



Neoadjuvant chemotherapy modifies serum pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase specific activity in women with breast cancer and influences circulating levels of GnRH and gonadotropins

María Jesús Ramírez-Expósito¹ · José Manuel Martínez-Martos¹ · Basilio Dueñas-Rodríguez² · Joaquín Navarro-Cecilia² · María Pilar Carrera-González^{1,3}

Received: 10 March 2020 / Accepted: 2 June 2020 / Published online: 6 June 2020
© Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2020

Abstract

Purpose Functional studies have demonstrated that gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) regulates cell proliferation, apoptosis, and tissue remodeling. GnRH is metabolized by the proteolytic regulatory enzyme pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase (Pcp) (E.C. 3.4.19.3), which is an omega peptidase widely distributed in fluids and tissues. We previously reported a decrease in both rat and human Pcp activity in breast cancer, suggesting that GnRH may be an important local hormonal factor in the pathogenesis of breast cancer. Recently, we have described that postmenopausal women with breast cancer show lower levels of serum Pcp activity than control postmenopausal women. To determine the effect of neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) on serum Pcp specific activity and circulating levels of GnRH, luteinizing hormone (LH), follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and steroid hormones 17- β -estradiol and progesterone in pre- and postmenopausal women diagnosed with infiltrating ductal carcinoma.

Methods Serum Pcp activity was measured fluorometrically using pyroglutamyl- β -naphthylamide. Circulating GnRH levels were dosed using a commercial RIA kit. Circulating LH and FSH levels were measured by enzyme immunoassays. Levels of steroid hormones were measured in serum samples by dissociation-enhanced lanthanide fluorescence immunoassay.

Results and conclusion Our results show the effect of NACT on the hypothalamic-pituitary axis, with the consequent alteration of circulating gonadotropins in premenopausal women with breast cancer. However, the results obtained in postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT, that is, the significant decrease in the concentration of GnRH and FSH compared to control postmenopausal women, differ from those obtained for premenopausal women. The only difference between pre- and postmenopausal women is their hormonal profile at the beginning of the study, that is, the presence of menopause and the consequent alteration of the hypothalamic-pituitary–gonadal axis.

Keywords Breast cancer · Neoadjuvant · Menopause · Gonadotropins · Pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase

Abbreviations

ATC	Anthracycline	BMI	Body mass index
AUC	Area under the curve	BSA	Bovine serum albumin
		DELFLIA	Dissociation enhanced lanthanide fluorescence immunoassay
		DTT	Dithiothreitol
		EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
		FSH	Follicle-stimulating hormone
		GnRH	Gonadotropin-releasing hormone
		LH	Luteinizing hormone
		NACT	Neoadjuvant chemotherapy
		PCL	Paclitaxel
		PGLuNNap	Pyroglutamyl- β -naphthylamide
		Pcp	Pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase
		TNBC	Triple-negative breast cancers

✉ María Pilar Carrera-González
pcarrera@uco.es

¹ Experimental and Clinical Physiopathology Research Group, Department of Health Sciences, Faculty of Experimental and Health Sciences, University of Jaén, 23071 Jaén, Spain

² Unit of Breast Pathology, Complejo Hospitalario de Jaén, Jaén, Spain

³ Department of Nursing, Pharmacology and Physiotherapy, Faculty of Medicine and Nursing, University of Córdoba. IMIBIC, Av. Menéndez Pidal, 7, 14004 Córdoba, Spain

Introduction

Breast cancer is the most common cancer among women, being also one of the leading causes of cancer-related mortality [1, 2]. Approximately 25% of breast cancer cases occur in premenopausal women, including 12% in women between the ages of 20 and 44 years [3]. Neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) is increasingly used for all breast cancer subtypes, increasing the number of conservative breast surgeries [4, 5] and it allows monitoring the treatment response. However, in young breast cancer patients, loss of ovarian function and fertility are a major limitation of NACT [6, 7]. The mechanism by which NACT, particularly alkylating agents, contribute to ovarian damage is unclear, but it could be linked to apoptotic oocyte death in primordial follicles entering the differentiation stage, which is especially susceptible to chemotherapy effects [8, 9].

The expression of the GnRH receptor has been identified in breast cancers and non-reproductive cancers. In this sense, between 50 and 64% of human breast cancers have high-affinity for GnRH receptors, as indicated by different studies [10–12]. In some studies such as Grundker et al. [13], it has been reported that GnRH receptor expression reaches 100% cases of carcinoma in situ, and in 71% cases of malignant breast cancers. In addition, approximately 10–15% of breast cancers are triple-negative breast cancers (TNBC) [14–16], with bone being the most frequent site of metastasis [17, 18]. These bone metastases were significantly inhibited in the MDA-MB-435 and MDA-MB-231 TNBC cell lines by treatment with GnRH analogs [19]. GnRH analogs could interfere with the biology of circulating breast cancer cells and they could also influence the primary steps of breast cancer metastasis, including epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT), migration and invasion, as already known from *in vitro* data [18]. Furthermore, functional studies have demonstrated that the GnRH regulates cell proliferation, apoptosis and tissue remodeling [20]. Therefore, the extra-pituitary roles of GnRH have attracted interest in the fields of tumor biology [21].

GnRH, a hypothalamic neuronal secretory decapeptide, is crucial for human reproduction, stimulating the biosynthesis and secretion of LH and FSH from pituitary gonadotropes after binding to its related receptor (GnRH receptor). This hypothalamic release factor is metabolized by a proteolytic regulatory enzyme, the pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase (Pcp) (E.C. 3.4.19.3). This omega peptidase is widely distributed in fluids and tissues and hydrolyses N-terminal pyroglutamic residues from biologically active peptides, such as GnRH [22, 23]. We previously reported a decrease in both rat [24] and human [25] Pcp activity in

breast cancer, suggesting that GnRH could also be a crucial local intracrine, autocrine and/or paracrine hormonal factor involved in the pathogenesis of breast cancer. Specifically, we have recently described that postmenopausal women with breast cancer show lower levels of serum Pcp activity than postmenopausal control women [26]. This decrease occurred concomitantly with a decrease in circulating levels of GnRH and FSH, whereas no differences in circulating levels of LH were found between groups [26]. In the present study, we also show the data of steroid hormones in these patients.

Experimental, epidemiologic, and clinical research studies have convincingly shown that endogenous estrogens are involved in the etiology of breast cancer. It is widely recognized that endogenous estrogens are related to an increased risk of postmenopausal breast cancer [27]. In this context, excess adipose tissue would be involved in the development of breast cancer, since it is believed to be the main site of estrogen production in obese postmenopausal women [28–32].

In this context, we analyzed fluorometrically serum Pcp activity in pre- and postmenopausal women diagnosed with infiltrating ductal carcinoma. The analysis was performed in women treated with NACT and women untreated with this therapy, and in pre- and postmenopausal women without breast cancer as control groups. We also determined circulating levels of GnRH, FSH and LH and the steroid hormones 17- β -estradiol and progesterone.

Materials and methods

Subjects and study design

A total of 198 women were recruited at the Unit of Breast Pathology at the University Hospital of Jaén, and 78 volunteers women without breast cancer were also included as control groups. This study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the University Hospital of Jaén and all subjects signed a term of free, informed consent.

Patient characterization included age at diagnosis, tumor size, tumor histology, pathologic T classification, Scarff–Bloom–Richardson grade, hormonal and HER-2/neu status, molecular subtype and circulating GnRH, FSH, LH, estradiol and progesterone hormone levels. All women with breast cancer were diagnosed with ductal infiltrating carcinoma. A total of 83 of these women (39 premenopausal and 44 postmenopausal) did not receive NACT, whereas 115 of them (63 premenopausal and 52 postmenopausal) received NACT before surgery. The clinicopathological characteristics of studied patients [33, 34] are shown in Table 1. Patients treated with NACT received an anthracycline/taxane-based regimen including 4 courses of EC

Table 1 Clinicopathological description of the patients involved in this study

Characteristics	Without neoadjuvant treatment		With neoadjuvant treatment	
	<i>Premenopausal</i>	<i>Postmenopausal</i>	<i>Premenopausal</i>	<i>Postmenopausal</i>
	<i>n (%)</i>	<i>n (%)</i>	<i>n (%)</i>	<i>n (%)</i>
Age (years)				
Mean	45.2 ± 1.2	65.3 ± 0.9	45.1 ± 0.8	65.3 ± 0.90
Median	48	64	46	63
Range	27–54	57–78	29–53	56–78
Tumor histology				
Ductal	39 (100%)	44 (100%)	63 (100%)	52 (100%)
Lobular	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Molecular subtypes				
Luminal A	23 (59.0%)	27 (61.4%)	34 (54.0%)	27 (51.9%)
Luminal B	10 (25.6%)	6 (13.6%)	7 (11.1%)	12 (23.1%)
Her-2	2 (5.1%)	4 (9.1%)	18 (28.6%)	0 (0%)
Triple-negative	4 (10.3%)	7 (15.9%)	4 (6.3%)	13 (25.0%)
Pathologic tumor size (cm)				
Mean ± SEM	1.31 ± 0.09	1.52 ± 0.14	3.02 ± 0.17	3.36 ± 0.15
Median	1.20	1.30	3.00	3.00
Range	0.5–3.1	0.8–5.0	0.8–5.6	1.4–5.0
Classification				
0	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
1	35 (89.7%)	40 (90.9%)	18 (28.6%)	6 (11.5%)
2	4 (10.3%)	4 (9.1%)	40 (63.5%)	43 (82.7%)
3	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (7.9%)	3 (5.8%)
Scarff–Bloom–Richardson grade				
I	19 (48.7%)	10 (22.7%)	8 (12.7%)	13 (25%)
II	20 (51.3%)	34 (77.3%)	55 (87.3%)	39 (75%)
II	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Hormonal status				
ER+	33 (84.6%)	33 (75.0%)	41 (65.1%)	36 (69.2%)
ER–	6 (15.4%)	11 (25.0%)	22 (34.9%)	16 (30.8%)
PgR+	25 (64.1%)	27 (61.4%)	41 (65.1%)	33 (63.5%)
PgR–	14 (35.9%)	17 (38.6%)	22 (34.9%)	19 (36.5%)
HER-2/neu status				
Negative	29 (74.4%)	34 (77.3%)	38 (60.3%)	49 (94.2%)
Positive	10 (25.6%)	10 (22.7%)	25 (39.7%)	3 (5.8%)

(epirubicin 90 mg/m² and cyclophosphamide 600 mg/m², every 21 days), followed by 8 courses of 100 mg/m² paclitaxel once a week or 4 courses of 75 mg/m² docetaxel every 21 days. Patients with a HER-2/neu-overexpressing tumor also received trastuzumab (14 courses at 6 mg/kg every 21 days). Women with triple-negative breast cancer received 6 cycles of 75 mg/m² docetaxel plus carboplatin (AUC 6). No significant differences were found between treatments in the several parameters assayed (data not shown).

Control groups consisted of 78 women, aged 28 to 69 years old (premenopausal women with regular menstrual periods $n = 38$; postmenopausal women with spontaneous menopause for at least one year, $n = 40$), with no previous history of any type of cancer, chemotherapy, hormonal or antioxidant therapy, or chronic diseases.

Women were excluded if they were current smokers, regular alcohol consumers, antioxidant supplement users, pregnant or lactating, presented hepatic, cardiac or renal dysfunction, hormonal therapy, use of drugs, hypertension, diabetes, and other eventual chronic conditions.

Sample acquisition

Samples from patients treated with NACT were obtained after completion of chemotherapy treatment and in parallel to samples from patients not treated with NACT and control volunteers in order to be processed under the same conditions.

Blood samples were obtained after an overnight fast by venous arm puncture in tubes without anticoagulants. Blood specimens were allowed to clot and centrifuged at 3000×g, for 10 min, at 4 °C to obtain the serum. Serum samples were collected, rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept on – 80 °C until usage for assays.

Pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase assay

Serum Pcp activity was measured fluorometrically using pyroglutamyl-β-naphthylamide (pGluNNap) as the substrate, according to the previously described by us [35]. Briefly, 10 μL of each sample were incubated in triplicate for 30 min at 37 °C with 100 μL of the substrate solution containing 100 μM of pGLUNNap, 0.65 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 1.3 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) in 50 mM of phosphate buffer at pH 7.4. All the reactions were stopped by adding 100 μL of 0.1 M acetate buffer at pH 4.2. The amount of β-naphthylamine released as the result of the enzymatic activity was measured fluorometrically at 412 nm emission wavelength with an excitation wavelength of 345 nm. Proteins were quantified also in triplicate using bovine serum albumin (BSA) as standard.

Determination of circulating levels of GnRH, FSH and LH

Hormone concentrations in all serum samples were assayed using a pool of several kits. Circulating LH and FSH were measured by enzyme immunoassays (Bioserv Diagnostics, Rostock, Germany). Circulating GnRH was dosed using a commercial RIA kit (Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, Inc., USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The lowest detection limit was 25.4 pg/mL. The detection range was 10–1280 pg/mL. The sensitivities of the enzyme immunoassays were 0.3 IU/L for LH and FSH. The values of 0.2 IU/L for LH and FSH were assigned to samples below the detection limit.

Assessment of sex hormones

Serum samples were measured by dissociation-enhanced lanthanide fluorescence immunoassay (DELFLIA) for 17-β-estradiol and progesterone (PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences, Wallac Oy, Turku, Finland), according to manufacturer's instructions. For E2, the lowest limit of

the assay detection is 0.05 nmol/L (13.6 pg/mL); inter-assay coefficients of variation are between 1.8 and 2.1%. For P, the lowest limit of the assay detection is 0.8 nmol/L (0.25 ng/mL); inter-assay coefficients of variation are between 1.9 and 4.5%.

Statistical analysis

To analyze the differences between groups, we have used multiple analysis of variance in addition to the Newman–Keuls post hoc test. Eta-squared (η^2) has been used to measure the effect size. Statistics were performed using IBM SPSS V.24 software. All comparisons with p-values below 0.05 were considered significant.

Results

Figure 1 shows serum Pcp specific activity levels found in pre- and postmenopausal control women and in women diagnosed with infiltrating ductal carcinoma treated or untreated with NACT. Circulating levels of GnRH and gonadotropins (FSH and LH) found in the several groups of women are also shown in Fig. 1.

Regarding Pcp specific activity, no significant changes are found in premenopausal women with breast cancer when compared with premenopausal control women. However, we observe a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) in serum Pcp specific activity in premenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT. On the contrary, no changes are observed in postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT, although untreated women show a slightly significant decrease ($p < 0.05$) in Pcp specific activity when compared with postmenopausal control women (Fig. 1a). An effect size between groups for Pcp specific activity of $\eta^2 = 0.075$ was found.

Figure 1b shows a significant ($p < 0.001$) lower concentration of circulating GnRH in both premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT when compared to their respective controls. Similar results were previously described in untreated pre- and postmenopausal women with breast cancer when compared to their corresponding controls [26]. An effect size between groups for GnRH of $\eta^2 = 0.697$ was found.

Regarding FSH, no significant changes are found in untreated premenopausal women with breast cancer when compared with premenopausal control women. However, we observe a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) in circulating FSH in premenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT. On the contrary, we observe a significant decrease in FSH levels ($p < 0.001$) in both postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated or untreated with NACT (Fig. 1c). An effect size between groups for FSH of $\eta^2 = 0.239$ was found.

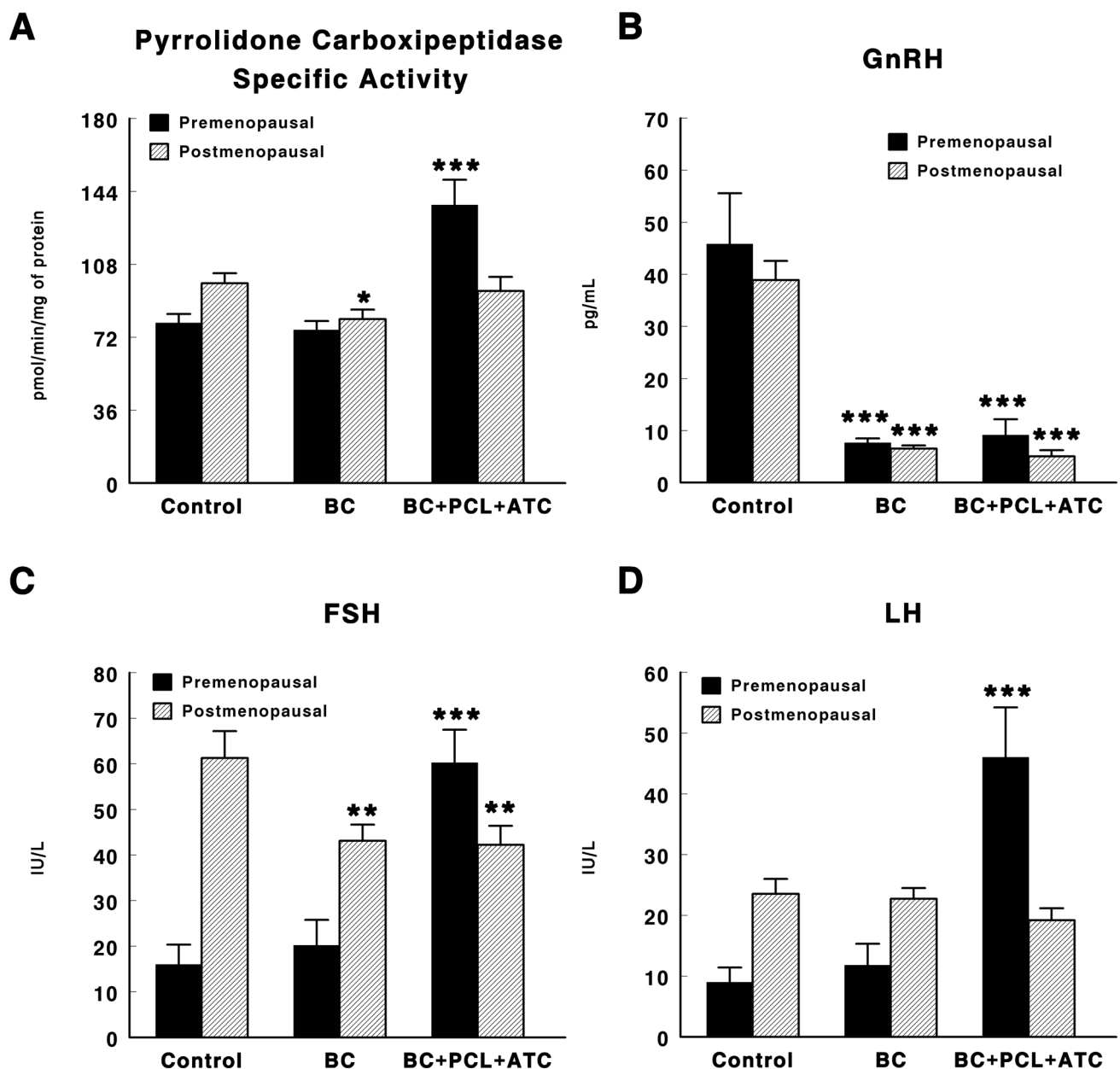


Fig. 1 Pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase specific activity and circulating levels of GnRH, FSH and LH measured in serum of control premenopausal and postmenopausal control women, premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer and premenopausal

and postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) (Mean \pm SEM; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.)

Regarding LH, no significant changes are found either in untreated premenopausal women with breast cancer when compared with premenopausal control women. However, we newly observe a significant increase ($p < 0.001$) in circulating LH in premenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT. On the contrary, no significant differences in LH levels are observed in both treated or untreated postmenopausal women with breast cancer (Fig. 1d). An effect size between groups for LH of $\eta^2 = 0.153$ was found.

Figure 2 shows circulating levels of steroid hormones in pre- and postmenopausal control women and in women diagnosed with infiltrating ductal carcinoma treated or untreated with NACT.

A significant ($p < 0.001$) lower level of 17- β -estradiol was found in both treated or untreated premenopausal women when compared to their control group, being these levels in treated premenopausal women even significantly lower ($p < 0.01$) than in untreated. No changes in 17- β -estradiol

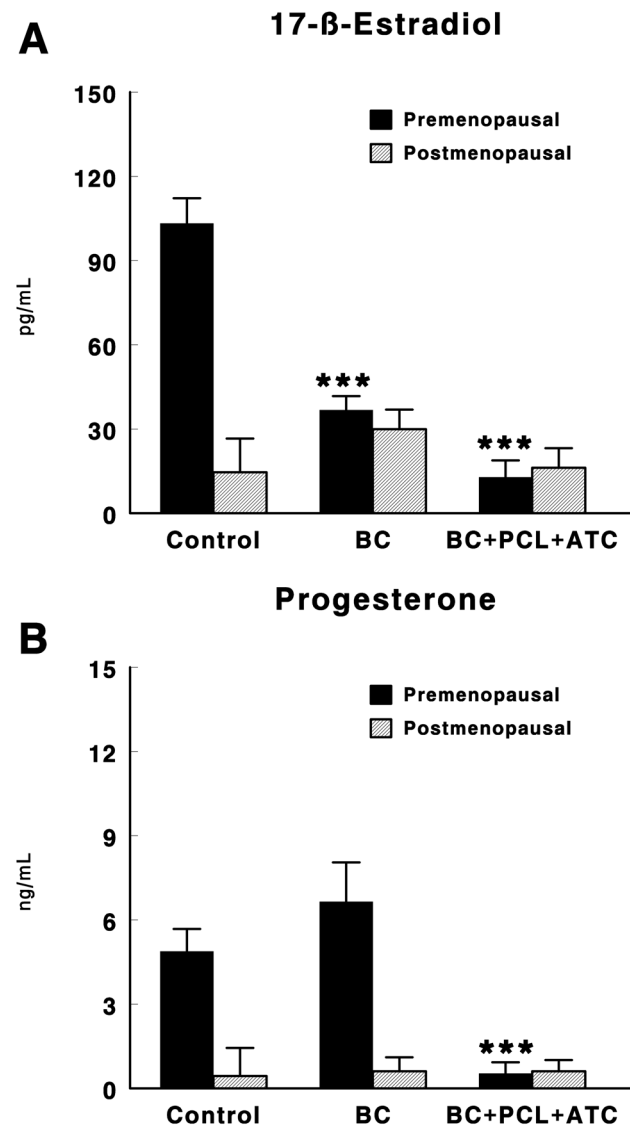


Fig. 2 Circulating levels of 17- β estradiol and progesterone measured in serum of control premenopausal and postmenopausal control women, premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer and premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT) (Mean \pm SEM; *** $p < 0.001$.)

levels are found in treated or untreated postmenopausal women with breast cancer (Fig. 2a). An effect size between groups for 17- β -estradiol of $\eta^2 = 0.336$ was found.

Similar results are observed in postmenopausal women regarding circulating levels of progesterone, without differences between groups (Fig. 2b). However, in premenopausal women, only patients treated with NACT show a significant decrease ($p < 0.001$) in the circulating levels of progesterone. Untreated premenopausal women with breast cancer show no significant differences with premenopausal control women. Finally, an effect size between groups for progesterone of $\eta^2 = 0.106$ was found.

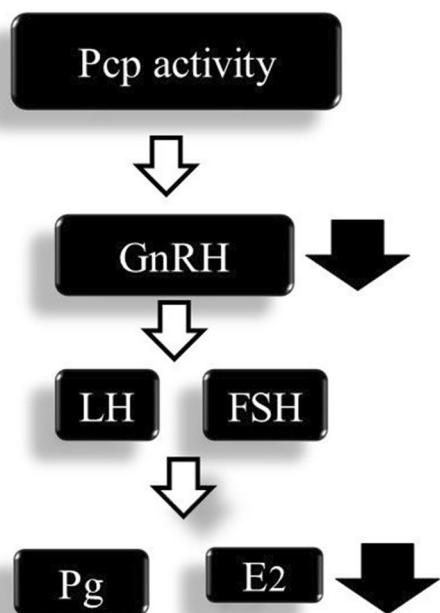
Discussion

In the present study, we find that serum Pcp activity is modified by NACT, affecting the hormonal profile of premenopausal women with breast cancer, with a significant increase in circulating gonadotropins and a decrease in circulating estradiol and progesterone. These changes in the hormonal profile of premenopausal women with breast cancer treated with NACT may be due to an alteration of the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis and/or ovarian dysfunction produced by the chemotherapy treatment. Either way, this diminution of circulating steroid hormones would have a protective effect on the development and/or proliferation of the disease.

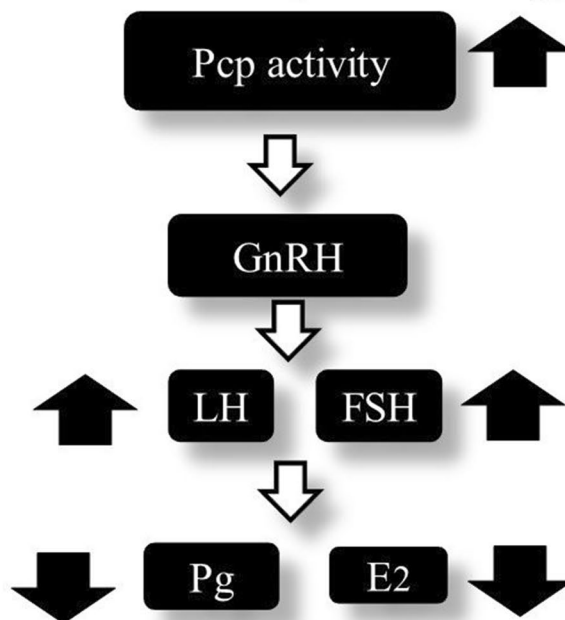
More than 75% of breast tumors express the estrogen receptor (ER), suggesting that the huge majority of breast cancers are hormone-dependent and grow in response to estrogens [36], playing 17- β -estradiol and its receptor an essential role in the etiology and development of breast cancer [37, 38]. Several epidemiological and clinical studies have confirmed this correlation between hormones and breast malignancy by reporting higher serum levels of estrogens in women with breast cancer compared to control cases [39, 40]. However, no increase in circulating estrogen levels was found in our study in any of the patient groups, although differences in steroid hormone levels were found between the control group of premenopausal and postmenopausal women. The major site of estrogen biosynthesis differs between premenopausal and postmenopausal women. In premenopausal women, estrogens are abundantly produced in the granulosa cells of the ovary with every menstrual cycle, while lower levels of estrogens are also produced in other organs including bone, adipose tissue, vascular endothelium, aortic smooth muscle or brain [41–43]. Extragonadal sites become the main source of estrogen during menopause, due to the definitive cessation of ovarian function during this stage [29]. Therefore, the main site of estrogen production in postmenopausal obese women could be the excess of adipose tissue, thus contributing to the increase in circulating estrogen concentrations [31]. In our study, premenopausal women with breast cancer non-treated and treated with NACT and postmenopausal women without breast cancer presented a BMI ≈ 25 – 29.9 kg/m^2 , whereas in postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated or untreated was BMI $\geq 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ or more [44]. However, a modification in serum estradiol and progesterone levels in postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated and untreated with NACT respect to postmenopausal women without breast cancer (control group) was not found.

In general, node-positive breast cancer is treated systemically with chemotherapy, endocrine therapy (for

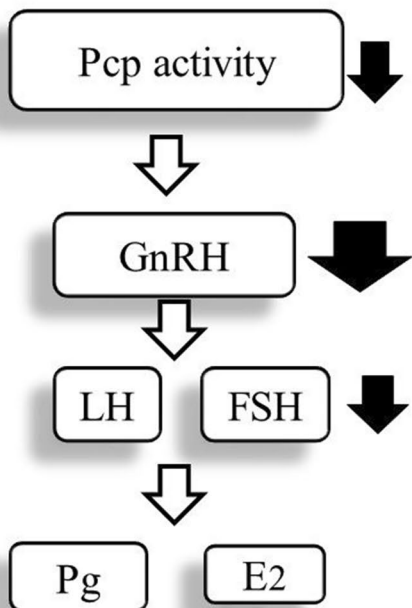
Premenopausal breast cancer women



Premenopausal breast cancer women treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy



Postmenopausal breast cancer women



Postmenopausal breast cancer women treated with neoadjuvant chemotherapy

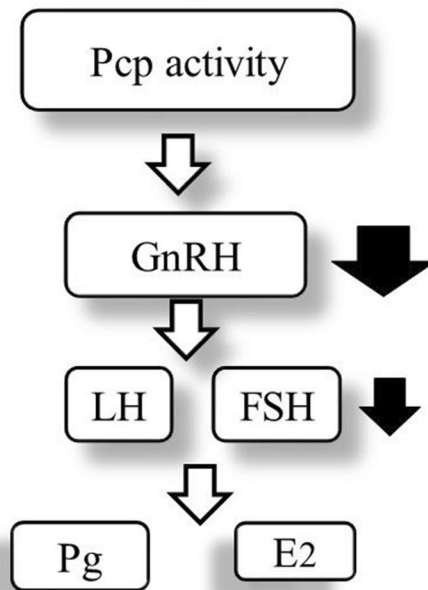


Fig. 3 Summary of the role of specific pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase (Pcp) activity and circulating levels of GnRH, FSH, LH, 17-β estradiol and progesterone in premenopausal women (a) and postmeno-

pausal women (b) with breast cancer, treated or not with neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT)

hormone receptor-positive cancer), and trastuzumab (for cancer overexpressing ERBB2) [45]. However, in TNBC, that is, in those cancers that do not exhibit the estrogen receptor α (ER α) or the progesterone receptor and do not overexpress the HER-2–neu gene, current therapeutic options are incredibly limited [46–50].

In this sense, some authors state that more than 70% of TNBCs have GnRH receptors, [51] while others confirm that 100% of them express these receptors [52]. Since breast cancers express both GnRH and its receptor, it seems plausible to consider that there may be a regulatory system locally based on GnRH in many of these tumors [53–55]. In both postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated and untreated with NACT, we found an alteration in the circulating levels of GnRH, as well as in treated and untreated premenopausal women with breast cancer.

In conclusion, our results show the effect of NACT on the hypothalamic–pituitary axis, with the consequent alteration of circulating gonadotropins in premenopausal women with breast cancer. However, the results obtained in postmenopausal women with breast cancer treated with chemotherapy, that is, the significant decrease in the concentration of GnRH and FSH compared to control postmenopausal women, differ from those obtained for premenopausal women, being the only difference the starting hormonal profile, i.e., the presence of menopause and the consequent alteration of the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis (Fig. 3).

Limitations of the study

The present study shows limitations concerning circulating GnRH levels, which could be altered by factors like stress or obesity as well as the menstrual cycle. Indeed, we have observed an increase in cortisol levels in all patients diagnosed with breast cancer respect to women without breast cancer. However, neither BMI nor cortisol levels significantly influences the parameters assayed here. Stress is a complex factor to deal with and even more so in patients who have been diagnosed with breast cancer, a situation full of uncertainty. Hence, it is a difficult field to tackle, not only determined by the hormonal profile of the patients, which undoubtedly has decisive importance, but also by other factors that could influence the development of the disease, therefore requiring a study of greater complexity.

Acknowledgements Supported by Consejería de Salud de la Junta de Andalucía (Grant SAS-PI0253) and Plan Propio de la Universidad de Jaén (Grants UJA2016/08/04 and PAIUJA 2017/00319/001). The authors would like to thank Nutraceutical Translations for English language editing of this manuscript.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the institutional and/or national research committee and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

References

- Jemal A, Bray F, Center MM, Ferlay J, Ward E, Forman D (2011) Global cancer statistics. *CA Cancer J Clin* 61(2):69–90. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.20107>
- Torre LA, Bray F, Siegel RL, Ferlay J, Lortet-Tieulent J, Jemal A (2015) Global cancer statistics. *CA* 65(2):87–108. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21262>
- Trivers KF, Fink AK, Partridge AH, Oktay K, Ginsburg ES, Li C, Pollack LA (2014) Estimates of young breast cancer survivors at risk for infertility in the U.S. *Oncologist* 19(8):814–822. <https://doi.org/10.1634/theoncologist.2014-0016>
- van Nes JG, Putter H, Julien JP, Tubiana-Hulin M, van de Vijver M, Bogaerts J, de Vos M, van de Velde CJ, Cooperating Investigators of the E (2009) Preoperative chemotherapy is safe in early breast cancer, even after 10 years of follow-up; clinical and translational results from the EORTC trial 10902. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 115(1):101–113. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-008-0050-1-1>
- Chaudhary LN, Wilkinson KH, Kong A (2018) Triple-negative breast cancer: who should receive neoadjuvant chemotherapy? *Surg Oncol Clin N Am* 27(1):141–153. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.soc.2017.08.004>
- Lambertini M, Santoro L, Del Mastro L, Nguyen B, Livraghi L, Ugolini D, Peccatori FA, Azim HA Jr (2016) Reproductive behaviors and risk of developing breast cancer according to tumor subtype: a systematic review and meta-analysis of epidemiological studies. *Cancer Treat Rev* 49:65–76. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ctrv.2016.07.006>
- Lambertini M, Moore HCF, Leonard RCF, Loibl S, Munster P, Bruzzone M, Boni L, Unger JM, Anderson RA, Mehta K, Minton S, Poggio F, Albain KS, Adamson DJA, Gerber B, Cripps A, Bertelli G, Seiler S, Ceppi M, Partridge AH, Del Mastro L (2018) Gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists during chemotherapy for preservation of ovarian function and fertility in premenopausal patients with early breast cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis of individual patient-level data. *J Clin Oncol* 36(19):1981–1990. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2018.78.0858>
- Blumenfeld Z (2017) Investigational and experimental GnRH analogs and associated neurotransmitters. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 26(6):661–667. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13543784.2017.1323869>
- Blumenfeld Z (2018) Fertility preservation by endocrine suppression of ovarian function using gonadotropin-releasing hormone agonists: the end of the controversy? *J Clin Oncol* 36(19):1895–1897. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JCO.2018.78.9347>
- Baumann KH, Kiesel L, Kaufmann M, Bastert G, Runnebaum B (1993) Characterization of binding sites for a GnRH-agonist (buserelin) in human breast cancer biopsies and their distribution in relation to tumor parameters. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 25(1):37–46. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00662399>
- Moriya T, Suzuki T, Pilichowska M, Ariga N, Kimura N, Ouchi N, Nagura H, Sasano H (2001) Immunohistochemical expression of gonadotropin releasing hormone receptor in human breast carcinoma. *Pathol Int* 51(5):333–337. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1440-1827.2001.01210.x>
- Mangia A, Tommasi S, Reshkin SJ, Simone G, Stea B, Schittulli F, Paradiso A (2002) Gonadotropin releasing hormone receptor expression in primary breast cancer: comparison of

- immunohistochemical, radioligand and Western blot analyses. *Oncol Rep* 9(5):1127–1132
13. Grundker C, Bauerschmitz G, Schubert A, Emons G (2016) Invasion and increased expression of S100A4 and CYR61 in mesenchymal transformed breast cancer cells is downregulated by GnRH. *Int J Oncol* 48(6):2713–2721. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ijo.2016.3491>
 14. Nielsen TO, Hsu FD, Jensen K, Cheang M, Karaca G, Hu Z, Hernandez-Boussard T, Livasy C, Cowan D, Dressler L, Akslen LA, Ragaz J, Gown AM, Gilks CB, van de Rijn M, Perou CM (2004) Immunohistochemical and clinical characterization of the basal-like subtype of invasive breast carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* 10(16):5367–5374. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-04-0220>
 15. Kim MJ, Ro JY, Ahn SH, Kim HH, Kim SB, Gong G (2006) Clinicopathologic significance of the basal-like subtype of breast cancer: a comparison with hormone receptor and Her2/neu-over-expressing phenotypes. *Hum Pathol* 37(9):1217–1226. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.humpath.2006.04.015>
 16. Bauer KR, Brown M, Cress RD, Parise CA, Caggiano V (2007) Descriptive analysis of estrogen receptor (ER)-negative, progesterone receptor (PR)-negative, and HER2-negative invasive breast cancer, the so-called triple-negative phenotype: a population-based study from the California cancer Registry. *Cancer* 109(9):1721–1728. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.22618>
 17. Lacroix M (2006) Significance, detection and markers of disseminated breast cancer cells. *Endocr Relat Cancer* 13(4):1033–1067. <https://doi.org/10.1677/ERC-06-0001>
 18. von Alten J, Fister S, Schulz H, Viereck V, Frosch KH, Emons G, Grundker C (2006) GnRH analogs reduce invasiveness of human breast cancer cells. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 100(1):13–21. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-006-9222-z>
 19. Schubert A, Hawighorst T, Emons G, Grundker C (2011) Agonists and antagonists of GnRH-I and -II reduce metastasis formation by triple-negative human breast cancer cells in vivo. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 130(3):783–790. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10549-011-1358-9>
 20. Wu HM, Wang HS, Huang HY, Soong YK, MacCalman CD, Leung PC (2009) GnRH signaling in intrauterine tissues. *Reproduction* 137(5):769–777. <https://doi.org/10.1530/REP-08-0397>
 21. Hsueh AJ, Jones PB (1981) Extrapituitary actions of gonadotropin-releasing hormone. *Endocr Rev* 2(4):437–461. <https://doi.org/10.1210/edrv-2-4-437>
 22. Cummins PM, O'Connor B (1998) Pyroglutamyl peptidase: an overview of the three known enzymatic forms. *Biochem Biophys Acta* 1429(1):1–17. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0167-4838\(98\)00248-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0167-4838(98)00248-9)
 23. Beynon RBJ (2001) Proteolytic enzymes. Oxford University Press, New York
 24. Carrera MP, Ramirez-Exposito MJ, Valenzuela MT, Garcia MJ, Mayas MD, Martinez-Martos JM (2003) Serum pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase activity in N-methyl-nitrosourea induced rat breast cancer. *Horm Metab Res* 5(8):502–505. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-2003-41809>
 25. Martinez JM, Ramirez MJ, Prieto I, Petzelt C, Hermoso F, Alba F, Arias Saavedra JM, Ramirez M (1999) Human serum pyroglutamyl-beta-naphthylamide hydrolyzing activity during development and aging. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr* 28(1):31–36. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0167-4943\(98\)00123-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0167-4943(98)00123-x)
 26. Carrera-Gonzalez Mdel P, Ramirez-Exposito MJ, Duenas B, Martinez-Ferrol J, Mayas MD, Martinez-Martos JM (2012) Putative relationship between hormonal status and serum pyrrolidone carboxypeptidase activity in pre- and post-menopausal women with breast cancer. *Breast* 21(6):751–754. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.breast.2012.02.001>
 27. Ziegler RG, Fuhrman BJ, Moore SC, Matthews CE (2015) Epidemiologic studies of estrogen metabolism and breast cancer. *Steroids* 99(Pt A):67–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stero.2015.02.015>
 28. Key TJ, Appleby PN, Reeves GK, Roddam A, Dorgan JF, Longcope C, Stanczyk FZ, Stephenson HE Jr, Falk RT, Miller R, Schatzkin A, Allen DS, Fentiman IS, Key TJ, Wang DY, Dowsett M, Thomas HV, Hankinson SE, Toniolo P, Akhmedkhanov A, Koenig K, Shore RE, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, Berrino F, Muti P, Micheli A, Krogh V, Sieri S, Pala V, Venturelli E, Secretò G, Barrett-Connor E, Laughlin GA, Kabuto M, Akiba S, Stevens RG, Neriishi K, Land CE, Cauley JA, Kuller LH, Cummings SR, Helzlsouer KJ, Alberg AJ, Bush TL, Comstock GW, Gordon GB, Miller SR, Longcope C, Collaborative EHBC, G (2003) Body mass index, serum sex hormones, and breast cancer risk in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 95(16):1218–1226. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djg022>
 29. Misso ML, Jang C, Adams J, Tran J, Murata Y, Bell R, Boon WC, Simpson ER, Davis SR (2005) Adipose aromatase gene expression is greater in older women and is unaffected by postmenopausal estrogen therapy. *Menopause* 12(2):210–215. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00042192-200512020-00016>
 30. McTiernan A, Wu L, Chen C, Chlebowski R, Mossavar-Rahmani Y, Modugno F, Perri MG, Stanczyk FZ, Van Horn L, Wang CY, Women's Health Initiative I (2006) Relation of BMI and physical activity to sex hormones in postmenopausal women. *Obesity* 14(9):1662–1677. <https://doi.org/10.1038/oby.2006.191>
 31. Brown KA, Simpson ER (2012) Obesity and breast cancer: mechanisms and therapeutic implications. *Front Biosci* 4:2515–2524. <https://doi.org/10.2741/e562>
 32. Brown KA, Iyengar NM, Zhou XK, Gucalp A, Subbaramaiah K, Wang H, Giri DD, Morrow M, Falcone DJ, Wendel NK, Winston LA, Pollak M, Dierickx A, Hudis CA, Dannenberg AJ (2017) Menopause is a determinant of breast aromatase expression and its associations with BMI, inflammation, and systemic markers. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 102(5):1692–1701. <https://doi.org/10.1210/jc.2016-3606>
 33. Martinez-Martos JM, del Pilar C-G, Duenas B, Mayas MD, Garcia MJ, Ramirez-Exposito MJ (2011) Renin angiotensin system-regulating aminopeptidase activities in serum of pre- and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. *Breast* 20(5):444–447. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.breast.2011.04.008>
 34. Vinson GP, Barker S, Puddefoot JR (2012) The renin-angiotensin system in the breast and breast cancer. *Endocr Relat Cancer* 19(1):R1–19. <https://doi.org/10.1530/ERC-11-0335>
 35. Martinez JM, Prieto I, Ramirez MJ, Cueva C, Alba F, Ramirez M (1999) Aminopeptidase activities in breast cancer tissue. *Clin Chem* 45(10):1797–1802
 36. Geyer FC, Rodrigues DN, Weigelt B, Reis-Filho JS (2012) Molecular classification of estrogen receptor-positive/luminal breast cancers. *Adv Anat Pathol* 19(1):39–53. <https://doi.org/10.1097/PAP.0b013e31823fafa0>
 37. Huang B, Warner M, Gustafsson JA (2015) Estrogen receptors in breast carcinogenesis and endocrine therapy. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 418(Pt 3):240–244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mce.2014.11.015>
 38. Reznikov A (2015) Hormonal impact on tumor growth and progression. *Exp Oncol* 37(3):162–172
 39. Thomas HV, Reeves GK, Key TJ (1997) Endogenous estrogen and postmenopausal breast cancer: a quantitative review. *Cancer Causes Control* 8(6):922–928. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1018476631561>
 40. Dorgan JF, Longcope C, Stephenson HE Jr, Falk RT, Miller R, Franz C, Kahle L, Campbell WS, Tangrea JA, Schatzkin A (1996) Relation of prediagnostic serum estrogen and androgen levels to breast cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev* 5(7):533–539

41. Simpson ER (2003) Sources of estrogen and their importance. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 86(3–5):225–230. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0960-0760\(03\)00360-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0960-0760(03)00360-1)
42. Simpson ER (2004) Aromatase: biologic relevance of tissue-specific expression. *Semin Reproduct Med* 22(1):11–23. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-2004-823023>
43. Boon WC, Chow JD, Simpson ER (2010) The multiple roles of estrogens and the enzyme aromatase. *Prog Brain Res* 181:209–232. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6123\(08\)81012-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6123(08)81012-6)
44. Consultation WHOE (2004) Appropriate body-mass index for Asian populations and its implications for policy and intervention strategies. *Lancet* 363(9403):157–163. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(03\)15268-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(03)15268-3)
45. Maughan KL, Lutterbie MA, Ham PS (2010) Treatment of breast cancer. *Am Fam Physician* 81(11):1339–1346
46. Livasy CA, Karaca G, Nanda R, Tretiakova MS, Olopade OI, Moore DT, Perou CM (2006) Phenotypic evaluation of the basal-like subtype of invasive breast carcinoma. *Mod Pathol* 19(2):264–271. <https://doi.org/10.1038/modpathol.3800528>
47. Dent R, Trudeau M, Pritchard KI, Hanna WM, Kahn HK, Sawka CA, Lickley LA, Rawlinson E, Sun P, Narod SA (2007) Triple-negative breast cancer: clinical features and patterns of recurrence. *Clin Cancer Res* 13(15 Pt 1):4429–4434. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-06-3045>
48. Kreike B, van Kouwenhove M, Horlings H, Weigelt B, Peterse H, Bartelink H, van de Vijver MJ (2007) Gene expression profiling and histopathological characterization of triple-negative/basal-like breast carcinomas. *Breast Cancer Res* 9(5):R65. <https://doi.org/10.1186/bcr1771>
49. Parise CA, Bauer KR, Brown MM, Caggiano V (2009) Breast cancer subtypes as defined by the estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), and the human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) among women with invasive breast cancer in California, 1999–2004. *Breast J* 15(6):593–602. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1524-4741.2009.00822.x>
50. Carey L, Winer E, Viale G, Cameron D, Gianni L (2010) Triple-negative breast cancer: disease entity or title of convenience? *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 7(12):683–692. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrcli.nonc.2010.154>
51. Fost C, Duwe F, Hellriegel M, Schweyer S, Emons G, Grundker C (2011) Targeted chemotherapy for triple-negative breast cancers via LHRH receptor. *Oncol Rep* 25(5):1481–1487. <https://doi.org/10.3892/or.2011.1188>
52. Buchholz S, Seitz S, Schally AV, Engel JB, Rick FG, Szalontay L, Hohla F, Krishan A, Papadia A, Gaiser T, Brockhoff G, Ortmann O, Diedrich K, Koster F (2009) Triple-negative breast cancers express receptors for luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) and respond to LHRH antagonist cetrorelix with growth inhibition. *Int J Oncol* 35(4):789–796. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ijo.00000391>
53. Limonta P, Dondi D, Moretti RM, Maggi R, Motta M (1992) Antiproliferative effects of luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone agonists on the human prostatic cancer cell line LNCaP. *J Clin Endocrinol Metabol* 75(1):207–212. <https://doi.org/10.1210/jcem.75.1.1320049>
54. Dondi D, Limonta P, Moretti RM, Marelli MM, Garattini E, Motta M (1994) Antiproliferative effects of luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH) agonists on human androgen-independent prostate cancer cell line DU 145: evidence for an autocrine-inhibitory LHRH loop. *Can Res* 54(15):4091–4095
55. Limonta P, Moretti RM, Dondi D, Marelli MM, Motta M (1994) Androgen-dependent prostatic tumors: biosynthesis and possible actions of LHRH. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 49(4–6):347–350. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0960-0760\(94\)90278-x](https://doi.org/10.1016/0960-0760(94)90278-x)

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.