



Journal of Cancer and Tumor International
3(4): 1-11, 2016, Article no.JCTI.25259
ISSN: 2454-7360



SCIENCEDOMAIN international
www.sciencedomain.org

Sex Hormones, Oestrogen Receptor, Progesterone Receptor and Human Epithelial Receptor 2 Expressions in Pre and Postmenopausal Sub-Saharan African Women with Breast Cancer

Olulope O. Ajayi^{1*}, Mabel A. Charles-Davies¹, John I. Anetor¹
and Adeyinka F. Ademola²

¹Department of Chemical Pathology, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.
²Surgical Oncology Division, Department of Surgery, University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Authors' contributions

This work was carried out in collaboration between all authors. Authors OOA, MACD, JIA and AFA designed the study, read and approved the final manuscript. Author OOA wrote the protocol and the first draft of the manuscript. Authors OOA and AFA enrolled the participants into the study. Authors OOA and MACD managed the literature search. Author OOA performed the laboratory and statistical analysis. Authors MACD, JIA and AFA critically reviewed the final manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Article Information

DOI:10.9734/JCTI/2016/25259

Editor(s):

(1) Nicole Riddle, Clinical Sciences Division, Alabama College of Osteopathic Medicine, USA.

Reviewers:

(1) César Luiz da Silva Guimarães, Federal University of Rondônia State, Brazil.

(2) Oner Mentés, Gulhane Military Medical Academy, Ankara, Turkey.

Complete Peer review History: <http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/14676>

Original Research Article

Received 25th February 2016

Accepted 29th March 2016

Published 17th May 2016

ABSTRACT

Aim: This study was carried out to determine the serum levels of sex hormones and gonadotropins as well as the expression of oestrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR) and human epithelial receptor 2 (HER 2) in pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer.

Study Design: Case-control study.

Place and Duration of Study: Surgical Oncology Clinic, University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria between April 2011 and July 2014.

Methodology: 169 non-pregnant women aged 48.3±1.3 years were recruited for this study. They comprised of 85 histologically confirmed breast cancer pre-therapy (cases) matched with 84

*Corresponding author: Email: olufema01@yahoo.co.uk

apparently healthy women without breast cancer (controls) according to age and menstrual phase. Both cases and controls were subdivided into pre and postmenopausal groups (54 premenopausal cases; 31 postmenopausal cases; 53 premenopausal controls; 31 postmenopausal controls respectively). Anthropometry and reproductive history were obtained by standard methods. Blood (10ml) was obtained from participants and centrifuged to obtain serum. Oestradiol, progesterone, follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH) were determined using enzyme immunoassay (EIA). Expression of ER, PR and HER 2 were determined by immunohistochemistry. Data analysed by Chi-square, Student's t-test and multiple regression were considered statistically significant at $p < 0.05$.

Results: All premenopausal cases (100%) had ER and PR receptor negative expressions out of which 46(88.5%) had HER 2 receptor negative expression. Oestradiol and progesterone were significantly higher in postmenopausal cases compared with controls ($p < 0.05$) while FSH and LH were significantly higher in premenopausal cases than controls ($p < 0.05$).

Conclusion: The pathophysiology of breast cancer may be based on menstrual phase. Elevated gonadotropins and sex hormones may be important in premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. Triple negative breast cancer observed in 88.5% of premenopausal women with breast cancer is critical in the management of the disease especially in younger women.

Keywords: Breast cancer; oestradiol; progesterone; gonadotropins; hormone receptors; enzyme immunoassay.

1. INTRODUCTION

Endogenous sex hormones have been reported to play a major role in the aetiology of breast cancer [1,2]. Premenopausal and postmenopausal women secrete sex hormones throughout their life time, though, with different regulatory pattern. The secretion of sex hormones is regulated mainly by the ovary in premenopausal women while, it is regulated by the adrenal glands in postmenopausal women [3]. 17β -oestradiol (E_2) is the most potent natural oestrogen secreted under the control of follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH). Follicle stimulating hormone stimulates the growth and recruitment of immature ovarian follicles in the ovary [4]. Additionally, it regulates aromatase activity, while LH is responsible for the actual production of androgens in the ovarian theca cells, thus providing the substrate for aromatization to oestrogens in the granulosa cells [5,3].

In breast cancer, the tumour grows within a hormonal milieu which has a decisive influence upon its development [6]. The role of oestrogens in breast cancer has been reported. It is thought that in promoting the growth of breast's end buds, oestrogens may contribute to an increase in cells that later in life become prone to cancerous growth [7]. The role of progesterone in breast cancer is controversial [8]. It has been hypothesised that its activity of opposing oestrogenic stimulation of the breast decreases

breast cancer risk [9,8]. Contrarily, the risk of breast cancer is increased because breast mitotic rates are highest in the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle [10,9].

In spite of the several studies done on breast cancer, there is paucity of information on the association of sex hormones, gonadotropins and the expression of hormone receptors in Nigerian pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. This study therefore was designed to determine the association of sex hormones, gonadotropins with hormone receptors in Nigerian pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study was a prospective case-control study conducted in the Surgical Oncology Clinic of the Department of Surgery, University College Hospital, Ibadan, Nigeria. The study protocol was approved by the University of Ibadan and University College Hospital Health Review Committee. Informed consent was obtained from the participants before recruitment into the study. Participants were recruited between April, 2011 and March, 2014.

2.1 Study Participants

One hundred and sixty nine non pregnant women aged 28-80 years were consecutively recruited for this study. Eighty-five were

histologically confirmed breast cancer patients who had not commenced treatment (Cases). They were recruited by the Surgical Oncologist from the Surgical Oncology Clinic of the Department of Surgery, University College Hospital, Ibadan. Eighty-four non-pregnant, apparently healthy women who served as controls were recruited at three Primary Health Clinics (PHC) in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State namely; PHC, Idi Odundun, Agodi, PHC, Agbowo and Elderly Women/Widows Clinic, Agodi-Gate. Their breasts were examined by trained nurses for the presence of any breast lump. They were asked if they felt any pain or had any discomfort in their breasts. Those that complained of pain, discomfort and/or had lump in their breasts were excluded from the study. One of the controls was excluded from the study due to incomplete data on questionnaire and insufficient blood sample.

Each of the cases was matched for age and menstrual phases (follicular, luteal and postmenopausal) with the controls. Participants were reported as postmenopausal if they had stopped menstruating over the last twelve months [11]. Participants that had bilateral oophorectomy were also considered postmenopausal. Both cases and controls were subdivided into pre and postmenopausal groups (54 premenopausal cases; 31 postmenopausal cases; 53 premenopausal controls; 31 postmenopausal controls respectively).

2.2 Exclusion Criteria

Pregnant women and those who reported being on hormonal drugs (i.e. contraceptives), had other types of cancers and/or chronic diseases were excluded from the study. Women with previous and recurrent breast cancer as well as postmenopausal women on hormone replacement therapy were also excluded.

2.3 Reproductive Indices

Data on reproductive history were obtained from semi-structured pre-test questionnaire administered to each participant.

2.4 Anthropometric Indices

Anthropometric indices: weight, height, body mass index, waist circumference, hip circumference, waist-hip ratio, waist-height ratio were measured by standard methods described elsewhere [12].

2.5 Sample Collection

Ten millilitres of venous blood samples were drawn into plain bottle. For premenopausal participants, blood samples were drawn between days 5 and 9 of their menstrual cycle in follicular phase (forward dating) and 5 to 9 days before the anticipated start of their next menstrual cycle in the luteal phase (backward dating) [11]. The blood was allowed to retract and centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 5 minutes. The resulting serum was aliquoted and stored at -20°C until analysis.

2.6 Hormonal Assay

Serum progesterone, E₂, LH and FSH were determined by Enzyme immune assay (EIA) on TOSOH AIA System Analyzers (Tosoh Corporation, Tokyo 105-8623, Japan).

2.7 Immunohistochemistry

Formalin fixed and paraffin embedded tissue samples from breast lesions of women with breast cancer were investigated by immunohistochemistry for the determination of oestrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR) and human epithelial receptor 2 (HER 2).

2.8 Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS 18.0) SPP, Inc., Richmond, CA. Chi-square test was used for categorical variables, Student's t-test was used for comparison of quantitative variables. Multiple regression analysis was employed to determine relationships between variables. $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

3. RESULTS

Table 1 shows comparison of mean±S.E age, anthropometric, reproductive and hormonal indices among pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer and their respective controls. Age was similar in pre and postmenopausal cases compared to their respective controls ($P > .05$). However, age of postmenopausal cases and controls were significantly higher than premenopausal cases and controls respectively ($P < .05$).

All anthropometric indices in this study except BMI and all reproductive indices except number of previous miscarriages were significantly higher in premenopausal cases compared with controls ($P < .05$). Only weight and height were significantly higher while number of previous

miscarriages were lower in postmenopausal cases compared with controls ($P<.05$). No significant differences were observed in anthropometry or reproductive indices between postmenopausal cases and premenopausal cases ($P>.05$). However, body weight, waist circumference, hip circumference, waist hip ratio and waist height ratio were significantly higher in postmenopausal controls than premenopausal controls ($P<.05$) while no significant differences in reproductive indices were observed between these groups ($P>.05$).

The gonadotrophins-LH and FSH were significantly higher in premenopausal cases compared with premenopausal controls ($P<.05$). However, LH was significantly lower while E_2 and progesterone were higher in postmenopausal cases than controls ($P<.05$). LH and FSH were lower while E_2 and progesterone were higher in premenopausal than postmenopausal cases as well as premenopausal than postmenopausal controls ($P<.05$).

Table 2 shows the distribution of ER, PR and HER 2 positivity and negativity in the total number of women (cases) as well as pre and postmenopausal cases. High proportion of ER-, PR- and HER 2- expressions were observed in the three groups. In the cases, 69 (87.3%) were ER-, 71 (89.9%) were PR- while 64 (81.0%) were HER 2-. In premenopausal cases, 52 (100%) were ER-, 52 (100%) were PR- while 46(88.5%) were HER 2-. In postmenopausal cases, 17 (63.0%) were ER-, 18(66.7%) were PR- while 17 (63.0%) were HER 2-. Although low, ER, PR and HER 2 positivity were also observed. 10 (12.7%) of the cases, 0 (0%) of the premenopausal cases and 10 (37.0%) of the postmenopausal cases had ER+ expression. 8 (10.1%) of the cases, 0 (0%) of the premenopausal cases and 9 (33.3%) of the postmenopausal cases had PR+ expression. 15 (19.0%) of the cases, 6 (11.5%) of premenopausal cases and 10 (37.0%) of postmenopausal cases had HER+ expressions.

Table 1. Comparison of age, anthropometric measures, reproductive indices and hormones in pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer and their respective controls

| Variable | Prem cases n=54 | Prem control n=53 | Post cases n=31 | Post control n=31 | P1 | P2 | P3 | P4 |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Age (years) | 40.9±0.7 | 40.7±0.6 | 61.2±1.5 | 61.6±1.5 | .85 | .84 | <.001* | <.001* |
| Anthropometric indices | | | | | | | | |
| WC (cm) | 88.5±1.4 | 78.3±1.3 | 92.2±1.7 | 89.8±1.5 | <.001* | .34 | .12 | <.001* |
| HC (cm) | 100.5±1.5 | 95.9±1.0 | 103.9±1.7 | 102.7±1.7 | .01* | .62 | .15 | .001* |
| Wt (kg) | 68.0±1.9 | 60.1±1.3 | 71.4±2.2 | 65.6±1.7 | .001* | .01* | .26 | .01* |
| Ht (m) | 1.63±0.0 | 1.57±0.0 | 1.63±0.0 | 1.59±0.0 | <.001* | .02* | .78 | .08 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 25.7±0.7 | 24.5±0.5 | 26.8±0.7 | 25.7±0.7 | .16 | .22 | .28 | .11 |
| WHR | 0.88±0.0 | 0.81±0.0 | 0.89±0.0 | 0.88±0.0 | <.001* | .48 | .61 | <.001* |
| WHtR | 54.6±1.0 | 49.9±0.9 | 56.6±1.2 | 56.5±0.9 | .001* | .93 | .18 | <.001* |
| Reproductive indices | | | | | | | | |
| Age at Menarche | 15.3±0.3 | 14.5±0.3 | 15.6±0.4 | 15.1±0.4 | .04* | .40 | .58 | .58 |
| NPP | 4.8±0.3 | 2.6±0.3 | 5.4±0.5 | 6.5±0.4 | <.001* | .09 | .25 | .25 |
| NLB | 3.3±0.3 | 0.2±0.2 | 3.9±0.5 | 4.7±0.3 | .001* | .13 | .27 | .27 |
| NIA | 0.9±0.2 | 0.3±0.08 | 0.9±0.2 | 0.4±0.2 | .002* | .06 | .94 | .94 |
| Miscarriages | 0.2±0.07 | 0.1±0.05 | 0.097±0.1 | 0.65±0.2 | .68 | .03* | .51 | .51 |
| Hormones | | | | | | | | |
| Progesterone (nmol/L) | 12.3±2.6 | 8.8±2.2 | 2.1±0.4 | 1.0±0.1 | .31 | .005* | .005* | .007* |
| E_2 (pmol/L) | 452.8±43.3 | 430.8±46.5 | 156.5±12.4 | 90.4±3.6 | .73 | <.001* | <.001* | <.001* |
| LH (IU/L) | 7.7±0.7 | 5.8±0.5 | 26.4±2.9 | 29.7±1.1 | .02* | .29 | <.001* | <.001* |
| FSH (IU/L) | 7.2±0.6 | 5.6±0.4 | 60.9±6.4 | 79.6±4.1 | .03* | .02* | <.001* | <.001* |

values are mean±S.E, Prem cases=premenopausal women with breast cancer, Prem controls=premenopausal women without breast cancer, Post cases= postmenopausal women with breast cancer, post controls= postmenopausal women without breast cancer, WC=Waist circumference, HC=Hip circumference, Wt=Body weight, Ht=Height, BMI=Body mass index, WHR=Waist hip ratio, WHtR=Waist height ratio, NPP=Number of previous pregnancies, NLB=Number of live births, NIA=Number of induced abortion, Miscarriages=Previous miscarriages, Prog=Progesterone, E_2 =Oestradiol, LH=Luteinizing hormone, FSH=Follicle stimulating hormone, p1=probability between Prem cases and Prem controls, p2=probability between post cases and post controls, p3=probability between premenopausal cases and postmenopausal cases, p4=probability between premenopausal controls and postmenopausal controls, Student's t-test was used for the comparisons between the groups

Table 2. Distribution pattern of hormone receptor positivity and negativity in tissue samples from women with breast cancer

| Marker | Cases (%) | Pre cases (%) | Post cases (%) |
|-----------------------|------------|---------------|----------------|
| Oestrogen receptor | | | |
| ER+ | 10 (12.7%) | 0 | 10 (37.0%) |
| ER- | 69 (87.3%) | 52 (100%) | 17 (63.0%) |
| Progesterone receptor | | | |
| PR+ | 8(10.1%) | 0 | 9 (33.3%) |
| PR- | 71 (89.9%) | 52 (100%) | 18 (66.7%) |
| HER 2 | | | |
| HER 2+ | 15 (19.0%) | 6 (11.5%) | 10 (37.0%) |
| HER 2- | 64 (81.0%) | 46 (88.5%) | 17 (63.0%) |

ER=Oestrogen Receptor, PR= Progesterone receptor, HER 2=Human epithelial Receptor 2

Table 3 shows the expression pattern of the receptors in the total number of cases, premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. Women with triple negative receptors accounted for 69.6% of the cases, 88.5% of premenopausal cases and 33.3% of the postmenopausal cases while triple positive receptors accounted for 2.5% of the cases and 7.4% of postmenopausal cases.

Table 3. Different expression patterns according to the positivity and negativity of ER, PR and HER2

| n (%) | ER | PR | HER 2 |
|------------------------------|----|----|-------|
| 55 (69.6%) | - | - | - |
| 2 (2.5%) | + | + | + |
| 2 (2.5%) | + | + | - |
| 10 (12.7%) | - | - | + |
| 5 (6.3%) | + | - | - |
| 1 (1.3%) | + | - | + |
| 2 (2.5%) | - | + | - |
| 2 (2.5%) | - | + | + |
| Premenopausal (n=52) | | | |
| 46 (88.5%) | - | - | - |
| 6 (11.5%) | - | - | + |
| Postmenopausal (n=27) | | | |
| 9 (33.3%) | - | - | - |
| 2 (7.4%) | + | + | + |
| 2 (7.4%) | + | + | - |
| 4 (14.8%) | - | - | + |
| 4 (14.8%) | + | - | - |
| 2 (7.4%) | - | + | - |
| 3 (11.1%) | - | + | + |
| 1 (3.7%) | + | - | + |

n=number of samples, ER=oestrogen receptor, PR= progesterone receptor, HER 2=human epithelial receptor 2

Table 4 shows the comparison of ER, PR and HER 2 between premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. ER-, PR- and HER 2- were significantly higher in premenopausal women with breast cancer compared with postmenopausal women with breast cancer ($p < 0.05$). There was no difference

in cancer staging and site of affected breast ($p > 0.05$).

Table 5 shows the multiple regression analysis of variables in pre and postmenopausal cases and controls. In premenopausal cases, progesterone had a significant and direct relationship with E_2 ($\beta = 0.678$, $P < .05$) and vice versa ($\beta = 0.575$, $P < .05$) while HER 2 had an inverse relationship with progesterone ($\beta = -0.245$, $P < .05$). In premenopausal controls, progesterone also had a positive relationship with E_2 ($\beta = 0.413$, $P < .05$). In postmenopausal cases, PR had an inverse relationship while waist height ratio had a positive relationship with E_2 ($\beta = -0.450$, $\beta = 7.311$ respectively, $P < .05$). Body mass index positively related with LH ($\beta = 3.951$, $P < .05$). In postmenopausal controls, body mass index positively related with E_2 ($\beta = 1.529$, $P < .05$) while body weight positively predicted LH ($\beta = 1.888$, $P < .05$).

4. DISCUSSION

Follicle stimulating hormone controls E_2 level by negative feedback mechanism in premenopausal women [13]. High serum LH and FSH were reported to be associated with a significantly worse breast cancer prognosis in premenopausal breast cancer patients [14]. The ability of FSH to activate adenylyl cyclase thereby resulting in increased cAMP levels could be associated with its ability to induce breast cancer cell proliferation, differentiation and metastasis [15,16,4]. Comparison of E_2 level between premenopausal cases with controls showed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$). Similar findings have been reported by others [17,8]. These findings implicate gonadotropin exposure in premenopausal breast carcinogenesis. Contrarily, serum FSH level was significantly lower while E_2 and progesterone levels were higher in postmenopausal cases compared with

controls ($p < 0.05$) in this present study. Positive association of E_2 with breast cancer risk in postmenopausal women has previously been observed [18]. Although, the reasons are not clear, low FSH level has also been observed in postmenopausal women with ovarian cancer [19,20]. However, breast and ovarian cancers are hormone-dependent cancers with genomic similarities [21]. Wang and co-workers observed high levels of progesterone in postmenopausal

breast cancer [11]. Increased postmenopausal progesterone levels have also been implicated in dementia, with unknown reasons but may relate to small subclinical cerebral thrombosis [22,23]. Although, mechanisms involving FSH reduction and increased E_2 may underlie postmenopausal breast cancer in this study, it is uncertain if the elevated progesterone in the postmenopausal women in our study is related to menopause or breast cancer.

Table 4. Association of hormone receptor status, breast cancer stage and site of affected breast in pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer

| Variable | Premenopausal cases (n=52) | Postmenopausal cases (n=27) | χ^2 | P |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| Oestradiol receptor | | | 22.050 Fishers | <.001* <.001* |
| ER+ | 0 | 10(37.0%) | | |
| ER- | 52(100%) | 17(63.0%) | | |
| Progesterone receptor | | | 17.143 Fishers | <.001* <.001* |
| PR+ | 0 | 8(29.6%) | | |
| PR- | 52(100%) | 19(70.4%) | | |
| HER 2 | | | 5.488 Fisher | .02* .03* |
| HER 2+ | 6(11.5%) | 9(33.3%) | | |
| HER 2- | 46(88.5%) | 18(66.7%) | | |
| Breast cancer stage | (n=54) | (n=31) | 3.394 Fishers | .34 |
| Stage 1 | 5(9.3%) | 1(3.2%) | | |
| Stage 2 | 3(5.6%) | 5(16.1%) | | |
| Stage 3 | 24(44.4%) | 14(45.2%) | | |
| Stage 4 | 22(40.7%) | 11(35.5%) | | |
| Breast Site | (n=54) | (n=31) | 2.236 | .14 |
| Right Breast | 30 (55.6%) | 12(38.7%) | | |
| Left Breast | 24 (44.4%) | 19(61.3%) | | |

n=number of subjects, χ^2 =Chi-Squared test, Fishers=Fishers Exact ratio, *p*=probability, * = significant at $p < 0.05$. HER2=Human epithelial receptor 2

Table 5. Multiple regression analyses in pre and postmenopausal women with breast cancer and their respective controls

| Groups | Dependent Variable | Predictors | β | t | P |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------|--------|--------|
| Premenopausal cases | | | | | |
| $R^2=0.532, F=8.920, P<0.001$ | E_2 | Progesterone | 0.678 | 5.826 | <.001* |
| $R^2=0.574, F=10.548, P<0.001$ | Progesterone | E_2 | 0.575 | 5.263 | <.001* |
| | | HER 2 | -0.245 | -2.246 | .03* |
| Premenopausal controls | | | | | |
| $R^2=0.285, F=3.050, P=0.013$ | E_2 | Progesterone | 0.413 | 3.176 | .003* |
| Postmenopausal cases | | | | | |
| $R^2=0.392, F=3.545, P=0.022$ | E_2 | PR | -0.450 | -2.585 | .02* |
| $R^2=0.450, F=2.692, P=0.034$ | E_2 | WHtR | 7.311 | 2.174 | .04* |
| $R^2=0.363, F=1.871, P=0.121$ | LH | Body mass index | 3.951 | 2.095 | .047* |
| Postmenopausal controls | | | | | |
| $R^2=0.330, F=1.551, P=0.202$ | E_2 | BMI | 1.529 | 2.376 | .03* |
| $R^2=0.471, F=2.926, P=0.024$ | LH | body weight | 1.888 | 2.893 | .008* |

β =Beta coefficient, *F*=F statistics, *t*=Student's *t*-test, *p*=probability, * =significant, E_2 = Oestradiol, LH= Luteinizing Hormone, FT_3 =Triiodothyronine, TSH=Thyroid stimulating Hormone, ER=Oestrogen receptor, PR=Progesterone receptor, HER 2=Human epithelial receptor 2, WHtR=Waist Height Ratio. Multiple regression model was used for statistical analysis

Visceral fat is more strongly associated with an adverse metabolic risk including insulin resistance and a strong aetiopathogenic factor for the development of type 2 diabetes mellitus [24,25]. Waist height ratio has been reported to correlate well with visceral obesity, higher values indicate higher risk of obesity-related cardiovascular disease [26]. These systemic effects could be involved in cancer biology [27,28].

In this present study, increased adiposity as indicated by higher levels of measures of waist circumference, hip circumference, body weight, height, waist hip ratio and waist height ratio in premenopausal women with breast cancer compared with controls ($p < 0.05$). This is in tandem with a reported study [29]. Similarly, body weight and height were significantly higher in postmenopausal cases compared with controls ($p < 0.05$). BMI, an indicator of general adiposity is positively related with E_2 in postmenopausal controls ($\beta = 1.529$, $p < 0.05$). Redistribution of body fat is peculiar to menopause [13]. The positive relationship between waist height ratio and E_2 in postmenopausal cases ($\beta = 7.311$, $p < 0.05$) suggest that visceral obesity may play a role in postmenopausal breast cancer implicating increased aromatase activity in postmenopausal women with breast cancer.

It would appear from these observations that increased adiposity may contribute to both pre and postmenopausal breast cancer development. However, visceral obesity also indicated by increased waist circumference was the most frequent component of metabolic syndrome in females in Nigeria. Increased adiposity associated with elevated E_2 was also observed in both pre and postmenopausal women with metabolic syndrome without breast cancer in Nigeria [13].

The underlying mechanisms of action of E_2 in the aetiology of breast cancer include the alkylation of cellular molecules, generation of active radicals and genotoxicity of oestrogen metabolites which are involved in initiation, promotion and progression of breast cancer [2,30]. Endocrine disruptors are known to accumulate in increased adipose tissue [12]. We therefore postulate that factors other than visceral obesity such as endocrine disruptors, may contribute to carcinogenesis.

Observations in this study showed that reproductive factors such as number of previous pregnancies, number of live births and number of

induced abortions were significantly higher in premenopausal cases compared with premenopausal controls ($p < 0.05$) Table 1. Induced abortion (IA) was reportedly significantly associated with an increased risk of breast cancer among Chinese females and the risk of breast cancer increased as the number of IA increased [31]. Age at menarche was also significantly higher in premenopausal cases compared with premenopausal controls ($p < 0.05$). This is at variance with studies that found an association between early age at menarche and increased risk of breast cancer [32].

Triple negative breast cancers are poorly differentiated and are characterized by an aggressive clinical history. No specific treatment guidelines are currently available for this breast cancer sub-type. However, they are managed with standard treatment, which leaves them with a high rate of local and systemic relapse [33]. A large number of the cases, 55 (69.62%) were triple negative. Forty six (88.5%) cases were premenopausal while 9 (11.5%) were postmenopausal. Similar findings were reported in indigenous African women [34,35].

Oestrogens and progesterone function via binding to their corresponding intracellular receptors, ER and PR [36]. Oestrogen and progesterone receptors play important roles in the growth and differentiation of breast cancers. This makes them important prognostic markers [37,38,39]. The biologic, prognostic and predictive importance of assessment of ER expression in breast cancer is well established, the added value of PR assessment appears controversial in some climes [40,41,42,43,44]. The American Society of Clinical Oncology and the College of American Pathologists recommend testing for both ER and PR on all newly diagnosed cases of invasive breast cancer [45]. Studies show that the loss of PR expression was associated with worse prognosis among ER+ breast cancers [46,47,48,49,50]. Human epithelial receptor 2 also known as ErbB2-neu, located on chromosome 17q21 is also considered to be closely associated with the occurrence and development of breast cancer [51]. It is inactive under normal physiological conditions and upon activation; it may enhance tumour invasion and metastasis [52]. The knowledge of HER 2 status is important for treatment choice especially for patients with metastatic tumours who respond to Herceptin [53].

In this present study, oestrogen receptor negative (ER-) breast cancer was observed in 69 cases (87.34%), progesterone receptor negative (PR-) breast cancer was seen in 71 cases (89.87%) and HER 2 negative breast cancer was seen in 64 cases (81.01%). Similar observations were seen in both pre and postmenopausal cases. This suggests the predominance of hormone-receptor negative breast cancer in this study, corroborating the findings of Huo et al. [9]. A comparison of the expression of ER, PR and HER 2 between premenopausal and postmenopausal breast cancer participants in this study further showed the prominence of negative hormone receptors in premenopausal participants. Oestrogen receptor negative, PR negative and HER 2 negative expressions were significantly higher in premenopausal cases compared with postmenopausal cases ($p < 0.001$, $p < 0.001$ and $p = 0.02$, respectively). The occurrence of negative hormone receptors in premenopausal cases could be a contributory factor to the aggressiveness of premenopausal breast cancer relative to postmenopausal breast cancer. There are reports that breast cancer in young women is diagnosed at more advanced stage with more aggressive tumour and are associated with higher mortality, shorter disease-free survival and more likely to recur after treatment both loco regionally and at distant sites than in older women [54-57].

In postmenopausal women with breast cancer, PR is inversely related to oestradiol ($\beta = -0.450$, $p = 0.02$). The reason for this observation is not clear. Oestrogen receptor positive (ER+) was observed in 10 cases (12.66%). Progesterone receptor positive (PR+) and HER 2 positive were observed in 8 cases (10.13%) and 15 (18.99%), respectively. Similar findings in indigenous African women have been reported [8,52]. The observations in this study are at variance with the results obtained in blacks living in the United States and United Kingdom, in which higher proportion of the positive receptor expression were observed [58,59]. This observation might implicate geographic or environmental factors beyond genetics. Women with ER-positive breast cancer can benefit from endocrine therapy explaining their better survival outcomes [53]. Most evidence regarding the prognostic role of PR is based upon the assumption that PR expression indicates a functioning ER pathway [60]. Hence, PR-positive and ER-positive tumours have been reported to have a better response to endocrine therapy than ER-positive and PR-negative cancers [61].

5. CONCLUSION

Our findings implicate gonadotropin exposure in premenopausal breast carcinogenesis. Although, mechanisms involving FSH reduction and increased E_2 may underlie postmenopausal breast cancer in this study, it is uncertain if the elevated progesterone in the postmenopausal women in our study is related to menopause or breast cancer. Increased adiposity appears to contribute to the development of breast cancer in both pre and postmenopausal women. However, similar observations in apparently healthy women with metabolic syndrome in Nigeria, suggest that increased adiposity alone may not be a risk factor for breast cancer. The contribution of environmental factors to breast carcinogenesis may be important in Nigeria. We postulate that endocrine disruptors (environmental toxicants) may accumulate in increased adipose tissue and contribute to carcinogenesis. The predominance of triple negative receptor expression particularly in premenopausal women with breast cancer in Nigeria may explain the observed aggressiveness of the disease.

CONSENT

We declare that informed consent was obtained from all participants in the study after the details of the study was explained to them.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

We declare that the study protocol was examined and approved by the University of Ibadan/University College Hospital, Ibadan Ethics Committee and therefore been performed in accordance with the ethical standards laid down in the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to appreciate the staff of Genetics and Bioethics Laboratory, Institute for Advanced Medical Research and Training, University of Ibadan for the immunohistochemical analysis of the hormone receptors in this study.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

1. Bernstein L, Ross RK. Endogenous hormones and breast cancer risk. *Epidemiol. Rev.* 1993;15:48-65.

2. Clemons M, Goss P. Estrogen and the risk of breast cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2001;344:276-285.
3. Rotstein A. Sex hormone synthesis. *endocrinology reviews*. 2011;32(1):81-151.
4. Zhou J, Chen Y, Huang Y, Long J, Wan F, Zhan S. Serum follicle-stimulating hormone level is associated with human epidermal growth factor receptor type 2 and Ki67 expression in post-menopausal females with breast cancer. *Oncology Letters*. 2013; 6(4):1128-1132.
5. Powell BL, Piersma D, Kevenaar ME, Vanstaveren IL, Themmen APN, Iacopetta, BJ, et al. Luteinizing hormone signaling and breast cancer: Polymorphisms and age of onset. *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism*. 2003; 88(4):1653-1657.
6. Hernandez L, Nuez-Villar MJ, Martinez-Arribas F, Pollan M, Schneider J. Circulating hormone levels in breast cancer patients, correlation with serum tumour markers and the clinical and biological features of tumours. *Anticancer Research*. 2005;25:451-454.
7. Russo IH, Russo J. Role of hormones in mammary cancer initiation and progression. *Journal of Mammary Gland Biology and Neoplasia*. 1998;349–361.
8. Ho CCK, Rohaizak M, Zulkifli SZ, Siti-Aishah MA, Nor-Aini U, Sharifah-Noor-Akmal SH. Serum sex hormone levels in pre and postmenopausal breast cancer patients. *Singapore Medical Journal*. 2009; 50(5):513-518.
9. Foidart JM, Colin C, Denoo X, Desreux J, Beliard A, Fournier S, et al. Estradiol and progesterone regulate the proliferation of human breast epithelial cells. *Fertility and Sterility*. 1998;69:963-969.
10. Harris JR, Lippman ME, Veronesi U, Willett W. Breast Cancer (3). *New England Journal of Medicine*. 1992;327:473-480.
11. Wang Bin, MiMantian, Wang Jian, Wei Na, Zhang Qianrong, Zhu Jundong, et al. Does the increase of endogenous steroid hormone levels also affect breast cancer risk in Chinese women? A case-control study in Chongqing, China. *International Journal of Cancer*. 2009;124:1892-1899.
12. AjayiOlulope O, Charles-Davies Mabel A, Anetor John I, Ademola Yinka. Serum polychlorinated biphenyls and bisphenol-A levels in Nigerian women with breast cancer. *Archive of Basic and Applied Medicine*. 2014;2:71-75.
13. Fabian UA, Charles-Davies MA, Fasanmade AA, Olaniyi JA, Oyewole OE, Owolabi MO, et al. Sex hormones and their relationship with leptin and cardiovascular risk factors in pre and post menopausal Nigerian women with metabolic syndrome. *Cardiology and Angiology: An International Journal*. 2015;3(3):149-156.
14. Pujol P, Daures JP, Brouillet J. Chang PS, Rouanet P, Bringer J, et al. A prospective prognostic study of the hormonal milieu at the time of surgery in premenopausal breast carcinoma. *Cancer*. 2001;91:1854-1861.
15. Tunizicker-Dunn M, Maizels ET. FSH signaling pathways in immature granulosa cells that regulate target gene expression; branching out from protein kinase A. *Cell Signalling*. 2006;1351-1359.
16. Zreik TG, Mazloom A, Chen Y, Vannucci M, Pinnix CC, Fulton S. Fertility drugs and the risk of breast cancer; a meta-analysis and review. *Breast Cancer Research and Treatment*. 2010;124:13-16.
17. Sturgeon SR, Potischman N, Malone KE, Dorgan JF, Daling J, Schairer C, et al. Serum levels of sex hormones and breast cancer risk in premenopausal women: A case-control study (USA). *Cancer Causes Control*. 2004;15:45-53.
18. Hankinson SE, Willet WC, Manson JE, Colditz GA, Hunter DJ, Spiegelman D, et al. Plasma sex steroid levels and risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *Journal of National Cancer Institute*. 1998; 90:1292-1299.
19. Arslan AA, Zeleniuch-Jacquotte A, Lukanove A, Rinaldi S, Kaaks R, Toniolo P. Reliability of follicle-stimulating hormone measurements in serum. *Reproductive Biology and Endocrinology*. 2003;1;49.
20. Mcsorley MA, Alberg AJ, Allen DS, Allen NE, Brinton LA, Dorgan JF, et al. Pre-diagnostic circulating follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) concentrations and ovarian cancer risk. *Int. J. Cancer*. 2009; 125(3):674-679.
21. The Cancer Genome Atlas Network. *Nature*. 2012;490: 51-70.
22. Yaffe K. Hormone therapy and the brain déjà vu all over again? *JAMA*. 2003; 289:2717-9.
23. Zhu M, Brinton RA. How progestin, a synthetic female hormone could affect the brain; 2012. Available:www.theatlantic.com

24. Snijder MB, Dam RMV, Visser M, Seidell JC. What aspects of body fat are particularly hazardous and how do we measure them? *International Journal of Epidemiology*. 2006;35:83-92.
25. Charles-Davies MA, Arinola OG, Fasanmade AA, Olaniyi JA, Oyewole OE, Owolabi MO. Indices of metabolic syndrome in 534 apparently healthy Nigerian traders. *Journal of US-China Medical Science*. 2012;9(2):91-100.
26. Amadou A, Hainut P, Romieu I. Role of obesity in the risk of breast cancer: lessons from anthropometry. *Journal of Oncology*. 2013;19. Article ID 906495.
27. Vankruijsdijk RCM, Van der Wall E, Visseren FLJ. The role of dysfunctional adipose tissue. *Cancer Epidemiology Biomarkers and Prevention*. 2009;18: 2569-2578.
28. Donohoe CL, Doyle SL, Reynolds JV. Visceral adiposity, insulin resistance and cancer risk. *Diabetology and Metabolic Syndrome*. 2011;3:(12). PMC 3145556.
29. Fagherazzi G, Chabbert-Buffet N, Fabre A, Guillas G, Boutron-Ruault M-C, Mesrine S, et al. Hip circumference is associated with the risk of premenopausal ER-/PR- breast cancer. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2012; 36(3):431-9.
30. Yager JD, Davidson NE. Mechanisms of disease: Estrogen carcinogenesis in breast cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine*. 2006;354:270-282.
31. Huang Y, Zhang X, Li W, Song F, Dai H, Wang J. Meta-analysis of the association between induced abortion and breast cancer risk among Chinese females. *Cancer Causes and Control*. 2014; 25(2):227-236.
32. Orgeas CC, Hall P, Rosenberg LU, Czene K. The influence of menstrual risk factors on tumour characteristics and survival in postmenopausal breast cancer. *Breast cancer Research*. 2008;10:R107.
33. Cleator S, Heller W, Coombes RC. Triple-negative breast cancer: Therapeutic options. *Lancet Oncology*. 2007;8:235-244.
34. Stark A, Kleer C, Martin I, Awuah B, Nsiah-Asare A, Takiyi V, et al. African ancestry and higher prevalence of triple-negative breast cancer: Findings From an International Study. *Cancer*. 2010;116: 4926-4932.
35. Makanjuola SBL, Ayodele SD, Javid FA, Obafunwa JO, Oludara MA, Popoola AO. Breast cancer receptor status assessment and clinicopathological association in Nigerian women: A retrospective analysis. *Journal of Cancer Research and Therapy*. 2014;2:122-127.
36. Evans RM. The steroid and thyroid hormone receptor super family. *Science*. 1988;240(4854):889-895.
37. Patel T, Gupta A, Shah M. Pathological predictive factors for tumor response in locally advanced breast carcinomas treated with anthracyclin-based neoadjuvant chemotherapy. *Journal of Cancer Research and Therapy*. 2013; 9:245-249.
38. Mohamed FZ, Darwish H, Belal AAM, Abd EL-razek WY. Some tumour markers and hormonal receptors as Prognostic Parameters of Breast Cancer. *Indian Journal of Research*. 2015;4(2):199-203.
39. Deepti G, Veena G, Nisha M, Meenu G, Sumiti G, Gopal G. Correlation of hormone receptor expression with histologic parameters in Benign and Malignant Breast Tumors. *Iranian Journal of Pathology*. 2015;10(1):23-34.
40. Olivotto IA, Truong PT, Speers CH, Bernstein V, Allan SJ, Kelly SJ, Lesperance ML. Time to stop progesterone receptor testing in breast cancer management. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2004;22:1769-1770.
41. Colozza M, Larsimont D, Piccart MJ. Progesterone receptor testing: not the right time to be buried. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2005;23:3867-3868. Author reply 3869-3870.
42. Fuqua SA, Cui Y, Lee AV, Osborne CK, Horwitz KB. Insights into the role of progesterone receptors in breast cancer. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2005; 23:931-932. Author's reply 932-933.
43. Hefti MM, Hu R, Knoblauch NW, Collins LC, Haibe-Kains B, Tamimi RM, Beck AH. Estrogen receptor negative/progesterone receptor positive breast cancer is not a reproducible subtype. *Breast Cancer Research*. 2013;15:R68.
44. Qiao EQ, Ji M, Wu J, Li J, Xu X, Ma R, et al. Joint detection of multiple immunohistochemical indices and clinical significance in breast cancer. *Molecular and Clinical Oncology*. 2013;1:703-710.
45. Hammond ME, Hayes DF, Dowsett M, Allred DC, Hagerty KL, Badve S, et al. American society of clinical oncology/college of American pathologists guideline recommendations for

- immunohistochemical testing of estrogen and progesterone receptors in breast cancer. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2010;28:2784-2795.
46. Bardou VJ, Arpino G, Elledge RM, Osborne CK, Clark GM. Progesterone receptor status significantly improves outcome prediction over estrogen receptor status alone for adjuvant endocrine therapy in two large breast cancer databases. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2003;21:1973-1979.
 47. Grann VR, Troxel AB, Zojwalla NJ, Jacobson JS, Hershman D, Neugut AI. Hormone receptor status and survival in a population-based cohort of patients with breast carcinoma. *Cancer*. 2005;103:2241-2251.
 48. Dunnwald LK, Rossing MA, Li CI. Hormone receptor status, tumor characteristics, and prognosis: A prospective cohort of breast cancer patients. *Breast Cancer Research*. 2007;9:R6.
 49. Canello G, Maisonneuve P, Rotmensz N, Viale G, Mastropasqua MG, Pruneri G, et al. Progesterone receptor loss identifies luminal B breast cancer subgroups at higher risk of relapse. *Annals of Oncology*. 2013;24:661-668.
 50. Prat A, Cheang MC, Martin M, Parker JS, Carrasco E, Caballero R, et al. Prognostic significance of progesterone receptor-positive tumour cells within immunohistochemically defined luminal a breast cancer. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 2013;31:203-209.
 51. Gown AM. Current issues in ER and HER-2 testing by IHC in breast cancer. *Modern Pathology*. 2008;21:S8-S15.
 52. Guo H, Bai O. Relationship between the expression of ER, PR, Her -2 in breast cancer and its clinical pathological features. *Chinese Journal of Laboratory Diagnostics*. 2008;12:1390-1392.
 53. Khokher S, Qureshi MU, Mahmood S, Nagi AH. Association of immunohistochemically defined molecular subtypes with clinical response to pre-surgical chemotherapy in patients with advanced breast cancer. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Cancer Prevention*. 2013;14:3223-3228.
 54. Nixon AJ, Neuberg D, Hayes DF. Relationship of patient's age to pathologic features of the tumour and prognosis for patients with stage 1 or 2 breast cancer. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 1994;12:888-894.
 55. Gajdos C, Tartter PL, Bleweiss IJ. Stage 0 to 3 breast cancer in young women. *Journal of American College of Surgeons*. 2000;190:525-529.
 56. Foxcroft LM, Evans EB, Porter AJ. The diagnosis of breast cancer in women younger than 40 years. *Breast*. 2004;13:297-306.
 57. Ntekim A, Nufu FT, Campbell OB. Breast cancer in young women in Ibadan, Nigeria. *African Health Sciences*. 2009;9(4):242-246.
 58. Chu KC, Anderson WF. Rates for breast cancer characteristics by oestrogen and progesterone receptor status in the major racial/ethnic groups. *Breast Cancer Research and Treatment*. 2002;74:199-211.
 59. Bowen RL, Duffy SW, Ryan DA, Hart IR, Jones JL. Early onset of breast cancer in a group of British black women. *British Journal of Cancer*. 2008;98:277-281.
 60. Ravdin PM, Green S, Dorr TM, McGuire WL, Fabian C, Pugh RP, et al. Prognostic significance of progesterone receptor levels in estrogen receptor positive patients with metastatic breast cancer treated with tamoxifen; results of a prospective Southwest oncology group study. *Journal of Clinical Oncology*. 1992; 10:1284-1291.
 61. Payne SJ, Bowen RL, Jones JL, Wells CA. Predictive markers in breast cancer – the present. *Histopathology*. 2008;52:82-90.

© 2016 Ajayi et al.; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here:
<http://sciencedomain.org/review-history/14676>