

## Endometrial protein secretion with respect to endometrial and ovarian function

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### Introduction

Morphological changes take place in the endometrium in response to endocrine stimuli during the menstrual cycle, pregnancy and the menopause. The major changes include proliferation under the influence of oestrogens, followed by secretory and decidualised changes under the action of oestrogens plus progesterone. Atrophy follows sustained absence of oestrogen.

The endometrium synthesizes and secretes a number of proteins. These include 17 $\beta$ -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase, IGF-binding protein (IGFBP-1), endometrial protein 14,  $\alpha_1$ -pregnancy-associated endometrial globulin ( $\alpha_1$ -PEG), placental protein 12 (PP12), endometrial protein 15, placental protein 14 (PP14),  $\alpha_2$ -pregnancy-associated endometrial globulin ( $\alpha_2$ -PEG), pregnancy-associated plasma protein-A, placental protein 5, just to name a few. For review see Seppälä et al. 1988 [1].

While ovarian steroid hormones have their well-known effects on endometrial morphology, their effects on endometrial protein secretion have been studied only recently. No feed-back mechanisms have been reported to exist from the endometrium to the ovary. We review here our studies on two proteins, namely IGFBP-1 and PP14, which both are synthesized and secreted by secretory endometrium [2,3].

### Insulin-like growth factor binding protein (IGFBP-1)

#### *Background*

Previous studies have shown that placental protein 12 (PP12) is synthesized by secretory endometrium under the influence of progesterone which enhances PP12 release in endometrial tissue culture [2]. PP12 and  $\alpha_1$ -PEG are immunologically similar [4]. The first association with an endometrial protein with IGF-1 was reported for PP12. Analysis of its N-terminal amino acid sequence disclosed identity with amniotic fluid somatomedin-binding protein, and PP12 was found to bind IGF-I (5). Later the same observation was reported on  $\alpha_1$ -PEG [6]. Now five groups

have independently of each other cloned and sequenced the cDNA encoding this protein [7–11], designated as IGFBP-1 at the Vancouver meeting on IGF-binding proteins [12]. All but one group [7] have reported essentially the same cDNA sequence. The molecular mass of IGFBP-1 deduced from the cDNA sequence is 25.3 kDa. Southern blot analysis of genomic DNA suggests that there is a single IGFBP-1 gene within the human genome [9], and *in situ* hybridization studies with a cDNA encompassing the entire protein coding region of IGFBP-1 have localized the gene to bands p12-p13 on chromosome 7 [13].

#### *Local interactions*

IGFBP-1 binds IGF-1 with high affinity, similar to that of the IGF receptor [14], and IGFBP-1 has been found to compete for IGF-I with the receptor [15]. Besides IGFBP-1, IGF-1 and type I IGF receptor have also been found in the endometrium [15]. It can be postulated that IGFBP-1, induced in the endometrium by postovulatory progesterone secretion, plays a part in the transition of proliferative endometrium into the secretory phase by reducing bioavailable growth factor (IGF-I) from its receptor on the endometrial cells.

#### *Cellular localization*

Immunohistochemical studies have demonstrated this protein mainly in secretory endometrial stromal cells [16]. IGFBP-1 appears in the endometrium on day 3 or 4 postovulation, i.e., before implantation takes place in a fertile cycle [17]. IGFBP-1 mRNA has been found in secretory endometrium [9] which is capable of incorporating labelled methionine into immunoreactive IGFBP-1 in tissue culture [2]. During pregnancy, the most abundant tissue containing IGFBP-1 is decidua, and amniotic fluid is the most abundant source for purification [14].

#### *Measurement of IGFBP-1 in serum and other biological fluids*

Radioimmunoassay [18] and immunofluorometric assay [19] have been developed to estimate the levels in tissue, culture fluids and biological fluids. These assays measure the protein irrespective of whether it is bound to IGF-I or not. The levels are elevated during pregnancy [18]. There is diurnal variation in serum IGFBP-1 levels during pregnancy [20], and also in the nonpregnant state [21]. This appears to be due to meals rather than to the hour of day [22]. The levels are inversely correlated with serum insulin concentrations [23] and independent of the glucose level [24].

Apart from the endometrium, IGFBP-1 mRNA has been found in the liver [9]. Ovarian granulosa cells also synthesize and secrete this protein [25]. It has been difficult to estimate the relative contribution of each of these tissues to serum IGFBP-1 levels. The uterus appears not to be the major site in this respect, because circulating levels show no cyclical variation during the normal menstrual cycle, and hysterectomy does not bring about any sustained reduction in the levels [26]. Diurnal variation and the effect of insulin on the circulating IGFBP-1 levels are likely to reflect changes in liver-derived IGFBP-1 secretion, because insulin and IGF-I decrease the release of IGFBP-1 from Hep G2 liver cancer cells [27]. In cycles hyperstimulated for *in vitro* fertilization the IGFBP-1 levels rise as multiple follicles

mature [28]. This probably results from a greater granulosa cell-derived contribution to the circulating IGFBP-1 pool, because no simultaneous change takes place in the insulin levels [29].

#### *Circulating levels in disease*

In polycystic ovarian disease (PCOD) the circulating IGFBP-1 level is subnormal in one third of the patients [30]. These women are characterized by obesity, higher serum insulin and free testosterone levels and lower levels of sex hormone-binding protein (SHBG). Diet-induced weight loss is accompanied by a significant decrease in circulating levels of insulin, IGF-I and free testosterone, while the levels of SHBG and IGFBP-1 simultaneously rise [31]. Obese women with PCOD may have hyperinsulinaemia and insulin resistance, and high insulin and IGF-I levels are thought to increase ovarian androgen production [32].

Weight loss can bring about considerable metabolic changes in the endocrine control of ovarian function by decreasing insulin and IGF-I secretion [31]. The decreasing effects of insulin and IGF-I on IGFBP-1 and SHBG secretion probably take place in the liver, as both insulin and IGF-I decrease the release of IGFBP-1 and SHBG from HepG2 liver cancer cells [27]. Patients with insulinoma have subnormal IGFBP-1 levels which normalize after removal of the tumour [23].

During pregnancy the serum IGFBP-1 levels are elevated above the normal distribution in pre-eclampsia [33] and in fetal growth retardation [34]. Elevated levels have also been observed in nonpregnant women with ovarian cancer [35] and liver cancer [36]. Luteinized granulosa cells [37] as well as granulosa cell tumours contain IGFBP-1.

### **Placental protein 14**

#### *Background*

This protein was first isolated from the human placenta [38]. Later studies have shown that PP14 is not placenta-derived. It is synthesized by secretory/decidualized endometrium which tissues contain specific PP14 mRNA [39] and are capable of incorporating labelled methionine into immunoreactive PP14 [3]. PP14 is immunologically indistinguishable from progestagen-associated endometrial protein (PEP) [40] which, in turn, is immunologically related to  $\alpha$ -uterine protein (AUP) [41]. PP14 is also immunologically similar to  $\alpha_2$ -PEG [4] and chorionic  $\alpha_2$ -microglobulin [42],

#### *Structural analyses*

The first studies on the N-terminal amino acid sequence of PP14 revealed significant homology between PP14 and  $\beta$ -lactoglobulins of various species, most notably horse  $\beta$ -lactoglobulin [43]. Subsequently similar homology was reported for  $\alpha_2$ -PEG [44]. Homology has also been observed between PP14 and a group of carrier proteins, e.g., human retinol binding protein [45]. Cloning and sequencing of the entire cDNA of PP14 has confirmed and expanded these homologies [39].

#### *Localization in tissue*

PP14 is localized to endometrial secretory glands, not to the stroma [3,46]. Also deep basal glands in the immediate postmenstrual period may occasionally contain

progesterone [56]. The role of non-steroidal compounds in the maturation of endometrial secretory capacity is currently under extensive investigation.

Patients with endometriosis exhibit similar cyclical variation in their serum PP14 levels as do apparently healthy ovulatory women. When only the low midcycle levels are compared, those women with advanced endometriosis have higher levels than those with a local disease [57]. Radical surgery brings the levels down as well as sustained treatment with danazol or medoxyprogesterone acetate [57]. In patients with endometriosis, no difference has been found in serum PP14 levels between those samples which have an elevated progesterone level and those in which the level is low. Thus factors other than progesterone may also have an influence on the serum PP14 level. Overlap between PP14 levels in normal women and those with endometriosis is considerable and invalidates the use of serum PP14 measurement as a guide to detect residual disease. This is probably due to coexisting PP14 secretion by the normal endometrium.

Our studies have shown that PP14 can be induced in the endometrium of postmenopausal women by oestrogen-progesterone replacement treatment. In postmenopausal women the serum PP14 level is low before treatment and, in a replacement cycle, it becomes elevated during the last week of cyclical progesterone [58]. The mean increase is 48% from the starting concentration. A significantly smaller increase (7%) has been observed in hysterectomized women [45]. The origin of this slight increase is not known. These studies indicate that the major part of circulating PP14 is uterus-derived. We have also found remarkable differences in the progesterone-PP14 responses between different postmenopausal women. Some exhibit a more than 100% rise, whereas others exhibit no rise at all. It is not known whether similar differences would exist in normally ovulating women with unexplained infertility. Potentially the serum PP14 measurement should be useful in detection of primary endometrial unresponsiveness, as indicated by the variable responses to hormone replacement therapy [58].

The role of PP14 in the regulation of fertility has not been established. PP14 may have immunosuppressive properties [59]. This would indicate an important role for implantation of the blastocyst. Joshi and his coworkers have reported higher serum PEP levels in the luteal phase of fertile than infertile cycles [60]. If this is confirmed by other studies, then it would be plausible to identify those women whose serum PP14 levels are not adequately elevated in the luteal phase and to treat them with additional oestrogen and progesterone.

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