

© 2016

Sumayah Abed Ahmed Al-Mahmood

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

**NANOTECHNOLOGY APPROACH FOR TARGETED
TREATMENT OF TRIPLE NEGATIVE BREAST CANCER**

By

SUMAYAH ABED AHMED AL-MAHMOOD

A thesis submitted to the

Graduate School-New Brunswick

Rutgers, the State University of New Jersey

In partial Fulfillment of the requirements

For the degree of

Master of Science

Graduate Program in Pharmaceutical Sciences

Written under the direction of

Professor Tamara Minko

And approved by

New Brunswick, New Jersey

May, 2016

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

Nanotechnology Approach for Targeted Treatment of Triple Negative Breast Cancer

By SUMAYAH ABED AHMED AL-MAHMOOD

Thesis Director:

Tamara Minko, PhD

Breast cancer is one of the most devastating diseases worldwide. Triple negative breast cancer cells (TNBCs) are defined by the lack of progesterone receptor (PR), estrogen receptor (ER), and epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (EGFR2) expressions. TNBCs account for 10%- 20% of all breast carcinomas. The study is aimed at examining the efficacy of gefitinib and EGFR-targeted siRNA delivered by liposomes for treating triple negative breast cancer (TNBC). The experiments were carried out using two types of human breast cancer (BC) cell lines MCF-7 (estrogen positive BC, EPBC) and MDA-MB 231(TNBC). EGFR-targeted siRNA and gefitinib were delivered by cationic and neutral liposomes, respectively. A fluorescence microscope was used to study cellular internalization of labeled liposomes and siRNA. The expression of the targeted mRNA

was performed using quantitative reverse transcription PCR. Finally, cytotoxicity of liposomal siRNA and gefitinib alone or in combination was measured using the modified MTT assay with appropriate controls. It was found that liposomes effectively delivered siRNA into both types of BC cells and suppressed the expression of targeted EGFR mRNA. However, formulations without gefitinib did not influence significantly on the viability of BC cells. Free drug demonstrated the ability to kill both types of cancer cells. Nevertheless, toxicity of gefitinib in TNBC was 2.5 times lower when compared with EPBC cells. The delivery of the drug by liposomes significantly enhanced its toxicity (1.2 and 2.5 times in EPBC and TNBC, respectively). The combination of liposomal siRNA and liposomal gefitinib demonstrated exceptionally high cytotoxicity when compared with the free drug (143 and 62 times higher in EPBC and TNBC, respectively). Suppression of EGFR mRNA effectively suppressed resistance of TNBC cells to gefitinib. The data obtained support the proposed approach and showed high potential of liposomal EGFR siRNA in combination with liposomal gefitinib in treatment of TNBC.

DEDICATION

To my wonderful parents

Abid A. Al-Mahmood and Echan A. Al-Sharefee

To my lovely husband

Jalal Nazar Abdulbaqi

To my amazing kids

Ibrahim, Mohammed, Abdullah

To my brothers and sisters

Asia, Aaeshah, Abdulrahman, Osama, Sara, Hamza

To my amazing advisor

Dr.Tamara Minko

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my grateful and deepest appreciation to my Advisor Professor Tamara Minko for her continuous inspiration, mentoring and supporting me during my study. Also, I would like to thank my thesis committee members Professors Bozena Michniak-Kohnfor and Guofeng You for their generous time.

I would like to thank my colleagues in Dr. Minko lab: Dr. Olga Garbuzenko, Dr. Natalia Pogrebnyak, Justin E. Sapiezynski and Andriy Kuzmov for their generous help and continuous discussions during my work in the lab.

I would like to thank the office staff of the Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences at Rutgers University: Hui Pung, Marianne Shen, Fei Han and Sharana Taylor for always being helpful to complete my work.

I am grateful to all the support from my parents and I hope that they become proud of me one day. Also, I would like to thank my brothers and sisters for their support during my life. Finally, this work cannot be completed without the unconditional love and support of my husband during my study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
2 BACKGROUND AND SIGNIFICANCE	2
2.1 Introduction	2
2.2 Occurrence of metastasis breast cancer.....	3
2.3 Predictive and prognostic factors of MBC	6
2.3.1 Axillary lymph nodal involvement.....	6
2.3.2 Tumor size	7
2.3.3 Estrogen receptor (ER) and progesterone receptor (PR) status	7
2.3.4 Circulating tumor cells (CTCs)	8
2.3.5 Lymphovascular invasion (LVI)	8
2.3.6 Age at diagnosis.....	9
2.3.7 Race and ethnicity	9

2.3.8 Cathepsin D	9
2.3.9 Angiogenesis Markers	10
2.3.10 Bone marrow micrometastasis.....	10
2.3.11 Overexpression of the c-erb B-2 (HER2/neu) proto-oncogen.....	10
2.3.12 Urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) and plasminogen activator inhibitor type I (PAI-1).....	11
2.3.13 Mutation of p53	11
2.3.14 Expression of topoisomerase II-alpha (topo II α).....	12
2.3.15 Proliferation markers	12
2.3.16 Gene expression profiling.....	13
2.4 Models of breast cancer.....	13
2.5 Treatments of metastasis breast cancer	15
2.5.1 Surgery	16
2.5.2 Radiation	16
2.5.3 Hormonal Therapy	17
2.5.3.1 Types of Hormonal Therapy.....	17
2.5.3.2 Premenopausal Women with MBC	20
2.5.3.3 Postmenopausal Women with MBC.....	21
2.5.4 Chemotherapy	21

2.5.4.1. Common Chemotherapeutic Agents used in the Treatment of MBC.....	22
2.5.5. Immune Therapy	26
2.5.6 Gene Therapy	27
2.5.6.1 Targeting EGFR Family	28
2.5.6.2 Targeting Metastasis and Invasion	34
2.5.6.3 Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors (HDACi).....	35
2.5.6.4 Insulin-like Growth Factor Inhibitors (IGF-IR)	35
2.5.6.5. Targeting Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Family (VEGF)	36
3 SPECIFIC AIMS	37
4 MATERIALS AND METHODS	37
4.1 Materials.....	37
4.2 Cell Lines	38
4.3 Liposome Preparation and Characterization	38
4.3.1 Liposome Preparation.....	38
4.3.2 Liposome Particle Size Measurement	40
4.3.3 Zeta Potential Measurement	40
4.4 Cellular Internalization (Microscopic Technique)	40
4.5 Cytotoxicity Assay	41
4.6 RNA Extraction.....	41

4.7 Gene Expression (Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction).....	42
4.8 Statistical Analysis	42
5 RESULTS	43
5.1 Cellular Internalization of Liposomes.....	43
5.2 EGFR mRNA Expression by Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-QPCR)	43
5.3 Cytotoxicity Assay	43
6 DISCUSSIONS.....	44
7 CONCLUSIONS	45
8 FUTURE DIRECTIONS.....	45
9 ILLUSTRATIONS.....	46
TABLES.....	46
FIGURES	48

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Prognosis and predictive factors of MBC.....	46
Table 2.2 The distribution of estrogen and progesterone receptors in different groups of patients.	47

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Major steps of metastasis formation.....	48
Figure 2.2 Role of CTCs in breast cancer in vitro and vivo.	49
Figure 2.3 Models of MBC.....	50
Figure 2.4 Role of MMPs in the progression and metastasis of cancer.....	51
Figure 5.1 Cellular internalization of siRNA delivered by liposomes.....	52
Figure 5.2 Expression of EGFR mRNA.	53
Figure 5.3 In vitro Cytotoxicity Assay	54

1 INTRODUCTION

Cancers can be solid tumors or hematologic and different approaches are needed for each kind of cancer. Solid tumors show a heterogeneous and dynamic biology that keeps changing with time. Breast cancer is a heterogeneous and solid tumor. Genetic factors can be responsible about the occurrence of 5%-10% of breast cancer cases [1,2]. Many risk factors can affect the development of breast cancer disease such as status of lymph node, size of the tumor, age of the patient, histological grade and type or status of human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER-2), estrogen receptor (ER) and progesterone receptor [3]. Early diagnosis can play an important role in decreasing the progression of disease and reducing the rate of death [4]. Traditional therapy of breast cancer which includes radiotherapy, surgical resection combining with chemotherapy can affect both cancer and non-cancer cells [5–7]. In addition, about 95% of anticancer therapies have poor biopharmaceutical and pharmacokinetics properties such as very short circulation half-life or poor water soluble drugs. Innovative technologies such as nanotechnology can apply to improve the diagnosis, imaging and efficacy of breast cancer treatment [8–10].

Nanotechnology concerns any devices whose dimensions are within the range of 1–1,000 nm [11–14]. Nanotechnology can include nanomedicines, nanomanufacturing, nanocarriers, nanomaterials, nanoscale devices and societal studies of nanotechnology benefits and risks [8]. Many nanotechnology products are approved by Food and Drug Administration (FDA) for clinical use, and more are in clinical trials [12]. Polymers, liposomes, dendrimers and metals such as gold and iron oxide are examples of nanoparticles that are using in the treatment of cancer [12,15].

The multifunctionality and unique characteristics of nanotechnology encourage their use in the cancer field. The size of the molecule can be considered as an important part in controlling the kinetics of tumor accumulation and preventing the diffusion again to the systemic vascular bed. The effect of the size of nanoparticles is more complex in blood circulation but does not follow the same rules for protein based chemotherapeutics or small molecules [8,11,16–18]. Payload density, duration of effect and properties of the surface can also be considered as important parameters of using nanoparticles in cancer rather than small molecules or nucleic acid treatment [17,18].

Nanoparticles can be used to target the drug to specific point at the site of disease and improve the bioavailability and uptake of poor water soluble drugs, however taking into accounts the microenvironment of tumor cells , biology of tumor cells, and tumor cells growth patterns [14].

2 BACKGROUND AND SIGNIFICANCE

2.1 Introduction

Breast cancer is a heterogeneous and a complex disease [19–23]. It is composed of different biological subtypes, which are human epithelial growth receptor type 2 (HER-2), luminal A, luminal B, claudin-low and basal-like. These five subtypes have different abilities to metastasize to distant organs, specific pathways with the preferred metastatic sites and different survival response after relapse [24]. Patients who have the luminal subtypes of breast cancer frequently for example have bone relapses; however, breast cancer of basal subtype often metastasizes to the lungs and brain, and cannot reach

statistical significance in patients with liver relapse [20,22]. The biological subtypes of breast tumor can be defined by immunoistochemical (IHC) biomarkers or gene expression profiles [20,25]. In general, the standard prognostic and predictive factors for breast cancer disease are human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2), progesterone receptor (PR), estrogen receptor (ER), and proliferation (Ki-67) status [22,26]. The choice of local or systemic treatment can vary related to these different subtypes of breast cancer [25]. Breast cancer can spread to other sites of the body resulting in metastatic breast cancer (MBC) [3]. Between 6%-60% of patients with breast cancer were diagnosed early with MBC [19,20,24,27–29]. MBC is the second leading cause of death among women in the United States [30]. Age, race, ethnicity, endogenous hormones, menopause, histological status of cells, smoking, first degree relative, number of metastatic sites, duration of breast feeding, mutation and the underlying biology of the tumor such as grade and size of the primary tumor can increase the chance of MBC occurrence [31–41]. The main sites of breast cancer to spread are lungs, bones, liver, brain, soft tissue, and adrenal glands [22,29,42,43].

2.2 Occurrence of metastasis breast cancer

Metastatic breast cancer (MBC) process is a complex multistep process that includes many steps of dynamic interactions between cells of the tumor and the host resulting in leaving of tumor cells from their primary site and metastasis to a distant area. Figure 2.1 shows the different physiological activities of MBC from the primary tumor to the secondary site [44–47]. Metastasis process can also know as non-passive or nonlinear process because it likes loops between cells of the tumor and cells of the host in the tumor microenvironment. When the tumor is formed, it grew and proliferated

overcoming the cellular restrictions that leading to disrupt the local homeostasis and affected hypoxia, acidosis as well as systemic and tissue pressures. During the initial phases of tumor proliferation, the host activates tissue repair mechanisms by providing the neoplasm with a supply of nutrients vascularization, removing of waste and escaping route for the prospective metastatic cell in an attempt to compensate changes in the primary site. At the same time, the physical stress of the growing lesion initiates an inflammatory response that mobilizes bone marrow-derived cells (BMDCs) and other leukocytes to the primary and potential secondary sites. This uncommon and unnatural mixture of cells resulting in a reactive microenvironment as well as a suitable environment of cytokines, growth factors and extracellular matrix (ECM) proteins. The re-modeling of ECM proteins within the interstitial space is a marker of highly invasive tumors. In case of tumor, the inflammation fails to resolve and stimulate the occurring involvement of the immune-regulatory cells leading to decrease the response of antitumor immune system [44,48–51]. Later, these tumor cells acquire more mutant alleles that enable them to spread and seed new colonies at different anatomical sites that are distant from the primary tumor mass. Activation of oxidoreductase enzymes, latent proteases alter topology of ECM and improve the invasion of tumor cell by the exposure of cryptic adhesive sites and the release of pro-migratory peptides. Therefore, the host cells can develop genetic changes that enable them to carry these mutant alleles to offspring of people within the primary tumor mass. Ligation adhesion receptors of tumor cell to this modified ECM simulating intracellular pathways that induce invasion through the stroma and finally into the lymphatics or bloodstream [48,52,53].

MBC occurs primarily through the lymphatic system. The spread of cancer cells by lymphatic vessels to lymph nodes sites is an important predictive of tumor aggressiveness for most human tumors [54,55]. On the other hand, the tumor cell must resist the physical stress caused by loss of vascular turbulence and adhesion before its arrest in a distant capillary bed in circulation. During transit, tumor cells can form a bolus with platelets, which protects them from the stresses of shear flow and enhances their sensitivity to chemokine gradients. Among combination of physical obstruction, attractive chemokine gradients and the complementary adhesive contacts, the cancer bolus is attracted and became surrounded by capillaries of the secondary site. As a result, lodged cancer cells may grow as an intravascular metastasis or may extravasate into the secondary tissue [44,48,56].

In the secondary sites, cancer cells are arranged in small capillaries and deformed to fit the vasculature in the new sites according to the blood pressure in the new organ and the size restrictions. Cancer cells can occur in the secondary sites as small pre-angiogenic metastases, solitary cells, or large vascularized metastases. Only a subset of these cells can persist and the remainder of cells (micrometastases) might either go into a state of dormancy (dormant solitary cells are cells that are undergoing neither apoptosis nor proliferation) or die during every step of the metastatic process. In general, micrometastases and solitary cells are clinically undetectable and only a proportion of vascularized metastases are clinically detectable [44,52].

2.3 Predictive and prognostic factors of MBC

Most deaths of women with breast cancer arise due to the metastatic behavior of breast cancer and not as a result of the primary tumor growth. Consequently, prognostic factors can be successfully used to identify patients at high risk of metastatic breast cancer and to select a most effective treatment individually for each cancer patient. Prognostic factors can be derived from the specific environment of the host and from the tumor itself [23]. These prognostic factors can be pathological factors such as histological grade of the tumor, size of the primary tumor and deposit of the tumor in the draining lymph nodes of the primary breast cancer. Specific genes and corresponding proteins related to the development of breast cancer have been discovered recently. These genes/proteins involved, *inter alia*, in controlling cell proliferation (such as c-erbB-2 and c-erbB-3), cell death (such as p53), cell differentiation (such as pS2, ER α , and PgR) and cell invasion (such as cathepsin D) in tissue-cultured systems. However, these molecular markers have more limited use than the pathological factors in predicting death of patient from metastatic disease because they can relate more to the growth of the primary tumor and not necessarily to the development of distant metastases [57,58]. Table 2.1 shows the main prognosis and predictive factors of MBC which will be briefly discussed below.

2.3.1 Axillary lymph nodal involvement

Axillary lymph nodal involvement is an important factor to recognize the staging, prognosis, and treatment of PFS and OS of breast cancer. The common methods for determine the lymph node involvement in breast cancer are sentinel node biopsy (SLNB), clinical assessment, axillary dissection, and evaluation of imaging methods. The predictor

of axillary lymph node metastasis in general should be easy reproducible, cost-effective, high accurate and induces minimum side effects on patients. If lymph-node metastasis is present, there is high risk of metastasis while if there is no lymph-node involvement, a patient has a low risk of metastasis. In addition, the presence of more than 4 lymph-node metastasis is associated with very high risk of metastasis and generally predicts a poor prognosis [23,29,59–61].

2.3.2 Tumor size

Size of the tumor plays an independent role in the prognosis of MBC especially in several cases like axillary lymph node and HER-2 statuses. The large size of tumor generally means worse prognosis and higher risk of MBC than small size tumor. The size of breast cancer ≤ 2 cm in patients younger than 40 years old generally indicates a relatively low risk of metastasis correlated with the presence of negative estrogen receptor status and axillary lymph node status. However, tumors with the size within 2-5 cm have high risk of metastasis while tumors a size more than 5 cm, have very high risk of metastasis. About 80% of patients with tumors measuring ≤ 1 cm have better 20 years recurrence PSF when compared with 72% of patients with tumor size 1.1-2 cm [29,62–64].

2.3.3 Estrogen receptor (ER) and progesterone receptor (PR) status

Estrogen receptor (ER) and progesterone receptor (PR) are considered the most important prognosis factors even before the invention of hormonal therapy. ER positive patients with node-negative breast cancer who treated with local therapy showed higher PFS and OS within 5 years. Hormone receptor is strongly associated with hormonal/endocrine treatment; however, hormonal therapy is not useful in hormone receptor negative tumor

cases. Moreover, the loss of either PR or ER in recurrent breast cancer will be related with poor response to hormonal/endocrine therapy [23,58,64,65]. Table 2.2 shows the percentage distribution of estrogen and progesterone receptors.

2.3.4 Circulating tumor cells (CTCs)

Circulating tumor cells (CTCs) are rare malignant cells that resulted or originated from the primary site. These cells circulate in the peripheral blood and can work as independent predictive and prognosis factor of early and advanced stage of breast cancer. The presence of more than 5 CTCs/7.5 ml of blood in MBC patients or more than 1 CTCs/7.5 ml of blood in non-metastasis patients can be predictive of poor PFS and OSC. As a result, CTCs can give information about the efficacy of the treatment by drawing a blood sample from cancer patient multiple times during his/her illness [66–75]. Figure 2.2 shows how CTCs works as prognosis factor for metastasis cells, treatment and understanding drug resistance in breast cancer.

2.3.5 Lymphovascular invasion (LVI)

Lymphovascular invasion (LVI) involves both the lymphatic and blood vessel invasion lying within an endothelial-lined space in the area that surrounding the invasive tumor. LVI can be used as predictive factor for breast cancer patients. In addition, it is prognosis factor for lymph node, lymph node positive and triple negative breast cancer. About 23% of patients with early stage breast cancer showed vascular invasion. [23,64,76–83]

2.3.6 Age at diagnosis

A retrospective study showed that patients younger than 35 years old with early stage of breast cancer following both mastectomy and breast conserving surgery had a worse prognosis with higher risk for developing MBC and greater overall recurrence comparing to older patients. In addition, prediction of the age at diagnosis showed that patients who are older than 40 years can be more prone to have triple negative breast cancer [64,84–86].

2.3.7 Race and ethnicity

The rate of death due to breast cancer remains higher among African Americans than Caucasian in the USA and this may be associated with the nature of tumors. In addition, black women patients more likely have hormone receptor-negative tumors, positive axillary nodes and positive axillary nodes associated with smaller tumors comparing with white women patients. Moreover, black women who receiving neo-adjuvant chemotherapy, showed worse PFS than white or Caucasian women but the OS in these groups was similar [87–92].

2.3.8 Cathepsin D

According to their active site amino acid, the cathepsin family of lysosomal hydrolases can be divided into three sub-groups: cysteine (B, C, H, F, K, L, O, S, V, W and X/Z), aspartate (D and E) and serine (G) cathepsins. Cathepsin D can be used as predictive factor for breast cancer. When the cathepsin D protein level exceeds 70 pmol/mg in patients with node negative tumor, it is associated with poor prognosis [23,93,94].

2.3.9 Angiogenesis Markers

The occurrence of tumor emboli in more than 3 blood vessels is most probably associated by metastases. Microvessel density (MVD) is a common standard method of measuring angiogenesis of cancer. The high score of MVD in tumors in most cases indicates an easy and aggressive metastasis of cancer, and also is associated with a poor prognosis [29,95–98].

2.3.10 Bone marrow micrometastasis

Bone marrow micrometastasis refers to a small metastasis of less than 0.2 cm in diameter and can also include the tumor cells found in the bone marrow. The tumor cells usually can be found in 31% of lymph node negative patients and 55% of lymph node positive patients. The metastasis cells in the bone marrow are generally associated with poor clinical outcome in patients with breast cancer [23,29,99–102].

2.3.11 Overexpression of the c-erb B-2 (HER2/neu) proto-oncogen

Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) is a member of epidermal growth factor receptor EGFR family. Overexpression of HER2 was found in 18-25% of breast cancer cases. In most cases, overexpression of HER2 is associated with high risk of nodal involvement, hormone receptor negativity, metastasis and poor survival. Despite some uncertainties, HER2 status could be monitored in every patient scheduled to undergo hormonal/endocrine treatment [23,29,103].

2.3.12 Urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) and plasminogen activator inhibitor type I (PAI-1)

The urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) system includes the serine protease uPA, its cell surface receptor uPAR, and its serine inhibitors: plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 (PAI-1) and plasminogen activator inhibitor type 2 (PAI-2). uPA is an extracellular matrix-degrading protease and PAI-1 representing the inhibitor of uPA is originally known as a blood-derived endogenous fast-acting inhibitor of uPA. Both uPA and PAI-1 can be used as independent prognostic factors for breast cancer patients since uPA has a role in the progression and metastasis of the tumor. In addition, uPA and PAI-1 are also included in cell signaling and can affect migration, chemotaxis, adherence, cell growth, anoikis and survival. Moreover, uPA and/or PAI-1 can play a role in the physiological processes like blood clotting, wound healing, fibrinolysis, pregnancy, and tissue remodeling. Paradoxically, high protein levels of both these markers were related to high metastasis risk and poor PSF. In addition, uPA and PAI-1 are considered the best prognostic biomarkers for lymph node-negative breast cancer [23,29,104–107].

2.3.13 Mutation of p53

Tumor protein p53 is a tumor suppressor and plays an important role in the pathways of cellular stress response and regulation of the transcriptional programs which is important for suppressing the formation and progression of the tumor. The most common mutation of this gene involves the substitution of an arginine for a proline at codon position 72. The high rate of mutant p53 is related with cancer metastasis, tumor proliferation and early death in node-negative breast cancer. Tumors with mutant p53 was also related with

high local failure rate and poor response to systematic treatment such as tamoxifen [23,108–112].

2.3.14 Expression of topoisomerase II-alpha (topo II α)

Topoisomerase II-alpha (topo II α) is located adjacent to the HER2 oncogene at chromosome 17q12-q21 therefore it can predict HER-2 positive breast cancer, lymph node metastasis, and advanced stage of cancer. In addition, the status of topo II α gene in the primary breast cancer is correlated with its status in the metastases [23,113,114].

2.3.15 Proliferation markers

2.3.15.1 S-phase fraction (SPF)

It was shown that the SPF value can predict the proliferation of the tumor to metastasis. The high level of SPF is associated with larger tumor size, worse tumor grades and adversely with PFS and OS [23,115–120].

2.3.15.2 Thymidine labeling index (TLI) and mitotic activity index (MAI)

The high level of TLI is inversely correlates with the prognosis of node-negative tumors patients. In addition, low level of TLI in patients with early stage node positive breast cancer is associated with better survival. Moreover, when the value of MAI greater than 10 in patients with lymph node negative breast cancer, it is correlate with greater rate of recurrence and mortality [23,121–123].

2.3.15.3 Ki-67 nuclear antigen and proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA)

Ki-67 antigen is expressed in the nucleus of cycling cells and used as independent factor to measure the rate of proliferation. The high level of Ki-67 is associated with

overexpression of HER2/neu, more lymph node involvement and larger tumor size in patients with breast cancer. In addition, higher PCNA was correlated with shorter relapse free and OS [108,124–129].

2.3.16 Gene expression profiling

Because of the variation in the predictive markers of patient's outcome that determined by IHC, the analysis of gene patterns can be considered as an alternative method to define the treatment efficacy and its outcome. Assessment of gene array can be assessed by a DNA microarray, which can be best done on fresh frozen tissue. In addition, method of real-time reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) can be used to assess the pre-selected specific number of genes or confirm expression of selected genes. The pre-select gene arrays determine about 21 predefined genes (included in multigene array) to predict response and recurrence to hormonal and drug therapies. On the other hand, the risk groups in gene pattern array can be classified more by using DNA microarrays into different groups according to gene expression: luminal A, luminal B, normal-like (mainly ER positive), basal-like (mostly ER negative) and HER2 positive (Mostly ER negative). These subtypes showed different prognosis and response to treatment; however, basal-like, luminal B and HER2 positive group showed worse outcomes. In addition, a good signature of 70 genes are related with low risk of metastasis while a poor signature of 70 genes are related with high risk of metastasis [23,29,130].

2.4 Models of breast cancer

The metastasis nature of tumor cells was discovered during the period 1970s - 1980s by methods of “experimental metastasis” assays. Fidler et al. concluded that cells derived

from outgrowths of metastatic cells have a higher metastatic activity than cells derived from the original cell line according to study of injecting intravenous metastatic cultured B16 melanoma cells into mice. Weigelt et al. described three different models of MBC, which are the traditional metastasis process, new models of MBC and the integrative model of MBC [29,46].

The first model of MBC cascade suggests that MBC occurs as either most cells of primary tumor have a low metastatic activity but acquire metastatic activity through additional somatic mutations during later stages of tumorigenesis, or spontaneous metastasis (all cancer cells have the capacity to develop metastasis); or the subpopulation of metastatic cells grow rapidly in the primary tumor and these variants are unstable leading to dynamic equilibrium between generation and loss of metastasis variants (Dynamic heterogeneity model), or subclone of metastasis grow rapidly with the primary tumor (clonal dominance therapy); or susceptible cell's transfection in distant organs with dominant and plasma-circulating oncogenes that are derived from the primary tumor (genometastasis hypothesis). On the other hand, the traditional model of MBC displayed the genetic behavior of the original cells that seed the cancer can affect the ability of mouse mammary cancer cells to metastasis; therefore, these observations encourage the role of genetic make-up of host cells to metastasis [29,131–136].

The second model, which is a genetic expression analysis of breast cancer suggested that MBC can occur due to the ability of cancer cells to acquire metastasis during the early stages of tumorigenesis; or more tissue specific expression profile predicting the site of metastasis as lung, bone and liver; or metastasis cancer cells can occur separately from the primary cancer cells during the early stages of oncogenesis (parallel evolution

model); or only breast cancer stem cells have the ability to metastasis to distant areas of the body [21,29,132,137–141].

The third model of MBC, which is the integrative model, predicted that the accumulation of somatic mutation and factors of tumor microenvironment such as fibroblasts, ECM, inflammatory cells and blood vasculature can be responsible for metastasis of cancer. However, mutation can occur from non-metastatic breast cancer. Then, these mutations which occur at different stages of tumor differentiation can control the capacity of cancer to disseminate. Moreover, breast cancer cells may differ in their tendency to disseminate to a specific organ or tissue. Furthermore, the breast cancer stem cells would induce the formation of new blood vessels at the site of metastasis and also induce a stromal response similar to that of their primary breast cancer. This model is based on studies of the fibroblast serum-response signature and prognostic markers like uPA/PAI1 and gene expression profile [21,29,142–144]. Figure 2.3 shows different models of MBC occurrence.

2.5 Treatments of metastasis breast cancer

The goal of metastasis treatment is to prolong survival, palliate symptoms and delay progression of the disease [23,145]. Treatment of MBC varies with certain factors such as risk for toxicity, preferences of the patient, burden of the tumor, characterization of the tumor itself such as HER2 status and hormone receptor status, age, history of prior therapy, co-morbidities, degree of tumor related symptoms and metastasis sites. In fact, treatment of MBC can fall into three categories surgery, chemotherapy and hormonal therapy [146–148]. Combination of two or more regimens of MBC therapy can improve

the quality of life and decrease the side effects associated with using single treatment.

There are different types of MBC treatments:

2.5.1 Surgery

Surgery can precede either hormonotherapy or chemotherapy or follow induction therapy. It is one of the common treatment of MBC disease especially in nodal dissection for locoregional and sentinel lymph node cases. The use of surgery can vary according to the clinical situation and characteristics of the patient; therefore, it can be used as a single treatment or in combination with chemotherapy or hormonal therapy to enhance the efficiency of MBC treatment [149]. In addition, surgery can improve the overall survival and reduce breast cancer mortality by preventing the potentially disabling complications (medullary compression, pathologic fractures), resecting of metastases (lung, ovary, liver), providing a symptomatic treatment (infiltration of the chest wall, local recurrence, bone pain) and excluding of another tumor or non-tumor diseases [149–156]. On the other hand, surgery can cause an increase in the peripheral oxidative damage to macromolecules in the early postoperative period; therefore, perioperative antioxidant supplementation should be considered [157].

2.5.2 Radiation

Radiation therapy is used in breast cancer following the mastectomy and surgery. However, radiotherapy showed relapse about 7-12.6% among patients with five years [158]. In addition, resistance to this treatment can occur [159] and it is preferred to use combination of radiotherapy and hormonal treatment especially if the size of tumor is greater than 1 cm [160].

2.5.3 Hormonal Therapy

Hormonal or endocrinal therapy is an effective and a well-tolerated anti-cancer treatment. It is a systemic therapy and can be considered as the standard treatment in estrogen receptor positive tumors of the early and late stage of breast cancer [161]. Hormonal treatment is also used in order to minimize the toxicity associated with other treatments. In addition, it can be given pre-operatively (neoadjuvant) or post-operatively (adjuvant), or during the MBC disease setting (palliative treatment) [162,163]. However, sensitivity to hormonal treatment or resistant can occur among patients as side effects of this treatment [164,165].

2.5.3.1 Types of Hormonal Therapy

2.5.3.1.1 Ovarian Suppression

It is the first systemic therapy for any type of cancer and the oldest endocrinal therapy for hormone receptor-positive breast cancer that recently been replaced by ovarian irradiation. Ovarian Suppression is made by medical oophorectomy with the so-called luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LH-RH) analogues or agonists such as goserlin, leuprolide, buserelin and triptorelin [23,166]. Although, certain LH-RH receptors have been identified in breast cancer, LH-RH agonists alone did not diminish the recurrence or mortality. The uses of Ovarian suppression treatment is still controversially ; however, it is required in patients with MBC and receiving LH-RH agonist treatment and candidate for subsequently radiological or surgical ablation, as many subsequent therapy options involving aromatase inhibitors or subsequent second line treatment with aromatase inhibitors that need suppression of ovarian function [167,168].

2.5.3.1.2 Adrenalectomy and Hypophysectomy

Adrenalectomy and hypophysectomy surgery are considered the first line treatment in cases of postmenopausal women since adrenal gland is a source of steroid production in postmenopausal women. Both these treatments are used in the management of MBC but with limit effect on morbidity and mortality. Therefore, an advance stage of medical adrenalectomy is introduced. Glucocorticoids treatment (prednisone/prednisolone 5-10 mg) daily showed a low toxicity and response when used in the MBC treatment with moderate doses. Moreover, a major discovery had made with the introduction of aminoglutethimide, which is adrenal blocker as treatment of MBC. Aminoglutethimide, which is unsuccessful antiepileptic drug, shows great antitumor effects due to its ability to inhibit aromatase enzymes [169,170].

2.5.3.1.3 Aromatase Inhibitors

Aromatase inhibitors can inhibit aromatase enzymes that are responsible for the synthesis of estrogens from androgenic substrates produced by the adrenal glands and therefore aromatase inhibitors drugs are used in the MBC treatment. These drugs are divided into: type 1 or steroidal inhibitors like exemestane; and type 2 or non-steroidal inhibitors like anastrozole. Steroidal inhibitors are analogues of androstenedione and are irreversibly inhibitors of aromatase while non-steroidal inhibitors bind reversibly to the haem group of aromatase. Although the first generation aromatase inhibitor, which is aminoglutethimide can suppress the estrogen and inhibit only aromatase enzyme therefore, the levels of circulating androgen were found to be not affected due to suppression of estrogens. In addition, because of the side effects and inconvenience of parenteral administration of the

first generation, second and third generation of the aromatase inhibitors such as anastrozole, formestane and letrozole were developed [169,171,172]. Moreover, the third generation of aromatase inhibitors showed a greater response than tamoxifen treatment alone [173,174].

2.5.3.1.4 Selective Estrogen Receptor Modifier (SERMS) and Selective Estrogen Receptor Downregulators (SERDS)

Tamoxifen is the most known drug of SERMS due to its antitumor activity and low toxicity. This drug is used as first line treatment in premenopausal as well as postmenopausal women with MBC [166,175,176]. Tamoxifen can interact with follicular maturation in premenopausal women leading to increase the plasma levels of estradiol 2 to 3 fold. The regular dose of tamoxifen is 5 mg daily. Droloxifene and Toremifene with high dose are other drugs of SERMS group. They show lower antitumor activity in premenopausal women but similar antitumor activity in postmenopausal women compared with tamoxifen [177,178]. SERDS is a novel group of drugs and fulvestrant is an example of this category of drugs. Fulvestrant is different from other SERMS drug in lacking any estrogen agonist activity and having a unique chemical structure. In addition, fulvestrant works by two mechanisms downregulation of the receptor or blocking of the receptor. Moreover, fulvestrant with dose of 500 mg has great antitumor activity similar to tamoxifen; however, it is required to administer parenterally [179,180].

2.5.3.1.5 Additive Hormone Therapy

Different treatments at high doses such as estrogens, androgens and progestins can be used in MBC. Androgens were used in the treatment of breast cancer before nowadays

treatments since most breast cancer receptors express androgen receptors at a level greater than 10 fmol/mg. However, androgen treatment shows a low response rate and is also associated with side effects such as hirsutism [181–183]. Considering estrogen, it is used with higher doses (diethylstilbestrol 15 mg daily) in premenopausal and postmenopausal women with breast cancer. Estrogen can work as antitumor drug due to its high concentration that is greater than the optimal concentration for cell growth and showed similar antitumor activity similar to tamoxifen [184]. Although progestin can suppress the estrogens therefore used as antitumor treatment but is associated with weight gain as side effect of its treatment. Both megestrol acetate with dose of 160 mg daily and medroxyprogesterone acetate with dose of 1000 mg daily showed similar antitumor activity similar to tamoxifen and aminoglutethimide [185,186].

2.5.3.2 Premenopausal Women with MBC

Premenopausal women accounts about one third of MBC cases. In general, because most of these women have estrogen and progesterone positive, endocrine treatment with ovarian suppression or ablation should be used. There are many approaches used to suppress the ovarian function such as ovarian ablation (surgical or radiological); or using of LH-RH agonists; or tamoxifen; or inhibitors such as hydrocortisone and aminoglutetamide; or additive such as glucocorticoids, androgens, estrogen and progestin [23,175]. However, tamoxifen combination with LH-RH treatment showed greater antitumor than using tamoxifen or LH-RH agonists treatment alone. Although, using of aromatase inhibitors is contraindicated in premenopausal women, aromatase inhibitors can be combined with ovarian ablation treatment. Furthermore, there is very limit data on using fulvestrant in premenopausal women [166,187].

2.5.3.3 Postmenopausal Women with MBC

Aromatase inhibitors either as monotherapy or in combination with tamoxifen can be considered as first line treatment of MBC among postmenopausal women with hormone receptor positive due to their high efficacy and low toxicity [164,188–190]. If relapse occurs within the treatment or below one year, therefore patients may be sensitive to this treatment. On the other hand, if relapse occurs after one year of the treatment, aromatase inhibitors or tamoxifen can be used as single treatment. In addition, fulvestrant which is a natural, selective estrogen receptor modifier (SERM) and estrogen blocker therefore it can also be used in the treatment MBC patients. In fact, fulvestrant is the drug of choice in MBC with patients resistant to aromatase inhibitors or tamoxifen and showed similar antitumor efficacy similar to aromatase inhibitors and tamoxifen [191,192]. Moreover, estrogen with high doses can be used in the treatment of MBC in combination with Fulvestrant and the side effects are acceptable [193].

2.5.4 Chemotherapy

The uses of chemotherapy treatment vary according to different cases of MBC. Chemotherapy is considered as the first choice of MBC treatment in women who rapidly develop progressive visceral metastasis chemotherapy and having symptomatic or having hormone receptor negative disease or having cancer resistant to endocrine therapy. In addition, chemotherapy is used as adjuvant treatment in patients with MBC who received local treatment and were at high risk of relapse it is more benefit in node positive patients than node negative patients were. However, systemic chemotherapy showed less impact with the age, severe side effects (nausea and vomiting), poor response and overall not

improve the survival benefits of patients. Cytotoxic drug can be administrated systemically (orally or intravenously) to kill cancer cells [194–197].

2.5.4.1. Common Chemotherapeutic Agents used in the Treatment of MBC

2.5.4.1.1 Anthracyclines

These drugs are the most common antitumor antibiotics used in the management of MBC. Epirubicin and doxorubicin antibiotics are examples of anthracyclines. They can work by different mechanisms such as impairing replication of DNA and mitochondrial function, generating oxygen free radicals, activating of apoptosis and matrix metalloproteinase as well as immune reactions [23,198]. About 30-40% of MBC patients with anthracycline treatment showed response of survival within 22 months [5]. The regimens containing anthracycline is better than regimens containing no anthracycline in time to progression but was associated with greater toxicity and there was no improvement in OS. The most common combinations of anthracyclines are CAF/CEF (cyclophosphamide 5-fluororacil plus epirubicin or doxorubicin) or AC/EC (doxorubicin/epirubicin plus cyclophosphamide). In addition, Myocet (liposome encapsulated doxorubicin) 75 mg/m² every 3 weeks has shown to be less cardiotoxic and effective to the tradition doxorubicin in MBC [23]. The use of anthracycline is limited because they are associated with acute toxicity such as myelotoxicity, alopecia, nausea and vomiting and also due to their dose-dependent and irreversible cardio toxicity that is over 1000 mg/m² in case of epirubicin or 450 mg/m² in case of doxorubicin [198–200]. The combination of trastuzumab concurrently with anthracycline is a safe adjuvant regimen for breast cancer and does not increase cardiac events [201].

2.5.4.1.2 Taxanes

These drugs are microtubule inhibitors that inhibit tumor angiogenesis and are considered as the first line treatment in patients who resistant to anthracycline or cannot receive more anthracycline treatment. Docetaxel and paclitaxel are examples of taxanes, which showed high response rate in anthracycline resistant MBC cases [202,203]. Taxanes can be used as single agent or in combination with other treatments like the combination of anthracycline with taxanes that improve the quality of life better than anthracycline or taxanes treatment alone [23,204]. In addition, combination of taxanes plus biological drugs such as trastuzumab, trastuzumab showed improvement in overall survival in patients with MBC [205]. Moreover, combination of docetaxel plus thiotepa showed response that is more effective and less adverse effects in the treatment of MBC and can consider as an effective rescue and economical plan [206]. Furthermore, combination of lapatinib with docetaxel and trastuzumab can used as a first-line treatment of HER2-positive MBC [207]. However, dose limiting and neuropathy are common side effect of taxanes therapy, which can be managed by delays and reductions of the dose [202].

2.5.4.1.3 Capecitabine

Capecitabine treatment is used in patients with disease resistant to anthracycline or taxanes treatment [208,209]. It is used as oral prodrug to generate 5FU in tumor tissue through activation pathway of thymidine phosphorylase. The oral solution of capecitabine was prepared to be similar to continuous infusion of 5FU [210–212]. Capecitabine therapy showed 15-26% response rate with a dose of 1250 mg/m² twice daily for 14 days [23]. The most common adverse effects of capecitabine therapy are

nausea, hand-foot syndrome, diarrhea and in very rare cases alopecia and Myelosuppression [212–214]. Capecitabine has more toxic effects than gemcitabine and vinorelbine treatment, so it is not prefer to use alone [215]. Therefore, the combination of cpecitabine with other chemotherapy is used to prolong the duration of treatment, improve the efficacy, decrease the side effects and maintain the therapy for patients with MBC [212–214,216]. Cabazitaxel or docetaxel plus capecitabine combination can be used to improve survival in patients with MBC recurring after anthracycline treatment than docetaxel treatment alone [23,217]. Moreover, capecitabine plus trastuzumab combination treatment showed great effects when used as first or second line treatment in HER2 overexpressing MBC cases [218].

2.5.4.1.4 Gemcitabine

It is a deoxycytidine-analogue antimetabolite and a nucleotide analogue that inhibits the synthesis of DNA [23,204,219–221]. This drug is well tolerated in elderly patients. In addition, it is related with low incidence of alopecia, nausea and vomiting and the most common dose-limiting toxicities are thrombocytopenia and neutropenia [23]. Great efficacy, pharmacodynamics and limited toxicity of gemcitabine make it an ideal agent for polychemotherapy combinations, specifically with vinorelbine, taxanes and platinum derivates [220]. Gemcitabine plus paclitaxel combination showed 68% in overall response when used as first line treatment and as 48% when used as second line treatment [23,222]. In addition, gemcitabine plus transarterial chemoembolization can be used in the treatment of liver metastasis of breast cancer [223]. Moreover, Gemcitabine can be used with bisphosphonate in the treatment of bone metastases of breast cancer [224]. Furthermore, low dose of gemcitabine plus cisplatin combination weekly showed

efficacy and safety in the treatment of strongly pretreated MBC patients resistant to taxanes and anthracyclines treatments [225–228] and treatment of brain metastasis of breast cancer [229].

2.5.4.1.5 Vinorelbine

It is a semisynthetic and third generation of vinca alkaloid [230]. It is safe and can be used alone or in combination with other drugs in the treatment of MBC [231–233]. The oral dosage form of vinorelbine can be used alternatively to intravenous form in MBC treatment [234–236]. Vinorelbine treatment showed 35-50% response when used as first line treatment of MBC; however, their main adverse effects are superficial phlebitis, peripheral neuropathy, neutropenia, myelosuppression, leukopenia and gastrointestinal toxicities [237]. Vinorelbine plus epirubicin showed higher response rate (RR) and PFS but not OS [23]. The combination of oral vinflunine plus capecitabine treatment showed safe response and good anti-tumor activity in HER2/Neu-negative MBC patients who have failed to anthracyclines and taxanes [230,238–246]. Moreover, vinorelbine plus gemcitabine combination showed better progression free survival compared with vinorelbine treatment alone [247]. Furthermore, low dose of oral vinorelbine plus temozolomide combination showed safe and effective effects in the treatment of brain metastasis of breast cancer [248].

2.5.4.1.6 Carboplatin

It is an alkylating agent or platinum compound used in the management of MBC that failed to response to other treatments. Carboplatin treatment can produce 20-35% of objective response rate (ORR) [249]. Combination of Carboplatin to docetaxel/paclitaxel

showed higher efficacy than Carboplatin or taxane treatment alone. This combination showed higher efficacy in treating breast cancer that metastasis to brain tumor [250–254]. In addition, combination of carboplatin plus trastuzumab/paclitaxel treatment showed superior efficacy for patients with HER2 positive MBC than using trastuzumab/paclitaxel alone [255]. Moreover, the combination of carboplatin with gemcitabine showed an effective treatment option for pretreated MBC patients [249,256,257].

2.5.5. Immune Therapy

In most cancers, the immune microenvironment is a balance of immune cells between mediating and preventing the destruction of tissue. Type I immunity such as CD4⁺ T cells that secrete cytokines like TNF- α , IFN- γ and CD8⁺ and interleukin (IL)-2 cytotoxic T cells support the destruction of tissue environment. The IL-2 activation of T-cells induces a regression of MBC in renal cancer and melanoma. In addition, the abundance of tumor-infiltrating leukocytes, CD3⁺ and CD8⁺ T lymphocytes have been related with PSF and OS of breast cancer patients. Three immune metagenes that represent the tumor-infiltrating populations and strongly associated with high survival of MBC patients are (1) B cells/plasma B cells determined by the high expression of IgG antibody isotype-related genes, (2) a monocyte/dendritic cell population determined by the expression of myeloid specific markers and a host of major histocompatibility complex class II antigen-presenting molecules and (3) T cell/natural killer cell-specific population determined similarly. Furthermore, signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (Stat3) controls genes that are involved in cell proliferation and in the production of angiogenic and antiapoptotic factors. Consequently, ablating Stat3 signaling in breast cancer cells may represent an effective approach to immunotherapy of breast cancer growth and metastasis

that can result in induction of a cellular senescence program. However, such approach requires extensive immunotherapy research. On the other hand, type II immune system composed of CD4⁺ T cells that secrete cytokines like IL-4, IL-6 and IL-10 which in turn decrease the acute inflammatory response and prevent the proliferation of cytotoxic T cells. Moreover, CD4⁺ T cells showed a strong relationship with the progression of the tumor and tumor-specific CD8⁺ T cells. It was shown that mutation in cytotoxic T cell epitopes within the tumor antigen resulted in the progression of the tumor. An interesting multipronged approach to cancer treatment combines NK cell and cytotoxic T cells-based autologous immune enhancement therapy (AIET) with conventional approaches of treatments such as surgery, chemotherapy and radiotherapy as well as other modalities like hyperthermia, proton beam therapy and also low dose chemotherapy. It seems that such complex approach can be effective in advanced cancers which are refractory to conventional simpler therapeutic approaches. Furthermore, treatment of breast cancer with biologic drugs can induce type I immunity microenvironment and improve the therapy or decrease the recurrence of breast cancer [258–262].

2.5.6 Gene Therapy

Genes that control metastasis of the cancer is divided into two groups: metastasis suppressor genes (MSGs) and metastasis promoter genes (MPGs). The normal function of MSGs is preventing cells from divisions or proliferation and inhibiting the spread and growth of cancer while MPGs do the opposite. In addition, the concept of metastasis related gene is known in 1970, but the search of MSGs started in the mid-1980. Since MBC is cascade of signals, targeting these signals of genes can potentially help to improve MBC therapy [23].

2.5.6.1 Targeting EGFR Family

The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) is a transmembrane tyrosine kinase receptor which triggers the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K/Akt) pathway on activation. EGFR is also a member of the HER family that is membrane-bound receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) and composed of four structurally related receptors: EGFR, HER2, HER3/ErbB3, and HER4/ErbB4. EGFR has the ability to stimulate motility, proliferation of cells, angiogenesis and metastasis of breast cancer. About 50% – 75% of breast cancer cells and about 45% of MBC patients have been shown to be EGFR positive resulting in more aggressive tumor than cells lacking this factor. Consequently, inhibitors of EGFR (antibodies or small molecules) can be used in the treatment of MBC [51,263–270].

2.5.6.1.1 EGFR Inhibitors

2.5.6.1.1.1 Cetuximab

Cetuximab is a chimeric anti-EGFR monoclonal antibody. HER1 receptor has a role in mediated cell signaling which is related to proliferation of the tumor, angiogenesis, metastasis, and apoptosis. In addition, overexpression of HER1 receptor and its ligand is noticed in multiple human malignancies such as lung cancer, pancreatic cancer, colorectal cancer and breast cancer. Cetuximab has a synergistic effect with radiotherapy and chemotherapy and can be used in the treatment of triple negative breast cancer cells that are overexpressed EGFR. In addition, weekly combination of cetuximab with taxane can be used for patients with triple negative breast cancer [271–276].

2.5.6.1.1.2 Gefitinib

Gefitinib represents a small molecule that irreversibly inhibit EGFR receptor (tyrosine kinase inhibitor) [246, 247]. The major problems associated with gefitinib treatment are the development of resistance. Combination of gefitinib with other drugs is used to overcome this problem [264]. Gefitinib can be used in HER2 MBC patients in combination with trastuzumab and docetaxel to reduce the resistance and overcome toxicities associated with trastuzumab and docetaxel [277].

2.5.6.1.1.3 Vandetanib

Vandetanib is an oral active antagonist of epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR or ErbB1 or HER1), vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-2 (VEGFR-2), and RET kinase. Vandetanib can be used in the treatment of thyroid cancer, prostate cancer, non-small cell lung cancer, breast cancer and colorectal cancer. This drug received its first global approval for the treatment of metastatic medullary thyroid cancer in the USA on 6 April 2011. In MBC, vandetanib with docetaxel combination showed greater efficacy than placebo combined with docetaxel only. However vandetanib with 100 or 300 mg/day did not show a good response in the treatment of patients with previously treated MBC. Diarrhea, nausea, fatigue, abnormal hepatic function and hyperglycemia are side effects associated with using vandetanib therapy in breast cancer [278–280].

2.5.6.1.1.4 Erlotinib

Erlotinib is an oral and potent EGFR inhibitor. It is used for the treatment of pancreatic cancer and non-small cell lung cancer. However, it showed less activity in MBC women therapy. In addition, using erlotinib can with bendamustine in metastatic triple negative

breast cancer produced prolonged and severe lymphopenia. Furthermore, combination of erlotinib with docetaxel/capecitabine can be used in MBC treatment [281–284].

2.5.6.1.2 HER2 Inhibitors

2.5.6.1.2.1 Trastuzumab

It is a humanized monoclonal antibody directed against HER2 glycoprotein (anti-HER2/neu treatment). HER2 is overexpressed in 20-25% of human breast cancers leading to increase the aggressiveness of the tumor and decrease OS. Trastuzumab showed about 35% of response in the treatment of MBC [127, 267–270]. In addition, trastuzumab recently have been used alone or in combination with chemotherapy in the treatment of MBC in patients that overexpress HER2 protein consequently. Trastuzumab showed a good effect in women with HER2/neu-positive disease compared with women with HER2/neu-negative disease [269, 271–278]. Trastuzumab plus paclitaxel combination showed higher TTP, RR and OS in MBC patients pretreated with an anthracycline [297]. In addition, combination of trastuzumab and docetaxel can be used for treating patients with HER2 positive or HER2– overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. This combination showed good results in fields with little additional toxicity, time to treatment failure, time to progression, rate and duration's response and overall survival [298,299]. Moreover, combination of trastuzumab with other cytotoxic agents such as anthracycline, carboplatin, taxanes, vinorelbine and gemcitabine were effective when used as first or second line treatment especially in HER2 positive MBC patients [153,201,300–304].

2.5.6.1.2.2 Ado-trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1)

Ado-trastuzumab emtansine is a conjugate of the antibody (trastuzumab) with the drug (emtansine, anti-microtubule agent). Trastuzumab considered the backbone that attached to emtansine by stable linker to deliver chemotherapy agent to cancerous tissues that are overexpressed HER2 without adversely side effects on normal cells. T-DM1 has the ability to combine the cytotoxic effects of emtansine with the antitumor activity of trastuzumab (HER2 inhibitor). In addition, T-DM1 has been shown to improve PFS and OS in Her2 positive MBC. Moreover, T-DM1 can be used effectively in treatment of HER2-positive MBC patients that are previously received trastuzumab, taxane and lapatinib. Cardiotoxicity, thrombocytopenia and increased liver enzymes are the main adverse side effects associated with T-DM1 [305–309].

2.5.6.1.2.3 Pertuzumab

Pertuzumab is a humanized monoclonal antibody that block the dimerization of HER receptors leading to decrease the intracellular signaling of HER2 receptor. Pertuzumab is different from trastuzumab in that it binds to a different domain of HER2. Pertuzumab is used alone or in combination with trastuzumab and docetaxel in the treatment of HER2 MBC patients and showed prolonged PFS and improved OS. Furthermore, Pertuzumab showed acceptable tolerability and no evidence of increasing the risk of cardiotoxicity [310–317].

2.5.6.1.2.4 Ertumaxomab

Ertumaxomab represents a monoclonal antibody targeting HER2/neu and CD3 on T cells. It is able to stimulate the recognition and destruction of cancer cells by different

immunologic mechanisms such as dendritic cells (DC), dendritic cell cytokine 1 (DC-CK1), leukocyte function associated antigen (LFA), antibody-dependent cellular cytotoxicity (ADCC) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and cluster of differentiation (CD). Ertumaxomab in the treatment of breast cancer showed a strong immunologic response. The most common adverse effects of ertumaxomab are vomiting, fever, elevated liver enzymes and lymphocytopenia [288,318–320].

2.5.6.1.3 Dual inhibitors of EGFR and HER2

2.5.6.1.3.1 Lapatinib

Lapatinib is an oral inhibitor for both HER2 and EGFR1. It can be used alone or in combination with other pharmaceuticals in the treatment of HER2 positive MBC [265,288,321–323]. The combination of lapatinib with carboplatin represents an effective therapy for brain metastasis of HER2-positive breast cancer and especially for cases when trastuzumab has no effect [324]. Combination of lapatinib with capecitabine is more effective in patients, who received less than two regimens for metastatic breast cancer and are naive to capecitabine [325–330]. The oral combination of these therapies can be used in HER2 positive metastatic brain cancer form [327,331]. Moreover, the combination of lapatinib plus vinorelbine showed moderate efficacy among treated before MBC patients with overexpression of HER2 [332,333]. Furthermore, combination of lapatinib plus trastuzumab showed higher efficacy especially in metastasis brain cancer when compared with a single treatment alone [287,334].

2.5.6.1.4 Inhibitors of more than one receptor of EGFR family

2.5.6.1.4.1 Neratinib

Neratinib is an irreversible pan-tyrosine kinase inhibitor and that also demonstrates the activity against HER1, HER2, and HER4. Neratinib is a low molecular weight, orally administrated antitumor drug that used in patients with advanced HER2-positive breast cancer which early have been exposed to trastuzumab or are resistant to EGFR inhibitors. The most common adverse effects associated with neratinib treatment alone are nausea, diarrhea, vomiting and fatigue [288,335–337]. Neratinib is about 12- to 16-fold more potent than lapatinib in inhibiting proliferation of HER2 positive breast cancer cells [336]. Combination of neratinib with vinorelbine showed a great antitumor activity in HER2-positive MBC patients [231].

2.5.6.1.4.2 Afatinib

Afatinib is an oral, small molecule anilinoquinazoline compound which is highly selective inhibitor of EGFR/HER1, HER2, and HER4 tyrosine kinase activity. This drug can be used alone or in combination with other treatment in HER2 positive breast cancer. However, it demonstrates a limited effect in HER2 negative breast cancer patients. Afatinib can be combined with vinorelbine or trastuzumab in the treatment of HER2 positive MBC. Moreover, afatinib can be added to the standard neoadjuvant therapy that includes anthracycline/taxane and trastuzumab the treatment of HER2-positive operable or locally advanced breast cancer. The adverse effects of afatinib is mainly associated with gastrointestinal toxicities [288,338–341].

2.5.6.2 Targeting Metastasis and Invasion

2.5.6.2.1 Inhibition of the uPA system

uPA and its receptor uPAR have a role in the angiogenesis, invasion and metastasis of the tumor. uPA is a member of the serine protease family which catalyzes the conversion of inactive zymogen plasminogen to its active form plasmin. When uPAR stimulate direct plasmin mediated proteolysis, the plasmin degrades most components of the ECM like fibronectin, laminin, and collagen that are produced by tumor surrounding stroma and tumor cells. Binding of uPA to its receptor stimulates activation of other proteinases like metalloproteinases (MMPs). Moreover, uPA is associated with chemotaxis, cell proliferation, and angiogenesis elevated in malignant tumor. Therefore, inhibition of uPA and its receptor uPAR represents an attractive approach for MBC treatment. The drug candidate WX-UK1 is a 3-amidinophenylalanine-based inhibitor of the uPA system that is used to inhibit the metastasis capacity of tumor cells in vitro. Combination of WX-UK1 with capecitabine can also be used in MBC treatment [107,342–345].

2.5.6.2.2 Matrix Metalloproteinases (MMPs) Inhibitors

Matrix Metalloproteinases (MMPs) especially MMP-2 and MMP-9 have been involved in several types of cancer and their metastasis such as ovarian, colorectal, ovarian and breast cancers. High MMPs content in the model of human osteosarcoma cell destroy ECM; therefore the level of MMPs is related with metastasis of the tumor. In addition, MMPs stimulate the migration of endothelial cells and facilitate the formation of new blood vessels. Moreover, MMPs showed strong correlation with u-PA and negative correlation between u-PA/MMPs with inhibitors of metalloproteinases (TIMPs). BAY

12-9566 is an inhibitor of MMP-2, MMP-9 and MMP-3 showed no musculoskeletal effects and well tolerated in patients with solid cancer. In addition, combination of BAY 12-9566 with etoposide, doxorubicin, carboplatin, 5-fluorouracil and leucovorin can be used in cancer therapy. Moreover, other MMP inhibitors, such as marimastat, solimastat, metastat, prinomastat, BMS 275291 and neovastat are currently under the clinical trials [342,346–350]. Fig. 2.4 shows the role of MMPs in carcinogenesis.

2.5.6.3 Histone Deacetylase Inhibitors (HDACi)

Histone acetyl transferases (HATs) and histone deacetylases (HDACs) play an important role in maintaining the balance between the acetylated and deacetylated states of histones, gene expression and modification of chromatin structure. In addition, inactivation of HATs is related with tumorigenesis. Histone deacetylase inhibitors (HDACi) are new class of anticancer agents that stimulate differentiation/apoptosis and inhibit the proliferation of cancer cells by inhibiting the function of HDACs. HDACi sensitizes tumor cells to topoisomerase inhibitors by increasing their access and binding to DNA. In addition, HDACi have been related with a transcriptional down regulation of ER in ER positive tumor cells. The combination of HDACi vorinostat with doxorubicin showed a significant antitumor activity in prostate, melanoma, and breast cancer. Furthermore, combination of another HDACi - valporic acid, with epirubicin improved their antitumor activity in patients pre-treated with anthracyclines [342,351–353].

2.5.6.4 Insulin-like Growth Factor Inhibitors (IGF-IR)

Insulin-like Growth Factor Inhibitors (IGF-IR) plays a major role in the proliferation and metastasis in different types of cancer like pancreatic, colon, prostate, and breast cancer.

IGF-IR consists of an intracellular β subunit responsible for signal transduction and an extracellular α ligand-binding subunit and binds to IGF-1 and IGF-2 ligand-activated IGF-IR. High levels of IGF-I are strongly related with high risk of breast cancer. The overexpression of IGF-I leads to improved survival, proliferation signals for the breast tumor and develop resistance to cancer treatment. In contrast to normal tissues, IGF-IR is overexpressed in about 50% of primary breast cancer tissues. Therefore, inactivation of IGF-IR results in decreased growth and metastasis of breast tumor *in vivo*. IMC-A12 is a human monoclonal antibodies that bind with high affinity to IGF-IR and prevent the activation of ligand dependent receptor and downstream signaling. BMS-554417 is novel IGF-IR that has a pronounced proapoptotic and antiproliferative activity *in vitro* and *in vivo*. In addition, IGF-IR can be used in the treatment of breast cancer in combination with cytotoxic drugs (e.g. aromatase drugs) or hormonal treatment. Furthermore, IGF-IR can be used in combination with EGRF inhibitors like leptin, lapatinib and erlotinib to improve treatment of MBC [342,354–358].

2.5.6.5. Targeting Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Family (VEGF)

The vascular endothelial growth factor is a potent inducer of cell invasion, migration, vascular permeability and vessel formation. There are five glycoproteins VEGFA, VEGFB, VEGFD and placental growth factor that act by three receptor tyrosine kinases VEGFR-1, VEGFR-2 and VEGFR-3 [342]. Consequently, drugs targeted VEGF can potentially be used for treatment of different cancers including the MBC.

3 SPECIFIC AIMS

Specific Aim 1: To determine the ability of lipoplex (liposome with siRNA) to penetrate breast cancer cells (MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7) *in vitro*

The ability of lipoplex penetration inside breast cancer cells should be determined to ensure the possibility of using it as co-treatment or in formulation with chemotherapeutic drug.

Specific Aim 2: To determine the efficacy of EGFR-targeted siRNA delivered by liposomes with gefitinib for treating triple negative breast cancer (TNBC).

Triple negative breast cancer cells (TNBCs) have resistance to chemotherapeutic drugs such as gefitinib. Therefore, using lipoplex (siRNA targeted to EGFR) can help in improve the efficacy of gefitinib. Suppression of EGFR expression by siRNA targeted to EGFR delivered by liposomes can effectively help to suppress resistance of TNBC cells to gefitinib and improve the breast cancer therapy.

4 MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1 Materials

DOPC (1,2-Dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine), DOPE (1,2-Dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine) and DOTAP (1,2-di-(9Z-octadecenoyl)-3-trimethylammonium-propane (chloride salt)) were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids, (Alabaster, Alabama), Fetal bovine serum (FBS) was purchased from Sigma- Aldrich (Louis, MO), DPBS was purchased from Lonza (Allendale, NJ), Trypsin, Streptomycin and Penicillin were

purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA), SYBR® green PCR master was purchased from Applied Biosystems (Warrington, UK). The sequence of siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA (custom synthesized by Life Technology, Carlsbad, CA) was 5'-CACAGUGGAGCGAAUCCUtt-3' (sense strand) and antisense 5'-AGGAAUUCGCUCCACUGUCtt-3' (antisense strand). ACTB and GAPDH genes were purchased from Qiagen (Valencia, CA).

4.2 Cell Lines

MDA-MB-231 and MCF-7 cell lines were purchased from the ATCC (Manassas, VA). Cells were cultured according to the method provided by ATCC [359]. Briefly, MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). In both cases, media contained L-Glutamine (Lonza, Allendale, NJ) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Fisher Chemicals, Fairlawn, NJ), 6 ml of antibiotics (100 µg/ml streptomycin and 100 U/ml penicillin G, Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and 12 ml of sodium bicarbonate (Fisher Chemicals, Fairlawn, NJ). Cells were grown at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ (v/v) in air. The culture medium was changed every other day.

4.3 Liposome Preparation and Characterization

4.3.1 Liposome Preparation

PEGylated liposomes were prepared using the procedure published in [10, 15, 125, 126]. Briefly, lipids: EPC, Cholesterol and 1,2-distearoyl-sn-glycero-3- phosphoethanolamine-N-aminopolyethelenglycol – Mw - 2000 ammonium salt (DSPE-PEG) were dissolved in chloroform, evaporated to a thin film layer using rotary evaporator Rotavapor® R-

210/R-215 (BUCHI Corp., New Castle, DE, USA) and rehydrated with 0.9 % NaCl to final lipid concentration 20 mM. In order to prepare fluorescently labeled liposomes, 5 mg of EPC labeled with Rhodamine were added to the lipids mixture. The lipid mole ratio for this formulation was 51:44:5 EPC: Chol: DSPE-PEG respectively. Liposomes were stored at room temperature for an hour followed by extrusion through polycarbonate membranes 200 nm and 100 nm using the extruder device (Northern Lipids Inc., Vancouver, BC, Canada). Liposomal formulation of Gefitinib was performed using a mixture of egg phosphatidylcholin (EPC), cholesterol, 1,2,-distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-N- aminopolyethelenglycol – Mw - 2000 ammonium salt (mPEG-DSPE) in mole ratio 55/40/5 mol/mol respectively, and gefitinib at a lipid to drug weight ratio of 20:1 were dissolved in chloroform and subsequently evaporated at 35°C to form a thin film using rotary evaporator Rotavapor[®] R-210/R-215 (BUCHI Corp., New Castle, DE, USA). The resulting lipid film was rehydrated with PBS (pH 7.4) at room temperature and stored an hour followed by extrusion through polycarbonate membranes 200 nm and 100 nm using the extruder device (Northern Lipids Inc., Vancouver, BC, Canada). siRNA possess negative charges requiring positively charged (cationic) liposomes to form stable complexes. Cationic liposomes were prepared from positively charged DOTAP at concentration 5 mg/mL using thin layer procedure as previously described [10, 15], followed by extrusion through 100 nm polycarbonate membrane. The siRNA was dissolved in RNase free water at a concentration of 400 µM. To this solution, appropriate volume of DOTAP (5 mg/mL) was added, mixed by pipette and incubated for 30 min at room temperature. The molar ratio of siRNA/DOTAP was ~1:100. Resulting siRNA-cationic liposome complex was used in the studies. siGLO

Green was dissolved in RNase free solution to the final concentration of 200 μ M. DOTAP liposomes were mixed with siGLO in the ration 6:1v/v and incubated at room temperature for 15 min before use. Mean DOTAP/siGLO complex size was around 200 nm.

4.3.2 Liposome Particle Size Measurement

Particle size distribution was determined by dynamic light-scattering (DLS) at room temperature) using 90 Plus Particle Sizer Analyzer (Brookhaven Instruments Corp., New York, NY).

4.3.3 Zeta Potential Measurement

Zeta potential was determined on PALS Zeta Potential Analyzer (Brookhaven Instruments Corp, New York, NY) [123]. It measures the electrophoretic mobility that reflects the electric charge on the particle surface. The strength of the applied field was 20 V cm^{-1} and zeta potential values were recorded automatically by Zetasizer. All measurements were done in triplicate, and average values were calculated.

4.4 Cellular Internalization (Microscopic Technique)

MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7 cells were plated with density of 2×10^3 cells/well in 6 well tissue culture plate for 24 hours. Then the media was removed and replaced by liposome-siRNA complex solution (the concentration of the liposome-fluoresence was 10 mg/ml and the concentration of siGLO was 20 μ M and incubated for 24 hours. Then, the treatment was removed and washed with PBS buffer for 2-3 times and incubated with fluorescence stain DAPI (4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) 1:10000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad,

CA) for 20 minutes. Later, the cells were washed with PBS buffer for 5 times, 1 ml of media was added to each well. Cellular internalization of siRNA-liposome complexes were analyzed by fluorescence (Olympus America Inc., Melville, NY) microscope. The resulted fluorescent images were digitally scanned and fluoresce inside cells (that reflect cellular accumulation of labeled siRNA) was expressed determined in arbitrary units.

4.5 Cytotoxicity Assay

A modified MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide) assay was used to assess the cytotoxicity of different formulations of gefitinib, siRNA, liposome and lipoplex (liposomal formulation of siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA). To measure cytotoxicity, human breast cancer (MCF-7 and MDA-MB231) cells were separately incubated in 96 microtiter plate at 37 °C in an incubator with different concentrations of each formulation. Control cells received an equivalent volume of fresh medium. The duration of incubation was 24 hours. After that, MTT reagent was added to each well and incubated for 3 hours. Then, the solubilization solution was added later and incubated overnight. An equivalent volume of fresh medium was added to the control cells. Absorbance was recorded on a microplate reader at 570 nm wavelength. The relative cell viability (%) was expressed as a percentage relative to the untreated control cells. A decrease in cellular viability and a decrease in the IC₅₀ dose indicated a high toxicity.

4.6 RNA Extraction

MDA-MB231 and MCF-7 cell lines were grown on media containing flasks. Total RNA was extracted from confluent cells using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA).

The concentration and quantity of RNA were assessed using absorbance multi-mode microplate reader (Tecan Trading AG, Switzerland) with the absorbance of 260 nm. Then, the RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, UK). Three cDNA samples from separate RNA extraction were used for each cell line.

4.7 Gene Expression (Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction)

The mRNA was reversed transcribed with High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, UK). Quantitative RT-PCR was performed with an Applied Biosystems StepOne™ Real Time PCR system and SYBR master mix (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, UK). All samples were run in triplicate. The amplification was done as following: an initial step at 95°C for 10 minutes, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 seconds and 60°C for 60 seconds. The $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method was used to calculate the amount of gene expression. EGFR mRNA expression was normalized to the parallel measured endogenous controls ACTB and GAPDH in each cell line. The comparative Ct method was used to calculate the relative amounts of mRNA.

4.8 Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using appropriate a paired Student's t test or single –factor analysis of variance (ANOVA), and shown as mean values \pm standard deviation (SD). The difference between variants was considered significant if $P < 0.05$.

5 RESULTS

5.1 Cellular Internalization of Liposomes

In the fluorescence microscope, siRNA (siGLO, red fluorescence) and liposomes (green fluorescence) were efficiently internalized into MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7 cell lines. The quantitative evaluation of liposome internalization efficiency was based on the emission intensity. The nuclei of the cells were stained with DAPI (blue fluorescence). Figure 5.1 shows the superimposition of images (yellow fluorescence) allows for detecting of cytoplasmic localization of both siRNA and liposomes as well as enhances the ability of siRNA and liposomes to internalize the cells.

5.2 EGFR mRNA Expression by Real-Time Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-QPCR)

It was found that the expression of EGFR mRNA in MDA-MB 231 cells was more than 45 times higher when compared with MCF-7 cells (Figure 5.2A). Treatment of MDA-MB 231 cells with liposomes containing siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA significantly suppressed the expression of this gene (Figure 5.2B).

5.3 Cytotoxicity Assay

MDA-231 and MCF-7 cells were incubated for 24 hours with different formulations (Liposomes Neutral, liposomes Cationic, naked siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA, free Gefitinib, liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA, liposomal Gefitinib, liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA + Liposomal Gefitinib). Figure 5.3 shows the cytotoxicity of these formulations on viability of MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7 cells. A and

C showed cytotoxicity formulations that not contain gefitinib while B and D showed the cytotoxicity of formulations containing gefitinib for both types of cells (MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7).

6 DISCUSSIONS

Breast cancer is the most malignant disease among women. Over expression proteins of epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) family is strongly associated with the severity of breast cancer. About 20-70% of EGFR is over expressed in breast cancer. Gefitinib is a drug approved by FDA for treating non-small lung cancer with EGFR mutation [360].

Results from cellular internalization of liposomes showed a great internalization of liposomes-siRNA inside the cells of MDA-Mb 231 and MCF-7 breast cells lines that improve the idea of the liposome ability to penetrate cancer cells. EGFR gene expression in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cells showed higher gene expression in MDA-MB 231 cell line than MCF-7. In addition, the level of gene expression of MDA-MB 231 cells lines was lower followin the treatment (lipoplex) than the control (untreated cells).

Moreover, data from *in vitro* cytotoxicity showed the variability of MDA-MB 231 and MCF-7 human breast cancer cell lines that incubated with 24 hours with different formulations: control (fresh media), liposomes neutral, liposomes cationic, naked siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA, free gefitinib, liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA, liposomal gefitinib and liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA with liposomal gefitinib. Free drug demonstrated the ability to kill both types of cancer cells. Nevertheless, toxicity of gefitinib in TNBC was 2.5 times lower when compared with

EPBC cells. The delivery of the drug by liposomes significantly enhanced its toxicity (1.2 and 2.5 times in EPBC and TNBC, respectively). The combination of liposomal siRNA and liposomal gefitinib demonstrated exceptionally high cytotoxicity when compared with the free drug (143 and 62 times higher in EPBC and TNBC, respectively).

7 CONCLUSIONS

First, liposomes effectively delivered siRNA into both types of breast cancer cells: MCF-7 (estrogen positive, EPBC and MDA-MB 231(Triple Negative, TNBC). Second, siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA delivered by liposomes successfully suppressed the expression of EGFR gene in the Triple Negative MDA-MB 231 breast cancer cells. Third, suppression of EGFR mRNA effectively reduced resistance of Triple Negative breast cancer cells to gefitinib and, consequently, decreased viability of MDA-MB 231 cells. Fourth, the data obtained support the proposed approach and demonstrated high potential of liposomal EGFR siRNA in combination with liposomal gefitinib for treatment of Triple Negative breast cancer.

8 FUTURE DIRECTIONS

- 1) Using animal models (*In vivo* experiments) to examine the effects of lipoplex with liposomal gefetinib co-treatment.
- 2) Comparative study with other chemotherapeutic drug.

9 ILLUSTRATIONS

TABLES

No.	Prognostic and Predictive Factors
1	Axillary Lymph Nodal Involvement
2	Tumor Size
3	Estrogen Receptor (ER) and Progesterone Receptor (PR) Status
4	Circulating Tumor Cells (CTCs)
5	Lymphatic and Vascular Invasion (LVI)
6	Age at Diagnosis
7	Race and Ethnicity
8	Cathepsin D
9	Angiogenesis Markers
10	Bone Marrow Micometastasis
11	Overexpression of the c-erb B-2 (HER2/neu) Proto-oncogen
12	Urokinase-Type Plasminogen Activator (uPA) and Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor type 1 (PAI-1)
13	Mutations of p53
14	Expression of Topoisomerase II-alpha (topo II α)
15	Proliferation Markers
16	Gene Expression Profiling

Table 2.1 Prognosis and predictive factors of MBC

Hormone Receptor Status (n=155,890)	ER+/PR+ (%)	ER+/PR- (%)	ER- /PR+ (%)	ER- /PR- (%)	
	64%	13%	3%	20%	100%

Table 2.2 The distribution of estrogen and progesterone receptors in different groups of patients.

Modified from [23].

FIGURES

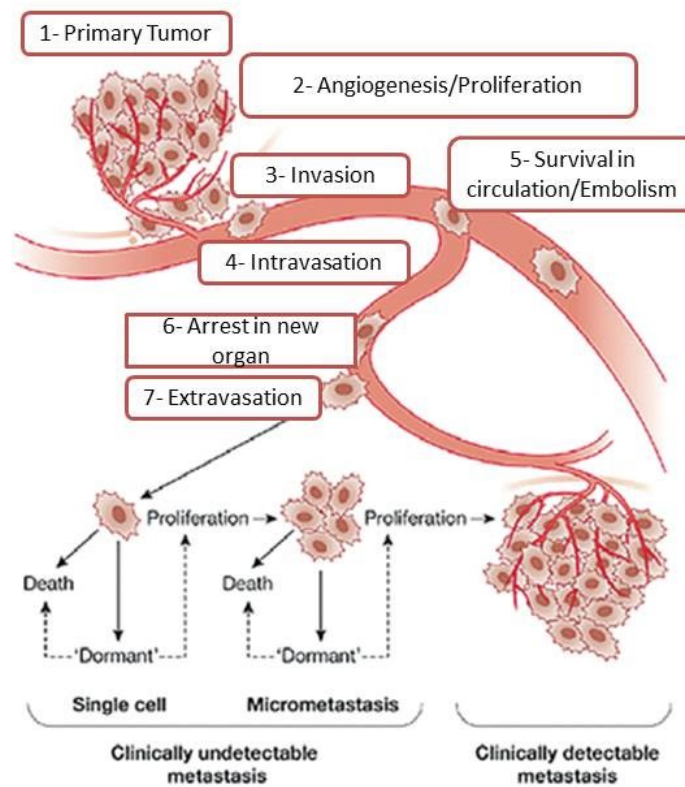


Figure 2.1 Major steps of metastasis formation

MBC is a complex and multifunctional process that involves different dynamic physiological activities from invading the local tissue then entry lymphatic or blood circulation that transport the metastatic cells to distant organs where they may extravasate and enter the microenvironment. Modified from [361].

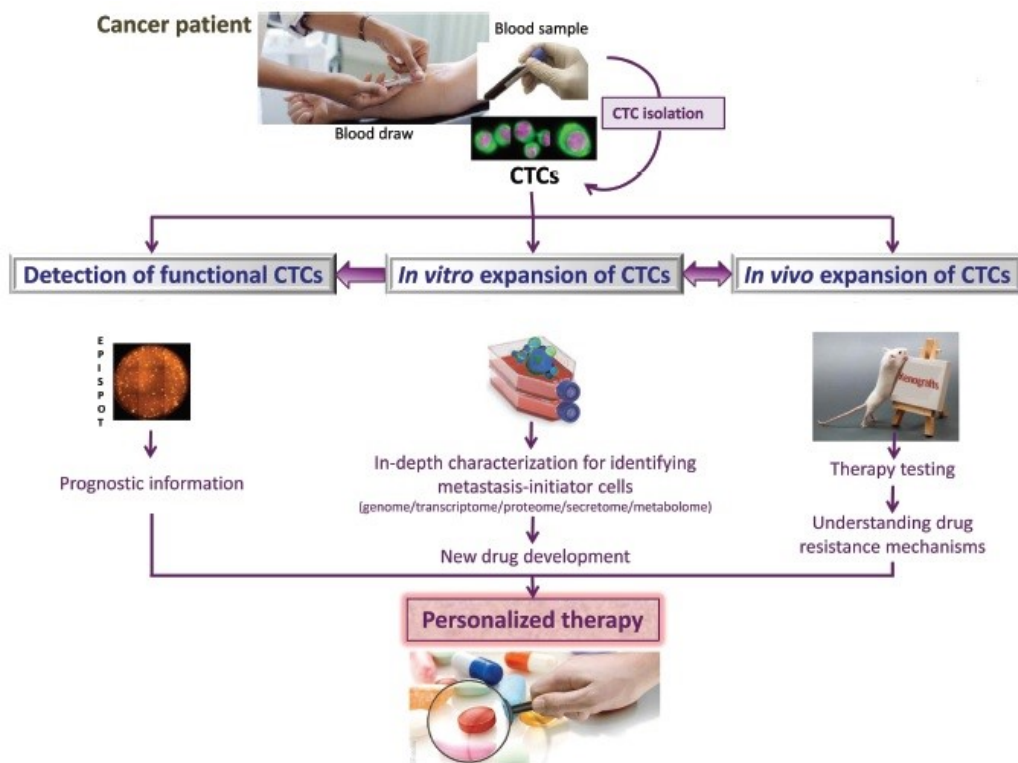


Figure 2.2 Role of CTCs in breast cancer in vitro and vivo.

After enrichment of CTCs from blood samples of breast cancer patient, viable CTCs can be enumerated with a functional assay or prognostic information, CTCs can be cultured in vitro and establishment of CTCs lines may indicate metastasis initiating cells or expanded in vivo for testing of therapy or understanding mechanisms of drug resistance. Modified and reproduced with permission from the American Association for Clinical Chemistry from [68].

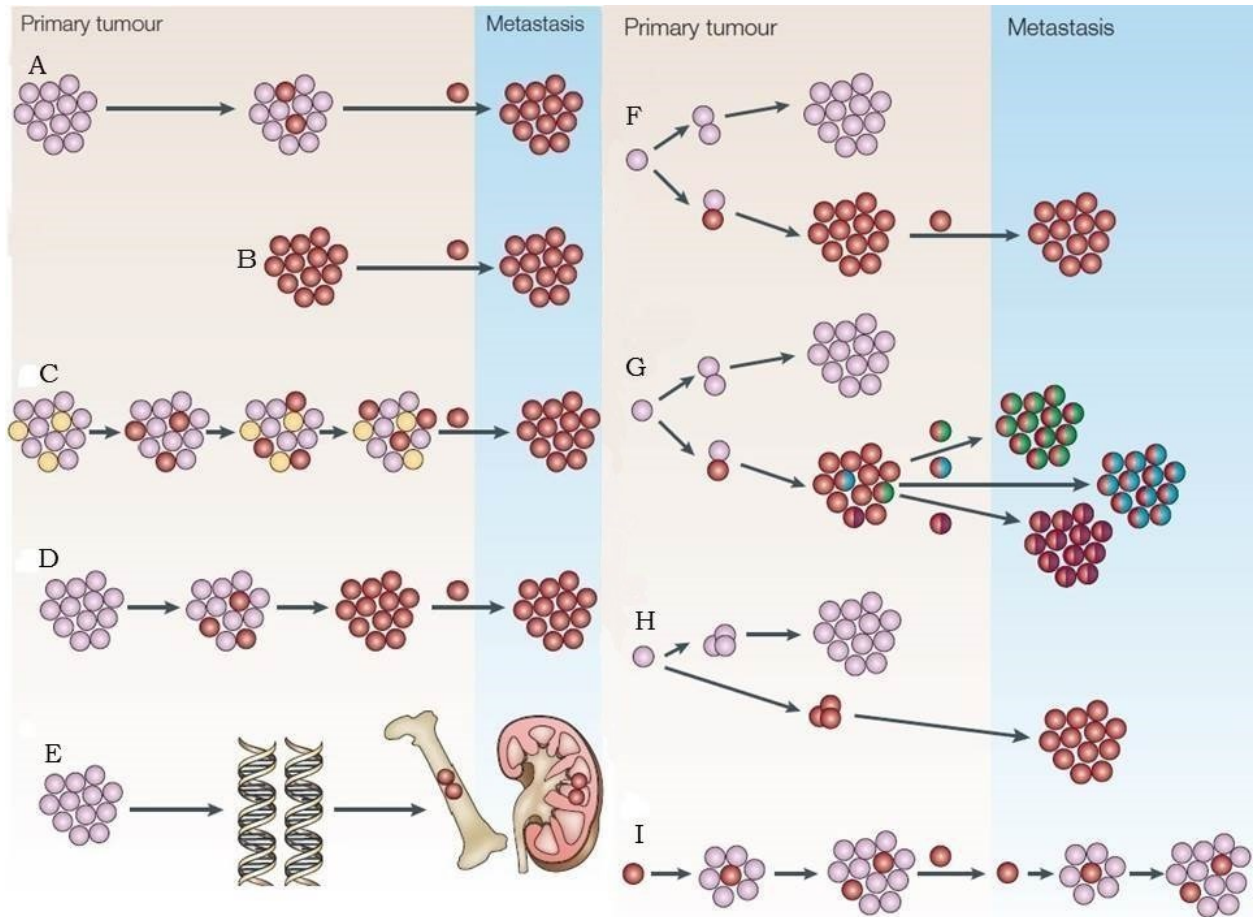


Figure 2.3 Models of MBC.

Modified from [29].

(A) Tradition model of MBC, (B) Spontaneous metastasis assays, (C) Dynamic heterogeneity model, (D) Clonal dominance model, (E) Genometastasis hypothesis, (F) Gene expression profile (G) models of metastasis to lung, bone and liver (H) Parallel evolution model (I) Breast cancer stem cells model. The pink-color represents non-metastasis breast tumor cells (good prognosis), red-color represents metastasis tumor cells (poor prognosis), yellow-color represents variant of tumor cells, green-

color represents metastasis to bone, blue-color represents metastasis to liver and purple-color represents metastasis to lung.



Figure 2.4 Role of MMPs in the progression and metastasis of cancer.

modified from [362].

MMPS are able to modulate the progression of the tumor in managing the epithelial-mesenchymal transition, invasion, metastasis and growth of the tumor; participate in pre-metastatic niche formation; inducing an inflammatory response. Also, MMPs can have a dual role during formation of the blood vessels and apoptosis evasion.

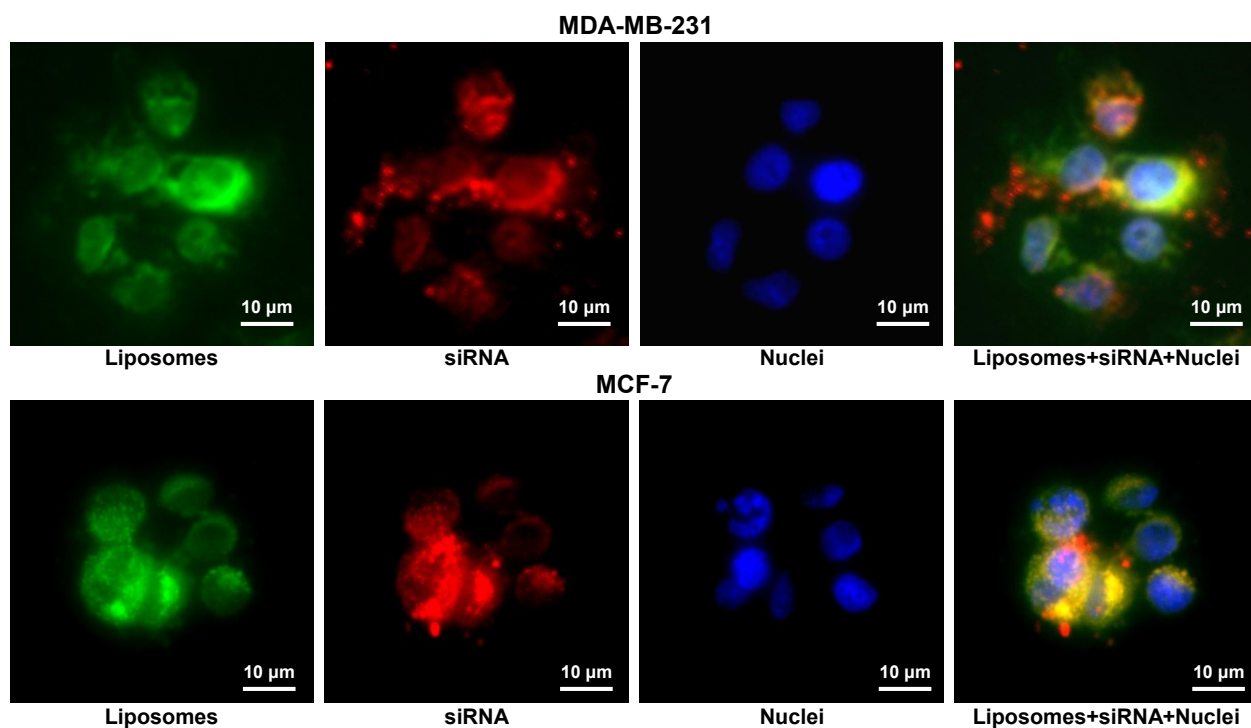


Figure 5.1 Cellular internalization of siRNA delivered by liposomes.

Representative images of human breast cancer (MDA-MB-231 and MCF-7) cells incubated within 24 h with liposomes (green fluorescence) containing siRNA (red fluorescence). Cell nuclei were stained with nuclear-specific dye (DAPI, blue fluorescence). Superimposition of red and green colors gives yellow color.

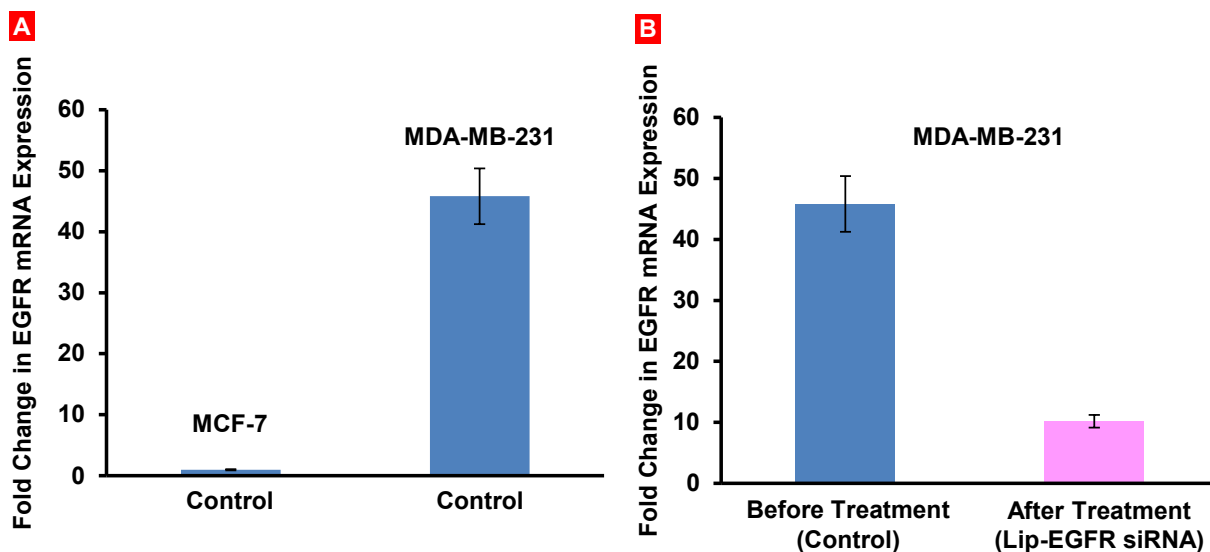


Figure 5.2 Expression of EGFR mRNA.

The relative quantity of EGFR gene expression in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cells was calculated by the $2^{(DDCt)}$ method using quantitative PCR. The levels of gene expression were represented as a fold change. Means \pm SD are shown. A – Expression of EGFR in MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells incubated with media (control). B - MDA-MB-231 cells before and after treatment. Cells were incubated within 24 h with liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA (Lip-EGFR siRNA).

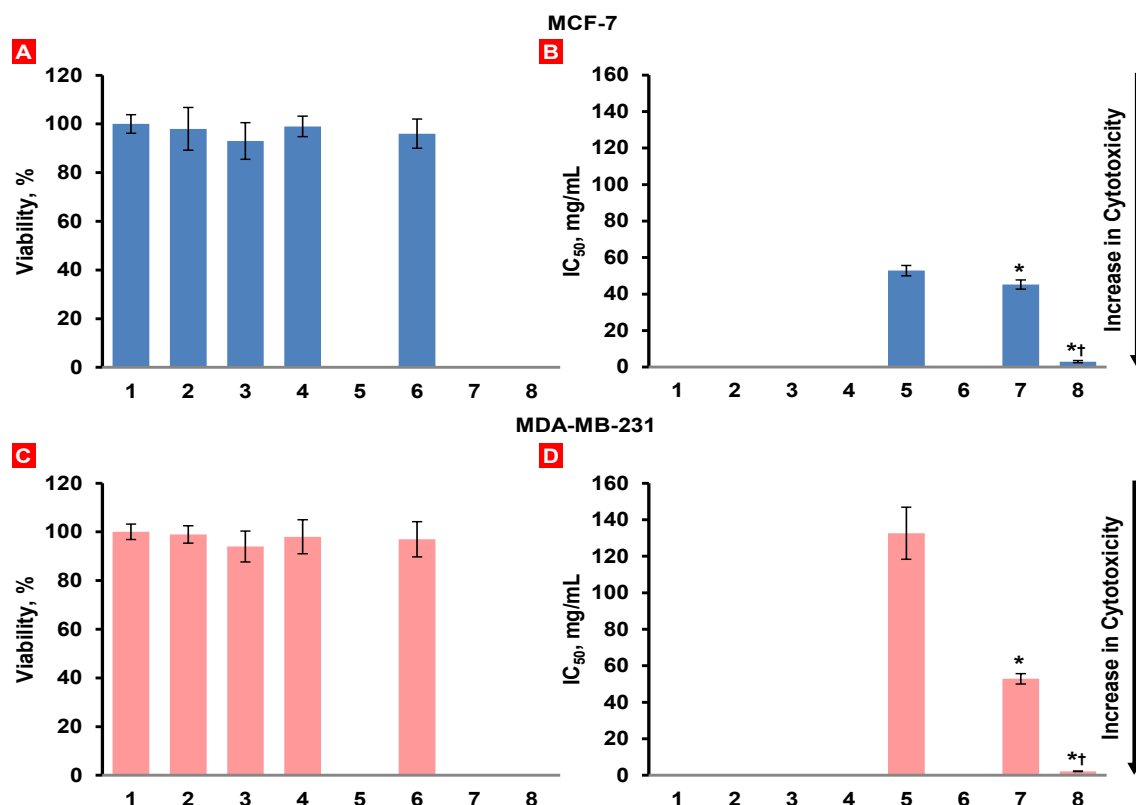


Figure 5.3 *In vitro* Cytotoxicity Assay

Viability of MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cells incubated 24 h with the indicated formulations. A, C – Cytotoxicity of formulations that do not contain Gefitinib in MCF-7 (A) and MDA-MB-231 (C) cells. B, D – Cytotoxicity of formulations that contain Gefitinib in MCF-7 (B) and MDA-MB-231 (D) cells. (1) Control (fresh media); (2) Liposomes Neutral; (3) Liposomes Cationic; (4) Naked siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA; (5) Free Gefitinib; (6) Liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA; (7) Liposomal Gefitinib; (8) Liposomal siRNA targeted to EGFR mRNA + Liposomal Gefitinib. Means \pm SD are shown. * $P < 0.05$ when compared with free Gefitinib; † $P < 0.05$ when compared with liposomal Gefitinib.

10 REFERENCES

1. Blein S, Barjhoux L, Damiola F, Dondon M-G, Eon-Marchais S, Marcou M, et al. Targeted Sequencing of the Mitochondrial Genome of Women at High Risk of Breast Cancer without Detectable Mutations in BRCA1/2. *PloS One*. 2015;10:e0136192.
2. Vasir JK, Labhasetwar V. Targeted drug delivery in cancer therapy. *Technol. Cancer Res. Treat.* 2005;4:363–74.
3. Senchukova MA, Nikitenko NV, Tomchuk ON, Zaitsev NV, Stadnikov AA. Different types of tumor vessels in breast cancer: morphology and clinical value. *SpringerPlus*. 2015;4:1–11.
4. Damiani G, Basso D, Acampora A, Bianchi CB, Silvestrini G, Frisicale EM, et al. The impact of level of education on adherence to breast and cervical cancer screening: Evidence from a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prev. Med.* 2015;81:281–9.
5. Cho K, Wang X, Nie S, Chen ZG, Shin DM. Therapeutic nanoparticles for drug delivery in cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res. Off. J. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* 2008;14:1310–6.
6. Gao Z, Zhang L, Sun Y. Nanotechnology applied to overcome tumor drug resistance. *J. Controlled Release*. 2012;162:45–55.
7. Reddy LH. Drug delivery to tumours: recent strategies. *J. Pharm. Pharmacol.* 2005;57:1231–42.
8. Koo OM, Rubinstein I, Onyuksel H. Role of nanotechnology in targeted drug delivery and imaging: a concise review. *Nanomedicine Nanotechnol. Biol. Med.* 2005;1:193–212.
9. Shi J, Votrubá AR, Farokhzad OC, Langer R. Nanotechnology in drug delivery and tissue engineering: from discovery to applications. *Nano Lett.* 2010;10:3223–30.
10. Minko T, Pakunlu RI, Wang Y, Khandare JJ, Saad M. New generation of liposomal drugs for cancer. *Anti-Cancer Agents Med. Chem. Former. Curr. Med. Chem.-Anti-Cancer Agents*. 2006;6:537–52.
11. Ferrari M. Cancer nanotechnology: opportunities and challenges. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2005;5:161–71.
12. Anajwala CC, Jani GK, Swamy SV. Current trends of nanotechnology for cancer therapy. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Nanotechnol.* 2010;3.
13. Sinha R, Kim GJ, Nie S, Shin DM. Nanotechnology in cancer therapeutics: bioconjugated nanoparticles for drug delivery. *Mol. Cancer Ther.* 2006;5:1909–17.
14. Suri SS, Fenniri H, Singh B. Nanotechnology-based drug delivery systems. *J. Occup. Med. Toxicol. Lond. Engl.* 2007;2:16.
15. Saad M, Garbuzenko OB, Ber E, Chandna P, Khandare JJ, Pozharov VP, et al. Receptor targeted polymers, dendrimers, liposomes: which nanocarrier is the most efficient for tumor-specific treatment and imaging? *J. Controlled Release*. 2008;130:107–14.
16. Bae YH, Park K. Targeted drug delivery to tumors: myths, reality and possibility. *J.*

Control. Release Off. J. Control. Release Soc. 2011;153:198–205.

17. Heidel JD, Davis ME. Clinical developments in nanotechnology for cancer therapy. *Pharm. Res.* 2011;28:187–99.

18. Lim E-K, Jang E, Lee K, Haam S, Huh Y-M. Delivery of cancer therapeutics using nanotechnology. *Pharmaceutics.* 2013;5:294–317.

19. Lyden D, Welch DR, Psaila B. Cancer metastasis: biologic basis and therapeutics. Cambridge University Press; 2011.

20. Gerratana L, Fanotto V, Bonotto M, Bolzonello S, Minisini AM, Fasola G, et al. Pattern of metastasis and outcome in patients with breast cancer. *Clin. Exp. Metastasis.* 2015;32:125–33.

21. Kang Y, Siegel PM, Shu W, Drobnjak M, Kakonen SM, Córdón-Cardo C, et al. A multigenic program mediating breast cancer metastasis to bone. *Cancer Cell.* 2003;3:537–49.

22. Ma R, Feng Y, Lin S, Chen J, Lin H, Liang X, et al. Mechanisms involved in breast cancer liver metastasis. *J. Transl. Med.* 2015;13:64–015 – 0425–0.

23. Mansel WG RE.Fodstad, O&Jiang, editor. Metastasis of breast cancer. Netherland: Springer; 2007.

24. Kennecke H, Yerushalmi R, Woods R, Cheang MC, Voduc D, Speers CH, et al. Metastatic behavior of breast cancer subtypes. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2010;28:3271–7.

25. Goldhirsch A, Wood WC, Coates AS, Gelber RD, Thurlimann B, Senn HJ, et al. Strategies for subtypes—dealing with the diversity of breast cancer: highlights of the St. Gallen International Expert Consensus on the Primary Therapy of Early Breast Cancer 2011. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2011;22:1736–47.

26. Karlsson E, Appelgren J, Solterbeck A, Bergenheim M, Alvariza V, Bergh J. Breast cancer during follow-up and progression—A population based cohort on new cancers and changed biology. *Eur. J. Cancer.* 2014;50:2916–24.

27. Mendes D, Alves C, Afonso N, Cardoso F, Passos-Coelho JL, Costa L, et al. The benefit of HER2-targeted therapies on overall survival of patients with metastatic HER2-positive breast cancer—a systematic review. *Breast Cancer Res.* 2015;17:1–14.

28. Bhoo-Pathy N, Verkooijen HM, Tan EY, Miao H, Taib NA, Brand JS, et al. Trends in presentation, management and survival of patients with de novo metastatic breast cancer in a Southeast Asian setting. *Sci. Rep.* 2015;5:16252.

29. Weigelt B, Peterse JL, Veer LJV. Breast cancer metastasis: markers and models. *Nat. Rev. Cancer.* 2005;5:591–602.

30. Budd GT, Cristofanilli M, Ellis MJ, Stopeck A, Borden E, Miller MC, et al. Circulating tumor cells versus imaging—predicting overall survival in metastatic breast cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res. Off. J. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* 2006;12:6403–9.

31. Bernstein L. Epidemiology of endocrine-related risk factors for breast cancer. *J.*

Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia. 2002;7:3–15.

32. Roberts DL, Dive C, Renehan AG. Biological mechanisms linking obesity and cancer risk: new perspectives. *Annu. Rev. Med.* 2010;61:301–16.

33. Santen RJ, Pinkerton J, McCartney C, Petroni GR. Risk of breast cancer with progestins in combination with estrogen as hormone replacement therapy. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* 2014;86:16–23.

34. Arpino G, Milano M, Placido SD. Features of aggressive breast cancer. *The Breast.* 2015;

35. Demoor-Goldschmidt C, Fayeche C, Girard P, Plantaz D. Secondary cancers: Incidence, risk factors and recommendations. *Bull. Cancer (Paris).* 2015;102:656–64.

36. Duchnowska R, Dziadziuszko R, Czartoryska-Arłukowicz B, Radecka B, Szostakiewicz B, Sosińska-Mielcarek K, et al. Risk factors for brain relapse in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer patients. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2009;117:297–303.

37. Yalcin B. Staging, risk assessment and screening of breast cancer. *Exp. Oncol.* 2013;238–45.

38. Park NJ, Kang DH. Inflammatory cytokine levels and breast cancer risk factors: racial differences of healthy Caucasian and African American women. *Oncol. Nurs. Forum.* 2013;40:490–500.

39. Zaritsky E, Dibble SL. Risk factors for reproductive and breast cancers among older lesbians. *J. Womens Health.* 2010;19:125–31.

40. Jokiel M, Bielska-Lasota M. Breast cancer risk factors—possibilities of primary prevention. *Przegl. Epidemiol.* 2010;64:435–8.

41. Torres D, Myers JA, Eshraghi LW, Riley EC, Soliman PT, Milam MR. Risk Factors for the Development of Uterine Cancer in Breast Cancer Survivors: An Army of Women Study. *Ann. Surg. Oncol.* 2015;22:1974–9.

42. Ambroggi M, Stroppa EM, Mordenti P, Biasini C, Zangrandi A, Michieletti E, et al. Metastatic breast cancer to the gastrointestinal tract: report of five cases and review of the literature. *Int. J. Breast Cancer.* 2012;2012.

43. Bertozzi S, Londero AP, Cedolini C, Uzzau A, Seriau L, Bernardi S, et al. Prevalence, risk factors, and prognosis of peritoneal metastasis from breast cancer. *SpringerPlus.* 2015;4:1–8.

44. Eckhardt BL, Francis PA, Parker BS, Anderson RL. Strategies for the discovery and development of therapies for metastatic breast cancer. *Nat. Rev. Drug Discov.* 2012;11:479–97.

45. Rivenbark AG, Coleman WB. Field cancerization in mammary carcinogenesis—Implications for prevention and treatment of breast cancer. *Exp. Mol. Pathol.* 2012;93:391–8.

46. Fidler IJ. The pathogenesis of cancer metastasis: the 'seed and soil' hypothesis revisited. *Nat. Rev. Cancer.* 2003;3:453–8.

47. Gupta GP, Massagué J. Cancer metastasis: building a framework. *Cell*. 2006;127:679–95.
48. Bernards R, Weinberg RA. Metastasis genes: a progression puzzle. *Nature*. 2002;418:823–823.
49. Patel LR, Camacho DF, Shiozawa Y, Pienta KJ, Taichman RS. Mechanisms of cancer cell metastasis to the bone: a multistep process. *Future Oncol*. 2011;7:1285–97.
50. Thompson EW, Newgreen DF, Tarin D. Carcinoma invasion and metastasis: a role for epithelial-mesenchymal transition? *Cancer Res*. 2005;65:5991–5; discussion 5995.
51. Park S, Jung HH, Park YH, Ahn JS, Im Y-H. ERK/MAPK pathways play critical roles in EGFR ligands-induced MMP1 expression. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun*. 2011;407:680–6.
52. Chambers AF, Groom AC, MacDonald IC. Metastasis: dissemination and growth of cancer cells in metastatic sites. *Nat. Rev. Cancer*. 2002;2:563–72.
53. Coleman RE, Gregory W, Marshall H, Wilson C, Holen I. The metastatic microenvironment of breast cancer: Clinical implications. *The Breast*. 2013;22:S50–6.
54. Skobe M, Hawighorst T, Jackson DG, Prevo R, Janes L, Velasco P, et al. Induction of tumor lymphangiogenesis by VEGF-C promotes breast cancer metastasis. *Nat. Med*. 2001;7:192–8.
55. Zhao Y-C, Ni X-J, Li Y, Dai M, Yuan Z-X, Zhu Y-Y, et al. Peritumoral lymphangiogenesis induced by vascular endothelial growth factor C and D promotes lymph node metastasis in breast cancer patients. *World J. Surg. Oncol*. 2012;10:165.
56. Hüsemann Y, Geigl JB, Schubert F, Musiani P, Meyer M, Burghart E, et al. Systemic spread is an early step in breast cancer. *Cancer Cell*. 2008;13:58–68.
57. Rudland PS, Platt-Higgins A, El-Tanani M, Rudland SDS, Barraclough R, Winstanley JH, et al. Prognostic significance of the metastasis-associated protein osteopontin in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res*. 2002;62:3417–27.
58. Lobbezoo DJA, Kampen R van, Voogd AC, Dercksen MW, Berkmortel F van den, Smilde TJ, et al. Prognosis of metastatic breast cancer: are there differences between patients with de novo and recurrent metastatic breast cancer? *Br. J. Cancer*. 2015;
59. Kiluk JV, Prowler V, Lee MC, Khakpour N, Laronga C, Cox CE. Contralateral axillary nodal involvement from invasive breast cancer. *Breast Edinb. Scotl*. 2014;23:291–4.
60. de Oliveira Filho HR, Dória MT, Piatto JRM, Soares Junior JM, Filassi JR, Baracat EC, et al. Criteria for prediction of metastatic axillary lymph nodes in early-stage breast cancer. *Rev. Bras. Ginecol. E Obstetrícia Rev. Fed. Bras. Soc. Ginecol. E Obstetrícia*. 2015;37:308–13.
61. Milner TD, de Lusignan S, Jones S, Jackson PA, Layer GT, Kissin MW, et al. Breast cancer metastasis burden in sentinel nodes analysed using one-step nucleic acid amplification predicts axillary nodal status. *Breast Edinb. Scotl*. 2015;24:568–75.

62. Wen J, Ye F, Huang X, Li S, Yang L, Xiao X, et al. The tumor-to-breast volume ratio (TBR) predicts cancer-specific survival in breast cancer patients who underwent modified radical mastectomy. *Tumor Biol.* 2015;1–8.
63. Xue C, Fu F, Wang C. Analysis of prognostic parameters in patients with breast cancer of size smaller than or equal to 2 cm. *Zhonghua Bing Li Xue Za Zhi.* 2015;44:245–9.
64. Mahmood H, Faheem M, Mahmood S, Sadiq M, Irfan J. Impact of age, tumor size, lymph node metastasis, stage, receptor status and menopausal status on overall survival of breast cancer patients in Pakistan. *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev. APJCP.* 2015;16:1019–24.
65. Ren Z, Li Y, Shen T, Hameed O, Siegal GP, Wei S. Prognostic factors in advanced breast cancer: Race and receptor status are significant after development of metastasis. *Pathol.-Res. Pract.* 2015;
66. Singh JK, Farnie G, Bundred NJ, Simões BM, Shergill A, Landberg G, et al. Targeting CXCR1/2 Significantly Reduces Breast Cancer Stem Cell Activity and Increases the Efficacy of Inhibiting HER2 via HER2-Dependent and -Independent Mechanisms. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2013;19:643–56.
67. Lianidou ES, Markou A, Strati A. The Role of CTCs as Tumor Biomarkers. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.* 2015;867:341–67.
68. Pantel K, Alix-Panabières C. Functional Studies on Viable Circulating Tumor Cells. *Clin. Chem.* 2015;
69. Mu Z, Wang C, Ye Z, Austin L, Civan J, Hyslop T, et al. Prospective assessment of the prognostic value of circulating tumor cells and their clusters in patients with advanced-stage breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2015;154:563–71.
70. Hall CS, Karhade M, Laubacher BA, Kuerer HM, Krishnamurthy S, DeSnyder S, et al. Circulating Tumor Cells and Recurrence After Primary Systemic Therapy in Stage III Inflammatory Breast Cancer. *J. Natl. Cancer Inst.* 2015;107.
71. Ren C, Han C, Fu D, Wang D, Chen H, Chen Y, et al. Circulating tumor cells in breast cancer beyond the genotype of primary tumor for tailored therapy. *Int. J. Cancer J. Int. Cancer.* 2015;
72. Kanwar N, Hu P, Bedard P, Clemons M, McCready D, Done SJ. Identification of genomic signatures in circulating tumor cells from breast cancer. *Int. J. Cancer J. Int. Cancer.* 2015;137:332–44.
73. McInnes LM, Jacobson N, Redfern A, Dowling A, Thompson EW, Saunders CM. Clinical implications of circulating tumor cells of breast cancer patients: role of epithelial-mesenchymal plasticity. *Front. Oncol.* 2015;5:42.
74. Cristofanilli M, Budd GT, Ellis MJ, Stopeck A, Matera J, Miller MC, et al. Circulating tumor cells, disease progression, and survival in metastatic breast cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2004;351:781–91.
75. Beenken SW, Bland KI. Biomarkers for breast cancer. *Minerva Chir.* 2002;57:437–

48.

76. Gujam FJA, Going JJ, Mohammed ZMA, Orange C, Edwards J, McMillan DC. Immunohistochemical detection improves the prognostic value of lymphatic and blood vessel invasion in primary ductal breast cancer. *BMC Cancer*. 2014;14:676.

77. Sahoo PK, Jana D, Mandal PK, Basak S. Effect of lymphangiogenesis and lymphovascular invasion on the survival pattern of breast cancer patients. *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev. APJCP*. 2014;15:6287–93.

78. Gujam FJA, Going JJ, Edwards J, Mohammed ZMA, McMillan DC. The role of lymphatic and blood vessel invasion in predicting survival and methods of detection in patients with primary operable breast cancer. *Crit. Rev. Oncol. Hematol*. 2014;89:231–41.

79. Rakha EA, Martin S, Lee AHS, Morgan D, Pharoah PDP, Hodi Z, et al. The prognostic significance of lymphovascular invasion in invasive breast carcinoma. *Cancer*. 2012;118:3670–80.

80. Kuroda H, Nakai M, Ohnisi K, Ishida T, Kuroda M, Itoyama S. Vascular invasion in triple-negative carcinoma of the breast identified by endothelial lymphatic and blood vessel markers. *Int. J. Surg. Pathol*. 2010;18:324–9.

81. Ragage F, Debled M, MacGrogan G, Brouste V, Desrousseaux M, Soubeyran I, et al. Is it useful to detect lymphovascular invasion in lymph node-positive patients with primary operable breast cancer? *Cancer*. 2010;116:3093–101.

82. El-Gendi S, Abdel-Hadi M. Lymphatic vessel density as prognostic factor in breast carcinoma: relation to clinicopathologic parameters. *J. Egypt. Natl. Cancer Inst*. 2009;21:139–49.

83. Van den Eynden GG, Van der Auwera I, Van Laere SJ, Colpaert CG, van Dam P, Dirix LY, et al. Distinguishing blood and lymph vessel invasion in breast cancer: a prospective immunohistochemical study. *Br. J. Cancer*. 2006;94:1643–9.

84. Purushotham A, Shamil E, Cariati M, Agbaje O, Muhidin A, Gillett C, et al. Age at diagnosis and distant metastasis in breast cancer--a surprising inverse relationship. *Eur. J. Cancer Oxf. Engl*. 1990. 2014;50:1697–705.

85. Liedtke C, Rody A, Gluz O, Baumann K, Beyer D, Kohls E-B, et al. The prognostic impact of age in different molecular subtypes of breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat*. 2015;152:667–73.

86. Ribnikar D, Ribeiro JM, Pinto D, Sousa B, Pinto AC, Gomes E, et al. Breast cancer under age 40: a different approach. *Curr. Treat. Options Oncol*. 2015;16:16.

87. Howard-McNatt M, Lawrence J, Melin SA, Levine EA, Shen P, Stewart JH. Race and recurrence in women who undergo neoadjuvant chemotherapy for breast cancer. *Am. J. Surg*. 2013;205:397–401.

88. Bailes AA, Kuerer HM, Lari SA, Jones LA, Brewster AM. Impact of race and ethnicity on features and outcome of ductal carcinoma in situ of the breast. *Cancer*. 2013;119:150–7.

89. Andic F, Godette K, O'Regan R, Zelnak A, Liu T, Rizzo M, et al. Treatment adherence and outcome in women with inflammatory breast cancer: does race matter? *Cancer*. 2011;117:5485–92.
90. DeSantis C, Jemal A, Ward E. Disparities in breast cancer prognostic factors by race, insurance status, and education. *Cancer Causes Control CCC*. 2010;21:1445–50.
91. Crowe JP, Patrick RJ, Rybicki LA, Grundfest-Broniatowski S, Kim JA, Lee KB. Race is a fundamental prognostic indicator for 2325 northeastern Ohio women with infiltrating breast cancer. *Breast J*. 2005;11:124–8.
92. Weston MK, Moss DP, Stewart J, Hill AG. Differences in breast cancer biological characteristics between ethnic groups in New Zealand. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2008;111:555–8.
93. Dian D, Heublein S, Wiest I, Barthell L, Friese K, Jeschke U. Significance of the tumor protease cathepsin D for the biology of breast cancer. *Histol. Histopathol.* 2014;29:433–8.
94. Dian D, Vrekoussis T, Shabani N, Mylonas I, Kuhn C, Schindlbeck C, et al. Expression of cathepsin-D in primary breast cancer and corresponding local recurrence or metastasis: an immunohistochemical study. *Anticancer Res.* 2012;32:901–5.
95. Han Z, Chen Z, Zheng R, Cheng Z, Gong X, Wang D. Clinicopathological significance of CD133 and CD44 expression in infiltrating ductal carcinoma and their relationship to angiogenesis. *World J. Surg. Oncol.* 2015;13:56.
96. Rykala J, Przybylowska K, Majsterek I, Pasz-Walczak G, Sygut A, Dziki A, et al. Angiogenesis markers quantification in breast cancer and their correlation with clinicopathological prognostic variables. *Pathol. Oncol. Res. POR.* 2011;17:809–17.
97. Bertolini F. Biomarkers for angiogenesis and antiangiogenic drugs in clinical oncology. *Breast Edinb. Scotl.* 2009;18 Suppl 3:S48–50.
98. Boneberg E-M, Legler DF, Hoefer MM, Ohlschlegel C, Steininger H, Füzesi L, et al. Angiogenesis and lymphangiogenesis are downregulated in primary breast cancer. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2009;101:605–14.
99. Hartkopf AD, Taran F-A, Wallwiener M, Hahn M, Becker S, Solomayer E-F, et al. Prognostic relevance of disseminated tumour cells from the bone marrow of early stage breast cancer patients - results from a large single-centre analysis. *Eur. J. Cancer Oxf. Engl.* 1990. 2014;50:2550–9.
100. Yovtchev YP, Minkov GA, Petrov AT, Nikolov SS, Vlaykova TI. Epithelial cells expressing cytokeratins-19 and bone marrow micrometastases in patients with breast cancer at the time of primary surgery: clinical outcome during long-term follow-up. *Breast Cancer Tokyo Jpn.* 2014;21:590–7.
101. Liu Y, Ma L, Liu X, Wang L. Expression of human mammaglobin as a marker of bone marrow micrometastasis in breast cancer. *Exp. Ther. Med.* 2012;3:550–4.
102. Falck A-K, Bendahl P-O, Ingvar C, Isola J, Jönsson P-E, Lindblom P, et al. Analysis of and prognostic information from disseminated tumour cells in bone marrow in primary

breast cancer: a prospective observational study. *BMC Cancer*. 2012;12:403.

103. Matouskova E, Kudlackova I, Chaloupkova A, Brozova M, Netikova I, Vesely P. Origin of cells cultured in vitro from human breast carcinomas traced by cyclin D1 and HER2/neu FISH signal numbers. *Anticancer Res*. 2005;25:1051–7.

104. Duffy MJ, McGowan PM, Harbeck N, Thomssen C, Schmitt M. uPA and PAI-1 as biomarkers in breast cancer: validated for clinical use in level-of-evidence-1 studies. *Breast Cancer Res. BCR* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2016 Jan 13];16. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4423643/>

105. Harbeck N, Schmitt M, Meisner C, Friedel C, Untch M, Schmidt M, et al. Ten-year analysis of the prospective multicentre Chemo-N0 trial validates American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO)-recommended biomarkers uPA and PAI-1 for therapy decision making in node-negative breast cancer patients. *Eur. J. Cancer Oxf. Engl.* 1990. 2013;49:1825–35.

106. Jelisavac-Cosic S, Sirotkovic-Skerlev M, Kulic A, Jakic-Razumovic J, Kovac Z, Vrbancic D. Prognostic significance of urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) and plasminogen activator inhibitor (PAI-1) in patients with primary invasive ductal breast carcinoma - a 7.5-year follow-up study. *Tumori*. 2011;97:532–9.

107. Han B, Nakamura M, Zhou G, Ishii A, Nakamura A, Bai Y, et al. Calcitonin inhibits invasion of breast cancer cells: involvement of urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) and uPA receptor. *Int. J. Oncol.* 2006;28:807–14.

108. Shokouh TZ, Ezatollah A, Barand P. Interrelationships Between Ki67, HER2/neu, p53, ER, and PR Status and Their Associations With Tumor Grade and Lymph Node Involvement in Breast Carcinoma Subtypes: Retrospective-Observational Analytical Study. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2015;94:e1359.

109. Grawenda AM, Möller EK, Lam S, Repapi E, Teunisse AFAS, Alnæs GIG, et al. Interaction between p53 mutation and a somatic HDMX biomarker better defines metastatic potential in breast cancer. *Cancer Res*. 2015;75:698–708.

110. Di Minin G, Bellazzo A, Dal Ferro M, Chiaruttini G, Nuzzo S, Biciato S, et al. Mutant p53 reprograms TNF signaling in cancer cells through interaction with the tumor suppressor DAB2IP. *Mol. Cell*. 2014;56:617–29.

111. Loskutova KS, Kirillina MP, Lushnikova EL, Nepomnyashchikh LM. Immunohistochemical study of apoptotic marker p53 as a prognostic factor in breast cancer. *Bull. Exp. Biol. Med.* 2014;158:84–7.

112. Lenfert E, Maenz C, Heinlein C, Jannasch K, Schumacher U, Pantel K, et al. Mutant p53 promotes epithelial-mesenchymal plasticity and enhances metastasis in mammary carcinomas of WAP-T mice. *Int. J. Cancer J. Int. Cancer*. 2015;136:E521–33.

113. Depowski PL, Rosenthal SI, Brien TP, Stylos S, Johnson RL, Ross JS. Topoisomerase IIalpha expression in breast cancer: correlation with outcome variables. *Mod. Pathol. Off. J. U. S. Can. Acad. Pathol. Inc.* 2000;13:542–7.

114. Durbecq V, Di Leo A, Cardoso F, Rouas G, Leroy JY, Piccart M, et al. Comparison of topoisomerase-IIalpha gene status between primary breast cancer and corresponding

distant metastatic sites. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2003;77:199–204.

115. Klintman M, Nilsson F, Bendahl P-O, Fernö M, Liljegren G, Emdin S, et al. A prospective, multicenter validation study of a prognostic index composed of S-phase fraction, progesterone receptor status, and tumour size predicts survival in node-negative breast cancer patients: NNBC, the node-negative breast cancer trial. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2013;24:2284–91.

116. Ermiah E, Buhmeida A, Abdalla F, Khaled BR, Salem N, Pyrhönen S, et al. Prognostic value of proliferation markers: immunohistochemical ki-67 expression and cytometric s-phase fraction of women with breast cancer in libya. *J. Cancer.* 2012;3:421–31.

117. Kuliffay P, Sanislo L, Galbavy S. Chromatin texture, DNA index, and S-phase fraction in primary breast carcinoma cells analysed by laserscanning cytometry. *Bratisl. Lekárske Listy.* 2010;111:4–8.

118. Pervez S, Khan MN, Nasir MI. Comparative predictive value of three prognostic markers--S-phase fraction, PCNA and Mitotic count on axillary lymph node metastasis in carcinoma breast. *J. Ayub Med. Coll. Abbottabad JAMC.* 2007;19:3–5.

119. Moureau-Zabotto L, Bouchet C, Cesari D, Uzan S, Lefranc JP, Antoine M, et al. [Combined flow cytometry determination of S-phase fraction and DNA ploidy is an independent prognostic factor in node-negative invasive breast carcinoma: review of a series of 271 patients with stage I and II breast cancer]. *Cancer Radiothérapie J. Société Fr. Radiothérapie Oncol.* 2005;9:575–86.

120. Lackowska B, Niezabitowski A, Ryś J, Skołyszewski J, Stelmach A, Gruchała A, et al. S-phase fraction and menopausal status as the most important prognostic factors of disease-free survival for node negative patients with breast cancer. A prospective study. *Pol. J. Pathol. Off. J. Pol. Soc. Pathol.* 2003;54:101–10.

121. Midulla C, Cenci M, De Iorio P, Pisani T, Bonaccorsi A, De Marchis L, et al. DNA ploidy and TLI in association with other prognostic parameters in breast cancer. *Anticancer Res.* 1999;19:381–4.

122. Silvestrini R, Daidone MG, Luisi A, Mastore M, Leutner M, Salvadori B. Cell proliferation in 3,800 node-negative breast cancers: consistency over time of biological and clinical information provided by 3H-thymidine labelling index. *Int. J. Cancer J. Int. Cancer.* 1997;74:122–7.

123. Meyer JS, Hixon B. Advanced stage and early relapse of breast carcinomas associated with high thymidine labeling indices. *Cancer Res.* 1979;39:4042–7.

124. Yan J, Liu X-L, Han L-Z, Xiao G, Li N-L, Deng Y-N, et al. Relation between Ki-67, ER, PR, Her2/neu, p21, EGFR, and TOP II- α expression in invasive ductal breast cancer patients and correlations with prognosis. *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev. APJCP.* 2015;16:823–9.

125. Falato C, Lorent J, Tani E, Karlsson E, Wright PK, Bergh J, et al. Ki67 measured in metastatic tissue and prognosis in patients with advanced breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2014;147:407–14.

126. Yin Y, Zeng K, Wu M, Ding Y, Zhao M, Chen Q. The levels of Ki-67 positive are positively associated with lymph node metastasis in invasive ductal breast cancer. *Cell Biochem. Biophys.* 2014;70:1145–51.
127. Kilickap S, Kaya Y, Yucel B, Tuncer E, Babacan NA, Elagoz S. Higher Ki67 expression is associates with unfavorable prognostic factors and shorter survival in breast cancer. *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev. APJCP.* 2014;15:1381–5.
128. Takashima T, Onoda N, Ishikawa T, Ogawa Y, Kato Y, Fujimoto Y, et al. Proliferating cell nuclear antigen labeling index and p53 expression predict outcome for breast cancer patients with four or more lymph node metastases. *Int. J. Mol. Med.* 2001;8:159–63.
129. Chu JS, Huang CS, Chang KJ. Proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) immunolabeling as a prognostic factor in invasive ductal carcinoma of the breast in Taiwan. *Cancer Lett.* 1998;131:145–52.
130. Thomassen M, Tan Q, Eiriksdottir F, Bak M, Cold S, Kruse TA. Comparison of gene sets for expression profiling: prediction of metastasis from low-malignant breast cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res. Off. J. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* 2007;13:5355–60.
131. Vaage J. Metastasizing potentials of mouse mammary tumors and their metastases. *Int. J. Cancer.* 1988;41:855–8.
132. Al-Hajj M, Clarke MF. Self-renewal and solid tumor stem cells. *Oncogene.* 2004;23:7274–82.
133. Fidler IJ, Kripke ML. Metastasis results from preexisting variant cells within a malignant tumor. *Science.* 1977;197:893–5.
134. Ling V, Chambers AF, Harris JF, Hill RP. Dynamic heterogeneity and metastasis. *J. Cell. Physiol.* 1984;121:99–103.
135. Rs K, C W, B K, A L, Ml B. Clonal dominance of primary tumours by metastatic cells: genetic analysis and biological implications. *Cancer Surv.* 1987;7:597–629.
136. García-Olmo D, García-Olmo DC. Functionality of Circulating DNA. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* 2001;945:265–75.
137. Lelekakis M, Moseley JM, Martin TJ, Hards D, Williams E, Ho P, et al. A novel orthotopic model of breast cancer metastasis to bone. *Clin. Exp. Metastasis.* 1999;17:163–70.
138. van 't Veer LJ, Dai H, van de Vijver MJ, He YD, Hart AAM, Mao M, et al. Gene expression profiling predicts clinical outcome of breast cancer. *Nature.* 2002;415:530–6.
139. Minn AJ, Kang Y, Serganova I, Gupta GP, Giri DD, Doubrovin M, et al. Distinct organ-specific metastatic potential of individual breast cancer cells and primary tumors. *J. Clin. Invest.* 2005;115:44–55.
140. Schmidt-Kittler O, Ragg T, Daskalakis A, Granzow M, Ahr A, Blankenstein TJF, et al. From latent disseminated cells to overt metastasis: Genetic analysis of systemic breast cancer progression. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 2003;100:7737–42.

141. Al-Hajj M, Wicha MS, Benito-Hernandez A, Morrison SJ, Clarke MF. Prospective identification of tumorigenic breast cancer cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 2003;100:3983–8.
142. Dontu G, El-Ashry D, Wicha MS. Breast cancer, stem/progenitor cells and the estrogen receptor. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.* 2004;15:193–7.
143. Bissell MJ, LaBarge MA. Context, tissue plasticity, and cancer: Are tumor stem cells also regulated by the microenvironment? *Cancer Cell.* 2005;7:17–23.
144. Bhowmick NA, Neilson EG, Moses HL. Stromal fibroblasts in cancer initiation and progression. *Nature.* 2004;432:332–7.
145. Stein S, DeMichele A, Domchek S, Fox K. Gemcitabine and trastuzumab combinations for patients with metastatic breast cancer overexpressing HER2/neu. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2004;4:S117–20.
146. Kozlowski J, Kozłowska A, Kocki J. Breast cancer metastasis - insight into selected molecular mechanisms of the phenomenon. *Postepy Hig. Med. Doswiadczalnej Online.* 2015;69:447–51.
147. Huovinen R, Auvinen P, Mattson J, Joensuu H. Adjuvant drug therapies for breast cancer. *Duodecim Laaketieteellinen Aikakauskirja.* 2015;131:23–8.
148. O’Shaughnessy J, McIntyre K, Schwartzberg L, Wilks S, Puhalla S, Berrak E, et al. Impact of prior anthracycline or taxane use on eribulin effectiveness as first-line treatment for metastatic breast cancer: results from two phase 2, multicenter, single-arm studies. *SpringerPlus.* 2015;4:1–10.
149. Matter M, Dusmet M, Chevalley F. The place of surgery in the treatment of advanced localized, recurrent and metastatic breast cancer. *Rev. Med. Suisse Romande.* 2000;120:485–90.
150. Matsunaga S, Shuto T, Kawahara N, Suenaga J, Inomori S, Fujino H. Gamma Knife surgery for metastatic brain tumors from primary breast cancer: treatment indication based on number of tumors and breast cancer phenotype: Clinical article. *J. Neurosurg.* 2010;113:65–72.
151. Lotersztajn N, Héquet D, Mosbah R, Rouzier R. Place du traitement chirurgical locorégional chez les patientes présentant un cancer du sein métastatique d’emblée. *Gynécologie Obstétrique Fertil.* 2015;43:304–8.
152. Singletary SE, Walsh G, Vauthey J-N, Curley S, Sawaya R, Weber KL, et al. A Role for Curative Surgery in the Treatment of Selected Patients with Metastatic Breast Cancer. *The oncologist.* 2003;8:241–51.
153. Libero LD, Varricchio A, Iannace C, Lo CD, Tartaglia E, Candela G, et al. Is primary surgery for locally advanced/metastatic breast cancer a better choice than chemotherapeutic treatment? *Ann. Ital. Chir.* 2014;85:317–22.
154. Criscitiello C, Giuliano M, Curigliano G, Laurentiis MD, Arpino G, Carlomagno N, et al. Surgery of the primary tumor in de novo metastatic breast cancer: To do or not to do? *Eur. J. Surg. Oncol. EJSO.* 2015;
155. Salama JK, Chmura SJ. The Role of Surgery and Ablative Radiotherapy in

Oligometastatic Breast Cancer. *Semin. Oncol.* 2014;41:790–7.

156. Delpech Y, Barranger E. Breast cancer surgery. *Rev. Prat.* 2013;63:1395–9.

157. Szychta P, Zadrozny M, Lewinski A, Karbownik-Lewinska M. Increased oxidative damage to membrane lipids following surgery for breast cancer. *Neuroendocrinol. Lett.* 2014;35:602–7.

158. Feys L, Descamps B, Vanhove C, Vral A, Veldeman L, Vermeulen S, et al. Radiation-induced lung damage promotes breast cancer lung-metastasis through CXCR4 signaling. *Oncotarget.* 2015;6:26615–32.

159. Yu L, Yang Y, Hou J, Zhai C, Song Y, Zhang Z, et al. MicroRNA-144 affects radiotherapy sensitivity by promoting proliferation, migration and invasion of breast cancer cells. *Oncol. Rep.* 2015;34:1845–52.

160. Murphy CT, Li T, Wang LS, Obeid EI, Bleicher RJ, Eastwick G, et al. Comparison of Adjuvant Radiation Therapy Alone Versus Radiation Therapy and Endocrine Therapy in Elderly Women With Early-Stage, Hormone Receptor-Positive Breast Cancer Treated With Breast-Conserving Surgery. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2015;

161. Bartsch R, Bago-Horvath Z, Berghoff A, DeVries C, Pluschnig U, Dubsy P, et al. Ovarian function suppression and fulvestrant as endocrine therapy in premenopausal women with metastatic breast cancer. *Eur. J. Cancer.* 2012;48:1932–8.

162. Shioi Y, Kashiwaba M, Inaba T, Komatsu H, Sugai T, Wakabayashi G. Long-term complete remission of metastatic breast cancer, induced by a steroidal aromatase inhibitor after failure of a non-steroidal aromatase inhibitor. *Am. J. Case Rep.* 2014;15:85.

163. Palmieri C, Patten DK, Januszewski A, Zucchini G, Howell SJ. Breast cancer: current and future endocrine therapies. *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.* 2014;382:695–723.

164. McBryan J, Theissen SM, Byrne C, Hughes E, Cocchiglia S, Sande S, et al. Metastatic progression with resistance to aromatase inhibitors is driven by the steroid receptor coactivator SRC-1. *Cancer Res.* 2012;72:548–59.

165. Bachelot T, Bourgier C, Cropet C, Ray-Coquard I, Ferrero JM, Freyer G, et al. Randomized phase II trial of everolimus in combination with tamoxifen in patients with hormone receptor-positive, human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-negative metastatic breast cancer with prior exposure to aromatase inhibitors: a GINECO study. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2012;30:2718–24.

166. Jurado JC, Aznar PR, Mata JG, Martínez RF, Fernández IP, Gimeno TS, et al. Management of patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Adv. Ther.* 2011;28:50–65.

167. Arriagada R, Le MG, Spielmann M, Mauriac L, Bonnetterre J, Namer M, et al. Randomized trial of adjuvant ovarian suppression in 926 premenopausal patients with early breast cancer treated with adjuvant chemotherapy. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2005;16:389–96.

168. Tevaarwerk AJ, Wang M, Zhao F, Fetting JH, Cella D, Wagner LI, et al. Phase III comparison of tamoxifen versus tamoxifen plus ovarian function suppression in premenopausal women with node-negative, hormone receptor-positive breast cancer (E-

3193, INT-0142): a trial of the Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2014;32:3948–58.

169. Stuart-Harris RC, Smith IE. Aminoglutethimide in the treatment of advanced breast cancer. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 1984;11:189–204.

170. Wells SA, Santen RJ. Ablative procedures in patients with metastatic breast carcinoma. *Cancer.* 1984;53:762–5.

171. Elliott KM, Dent J, Stanczyk FZ, Woodley L, Coombes RC, Purohit A, et al. Effects of aromatase inhibitors and body mass index on steroid hormone levels in women with early and advanced breast cancer. *Br. J. Surg.* 2014;101:939–48.

172. Tanaka K, Tokunaga E, Yamashita N, Taketani K, Akiyoshi S, Morita M, et al. A luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone agonist plus an aromatase inhibitor as second-line endocrine therapy in premenopausal females with hormone receptor-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Surg. Today.* 2014;44:1678–84.

173. Lintermans A, Asten KV, Wildiers H, Laenen A, Paridaens R, Weltens C, et al. A prospective assessment of musculoskeletal toxicity and loss of grip strength in breast cancer patients receiving adjuvant aromatase inhibitors and tamoxifen, and relation with BMI. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2014;146:109–16.

174. Chavarri-Guerra Y, Higgins MJ, Szymonifka J, Cigler T, Liedke P, Partridge A, et al. Drug withdrawal in women with progressive metastatic breast cancer while on aromatase inhibitor therapy. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2014;111:2046–50.

175. Ko KL, Shin IS, You JY, Jung S-Y, Ro J, Lee ES. Adjuvant tamoxifen-induced mammographic breast density reduction as a predictor for recurrence in estrogen receptor-positive premenopausal breast cancer patients. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2013;142:559–67.

176. Manna S, Bostner J, Sun Y, Miller LD, Alayev A, Schwartz NS, et al. $ERR\alpha$ is a marker of tamoxifen response and survival in triple-negative breast cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2015;clincanres. 0857.2015.

177. Rauschnig W, Pritchard KI. Droloxifene, a new antiestrogen: its role in metastatic breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 1994;31:83–94.

178. Ishizuna K, Ninomiya J, Ogawa T, Tsuji E, Kojima M, Kawashima M, et al. Efficacy of high-dose toremifene therapy in postmenopausal patients with metastatic breast cancer resistant to aromatase inhibitors: a retrospective, single-institution study. *Gan Kagaku Ryoho Cancer Chemother.* 2014;41:965–70.

179. Araki K, Ishida N, Horii R, Takahashi S, Akiyama F, Ito Y, et al. Efficacy of fulvestrant 500 mg in Japanese postmenopausal advanced/recurrent breast cancer patients and factors associated with prolonged time-to-treatment failure. *Expert Opin. Pharmacother.* 2015;1–8.

180. Egawa C, Okishiro M, Takatsuka Y. Efficacy and Safety of the Selective Estrogen Receptor Down-Regulator “Fulvestrant” in Japanese Patients with Advanced, Recurrent, ER-Positive Postmenopausal Breast Cancer. *Gan Kagaku Ryoho Cancer Chemother.* 2015;42:811–5.

181. Boni C, Pagano M, Panebianco M, Bologna A, Sierra NM, Gnoni R, et al. Therapeutic activity of testosterone in metastatic breast cancer. *Anticancer Res.* 2014;34:1287–90.
182. Grattarola R, Secreto G, Recchione C. Androgens in breast cancer. III. Breast cancer recurrences years after mastectomy and increased androgenic activity. *Am. J. Obstet. Gynecol.* 1975;121:169–72.
183. Talley RW, Haines CR, Waters MN, Goldenberg IS, Olson KB, Bisel HF. A dose-response evaluation of androgens in the treatment of metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer.* 1973;32:315–20.
184. Iwase H, Yamamoto Y, Yamamoto-Ibusuki M, Murakami KI, Okumura Y, Tomita S, et al. Ethinylestradiol is beneficial for postmenopausal patients with heavily pre-treated metastatic breast cancer after prior aromatase inhibitor treatment: a prospective study. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2013;109:1537–42.
185. Wander HE, Blossey HC, Nagel GA, Emrich D. Megestrol acetate in various doses in the treatment of metastatic breast carcinoma—clinical and endocrinologic studies. *Klin. Wochenschr.* 1985;63:312–8.
186. Xiangying M, Shikai W, Zefei J, Bing S, Yan M, Xin Z, et al. Progestin as an alternative treatment option for multi-treated recurrent triple-negative breast cancer. *Swiss Med Wkly.* 2013;143:w13765.
187. Nishimura R, Anan K, Yamamoto Y, Higaki K, Tanaka M, Shibuta K, et al. Efficacy of goserelin plus anastrozole in premenopausal women with advanced or recurrent breast cancer refractory to an LH-RH analogue with tamoxifen: results of the JMT0 BC08-01 phase II trial. *Oncol. Rep.* 2013;29:1707–13.
188. Koyama H, Iesato A, Fukushima Y, Okada T, Watanabe T, Harada M, et al. A retrospective study of high-dose toremifene treatment for patients with aromatase inhibitor refractory advanced or metastatic hormone receptor-positive breast cancer. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2011;38:1123–6.
189. Tomao F, Spinelli G, Vici P, Pisanelli GC, Casciulli G, Frati L, et al. Current role and safety profile of aromatase inhibitors in early breast cancer. 2011;
190. Kubota O, Onuki Y, Uchiyama T, Oishi K, Takeda M. Efficacy of high-dose toremifene as a second-line hormone therapy in patients with advanced or metastatic breast cancer resistant to aromatase inhibitor. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2012;39:753–7.
191. Hattori M, Horio A, Sawaki M, Kondo N, Fujita T, Ushio A, et al. Assessment of the clinical efficacy and safety of fulvestrant in heavily pretreated patients with hormone-receptor positive metastatic breast cancer—a single-institution experience. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2013;40:2535–8.
192. Schwartzberg LS, Wang G, Somer BG, Blakely LJ, Wheeler BM, Walker MS, et al. Phase II Trial of Fulvestrant with metronomic capecitabine for postmenopausal women with hormone receptor-positive, HER2-Negative metastatic breast cancer. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2014;14:13–9.

193. Cardoso F, Bischoff J, Brain E, Zotano ÁG, Lück H-J, Tjan-Heijnen VC, et al. A review of the treatment of endocrine responsive metastatic breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 2013;39:457–65.
194. Libson S, Lippman M. A review of clinical aspects of breast cancer. *Int. Rev. Psychiatry.* 2014;26:4–15.
195. Pac JA. Current progress in the treatment of metaplastic breast carcinoma. *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev.* 2013;14:6221–5.
196. Rapoport BL, Molasiotis A, Raftopoulos H, Roila F. Chemotherapy-Induced Nausea and Vomiting. *BioMed Res. Int.* 2015;
197. Kosaka Y, Tanino H, Sengoku N, Minatani N, Kikuchi M, Nishimiya H, et al. Phase II randomized, controlled trial of 1 day versus 3 days of dexamethasone combined with palonosetron and aprepitant to prevent nausea and vomiting in Japanese breast cancer patients receiving anthracycline-based chemotherapy. *Support. Care Cancer Off. J. Multinat. Assoc. Support. Care Cancer.* 2015;
198. Yun S, Vincelette ND, Abraham I. Cardioprotective role of beta-blockers and angiotensin antagonists in early-onset anthracyclines-induced cardiotoxicity in adult patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Postgrad. Med. J.* 2015;91:627–33.
199. Vera T, D’Agostino RB, Jordan JH, Whitlock MC, Meléndez GC, Lamar ZS, et al. Relation of Pre-anthracycline Serum Bilirubin Levels to Left Ventricular Ejection Fraction After Chemotherapy. *Am. J. Cardiol.* 2015;116:1752–5.
200. Rhea IB, Oliveira GH. Illuminating anthracycline cardiotoxicity: the renaissance of evidence-based onco-cardiology. *J. Thorac. Dis.* 2015;7:1111.
201. Shen S, Xu Y, Sun Q, Wang C, Zhou Y, Mao F, et al. Trastuzumab administered concurrently with anthracycline-containing adjuvant regimen for breast cancer. *Zhonghua Zhong Liu Za Zhi.* 2014;36:132–6.
202. Rivera E, Cianfrocca M. Overview of neuropathy associated with taxanes for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2015;75:659–70.
203. Bachegowda LS, Makower DF, Sparano JA. Taxanes: impact on breast cancer therapy. *Anticancer. Drugs.* 2014;25:512–21.
204. Park JS, Jeung H-C, Rha SY, Ahn JB, Kang B, Chon HJ, et al. Phase II gemcitabine and capecitabine combination therapy in recurrent or metastatic breast cancer patients pretreated with anthracycline and taxane. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2014;74:799–808.
205. Nerich V, Chelly J, Montcuquet P, Chaigneau L, Villanueva C, Fiteni F, et al. First-line trastuzumab plus taxane-based chemotherapy for metastatic breast cancer: cost-minimization analysis. *J. Oncol. Pharm. Pract. Off. Publ. Int. Soc. Oncol. Pharm. Pract.* 2014;20:362–8.
206. Yu J, DI L, Song G, Che L, Jiang H, Zhu Y, et al. Randomized clinical case-control trial for the comparison of docetaxel plus thiotepa versus docetaxel plus capecitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Beijing Xue Xue Bao Yi Xue Ban J. Peking Univ.*

Sci. 2011;43:151–6.

207. Crown J, Kennedy MJ, Tresca P, Marty M, Espie M, Burris HA, et al. Optimally tolerated dose of lapatinib in combination with docetaxel plus trastuzumab in first-line treatment of HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO*. 2013;24:2005–11.

208. Karachaliou N, Ziras N, Syrigos K, Tryfonidis K, Papadimitraki E, Kontopodis E, et al. A multicenter phase II trial of docetaxel and capecitabine as salvage treatment in anthracycline-and taxane-pretreated patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol*. 2012;70:169–76.

209. Lee A, Go SI, Lee WS, Lee US, Kim MJ, Kang MH, et al. Irinotecan and capecitabine combination chemotherapy in a patient with triple-negative breast cancer relapsed after adjuvant chemotherapy with anthracycline and taxane. *Tumori*. 2015;101:e9–12.

210. Yasaki S, Tukamoto Y, Yuasa N, Ishikawa T, Yoshii F. Late-onset leukoencephalopathy induced by long-term chemotherapy with capecitabine and cyclophosphamide for liver metastasis from breast cancer. *Rinsho Shinkeigaku*. 2012;52:251–6.

211. Blum JL, Jones SE, Buzdar AU, LoRusso PM, Kuter I, Vogel C, et al. Multicenter phase II study of capecitabine in paclitaxel-refractory metastatic breast cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol*. 1999;17:485–93.

212. Hong JY, Park YH, Choi MK, Jung HA, Lee SJ, Ahn JS, et al. Characterization of Durable Responder for Capecitabine Monotherapy in Patients With Anthracycline-and Taxane-Pretreated Metastatic Breast Cancer. *Clin. Breast Cancer*. 2015;

213. Huang HY, Jiang ZF, Wang T, Zhang SH, Bian L, Cao Y, et al. Efficacy and safety of regimens of capecitabine-based chemotherapy in the treatment of advanced breast cancer. *Zhonghua Zhong Liu Za Zhi*. 2011;33:850–3.

214. Okamura R, Kato T, Sata R. Oral combination chemotherapy with capecitabine and cyclophosphamide in combination with endocrine therapy and anti-HER2 therapy for advanced and metastatic breast cancer. *Nihon RinshoJapanese J. Clin. Med*. 2012;70 Suppl 7:592–6.

215. Dranitsaris G, Beegle N, Kalberer T, Blau S, Cox D, Faria C. A comparison of toxicity and health care resource use between eribulin, capecitabine, gemcitabine, and vinorelbine in patients with metastatic breast cancer treated in a community oncology setting. *J. Oncol. Pharm. Pract. Off. Publ. Int. Soc. Oncol. Pharm. Pract*. 2015;21:170–7.

216. Nakatsukasa K, Koyama H, Tokugawa T, Inaba S. A case of metastatic pancreatic cancer which trastuzumab+capecitabine combination therapy was effective. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother*. 2012;39:1243–5.

217. Villanueva C, Awada A, Campone M, Machiels J-P, Besse T, Magherini E, et al. A multicentre dose-escalating study of cabazitaxel (XRP6258) in combination with capecitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer progressing after anthracycline and taxane treatment: a phase I/II study. *Eur. J. Cancer*. 2011;47:1037–45.

218. Shigekawa T, Takeuchi H, Misumi M, Nakamiya N, Sugiyama M, Sugitani I, et al. Successful treatment of trastuzumab-resistant HER2-positive breast cancer with extensive liver metastases using the combination of trastuzumab and capecitabine - a case report. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2013;40:225–7.
219. Roy V, LaPlant BR, Gross GG, Bane CL, Palmieri FM, Group NCCT. Phase II trial of weekly nab (nanoparticle albumin-bound)-paclitaxel (nab-paclitaxel) (Abraxane) in combination with gemcitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer (N0531). *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2009;20:449–53.
220. Amadori D, Ceconetto L. Gemcitabine and taxanes in metastatic breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2006;17 Suppl 5:v173–6.
221. Kontopodis E, Kentepozidis N, Christophyllakis C, Boukovinas I, Kalykaki A, Kalbakis K, et al. Docetaxel, gemcitabine and bevacizumab as salvage chemotherapy for HER-2-negative metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2015;75:153–60.
222. 矢部信成, ほか. Trastuzumab+Gemcitabine が有効であったHER2 陽性乳癌の1例. 40:2396–8.
223. Eichler K, Jakobi S, Gruber-Rouh T, Hammerstingl R, Vogl TJ, Zangos S. Transarterial chemoembolisation (TACE) with gemcitabine: phase II study in patients with liver metastases of breast cancer. *Eur. J. Radiol.* 2013;82:e816–22.
224. El-Mabhough AA, Nation PN, Abele JT, Riauka T, Postema E, McEwan AJB, et al. A conjugate of gemcitabine with bisphosphonate (Gem/BP) shows potential as a targeted bone-specific therapeutic agent in an animal model of human breast cancer bone metastases. *Oncol. Res. Featur. Preclin. Clin. Cancer Ther.* 2011;19:287–95.
225. Kim JS, Park IH, Lee KS, Ro J. Outcomes of Palliative Weekly Low-Dose Gemcitabine-Cisplatin Chemotherapy in Anthracycline-and Taxane-Pretreated Metastatic Breast Cancer Patients. *J. Breast Cancer.* 2014;17:339–43.
226. Modi S, Currie VE, Seidman AD, Bach AM, Panageas KS, Theodoulou M, et al. A phase II trial of gemcitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer previously treated with an anthracycline and taxane. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2005;6:55–60.
227. Seo JH, Oh SC, Choi CW, Kim BS, Shin SW, Kim YH, et al. Phase II study of a gemcitabine and cisplatin combination regimen in taxane resistant metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2007;59:269–74.
228. Stemmler HJ, Freier W, Tessen HW, Gitsch G, Jonat W, Brugger W, et al. Randomised phase II trial of gemcitabine plus vinorelbine vs gemcitabine plus cisplatin vs gemcitabine plus capecitabine in patients with pretreated metastatic breast cancer. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2011;104:1071–8.
229. Erten C, Demir L, Somali I, Alacacioglu A, Kucukzeybek Y, Akyol M, et al. Cisplatin plus gemcitabine for treatment of breast cancer patients with brain metastases: a preferential option for triple negative patients? *Asian Pac. J. Cancer Prev.* 2013;14:3711–7.

230. Anton A, Lluch A, Casado A, Provencio M, Munoz M, Lao J, et al. Phase I study of oral vinorelbine and capecitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Anticancer Res.* 2010;30:2255–61.
231. Awada A, Dirix L, Sanchez LM, Xu B, Luu T, Dieras V, et al. Safety and efficacy of neratinib (HKI-272) plus vinorelbine in the treatment of patients with ErbB2-positive metastatic breast cancer pretreated with anti-HER2 therapy. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2013;24:109–16.
232. Baweja M, Suman VJ, Fitch TR, Mailliard JA, Bernath A, Rowland KM, et al. Phase II trial of oral vinorelbine for the treatment of metastatic breast cancer in patients > or = 65 years of age: an NCCTG study. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2006;17:623–9.
233. Toi M, Saeki T, Aogi K, Sano M, Hatake K, Asaga T, et al. Late phase II clinical study of vinorelbine monotherapy in advanced or recurrent breast cancer previously treated with anthracyclines and taxanes. *Jpn. J. Clin. Oncol.* 2005;35:310–5.
234. Aapro M, Finek J. Oral vinorelbine in metastatic breast cancer: a review of current clinical trial results. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 2012;38:120–6.
235. Finek J, Jr LH, Svoboda T, Sefrhansova L, Pavlikova I, Votavova M, et al. A phase II trial of oral vinorelbine and capecitabine in anthracycline pretreated patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Anticancer Res.* 2009;29:667–70.
236. Serin D, Verrill M, Jones A, Delozier T, Coleman R, Kreuser ED, et al. Vinorelbine alternating oral and intravenous plus epirubicin in first-line therapy of metastatic breast cancer: results of a multicentre phase II study. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2005;92:1989–96.
237. Sasada S, Ohtani S, Kim R, Higaki K. Clinical effect of Vinorelbine monotherapy in 18 cases of advanced or metastatic breast cancer. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2008;35:1703–7.
238. Tawfik H, Rostom Y, Elghazaly H. All-oral combination of vinorelbine and capecitabine as first-line treatment in HER2/Neu-negative metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2013;71:913–9.
239. Zhang J, Gu S-Y, Gan Y, Wang Z-H, Wang B-Y, Guo H-Y, et al. Vinorelbine and capecitabine in anthracycline-and/or taxane-pretreated metastatic breast cancer: sequential or combinational? *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2013;71:103–13.
240. Welt A, Minckwitz G von, Oberhoff C, Borquez D, Schleucher R, Loibl S, et al. Phase I/II study of capecitabine and vinorelbine in pretreated patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2005;16:64–9.
241. Wang J, Xu B, Yuan P, Ma F, Li Q, Zhang P, et al. Capecitabine combined with docetaxel versus vinorelbine followed by capecitabine maintenance medication for first-line treatment of patients with advanced breast cancer: Phase 3 randomized trial. *Cancer.* 2015;
242. Tubiana-Mathieu N, Bournoux P, Becquart D, Chan A, Conte PF, Majois F, et al. All-oral combination of oral vinorelbine and capecitabine as first-line chemotherapy in HER2-negative metastatic breast cancer: an International Phase II Trial. *Br. J. Cancer.*

2009;101:232–7.

243. Saridaki Z, Malamos N, Kourakos P, Polyzos A, Ardavanis A, Androulakis N, et al. A phase I trial of oral metronomic vinorelbine plus capecitabine in patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2012;69:35–42.

244. Estévez LG, Batista N, Sánchez-Rovira P, Velasco A, Provencio M, León A, et al. A phase II study of capecitabine and vinorelbine in patients with metastatic breast cancer pretreated with anthracyclines and taxanes. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2008;8:149–54.

245. Fan Y, Xu B, Yuan P, Wang J, Ma F, Li Q, et al. Prospective study of vinorelbine and capecitabine combination therapy in Chinese patients with metastatic breast cancer pretreated with anthracyclines and taxanes. *Chemotherapy.* 2010;56:340–7.

246. Jones A, O'Brien M, Sommer H, Nowara E, Welt A, Pienkowski T, et al. Phase II study of oral vinorelbine in combination with capecitabine as second line chemotherapy in metastatic breast cancer patients previously treated with anthracyclines and taxanes. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2010;65:755–63.

247. Martín M, Ruiz A, Muñoz M, Balil A, García-Mata J, Calvo L, et al. Gemcitabine plus vinorelbine versus vinorelbine monotherapy in patients with metastatic breast cancer previously treated with anthracyclines and taxanes: final results of the phase III Spanish Breast Cancer Research Group (GEICAM) trial. *Lancet Oncol.* 2007;8:219–25.

248. Addeo R, Sperlongano P, Montella L, Vincenzi B, Carraturo M, Iodice P, et al. Protracted low dose of oral vinorelbine and temozolomide with whole-brain radiotherapy in the treatment for breast cancer patients with brain metastases. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2012;70:603–9.

249. Chan D, Yeo W-L, Cordero MT, Wong C-I, Chuah B, Soo R, et al. Phase II study of gemcitabine and carboplatin in metastatic breast cancers with prior exposure to anthracyclines and taxanes. *Invest. New Drugs.* 2010;28:859–65.

250. Sakaguchi K, Mizuta N, Imai A, Nakatsukasa K, Taguchi T. A case of breast cancer with brain metastases responding to paclitaxel and capecitabine therapy. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2012;39:261–3.

251. Chen XS, Nie XQ, Chen CM, Wu JY, Wu J, Lu JS, et al. Weekly paclitaxel plus carboplatin is an effective nonanthracycline-containing regimen as neoadjuvant chemotherapy for breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2010;21:961–7.

252. Pentheroudakis G, Razis E, Athanassiadis A, Pavlidis N, Fountzilas G. Paclitaxel-carboplatin combination chemotherapy in advanced breast cancer. *Med. Oncol.* 2006;23:147–60.

253. Liu J, Li Q, Zhang P, Wang JY, Zhao LM, Xu BH. Paclitaxel plus carboplatin for women with advanced breast cancer. *Chin. Med. Sci. J. Chung-Kuo Hsueh Ko Hsueh Tsa Chih Chin. Acad. Med. Sci.* 2007;22:93–7.

254. Ma WY, Zhang P, Zhang BL, Wang X, Xu XZ, Zheng S, et al. Phase II clinical trial of neoadjuvant therapy with carboplatin plus paclitaxel for locally advanced triple-negative breast cancer. *Zhonghua Zhong Liu Za Zhi.* 2012;34:770–4.

255. Robert N, Leyland-Jones B, Asmar L, Belt R, Ilegbodu D, Loesch D, et al. Randomized phase III study of trastuzumab, paclitaxel, and carboplatin compared with trastuzumab and paclitaxel in women with HER-2-overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2006;24:2786–92.
256. Laessig D, Stemmler HJ, Vehling-Kaiser U, Fasching PA, Melchert F, Kolbl H, et al. Gemcitabine and carboplatin in intensively pretreated patients with metastatic breast cancer. *Oncology.* 2007;73:407–14.
257. Nelli F, Moscetti L, Natoli G, Massari A, D’Auria G, Chilelli M, et al. Gemcitabine and carboplatin for pretreated metastatic breast cancer: the predictive value of immunohistochemically defined subtypes. *Int. J. Clin. Oncol.* 2013;18:343–9.
258. Nahas GR, Walker ND, Bryan M, Rameshwar P. A Perspective of Immunotherapy for Breast Cancer: Lessons Learned and Forward Directions for All Cancers. *Breast Cancer Basic Clin. Res.* 2015;9:35–43.
259. Alistar A, Chou JW, Nagalla S, Black MA, D’Agostino R, Miller LD. Dual roles for immune metagenes in breast cancer prognosis and therapy prediction. *Genome Med.* 2014;6:80.
260. Payne KK, Manjili MH. Adaptive immune responses associated with breast cancer relapse. *Arch. Immunol. Ther. Exp. (Warsz.).* 2012;60:345–50.
261. Tkach M, Coria L, Rosemblyt C, Rivas MA, Proietti CJ, Díaz Flaqué MC, et al. Targeting Stat3 induces senescence in tumor cells and elicits prophylactic and therapeutic immune responses against breast cancer growth mediated by NK cells and CD4⁺ T cells. *J. Immunol. Baltim. Md 1950.* 2012;189:1162–72.
262. Terunuma H. Autologous Immune Enhancement Therapy for Cancer - Our experience since 2004. *J. Stem Cells Regen. Med.* 2012;8:205–6.
263. Carvalho MI, Guimarães MJ, Pires I, Prada J, Silva-Carvalho R, Lopes C, et al. EGFR and microvessel density in canine malignant mammary tumours. *Res. Vet. Sci.* 2013;95:1094–9.
264. Castillo-Pichardo L, Dharmawardhane SF. Grape Polyphenols Inhibit Akt/Mammalian Target of Rapamycin Signaling and Potentiate the Effects of Gefitinib in Breast Cancer. *Nutr. Cancer.* 2012;64:1058–69.
265. El Guerrab A, Zegrour R, Nemlin C-C, Vigier F, Cayre A, Penault-Llorca F, et al. Differential Impact of EGFR-Targeted Therapies on Hypoxia Responses: Implications for Treatment Sensitivity in Triple-Negative Metastatic Breast Cancer. *PLoS ONE.* 2011;6:e25080.
266. Hsieh C-Y, Tsai P-C, Tseng C-H, Chen Y, Chang L-S, Lin S-R. Inhibition of EGF/EGFR activation with naphtho[1,2-b]furan-4,5-dione blocks migration and invasion of MDA-MB-231 cells. *Toxicol. In Vitro.* 2013;27:1–10.
267. Nickerson NK, Mohammad KS, Gilmore JL, Crismore E, Bruzzaniti A, Guise TA, et al. Decreased Autocrine EGFR Signaling in Metastatic Breast Cancer Cells Inhibits Tumor Growth in Bone and Mammary Fat Pad. *PLoS ONE.* 2012;7:e30255.

268. Safdari Y, Khalili M, Ebrahimzadeh MA, Yazdani Y, Farajnia S. Natural inhibitors of PI3K/AKT signaling in breast cancer: Emphasis on newly-discovered molecular mechanisms of action. *Pharmacol. Res.* 2015;93:1–10.
269. Wendt MK, Williams WK, Pascuzzi PE, Balanis NG, Schiemann BJ, Carlin CR, et al. The Antitumorigenic Function of EGFR in Metastatic Breast Cancer is Regulated by Expression of Mig6. *Neoplasia.* 2015;17:124–33.
270. Al-Ejeh F, Shi W, Miranda M, Simpson PT, Vargas AC, Song S, et al. Treatment of Triple-Negative Breast Cancer Using Anti-EGFR-Directed Radioimmunotherapy Combined with Radiosensitizing Chemotherapy and PARP Inhibitor. *J. Nucl. Med.* 2013;54:913–21.
271. Kumar S, Masood N, Shaikh AJ. Old disease, new targets--part-I, solid malignancies. *JPMA J. Pak. Med. Assoc.* 2009;59:398–405.
272. Modi S, D'Andrea G, Norton L, Yao TJ, Caravelli J, Rosen PP, et al. A phase I study of cetuximab/paclitaxel in patients with advanced-stage breast cancer. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2006;7:270–7.
273. Trédan O, Campone M, Jassem J, Vyzula R, Coudert B, Pacilio C, et al. Ixabepilone alone or with cetuximab as first-line treatment for advanced/metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2015;15:8–15.
274. Nechushtan H, Vainer G, Stainberg H, Salmon AY, Hamburger T, Peretz T. A phase 1/2 of a combination of cetuximab and taxane for “triple negative” breast cancer patients. *Breast Edinb. Scotl.* 2014;23:435–8.
275. Bramati A, Girelli S, Torri V, Farina G, Galfrascoli E, Piva S, et al. Efficacy of biological agents in metastatic triple-negative breast cancer. *Cancer Treat. Rev.* 2014;40:605–13.
276. Luedke E, Jaime-Ramirez AC, Bhawe N, Carson WE. Monoclonal antibody therapy of pancreatic cancer with cetuximab: potential for immune modulation. *J. Immunother. Hagerstown Md 1997.* 2012;35:367–73.
277. Somlo G, Martel CL, Lau SK, Frankel P, Ruel C, Gu L, et al. A phase I/II prospective, single arm trial of gefitinib, trastuzumab, and docetaxel in patients with stage IV HER-2 positive metastatic breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2011;131:899–906.
278. Commander H, Whiteside G, Perry C. Vandetanib. *Drugs.* 2012;71:1355–65.
279. Addison CL, Pond GR, Cochrane B, Zhao H, Chia SK, Levine MN, et al. Correlation of baseline biomarkers with clinical outcomes and response to fulvestrant with vandetanib or placebo in patients with bone predominant metastatic breast cancer: An OCOG ZAMBONEY sub-study. *J. Bone Oncol.* 2015;4:47–53.
280. De Luca A, D'Alessio A, Maiello MR, Gallo M, Bevilacqua S, Frezzetti D, et al. Vandetanib as a potential treatment for breast cancer. *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs.* 2014;23:1295–303.
281. Layman RM, Ruppert AS, Lynn M, Mrozek E, Ramaswamy B, Lustberg MB, et al.

Severe and prolonged lymphopenia observed in patients treated with bendamustine and erlotinib for metastatic triple negative breast cancer. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2013;71:1183–90.

282. Dickler MN, Cobleigh MA, Miller KD, Klein PM, Winer EP. Efficacy and safety of erlotinib in patients with locally advanced or metastatic breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2009;115:115–21.

283. Twelves C, Trigo JM, Jones R, De Rosa F, Rakhit A, Fettner S, et al. Erlotinib in combination with capecitabine and docetaxel in patients with metastatic breast cancer: a dose-escalation study. *Eur. J. Cancer Oxf. Engl.* 1990. 2008;44:419–26.

284. Choi Y-J, Nam S-J, Son MJ, Kim D-K, Kim J-H, Yang J-H, et al. Erlotinib prevents pulmonary metastasis in curatively resected breast carcinoma using a mouse model. *Oncol. Rep.* 2006;16:119–22.

285. Baselga J, Cortés J, Kim S-B, Im S-A, Hegg R, Im Y-H, et al. Pertuzumab plus trastuzumab plus docetaxel for metastatic breast cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2012;366:109–19.

286. Slamon DJ, Leyland-Jones B, Shak S, Fuchs H, Paton V, Bajamonde A, et al. Use of chemotherapy plus a monoclonal antibody against HER2 for metastatic breast cancer that overexpresses HER2. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2001;344:783–92.

287. Taskar KS, Rudraraju V, Mittapalli RK, Samala R, Thorsheim HR, Lockman J, et al. Lapatinib Distribution in HER2 Overexpressing Experimental Brain Metastases of Breast Cancer. *Pharm. Res.* 2011;29:770–81.

288. Orphanos G, Kountourakis P. Targeting the HER2 Receptor in Metastatic Breast Cancer. *Hematol. Oncol. Stem Cell Ther.* 2012;5:127–37.

289. Dawood S, Broglio K, Buzdar AU, Hortobagyi GN, Giordano SH. Prognosis of women with metastatic breast cancer by HER2 status and trastuzumab treatment: an institutional-based review. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2010;28:92–8.

290. Jackisch C, Schoenegg W, Reichert D, Welslau M, Selbach J, Harich H-D, et al. Trastuzumab in advanced breast cancer-a decade of experience in Germany. *BMC Cancer.* 2014;14:924.

291. Witzel I, Müller V, Abenhardt W, Kaufmann M, Schoenegg W, Schneeweis A, et al. Long-term tumor remission under trastuzumab treatment for HER2 positive metastatic breast cancer-results from the HER-OS patient registry. *BMC Cancer.* 2014;14:806.

292. Negri E, Zambelli A, Franchi M, Rossi M, Bonifazi M, Corrao G, et al. Effectiveness of trastuzumab in first-line HER2+ metastatic breast cancer after failure in adjuvant setting: a controlled cohort study. *The oncologist.* 2014;19:1209–15.

293. Sengoku N, Tanino H, Kosaka Y, Kikuchi M, Nishimiya H, Waraya M, et al. The Safety of Concentrated Trastuzumab in 100 ml of Saline Solution for Administration to Patients with HER2-Positive Breast Cancer: A Phase 1 Study. *Chemotherapy.* 2014;60:1–6.

294. Yan M, Lv H-M, Zhang M-W, Cui S-D. Maintenance treatment of trastuzumab for

patients with advanced breast cancer to achieve long term survival: two case reports and literature review. *Chin. J. Cancer Res.* 2014;26:486.

295. Sendur MA, Aksoy S, Ozdemir NY, Yazici O, Zengin N, Altundag K. The efficacy of adjuvant trastuzumab in HER-2 positive breast cancer with axillary lymph node metastases according to the treatment duration. *Curr. Med. Res. Opin.* 2014;30:2535–42.

296. Hartkopf AD, Brendel MH, Wallwiener M, Taran F-A, Brucker S, Grischke E-M. Trastuzumab administration in patients with metastatic breast cancer—experience of a large University Breast Center. *Geburtshilfe Frauenheilkd.* 2014;74:563.

297. Croom KF, Dhillon S. Bevacizumab. *Drugs.* 2011;71:2213–29.

298. Esteva FJ, Valero V, Booser D, Guerra LT, Murray JL, Pusztai L, et al. Phase II study of weekly docetaxel and trastuzumab for patients with HER-2-overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2002;20:1800–8.

299. Marty M, Cognetti F, Maraninchi D, Snyder R, Mauriac L, Tubiana-Hulin M, et al. Randomized phase II trial of the efficacy and safety of trastuzumab combined with docetaxel in patients with human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive metastatic breast cancer administered as first-line treatment: the M77001 study group. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2005;23:4265–74.

300. Burstein HJ, Keshaviah A, Baron AD, Hart RD, Lambert-Falls R, Marcom PK, et al. Trastuzumab plus vinorelbine or taxane chemotherapy for HER2-overexpressing metastatic breast cancer: The trastuzumab and vinorelbine or taxane study. *Cancer.* 2007;110:965–72.

301. Bayo-Calero JL, Mayordomo JI, Sánchez-Rovira P, Pérez-Carrión R, Illaramendi JJ, García-Bueno JM, et al. A phase II study of weekly vinorelbine and trastuzumab in patients with HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2008;8:264–8.

302. Chan A, Martin M, Untch M, Gil MG, Guillem-Porta V, Wojtukiewicz M, et al. Vinorelbine plus trastuzumab combination as first-line therapy for HER 2-positive metastatic breast cancer patients: an international phase II trial. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2006;95:788–93.

303. Heinemann V, Gioia DD, Vehling-Kaiser U, Harich HD, Heinrich B, Welt A, et al. A prospective multicenter phase II study of oral and i.v. vinorelbine plus trastuzumab as first-line therapy in HER2-overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2011;22:603–8.

304. Fujisawa M, Uomori T, Takehara K, Mitsugi Y, Yoshino K, Okumura M, et al. A case of recurrent breast cancer responding to vinorelbine/trastuzumab combination therapy. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother.* 2009;36:2631–5.

305. Kalsi R, Feigenberg S, Kwok Y, Tkaczuk K, Mehta M, Chumsri S. Brain metastasis and response to ado-trastuzumab emtansine: a case report and literature review. *Clin. Breast Cancer.* 2015;15:e163–6.

306. Sibaud V, Niec RE, Schindler K, Busam KJ, Roché H, Modi S, et al. Ado-trastuzumab emtansine-associated telangiectasias in metastatic breast cancer: a case series. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2014;146:451–6.

307. Corrigan PA, Cicci TA, Auten JJ, Lowe DK. Ado-trastuzumab emtansine: a HER2-positive targeted antibody-drug conjugate. *Ann. Pharmacother.* 2014;48:1484–93.
308. Baron JM, Boster BL, Barnett CM. Ado-trastuzumab emtansine (T-DM1): a novel antibody-drug conjugate for the treatment of HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *J. Oncol. Pharm. Pract. Off. Publ. Int. Soc. Oncol. Pharm. Pract.* 2015;21:132–42.
309. Patel KC, Hageman K, Cooper MR. Ado-trastuzumab emtansine for the treatment of human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Am. J. Health-Syst. Pharm. AJHP Off. J. Am. Soc. Health-Syst. Pharm.* 2014;71:537–48.
310. Yamamura J, Kamigaki S, Hamakawa T, Hoshino H, Nakata K, Yamamoto T, et al. [Efficacy and Safety of Pertuzumab for HER2-Positive Metastatic Breast Cancer]. *Gan To Kagaku Ryoho.* 2015;42:713–7.
311. Dawood S, Sirohi B. Pertuzumab: a new anti-HER2 drug in the management of women with breast cancer. *Future Oncol. Lond. Engl.* 2015;11:923–31.
312. Swain SM, Baselga J, Kim S-B, Ro J, Semiglazov V, Campone M, et al. Pertuzumab, trastuzumab, and docetaxel in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 2015;372:724–34.
313. Kawajiri H, Takashima T, Kashiwagi S, Noda S, Onoda N, Hirakawa K. Pertuzumab in combination with trastuzumab and docetaxel for HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Expert Rev. Anticancer Ther.* 2015;15:17–26.
314. Miller KD, Diéras V, Harbeck N, Andre F, Mahtani RL, Gianni L, et al. Phase IIa trial of trastuzumab emtansine with pertuzumab for patients with human epidermal growth factor receptor 2-positive, locally advanced, or metastatic breast cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2014;32:1437–44.
315. Chung C, Lam MSH. Pertuzumab for the treatment of human epidermal growth factor receptor type 2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Am. J. Health-Syst. Pharm. AJHP Off. J. Am. Soc. Health-Syst. Pharm.* 2013;70:1579–87.
316. McCormack PL. Pertuzumab: a review of its use for first-line combination treatment of HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Drugs.* 2013;73:1491–502.
317. Cortés J, Baselga J, Im Y-H, Im S-A, Pivot X, Ross G, et al. Health-related quality-of-life assessment in CLEOPATRA, a phase III study combining pertuzumab with trastuzumab and docetaxel in metastatic breast cancer. *Ann. Oncol. Off. J. Eur. Soc. Med. Oncol. ESMO.* 2013;24:2630–5.
318. Kiewe P, Hasmüller S, Kahlert S, Heinrigs M, Rack B, Marmé A, et al. Phase I Trial of the Trifunctional Anti-HER2 × Anti-CD3 Antibody Ertumaxomab in Metastatic Breast Cancer. *Clin. Cancer Res.* 2006;12:3085–91.
319. Kiewe P, Thiel E. Ertumaxomab: a trifunctional antibody for breast cancer treatment. *Expert Opin. Investig. Drugs.* 2008;17:1553–8.
320. Jäger M, Schoberth A, Ruf P, Hess J, Lindhofer H. The Trifunctional Antibody Ertumaxomab Destroys Tumor Cells That Express Low Levels of Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor 2. *Cancer Res.* 2009;69:4270–6.

321. Tursi MD, Carella C. Lapatinib in second-line treatment for metastatic breast cancer: rapid clinical benefit and long-term response. *Tumori*. 2013;99:261e – 3e.
322. Hirano T, Sakurai K, Fujisaki S, Maeda T, Nagashima S, Hara Y, et al. Lapatinib is useful for metastatic breast cancer patients who cannot be treated with trastuzumab-report of a case. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother*. 2012;39:2045–7.
323. Fabi A, Merola R, Ferretti G, Benedetto AD, Antoniani B, Ercolani C, et al. Epidermal growth factor receptor gene copy number may predict lapatinib sensitivity in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Expert Opin. Pharmacother*. 2013;14:699–706.
324. Fujita Y, Mizuta N, Sakaguchi K, Nakatsukasa K, Imai A, Umeda Y, et al. A case of effective lapatinib/capecitabine therapy for HER2-positive breast cancer with multiple brain metastases. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother*. 2012;39:1699–702.
325. Chiba A, Shimizu S, Yoshida A, Inaba M, Matsuura H, Ino H, et al. Efficacy and toxicity of lapatinib plus capecitabine therapy in HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother*. 2012;39:1675–9.
326. Dennie TW, Fleming RA, Bowen CJ, Dar MM, Alberti D, Oliver K, et al. A phase I study of capecitabine, oxaliplatin, and lapatinib in metastatic or advanced solid tumors. *Clin. Colorectal Cancer*. 2011;10:57–62.
327. Shibasaki M, Tanabe A, Toda T, Sakata H, Ijichi M, Kusaka K, et al. A Case of Effective Whole-Brain Irradiation and Lapatinib/Capecitabine Combination Therapy for HER2-Positive Breast Cancer with Multiple Brain Metastases. *Gan Kagaku RyohoCancer Chemother*. 2015;42:755–7.
328. Gamucci T, Moscetti L, Mentuccia L, Pizzuti L, Mauri M, Zampa G, et al. Optimal tolerability and high efficacy of a modified schedule of lapatinib–capecitabine in advanced breast cancer patients. *J. Cancer Res. Clin. Oncol*. 2014;140:221–6.
329. Oktay E, Yersal Ö, Meydan N, Sağiroğlu M, Uyanık Ö, Barutca S. Nearly complete response of brain metastases from HER2 overexpressing breast cancer with lapatinib and capecitabine after whole brain irradiation. *Case Rep. Oncol. Med*. 2013;2013.
330. Kaplan MA, Isikdogan A, Koca D, Kucukoner M, Gumusay O, Yildiz R, et al. Clinical outcomes in patients who received lapatinib plus capecitabine combination therapy for HER2-positive breast cancer with brain metastasis and a comparison of survival with those who received trastuzumab-based therapy: a study by the Anatolian Society of Medical Oncology. *Breast Cancer*. 2014;21:677–83.
331. Shawky H, Tawfik H. All-oral combination of lapatinib and capecitabine in patients with brain metastases from HER2-positive breast cancer–A phase II study. *J. Egypt. Natl. Cancer Inst*. 2014;26:187–94.
332. Chan A, Shannon C, Boer R de, Baron-Hay S, Redfern A, Bauwens A, et al. Phase II, open-label trial of lapatinib and vinorelbine in women with previously treated HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Asia-Pacific J. Clin. Oncol*. 2014;10:368–75.
333. Janni W, Sarosiek T, Karaszewska B, Pikiel J, Staroslawska E, Potemski P, et al. A phase II, randomized, multicenter study evaluating the combination of lapatinib and vinorelbine in women with ErbB2 overexpressing metastatic breast cancer. *Breast Cancer*

Res. Treat. 2014;143:493–505.

334. Blackwell KL, Burstein HJ, Storniolo AM, Rugo H, Sledge G, Koehler M, et al. Randomized study of Lapatinib alone or in combination with trastuzumab in women with ErbB2-positive, trastuzumab-refractory metastatic breast cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol. Off. J. Am. Soc. Clin. Oncol.* 2010;28:1124–30.

335. Saura C, Garcia-Saenz JA, Xu B, Harb W, Moroosse R, Pluard T, et al. Safety and Efficacy of Neratinib in Combination With Capecitabine in Patients With Metastatic Human Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor 2–Positive Breast Cancer. *J. Clin. Oncol.* 2014;32:3626–33.

336. Jankowitz RC, Abraham J, Tan AR, Limentani SA, Tierno MB, Adamson LM, et al. Safety and efficacy of neratinib in combination with weekly paclitaxel and trastuzumab in women with metastatic HER2-positive breast cancer: an NSABP Foundation Research Program phase I study. *Cancer Chemother. Pharmacol.* 2013;72:1205–12.

337. Chow LW-C, Xu B, Gupta S, Freyman A, Zhao Y, Abbas R, et al. Combination neratinib (HKI-272) and paclitaxel therapy in patients with HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2013;108:1985–93.

338. Geuna E, Montemurro F, Aglietta M, Valabrega G. Potential of afatinib in the treatment of patients with HER2-positive breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Targets Ther.* 2012;4:131–7.

339. Zhang X, Munster PN. New protein kinase inhibitors in breast cancer: afatinib and neratinib. *Expert Opin. Pharmacother.* 2014;15:1277–88.

340. Schuler M, Awada A, Harter P, Canon JL, Possinger K, Schmidt M, et al. A phase II trial to assess efficacy and safety of afatinib in extensively pretreated patients with HER2-negative metastatic breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2012;134:1149–59.

341. Lin NU, Winer EP, Wheatley D, Carey LA, Houston S, Mendelson D, et al. A phase II study of afatinib (BIBW 2992), an irreversible ErbB family blocker, in patients with HER2-positive metastatic breast cancer progressing after trastuzumab. *Breast Cancer Res. Treat.* 2012;133:1057–65.

342. Munagala R, Aqil F, Gupta RC. Promising molecular targeted therapies in breast cancer. *Indian J. Pharmacol.* 2011;43:236–45.

343. Ahmad A, Kong D, Wang Z, Sarkar SH, Banerjee S, Sarkar FH. Down-regulation of uPA and uPAR by 3,3'-diindolylmethane contributes to the inhibition of cell growth and migration of breast cancer cells. *J. Cell. Biochem.* 2009;108:916–25.

344. Pakneshan P, Szyf M, Farias-Eisner R, Rabbani SA. Reversal of the hypomethylation status of urokinase (uPA) promoter blocks breast cancer growth and metastasis. *J. Biol. Chem.* 2004;279:31735–44.

345. Choong PFM, Nadesapillai APW. Urokinase plasminogen activator system: a multifunctional role in tumor progression and metastasis. *Clin. Orthop.* 2003;S46–58.

346. Huang T-H, Chiu Y-H, Chan Y-L, Chiu Y-H, Wang H, Huang K-C, et al. Prophylactic administration of fucoidan represses cancer metastasis by inhibiting

vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) in Lewis tumor-bearing mice. *Mar. Drugs*. 2015;13:1882–900.

347. Kim G-E, Lee JS, Choi Y-D, Lee K-H, Lee JH, Nam JH, et al. Expression of matrix metalloproteinases and their inhibitors in different immunohistochemical-based molecular subtypes of breast cancer. *BMC Cancer*. 2014;14:959.

348. Magee PJ, Allsopp P, Samaletdin A, Rowland IR. Daidzein, R-(+)equol and S-(-)equol inhibit the invasion of MDA-MB-231 breast cancer cells potentially via the down-regulation of matrix metalloproteinase-2. *Eur. J. Nutr.* 2014;53:345–50.

349. Zhang M, Teng X, Guo X, Li Z, Han J, Yao L. Expression of tissue levels of matrix metalloproteinases and their inhibitors in breast cancer. *Breast Edinb. Scotl.* 2013;22:330–4.

350. Roomi MW, Kalinovsky T, Rath M, Niedzwiecki A. Modulation of u-PA, MMPs and their inhibitors by a novel nutrient mixture in human female cancer cell lines. *Oncol. Rep.* 2012;28:768–76.

351. Yang F, Zhang T, Wu H, Yang Y, Liu N, Chen A, et al. Design and optimization of novel hydroxamate-based histone deacetylase inhibitors of Bis-substituted aromatic amides bearing potent activities against tumor growth and metastasis. *J. Med. Chem.* 2014;57:9357–69.

352. Zhang T, Chen Y, Li J, Yang F, Wu H, Dai F, et al. Antitumor action of a novel histone deacetylase inhibitor, YF479, in breast cancer. *Neoplasia N. Y. N.* 2014;16:665–77.

353. Lin K-T, Wang Y-W, Chen C-T, Ho C-M, Su W-H, Jou Y-S. HDAC inhibitors augmented cell migration and metastasis through induction of PKCs leading to identification of low toxicity modalities for combination cancer therapy. *Clin. Cancer Res. Off. J. Am. Assoc. Cancer Res.* 2012;18:4691–701.

354. Saldana SM, Lee H-H, Lowery FJ, Khotskaya YB, Xia W, Zhang C, et al. Inhibition of type I insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling attenuates the development of breast cancer brain metastasis. *PloS One*. 2013;8:e73406.

355. Saxena NK, Taliaferro-Smith L, Knight BB, Merlin D, Anania FA, O'Regan RM, et al. Bidirectional crosstalk between leptin and insulin-like growth factor-I signaling promotes invasion and migration of breast cancer cells via transactivation of epidermal growth factor receptor. *Cancer Res.* 2008;68:9712–22.

356. Lisztwan J, Pornon A, Chen B, Chen S, Evans DB. The aromatase inhibitor letrozole and inhibitors of insulin-like growth factor I receptor synergistically induce apoptosis in in vitro models of estrogen-dependent breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res. BCR.* 2008;10:R56.

357. Byron SA, Horwitz KB, Richer JK, Lange CA, Zhang X, Yee D. Insulin receptor substrates mediate distinct biological responses to insulin-like growth factor receptor activation in breast cancer cells. *Br. J. Cancer.* 2006;95:1220–8.

358. Haluska P, Carboni JM, Loegering DA, Lee FY, Wittman M, Saulnier MG, et al. In vitro and in vivo antitumor effects of the dual insulin-like growth factor-I/insulin receptor

inhibitor, BMS-554417. *Cancer Res.* 2006;66:362–71.

359. Segovia-Mendoza M, González-González ME, Barrera D, Díaz L, García-Becerra R. Efficacy and mechanism of action of the tyrosine kinase inhibitors gefitinib, lapatinib and neratinib in the treatment of HER2-positive breast cancer: preclinical and clinical evidence. *Am. J. Cancer Res.* 2015;5:2531–61.

360. Understanding metastasis: current paradigms and therapeutic challenges in breast cancer progression | RCSI Student Medical Journal [Internet]. [cited 2016 Mar 11]. Available from: <http://www.rcsismj.com/2009-2010-issue/breast-ca-mets/>

361. Artacho-Cordón F, Ríos-Arrabal S, Lara PC, Artacho-Cordón A, Calvente I, Núñez MI. Matrix metalloproteinases: potential therapy to prevent the development of second malignancies after breast radiotherapy. *Surg. Oncol.* 2012;21:e143–51.