

Review

2 The “portrait” of hereditary breast cancer

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6 *Key words:* basal, BRCA1, BRCA2, BRCAx, estrogen receptor, genotype, hereditary cancer, luminal,
7 phenotype, p53

8 Summary

9 Five to ten per cent of all breast carcinomas are of hereditary origin. Many of them have been associated to
10 mutations in the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* susceptibility genes. No “*BRCA3*” gene has been found to account for
11 the non-*BRCA1/BRCA2* breast cancer (BRCAx) families, and BRCAx tumors are increasingly believed to
12 originate from multiple distinct genetic events. Phenotype studies have questioned the existence of specific
13 “portraits” among hereditary breast carcinomas (HBC). They have shown that most BRCA1 tumors have a
14 “basal (epithelial)-like” aspect, while BRCA2 and BRCAx HBC are more heterogeneous. HBC have also
15 been submitted to genetic analyses, notably with the objective of resolving the heterogeneity of BRCAx
16 lesions. The present review aims to summarize recent data on BRCA1, BRCA2, and BRCAx HBC,
17 including hypotheses on the origin of BRCA1 tumors and their paradoxical relations to estrogen-sensitivity.

19 Introduction

20 A family history of breast cancer is one of the
21 most significant risk factors for the development
22 of the disease. It is estimated that 5–10% of all
23 breast carcinomas is inherited, the other 90–95%
24 of cases being considered as “sporadic”. The
25 *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* genes account for autosomal

dominant transmission of susceptibility in a 26
majority of families with hereditary breast-ovar- 27
ian (*BRCA1/BRCA2*) or male breast cancers 28
(*BRCA2*). On the other hand, searches for a 29
“*BRCA3*” gene as basis of non-*BRCA1/BRCA2* 30
(BRCAx) breast cancer families have been 31
unsuccessful. 32

Both *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* are long genes that 33
may be targeted by hundreds of different muta- 34
tions, of which many have been observed only 35
once. To date, their sequencing is costly, so that it 36
cannot be generalized to all patients suspected to 37
have developed a hereditary breast carcinoma 38
(HBC). It has been previously hypothesized that 39
tumors resulting from mutations in *BRCA1* or 40
BRCA2 might be identified through their expres- 41
sion of a specific “portrait”. According to this, 42
phenotype and genotype analyses of HBC 43
(including BRCAx) have been performed. Mean- 44
while, the introduction of tools supporting the 45
massive analysis of proteins or genes in tumor 46
samples (tissue and DNA microarrays) has evi- 47
denced the existence of only a few classes among 48
non-selected populations of breast tumors. One of 49

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50 these, the “basal (epithelial)-like” class appears to
 51 be over-represented in BRCA1 tumors, which
 52 raises interesting questions on the genesis of these
 53 tumors. BRCA2 and BRCAx tumors constitute
 54 more heterogeneous groups.

55 *BRCA1 and BRCA2*

56 Detailed descriptions of the *BRCA1* and *BRCA2*
 57 genes, including the numerous distinct mutations
 58 that can alter the function of their corresponding
 59 protein, have been the subject of many reviews (see
 60 for instance [1–7] and will not be further discussed
 61 here. Data on *BRCA1* and *BRCA2* mutations may
 62 be found in the Breast Information Core ([http://](http://research.nhgri.nih.gov/bic/)
 63 research.nhgri.nih.gov/bic/) and Human Gene
 64 Mutation ([http://archive.uwcm.ac.uk/uwcm/mg/](http://archive.uwcm.ac.uk/uwcm/mg/hgmd0.html)
 65 [hgmd0.html](http://archive.uwcm.ac.uk/uwcm/mg/hgmd0.html)) databases.

66 The development of BRCA1 or BRCA2 tu-
 67 mors has been attributed mainly to the loss of the
 68 DNA repair function ensured by these proteins.
 69 Indeed, both BRCA1 and BRCA2 are involved in
 70 DNA double-strand breaks (DSB) repair. In
 71 eukaryotes, two major pathways exist to repair
 72 DSB: non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) and
 73 homology-directed recombination (HR). NHEJ
 74 repairs adjacent broken DNA ends with little or
 75 no requirement for extensive sequence homology,
 76 whereas the more accurate HR requires an intact
 77 template of a homologous sequence either in a
 78 homologous chromosome or in a sister chromatid.
 79 HR may occur either by “gene conversion” (GC)
 80 or by an error-prone “single-strand annealing”
 81 (SSA) mechanism. BRCA2 is involved mainly, if
 82 not solely, in HR by GC, through its interaction
 83 with the essential DSB repair protein RAD51.
 84 BRCA1 mutations seem to impair both classes of
 85 HR [8], but BRCA1 is also possibly involved in
 86 NHEJ by a way implying its colocalization with
 87 the RAD50-MRE11-NBS1 complex (see notably
 88 [9]). In addition to its importance in DSB repair,
 89 BRCA1 could also play some role in nucleotide-
 90 excision repair (NER) (reviewed in [10]). Thus, the
 91 implication in DNA repair appears to be greater
 92 for BRCA1 than for BRCA2.

93 BRCA1 and BRCA2 must not be seen as single
 94 components of linear chains of molecules linking
 95 DNA alterations to DNA repair. It is increasingly
 96 recognized that they are members of complex and
 97 versatile protein network(s) involved in multiple
 98 functions. They have been associated to tran-

scription regulation and chromatin remodeling, 99
 cell cycle and centrosome regulation, apoptosis 100
 induction, ubiquitination and protein degradation 101
 ... In breast cancer cells (BCC), their expression 102
 level is coupled to cell proliferation, being highest 103
 at the G₁-S-phase [11–13] and in proliferating cells, 104
 as compared to confluent ones [14]. BRCA1 and 105
 BRCA2 mRNA levels are coordinately elevated by 106
 estrogens in BCC [15]. The BRCA1 level is also 107
 induced in MCF-7 and T-47D BCC lines by pro- 108
 lactin (PRL), which may exhibit a proliferative 109
 activity on these cells [16]. 110

111 While induced by mitogenic (estrogens, PRL)
 112 and/or differentiating agents (PRL), BRCA1 ap-
 113 pears in turn able to counteract proliferation and
 114 differentiation by repressing estrogen receptor
 115 (ER) [17], c-Myc [18] and Stat5a (activated by
 116 PRL in BCC) [19] transcription activity. Regard-
 117 ing ER, BRCA1 is able to specifically block the
 118 AF-2 transcription activation domain of the
 119 receptor, leading to reduced transcription of at
 120 least two ER-regulated genes, *TFF1* (encoding
 121 pS2) and *CTSD* (cathepsin D) [17]. This activity of
 122 BRCA1 has been correlated with its down-regu-
 123 lation of the cellular levels of the transcription co-
 124 activator p300 in breast cancer cells [20]. Of
 125 interest, p300 is also a co-activator for Stat5a [21].
 126 These results raise the possibility that wild-type
 127 BRCA1 suppresses estrogen-dependent transcrip-
 128 tion pathways related to mammary epithelial cell
 129 proliferation and that loss of this property by
 130 mutant BRCA1 contributes to tumorigenesis. The
 131 potential effect of BRCA1 loss on cell differentia-
 132 tion is largely unknown as yet [22].

Genetic bases of BRCAx tumors 133

To account for the development of non- 134
 BRCA1/BRCA2 HBC, no “*BRCA3*” gene has 135
 been identified to date. Part of these BRCAx 136
 tumors may be associated to rare syndromes, of 137
 which breast cancer is only one component. Such 138
 syndromes result notably from mutations in 139
TP53 (Li-Fraumeni), *ATM* (Ataxia Telangiecta- 140
 sia), *STK11/LKB1* (Peutz-Jeghers Syndrome), 141
PTEN (Cowden Syndrome) [3, 23]. 142

143 Other BRCAx tumors (and even some sporadic
 144 carcinomas) are believed to result from the
 145 expression of weakly penetrant but highly pre-
 146 valent mutations in various genes. For instance,
 147 polymorphism has been identified in genes

148 associated to the metabolism of estrogens and/or
 149 carcinogens (*CYP1A1*, *CYP1B1*, *CYP17*, *CYP19*,
 150 *COMT*, *NAT2*, *GSTM1*, *GSTP1*, *GSTT*, ...), to
 151 estrogen, androgen and vitamin D action (*ESR1*,
 152 *AR*, *VDR*), to co-activation of gene transcription
 153 (*AIB1*), to DNA damage response pathways
 154 (*CHEK2*, *HRAS1*, *XRCC1*, *XRCC3*, *XRCC5*)
 155 (reviewed in [24, 25]). Sequence variants of these
 156 genes that are relatively common in the population
 157 may be associated with a small to moderate in-
 158 creased relative risk for breast cancer. Combina-
 159 tions of such variants could lead to multiplicative
 160 effects. Sporadic cancers likely result from the
 161 complex interplay between the expression of low
 162 penetrance gene(s) ("risk variants") and environ-
 163 mental factors. It must be noted, however, that the
 164 suspected impact of most of these variants on
 165 breast cancer risk should, in most cases, be con-
 166 firmed in large populations studies. Indeed, low
 167 penetrance genes cannot be easily tracked through
 168 families, as is true for dominant high-risk genes.

169 *The phenotype of BRCA1, BRCA2 and BRCAx* 170 *HBC*

171 Numerous studies have allowed to collect patho-
 172 biological data on BRCA1, BRCA2 and BRCAx
 173 tumors and to define the phenotype of these HBC
 174 [26–38].

175 According to these studies, the phenotype
 176 spectrum of BRCA1 tumors appears clearly dif-
 177 ferent from that of sporadic or non-selected tu-
 178 mors. BRCA1 tumors are less frequently ER-,
 179 progesterone receptor (PR)-, androgen receptor
 180 (AR)-, BCL2-, P27^{KIP1}-, ERBB2- and lymph node-
 181 positive; in contrast, they are more frequently
 182 P-cadherin-, cytokeratins (CK) 5/6- and P53-posi-
 183 tive. Most of them are of high grade and they have a
 184 higher level of proliferation markers and of necrosis
 185 than controls. BRCA1 HBC have a higher level of
 186 glomeruloid microvascular proliferations (GMPs),
 187 which are focal proliferative buddings of vascular
 188 endothelial cells resembling a renal glomerulus.
 189 Finally, medullary carcinomas are over-repre-
 190 sented among BRCA1 tumors and these latter
 191 HBC are less likely to have an *in situ* component
 192 than controls. Of note, two cell lines/xenograft have
 193 been established to date from carriers of a BRCA1
 194 germline mutation. One cell line, HCC1937, is ER-
 195 and PR-negative, with a very low ERBB2 level and
 196 an acquired mutation of *TP53* with wild-allele loss

[39]. A xenograft and a derived cell line have been
 obtained from another tumor: their characteriza-
 tion revealed an ER-, PR- and ERBB2-negativity,
 an absence of CK 8 and an over-expression of P53.
 Again, an acquired mutation (nucleotide substitu-
 tion) of *TP53* was found [40].

Contrasting with BRCA1 HBC, BRCA2 and
 BRCAx tumors are more heterogeneous and ex-
 press an extended phenotype spectrum that is
 closer to that exhibited by sporadic or non-selected
 tumors. However, as compared to these latter,
 BRCA2 tumors are more frequently of high grade,
 but this has been attributed mainly to a decreased
 tubule formation, while no difference is generally
 seen for mitotic count and nuclear polymorphism.
 For their part, BRCAx tumors are less frequently
 P53 and ERBB2-positive than sporadic tumors;
 moreover, they have a lower level of proliferation
 markers and are of lower grade, with a lesser
 amount of nuclear pleomorphism.

Data from pathology, biology and genetics
 now support the existence of only a few major
 subclasses among breast cancers. According to
 this, most ER-positive, low-grade tumors may be
 grouped into a "luminal (epithelial)-like" subclass,
 notably characterized by a high expression level of
 luminal CKs (CK 8/18/19), ER, PR, BCL2,
 P27^{KIP1}, ..., a low expression level of P53 and
 ERBB2, and a low grade. This subclass groups
 about 65–75% of breast cancers. Another class,
 known as the "basal (epithelial)-like", includes
 lesions (about 15–20% of all breast cancers) that
 are ER- and PR-negative, have a low level of
 luminal CKs, BCL2, P27, ERBB2 and a high
 expression level of P53 and of the basal CKs 5/6
 and 17. Most of these tumors have a high grade.
 An "ERBB2" group of tumors is also frequently
 found, which, as its name implies, is exclusively
 composed of ERBB2-overexpressing tumors; these
 are generally characterized by a low, if any,
 expression level of ER, PR, and P53. These three
 main classes ("luminal-like", "basal-like",
 "ERBB2") have been identified at both the
 mRNA and protein levels [41–46].

Based on their characteristics, most BRCA1
 tumors are to be classified in the "basal-like"
 subtype. Indeed, in a microarray-based analysis of
 115 tumors including 18 samples from carriers of
 BRCA1 mutations, these latter were strongly
 associated with the "basal-like" subclass. In con-
 trast, two BRCA2 tumors were classified among

248 the “luminal-like” group [42–44]. Analysis of a
249 higher number of BRCA2 tumors should help to
250 precise the subtype distribution pattern of these
251 HBC.

252 As mentioned above, the phenotype spectra of
253 BRCA2 and sporadic cancers are very similar.
254 Intriguingly, a link between BRCA2 and sporadic
255 breast cancers has been recently suggested by the
256 discovery of EMSY. EMSY is a protein which
257 binds BRCA2 precisely within exon 3 (a highly
258 conserved trans-activating region in the N-termi-
259 nus that has endogenous transcription repressor
260 activity when recruited to a high basal promoter)
261 and is capable of silencing the activation potential
262 of this exon, associates with chromatin regulators
263 HP1beta and BS69, and localizes to sites of repair
264 following DNA damage. EMSY gene maps to
265 chromosome 11q13.5, a region known to be in-
266 volved in breast and ovarian cancer. EMSY gene is
267 amplified almost exclusively in sporadic breast
268 cancer (13%) and higher-grade ovarian cancer
269 (17%). However, it has not yet been possible to
270 show how (or if) BRCA2 is really involved in
271 sporadic breast cancer [47].

272 Genetic analysis of BRCA1, BRCA2, BRCAx

273 As yet, only a few studies have aimed to identify
274 gene signatures that could be specific to BRCA1,
275 BRCA2, or BRCAx HBC. The data obtained need
276 to be confirmed by additional investigations, as the
277 number of samples analysed was generally low.

278 In a microarray analysis of primary tumors,
279 lesions from seven carriers of a BRCA1 mutation,
280 eight carriers of a BRCA2 mutation, and seven
281 patients with sporadic cases of breast cancer were
282 considered. Statistical analyses were used to iden-
283 tify a set of genes that could distinguish the BRCA1
284 genotype from the BRCA2 genotype. Permutation
285 analysis of multivariate classification functions
286 established that the gene expression profiles of tu-
287 mors with BRCA1 mutations, tumors with BRCA2
288 mutations, and sporadic tumors differed signifi-
289 cantly from each other. An analysis of variance
290 between the levels of gene expression and the
291 genotype of the samples identified 51 genes that
292 best differentiated among the three types of tumors
293 [48]. This suggests that either a heritable mutation
294 influences the gene expression profile of the cancer,
295 or specific mutations are viable only in a specific
296 gene environment. Of note, and maybe as a con-

297 sequence of the low number of tumors, the gene
298 signature specifically associated to BRCA1 HBC
299 did not appear to constitute a part of the “basal-
300 like” signature. However, as expected, the expres-
301 sion of the luminal CK 8 gene was low in these
302 tumors, in accordance with previous data. On the
303 other hand, among genes more highly expressed in
304 BRCA1 HBC, as compared to BRCA2, were some
305 that are known to be induced by P53 in response to
306 DNA damage: MSH2, MSH6, GADD34, ... As
307 P53 is mutated in a majority of BRCA1 tumors,
308 this raises the possibility of a p53-independent
309 activation of DNA damage response pathways in
310 these HBC. This observation is also in agreement
311 with the fact that the role of BRCA1 in DNA re-
312 pair is more extended than is the case for BRCA2.

313 As the BRCAx HBC comprise a histopatho-
314 logically heterogeneous group, it has been sug-
315 gested that they may originate from multiple
316 distinct genetic events. Thus, while intensive efforts
317 have not allowed the identification of BRCAx
318 (breast cancer) predisposition genes, attempts have
319 been made to identify distinct and specific genetic
320 signatures. In a small series ($n = 16$) of BRCAx
321 tumors, gene expression profiling identified at least
322 two classes, and differentiated them from BRCA1
323 and BRCA2 HBC. Moreover, microarray-based
324 comparative genomic hybridization (CGH) to
325 cDNA arrays revealed specific somatic genetic
326 alterations within the BRCAx subgroups [49].

BRCA1 and p53

328 One of the proteins interacting with BRCA1 is
329 P53. This transcription factor regulates the cellular
330 responses to stress, including DNA damage, by
331 activating the expression of genes involved in cell-
332 cycle arrest or apoptosis. The molecular mecha-
333 nisms by which P53 senses whether to initiate one
334 process or the other remain, however, largely un-
335 known. Many factors, including cell type as well as
336 expression levels of P53 and other survival factors,
337 are believed to be important for this decision.

338 Loss of BRCA1 function in cells appears to
339 activate a P53-dependent response, as illustrated
340 by the partial phenotypic rescue observed when
341 homozygous *Brcal*^{null} mice are crossed to a
342 P53-deficient background (*TP53*^{-/-}). Homozygous
343 *Brcal*^{null} embryos die around 6.5 days post-coitus
344 (dpc) due to a cell-cycle block and up-regulation of
345 the P53-activated cell-cycle regulator p21. Cross-

346 ing *Brcal*^{null} mice with *Tp53*^{-/-} mice to generate
 347 *Brcal*^{null/null}/*Tp53*^{-/-} embryos reveals that in the
 348 complete absence of P53, the lethality due to
 349 BRCA1 deficiency is postponed to 9.5–10.5 dpc
 350 [50]. This indicates that, at least in some cases, cell
 351 survival after *BRCA1* mutation could require an
 352 alteration of P53. Along the same line, conditional
 353 knockout of *Brcal* in mouse mammary epithelium
 354 generates breast tumors in 25% of mice. The
 355 additional loss of P53 results in the development of
 356 breast tumors in 50% of these mice [51]. Again,
 357 these data strongly suggest that loss of P53 is
 358 important for the development of BRCA1 breast
 359 cancers. Numerous studies have shown that over-
 360 expression of an abnormal P53 resulting from
 361 *TP53* mutation is much more frequent in BRCA1
 362 tumors than in non-HBC and in non-BRCA1
 363 HBC. For instance, 54%, 0% and 5% of P53
 364 alterations were found in BRCA1, BRCA2 and
 365 BRCAx tumors, respectively, by [37]. If, as is the
 366 case in mouse embryos, BRCA1 deficiency in hu-
 367 man breast tissue activates a P53-dependent
 368 checkpoint, a strong selective pressure to somati-
 369 cally inactivate P53 in the tumor will result.

370 As BRCA1 is involved in DNA repair, it is
 371 possible that its inactivation by mutation could
 372 explain, at least partly, the high frequency of P53
 373 mutations observed in BRCA1 tumors. However, a
 374 high level of P53 expression is indeed characteristic
 375 of the “basal-like” subtype of breast tumors, no
 376 matter whether they have or not a mutation in
 377 *BRCA1*, and reflects indeed a higher genetic insta-
 378 bility in this subtype of lesions [46]. On the other
 379 hand, a role of BRCA1 in generating *TP53* muta-
 380 tions is suggested by the fact that the mutation
 381 spectrum of *TP53* is different in BRCA1 tumors, as
 382 compared to sporadic, both in mutation distribu-
 383 tion and base changes. In BRCA1 HBC, changes
 384 are common at *TP53* codons that are not mutation
 385 hotspots. Most of the resulting “non-hotspots
 386 amino-acids” are physically clustered and are dis-
 387 tributed in a region of the protein on the opposite
 388 side of the DNA-binding surface [52]. This suggests
 389 that the development of BRCA1 lesions might need
 390 the modification of the interaction(s) between P53
 391 and one or several regulatory protein(s).

392 It has been proposed that BRCA1 could serve
 393 as a molecular scaffold, assembling proteins in-
 394 volved in the fine-tuning of the P53 response,
 395 such as ATM, CHK2 and p300. Depending on
 396 the (maybe p300-mediated) acetylation of its

C-terminus [50], P53 binding to DNA sequences
 could induce cell-cycle arrest or apoptosis. A
 truncated BRCA1 could render a normal P53
 unable to arrest cell cycle, while still allowing it
 to trigger apoptosis. Mutation of P53 could in
 turn prevent apoptosis, blocking thus any action
 of P53. A P53-interacting region of BRCA1 is
 situated in the C-terminal region of the protein,
 which is frequently truncated after mutation.

While P53 mutations could contribute to the
 development of BRCA1 tumors, they are clearly
 not required to generate BRCA2 or BRCAx HBC.

BRCA1 and ER-negativity | “basal-like portrait” 409

Why are BRCA1 HBC so frequently ER-negative?
 It has been suggested that this be due to the fact
 that these lesions occur frequently in young wo-
 men. Indeed, sporadic tumors occurring at an early
 age are more likely to be ER-negative than tumors
 observed in post-menopausal patients. However, in
 a study of 1131 women with invasive breast cancer,
BRCA1-mutation carriers were more likely to be
 ER-negative breast cancers than were women in
 other groups, after adjustment for age, grade, and
 histological subtypes ($P < 0.001$) [51].

The reasons behind the preferential “basal-
 like”, ER-negative phenotype of BRCA1 HBC are
 still a matter of speculation.

One hypothesis is that loss of BRCA1 activity
 could lead to down-regulation of the ER at a
 specific time in the development of BRCA1 can-
 cers. This would, indeed, imply extended changes
 in gene expression patterns, as microarray data
 have indicated that most ER-positive tumors are
 “luminal-like”, while most BRCA1 HBC are
 “basal-like”. Highly different gene signatures
 characterize these two tumor subtypes. It increas-
 ingly appears that a phenotype conversion from a
 “luminal-like” to a “basal-like” portrait is rare
 during tumor progression [46]. It could, however,
 occur very early in the development of BRCA1
 HBC and cannot be excluded as yet.

Along the same line, it has been suggested that
 BRCA1 activity could be needed to promote an
 orderly transition of breast cells from a “primiti-
 ve” “basal-like” phenotype, reminiscent of a
 breast stem cell portrait, to a “luminal-like”
 (glandular) phenotype, which is expected in most
 terminally differentiated cells. BRCA1 loss could
 prevent this transition [54].

446 Another hypothesis is that, in contrast to “basal-
 447 like” cells, “luminal-like” ER-positive BCC could
 448 be unable to survive their loss of BRCA1 activity.
 449 As mentioned above, BRCA1 level is increased by
 450 estrogens in breast cancer cells and the protein is a
 451 repressor of ER transcription activity [55]. In ab-
 452 sence of BRCA1 activity, ER-positive cells could
 453 enter an uncontrolled proliferation process favor-
 454 ing the multiplication of non-corrected genetic
 455 alterations. It has been repeatedly suggested that
 456 metabolic products of estrogens might cause genetic
 457 instability, perhaps by inducing free radical-medi-
 458 ated DNA damage and mutations [56–59]. A defi-
 459 ciency in BRCA1 activity in ER-positive cells could
 460 prevent the correct repair of DNA damages [60],
 461 leading *in fine* to cell death. The considerable extent
 462 of BRCA1 involvement in DNA repair (see above)
 463 could constitute therein a crucial factor. In contrast
 464 to BRCA1, “luminal-like” ER-positive cells could
 465 succeed in managing their loss of BRCA2 activity.

466 An intriguing feature of BRCA1 is its implica-
 467 tion in X chromosome silencing. Indeed, mutation,
 468 or loss of function of BRCA1 results in an altered
 469 phenotype of X chromosome inactivation, a pro-
 470 cess by which a major heterochromatin domain is
 471 established over one X chromosome. XIST is an
 472 RNA molecule that coats the inactive X chromo-
 473 some in female cells and is central to the process by
 474 which the entire chromosome is repressed [61].
 475 When BRCA1 is not present in a cell, XIST RNA
 476 fails to localize to the X chromosome. The presence
 477 or absence of functional BRCA1 does not affect the
 478 level of the XIST transcript, just its localization
 479 and effectiveness in silencing [62]. Whether the
 480 XIST RNA localization phenotype might promote
 481 breast cancer or explain the basal phenotype (see
 482 above) of BRCA1 cancers remains, however, un-
 483 known. We can hypothesize that de-repressed X
 484 chromosome could express some oncogene at
 485 higher levels than in cells that have one inactivated
 486 X chromosome. It is also possible that a gene
 487 product expressed only in BRCA1 tumors could
 488 prevent the development of the luminal epithelial
 489 phenotype or even contribute to reverse it.

490 *Paradoxical relations between BRCA1 and* 491 *estrogens*

492 As summarized above, the expression spectrum of
 493 most biological markers is very similar in BRCA2
 494 HBC and in sporadic tumors. In contrast, the

phenotype of BRCA1 HBC is “basal-like” (and
 thus ER-negative) in the vast majority of cases.
 This suggests that the development of BRCA1
 tumors is largely incompatible with hormone-sen-
 sitivity.

On the other hand, there are data suggesting a
 specific positive association between the occur-
 rence of BRCA1 tumors and a high estrogen level.
 First, in a combined analysis of 22 studies, the
 relative risk of breast cancer was shown to decline
 significantly with age (after 49 years) in *BRCA1*-
 mutation carriers; this was not observed in
BRCA2-mutation carriers [63]. This suggests that
 the high estrogen levels characterizing pre-meno-
 pause could favor the development of BRCA1
 HBC. Second, contrasting with *BRCA2*, no in-
 creased incidence of breast cancer is observed in
 men heterozygous for *BRCA1* mutations [64].
 Circulating estrogen levels are low in men and
 most of the male breast tumors are ER-positive, as
 also observed in post-menopausal women [65].
 Third, *BRCA1*-mutation carriers are also predis-
 posed to cancer of the ovary, another organ
 subjected to regulation by estrogens. Fourth,
BRCA1-mutation carriers are particularly suscep-
 tible to develop a breast cancer as a result of
 pregnancy [66]. Pregnancy increases circulating
 estrogen levels by approximately 10-fold. Fifth,
 prophylactic oophorectomy in *BRCA1*-mutation
 carriers, resulting in estrogen deprivation, led to
 highly significant 47% reduction in the risk of
 breast cancer [67].

In general, hormone-based treatments, such as
 tamoxifen, are not effective in preventing or
 treating ER-negative breast cancers [68, 69] and
 doubts have thus been cast about the efficacy of
 hormonal chemoprevention for BRCA1 HBC [31].
 Surprisingly, in a large retrospective case-control
 study of patients with or without contralateral
 breast cancer, tamoxifen was highly effective in
 preventing second primary cancer in *BRCA1*-
 mutation carriers [70]. According to another
 study, tamoxifen appeared to be effective in
 reducing both local recurrence and contra-lateral
 breast cancer among women with *BRCA1* muta-
 tions [71].

In this paper, the term “ER” stands for “ER-
 alpha”. This isoform of the receptor has been
 evaluated in tumors (including HBC) for more
 than 30 years and its essential role in breast cancer
 biology is well-established. ER-alpha expression is

546 strongly associated to the “luminal-like” and the
547 receptor represents indeed the main discriminator
548 in breast tumor classification (for a review, see [41,
549 46]). ER-alpha was long believed to be unique,
550 until an isoform named ER-beta was identified
551 [72]. According to various reports, ER-alpha
552 seems to be the most abundant and functionally
553 the most important in breast tumors (see for in-
554 stance [73]). However, the exact role of ER-beta is
555 still under investigation. ER-beta has notably been
556 described to act as a dominant negative regulator
557 of ER-alpha-mediated transcription, thus attenu-
558 ating massive estrogenic stimulation [74]. The role
559 of ER-beta in favoring the antagonistic effect of
560 anti-estrogens is supported by the association be-
561 tween protein expression and favorable outcome
562 after tamoxifen treatment [75].

563 It has been proposed that the presence of
564 ER-beta could explain, at least in part, the
565 responsiveness of BRCA1 HBC to estrogens/anti-
566 estrogens [76]. In an immunohistochemical analy-
567 sis ER-beta positivity was observed in 84% (37/44)
568 of HBC compared with 69% of non-familial cases
569 matched for age and year of initial diagnosis.
570 Despite its presence, it seems unlikely that ER-beta
571 could exert any effect by regulating negatively the
572 action of ER-alpha, since this latter is very rare in
573 BRCA1 tumors. ER-beta might play a role that
574 does not need the presence of ER-alpha. It has
575 recently been suggested that ER-beta is localized
576 in the mitochondrion, and could thus play a role in
577 regulating the oxidative metabolism [77]. Mitoch-
578 ondria are central in the regulation of
579 cytoplasmic redox state. Estradiol can protect
580 against ATP depletion, mitochondrial membrane
581 potential decline, and the generation of reactive
582 oxygen species induced by 3-nitropropionic acid
583 [78]. This effect is possibly ER-beta-mediated. At
584 least in some cases of BRCA1 HBC, ER-beta
585 could permit to reduce the generation of free
586 radicals [77].

587 To explain the responsiveness of BRCA1 HBC
588 to estrogens/anti-estrogens, another possibility
589 must be taken into consideration, although it re-
590 mains purely speculative to date. The first
591 BRCA1-mutated “basal-like” (and thus ER-neg-
592 ative) tumor cells appearing in the mammary
593 gland could be protected from (P53-mediated?)
594 apoptosis by factors secreted by their neighboring
595 “luminal-like”, ER-positive normal cells in re-
596 sponse to estrogens. Anti-estrogens could prevent

this effect. However, how to explain that these
597 tumor cells could continue to proliferate in the
598 growing lesion when the relative abundance of the
599 surrounding “luminal-like” ER-positive normal
600 cells decreases? We propose that the tumor cells
601 could progressively escape their need for exoge-
602 nous factors, possibly as a consequence of *TP53*
603 mutation. 604

605 Conclusions

606 It increasingly appears that a few “portraits” may
607 be found among breast tumors. The subclasses
608 that they defined are characterized by specific gene
609 and marker expression profiles.

610 As observed with sporadic carcinomas, most
611 BRCA2 and BRCAx HBC express the features of
612 the “luminal-like” phenotype. Further genetic
613 studies should precise the distribution of these
614 tumors among subtypes, as well as to further re-
615 solve the heterogeneity of BRCAx HBC.

616 BRCA1 tumors are mainly, if not exclusively,
617 “basal-like” at both the genotype and phenotype
618 levels. The mechanisms underlying this restricted
619 distribution are far from being understood, but
620 they are likely related to the complex involvement
621 of BRCA1 in proliferation, differentiation, and
622 apoptosis processes. This implication is notably
623 illustrated by the control exerted by BRCA1 on
624 ER, Stat5a, and P53 activity in “luminal-like”
625 epithelial cells. In line with this, one factor
626 deserving further investigations is p300. This his-
627 tone acetyltransferase may interact with BRCA1,
628 P53, ER, Stat5 and is considered to play a central
629 role in co-ordinating and integrating multiple sig-
630 nal-dependent events with the transcription appa-
631 ratus [79]. The loss of control of p300 by BRCA1
632 could trigger mechanisms ultimately leading to
633 apoptosis in “luminal-like” but not in “basal-like”
634 cells.

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