

G.R. Williams · N.A. Wright

Trefoil factor family domain peptides

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Abstract Within the past 15 years a new family of peptides has been identified, known as trefoil factor family (TFF) domain peptides; they are associated with mucin-secreting epithelial cells and synthesised predominantly in the gastrointestinal tract. They share a highly conserved physical structure, and their role in mucosal defence and healing is becoming increasingly clear; more recently a tumour suppressor function has been postulated. Outside the gastrointestinal tract, members of this group of peptides have also been identified in the normal hypothalamus and pituitary, and in normal breast tissue where it is responsive to oestrogen stimulation. Evidence of peptide expression has been found in a range of urological, gynaecological, gastrointestinal, pulmonary and breast carcinomas, and in the last two it appears to carry prognostic significance. The present review aims to summarise the rapidly expanding data on the role of these peptides in epithelial inflammation, repair and neoplasia.

Key words TFF domain · Trefoil

Introduction

TFF domain peptides are small, stable structures copackaged by the Golgi apparatus of gastrointestinal epithelial cells into mucus granules and secreted with mucins into the protective layer covering the mucosa. The family shares a variable number of conserved motifs based on a compact 3-dimensional trefoil structure of six cysteine residues held together by three pairs of disulphide bonds [9, 12, 60]. This structure appears to confer marked proteolytic stability and resistance to acid digestion [24]. There are three known trefoil factors in man: TFF1 and TFF3, which each contain one trefoil motif, and TFF2, with two motifs.

G.R. Williams (✉) · N.A. Wright
ICRF Histopathology Unit, 44, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London,
WC2A 3PX, UK
Fax: (44) 171 269 3087

TFF1 was originally discovered in 1982 during searches for oestrogen-inducible mRNAs in breast carcinoma cell lines [34]. The cDNA clone was named pS2, and the corresponding gene locus on chromosome 21q22.3, BCEI (breast cancer estrogen inducible) [36, 48, 63].

TFF2 was identified in 1990 [62] as a human homologue of a peptide isolated from porcine pancreas, pancreatic spasmolytic polypeptide (PSP) [23–25, 61]. The human variant was named spasmolytic polypeptide (SP), since the pancreas did not seem to be a major site of production of the peptide. The gene for SP lies on chromosome 21, within 230 kb of the gene for pS2 [63].

TFF3, originally known as intestinal trefoil factor (ITF), was identified in 1993 [17, 44] as the human homologue of a rat protein identified with oligonucleotide probes based on the peptide sequence of human transformed growth-inhibitory factor (TGIF) [55]. Subsequently there has been no confirmation that TFF3 is related to TGIF. The human TFF3 gene maps to the same cluster on chromosome 21 as TFF1 and TFF2 [8, 52].

Table 1 summarises the known sites of physiological and pathological expression of TFF domain peptides.

Functions

The biological functions of the TFF domain peptides are not completely understood. Investigation of their activity in humans is restricted by the difficulty in purifying large amounts from natural sources, and recombinant DNA techniques are frequently used as the most practicable source of the peptides.

Initial studies on porcine TFF2 in experimental animals suggested they had a role in inhibition of gastrointestinal motility, and on oral administration, in inhibition of pentagastrin-induced acid secretion [25]. However, recent studies on the human and porcine peptides have not supported these findings [35, 42]. The reasons for these discrepancies are not known, but may be due to small differences in study design [35].

Table 1 Sites of expression of TFF domain peptides (*IBD* inflammatory bowel disease, UACL ulcer-associated cell lineage)

Peptide	Site	
Physiological expression		
TFF 1	Stomach	Mucus cells from neck upwards, all regions
	Small intestine	Ductal luminal cells of Brunner's glands
	Large intestine	Goblet cells near surface of crypts
	Pancreas	Focally in duct epithelium
	Gall bladder	Patchy epithelial expression
	Breast	Small proportion of lobular and ductal epithelial cells
	Prostate	Normal tissue adjacent to tumour
TFF2	Stomach	Fundus; mucus neck cells of antrum; mucus cells in base of glands (surface cells mRNA only)
	Small intestine	Brunner's gland acini and distal duct, otherwise luminal mucus only
	Pancreas	Focally in duct epithelium
	Gall bladder	Patchy epithelial expression
TFF3	Small intestine	Brunner's gland acini and ducts, goblet cells
	Large intestine	Superficial goblet cells
	Gall bladder	Patchy epithelial expression
	Hypothalamus	Neurons in periventricular and paraventricular nuclei
	Pituitary	Anterior and posterior
	Female GU tract	Epithelium
Pathologic expression		
TFF1	Oesophagus	Barrett's oesophagus
	Stomach	Intestinal metaplasia: incomplete, goblet and columnar cells; complete, goblet cells only
		Hyperplastic polyps
	Small intestine	Carcinoma: diffuse > intestinal
	Large intestine	Gastric metaplasia
TFF2		Chronic ulceration including IBD; UACL upper duct and surface cells, adjacent normal cell lineages (endocrine, goblet and ulcer base)
	Gallbladder	UACL
		Hyperplastic polyps
		Adenoma
		Adenocarcinoma
TFF3		UACL and carcinomas of biliary tract, breast, pancreas, endometrium, ovary (mucinous > serous), prostate, bladder, cervix, lung (adenocarcinoma)
	Oesophagus	Barrett's oesophagus
	Small intestine	Gastric metaplasia
		Chronic ulceration incl IBD
	Large intestine	UACL: acinar cells and lower duct adjacent normal cells as TFF1
TFF3		UACL
		Hyperplastic polyps (mRNA only)
		Adenoma
		Adenocarcinoma
	Somach	Glands adjacent to ulceration
TFF3	Small intestine	Goblet cells of intestinal metaplasia
		Chronic ulceration
		UACL: acini and lower ducts, adjacent normal cells as TFF 1 and 2
	Large intestine	Hyperplastic polyps (mRNA only)
		Adenoma
		Adenocarcinoma (particularly those with mucinous histology)

There is now a large body of evidence to show that these peptides play an active role in mucosal defence and, with expression being rapidly up-regulated after mucosal damage, have a further action once inflammation and ulceration have occurred.

Role in mucosal defence

Subcutaneous or oral administration of recombinant human TFF2 and rat TFF3 has been shown, in separate studies, to prevent the development of indomethacin-induced gastric ulceration in the rat [2, 42]. There are two schools of thought as to the mechanisms responsible for this protective function.

The role of TFF domain peptides as a physical barrier at the luminal mucosal surface, protecting the gastric epithelial cells from acid digestion, is suggested by their luminal stability and coexpression with mucin core proteins, leading to very high concentrations of the peptides within the mucus gel layer [13, 14]. TFF1 and TFF2 are expressed specifically with the neutral mucin MUC1, and colon carcinoma cell lines that express MUC2 also secrete TFF2 and 3 [13, 14, 66]. These peptides alter the physical properties of the secreted mucins, leading to an increase in the optical density and viscosity of purified mucin preparations when added in vitro possibly by binding mucus molecules together via oligosaccharide side chains [2].

Other work has indicated that, rather than a lumen-protective function, a receptor-mediated response may be involved. Chloride transport in gastrointestinal epithelial cells is induced by TFF3 application in vitro only when the basolateral surface of the cell is exposed to the peptide [6]. TFF3 has also been found to bind a membrane protein in preparations of colorectal epithelial cells, with associated phosphorylation of tyrosine and β -catenin, cytoplasmic peptides involved in signal transduction and hence highly suggestive of a receptor-mediated response [29].

Role in healing and repair

Expression of TFF domain peptides is increased in inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) and adjacent to peptic ulceration, particularly in epithelial cells migrating across the base of ulcers [10, 45]. Recent transgenic studies support the hypothesis that TFF domain peptides are important in stimulating gastrointestinal repair. Mice that overexpress human TFF2 specifically in jejunal villi show increased resistance to indomethacin-induced jejunal mucosal injury compared with controls, a protection not shared by non-TFF2-expressing ileal regions [43]. Conversely, knockout mice lacking the TFF3 gene have been shown to have impaired mucosal healing and die from extensive colitis after oral administration of dextran sulphate sodium, an agent that causes mild epithelial injury in wild-type mice [33].

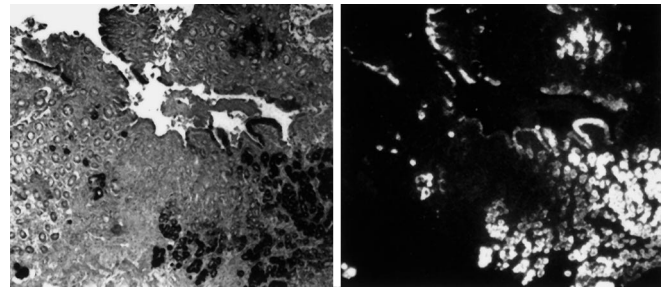


Fig. 1 Light and dark field in situ hybridisation for TFF2 mRNA showing signal in UACL in colonic mucosa

Studies on recombinant peptides have revealed that all are motogens, promoting epithelial cell migration and invasion of collagen gels in vitro, possibly by inducing rapid phosphorylation of β -catenin, and the down-regulation of adhesion molecules, particularly E-cadherin [16, 29]. By stimulating migration of epithelial cells from the wound margin, with associated flattening of immediately adjacent undamaged cells, these peptides therefore contribute to the restoration of mucosal integrity [26, 37, 56].

In both local and diffuse ulcerative conditions of the GI tract, the site of coexpression of the peptides has been shown to be cells of the ulcer-associated cell lineage (UACL), as shown in Fig. 1 [17, 46, 50, 67]. This lineage, budding out from the bases of crypts adjacent to ulcers, plays a key role in the restoration of mucosal integrity, extending through the lamina propria in an acinar network onto the mucosal surface at the sides of the villi and displacing indigenous surface epithelial cells. The sites of expression of TFF-domain peptides in the UACL are shown in Table 1. Normal cell lineages adjacent to the UACL in Crohn's disease also express TFF2 ectopically, as do local neuroendocrine cells [47, 66, 67].

Association with growth factors

Even though TFF3 was initially discovered through its sequence homology with human TGIF, there has been no subsequent confirmation that TFF3 is related in any way to TGIF, and the effects of the peptides on cell migration have been shown to be independent of TGF β although acting synergistically with epidermal growth factor (EGF) [10, 17, 43, 44]. TFF2 has been shown in one study to have growth factor-like effects, being mitogenic for a colorectal cancer cell line HCT116 and a breast cancer cell line MCF7 [22].

There is some evidence for synergism in intestinal mucosal protection between these peptides and growth factors, including EGF and fibroblast growth factor [57]. In experimental models there appears to be a synergy between rat TFF3 and EGF in increasing prostaglandin-induced fluid and electrolyte secretion by epithelial cells [6] and in protection against indomethacin-induced ulceration [7].

EGF is also involved in the regulation of expression of the TFF1 gene, via a complex enhancer region, along with a wide range of other effectors including oestrogen, insulin-like growth factor-1, basic fibroblast growth factor and the proto-oncogene products c-Ha-ras and c-jun [5, 40]. The regulatory regions of the other TFF peptide genes do not contain an EGF-responsive element [51, 53].

In UACL there is further circumstantial evidence of synergy between TFF domain peptides and growth factors. Immunoreactive EGF/urogastrone (URO) is found in the acinar portions of the UACL corresponding to the sites where TFF1 is found. The growth factor may thus be involved in the expression of the peptide at this site, although immunostaining for the EGF receptor shows positivity only in adjacent normal crypts. TGF- α peptide is expressed abundantly throughout the UACL, and expression of the TGF- α receptor is similarly limited to adjacent normal crypts [1, 66].

Association with neoplasia

TFF1 was originally isolated from human breast carcinoma cell lines. Since this discovery, several series have documented an association between TFF domain peptides and human epithelial neoplasia.

Common epithelial malignancies found to express TFF1 include carcinomas of the breast, stomach, pancreas, lung, endometrium, ovary (particularly mucinous carcinomas), prostate, and (occasionally) bladder and cervix [3, 19]. In gastric, breast and pancreatic tumours the gene appears largely intact [18, 30, 64], although the presence of aberrant TFF1 transcripts in some gastric carcinomas suggests that subtle gene modifications may be occurring in neoplasia [59].

Changes in protein expression, however, are well documented. In breast carcinoma, in which over 50% of tumours express TFF1, expression is significantly associated with oestrogen receptor status, responsiveness to hormone therapy and favourable prognosis [4, 11, 18, 41, 49, 54]. In all other tumours in which TFF1 has been demonstrated, expression appears to be independent of oestrogen receptor status.

TFF1 protein expression is lower in gastric adenomas and carcinomas than in adjacent normal mucosa and hyperplastic polyps [31]. In up to 50% of carcinomas expression is lost completely [19, 30, 32, 38]. Expression has been found to correlate with diffuse morphology, and while some studies have shown no correlation with parameters of tumour prognosis, one series showed a significant relationship between TFF1 expression and tumour stage [32, 38]. TFF3 expression has been reported to occur in enterocytes lacking goblet cell morphology in colonic adenomas and carcinoma, colocalising with neutral mucin production [58]. While complete loss of expression of the protein is rare in colonic carcinomas studied to date, decreased levels have been found to be significantly associated with tumour necrosis and advanced Dukes stage [58].

Nonmalignant lung disease and squamous or small cell bronchial carcinoma are not associated with raised serum levels of TFF1 [21]. However, increased mean serum levels and evidence of immunohistological positivity have been found to correlate with advanced bronchial adenocarcinoma, and specifically the goblet cell subtype of bronchioloalveolar carcinoma [21]. TFF1-positive adenocarcinomas have also been shown to be associated with a poorer prognosis than negative tumours [20].

The biological role of these proteins in tumorigenesis is less clear. Experimental evidence for a role in tumour suppression comes from studies using knockout mice lacking the TFF1 gene [28]. Homozygous animals showed decreased and dysfunctional gastric mucin production with marked antral hyperplasia and dysplasia. All such animals developed antral adenomas and 30% developed multifocal intramucosal carcinomas. Whether the TFF1 gene acts directly in tumour suppression at a genetic level or indirectly via maintenance of normal mucin production remains to be ascertained.

Studies on mouse breast carcinoma cell lines transfected with human TFF1 cDNA have also shown that the peptide has the ability to affect morphogenesis, causing the cells to grow as branched rather than spheroid structures in collagen gels [65]. Recombinant TFF2 has also been shown to modify the pattern of growth of carcinoma cells growing in suspension culture, from spheroidal to multispiked clusters [27]. The actions of TFF domain peptides in morphogenesis and oncogenesis may be mediated by interaction with β -catenin. This protein, as well as being involved with E-cadherin in signal transduction, has been shown to have a role in embryonic developmental patterning in certain species [15]. Furthermore, evidence of a direct interaction between β -catenin and the adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) tumour suppressor protein suggests a role in the regulation of tumour growth [39].

Conclusions

The role of TFF domain peptides has been gradually elucidated since their discovery in 1982. They appear to play a central role in gastric and intestinal mucosal defence, in association with luminal mucins, and they are involved in the healing process following ulceration. Their expression and biological action are closely associated with hormonal control, growth factors and oncogenic stimuli. A potential role in morphogenesis and malignant transformation is suggested by experimental and observational studies.

Much remains to be discovered about their mechanisms of action at the cellular level, in particular their precise interactions with growth factors, adhesion molecules, oncogenes and tumour suppressor proteins. Such studies will be central to the potential use of TFF domain peptides in the clinicopathological assessment of various epithelial malignancies and the realisation of their considerable therapeutic potential in the manage-

ment of ulceroinflammatory disease of the gastrointestinal tract.

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