



OPEN High dose methylprednisolone mediates YAP/TAZ-TEAD in vocal fold fibroblasts with macrophages

Ryosuke Nakamura¹, Renjie Bing¹, Gary J. Gartling¹, Michael J. Garabedian² & Ryan C. Branski^{1,3}✉

The pro-fibrotic effects of glucocorticoids may lead to a suboptimal therapeutic response for vocal fold (VF) pathology. Targeting macrophage-fibroblast interactions is an interesting therapeutic strategy; macrophages alter their phenotype to mediate both inflammation and fibrosis. In the current study, we investigated concentration-dependent effects of methylprednisolone on the fibrotic response, with an emphasis on YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling, and inflammatory gene expression in VF fibroblasts in physical contact with macrophages. We sought to provide foundational data to optimize therapeutic strategies for millions of patients with voice/laryngeal disease-related disability. Following induction of inflammatory (M(IFN/LPS)) and fibrotic (M(TGF)) phenotypes, THP-1-derived macrophages were seeded onto HVOX vocal fold fibroblasts. Cells were co-cultured \pm 0.3–3000 nM methylprednisolone \pm 3 μ M verteporfin, a YAP/TAZ inhibitor. Inflammatory (*CXCL10*, *TNF*, *PTGS2*) and fibrotic genes (*ACTA2*, *CCN2*, *COL1A1*) in fibroblasts were analyzed by real-time polymerase chain reaction after cell sorting. Ser211-phosphorylated glucocorticoid receptor (S211-pGR) was assessed by Western blotting. Nuclear localization of S211-pGR and YAP/TAZ was analyzed by immunocytochemistry. Methylprednisolone decreased *TNF* and *PTGS2* in fibroblasts co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) macrophages and increased *ACTA2* and *CCN2* in fibroblasts co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF). Lower concentrations were required to decrease *TNF* and *PTGS2* expression and to increase S211-pGR than to increase *ACTA2* and *CCN2* expression and nuclear localization of S211-pGR. Methylprednisolone also increased YAP/TAZ nuclear localization. Verteporfin attenuated upregulation of *CCN2*, but not *PTGS2* downregulation. High concentration methylprednisolone induced nuclear localization of S211-pGR and upregulated fibrotic genes mediated by YAP/TAZ activation.

Keywords Voice, Larynx, Vocal fold, Inflammation, Steroids, Glucocorticoids, Fibroblasts, Macrophages

The vocal fold (VF), an essential apparatus for phonation, vibrates hundreds of times a second¹. Due to its role and anatomical location, the VF is inherently exposed to mechanical and environmental stress. As many as 20 million people report voice disorders annually in the US². Inflammation is broadly associated with dysphonia and is likely etiologic for benign vocal fold lesion development. Glucocorticoids (GCs) are frequently administered to manage voice disorders because of their anti-inflammatory functions and affordability^{3–6}. However, recent reports suggest clinical outcomes of GC therapy to be variable^{7–9}. Diverse functions of GCs likely underlie the disparate outcomes^{10–12}. Of note, fibrotic effects of GC signaling have been reported in several organs and VF fibroblasts^{13–15}. Optimizing GC therapy to minimize fibrosis while limiting inflammation has the potential to benefit millions of patients.

In the inflammatory milieu, dysfunctional cooperation between tissue-resident and infiltrated hematopoietic cells can drive pathological tissue responses, such as chronic inflammation and fibrosis¹⁶. Previous studies revealed the significance of intercellular communication between fibroblasts and macrophages in pathologies across multiple organs, including the VF^{17–20}. Differential macrophage phenotypes are induced via exposure to stimuli through the shift from inflammatory to fibrotic environments^{17,21,22}. Inflammatory stimuli, such as interferon-gamma (IFN- γ) and lipopolysaccharide (LPS), induce the inflammatory M1 phenotype^{17,23}. Interleukin (IL)-4, IL10, and transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) drive the anti-inflammatory/fibrotic M2 phenotype^{23–25}. However, various subtypes beyond the dualistic classification to the M1 and M2 are induced by

¹Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, NYU Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA. ²Department of Microbiology, NYU Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA. ³Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, NYU Grossman School of Medicine, 435 East 30th Street, Room 1011, New York, NY 10016, USA. ✉email: ryan.branski@nyulangone.org

individual stimuli¹⁷, likely related to organ-specific responses to macrophages^{26,27}. For example, in VF fibroblasts, fibrotic genes were not activated by paracrine signaling from IL4-stimulated typical M2 macrophages²⁷, which elicited a fibrotic response in non-VF fibroblasts^{28,29}. Conversely, TGF- β -stimulated macrophages induced a fibrotic response in VF fibroblasts. Independently, physical contact and paracrine signals from macrophages differentially activated VF fibroblasts²⁷. To that end, understanding interactions between VF fibroblasts and macrophages is foundational to optimally treat VF disease.

Recently, refinement of GC dose has emerged as a possible strategy to improve GC therapy^{15,30}. Our previous work with indirect co-culture models found fibrotic and inflammatory responses of VF fibroblasts triggered by macrophage-derived paracrine signals were promoted and inhibited by ‘high’ and ‘low’ concentrations of methylprednisolone, respectively³¹. Based on this finding, we hypothesized minimizing GC concentrations to sufficiently inhibit inflammation improves efficacy of GC therapy. However, previous co-culture studies employed a cell culture insert to allow only paracrine signaling. Considering the *in vivo* environment in which macrophages directly engage fibroblasts³², co-culture models with direct intercellular communication further support the translation of *in vitro* findings to *in vivo* investigation. In addition, mechanisms underlying concentration-dependent negative and positive gene regulation remain unknown.

Based on the currently known biochemistry of GC signaling, unrelated to concentration-dependency, complex reactions of the GC receptor (GR) are thought to be a source of diverse GC functions^{10,33}. GR interacts with numerous proteins. The GC/GR complex binds and inhibits other transcription factors in the cytoplasm. Alternatively, GR translocated to the nucleus binds to both negative and positive gene regulatory elements. Various post-translational modifications (phosphorylation, acetylation, SUMOylation) are involved in GR distribution and recruitment to gene regulatory elements. Additionally, accessibility to negative and positive gene regulatory elements is putatively altered by dimerization of GR concentrated in the nucleus¹⁰.

Despite diversity of GR interactions with other signaling pathways¹¹, recent transcriptomic analysis on VF fibroblasts highlighted the impact of GR on the Hippo signaling pathway, which has a key role in fibrosis^{34–37}. In this pathway, Yes-associated protein (YAP) and transcriptional co-activator with PDZ-binding motif (TAZ) are the core³⁸. Activated YAP/TAZ enters the nucleus and primarily serves as co-activators of TEA domain transcription factors (TEADs) to induce TEAD-dependent transcription. *CCN2*, a fibrotic gene induced by high-concentration GCs, is a target of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling³⁹; this finding underlies the hypothesis that YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling is specifically activated by high-concentration GCs.

In the current study, a direct co-culture model was employed to further confirm concentration-dependent effects of methylprednisolone to alter fibrotic and inflammatory responses of human macrophages and VF fibroblasts. We additionally explored nuclear localization of GR and YAP/TAZ in this model to interrogate mechanisms underlying concentration-dependent effects of GCs. Ultimately, we seek to refine GC therapy corroborated by mechanistic insight, to benefit millions of patients with voice-related disability.

Results

Methylprednisolone altered inflammatory genes in direct co-culture of human VF fibroblasts and macrophages

M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF) stimulate inflammatory and fibrotic responses of VF fibroblasts²⁷. Concentration-dependent effects of methylprednisolone on gene expression were assessed using direct co-culture models of human VF fibroblasts with GFP-expressing M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF) macrophages (G-M(IFN/LPS) and G-M(TGF)). In human VF fibroblasts co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) macrophages, three inflammatory genes (*TNF*, *PTGS2*, and *IL1B*) were downregulated by methylprednisolone in a concentration-dependent manner. However, *CXCL10*, another inflammatory gene, was unchanged (Fig. 1). In co-culture with G-M(TGF), methylprednisolone decreased *CXCL10* expression in VF fibroblasts and tended to inhibit expression of *TNF*, *PTGS2*, and *IL1B*. Methylprednisolone downregulated *TNF*, *PTGS2*, and *IL1B* in G-M(IFN/LPS) macrophages, and *CXCL10* in G-M(TGF) macrophages in a concentration-dependent manner. In addition, *TNF*, *PTGS2*, and *IL1B* tended to decrease in response to methylprednisolone in G-M(TGF) macrophages. Collectively, IC₅₀ and IC₉₀ to decrease inflammatory genes were 1.8–3.3 and 6.8–27 nM in VF fibroblasts (Table 1) and 2.4–11.6 and 7.7–36.8 nM in macrophages (Table 2).

Methylprednisolone altered fibrotic gene expression in direct co-culture of human VF fibroblasts and macrophages

Methylprednisolone increased *CCN2* and *ACTA2* expression in VF fibroblasts directly co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) and G-M(TGF) macrophages in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 2). However, *COL1A1* expression was unchanged or decreased by methylprednisolone. *CCN2* in G-M(IFN/LPS) and G-M(TGF) macrophages was concentration-dependently upregulated by methylprednisolone in the direct co-culture model. *TGM2* and *FN1*, M2 markers associated with fibrosis, were also analyzed^{17,27,40}. The effect on *FN1* expression was unclear. Weak tendencies of decreased and increased *TGM2* were observed in response to methylprednisolone in G-M(IFN/LPS) and G-M(TGF) macrophages, respectively. In fibroblasts, EC₅₀ and EC₉₀ of methylprednisolone to increase *CCN2* and *ACTA2* were 17–34 and 181–249 nM; IC₅₀ and IC₉₀ to decrease *COL1A1* were approximately 7 and 22 nM (Table 1). In macrophages, EC₅₀ and EC₉₀ to increase *CCN2* were 21–28 and 151–316 nM (Table 2).

Ser211-phosphorylated GR was increased by low concentration Methylprednisolone

Phosphorylation at Ser211 is thought to be most critical for ligand-induced activation of GR, as well as nuclear translocation^{41,42}. We performed Western blotting to assess altered Ser211-phosphorylated GR (S211-pGR), as well as total and Ser203-phosphorylated GR (tGR and S203-pGR). Directly co-cultured fibroblasts and macrophages were collected together and protein levels were assessed as mixtures of co-cultured cells. S211-pGR levels were increased by methylprednisolone regardless of macrophage phenotype and peaked around

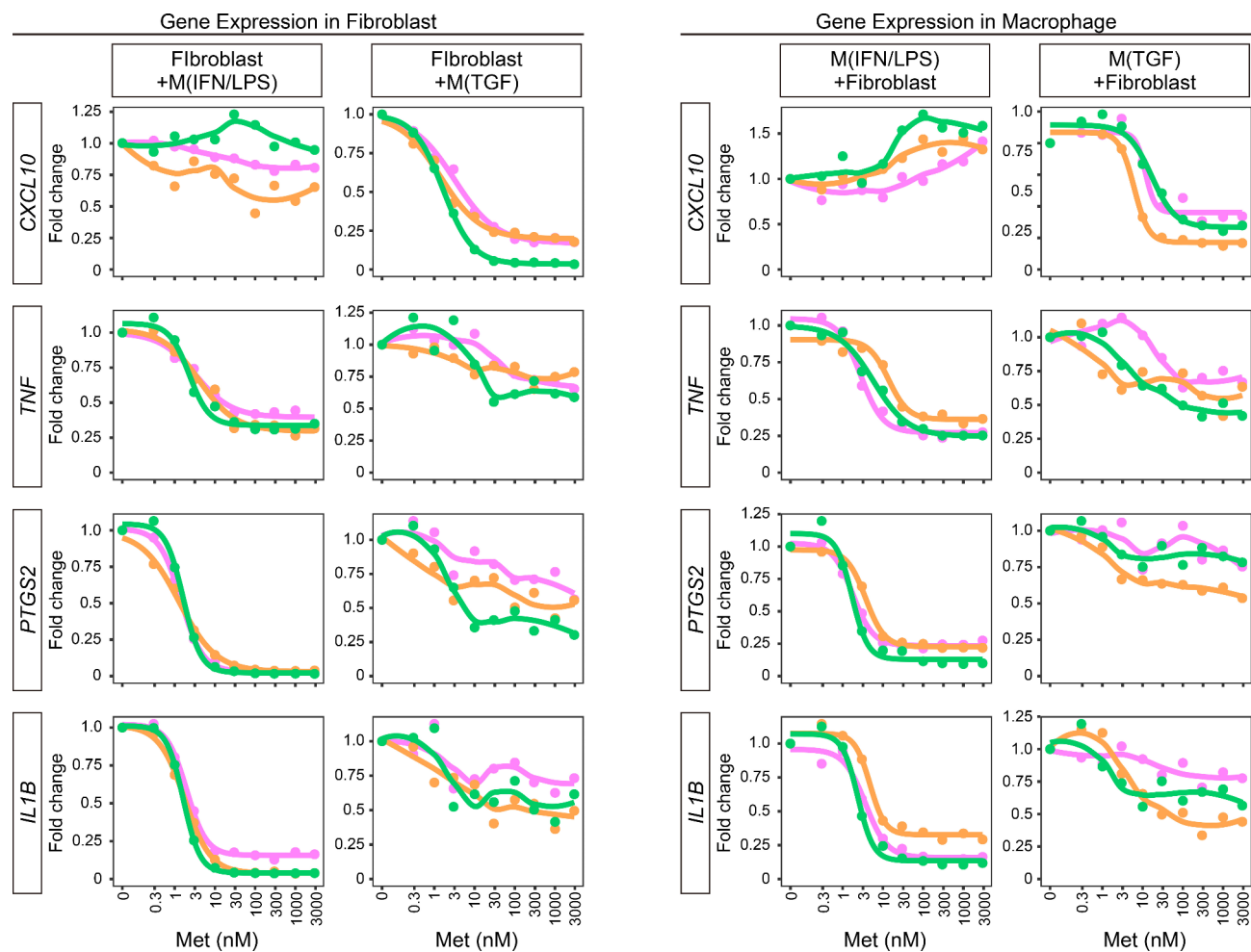


Fig. 1. Inflammatory gene expression in fibroblast-macrophage co-culture. Human VF fibroblasts were directly co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) or G-M(TGF) ± 0.3–3000 nM methylprednisolone for 24 h. Fibroblasts and macrophages were separated by FACS. Relative expression levels of *CXCL10*, *TNF*, *PTGS2*, and *IL1B* were determined by qPCR. Expression in cells unexposed to methylprednisolone was set to ‘1’ and fold changes in expression levels were plotted. Data were obtained from independently performed technical replicates and are shown in different colors. Concentration-dependent curves are also presented for data applicable to both estimation of IC_{50}/EC_{50} and fitting to sigmoid curves in all triplicate experiments.

	Inflammatory gene				Fibrotic gene		
	CXCL10	TNF	PTGS2	IL1B	CCN2	ACTA2	COL1A1
Fibroblast, + M(IFN/LPS)							
Up or down regulation	Unclear	Down	Down	Down	Up	Up	Unclear
IC_{50}/EC_{50}	NA	3.21 ± 0.87	1.48 ± 0.18	1.80 ± 0.17	33.50 ± 3.43	26.44 ± 10.28	NA
IC_{90}/EC_{90}	NA	26.58 ± 16.54	7.92 ± 4.57	6.86 ± 2.17	195.22 ± 32.14	248.44 ± 133.52	NA
Fibroblast, + M(TGF)							
Up or down regulation	Down	Unclear	Unclear	Unclear	Up	Up	Down
IC_{50}/EC_{50}	2.07 ± 0.93	NA	NA	NA	17.97 ± 10.10	21.94 ± 4.53	7.36 ± 1.88
IC_{90}/EC_{90}	23.93 ± 17.50	NA	NA	NA	181.00 ± 106.94	182.25 ± 100.66	21.96 ± 13.30

Table 1. IC_{50}/EC_{50} and IC_{90}/EC_{90} of Methylprednisolone for altering gene expression in vocal fold fibroblasts co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF) macrophages.

	Inflammatory gene				Fibrotic gene		
	CXCL10	TNF	PTGS2	IL1B	CCN2	TGM2	FN1
M(IFN/LPS), + fibroblast							
Up or down regulation	Unclear	Down	Down	M(IL4)	Up	Unclear	Unclear
IC50/EC50	NA	7.47 ± 5.68	2.41 ± 1.14	3.61 ± 1.18	21.29 ± 10.87	NA	NA
IC90/EC90	NA	36.33 ± 21.68	7.70 ± 3.97	10.96 ± 4.14	151.17 ± 94.38	NA	NA
M(TGF), + fibroblast							
Up or down regulation	Down	Unclear	Unclear	Unclear	Up	Unclear	Unclear
IC50/EC50	11.54 ± 5.30	NA	NA	NA	27.35 ± 7.24	NA	NA
IC90/EC90	36.78 ± 32.15	NA	NA	NA	315.16 ± 126.67	NA	NA

Table 2. IC₅₀/EC₅₀ and IC₉₀/EC₉₀ of Methylprednisolone for altering gene expression in M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF) macrophages co-cultured with vocal fold fibroblasts.

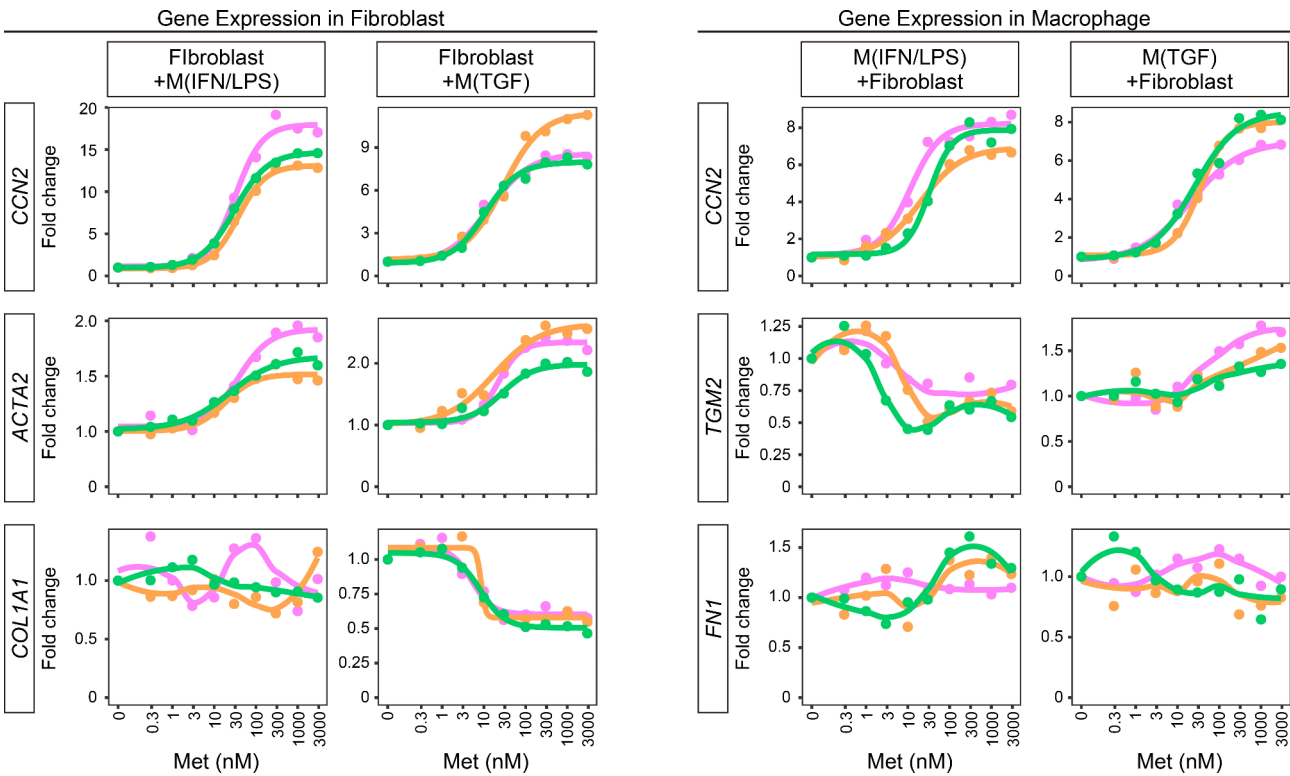


Fig. 2. Fibrotic gene expression in fibroblast-macrophage co-culture. Human VF fibroblasts were directly co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) or G-M(TGF) ± 0.3–3000 nM methylprednisolone for 24 h. Fibroblasts and macrophages were separated by FACS. Relative expression levels of *CCN2*, *ACTA2*, and *COL1A1* in fibroblasts, and *CCN2*, *TGM2*, and *FN1* in macrophages were determined by qPCR. Expression in cells unexposed to methylprednisolone was set to ‘1’ and fold changes in expression levels were plotted. Data were obtained from independently performed technical replicates and are shown in different colors. Concentration-dependent curves are also presented for data applicable to both estimation of IC₅₀/EC₅₀ and fitting to sigmoid curves in all triplicate experiments.

10 nM methylprednisolone (Fig. 3). This concentration was closer to the concentration required for gene downregulation than upregulation. However, S203-pGR, an inhibitor of nuclear GR localization⁴², and tGR were decreased by methylprednisolone. Similar results were observed in separately collected fibroblasts and macrophages from indirect co-culture (Supplemental Fig. S1).

Nuclear localization of Ser211-phosphorylated GR was increased by high concentration Methylprednisolone

We subsequently performed immunocytochemistry to assess nuclear localization of GR. Regardless of macrophage phenotype, tGR-positive staining in DAPI-positive nuclear regions was concentration-dependently increased by methylprednisolone in both fibroblasts and macrophages in co-culture. tGR staining in nuclear

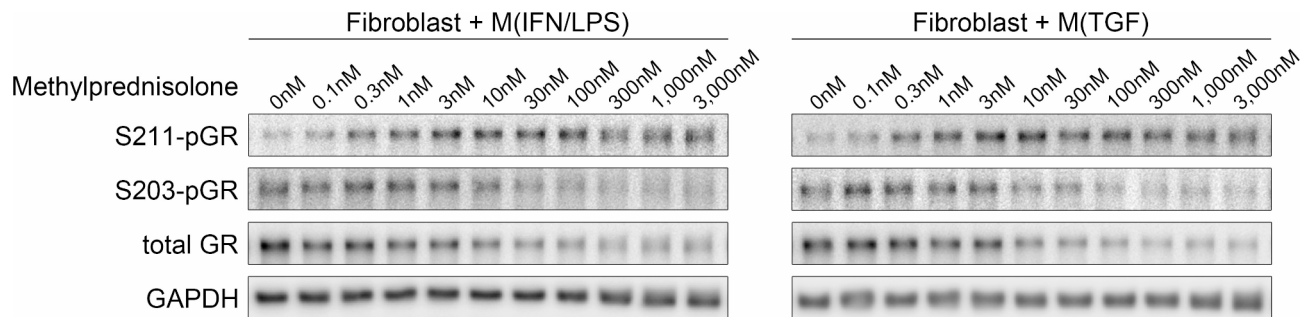


Fig. 3. Western blots for S211-pGR, S203-pGR, and tGR. Human VF fibroblasts were directly co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) or M(TGF) macrophages \pm 0.1–3000 nM methylprednisolone for 24 h. Proteins were extracted from the co-cultured cells without separating fibroblasts and macrophages.

regions peaked at 3–30 nM methylprednisolone and decreased at higher concentrations (Fig. 4). S211-pGR in nuclear regions was also increased by methylprednisolone and plateaued at 100–300 nM methylprednisolone. These findings, collectively with qPCR data, suggested the concentration of methylprednisolone required to upregulate fibrotic genes was more related to S211-pGR nuclear localization than tGR.

Methylprednisolone induced nuclear localization of YAP/TAZ in VF fibroblasts

Distribution of YAP/TAZ was assessed by immunocytochemistry. Regardless of the phenotype of co-cultured macrophages, positive staining for YAP and TAZ increased in the nucleus of VF fibroblasts as methylprednisolone concentrations increased (Fig. 4, Supplemental Fig. S2). In contrast, methylprednisolone did not alter the distribution of YAP/TAZ in M(IFN/LPS) or M(TGF) macrophages.

Fibrotic gene expression induced by Methylprednisolone was suppressed by Inhibition of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling

To assess involvement of YAP/TAZ in negative and positive gene regulation of methylprednisolone, we pharmacologically inhibited YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling in co-cultured fibroblasts in the presence of 30 or 1000 nM methylprednisolone. In VF fibroblasts co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) macrophages, the decrease of *TNF* and *PTGS2* by 30 nM methylprednisolone was not reversed by verteporfin (Fig. 5). However, increased *CCN2*, a target gene of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling, induced by 1000 nM methylprednisolone was inhibited by verteporfin. Verteporfin also inhibited *ACTA2*. Similarly, *CXCL10* downregulation by 30 nM methylprednisolone was not prevented by verteporfin in VF fibroblasts co-cultured with M(TGF) macrophages, whereas increased *CCN2* and *ACTA2* induced by 1000 nM methylprednisolone was ameliorated by verteporfin. These findings suggested *CCN2* upregulation mediated by high-concentration GCs was driven with support of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling, but GC-induced suppression of those inflammatory genes was independent of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling.

Discussion

GC therapy persists as a reasonable therapeutic option due to potent anti-inflammatory effects as well as the affordability and safety data accumulated over decades of clinical use. However, GCs have diverse functions and unfavorable side effects may negatively affect clinical outcomes. Optimizing GC therapy by reducing unfavorable effects could benefit millions of patients, while developing a novel therapeutic would also advance clinical care. The current study provided incremental data regarding concentration-dependent negative and positive gene regulation by methylprednisolone, as well as insight regarding mechanism(s) underlying this effect (Fig. 6).

The IC_{90} of methylprednisolone to reduce inflammatory gene transcription was lower than the EC_{90} to promote fibrotic transcription in the current direct co-culture model; these data are similar to mono-cultured and indirectly co-cultured macrophages and VF fibroblasts^{30,31}. This finding further supports our hypothesis that reduced GC concentrations to a level sufficient to inhibit inflammatory response is preferable to minimize fibrotic side effects¹⁵. As noted in the previous indirect co-culture study³¹, the IC_{90} range of methylprednisolone in the co-culture model was comparable to peak plasma levels of free methylprednisolone (21.1 nM) after oral administration^{43,44}, but the EC_{90} values were lower than the concentration of methylprednisolone for injection (53–214 mM)⁴⁵. In vivo investigation is warranted to optimize GC dosing for efficiently inhibiting inflammation without activating fibrotic response.

The GR response to different concentrations of methylprednisolone was complex. Our data suggest concentration-dependent differential effects on GR phosphorylation/nuclear localization contribute to the complex biochemistry of GC-GR signaling. Although our data are insufficient to detail molecular events associated with different concentrations of GCs, some similarities were observed between methylprednisolone concentrations required to alter GR status and gene expression. Ideally, these data may be foundational to unravel the complexity related to GC concentration. Concentrations required to fully increase nuclear localization of S211-pGR were 100–300 nM, comparable to the EC_{90} for upregulation of fibrotic genes. In contrast, S211-pGR and nuclear localization of tGR reached a peak at 3–30 nM methylprednisolone, close to the IC_{90} for gene downregulation. Therefore, it seems the nuclear level of GR without Ser211-phosphorylation and/or cytoplasmic S211-pGR is related to negative gene regulation via low GC concentration, and the nuclear localization of S211-pGR is related

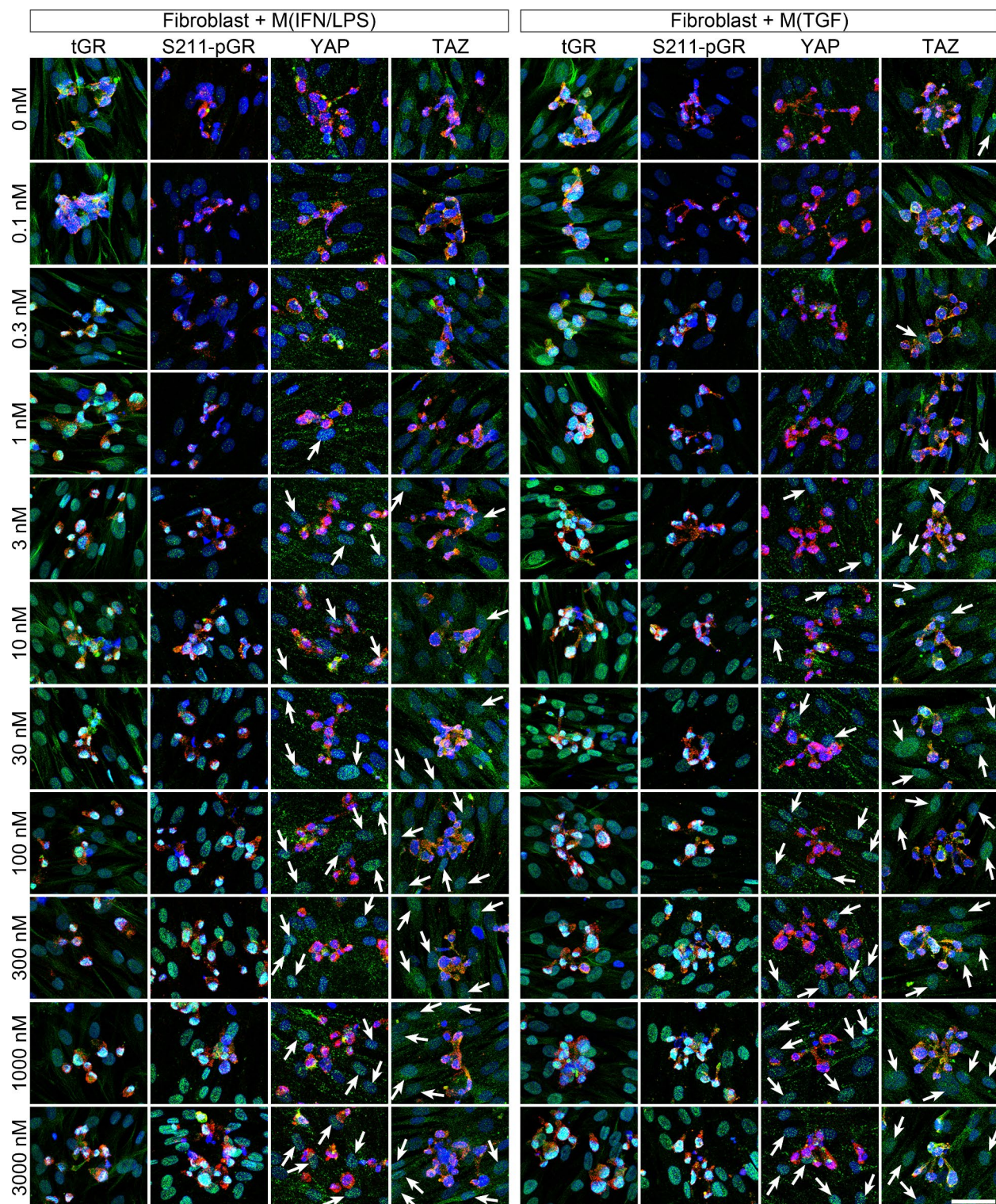


Fig. 4. Immunocytochemistry of tGR, S211-pGR, YAP, and TAZ. Human VF fibroblasts were directly co-cultured with M(IFN/LPS) or M(TGF) macrophages \pm 0.1–3000 nM methylprednisolone for 24 h. Nuclear localization of YAP and TAZ are denoted by arrows. Green: tGR, S211-pGR, YAP, and TAZ. Red: Macrophages (CD11B and F4/80). Blue: Nuclei (DAPI). Bar: 50 μ m.

to positive gene regulation via high GC concentration. Nuclear localization of GR and its recruitment to positive gene regulatory elements are restricted by various types of post-translational modifications. These phenomena may explain why increased S211-pGR by low concentration methylprednisolone did not lead to increased nuclear accumulation or *CCN2* upregulation. For example, phosphorylation at Ser203 and Ser226, and acetylation at

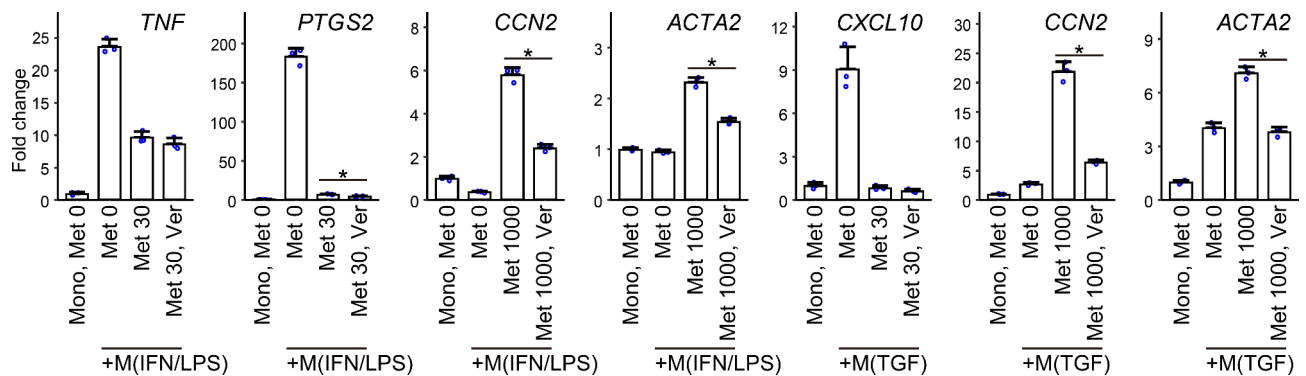


Fig. 5. Effects of pharmacological YAP/TAZ-TEAD inhibition on methylprednisolone-induced gene regulation. Human VF fibroblasts were directly co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) or G-M(TGF) macrophages \pm 30 or 1000 nM methylprednisolone and \pm 3 μ M verteporfin for 24 h. Fibroblasts were isolated by FACS. Relative expression levels of *TNF*, *PTGS2*, *CCN2*, and *ACTA2* in fibroblasts co-cultured with G-M(IFN/LPS) macrophages, and *CXCL10*, *CCN2*, and *ACTA2* in fibroblasts co-cultured with G-M(TGF) macrophages were determined by qPCR. Expression in mono-cultured fibroblasts was set to '1'. Data are presented as mean \pm SD. Co-cultured fibroblasts exposed to only methylprednisolone and both methylprednisolone and verteporfin were subjected to Student's *t*-test. Statistically significant differences are noted with asterisks.

Lys494 and Lys495 prevent nuclear localization and/or recruitment to positive gene regulatory elements^{10,42,46}. Regarding Ser203 phosphorylation, the function of Ser211 phosphorylation to drive nuclear localization of GR is likely overcome by Ser203 phosphorylation to prevent nuclear localization of GR⁴². Conversely, recruitment of GR to negative gene regulatory elements, presumably associated with low-concentration methylprednisolone, reportedly requires SUMOylation at Lys293 of GR⁴⁷. In addition, concentration of ligand-activated GR in the nucleus is thought to be crucial for GR dimerization and GR-mediated transcription via positive gene regulatory elements^{10,48,49}. In spite of our encouraging data, mechanisms underlying concentration-dependent negative and positive gene regulation are still unclear.

YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling supports multiple fibrotic signaling pathways, such as SMAD, Wnt, and Rho⁵⁰. Inhibition of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling, as well as neutralization of connective tissue growth factor (encoded by *CCN2*), reduced the fibrotic response in multiple animal models and VF fibroblasts^{35,36,51,52}. In the current study, *CCN2* upregulation induced by high-concentration methylprednisolone was reversed by verteporfin. However, downregulation of *CXCL10*, *TNF*, and *PTGS2* was not. This finding suggests the fibrotic response associated with YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling is specifically induced by high-concentration GCs. Blocking YAP/TAZ in combination with GC therapy may be another possible strategy to reduce fibrotic response induced by GCs. However, with regard to inflammation, YAP/TAZ reportedly has positive and negative roles dependent on cell types and organs^{50,53}. Notably, as shown in Fig. 4, YAP/TAZ and TEAD activities in hematopoietic cells are quite different from other cells⁵⁰. The impact of YAP/TAZ and TEADs in inflammatory responses of VF-resident and hematopoietic cells requires investigation to potentially target YAP/TAZ for VF diseases.

In conclusion, concentration-dependent differential effects of methylprednisolone were broadly observed across in vitro co-culture models of human VF fibroblasts and macrophages. S211-pGR nuclear localization and the activation of YAP/TAZ-TEAD signaling were likely associated with fibrotic gene expression mediated by high-concentration methylprednisolone in VF fibroblasts.

Materials and methods

The Supporting Information provides more detailed methodological specifics.

Cells

HVOX human VF fibroblasts, created by our group⁵⁴, and THP-1 human monocytic cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were expanded as described previously³⁶. Green fluorescent protein (GFP)-expressing THP-1 cells were prepared by transfection of pAcGFP1-Actin (Takara Bio, Shiga, Japan). M(IFN/LPS) and M(TGF) macrophages were prepared by stimulating THP-1-derived macrophages with IFN- γ /LPS, and TGF- β , and directly co-cultured with fibroblasts as described previously²⁷. Cells were exposed to different concentrations of methylprednisolone and/or 3 μ M verteporfin for 24 h.

Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)

HVOX fibroblasts and GFP-positive macrophages were separated by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). RNA extraction, reverse transcription, and real-time polymerase chain reaction were performed using commercially available kits. Expression levels relative to *GAPDH* were quantified by the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

Western blotting and immunocytochemistry

Following co-culture of fibroblasts and GFP-negative macrophages, Western blotting and immunocytochemistry were performed as described previously^{27,37}. Antibodies are shown in Table S1.

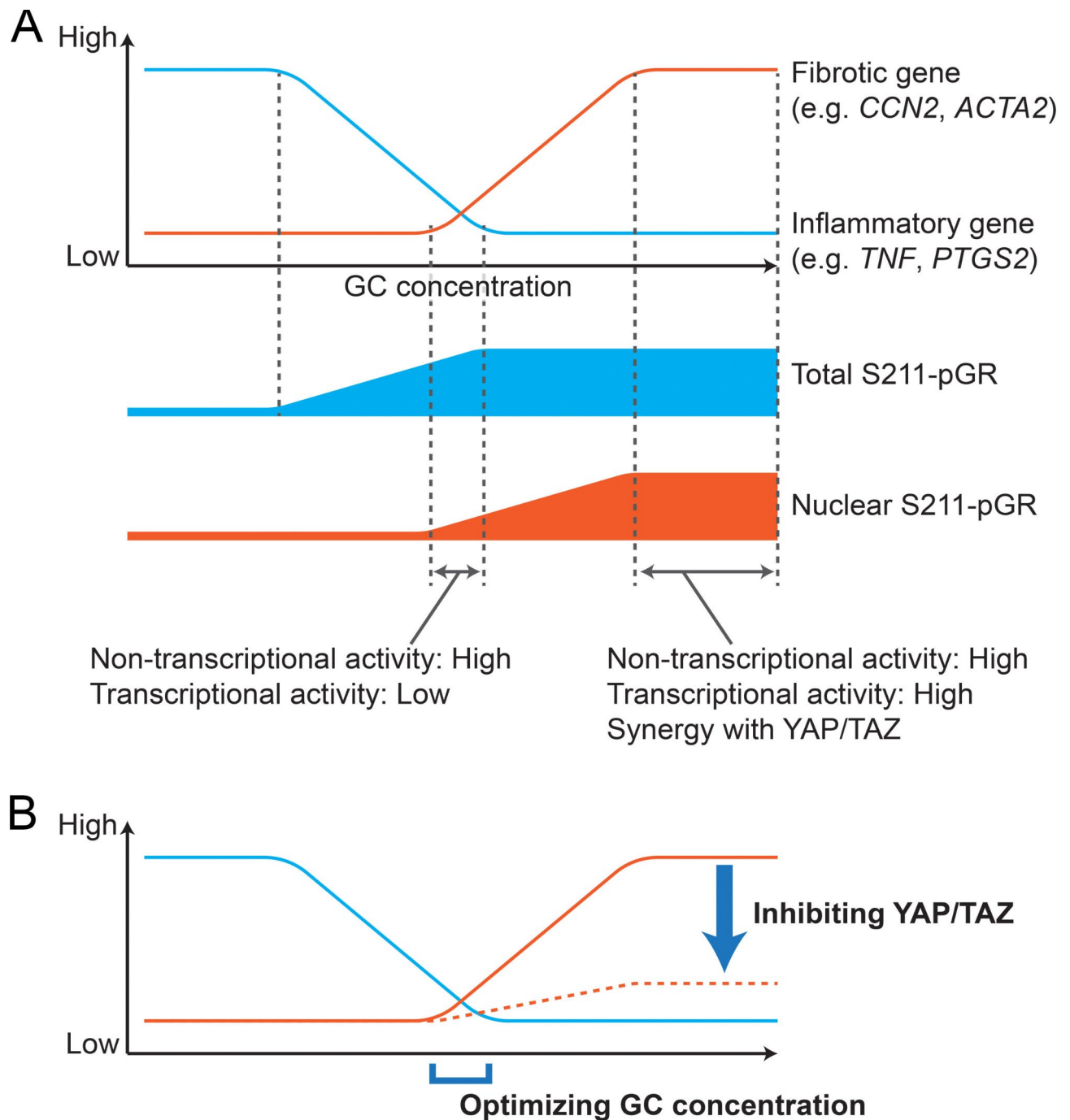


Fig. 6. Simplified summary illustration of findings. Although the mechanisms underlying the concentration-dependent differential effects of GCs remain elusive, distinct effects of low- and high-concentration GCs on the GR phosphorylation and nuclear localization may be partially involved in the concentration-dependent effects (A). Low-concentration GCs induce phosphorylation of GR at Ser211 with only weak GR translocation to the nucleus. This finding implies that low-concentration GCs mainly induce non-transcriptional activity of GR. In contrast, high-concentration GCs induce nuclear localization of S211-pGR, likely leading to GR-mediated transcription. Along with the high-concentration effect, YAP/TAZ activation may synergistically upregulate some fibrotic genes. Two possible strategies to improve the GC therapy for laryngeal diseases are proposed in this study (B). One of the proposed strategies is to refine GC concentration to efficiently suppress inflammatory response without a significant fibrotic response. Alternatively, co-administration of a YAP/TAZ inhibitor and GCs may be effective.

Data analysis

Data were collected from independently performed technical triplicate experiments, at least. The R *drc* package was employed on R studio to determine EC_{50} , IC_{50} , EC_{90} , and IC_{90} , and to fit data into sigmoid curves, when applicable⁵⁵. Simple dot plots are presented for other data. Means of EC_x/IC_x , as well as standard deviations, were calculated from the EC_x/IC_x estimations of triplicate experiments.

Data availability

All data supporting the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Received: 23 June 2024; Accepted: 21 March 2025

Published online: 31 March 2025

References

1. Titze, I. R. & Hunter, E. J. Normal vibration frequencies of the vocal ligament. *J. Acoust. Soc. Am.* **115**, 2264–2269 (2004).
2. Cohen, S. M., Kim, J. W., Roy, N., Asche, C. & Courey, M. Direct health care costs of laryngeal diseases and disorders. *Laryngoscope* **122**, 1582–1588 (2012).
3. Mortensen, M. & Woo, P. Office steroid injections of the larynx. *Laryngoscope* **116**, 1735–1739 (2006).
4. Woo, J.-H., Kim, D.-Y., Kim, J.-W., Oh, E.-A. & Lee, S.-W. Efficacy of percutaneous vocal fold injections for benign laryngeal lesions: Prospective multicenter study. *Acta Oto-Langol.* **22**, 1326–1330 (2011).
5. Lee, S.-H. et al. Local steroid injection via the cricothyroid membrane in patients with a vocal nodule. *Arch. Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* **137**, 1011–1016 (2011).
6. Cain, D. W. & Cidlowski, J. A. Immune regulation by glucocorticoids. *Nat. Rev. Immunol.* **17**, 233–247 (2017).
7. Govil, N., Paul, B. C., Amin, M. R. & Branski, R. C. The utility of glucocorticoids for vocal fold pathology: A survey of otolaryngologists. *J. Voice.* **28**, 82–87 (2014).
8. Takahashi, S. et al. Comparison of therapeutic effects of steroid injection by benign vocal fold lesion type. *Acta Otolaryngol.* **141**, 1005–1013 (2021).
9. Young, W. G. et al. Voice outcomes following a single office-based steroid injection for vocal fold Scar. *Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg.* **155**, 820–828 (2016).
10. Weikum, E. R., Knuesel, M. T., Ortlund, E. A. & Yamamoto, K. R. Glucocorticoid receptor control of transcription: Precision and plasticity via allostery. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell. Biol.* **18**, 159–174 (2017).
11. Petta, I. et al. The interactome of the glucocorticoid receptor and its influence on the actions of glucocorticoids in combatting inflammatory and infectious diseases. *Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev.* **80**, 495–522 (2016).
12. Ismaili, N. & Garabedian, M. J. Modulation of glucocorticoid receptor function via phosphorylation. *Ann. N Y Acad. Sci.* **1024**, 86–101 (2004).
13. Langenbach, S. Y. et al. Resistance of fibrogenic responses to glucocorticoid and 2-methoxyestradiol in bleomycin-induced lung fibrosis in mice. *Can. J. Physiol. Pharmacol.* **85**, 727–738 (2007).
14. Okada, H. et al. Dexamethasone induces connective tissue growth factor expression in renal tubular epithelial cells in a mouse strain-specific manner. *Am. J. Pathol.* **168**, 737–747 (2006).
15. Nakamura, R., Mukudai, S., Bing, R., Garabedian, M. J. & Branski, R. C. Complex fibroblast response to glucocorticoids May underlie variability of clinical efficacy in the vocal folds. *Sci. Rep.* **10**, 20458 (2020).
16. Kendall, R. T. & Feghali-Bostwick, C. A. Fibroblasts in fibrosis: Novel roles and mediators. *Front. Pharmacol.* **5**, 123 (2014).
17. Biswas, S. K., Mantovani, A. & Macrophages *Biology and Role in the Pathology of Diseases* (Springer, 2014).
18. Wynn, T. A. & Ramalingam, T. R. Mechanisms of fibrosis: Therapeutic translation for fibrotic disease. *Nat. Med.* **18**, 1028–1040 (2012).
19. Kaba, S. et al. Alterations in macrophage polarization in injured murine vocal folds. *Laryngoscope* **129**, E135–E142 (2019).
20. Kaba, S. et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma agonist attenuates vocal fold fibrosis in rats via regulation of macrophage activation. *Am. J. Pathol.* **192**, 771–782 (2022).
21. Biswas, S. K. & Mantovani, A. Macrophage plasticity and interaction with lymphocyte subsets: Cancer as a paradigm. *Nat. Immunol.* **11**, 889–896 (2010).
22. Braga, T. T., Agudelo, J. S. & Camara, N. O. Macrophages during the fibrotic process: M2 as friend and foe. *Front. Immunol.* **6**, 602 (2015).
23. Spiller, K. L. et al. Differential gene expression in human, murine, and cell line-derived macrophages upon polarization. *Exp. Cell. Res.* **347**, 1–13 (2016).
24. Wynn, T. A. & Vannella, K. M. Macrophages in tissue repair, regeneration, and fibrosis. *Immunity* **44**, 450–462 (2016).
25. Zhang, F. et al. TGF- β induces M2-like macrophage polarization via SNAIL-mediated suppression of a pro-inflammatory phenotype. *Oncotarget* **7**, 52294–52306 (2016).
26. Gordon, S. & Martinez-Pomares, L. Physiological roles of macrophages. *Pflugers Arch.* **469**, 365–374 (2017).
27. Nakamura, R., Bing, R., Gartling, G. J. & Branski, R. C. Macrophages alter inflammatory and fibrotic gene expression in human vocal fold fibroblasts. *Exp. Cell. Res.* **419**, 113301 (2022).
28. Sheng, J. et al. M2 macrophage-mediated interleukin-4 signalling induces myofibroblast phenotype during the progression of benign prostatic hyperplasia. *Cell. Death Dis.* **9**, 755 (2018).
29. Ding, Q. et al. Stemon alkaloids suppress the positive feedback loop between M2 polarization and fibroblast differentiation by inhibiting JAK2/STAT3 pathway in fibroblasts and CXCR4/PI3K/AKT1 pathway in macrophages. *Int. Immunopharmacol.* **72**, 385–394 (2019).
30. Nakamura, R., Bing, R., Gartling, G. J., Garabedian, M. J. & Branski, R. C. Glucocorticoid dose dependency on gene expression in vocal fold fibroblasts and macrophages. *Laryngoscope* **133**, 1169–1175 (2023).
31. Nakamura, R., Bing, R., Gartling, G. J., Garabedian, M. J. & Branski, R. C. Concentration effects of Methylprednisolone in human vocal fold fibroblast-macrophage co-culture. *Laryngoscope* **133**, 3116–3122 (2023).
32. Lodyga, M. et al. Cadherin-11-mediated adhesion of macrophages to myofibroblasts establishes a profibrotic niche of active TGF- β . *Sci. Signal.* **12**, (2019).
33. Nakamura, R., Bing, R., Gartling, G. J., Garabedian, M. J. & Branski, R. C. Dose-dependent glucocorticoid regulation of transcription factors in vocal fold fibroblasts and macrophages. *Laryngoscope* **133**, 2704–2711 (2023).
34. Grannas, K. et al. Crosstalk between Hippo and TGF β : Subcellular localization of YAP/TAZ/Smad complexes. *J. Mol. Biol.* **427**, 3407–3415 (2015).
35. Seo, E. et al. The Hippo-Salvador signaling pathway regulates renal tubulointerstitial fibrosis. *Sci. Rep.* **6**, 31931 (2016).
36. Nakamura, R., Hiwatashi, N., Bing, R., Doyle, C. P. & Branski, R. C. Concurrent YAP/TAZ and SMAD signaling mediate vocal fold fibrosis. *Sci. Rep.* **11**, 13484 (2021).

37. Nakamura, R., Bing, R., Doyle, C. P., Garabedian, M. J. & Branski, R. C. Glucocorticoids activate Yes-associated protein in human vocal fold fibroblasts. *Exp. Cell. Res.* **405**, 112681 (2021).
38. Fu, V., Plouffe, S. W. & Guan, K. L. The Hippo pathway in organ development, homeostasis, and regeneration. *Curr. Opin. Cell. Biol.* **49**, 99–107 (2017).
39. Lai, D., Ho, K. C., Hao, Y. & Yang, X. Taxol resistance in breast cancer cells is mediated by the Hippo pathway component TAZ and its downstream transcriptional targets Cyr61 and CTGF. *Cancer Res.* **71**, 2728–2738 (2011).
40. Hoeft, K. et al. Platelet-instructed SPP1(+) macrophages drive myofibroblast activation in fibrosis in a CXCL4-dependent manner. *Cell. Rep.* **42**, 112131 (2023).
41. Khan, S. H., McLaughlin, W. A. & Kumar, R. Site-specific phosphorylation regulates the structure and function of an intrinsically disordered domain of the glucocorticoid receptor. *Sci. Rep.* **7**, 15440 (2017).
42. Wang, Z., Frederick, J. & Garabedian, M. J. Deciphering the phosphorylation code of the glucocorticoid receptor in vivo. *J. Biol. Chem.* **277**, 26573–26580 (2002).
43. Rohatagi, S. et al. Pharmacokinetics of Methylprednisolone and prednisolone after single and multiple oral administration. *J. Clin. Pharmacol.* **37**, 916–925 (1997).
44. Feingold, K. R. et al. Endotext, (2000).
45. DrugBank Online. Available at: <https://go.drugbank.com>. Accessed June 15th 2022.
46. Kino, T. & Chrousos, G. P. Acetylation-mediated epigenetic regulation of glucocorticoid receptor activity: Circadian rhythm-associated alterations of glucocorticoid actions in target tissues. *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.* **336**, 23–30 (2011).
47. Hua, G., Ganti, K. P. & Chambon, P. Glucocorticoid-induced tethered transrepression requires SUMOylation of GR and formation of a SUMO-SMRT/NCOR1-HDAC3 repressing complex. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA.* ; 113:E635-E643. (2016).
48. Robertson, S., Rohwer, J. M., Hapgood, J. P. & Louw, A. Impact of glucocorticoid receptor density on ligand-independent dimerization, cooperative ligand-binding and basal priming of transactivation: A cell culture model. *PLoS One* **8**, e64831 (2013).
49. Louw, A. GR dimerization and the impact of GR dimerization on GR protein stability and half-life. *Front. Immunol.* **10**, 1693 (2019).
50. Ma, S., Meng, Z., Chen, R. & Guan, K. L. The Hippo pathway: Biology and pathophysiology. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **88**, 577–604 (2019).
51. Ikawa, Y. et al. Neutralizing monoclonal antibody to human connective tissue growth factor ameliorates transforming growth factor-beta-induced mouse fibrosis. *J. Cell. Physiol.* **216**, 680–687 (2008).
52. Mannaerts, I. et al. The Hippo pathway effector YAP controls mouse hepatic stellate cell activation. *J. Hepatol.* **63**, 679–688 (2015).
53. Wang, S. et al. The crosstalk between Hippo-YAP pathway and innate immunity. *Front. Immunol.* **11**, 323 (2020).
54. Branski, R. C. et al. Effects of transforming growth factor-beta1 on human vocal fold fibroblasts. *Ann. Otol Rhinol Laryngol.* **118**, 218–226 (2009).
55. Ritz, C., Baty, F., Streibig, J. C. & Gerhard, D. Dose-response analysis using R. *PLoS One* **10**, e0146021 (2015).

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by NYU Langone's Microscopy Laboratory (RRID: SCR_017934) and Cytometry and Cell Sorting Laboratory (RRID: SCR_019179), both of which receive the support from Cancer Center Support Grant P30CA016087 partially.

Author contributions

RN, GJG, and RCB conceived the study. RN, MJG, and RB designed experiments. RN conducted most of the experiments and data analysis for Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5; Tables 1 and 2. RB and GJG supported the experiments and data analysis for Figs. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5; Tables 1 and 2. RN wrote the manuscript. MJG and RCB supervised the study.

Funding

This study was sponsored by the National Institutes of Health/National Institute on Deafness and Other Communication Disorders (R01 DC017397, Branski; R21 DC020993, Nakamura).

Declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-025-95459-z>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to R.C.B.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License, which permits any non-commercial use, sharing, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if you modified the licensed material. You do not have permission under this licence to share adapted material derived from this article or parts of it. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

© The Author(s) 2025