

Hormonal regulation of the normal breast

B. Von Schoultz*^a, G. Söderqvist^a, M. Cline^b, E. von Schoultz^c, L. Skoog^d

^aDepartment of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Karolinska Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden ^bDepartment of Comparative Medicine, Bowman Gray School of Medicine, Wake Forest University, Winston-Salem, North Carolina, USA

^cDepartment of Oncology, Karolinska Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden

^dDepartment of Pathology, Karolinska Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden

Abstract

The breast is a target organ for reproductive hormones but basic knowledge on hormonal effects is very poor. Available data indicate that the breast is regulated in a specific manner which is distinct from the endometrium and other target organs. It seems clear that the breast undergoes cyclic changes during the menstrual cycle and that *in vivo* there is a direct stimulatory action of progestogens on the breast. In surgically postmenopausal female macaques continuous combined estrogen/progesterone therapy was found to induce greater proliferation than estrogen alone.

Keywords: Estrogen; Progesterone; Mammary proliferation

The breast is a target organ for reproductive hormones but basic knowledge on hormonal effects is very poor. In particular the influence of estrogens and progestogens on mammary epithelial proliferation has been a matter of much controversy. When cultured *in vitro*, both normal and transformed breast epithelial cells seem to behave like the endometrium, i.e. proliferation is stimulated by estrogens and inhibited by progesterone addition [1]. Thus, an antagonistic effect of the two major sex steroids would seem reasonable. On the other hand evidence for a synergistic action comes from *in vivo* studies of biopsy specimens of 'normal' breast tissue near fibroadenomas fibrocystic disease or breast cancer. In menstruating women maximal epithelial cell proliferation has been demonstrated to occur during the luteal

phase when progesterone levels are high [2]. One tentative explanation to the different cell reactions in cultures and *in vivo* could be that cultured epithelial cells are deprived of their normal complement of blood vessels, adipose tissue, stroma and myoepithelial cells. Surrounding tissue exerts considerable paracrine and hormonal influence *in vivo* [3].

Measurement of estrogen and progesterone receptors in cytologic smears by the use of monoclonal antibodies provides an accurate and reliable technique that can be performed on isolated cells procured through fine needle aspiration. Using a needle with an outer diameter of 0.6 mm as described by Franzén and Zajicek [4] percutaneous fine needle aspirations were performed in healthy women at different phases of the menstrual cycle. We analysed cytologic samples of breast epithelium obtained by fine needle aspiration

* Corresponding author.

biopsies from healthy volunteers for estrogen and progesterone receptor content [5]. In women with a hormonally-confirmed ovulation there was a marked decline in detectable estrogen receptors from the follicular to the luteal phase. In contrast, progesterone receptors were detected at high and constant levels during the menstrual cycle. Data indicate that the breast is regulated in a specific and so far incompletely understood manner which is distinct from the endometrium and other target organs.

It seems clear that the breast undergoes cyclic changes during the menstrual cycle and also that in vivo there is a direct stimulatory action of progestogens on the breast. Thymidine kinase, an enzyme of the nucleotide synthesis considered to be an important marker of cell growth is stimulated at physiological progestogen concentrations [6]. Insulin receptor content and insulin stimulation of cell growth is also enhanced by progestogens in human breast cancer cell lines [7]. This observation could also be relevant to the fact that postmenopausal obesity has been demonstrated as a risk factor. The antagonistic action of progestogen on the estrogen induced stimulation of the endometrium has been related to the stimulatory effect of progestogen on the activity of the enzyme 17β -dehydrogenase. This enzyme converts highly active estradiol to less active metabolites in target organs. Recent data indicate the presence of two different genetic types of 17β -HSD. Genotype I is expressed in breast cancer and favours reductive activity and transformation from estrone into estradiol. The reductive activity is enhanced by progestogens and growth factors like IGF-1 [8].

Combined estrogen/progestogen therapy is used by women all over the world for contraception and postmenopausal replacement. Even in a small country like Sweden (population 8.6 million) more than one million women are treated every day. Hormonal therapies provide a variety of beneficial health effects for women but may also be associated with an increased risk of cancer in target organs [9]. Breast cancer is the most common female cancer and a major cause of death in middle-aged and elderly women. Estrogen is implicated in the development and growth of this

malignancy. About 2/3 of the breast cancers are estrogen receptor positive and determination of sex steroid receptors is crucial for the judgement of prognosis and choice of treatment. Early menarche, late menopause, short menstrual cycles, first child birth after the age of 30, postmenopausal obesity and hormone replacement therapy have been defined as risk factors in epidemiological studies [10]. However, it is uncertain whether hormonal risk factors also have a prognostic significance in established disease. Late menarche, early menopause and high parity were recently found to have an adverse effect on breast cancer prognosis [11].

Human and non-human primate mammary glands have many similarities in terms of anatomy, hormonal regulation and cytokeratin immunophenotypes that are not shared by the commonly used laboratory rodents [12]. We believe that the cynomolgus macaque model offers an unique opportunity for study on mammary gland regulation, since it enables evaluation of the effects of long-term HRT on various locations of the breast from healthy subjects. In surgically postmenopausal female macaques continuous combined therapy with conjugated equine estrogens and medroxyprogesterone acetate was compared with estrogen alone with respect to breast proliferation. For a period of two and a half years treatment doses equivalent to those used by women were administered and mammary gland proliferation was assessed by morphometric and stereologic means. In this study continuous combined estrogen/progestogen therapy was found to induce greater proliferation than estrogen alone [13].

Further studies from our group will evaluate sex steroid receptor variation, breast cell proliferation and growth factors in both cycling and estrogen/progestogen treated healthy women and cynomolgus macaques.

Acknowledgements

Financial support for this project was provided by the Swedish Medical Research Council (proj.no. 5982); the Swedish Cancer Society; Grants PO 1 HL45666 and Ro 1 HL 49085, NHLBI Bethesda MD; DAMD 17öJ-4201, US

Army Medical Research Acquisition Activity Fort Detrick, MD.

References

- [1] Gompel A, Malet C, Spritzer P, Lalardrie JP, Kuttann F, Mauvais-Jarvis P. Progestin effect on cell proliferation and 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase activity in normal human breast cells in culture. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1986; 63: 1174–80.
- [2] Stanford JL, Thomas DB. Exogenous progestins and breast cancer. *Epidemiol Rev* 1993; 15: 98–107.
- [3] Lippman M. Growth regulation of breast cancer. In: Hammond CB, Haseltine FP, Schiff I, eds. *Menopause, evaluation, treatment and health concerns. Progress in clinical biological research.* New York: Alan R Liss Inc., 1989; 111–9.
- [4] Franzén S, Zajicek J. Aspiration biopsy in diagnosis of palpable lesions of the breast. Critical review of 3749 consecutive biopsies. *Acta Radiol* 1968; 7: 241–62.
- [5] Söderqvist G, von Schoultz B, Tani E, Skoog L. Estrogen and progesterone receptor content in breast epithelial cells from healthy women during the menstrual cycle. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1993; 168: 874–9.
- [6] Moore MR, Hathaway LD, Bircher J. Progestin stimulation of thymidine kinase in the human breast cancer cell line T47D. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1991; 1096: 170–4.
- [7] Papa V, Reese CC, Brunetti A, Vigneri R, Siiteri PK, Goldfine ID. Progestins increase insulin receptor content and insulin stimulation of growth in human breast carcinoma cells. *Cancer Res* 1990; 50: 7858–62.
- [8] Poutanen M, Monchamont B, Vihko R. 17 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase gene expression in human breast cancer cells: Regulation of expression by a progestin. *Cancer Res* 1992; 52: 290–4.
- [9] Grady D, Rubin SM, Petitti DB et al. Hormone therapy to prevent disease and prolong life in postmenopausal women. *Ann Int Med* 1992; 117: 1016–37.
- [10] Colditz GA, Hankinson SE, Hunter DJ et al. The use of estrogens and progestins and the risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *N Engl J Med* 1995; 33: 1589–93.
- [11] Korzeniowski S, Dyba T. Reproductive history and prognosis in patients with operable breast cancer. *Cancer* 1994; 74: 1591–4.
- [12] Tsubura A, Hatano T, Hayama S, Morii S. Immunophenotypic difference of keratin expression in normal mammary glandular cells from five different species. *Acta Anatom* 1991; 140: 287–93.
- [13] Cline JM, Söderqvist G, von Schoultz E, Skoog L, von Schoultz B. Effects of hormone replacement therapy on the mammary gland of surgically postmenopausal cynomolgus macaques. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 1995. In Press.