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Regulation of human endometrial transforming growth factor B1 and B3 isoforms through menstrual cycle and medroxyprogesterone acetate treatment

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Summary. The progesterone-induced differentiation of endometrial tissue from proliferative into secretory and decidua seems to be modulated by locally produced hormones and cytokines. Transforming growth factor beta (TGFB), a cytokine produced by endometrial cells, has been shown to modulate endometrial cell proliferation in vitro. Our aim was to evaluate the effects of medroxyprogesterone acetate (MPA) and the influence of menstrual cycle on the expression of TGFB1 and TGFB3 in human endometrium in vivo. In a doubleblind, placebo-controlled trial, 46 healthy women with regular menstrual cycles received either MPA (10 mg/day) or placebo during 10 days. Endometrial and blood samples were collected 8-12 hours after the last MPA or placebo administration. Patients were classified into three groups according to biopsy dating and treatment: proliferative [tissue]/placebo, secretory [tissue]/placebo and secretory [tissue]/MPA. The immunohistochemical distribution of TGFB1 and TGFB1 mRNA was similar in all groups. Immunoreactive TGFB3 was present in the epithelium in 9.1% of proliferative samples, in 41.2% of secretory/placebo samples and in 87.5% of secretory/MPA samples (p=0.001). In the stroma, the frequency of TGFB3 staining was markedly increased after treatment with MPA (62.5%) compared to placebo (proliferative: 9.1%; secretory: 5.9%; p=0.005). The levels of TGFB3 mRNA increased during the secretory phase and were higher in the MPA-treated group, being directly correlated with morphological endometrial differentiation. It is concluded that MPA administration to healthy women increased TGFB3 but did not change TGFB1 gene and protein expression in the endometrium. This finding suggests that TGFB3 may be a local factor mediating progesterone- and progestogen-induced endometrial

differentiation.

Key words: Transforming growth factor beta, Medroxyprogesterone acetate, Endometrium, Menstrual cycle

Introduction

Transforming growth factor beta (TGFB) is a potent regulator of growth and differentiation in several tissues, including the reproductive system. Three major isoforms have been isolated in mammals: TGFB1 (Derynck et al., 1985); TGFB2 (De-Martin et al., 1987), and TGFB3 (Ten-Dijke et al., 1988). They were subsequently shown to bind to the same receptor (Giudice, 1994), although their gene expression is regulated by independent mechanisms. All three TGFB isoforms are produced and secreted in human endometrium, with particular temporal patterns seen in different endometrial layers and cell types (Chegini et al., 1994; Gold et al., 1994). The role of TGFB on endometrial differentiation during the menstrual cycle is still uncertain. The information that is currently available comes from in vitro experiments demonstrating that TGFB1 inhibits the proliferation of isolated epithelial cells of the endometrium (Tang et al., 1994) and enhances their susceptibility to Fos-mediated apoptosis (Tanaka et al., 1998), whereas low concentrations of TGFB1, TGFB2 and TGFB3 may stimulate mitosis in cultured stromal cells (Marshburn et al., 1994).

The expression of TGFB in human endometrium changes during the menstrual cycle, suggesting that endometrial TGFB production may be regulated by cyclic changes in estrogen and progesterone levels (Chegini et al., 1994; Gold et al., 1994). Cross-sectional studies have shown an increase in TGFB3 immunoreactivity and in TGFB1, TGFB2 and TGFB3 mRNA levels during the secretory phase of the menstrual cycle (Kauma et al., 1990; Chegini et al.,

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1994; Gold et al., 1994; Marshburn et al., 1994). If TGFB were regulated by progesterone, this would be an important paracrine mechanism to control endometrial growth and differentiation. In the present study, we report the results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial designed to evaluate the effects of a progestogen on TGFB gene expression in human endometrium.

Materials and methods

Subjects

Forty-six healthy women with regular menstrual periods, not taking any hormonal medication six months prior to the study were enrolled. Median age was 36 years and median cycle length was 29 days. They were stratified according to menstrual cycle into follicular or luteal phase and randomly assigned to receive either placebo or medroxyprogesterone acetate (MPA):1 10 mg tablet/day at bedtime, for 10 days, in a double-blind fashion.

Randomization was performed in blocks (Pocock and Simon, 1975): an MPA/placebo ratio of 2:1 was used in order to assure a sufficient number of patients with early, mid, and late secretory endometrium in the placebo group. Four patients received MPA during the follicular phase only to permit a double-blind allocation of treatments, avoiding selection bias. These patients were later excluded because we were specifically interested in the process by which MPA converts the proliferative endometrium into secretory endometrium. Five additional subjects were lost after enrollment because they did not return for biopsy. Thus, 37 patients were included in the study cohort.

In the morning after intake of the last tablet (placebo or MPA), patients underwent aspirative endometrial biopsy and blood collection. Patients studied during the follicular phase started medication (placebo or MPA) between day 25 of the previous cycle and day 5 of the present cycle, and endometrial biopsies were collected between days 5 and 15. Patients studied during the luteal phase started medication between days 13 and 18, with biopsies obtained between days 23 and 28.

The biopsies were dated according to Noyes et al. (1950) and classified as proliferative or secretory [tissue]. Three experimental groups were defined according to endometrial biopsy dating and treatment: proliferative [tissue]/placebo (n=11); secretory/placebo (n=18); and secretory/MPA (n=8). Proliferative endometrium was not observed among patients taking MPA. In some patients, selected at random, biopsy samples were immediately placed in liquid nitrogen for the RT-PCR studies. Thus, 7 RNA samples from each placebo group (proliferative and secretory; a total of 14 samples) and 6 RNA samples from the original secretory/MPA group were submitted to RT-PCR. As the endometrial biopsy samples used for RT-PCR were not microdissected it was not possible to locate TGFß

mRNA at different tissue layers or cell types, therefore the results refer to the whole endometrium mRNA. The study protocol was approved by the local Ethics Committee and all patients gave their informed, written consent.

Serum hormone measurements

Serum estradiol and progesterone levels were assayed in duplicate by chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay (DPC, Los Angeles, CA). The intra- and interassay coefficients of variation were 5% and 12%, respectively.

Immunohistochemistry

Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded endometrial samples were cut into 4 μ m slices, which were stained by immunohistochemistry using the avidin-biotinperoxidase method (Hsu et al., 1981), as previously described (Spritzer et al., 1996; Reis et al., 1999). After incubation with 0.1% trypsin to improve antigen retrieval, followed by exposure to 1% H₂O₂ in methanol to block endogenous peroxidase, sections were treated with normal goat serum for 30 min to suppress nonspecific binding. Primary antibodies were applied for overnight incubation at 4 °C. Mouse purified immunoglobulin G (IgG) against human TGFB1 (Serotec Ltd, Oxford, UK) was diluted to 5 μ g/ml in phosphatebuffered saline (PBS), whereas goat IgG against human TGFB3 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis MN) was diluted to $10 \,\mu$ g/ml in PBS. Sections were treated with biotinylated goat anti-mouse or anti-goat IgG (for TGFB1 and TGFß3, respectively) and incubated with the avidinbiotin-peroxidase complex (Vector, Burlingame, CA) for 60 min. Peroxidase activity was visualized by exposing the slices for 3 min to 1 mg/ml 3,3'-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) in PBS containing 0.3% H₂O₂. The sections were counterstained with hematoxylin to enhance color contrast. Negative controls consisted of endometrial sections where the primary antibody was replaced by normal mouse or goat serum. A positive reaction was characterized by the presence of granular brown staining in the cytoplasm. The intensity of immunostaining at the epithelium and stroma was classified as negative, weak, moderate or intense, and converted by a semiguantitative scale into 0-3 arbitrary units (Gold et al., 1994).

Extraction of RNA and synthesis of cDNA

Endometrial samples stored at -70 °C were homogenized in phenol-guanidine isothiocyanate (Trizol, Gibco BRL, Gaithersburg, MD). Total RNA was extracted with chloroform and precipitated with isopropanol by 12,000 g centrifugation at 4 °C (Chomczynski and Sacchi, 1987). The RNA pellet was washed twice with 75% ethanol, resuspended in diethylpyrocarbonate-treated water and quantified by light absorbance at 260 nm.

First strand cDNA was synthesized from 2 mg total RNA, using the SuperScript Preamplification System (Gibco BRL, Gaithersburg, MD). After denaturing the template RNA and primers at 70 °C for 10 min, reverse transcriptase was added in the presence of 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.4 + 50 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM dNTP mixture and 10 mM dithiothreitol, and was incubated at 42 °C for 55 min. The mixture was heated at 70 °C to stop the reaction and incubated with *E. coli* RNase for 20 min at 37 °C to destroy untranscribed RNA.

Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

RT-PCR was carried out in a final volume of 50 μ l. Two microliters of the first strand synthesis reaction were denatured at 94 °C for 3 min in the presence of 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.4, + 50 mM KCl and 1.5 mM MgCl₂. After this initial heating, 1.25 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Gibco BRL, Gaithersburg, MD) was added together with the same Tris-HCl buffer, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.4 μ M sense and antisense primers and 0.2 mM dNTP mix.

A 443 bp fragment of the TGF β 1 cDNA and a 323 bp fragment of the TGF β 3 cDNA were amplified, whereas a 623 bp cDNA fragment corresponding to the ubiquitously expressed protein β_2 -microglobulin was used to adjust PCR results to equivalent amounts of cDNA loaded. The localization of the primers in TGF β 1, TGF β 3, and β_2 -microglobulin cDNA sequences, as well as PCR conditions are listed in Table 1. The product of a first strand reaction performed without reverse transcriptase was also amplified to serve as negative control. A sample of the PCR mixture (15 μ l) was size-fractioned on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. The expected bands were quantified by densitometric analysis using an

image-processing system (ImageMaster VDS, Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden).

Statistical analysis

Data are reported as medians and ranges. Differences between groups were assessed by the Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA followed by Dunn's test for non-parametric multiple comparisons. The proportions of TGF β -immunopositive samples in different groups were compared using chi-square (χ_2) tests, and correlation between endometrial differentiation and TGF β expression was assessed by calculating Spearman's rank correlation coefficients. A difference of p < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

The serum estradiol levels of all subjects were within the normal range (25-160 pg/ml, median = 72 pg/ml), and their progesterone levels were compatible with the respective endometrial dating (0.9-18.8 ng/ml, median = 7.3 ng/ml in the secretory/placebo group). There was full compliance with the prescription, and all endometrial samples of patients receiving MPA were characterized as mid or late secretory patterns.

Immunoreactive TGF\$1 was localized in luminal and glandular epithelium but was more prominent in endometrial stroma (Fig. 1). The intensity of TGF\$1 immunostaining was not altered by the menstrual cycle or by MPA (Fig. 2). The levels of TGF\$1 mRNA were also similar in the three experimental groups, as illustrated in Fig. 3.

On the other hand, TGF β 3 immunostaining was more intense in the luminal and glandular epithelium than in the stroma (Fig. 4). In the epithelium, TGF β 3 was present in 9.1% of proliferative samples, increasing to 41.2% in the secretory/placebo group and to 87.5% in the secretory/MPA group ($\chi^2 = 13.1$, d.f. = 2, p = 0.001).

Table 1. Sequence and localization of primers in the TGF β 1, TGF β 3 and β_2 -microglobulin cDNA sequences, expected sizes of the amplified fragments, and PCR conditions.

	TGFB1	TGFB3	β ₂ -MICROGLOBULIN
5' Primer (sense) Sequence (5'-3') Nucleotides	CAAGCAGAGTACACACAGCA 1213-1232	GCTTCAATGTGTCCTCAGTGG 660-680	ATCCAGCGTACTCCAAAGATTCAG 943-1356
3' Primer (antisense) Sequence (5'-3') Nucleotides	GATGCTGGGCCCTCTCCAGC 1636-1655	TTCCAGGATATCTCATTGGGC 961-982	AAATTGAAAGTTAACTTATGCACGC 3826-3850
Size of fragment	443 bp	323 bp	623 bp
PCR conditions Denaturation Annealing Extension Cycles Final Extension cDNA sequence source	94 °C, 90" 58 °C, 2 min 72 °C, 3 min 35 72 °C, 9 min Derynck et al. (1985)	94 °C, 90" 58 °C, 2 min 72 °C, 3 min 35 72 °C, 9 min Ten-Dijke et al. (1988)	94 °C 1 min 55 °C 1 min 72 °C 1 min 30 72 °C, 5 min Gussow et al. (1987)
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The frequency of samples immunostained to TGFB3 in the stroma was markedly increased by treatment with MPA (62.5%) compared to the placebo (proliferative,

9.1%; secretory, 5.9%; $\chi^2 = 10.6$, d.f. = 2, p = 0.005). As shown in Fig. 2, the intensity of TGFB3 staining was also significantly increased in the group of women



Fig. 1. Immunostaining of TGFB1 in human endometrium. Specific staining is indicated by the brown color and is confined to the cytoplasm. N. Negative control. Pr. Proliferative/placebo endometrium. S. Secretory/placebo endometrium. MPA. Secretory/MPA endometrium. Magnification: Pr and S, x 200; N and MPA, x 400





receiving MPA, both in epithelial and stromal tissues (p<0.05, Dunn's test).

The levels of TGFB3 mRNA increased during the



Fig. 3. RT-PCR assessment of TGFB1 and TGFB3 gene expression in human endometrium. a) PCR products visualized in agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide. Samples 1–7: prolife rative/placebo; samples 8–14, secretory / placebo: samples 15–20, secretory / MPA; N, negative controls; b and c. Densitometric analysis of TGFB1. b and TGFB3. c amplification bands, expressed in arbitrary units after correction by B₂microglobulin expression. Circles represent individual values. Medians are indicated by horizontal bars.



Fig. 4. Immunostaining of TGFB3 in human endometrium. Specific staining is indicated by the brown color and is confined to the cytoplasm. **N.** Negative control. **Pr.** Proliferative/placebo endometrium. **S.** Secretory/placebo endometrium. **MPA.** Secretory/MPA endometrium. x 400

secretory phase and were higher in the MPA-treated group (Fig. 3). The expression of TGFB3 (mRNA and protein) was directly correlated with the grade of endometrial differentiation, being minimal in early proliferative and maximal in mid and late secretory endometrial samples (Fig. 5).

Discussion

The present results demonstrate that TGFB1 and TGFB3 gene and protein expression are independently regulated in human endometrium. While TGFB1 expression was stronger in stroma than in epithelium and did not change either during the menstrual cycle or after progestogen administration, TGFB3 expression was higher in secretory than in proliferative endometrium



Fig. 5. Correlation between endometrial differentiation and TGFB3 gene expression. Endometrial biopsy dating was stratified in 5 sequential groups and correlated with mRNA levels (a) or with the intensity of immunostaining in the epithelium (b) by the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (r). EP= early proliferative; MP= midproliferative; ES= early secretory; MS= midsecretory; LS= late secretory.

and even higher following the use of MPA. In a crosssectional study, Gold et al. (1994) also observed that TGFB3 (but not TGFB1 or TGFB2) immunostaining was more intense in secretory than in proliferative endometrial tissues. These observations support the concept that despite the local production of different TGFB isoforms, TGFB3 is specifically involved in the control of endometrial growth and differentiation during a normal menstrual cycle, whereas the role of TGFB1 seems to be related to anti-neoplastic mechanisms, because endometrial carcinomas express very low amounts of TGFB1 mRNA (Perlino et al., 1998). Although TGF^β2 was not studied in the present work, other investigators have not observed any differences in TGFB2 expression in proliferative or secretory endometrium (Gold et al., 1994). On the other hand, preliminary data on mRNA levels suggest that TGFB2 might behave similarly to TGFB3, with increased gene expression in secretory/MPA endometrium (Reis, 1998). Further studies are still required to determine the specific role of TGFB2 in the regulation of the endometrium cycle.

Our data show an increase in endometrial TGFB3 gene and protein expression after progestogen administration, compared with control subjects studied in both proliferative and secretory phases of the menstrual cycle. Among spontaneously cycling controls, TGFB3 expression was most pronounced during the intermediate secretory phase, when the endometrium showed maximal signs of progesterone stimulation. These findings suggest that the cyclic changes observed in endometrial TGFB3 expression might be determined by the post-ovulatory progesterone surge. In accordance with this hypothesis, an increment of TGFB3 mRNA hybridization signal has been observed at early and mid secretory phases (Chegini et al., 1994), which coincides with higher circulating progesterone levels. One recent study employing northern blot analysis suggested that TGFB3 mRNA levels were higher during the first phase of the menstrual cycle (Arici et al., 1996). However, this paradoxical observation was not confirmed by morphological or biochemical data to certify that the biopsies collected in the second half of the cycle were true secretory endometrium.

The molecular mechanisms underlying the progestogen-induced stimulation of TGFB3 gene expression in endometrial cells are still unknown. Nevertheless, at least two basic pathways can be hypothesized: the complex hormone-progesterone receptor may bind directly to the regulatory region of TGFB3 gene, or may release TGFB3 gene expression from the inhibitory effect of estrogen. In agreement with the former mechanism is the fact that TGFB mediates the progesterone suppression of an endometrial metalloproteinase *in vitro* (Bruner et al., 1995). The latter mechanism is supported by the fact that estradiol suppresses TGFB2 and TGFB3 production by cultured human breast cancer cell lines (Arrick et al., 1990).

The present study demonstrated that TGFB3 gene

and protein expression in human endometrium is increased by progestin administration *in vivo*. Furthermore, we concluded that the local expression of TGFB3 was parallel to the process of endometrial differentiation from proliferative into secretory. These findings indicate that TGFB3 is a paracrine factor secreted by the differentiating endometrium and may be an important local mediator of progestin-induced endometrial differentiation.

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