

1 **Neuropeptidergic control circuits in the spinal cord for male sexual behaviour:**
2 **oxytocin–gastrin-releasing peptide systems**

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15 Running Head: Spinal control circuits for male sexual behaviour (7/8 words)

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24 **Abstract**

25 The neuropeptidergic mechanisms controlling socio-sexual behaviours consist of complex
26 neuronal circuitry systems in widely distributed areas of the brain and spinal cord. At the
27 organismal level, it is now becoming clear that ‘hormonal regulations’ play an important role, in
28 addition to the activation of neuronal circuits. The gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) system in the
29 lumbosacral spinal cord is an important component of the neural circuits that control penile
30 reflexes in rats, circuits that are commonly referred to as the “spinal ejaculation generator
31 (SEG).” Oxytocin, long known as a neurohypophyseal hormone, is now known to be involved
32 in the regulation of socio-sexual behaviors in mammals, ranging from social bonding to
33 empathy. However, the functional interaction between the SEG neurons and the
34 hypothalamo-spinal oxytocin system remains unclear. Oxytocin is known to be synthesised
35 mainly in hypothalamic neurons and released from the posterior pituitary into the circulation.
36 Oxytocin is also released from the dendrites of the neurons into the hypothalamus where they
37 have important roles in social behaviours via non-synaptic *volume transmission*. Because the
38 most familiar functions of oxytocin are to regulate female reproductive functions including
39 parturition, milk ejection, and maternal behaviour, oxytocin is often thought of as a ‘feminine’
40 hormone. However, there is evidence that a group of parvocellular oxytocin neurons project to
41 the lower spinal cord and control male sexual function in rats. In this report, we review the
42 functional interaction between the SEG neurons and the hypothalamo-spinal oxytocin system
43 and effects of these neuropeptides on male sexual behaviour. Furthermore, we discuss the
44 finding of a recently identified, localised ‘*volume transmission*’ role of oxytocin in the spinal
45 cord. Findings from our studies suggest that the newly discovered ‘oxytocin-mediated spinal
46 control of male sexual function’ may be useful in the treatment of erectile and ejaculatory
47 dysfunction.

48 (293/300 words)

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51 KEYWORDS: male sexual function, oxytocin, gastrin-releasing peptide, spinal cord,
52 non-synaptic *volume transmission*.

53 **Introduction**

54 Neuropeptides are the master regulators of neuroendocrine systems controlling socio-sexual
55 behaviours (1, 2). These control mechanisms in the brain and spinal cord are formed and
56 maintained by complicated neural circuits (2). The neurohypophyseal hormones (*neuropeptides*),
57 oxytocin and vasopressin, control a series of behaviours such as territorial behaviour, courtship
58 behaviour, pair bonding, reproductive behaviour, and nurturing behaviour, in addition to the
59 peripheral functions; *e.g.*, antidiuretic and reproductive functions. In addition, the mammalian
60 bombesin-like peptide, gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) is closely related to autonomic
61 regulation such as appetite (3-5), circadian rhythms (6-8), and fear responses (9-11), via specific
62 G protein-coupled receptor, GRP-preferring receptor (GRPR)-mediated mechanisms (12).
63 Sexual function is also closely related to the autonomic nervous system. **Several reports**
64 **previously demonstrated a functional relationship between GRP and male sexual behaviour (13,**
65 **14).** Sex steroid hormones such as oestrogens and androgens also regulate various socio-sexual
66 behaviours, including sexual, aggressive, and parental behaviours, as well as food intake, stress
67 responses, mood regulation, social anxiety, and the modulation of somatosensory transmission
68 (15). Considering how these behaviours are regulated at the organismal level, ‘hormonal
69 regulations’ appear to play an important role in these behaviours in addition to the activation of
70 neuronal circuits. Furthermore, the sexual dimorphism of these nuclei is controlled by the action
71 of sex steroids (16). However, it is not fully understood how and when ‘hormones’ act on the

72 nervous system and regulate these behaviours and develop sexual dimorphism in the central
73 nervous system. **Oxytocin** has a well-established role in social bonding, sexual function,
74 maternal instinct, nursing, and lactation (17, 18). We have demonstrated the roles of oxytocin in
75 male sexual function at the spinal cord level (19, 20). Findings from these studies suggest that
76 oxytocin-mediated control of male sexual function via the spinal cord may be instrumental in
77 treating erectile and/or ejaculation dysfunctions. In this report, we review the neural regulatory
78 mechanisms of the sexually dimorphic functions in the central nervous system and the role of
79 these neuropeptides on male sexual behaviour. Furthermore, we discuss findings on the recently
80 identified localised volume transmission role of oxytocin in the regulation of the spinal GRP
81 system (20).

82

83 **GRP and its cognate receptor, GRPR**

84 GRP is a 27-amino acid peptide (29-amino acids in rodents) originally isolated from the porcine
85 stomach as the mammalian equivalent of a frog peptide, bombesin (21, 22). Subsequently,
86 neuromedin B (NMB) was also isolated, and these two peptides were considered bombesin
87 family peptides (23). GRP has been identified in many mammalian species, including humans,
88 macaque monkeys, pigs, rats, and mice (24). To date, GRP orthologs have also been identified
89 in birds, reptiles, amphibians, and teleost fishes (24), suggesting the universality of GRP in

90 vertebrates. Bombesin and GRP were earlier considered orthologous among frogs and mammals.
91 However, it is reported that in frogs, GRP exists separately from bombesin, suggesting that GRP
92 is not a mammalian bombesin (25, 26). GRP is highly expressed in the hippocampus (11),
93 lateral amygdala (11), accessory basal nucleus of the amygdala (27), suprachiasmatic nucleus
94 (8), dorsomedial nucleus of the hypothalamus (28), and dorsal root/trigeminal ganglion neurons
95 (29). Substantial evidence indicates that GRP functions extensively as a neuromodulator that
96 regulates the autonomic nervous system (30). GRPRs are G protein-coupled receptors, known
97 as one of the subtypes of the bombesin receptor family (12). However, NMB-preferring
98 receptors of the bombesin receptor family have a high affinity for NMB but a low affinity for
99 GRP (31). Another member of the bombesin receptor family is the bombesin receptor subtype 3
100 (BRS-3), which has a low affinity for both GRP and NMB and is known as an orphan receptor
101 in mammals (32). GRPRs are highly expressed in the hippocampus, amygdala (33), and medial
102 preoptic area (POA) (34). GRPR-expressing neurons in the lateral amygdala are known as
103 GABAergic neurons and are involved in conditioned fear responses (11). GRPR-expressing
104 neurons in the spinal dorsal horn and trigeminal sensory nuclei of the brainstem have been
105 reported to be involved in itch transmission, which is completely separated from pain
106 transmission at the spinal cord and brainstem levels (29, 35, 36). Furthermore, it has long been
107 reported that the GRP system acts significantly and play an important role in feeding behaviour

108 (3-5, 28). In addition to actions in the nervous system, it has been reported that high expression
109 of GRPR promotes not only carcinogenesis and proliferation in prostate cancer (37) but also
110 insulin secretion in pancreatic islet cells (38). Taken together, GRPR may be a useful target for
111 pharmacological treatments of various diseases (30).

112

113 **The SEG/lumbar spinothalamic (LSt) neurons control male sexual activity**

114 The upper lumbar spinal cord has been shown to contain a neuronal region called the “spinal
115 ejaculation generator” (SEG) because toxins that selectively lesion the galanin-containing
116 neurons there also severely diminish the ability of male rats to ejaculate (39). **SEG neurons in**
117 **the lumbar spinal cord exhibit male-dominant sexual dimorphism in a population of galanin**
118 **(40)-, cholecystinin (41)- and enkephalin (42)-expressing neurons and GRP**
119 **(13)-expressing neurons..** These neurons are situated dorsolateral to the central canal in
120 lamina X within the third and fourth lumbar spinal cord and project to the thalamic region of the
121 brain (43, 44). These so-called lumbar spinothalamic (LSt) neurons are also sexually dimorphic,
122 with males possessing a greater number than females (13, 43-45) (Fig. 1). We have reported that
123 GRP is expressed in SEG neurons, and **that levels of immunoreactivity for GRP are regulated**
124 **by androgens.** (13, 46) (Fig. 1). The GRP neuron system is a male-dominant sexual dimorphic
125 system that projects both to the sacral parasympathetic nucleus (SPN) and the spinal nucleus of

126 the bulbocarvenosus (SNB) (Fig. 1). The SNB and the dorsolateral nucleus (DLN) motoneuron
127 populations in the fifth and sixth lumbar segments of rats is known as the representative
128 sexually dimorphic nuclei in the spinal cord, and they innervate the striated perineal muscles
129 attached to the base of the penis (47-49). We reported by using **ultra-high voltage electron**
130 **microscopy (HVEM)** techniques and transsynaptic viral tracers that GRP neurons provide
131 synaptic inputs onto both somatic SNB neurons and autonomic SPN neurons (50, 51). GRP
132 neuron fibres also project to the sympathetic nervous system in the thoracic spinal cord (14).
133 Therefore, SEG neurons **not only influence preganglionic sympathetic neurons** in the thoracic
134 spinal cord (lateral horn) **but also** form a local intraspinal neural network that regulates the
135 motor and parasympathetic nervous systems controlling erection in the lumbosacral spinal cord
136 and the thoracic sympathetic nervous system involved in ejaculation (14, 52).

137 It is suggested that the spinal GRP neuron system that regulates sexual function is a
138 conserved property in mammals (30, 52). We have previously identified male-dominant sex
139 differences in the lumbar spinal cord of primate Japanese macaques (53), rodent rats (13), mice
140 (54), and Eulipotyphla Asian house musk shrews (suncus) (55). **Also**, a group of
141 galanin-containing male-dominant SEG neurons **might** exist in humans (56). The localisation
142 and sex differences in the **SEG/LSt** cells are conserved across mammals including macaque

143 monkeys, and it is therefore likely that, in humans, the system functions to regulate male sexual
144 function.

145

146 **Sexual dimorphism of the SEG**

147 The **SEG** neuron system in the spinal cord is also male-dominant sexually dimorphic and
148 expresses androgen receptors (ARs) (13). The testicular feminization mutation (Tfm) rodent
149 model provides a unique model for examining the role of the ARs in the central nervous system
150 and behaviour, because a point mutation in the AR gene renders the protein dysfunctional (57).

151 In the Tfm rat, the number of **GRP-expressing** neurons is completely female (or
152 hyperfeminized) (13, 46, 58). **The expression levels of galanin and cholecystokinin are also**
153 **female-like in Tfm males (58), suggesting that the number of SEG neurons significantly**
154 **reduced in Tfm males.** Treating female rats with androgens on the day of birth and the next day
155 (2 injections subcutaneously) **completely masculinised the spinal GRP-immunoreactive neurons**
156 **in the spinal cord** so that, during adulthood, it resembled the masculinised phenotype of adult
157 males and induced a masculine appearance **in females** (59). The perinatal androgen surge
158 also plays a key role in masculinisation of the spinal GRP system that controls male
159 sexual activity (59). Furthermore, the sexually dimorphic nucleus of the POA (SDN-POA) is
160 several-fold larger in males than in females (16). The enzyme aromatase, which is abundant in

161 the hypothalamus, converts androgens (*e.g.*, testosterone) into oestrogens (*e.g.*, oestradiol).
162 Oestrogens then bind to oestrogen receptors to induce a masculine SDN-POA; this is the
163 ‘*aromatase theory*’ in rodents (16). Thus, oestrogens appear to play an important role in the
164 development of the masculine SDN-POA (brain), while androgens may play a central role in
165 sexual differentiation in the spinal cord. It is well known that muscles develop in an
166 androgen-dependent manner. Synergistic development of neuromuscular junctions might be
167 essential for the masculine SNB system. It is therefore suggested that testosterone induces the
168 muscles to produce a kind of neurotrophic factors (such as ciliary neurotrophic factor) that
169 preserves the muscles and that either the same factor or an additional factor preserves the motor
170 neurons; the neurotrophic theory in the development of the neuromuscular system (16).

171 The number of GRP-immunoreactive neurons in the lumbosacral spinal cord
172 markedly increases from postnatal day (PND) 30 onward (60) (Fig. 2). From PND 30 to 44 in
173 females, we previously found that few GRP-positive cell bodies were detectable and that GRP
174 staining was not intense (60) (Fig. 2). Vaginal opening occurs around PND 33 in rats (61),
175 suggesting that this is the age of puberty onset in females. After puberty, circulating testosterone
176 increases significantly in males and circulating oestradiol and progesterone in females (Fig. 2).
177 Chronic administration of exogenous progesterone to adult male rats significantly decreases
178 GRP expression in the spinal cord (62). The spinal GRP neurons highly express ARs but not

179 progesterone receptors. *In vitro* studies further demonstrated that the androgen effect was
180 completely blocked in HEK293 cells (expressing ARs but not progesterone receptors) treated
181 with androgen plus progesterone, suggesting that progesterone acts to inhibit the expression of
182 GRP in the spinal cord via an AR-mediated mechanism (62). These results taken together
183 suggest that the sex difference in the spinal GRP neurons is developed by the androgen surge
184 during the critical period, resulting in a male-biased neuron number. Furthermore, after puberty,
185 it is likely that increasing circulating testosterone induces the expression of GRP in the spinal
186 cord of males, while progesterone inhibits GRP expression in the spinal cord of females,
187 suggesting that progesterone could be an important feminizing factor in the spinal cord of
188 females at least during pubertal development (62).

189

190 **Neural circuits controlling male sexual function that link the spinal cord to the periphery**

191 As described above, it is accepted that, in rodents, the SNB and DLN are male-dominant
192 sexually dimorphic nuclei that promote penile erection (47). Penile erection occurs by
193 increasing parasympathetic and inhibiting sympathetic activity. Stimulation of the hypogastric
194 nerves in rats does not change the internal pressure of the penile corpus cavernosus, but when
195 the sacral spinal cord is lesioned and parasympathetic innervation is removed, penile erection
196 can be induced by stimulation of the hypogastric nerves (63). Thus, it is shown that many

197 peripheral nerves have a mixture of stimulating (possibly parasympathetic) and inhibitory
198 (possibly sympathetic) effects on a penile erection (64). Spinal GRP neurons project to the
199 lower lumbar and the sacral cord, where GRP might be released locally. SNB neurons that
200 control the erectile reflex (especially cup-like flaring erections of the distal glans) and the sacral
201 parasympathetic nucleus neurons both express GRPRs (13). Pharmacological stimulation of
202 GRPRs in the lumbosacral cord ameliorates penile reflexes and ejaculation in castrated male
203 rats (13). **In anesthetised and spinalised male rats, intrathecal administrations of GRP influence**
204 **ejaculation, while GRPR antagonists prevent ejaculation induced by sensory nerve stimulation**
205 **(14).** It is also reported that severe psychological stress significantly decreases the axonal
206 distribution of GRP in the lumbar spinal cord and attenuates the erectile reflexes. This
207 stress-induced decrease in the activity of the erectile reflex is ameliorated by the treatment of
208 GRPR agonist (45). Immunoelectron microscopy, combined with a retrograde tracing technique
209 using HVEM, was employed for 3-dimensional visualization of synaptic contacts from the GRP
210 system in the lumbar cord onto the SNB motoneurons. HVEM analysis clearly shows that axon
211 terminals containing GRP-immunoreactivity make direct contact with the dendrites of SNB
212 neurons (65). Infection of pseudorabies virus (PRV), a transsynaptic retrograde tracer, from the
213 bulbocavernosus muscles and/or levator ani showed that spinal GRP neurons are labelled with
214 PRV (50). These results suggest that axons of GRP neurons project to dendrites of SNB neurons

215 to form synaptic inputs, and that GRP released locally from GRP terminals promotes penile
216 reflexes (51). The SPN is in the lateral lumbosacral cord and SPN neurons express the neural
217 nitric oxide synthase (nNOS), a maker for preganglionic autonomic neurons (66). Chronic
218 mid-thoracic contusion injury decreased immunoreactivity for GRP (at the cell body level) in
219 the lumbosacral cord of males, but not for galanin (14, 67). Intrathecal administration of galanin
220 or cholecystokinin in the lumbar cord promotes ejaculation in a stimulation-dependent manner
221 in the dorsal penile nerve (DPN), whereas intrathecal administration of GRP induces the
222 emission and expulsion phase of ejaculation without DPN stimulation (14, 68). It is
223 demonstrated that the SEG neurons process sensory inputs and project both intraspinal and to
224 the thalamus (44, 69, 70). Thus, GRP-expressing neurons in the lumbar cord are likely to project
225 both intraspinally and to the thalamus (71). Therefore, information transmitted from the spinal
226 GRP system to the brain appears to play an important role in the control of male sexual activity,
227 e.g., switching between erection and ejaculation. Furthermore, GRP may be important as a
228 neuromodulator in these sexual circuitry systems.

229

230 **The afferent connection from spinal GRP neurons to the thalamic nuclei of the brain and**
231 **their mechanisms for control of male sexual activity**

232 Truitt and Coolen (39) reported that specific toxin treatments that selectively lesion the
233 galanin-expressing neurons in the lumbar cord completely eliminate ejaculation in rats while
234 other aspects of male sexual behaviour remain unaffected. These galaninergic neurons have
235 been clearly demonstrated to project to the thalamic region, specifically the medial portion of
236 the parvocellular subparafascicular thalamic nucleus (mSPFp) (39, 72) (Fig. 1). As mentioned
237 above, cholecystokinin, enkephalin, and GRP are expressed in SEG neurons in addition to
238 galanin (71). Ejaculation induces c-Fos expression in the mSPFp and the posterior dorsolateral
239 part of the medial amygdala (73). Thus, SEG neurons appear to play an important role in
240 conveying information about the occurrence of ejaculation and, possibly, its pleasant sensation
241 to the thalamus (74, 75). SEG neurons project both to the intermediolateral nucleus (IML;
242 sympathetic preganglionic) at T12-L2 and to the SPN (parasympathetic preganglionic nucleus)
243 at L6-S1 in the spinal cord and are likely to regulate simultaneously the sympathetic and
244 parasympathetic nervous systems to control male sexual activity in rats (74). **GRP neurons** in
245 lamina X of the L3-L4 level co-express galanin (13, 14, 67). Most GRP fibres projecting to the
246 IML also express galanin, whereas a part of fibres projecting to the SPN express only galanin
247 (13, 14). SEG neurons would use different neuropeptides to function locally in different
248 projection areas. Given that selective lesion of SEG neurons eliminates ejaculation, whereas
249 intrathecal administration of GRP induces the ejaculatory reflex (14, 39) and that

250 galanin-containing fibres projecting from SEG neurons are observed in the mSPFp (69, 72), it is
251 likely that ejaculatory information from the spinal cord is conveyed to mSPFp, suggesting that
252 the mSPFp is involved in controlling the postejaculatory interval (74). **Neuropeptides including**
253 galanin **might act** when ejaculation information is transmitted from LSt (SEG) neurons to the
254 mSPFp (73).

255

256 **A volume transmission role of oxytocin controls male sexual activity via the spinal GRP**
257 **system**

258 The neuropeptides oxytocin and vasopressin are mainly synthesised by neurons in **the**
259 **paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN)** and supraoptic nucleus and are well-known
260 to be released into the systemic circulation from axon terminals in the posterior pituitary (76,
261 77). They are also now known to be released from dendrites of the neurons into the
262 hypothalamus where they have important roles in socio-sexual behaviours **via** non-synaptic
263 volume transmission (78-82). Because the most familiar functions of oxytocin are to regulate
264 female reproductive functions including parturition, milk ejection and maternal behaviour,
265 oxytocin is often thought of as a female hormone (77). However, it is reported that, in men,
266 vasopressin is secreted during sexual arousal (induces erection), and there is, subsequently, a
267 selective release of oxytocin at the time of ejaculation (83) . Furthermore, there is evidence that

268 a group of oxytocin neurons located in the parvocellular part of the PVN project to the lower
269 spinal cord and control penile erection and ejaculation in rats (84-87) (Fig. 3). Chemical lesions
270 of the PVN reduced copulatory plug weight, suggesting a modulatory role by this oxytocin
271 projection in seminal emission, although no effects on penile reflexes or postejaculatory interval
272 were observed in male rats (88). More recently, we have reported the functional interaction
273 between the spinal GRP system and the hypothalamo-spinal oxytocin system in rats (20) (Fig.
274 3). This unveiled a novel mode of oxytocin release driving this interaction via “*en passant*”
275 release from axonal varicosities in the spinal cord to modulate male sexual activity (Fig. 3).
276 Electron microscopic analysis demonstrated that, in the lumbar spinal cord, oxytocin is secreted
277 by exocytosis from axonal varicosities (not synaptic boutons) and acts in a paracrine fashion—a
278 localized volume transmission—to communicate with neighbouring cells expressing oxytocin
279 receptors (20) (Fig. 3). It is likely that oxytocin-containing neurons extend axon projections to
280 the lumbosacral cord and diffusely release oxytocin into the tissue gap for efficient one-to-many
281 signal transduction (20). Furthermore, we demonstrate that oxytocin directly activates
282 SEG/GRP neurons via oxytocin receptors and influences male sexual function in the rat lumbar
283 spinal cord (20). Oxytocin is, of course, transferred from the brain to various parts of the body
284 by the blood, and transmitted from neuron to neuron through synapses. Overall, the endocrine
285 system, which acts on widespread distant organs via the circulation, resembles a ‘*broadcasting*

286 *satellite*' communication, whereas synaptic transmission resembles the hard-wired '*ethernet*.'

287 Accordingly, the localised volume transmission of peptides resembles '*Wi-Fi*' communication,

288 since it is a hybrid of both endocrine (*satellite*) and synaptic (*ethernet*) systems and may be the

289 predominant mechanism of oxytocinergic modulation of socio-sexual behaviour and cognition

290 throughout the central nervous system.

291 There is a male-dominant sex difference in oxytocin fibres in the lumbosacral spinal

292 cord (20, 89). It is reported that oxytocin neurons in the PVN express ARs and oestrogen

293 receptors (90, 91). No sex or age differences in oxytocin fibre distribution in the brain have

294 been reported (92). Oxytocin fibre projections to the lumbosacral cord that controls

295 intracavernous pressure would be linked to the development of sex differences in the spinal

296 GRP system in an androgen-dependent manner. It is well known that cell bodies of oxytocin

297 neurons with a male-dominant sex difference in axonal projection at the level of the lumbosacral

298 cord are localised in the posterolateral parvocellular subnucleus of the PVN, involving the

299 autonomic control (18, 20, 87) because both PVN and SON magnocellular neurons appear to

300 project axons only to the posterior pituitary. However, it is unclear when the oxytocin/GRP

301 neuron relationship in the lumbar spinal cord is established during development. The

302 male-biased differentiation mechanism of oxytocin projection in the lumbosacral cord (although

303 the cell bodies are in the hypothalamus) is of interest in understanding developmental

304 differences generating sexual dimorphism in the brain and spinal cord. **Additional studies**
305 **examining oxytocin fibres in the male lumbar spinal cord after neonatal castration are needed to**
306 **draw a firm conclusion.**

307

308

309 **Relationship between the oxytocin-GRP system and other**

310 **neurotransmitters/neuromodulators**

311 Microinjection of oxytocin into the **PVN** or into the CA1 region of the hippocampus induces an
312 increase in the number of penile erection and yawning episodes in male rats (93). Electrical
313 stimulation of the DPN activates oxytocin neurons in the **PVN** (94). We have demonstrated
314 recently, in rats, that a collection of oxytocin neurons in the caudal parvocellular **PVN** projects
315 to the lumbosacral spinal cord and promotes male sexual function by activating spinal GRP
316 neurons (20). On the other hand, dopamine and glutamate may activate oxytocin neurons in the
317 **PVN**, induce erection, and may also be involved in the control of male sexual behaviour (95,
318 96). **Glutamate N-Methyl-D-aspartic acid (NMDA)** receptors are expressed in SEG neurons, and
319 phosphorylation of the NMDA receptor subunit 1 is essential for the development of ejaculation
320 (97, 98). In addition, it is reported that metabotropic glutamate receptor subtype 7 (mGluR7)
321 knockout mice exhibit ejaculatory disorders, although they have normal sexual motivation (99).

322 Intrathecal administration of the mGluR7-selective antagonist (MMPIP) into the lumbosacral
323 cord inhibits drug-induced ejaculation, suggesting that mGluR7 in the lumbosacral spinal cord
324 plays an important role in ejaculation (99).

325 Serotonergic neurons in the locus coeruleus project widely to the forebrain and may
326 act as an inhibitory system, strongly suppressing male sexual activity (100). Conversely,
327 facilitatory effects of serotonin (5-HT) on male sexual activity have also been reported. It is well
328 known that increased 5-HT levels in the central nervous system elevate the ejaculatory threshold,
329 probably via 5-HT_{1B}, and 5-HT_{2C} receptors, whereas depletion of 5-HT decreases the
330 ejaculatory threshold (101). Serotonergic neurons in the locus coeruleus also project directly
331 to the lumbosacral cord (102), but erections and yawning induced by serotonin receptor (5HT_{1C})
332 agonists are not caused via dopamine or oxytocin neurons. In the lumbosacral cord, it is
333 reported that 5-HT_{1A}, 5-HT_{1B}, and 5-HT_{2C} receptors are expressed in SPN and SNB neurons
334 (97). Systemic administration of serotonin receptor (5HT_{2C}) agonists
335 [1-(3-Chlorophenyl)piperazine (m-CPP) and N-(3-trifluoromethylpiperazine) (TFMPP)]
336 promotes erection similar to oxytocin, suggesting that the cross-talk among
337 oxytocin-dopamine-serotonin neurons is essential for the generation of the erectile reflexes
338 (103). Neuronal activation of the mSPFp is triggered not only by ejaculation but also by
339 subcutaneous administration of 8-hydroxy-2-(di-N-propylamino)tetralin (8-OH-DPAT), a

340 5-HT_{1A} receptor agonist (104). Rats treated with 8-OH-DPAT also achieve ejaculation with
341 little mounting or intromission and show Fos expression similar to that after ejaculation in
342 saline-treated rats (104). Spinal serotonin fibres may regulate erection via 5HT_{2C} and ejaculation
343 via 5-HT_{1A} (possibly expressed in SEG neurons). In human ejaculatory disorders, selective
344 serotonin reuptake inhibitors induces premature ejaculation (105, 106). It is to be hoped that
345 further discoveries can be leveraged to treat a wider range of ejaculatory disorders, although the
346 mechanisms regulating ejaculation are complex.

347

348 **Conclusions**

349 It is to be hoped that new findings concerning the neuropeptidergic control of male sexual
350 functions discussed here might help in the design of drugs that relieve sexual dysfunction. Here,
351 we concentrate on oxytocin and GRP actions in the lumbar spinal cord. Intranasal
352 administration of oxytocin is already widespread, suggesting minimal obstacles to its clinical
353 use. However, the effects of neuropeptides on the central nervous system are varied, and
354 systemic administration should clearly be used with caution.

355

356

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367

368 **Author Contributions**

369 T.O. and H.S. wrote the paper. H.S. conceived and supervised the whole study. All authors had
370 full access to all the data in the study and took responsibility for the integrity of the data and the
371 accuracy of the data analysis.

372

373 **Competing interests**

374 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

375

376 **Data availability statement**

377 All relevant data are within the manuscript, and the data that support the findings of this study
378 are available from the corresponding author upon request.

379

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675

676

677 **Figure Legends**

678

679 **Figure 1**

680 A schematic drawing of the gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) system, which controls male sexual
681 activity in the **lumbosacral** spinal cord. A sexually dimorphic spinal cord system of
682 GRP-containing neurons in the lumbar spinal cord (at the L3–L4 level)— ‘the **spinal** ejaculation
683 centre (SEG)’—projects axons **both to sympathetic centre (i.e., intermediolateral nucleus [IML];**
684 **sympathetic preganglionic) at T12-L2 and to the parasympathetic centre (i.e., sacral**
685 **parasympathetic nucleus [SPN]; parasympathetic preganglionic) and also to the somatic centre**
686 **(i.e., spinal nucleus of the bulbocavernosus [SNB]) in the lower lumbar and sacral cord. The**
687 **SEG neurons have also been shown to process sensory inputs and project both intraspinal and to**
688 **the thalamic region, specifically the medial portion of the parvocellular subparafascicular**
689 **thalamic nucleus (mSPFp); so-called lumbar spinothalamic (LSt) neurons (44, 69, 70). These**
690 centres mediate penile reflexes and trigger ejaculation.

691

692 **Figure 2**

693 Developmental changes in the number of gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP)-**immunoreactive**
694 neurons in the lumbar spinal cord of male (**light blue**) and female (**orange**) rats. Circulating
695 testosterone levels in males (blue) and circulating oestradiol and progesterone levels in females
696 (magenta) are overlaid on the graph. **PND, postnatal day.**

697

698 **Figure 3**

699 Oti *et al.* (20) show that oxytocin directly activates **the spinal ejaculation centre (SEG)/ lumbar**
700 **spinothalamic (LSt) neurons including** gastrin-releasing peptide (GRP) via oxytocin receptors
701 and influences male sexual function in the rat lumbar spinal cord. The release of oxytocin in the
702 lumbar cord is not limited to conventional synapses but acts by diffusion—a localized volume
703 transmission—to reach oxytocin receptors on GRP neurons and facilitate male sexual activity.
704 **PVN, paraventricular nucleus; SPN, sacral parasympathetic nucleus; SNB, spinal nucleus of the**
705 **bulbocavernosus.**