with PBS for three times to remove the unbound phalloidin conjugate.
- Removed residual water in the cells and added antifade mounting medium to the labeled cells.
- Used a laser scanning microscope (Leica SP2, Wetzlar, Germany) to analyze the labeled cells.

3.8 Viability assay

- Dispersion of 100 μ l of cell suspension (20,000 cells/ well) in a 96-well plate and incubated in a humidified incubator (5% CO₂, 37°C) for 24 h.
- Application of inhibitors SR7826 or LIMKi3 into wells to reach concentrations to 1 μ M or 5 μ M, respectively. Added solvent DMSO as control.
- Incubation of the cells in the incubator for different length of time: 24 h, 48 h or 72 h.
- Adding 10 μ l of [2-(2-methoxy-4-nitrophenyl)-3-(4-nitrophenyl)-5-(2,4-disulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium monosodium salt (WST-8) from Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) to each well of the plate at the end of each time point (24 h, 48 h or 72 h). Performed the separate control experiments for each time point. (Avoiding introduce bubbles to the wells in this procedure)
- Incubation of the plate for 2 h in the incubator.
- Measuring the absorbance at 450 nm performed with a microplate reader.

3.9 Statistical analysis

Data in this study were presented as means \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) with the indicated number of each experiment. Both E_{\max} and EC_{50} values were calculated by curve fitting of single experiment using GraphPad Prism 6 (Statcon, Witzenhausen, Germany). Multivariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-way ANOVA were used to calculate paired or unpaired observations performed with SPSS[®] 20.0 (IBM SPSS Statistics. Armonk, New York: IBM Corporation.). P values <0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

4 Results

4.1 Detection of LIMK and cofilin in human prostate tissues

4.1.1 Detection of target proteins by Western blotting

Prostate tissues from eight patients were subjected to Western blotting for detection of LIMK and cofilin. Western blot analysis of prostate tissues using an antibody against LIMK1 revealed bands at 72 kDa which hits the expected molecular weight of LIMK1. These target bands could be observed in each sample included in this study, while the intensity of bands obtained from each sample differed (Figure 3). Western blot analysis of prostate tissues using an antibody against cofilin 1 revealed bands at 18.5 kDa which hits the expected molecular weight of cofilin 1. These target bands could be observed in each sample included in this study, and the intensity of bands obtained from each sample revealed similar (Figure 3).

Western blot analysis of calponin and pan-cytokeratin were used as markers for smooth muscle and epithelial glandular cells in included samples, respectively. Bands of calponin and pan-cytokeratin were observed in the molecular weight of 34 kDa and 37-55 kDa, respectively, despite various intensity of bands were obtained from different samples. PSA was also detected in most of the included samples in the expected molecular weight of 29 kDa, and obvious variation in bands intensity from different patients were also observed (Figure 3).

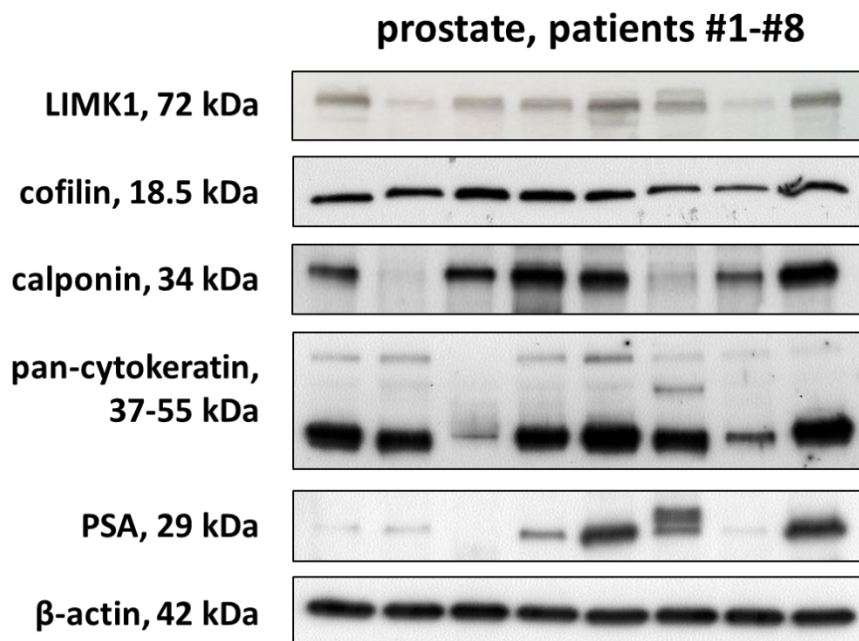
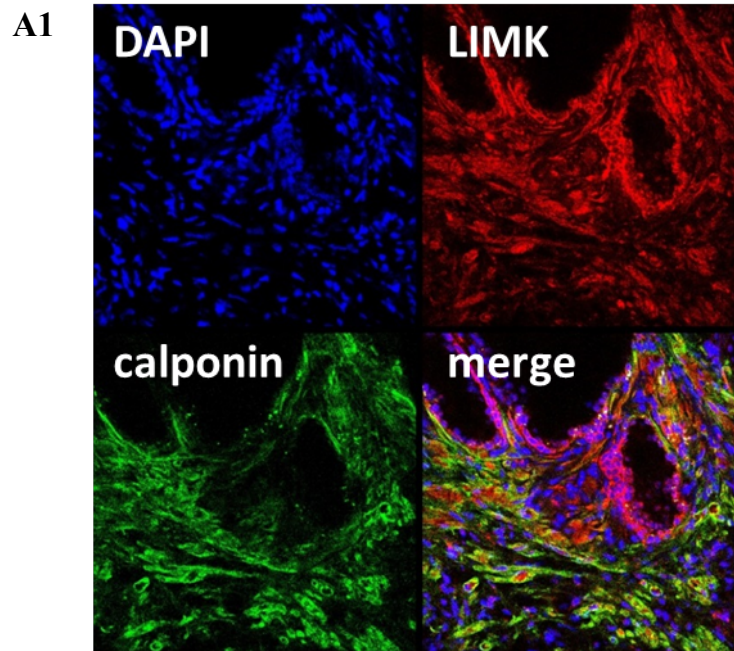


Figure 3: Detection of LIMK and cofilin in human prostate tissues. Prostate tissues for Western blot analysis were from n= 8 patients. Bands of LIMK1 and cofilin were observed in the expected molecular weight of 72 kDa and 18.5 kDa from all the included samples. Bands of calponin in molecular weight 34 kDa were observed and served as a marker for smooth muscle cells. Bands of pan-cytokeratin in molecular weight 37-55 kDa were observed and served as a marker for endothelial cells (glands). Bands of prostate-specific antigen (PSA) in were in molecular weight 29 kDa were observed and served as a marker for different degrees of benign prostate hyperplasia.

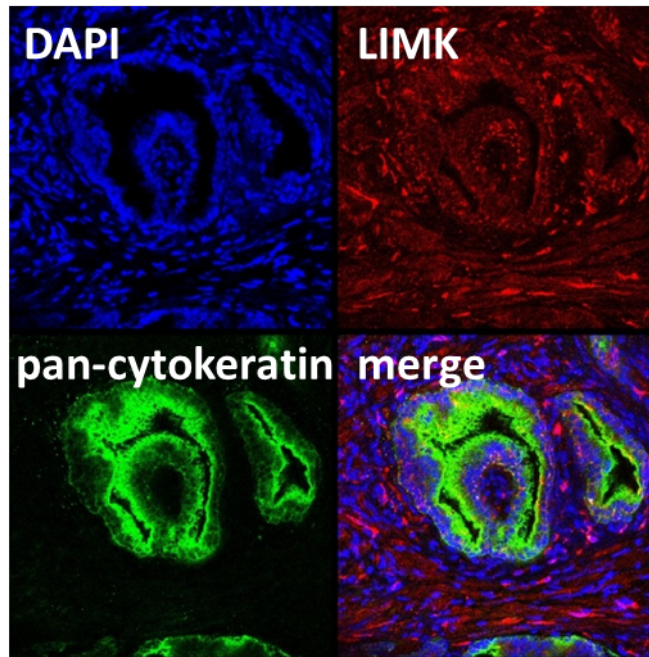
4.1.2 Detection of target proteins by fluorescence staining

Fluorescence stainings of prostate sections were performed using anti-LIMK1, anti-calponin, anti-phospho-calponin, calponin, or pan-cytokeratin antibodies. As shown in Figure 4A, with antibodies against LIMK1, calponin and pan-cytokeratin, colocalization with immunoreactivity for calponin and pan-cytokeratin indicated that LIMK1 located in smooth muscle (Figure 4A), and limitedly extent to glandular epithelium (Figure 4A).

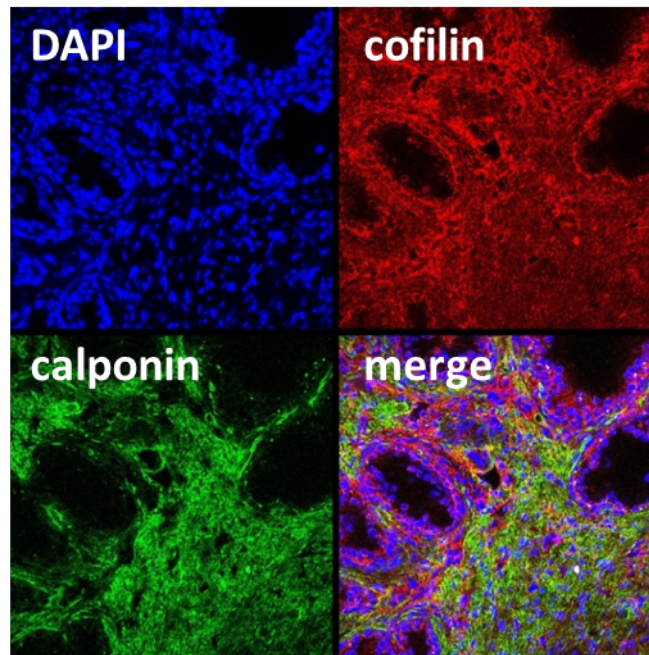
With an antibody raised against cofilin 1, colocalization with immunoreactivity suggested that cofilin 1 located in the stroma (Figure 4B), and to lesser extent in the glandular epithelium (Figure 4B2). Also, colocalization with immunoreactivity for calponin indicated localization of the cofilin immunoreactivity in smooth muscle cells (Figure 4B). With an antibody raised against phospho-calponin, colocalization with immunoreactivity suggested that phospho-calponin located in the stroma (Figure 4A1), and to lesser extent in the glandular epithelium (Figure 4C2).

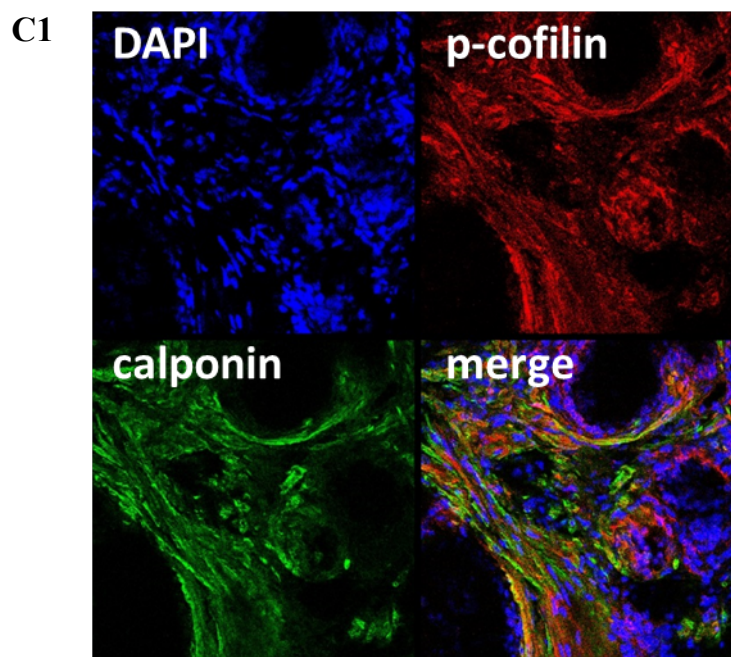
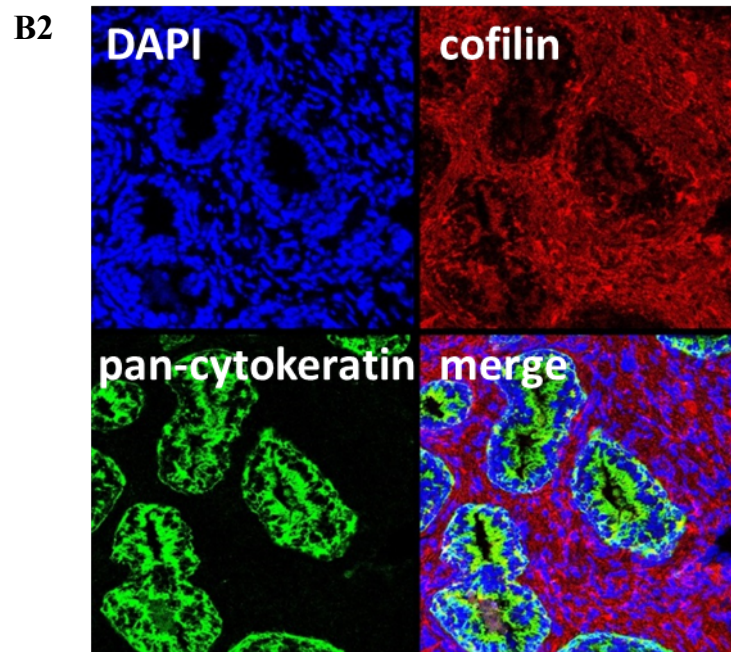


A2



B1





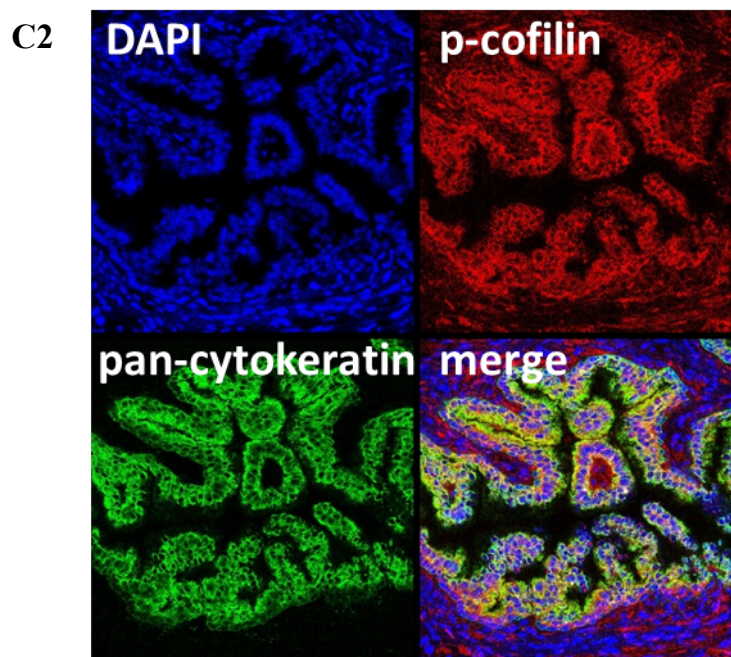


Figure 4: Immunofluorescence staining of human prostate tissues. Sections were double labelled with antibodies for LIMK1 (A), cofilin (B), or phospho-cofilin (p-cofilin) (C), together with antibodies for calponin (marker for smooth muscle cells) or pan-cytokeratin (marker for glandular epithelial cells). Yellow color in merged pictures indicates colocalization of targets. Shown are representative stainings from series with tissues from n=5 patients for each combination.

4.1.3 Detection of LIMK mRNA by RT-PCR in prostate tissue and WPMY-1 cells

Expression levels of LIMK1 and LIMK2 in prostate tissue and WPMY-1 cells were detected by RT-PCR. Prostate tissues were from seven patients, and cells from four independent experiments. Expression levels of LIMK1 and LIMK2 in each prostate sample revealed different. Remarkable higher expression levels of both LIMK1 and LIMK2 were detected in prostate tissue comparing to WPMY-1 cells (Figure 5).

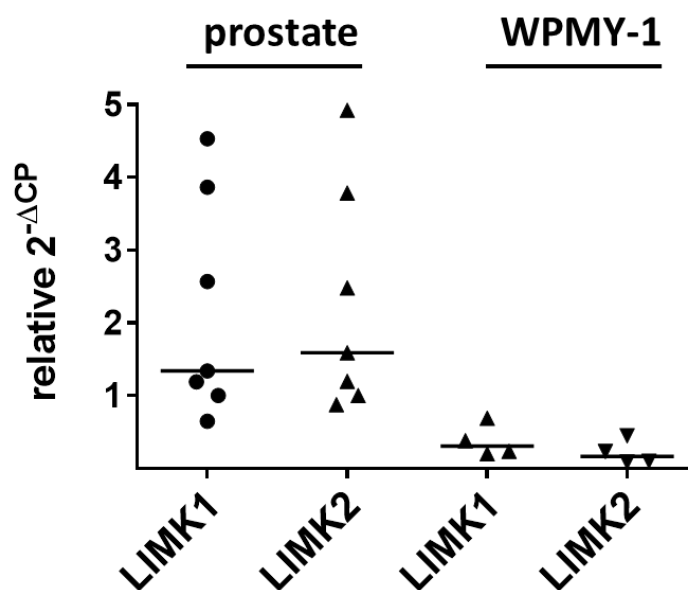


Figure 5: Detection of LIMK in human prostate tissues and WPMY-1 cells. Samples of prostate tissues and WPMY-1 cells were subjected to RT-PCR (tissues from n=7 patients, and cells from n=4 independent experiments). Data were $\Delta\Delta CP$ values ($2^{-(Ct_{target}-Ct_{GAPDH})}$, normalized to each other) and median values (bar).

4.2 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on noradrenaline-induced contractions

Noradrenaline (0.1- 100 μM) induced concentration-dependent contractions of prostate strips, which were inhibited by SR7826 (1 μM) and LIMKi3 (1 μM). Multivariate analysis showed that inhibiting effects of SR7826 were significant at 30 μM ($p=0.046$) and 100 μM ($p=0.045$) noradrenaline, and that inhibiting effects of LIMKi3 were significant at 30 μM ($p=0.029$) noradrenaline (Figure 6). Comparisons between inhibitor and control groups conducted by two-way ANOVA indicated significant inhibition of noradrenaline-induced contractions by SR7826 ($p=0.006$) and LIMKi3 ($p=0.002$).

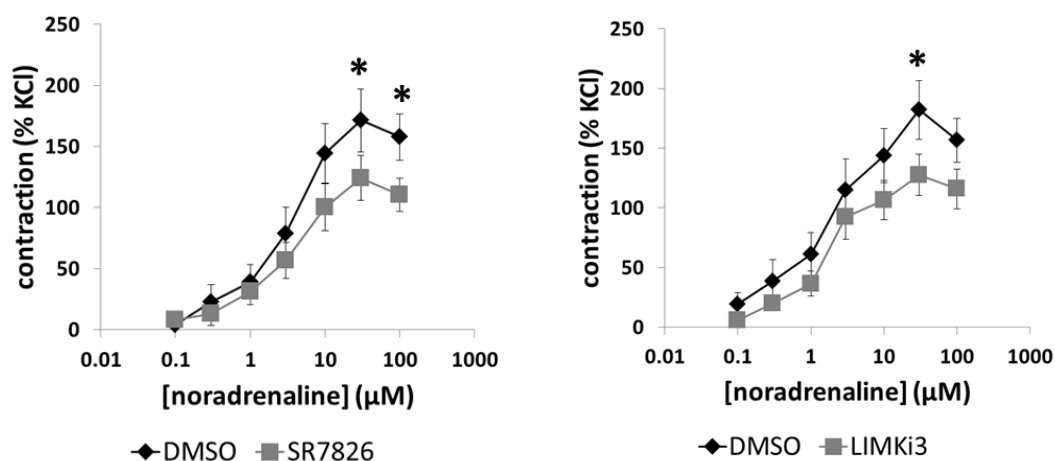


Figure 6: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on noradrenaline-induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by noradrenaline in cumulative concentrations in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data are shown as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from $n=13$ for SR7826, and $n=9$ for LMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups (* $P < 0.05$ for control vs. inhibitor).

4.3 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on phenylephrine-induced contractions

Phenylephrine (0.1- 100 μ M) induced concentration-dependent contractions of prostate strips, which were inhibited by SR7826 (1 μ M) and LIMKi3 (1 μ M). Multivariate analysis showed that inhibiting effects of SR7826 were significant at 10 μ M ($p=0.017$), 30 μ M ($p=0.014$) and 100 μ M ($p=0.015$) phenylephrine, and that the inhibiting effects of LIMKi3 were significant at 10 μ M ($p=0.004$) and 30 μ M ($p=0.016$) phenylephrine (Figure 7). Comparisons between inhibitor

and control groups conducted by two-way ANOVA indicated significant inhibition of phenylephrine-induced contractions by SR7826 ($p < 0.001$) and LIMKi3 ($p < 0.001$).

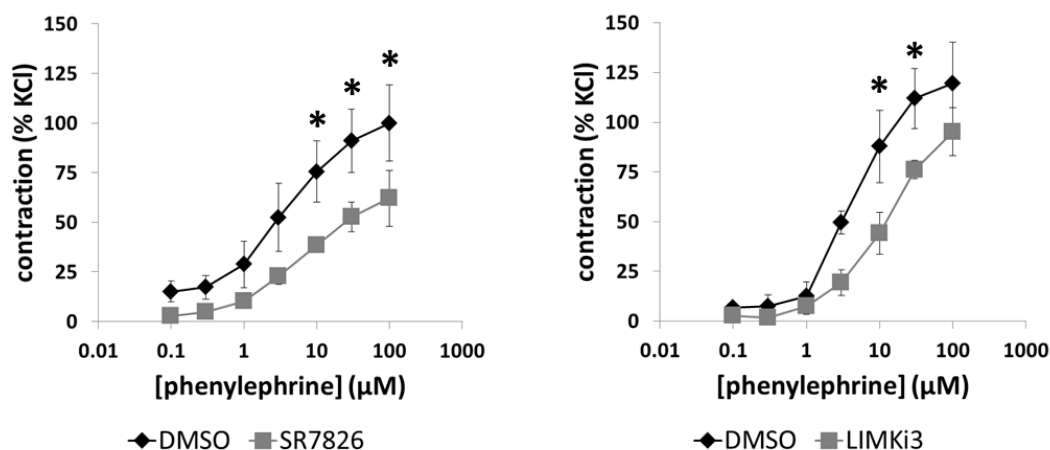


Figure 7: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on phenylephrine-induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by phenylephrine in cumulative concentrations in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data were showed as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from $n=9$ for SR7826, and $n=5$ for LIMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups (* $P < 0.05$ for control vs. inhibitor).

4.4 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on methoxamine-induced contractions

Methoxamine (0.1- 100μM) induced concentration-dependent contractions of prostate strips, which were inhibited by SR7826 (1 μM) and LIMKi3 (1 μM).

Multivariate analysis showed that inhibiting effects of SR7826 were significant at 30 μM ($p=0.018$) and 100 μM ($p=0.021$) methoxamine, and that the inhibiting effects of LIMKi3 were significant at 10 μM ($p=0.006$), 30 μM ($p=0.012$) and 100 μM ($p=0.032$) methoxamine (Figure 8). Comparisons between inhibitor and control groups conducted by two-way ANOVA indicated significant inhibition of methoxamine-induced contractions by SR7826 ($p=0.008$) and LIMKi3 ($p=0.001$).

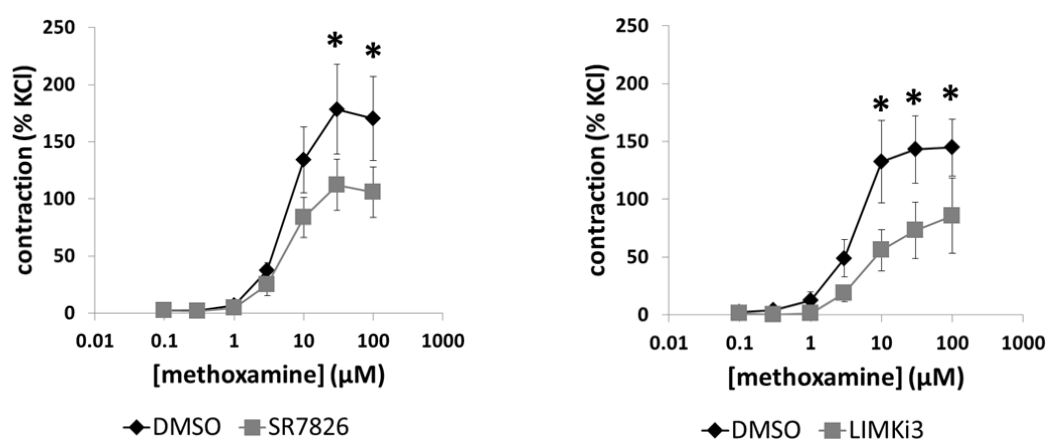


Figure 8: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on methoxamine- induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by methoxamine in cumulative concentrations in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data were showed as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from $n=6$ for SR7826, and $n=5$ for LMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups (* $P < 0.05$ for control vs. inhibitor).

4.5 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on endothelin-1-induced contractions

Endothelin-1 (0.1- 3 μM) induced concentration-dependent contractions of prostate strips. Two preliminary series (n=3 prostates/group for both SR7826 and LIMKi3) did not indicate the possibilities that SR7826 and LIMKi3 may have inhibiting effects on endothelin-1-induced contractions (Figure 9), so that these exploratory series were halted after three cases.

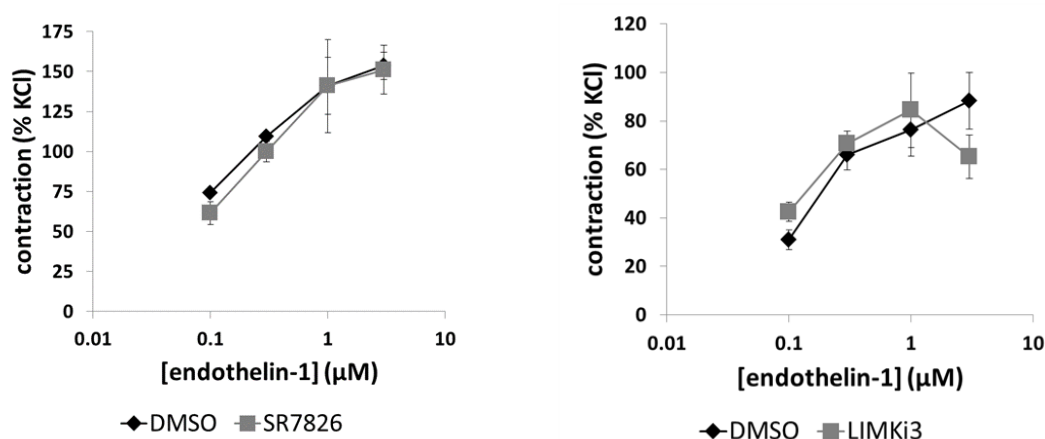


Figure 9: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on endothelin-1- induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by endothelin-1 in cumulative concentrations in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on inhibiting contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data were showed as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from n=3 for both SR7826 and LMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups.

4.6 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on U46619-induced contractions

U46619 (0.1- 30 μ M) induced concentration-dependent contractions of prostate strips, which were inhibited by SR7826 (1 μ M) and LIMKi3 (1 μ M). Multivariate analysis showed that inhibiting effects of SR7826 were significant at 1 μ M ($p=0.041$), 3 μ M ($p=0.028$) and 10 μ M ($p=0.024$) U46619, and that the inhibiting effects of LIMKi3 were significant at 1 μ M ($p=0.04$), 3 μ M ($p=0.021$), 10 μ M ($p=0.007$) and 30 μ M ($p=0.011$) U46619 (Figure 10). Comparisons between inhibitor and control groups conducted by two-way ANOVA indicated significant inhibition of U46619-induced contractions by SR7826 ($P<0.001$) and LIMKi3 ($P<0.001$).

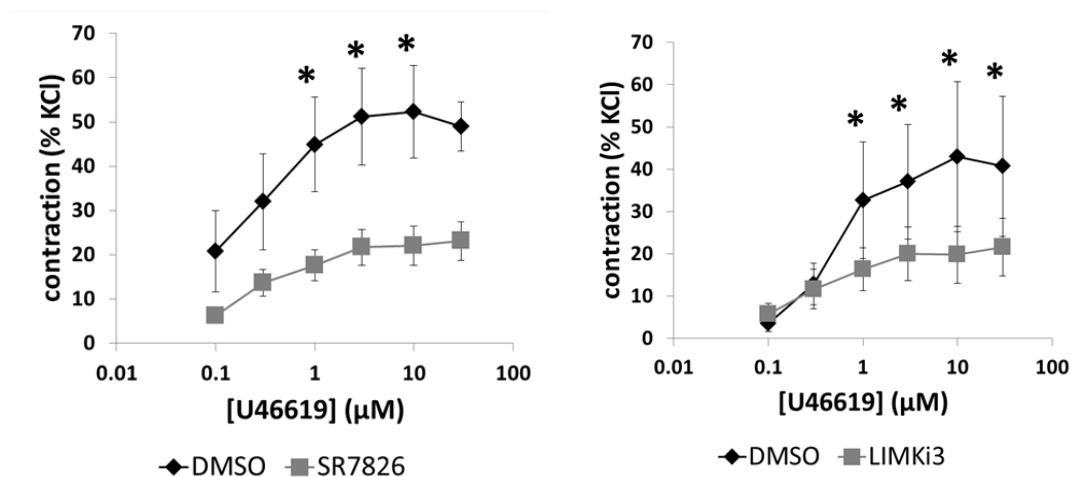


Figure 10: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on U46619- induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by U46619 in cumulative concentrations in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data were showed as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from $n=5$ for both SR7826 and LIMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups (* $P < 0.05$ for control vs. inhibitor).

4.7 Effect of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on EFS-induced contractions

EFS (2-32 Hz) induced frequency-dependent contractions of prostate strips, which were inhibited by SR7826 (1 μM) and LIMKi3 (1 μM). Multivariate analysis showed that inhibiting effects of both SR7826 and LIMKi3 were significant at 16 Hz ($p=0.013$ for SR7826, $p=0.04$ for LIMKi3) and 32 Hz ($p=0.002$ for SR7826, $p=0.008$ for LIMKi3) (Figure 11). Comparisons between inhibitor and control groups conducted by two-way ANOVA indicated significant inhibition of EFS-induced contractions by SR7826 ($p=0.002$) and

LIMKi3 ($p=0.018$).

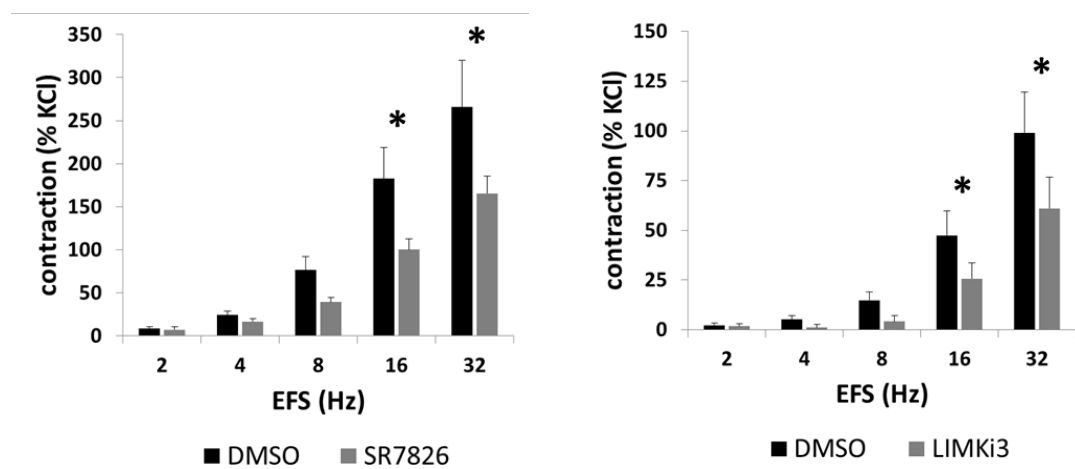


Figure 11: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on EFS- induced contractions of human prostate strips. Contractions of human prostate strips were induced by EFS in different frequencies in an organ bath. Effects of SR7826 or LIMKi3 on contractions were compared with DMSO (control) in separate sets of experiments. To eliminate heterogeneities due to different degrees of BPH and smooth muscle contents, tensions were expressed as % of contraction induced by 80 mM KCl, which was assessed before application of inhibitors and solvent. Data were showed as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from $n=5$ for both SR7826 and LMKi3, in which samples from every patient were assigned in both inhibitor and control groups (* $P < 0.05$ for control vs. inhibitor).

4.8 Effect of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on cofilin phosphorylation

Prostate tissues were incubated with either SR7826 or LIMKi3 (both 1 μ M) for 0.5 h. Subsequently, serine-3-phosphorylated cofilin was detected by Western blotting using a site- and phospho-specific antibody. As shown in Figure 12, the content of phospho-cofilin in prostate tissues was reduced by SR7826 and LIMKi3. SR7826 reduced the phospho-cofilin content by 59 ± 15 % compared

with control, while LIMKi3 reduced the content of phospho-cofilin by 56 ± 13 %. These two inhibitors seemed to have no effect on total cofilin which revealed unchanged contents after incubation, also, the content of β -actin remained unchanged.

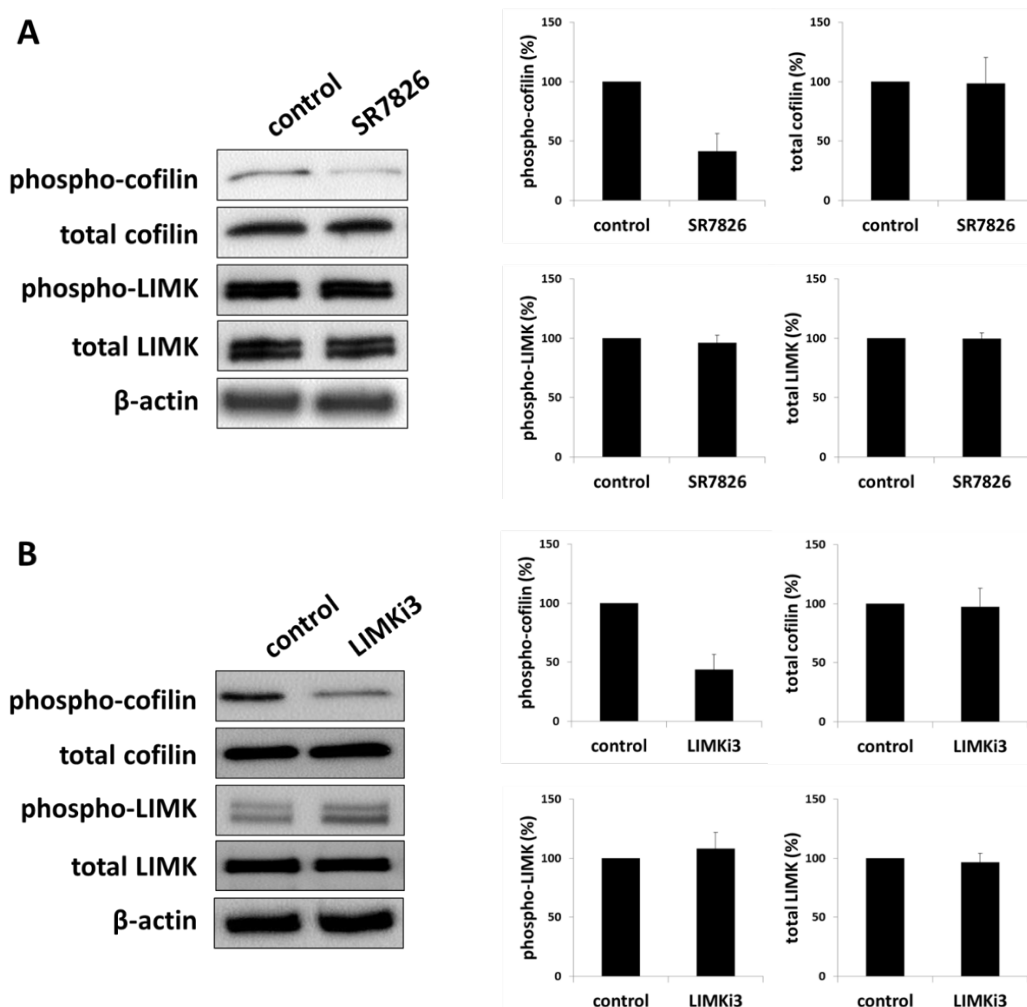
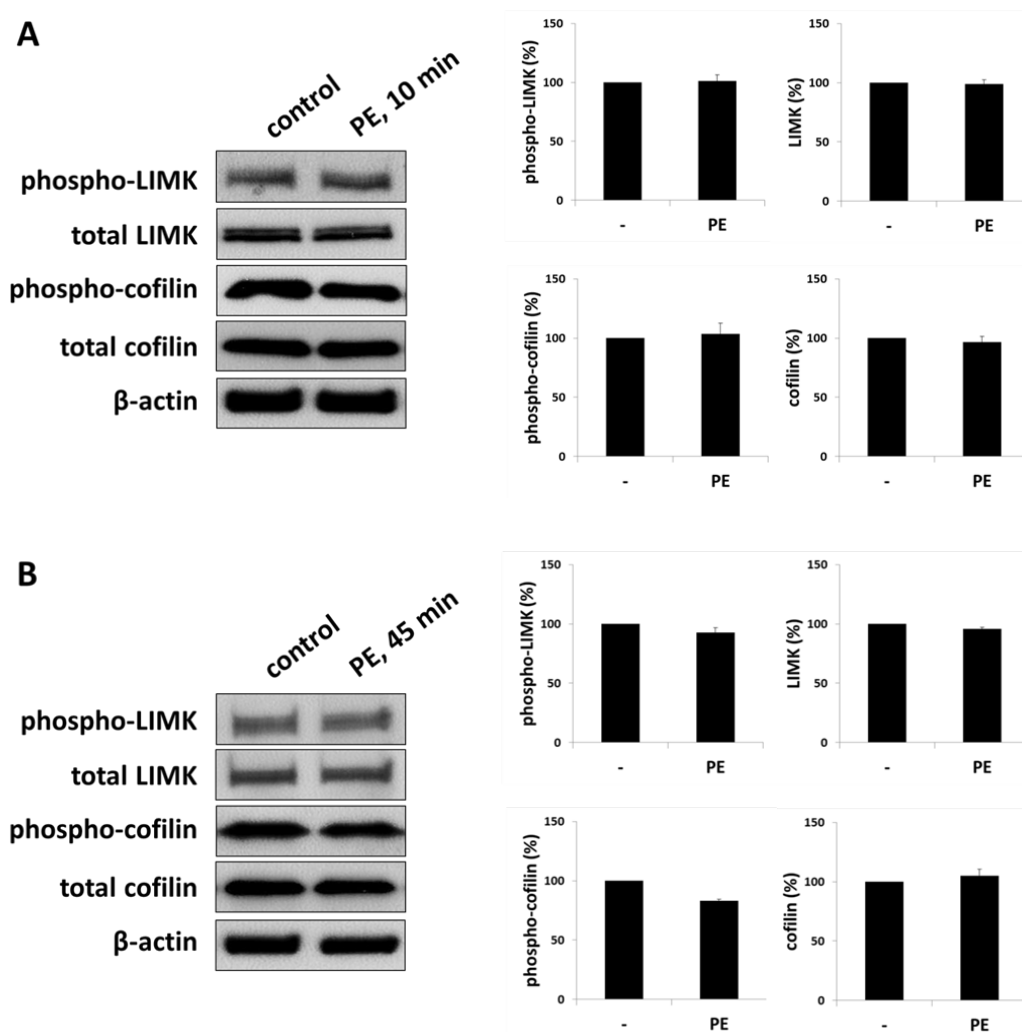


Figure 12: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on cofilin phosphorylation in human prostate tissues. Prostate tissues were incubated with SR7826 (1 μ M) or DMSO (control) (**A**), or with LIMKi3 (1 μ M) or DMSO (control) (**B**) in separate series of experiments. The phosphorylation state of cofilin was then semiquantitatively compared between both inhibitor and control groups performed with Western blotting using a site- and phospho-specific cofilin antibody. Value for each sample was normalized to the mean of each corresponding control group. Data were shown as representative blots, and means \pm SEM from series with tissues from patients $n=7$ (SR7826) or $n=6$ patients (LIMKi3).

4.9 Effect of phenylephrine and U46619 on LIMK and cofilin phosphorylation

Prostate tissues were incubated with different contractile agonists, and contents of phospho-LIMK, LIMK, phospho-cofilin, cofilin, and β -actin were then assessed by Western blotting. As shown in Figure 13, after incubation with phenylephrine (30 μ M) for 10 (Figure 13A) or 45 min (Figure 13B), or with U46619 (30 μ M) for 1 h (Figure 13C), the content of phospho-LIMK, LIMK, phospho-cofilin, cofilin, or β -actin in prostate tissues remained unchanged.



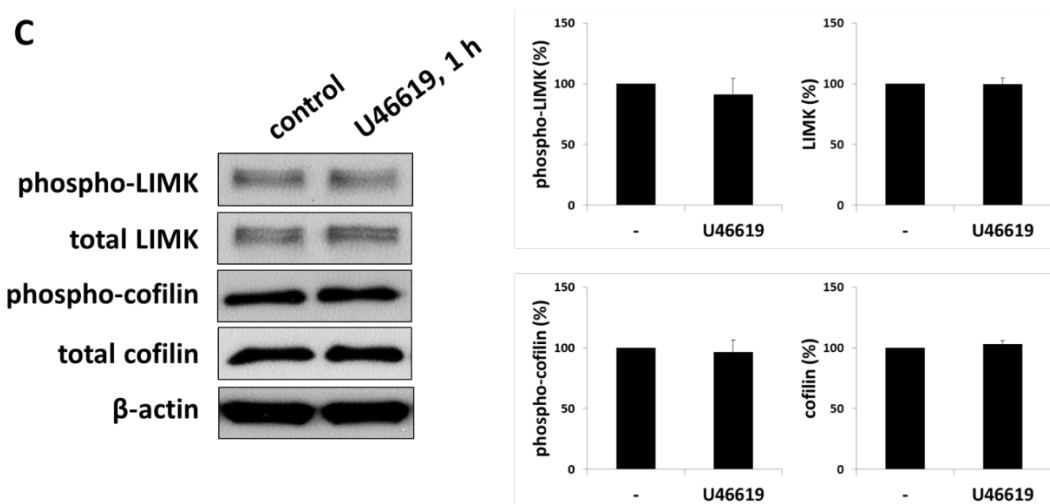


Figure 13: Effects of phenylephrine and U46619 on LIMK and cofilin phosphorylation in human prostate tissues. In each experiment, prostate tissues were incubated with phenylephrine (“PE”) (100 μ M) for 10 min (A), or 45 min (B), or with U46619 (30 μ M) for 1 h (C), or with solvent (water for PE, ethanol for U46619). Subsequently, Western blot analyses performed with site- and phospho-specific antibodies were used for semiquantitative comparison of the phosphorylation states of LIMK and cofilin between agonist and control groups. The values of total LIMK and cofilin in each sample were also detected to normalize to the mean of the corresponding control group (samples without treating with agonists). Data were presented as means \pm SEM from series with tissues from patients n=5 (PE for 10 min), n=3 (PE for 45 min), or n=7 (U46619 for 1 h).

4.10 Effect of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on viability of WPMY-1 cells

Both inhibitors, SR7826 and LIMKi3, showed a concentration-dependent effect on viability of WPMY-1 cells. At the concentration of 1 μ M (which significantly inhibited smooth muscle contraction of prostate stripes) of SR7826 and LIMKi3, only minor reduced viabilities were observed after exposure to inhibitors for 24h (control vs. SR7826 and LIMKi3= 1.197: 1.133

and 1.103), 48h (1.246: 1.127 and 1.049) or 72h (1.357: 1.193 and 1.082) (Figure 14). At the concentration of 5 μ M, both inhibitors showed markedly reduced effects on cells viability after 24h (control vs. SR7826 and LIMKi3= 1.197: 1.027 and 0.951), 48h (1.246: 1.004 and 0.8264), or 72h (1.357: 1.054 and 0.770) of exposure. Minor altered viabilities of cells in each separated period (24, 48, or 72h) were observed after exposure to the same concentration (1 μ M or 5 μ M) of SR7826 or LIMKi3, which failed to show a time-dependent effect on viability of WPMY-1 cells.

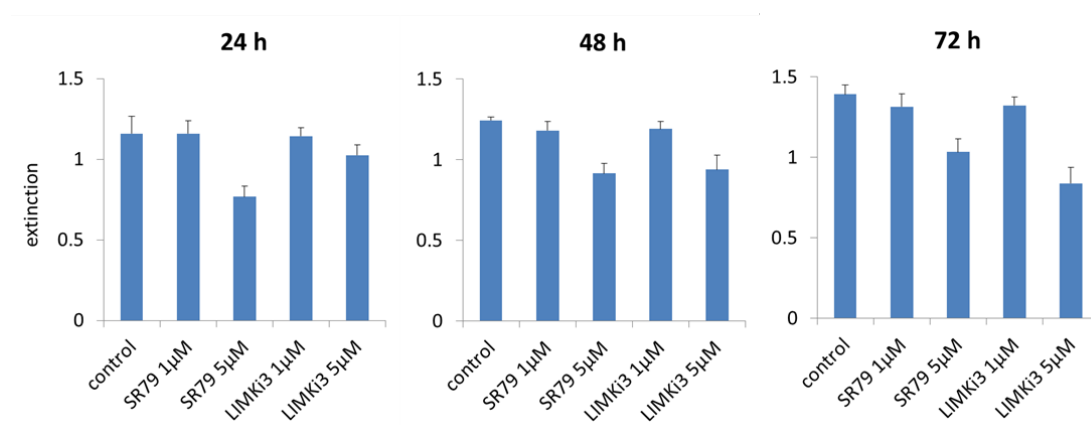


Figure 14: Concentration-dependent effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on WPMY-1 cells. WPMY-1 cells were exposed to SR7826 or LIMKi3 in concentrations of 1 μ M or 5 μ M for 24, 48, or 72h, respectively. Cells without inhibitors under the same conditions were treated as controls. Data were shown as means \pm standard deviation (SD) from n=5 independent experiments.

4.11 Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on actin organization of WPMY-1 cells

Polymerized actin in WPMY-1 cells was visualized by phalloidin staining. In control groups, where cells were treated with solvent DMSO, actin was observed to be organized to thin and long filaments, and filamentous

protrusions of different cells overlapped each other (Figure 15). Exposure to SR7826 or LIMKi3 for 24 h revealed concentration-dependent effects on actin filaments. After exposure with 5 μ M SR7826, filaments length was reduced in some cells. Cells which were still visible revealed similar actin organization to cells in controls, but these were of lesser amount (Figure 15A). Extensive breakdown of actin organization was observed after exposure with 10 μ M SR7826, so that phalloidin-stained actin was invisible in most cells and only very short filaments remained in very few cells (Figure 15B). The concentrations of 5 and 10 μ M of LIMKi3 showed similar, concentration-dependent effects on extensive breakdown of actin organization: actin filaments partly disappeared after exposure to 5 μ M of LIMKi3 after 24 h, and after exposure to 10 μ M of LIMKi3 for 24 h, remaining phalloidin-stained actin was found to be shorter, and completely restricted to the rim of some nuclei (Figure 15B).

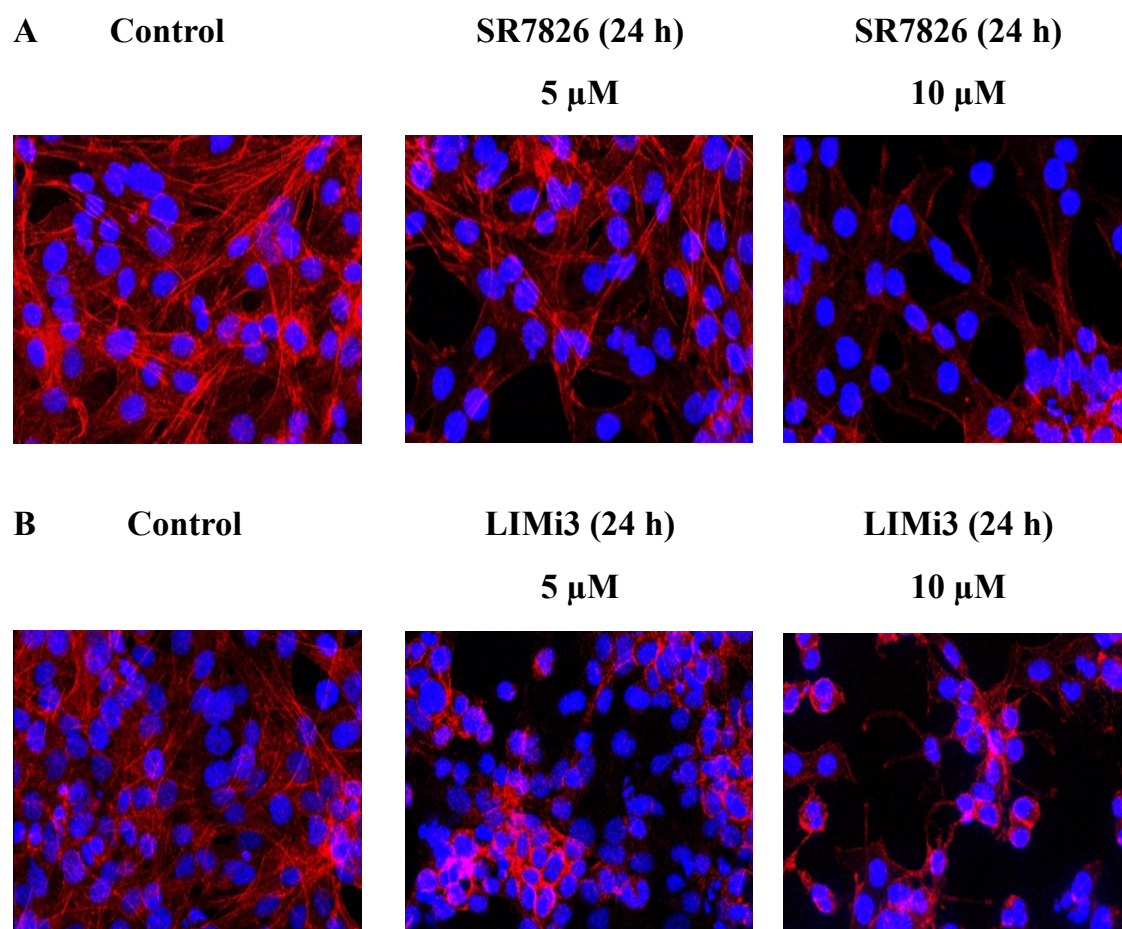


Figure 15: Effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on WPMY-1 cells. WPMY-1 cells were exposed to SR7826 or LIMKi3 in concentrations of 5 μ M or 10 μ M for 24 h. WPMY-1 cells treated with solvent DMSO under the same conditions were set as controls. Both SR7826 (A) and LIMKi3 (B) showed concentration-dependent effects on actin organization of WPMY-1 cells. Shown are representative pictures from n=3 independent experiments in both (A) and (B).

5 Discussion

The findings in this thesis suggest that LIMK inhibitors may inhibit prostate smooth muscle contraction *in vitro*. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study to explore the effects of small molecule LIMK inhibitors on regulation of smooth muscle contraction in the prostate or even in any organ.

Prostate tissues used in this study were obtained from patients undergoing radical prostatectomy due to prostate cancer. All the samples were taken from periurethral zone, while most prostate tumors are located to the peripheral zone (Pradidarcheep et al., 2011; Shaikhibrahim et al., 2012). Samples were characterized by high variations in the content of PSA which could be detected by Western blotting (Figure 3). As PSA increases with degree of hyperplasia, this may suggest different grades of BPH in the investigated samples (Levitt and Slawin, 2007). Actually, around 80% or more patients undergoing prostatectomy accompany with BPH with different degrees (Alcaraz et al., 2009; Orsted and Bojesen, 2013). So the samples used in this study may be considered as hyperplastic, but not malignant. Prostate tissues from patients undergoing TURP may show more pronounced hyperplasia. However, tissues may be seriously traumatized or denaturation after being resected from the prostate, and the size of any available samples may be lower than that obtained from radical prostatectomy. Anyway, in most patients undergoing TURP, the periurethral zone will be mostly ablated, so that samples from this zone are not accessible any more. For these reasons, prostate tissues were obtained from patients underwent prostatectomy instead TURP.

Different content of calponin between investigated samples was detected by Western blotting. This reflects a diverging content of smooth muscle between

the samples from different prostates. Different content of pan-cytokeratin between investigated samples was also observed, probably due to divergent stromal/glandular ratio in samples, which may reflect the individual variation of tissue composition of prostates (Figure 3). Immunofluorescence staining of pan-cytokeratin and calponin showed typical architecture composed of stroma and glands but also with variation between each investigated sample (Figure 4). Notably, the positive detection of pan-cytokeratin and calponin may thereby confirm that the investigated samples in this project contain normal glandular and prostate smooth muscle, which could guarantee the quality of studied samples. To correct the heterogeneity between samples, all contractions in organ bath experiments were referred to receptor- independent tensions induced by 2 M KCl.

LIMK1 and LIMK2 are encoded by separate genes which locate on chromosomes 7q11.23 and 22q12.2, respectively. Widespread distribution of LIMK1 and LIMK2 has been reported in previous studies. LIMK1 was found to be widely expressed in embryonic as well as tissues from mouse and human, with remarkably high expression in tissues from brain, lung, stomach, kidney and testis (Foletta et al., 2004). Compared to LIMK1, LIMK2 was also found in most of examined tissues, while with the exceptions of kidney glomeruli, testis and glial cells (Acevedo et al., 2006). In the present study, expressions of LIMK1 and LIMK2 in prostate tissues as well as WPMY-1 cells were confirmed performed with RT-PCR, western blotting and immunofluorescence (Figure 3 and 4).

Previous studies on LIMK in the prostate mainly focused on oncologic investigations. Overexpressed levels of LIMK1 in prostate adenocarcinomatous tissues and malignant prostate cell lines were observed, and it might be assumed that LIMK were essential for the invasive property and the growth of prostate cancer cells (Davila et al., 2003). In contrast, suppression of upstream

regulators in the LIMK-associated signaling pathways caused downregulation of LIMK, which thereby inhibited proliferation of prostate cancer in vitro (Cai et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2015). Also, downregulation of LIMK inhibited by LIMK selective inhibitors has been demonstrated to reduce motility and proliferation of prostate cancer cells (Mardilovich et al., 2015).

LIMK are homologous serine/threonine kinases which may be activated by Rho/ROCK, cAMP/PKA, Rac/PAK, and Cdc42/MRCK signaling pathways (Bernard, 2007). LIMK phosphorylate cofilin proteins on serine 3 and thereby act as regulators of actin-myosin cytoskeletal dynamics, which includes actin polymerization, filament assemble, and stress fiber formation in a number of various cell types. (Hennenberg et al., 2008; Hennenberg et al., 2014b, a; San Martin et al., 2008; Scott and Olson, 2007). Previous studies on relation between LIMK and smooth muscle cells or tissues were quite few, and most of them were mainly focusing on inhibiting the upstream modulator of LIMK-associated signaling pathways which caused change in LIMK expression, but not directly upregulating or downregulating the expression of LIMK itself. Thus, direct evidence from functional studies for an involvement of LIMK in smooth muscle contraction, e. g. from application of small molecule inhibitors in organ bath studies is still absent. After treating with ROCKII inhibitor, attenuated phosphorylated LIMK1/2 and phosphorylated cofilin were observed in vascular smooth muscle cells, which thereby reduced the vascular structural remodeling (Al-Ghabkari et al., 2016). Force-induced RhoA activation was also reported to promote phosphorylation of LIMK and cofilin, and hence increased hypertrophic growth of the myocardium (Zhao et al., 2007). Platelet derived growth factor (PDGF) and IL- 1 β , were reported to promote proliferation and migration of smooth muscle cells and cause pulmonary hypertension via upregulating of phosphorylation of LIMK and cofilin (Bongalon et al., 2004; Wilson et al., 2015).

SR7826 and LIMKi3 are small molecule inhibitors, which inhibit LIMK1 (SR7826 and LIMKi3) and LIMK2 (LIMKi3) with high potency. In biochemical kinase assays, where inhibition was assessed using recombinant kinases *in vitro*, SR7826 inhibited LIMK1 with an IC₅₀ value of 43 nM, while LIMKi3 inhibited LIMK1- and -2 with IC₅₀ values of 7-8 nM (Ross-Macdonald et al., 2008; Yin et al., 2015). As to SR7826, comparing to the concentration used in this study (1 μM), its IC₅₀ values for other kinases ranged much higher, for example, more than 5 μM for ROCK1 and ROCK2. It is widely accepted that, due to the different access to the inhibitors' targets resulting from barriers like connective tissue or membranes, IC₅₀ values in biochemical assays are usually lower than EC₅₀ values in organ bath experiments and in intact tissues (Hennenberg et al., 2016; Swinney, 2004; Vauquelin et al., 2002). So it may be reasonable that the concentration of 1 μM used for SR7826 and LIMKi3 in this study was comparably low, and still below IC₅₀ values for non-specific kinase inhibition indicated in biochemical assays. Inhibition of LIMK2 by SR7826 has not been reported, so that it may be assumed that the inhibition of prostate contraction occurred by inhibition of LIMK1 rather than LIMK2. However, it is presently not possible to estimate whether inhibition of LIMK2 by SR7826 is in fact lacking, or whether this reflects lack of data.

LIMK can be phosphorylated at threonine 508 by upstream signaling pathways (e.g. ROCK isoforms), and thereby affect its substrate cofilin (Bernard, 2007). As observed in this study, the content of phospho-cofilin in prostate tissues was significantly reduced after being treated with SR7832 and LIMKi3, while the content of phospho-LIMK remain unchanged in these tissues. This may allow the conclusion that inhibition of prostate smooth muscle contraction was mainly caused by specific inhibitions of LIMK1 and/or LIMK2, but did not involve inhibition of ROCK isoforms. In fact, Rho kinases are activated by contractile receptors, so that LIMK would be observed here, if LIMK activation involved Rho kinase (Hennenberg et al., 2006). Moreover, it may be

concluded that threonine 508 is no substrate for LIMK autophosphorylation in the prostate, as no decreases in LIMK phosphorylation at this position were induced by SR7826 or LIMKi3.

In prostate tissues, inhibition of cofilin phosphorylation was limited to 56-59 %, what may be attributed to LIMK inhibition. As a certain degree of remaining phosphorylated cofilin was observed in the presence of LIMK inhibitors, a contribution of additional kinases to cofilin phosphorylation in prostate tissues and WPMY-1 cells appears possible.

In the organ bath experiments, we observed that small molecule LIMK inhibitors inhibited contractile responses induced by α_1 -adrenergic receptor agonist which induced noradrenaline, phenylephrine, and methoxamine. The inhibitions ranged around 30%, which may be a little weaker than the inhibiting effect of tamsulosin, the approved clinical used α_1 -adrenergic blocker (Gratzke et al., 2015; Hennenberg et al., 2017a; Oelke et al., 2013). While in the EFS-induced muscle contractions, which are assumed to be mediated by release of endogenous neurotransmitters, and further activation of postsynaptic α_1 -adrenoceptors on smooth muscle cells, these two inhibitors showed inhibitions ranged around 50% that may equal or even exceed the inhibiting effect of α_1 -adrenergic blocker (Buono et al., 2014; Oger et al., 2010).

Strikingly, SR7826 and LIMKi3 were also observed to inhibit agonist-induced contractions caused by the thromboxane A_2 analog U46619. It may be hypothesized that these two inhibitors could improve urodynamic parameters in vivo, which may resemble, or even exceed the effects of clinical approved used α_1 -blockers. SR7826 and LIMKi3 failed to show inhibiting effects on endothelin-1-induced smooth muscle contraction after three independent experiments, so that organ bath series with endothelin-1 were discontinued for economic reasons after three experiments, because it was obvious that

inhibitions were unlikely to be expected. Endothelin-1 is one of the most important endogenous smooth muscle constrictors; it can activate DAG and Rho and further phosphorylates MLC, but not cofilin, to cause smooth muscle contraction (Bouallegue et al., 2007). It might be speculated that the different signaling pathways activated by endothelin-1 may contribute to the absence of inhibiting effects by SR7826 and LIMKi3.

It has been reported that some smooth muscle contractile agonists, which include phenylephrine, noradrenaline, endothelin-1, angiotensin II, thrombin, and 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) induce LIMK activation and cofilin phosphorylation in vascular smooth muscle cells (Dai et al., 2008; Du et al., 2010). To identify whether contractile agonists could activate LIMK in prostate, their effects on LIMK and cofilin phosphorylation were tested. U46619 is a synthetic analog of prostaglandin PGH₂ and acts as a thromboxane A₂ receptor agonist, while phenylephrine is a selective α_1 -adrenergic receptor agonist. After being treated with phenylephrine for 10 min or 45 min, or with U46619 for 1 h, no change in the content of phospho-LIMK or phospho-cofilin was observed in these prostate tissues (Figure 13). This may suggest that that neither α_1 -adrenoceptors nor thromboxane A₂ receptors activate LIMK in the human prostate.

Immunofluorescence study on untreated prostate tissues suggested the detection of phospho-cofilin (Figure 13). Although this may suggest a pool of active LIMK in the prostate cells, the conclusion on whether this reflects a constitutive or inducible process could not be drawn, as other kinases, e.g. TESK1 (Toshima et al., 2001a), TESK2 (Toshima et al., 2001b), and NRK/NESK (Nakano et al., 2003), have been also reported to be able to phosphorylate cofilin. LIMK may be a crucial intracellular modulator in prostate smooth muscle contractile response, however, the role of LIMK as a signal transducer from receptors to contraction in the human prostate remained

unclear.

LIMK phosphorylate cofilin, and thereby promote actin filaments polymerization and cytoskeleton reorganization. Previous studies have reported a role of LIMKs in regulating actin organization in breast cancer cells (Bagheri-Yarmand et al., 2006), prostate cancer cells, and prostate epithelial cells (Davila et al., 2003). As observed in this study, prostate smooth muscle cells shown a breakdown of the actin cytoskeleton after being treated with SR7826 and LIMKi3 in a concentration-dependent manner, which was consistent with the previous findings from other cell types (Bagheri-Yarmand et al., 2006; Davila et al., 2003; San Martin et al., 2008; Yang et al., 1998). Since actin polymerization and cytoskeleton reorganization are considered to be a prerequisite for smooth muscle contraction, the breakdown of organization in WPMY-1 cells observed in this study (Figure 15) might thereby be responsible for reducing the smooth muscle contraction.

The concentrations of both inhibitors to induce the breakdown of actin organization in WPMY-1 cells (5 μ M) were higher than those to inhibit smooth muscle contraction of prostate strips (1 μ M). It may be hypothesized that the different expression levels of LIMK1 and LIMK2 between prostate tissue and WPMY-1 cells might be responsible for the different required concentrations. As detected in this study, WPMY-1 cells showed lower mRNA contents of both LIMK1 and LIMK2 compared with prostate tissues. This may explain why higher concentrations of inhibitors were required: at low content of target kinases, more inhibitor may be required to effectively address the enzymes and thereby to attain kinase inhibition. The viability assays performed in WPMY-1 cells may also confirm this hypothesis, as not any effect on WPMY-1 cells could be observed at the concentration of 1 μ M of SR7826 and LIMKi3. Reduced filaments length in some cells was observed at the concentrations of 5 μ M and 10 μ M, i. e. turned out to occur in a concentration-dependent manner

(Figure 15). These findings are consistent with previous studies which reported reduced viability due to LIMK deficiency or after treatment of LIMK inhibitors in different cell types, e. g. in human Schwann cells or in mesenchymal glioblastoma multiforme cells (Park et al., 2014; Petrilli et al., 2014).

Although α_1 -blockers are the first line treatment for patients with LUTS/BPH, their effects are still limited, approximately up to 69% of patients might not receive benefit from α_1 -blockers (Lee et al., 2015; Matsukawa et al., 2013). It was hypothesized that the non-adrenergic mediators, which cause prostate smooth muscle tone in parallel to α_1 -adrenoceptors, might be responsible for the absent effects of α_1 -blockers (Hennenberg et al., 2016). It would make sense that if combination treatments of inhibiting adrenergic and non-adrenergic contractions are available, higher efficacy might therefore be expected.

Taken together, this study may show an important role of LIMK in regulating smooth muscle contractile response in hyperplastic prostate. LIMK may cause prostate smooth muscle contraction of human prostate by phosphorylating cofilin and subsequent promoting actin organization in favor of the contractile state. Since LIMK could be involved in bladder outlet obstruction and urethral obstruction in BPH, it may be hypothesized that the two inhibitors studied in this research, SR7826 and LIMKi3, or even other LIMK inhibitors could have effects on improving urodynamic parameters in vivo, or releasing the symptoms of lower urinary tract. Although a number of previous studies explored the mechanisms of prostate smooth muscle contraction, and despite its crucial role in pathophysiology and therapy of LUTS in millions of patients, the understanding of prostate smooth muscle contraction is still insufficient (Hennenberg et al., 2014b, a; Hennenberg et al., 2017a). Further studies are still needed to describe its regulation and underlying mechanisms. The findings of

this study may thereby contribute new light, or a new model, to the understanding of intracellular mechanisms of prostate smooth muscle contraction. Also, considering the significant inhibiting effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on prostate cells and tissues, this may provide a new strategy for developing new therapeutic approaches for treatment of LUTS. In vivo study to evaluate the effects of SR7826 and LIMKi3 on improving urodynamic parameters may be warranted.

6 Conclusion

The present study suggested that LIMKs promote prostate smooth muscle contraction by phosphorylating cofilin and subsequent actin organization. LIMKs may act as important regulators in urethral obstruction and bladder outlet obstruction in patients with BPH/LUTS. The effects of LIMKs in the human prostate could be inhibited by small molecule LIMK inhibitors, SR7826 and LIMKi3, which might therefore possibly be considered as a basis for new approaches in LUTS therapy. Also, a similar role of LIMK inhibitors in regulating smooth muscle contraction in other organs might be possible.

7 Summary

LUTS refer to a group of urological symptoms that are caused by multifactorial aetiology. The prevalence of LUTS increases with age, and will thereby lead to heavy economic burden for the society. In men with benign prostate hyperplasia, increased smooth muscle tone in the prostate could result in bladder outlet obstruction and subsequent symptoms of lower urinary tract. Pharmacological treatment aiming to inhibit prostate smooth muscle contraction is considered as the option of first choice. However, the efficacy of current available treatment options is limited, thereby, improved understanding in the mechanisms of prostate smooth muscle contraction and development of novel targets for medical therapy are warranted. Previous studies have reported that LIMK (LIMK1 and LIMK2) phosphorylate cofilin and act as regulators of actin-myosin cytoskeletal dynamics, which result in actin polymerization, filament assemble, and stress fiber formation in smooth muscle cells. This may suggest that LIMKs promote smooth muscle contraction, however, not any associated study has been conducted. In this project, we aimed to explore the effects of LIMK inhibitors on prostate smooth muscle contraction.

Human prostate tissues were obtained from patients who underwent radical prostatectomy. RT-PCR, western blot and immunofluorescence were performed to detect LIMK in smooth muscle cells of prostate tissues. Phosphorylation of cofilin, a LIMK substrate, was detected by a phospho-specific antibody. Effects of LIMK inhibitors on smooth muscle contraction of prostate strips were performed with organ bath.

Expression of LIMK in smooth muscle cells of prostate tissues was suggested by RT-PCR, Western blot and immunofluorescence, while higher expression

level of LIMK was detected in prostate tissues than that in WPMY-1 cells. Two LIMK inhibitors, SR7826 (1 μ M) and LIMKi3 (1 μ M), showed significant effects on inhibiting contractions of prostate strips, which were induced by the α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists, noradrenaline, phenylephrine and methoxamine, by the thromboxane A₂ analogue, U46619, and by EFS. Reduced phosphorylation of cofilin in prostate tissues treated with inhibitors was observed, which confirmed LIMK inhibition by SR7826 and LIMKi3. In WPMY-1 cells, a line of cultured cells from the prostate stroma, SR7826 and LIMKi3 were observed to cause breakdown of actin filaments and reduced viability in a concentration-dependent manner.

Together, this is the first study to explore the effects of small molecule LIMK inhibitors on regulating prostate smooth muscle contraction. The present study suggested that LIMKs promote prostate smooth muscle contraction by phosphorylating cofilin and subsequent causing actin organization, which could be inhibited by small molecule LIMK inhibitors, SR7826 and LIMKi3. Therefore, this project provides a possible novel therapy target for LUTS, although in vivo studies using animal models would be still warranted before clinical application.

8. Zusammenfassung

Der Sammelbegriff LUTS beschreibt eine Gruppe urologischer Beschwerden beim Wasserlassen mit vielfältiger Ätiologie. Ihre Prävalenz steigt mit dem Alter der Patientinnen und Patienten, und stellt auf Grund der demographischen Bevölkerungsentwicklung einen erheblichen sozioökonomischen Faktor von stark zunehmender Bedeutung dar. Bei Männern mit einer gutartigen Prostatavergrößerung (Benigne Prostatahyperplasie, BPH) führt ein erhöhter glattmuskulärer Tonus in der hyperplastischen Prostata häufig zu einer Verengung der Harnröhre und verursacht so eine Blasenauflastungsstörung (bladder outlet obstruction, BOO), und hierdurch zu Beeinträchtigungen der Blasenentleerung und Beschwerden beim Wasserlassen. Folglich zielen die Optionen der ersten Wahl zur medikamentösen Behandlung auf eine Hemmung der glattmuskulären Kontraktion in der Prostata ab. Die Effektivität der zur Verfügung stehenden Medikamente ist jedoch stark begrenzt, woraus sich ein dringender Bedarf an einem verbesserten Verständnis der Kontraktionsmechanismen und an der Identifizierung möglicher neuer Angriffspunkte ergibt. Verschiedene Studien zeigten, dass die LIM Kinasen (LIMK) über die Phosphorylierung von Cofilin in glatten Muskelzellen die Polymerisation von Aktin und dessen Filamentbildung fördern, was eine unabdingbare Voraussetzung der glattmuskulären Kontraktion darstellt. Dies legt zwar eine Rolle der LIMK für die glattmuskuläre Kontraktion nahe, was erstaunlicherweise bislang jedoch nie gezeigt wurde. In der vorliegenden Arbeit wurden daher die Effekte von LIMK-Inhibitoren auf die glattmuskuläre Kontraktion humaner Prostatagewebe untersucht.

Die hier verwendeten Prostatagewebe wurden im Rahmen von Tumor-bedingten, radikalen Prostatektomien gewonnen. Zur Detektion einer

möglichen LIMK-Expression wurden RT-PCRs, Western-Blot Analysen und Fluoreszenz-Färbungen durchgeführt. Phosphoryliertes Cofilin wurde mit einem phospho-spezifischen Antikörper detektiert. Die Effekte von LIMK-Inhibitoren auf die Kontraktion von Prostatageweben wurden in myographischen Messungen in einem Organbad untersucht. Ergänzend wurden Untersuchungen in WPMY-1-Zellen durchgeführt, einer Zelllinie aus dem Stroma einer humanen Prostata.

Die Ergebnisse aus RT-PCR, Western-Blot Analysen und Fluoreszenz-Färbungen legten eine LIMK-Expression in humanen Prostata-Geweben nahe, wobei LIMK1 offenbar in den glatten Muskelzellen des Stromas vorkommt. Diese Gewebe zeigten höhere Expressions-Level als WPMY-1-Zellen. Zwei strukturell unterschiedliche LIMK-Inhibitoren, SR7826 (1 μ M) und LIMKi3 (1 μ M) führten zu signifikanten Hemmung der Kontraktion von Prostata-Geweben, welche durch die α 1-Adrenozeptor-Agonisten Noradrenalin, Phenylephrin und Methoxamin, sowie durch das Thromboxan-Analogon U46619, bzw. durch Ausschüttung endogener Neurotransmitter nach elektrischer Feldstimulation (EFS) ausgelöst wurden. Die Hemmung der LIMK durch SR7826 und LIMKi3 in Prostatageweben wurde durch eine Verminderung der Cofilin-Phosphorylierung bestätigt. In WPMY-1-Zellen verursachten SR7826 und LIMKi3 Konzentrations-abhängig einen Zusammenbruch der Aktin-Filamente und der Aktin-Polymerisation, sowie eine Verminderung der Viabilität.

Dies stellt die vermutlich erste Studie dar, welche eine Hemmung der glattmuskulären (Prostata-)Kontraktion durch LIMK-Inhibitoren zeigt. Die Ergebnisse legen nahe, dass LIMK die glattmuskuläre Kontraktion in der Prostata antreiben, was durch eine Phosphorylierung von Cofilin und eine daraus resultierende Bildung oder Aufrechterhaltung von Aktin-Filamenten

erfolgt. Sowohl die glattmuskuläre Kontraktion als auch die Organisation der Aktin-Filamente ließen sich in der Prostata durch SR7826 und LIMKi3 hemmen. Daher könnten LIM Kinasen einen neuen Angriffspunkt für mögliche neue LUTS-Therapien darstellen; jedoch sind in vivo Studien in Tiermodellen erforderlich, bevor diese Hemmstoffe in klinischen Studien verabreicht werden können.

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10. Abbreviations

5-ARIs	5 α -reductase inhibitors
5-EdU	5-Ethynyl-deoxyuridine
5-HT	5-hydroxytryptamine
ADF	Actin depolymerizing factors
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
ATP	Adenosine 5'-triphosphate
Bim-1	Bisindolylmaleimide 1
BOO	Bladder outlet obstruction
BPH	Benign prostatic hyperplasia
CaCl ₂ •2H ₂ O	Calcium chloride dihydrate
cAMP	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate
CCK	Cell Counting Kit
Cdc42	Cell division cycle 42
COX	Cyclooxygenase
CP	Crossing points
Ct	Number of cycles
DAG	Diacylglycerol
DAPI	4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole-dihydrochloride
DAPI	4', 6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole-dihydrochloride
DG	Diacylglycerol
DHT	Dihydrotestosterone
DMSO	Dimethyl sulfoxide
DO	Detrusor overactivity
DTT	Dithiothreitol
DU	Detrusor underactivity
EC50	Half maximal effective concentration
ECL	Enhanced chemiluminescence
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EFS	Electric field stimulation
EP1	Prostaglandin E ₂ receptor subtype 1
EP ₄	Prostaglandin E ₂ receptor subtype 4
FAAH	Fatty acid amide hydrolase
FAK	Focal adhesion kinase
FCS	Fetal calf serum
FITC	Fluorescein isothiocyanate
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GPCR	G protein-coupled receptor

GTPase	Guanosine triphosphate kinase
HSP	Heat shock protein
IC50	Half maximal inhibitory concentration
IP3	Inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate
IPSS	International Prostate Symptom Score
KCl	Potassium chloride
KH	Krebs- Henseleit solution
KH ₂ PO ₄	Potassium hydrogen phosphate
LIMKs	LIM domain kinases
LUTS	Lower urinary tract symptoms
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
MgCl ₂	Magnesium chloride
MgSO ₄ •7H ₂ O	Magnesium sulfate heptahydrate
MLC	Myosin light chain
MRCK	Cdc42-binding kinase
NaCl	Sodium chloride
NaHCO ₃	Sodium bicarbonate
OAB	Overactive bladder
OCT	Optimal cutting temperature
OEtA	Oleoyl ethyl amide
PAK	P21-activated kinase
PAK	P21-Activated Kinase
PBS	Phosphate-buffered saline
PBS-T	Phosphate-buffered saline-Tween
PDBu	Phorbol-12,13-dibutyrate
PDE	Phosphodiesterase
PDE4Is	Phosphodiesterase 4 inhibitors
PDE5Is	Phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitors
PEDIs	Phosphodiesterase inhibitors
PG	Prostaglandin
PK	Protein kinases
PKC	Protein kinase C
PSA	Prostate-specific antigen
PTGS	Prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase
PVDF	Polyvinylidene-Fluoride
PVR	Post-void residual
Qmax	Maximum flow rate
RAC	Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate
Rho	Rhodopsin
RhoGEF	Rho guanine nucleotide exchange factor
RNA	Ribonucleic acid

ROCK	Rhodopsin kinase
RT	Reverse Transcription
RT-PCR	Real time polymerase chain reaction
SD	Standard deviation
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulfate
SEM	Standard error of the mean
SFK	Src family kinase
TRPM8	Transient receptor potential melastin 8 ion channel
TURP	Transurethral resection of prostate
TXA2	Thromboxane
UR	Urinary retention
α 1AR-blockers	α 1-Adrenoceptor antagonists
β -3 agonists	Beta3 adrenoceptor agonists

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13. Eidesstattliche Versicherung und Erklärung

Eidesstattliche Versicherung

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Ich erkläre hiermit an Eides statt,

dass ich die vorliegende Dissertation mit dem Thema
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