



Ternary Complex Components Responsible for Rapid LDL Internalization as Biomarkers for Breast Cancer Associated with Proliferation and Early Recurrence

Elizabeth S. McDonald¹, Tien-Chi Pan^{2,3}, Dhruv K. Pant^{2,3}, Melissa A. Troester⁴, Andrew V. Kossenkov⁵, David A. Mankoff⁶, Robert H. Mach⁷, and Lewis A. Chodosh^{2,3}

ABSTRACT

The ternary complex of progesterone receptor membrane component 1 (PGRMC1)–sigma-2 receptor/transmembrane protein 97 (σ 2R/TMEM97)–low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) has recently been discovered and plays a role in cholesterol transport. This study investigated whether individual components of that complex are prognostic breast cancer biomarkers and have defined expression in established molecular subtypes. A total of 4,463 invasive breast cancers were analyzed as a function of molecular and phenotypic markers, estimates of cellular proliferation, and recurrence-free survival. A gene expression signature–based assay was utilized to estimate cellular proliferation. Cox proportional hazards regression estimated relapse-free survival and multivariate Cox analysis adjusted for the association of proliferation with early relapse. *PGRMC1*– σ 2R/TMEM97–LDLR expression was stratified by immunohistochemical (IHC) and molecular subtype, tumor grade, and size. *TMEM97* exhibited the strongest correlation with proliferation, highest in estrogen receptor (ER)–positive disease ($r = 0.59$, $P = 8.1^{-114}$). *TMEM97* and *PGRMC1* were associated with a risk of early recurrence, dependent upon their association with proliferation. The risk of early recurrence was highest with *TMEM97* and only seen in ER+/HER2– disease [HR = 1.5; 95% confidence interval

(CI) = 1.35–1.67; $P = 5.4^{-14}$] and ER+ malignancies (HR = 1.49; 95% CI = 1.31–1.68; $P = 3.1^{-10}$). There was no increased risk of recurrence with *TMEM97* expression in ER–/HER2– (HR = 1.05; 95% CI = 0.88–1.25; $P = 0.63$) or ER– disease (HR = 1.02; 95% CI = 0.89–1.17; $P = 0.75$). Components of a ternary complex associated with rapid internalization of low-density lipoprotein are biomarkers associated with cellular proliferation and early recurrence, which should help guide studies exploring them in the context of additional markers of aggressive disease. Elucidating the role of PGRMC1, *TMEM97*, and LDLR in breast cancer will facilitate a mechanistic understanding of how proliferation interplays with cholesterol metabolism in malignant transformation or propagation.

Significance: This first large-scale analysis of the putative ternary complex responsible for rapid low-density lipoprotein internalization in breast cancer reveals a link between component expression and recurrence, with prognostic implications for identifying patients needing supplemental posttreatment surveillance and/or additional therapeutic approaches.

Introduction

Cholesterol is an essential component of cell membranes, and its metabolism is often altered in cancer (1). Although some studies have not found a

significant link between lipoproteins and breast cancer, others have identified a correlation between low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol levels and breast cancer risk (2). A recent large analysis indicates that elevated levels of both high-density lipoprotein (HDL) and LDL cholesterol are

¹Division of Breast Imaging, Department of Radiology, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ²Department of Cancer Biology, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ³Abramson Family Cancer Research Institute, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ⁴Department of Epidemiology, UNC Gillings School of Global Public Health, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. ⁵Center for Systems and Computational Biology, The Wistar Institute, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ⁶Division of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging, Department of Radiology, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. ⁷Radiochemistry, Department of Radiology, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

E.S. McDonald, T. C. Pan, and D.K. Pant contributed equally to this article.

Corresponding Authors: Elizabeth S. McDonald, Radiology, Hospital of the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104. E-mail: Elizabeth.McDonald@penmedicine.upenn.edu; and Lewis A. Chodosh, Department of Cancer Biology, 2-PREVENT Breast Cancer Translational Center of Excellence, Perelman School of Medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104. E-mail: Chodosh@penmedicine.upenn.edu

doi: 10.1158/2767-9764.CRC-23-0562

This open-access article is distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY 4.0) license.

©2025 The Authors; Published by the American Association for Cancer Research

associated with an increased risk of breast cancer (3), and additional investigations are ongoing.

Statins, which are used to lower cholesterol levels, have been investigated for their potential role in cancer treatment and recurrence. However, the results have been inconsistent, and no definitive benefits have been established (4–7). The biochemical pathways of cholesterol are complicated, including biosynthesis and uptake through the LDL receptor (LDLR) pathway. Statins downregulate cholesterol production by the liver (preventing biosynthesis). Still, if cancer cells have other ways to get cholesterol, then the cell may be able to circumvent the lower production levels.

Selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERM), such as tamoxifen, are estrogen receptor (ER) antagonists that have long been used for the treatment of patients with ER+ breast cancer. However, tamoxifen and other SERM can inhibit angiogenesis, independent of their inhibitory effect on ERs (8). One molecular mechanism that allows SERM to inhibit angiogenesis is inhibiting cholesterol trafficking in endothelial cells (9). In endothelial cells, VEGFR2 and mTOR are major signaling proteins that are regulated by cholesterol levels (10, 11). The inhibitory effects of SERM on VEGFR2 and mTOR signaling, as well as angiogenesis, were rescued by replenishing endothelial cells with cholesterol, suggesting that inhibition of cholesterol trafficking is a primary effect of SERM for + antiangiogenic activity (12). Although the cholesterol trafficking inhibition is ER independent, the exact molecular target is still unknown.

There are four proteins related to progesterone receptor membrane component (PGRMC) that have a cytochrome b5-like heme/sterol-binding domain, but of these, only PGRMC1 is known to bind progesterone (P4) in the low nanomolar range (13). PGRMC1 may be related to both breast cancer proliferation and cholesterol transport. PGRMC1 facilitates triple-negative breast cancer tumor growth *in vivo* (14), and in an ER+ human breast cancer cell line that overexpresses PGRMC1, medroxyprogesterone acetate and norethisterone treatment significantly increased proliferation (15, 16). PGRMC1 may also be associated with breast cancer chemotherapeutic resistance *in vitro*. Doxorubicin-mediated apoptosis was decreased by 50% when a PGRMC1 triple-negative breast cancer cell line was pretreated with progesterone. PGRMC1-depleted cells lost the progesterone-mediated survival advantage (14). Thus, PGRMC1 could be an important breast cancer biomarker.

Sigma-2 receptor/transmembrane protein 97 (σ 2R/TMEM97) is a protein involved in cholesterol homeostasis and regulation of cell growth found in cellular membranes (17), lipid rafts (18), endoplasmic reticulum, lysosomes, and plasma membranes (19). σ 2R density is high in multiple cancers (20–22), and σ 2R levels are elevated in aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH)-high compared with ALDH-low MDA-MB-435 cells. The ALDH phenotype has been reported as a surrogate marker for tumor-initiating cells (cancer stem cells; ref. 23). Elevated σ 2R levels are found in lung tumors and plasma from patients with lung cancer (24), and preclinical evidence suggests that σ 2R may be a therapeutic target as σ 2R ligands potentiate the efficacy of chemotherapeutic agents in mouse models of pancreatic cancer and improve survival (25–27). Studies have shown that σ 2R/TMEM97 ligands may also be useful in the treatment of a number of neurologic disorders, including Huntington disease (28), neuropathic pain (29), and Alzheimer disease (30). As a result, a diverse set of σ 2R/TMEM97 radiotracers and ligands has been developed for use in strategies targeting cancer diagnosis and treatment (31).

One such radiotracer is the σ 2R-selective radioligand imaging agent N-(4-(6,7-dimethoxy-3,4-dihydroisoquinolin-2(1H)-yl)butyl)-2-(2-¹⁸F-fluoroethoxy)-5-methylbenzamide (¹⁸F-ISO-1; ref. 32). The ability of this imaging agent to measure both σ 2R density and cellular proliferation has been validated in preclinical models (33) and in early results in a variety of solid tumors (34). *In vitro* work has demonstrated that sigma-2 agents can be used as alternative tracers for proliferation in breast cancer cell lines (35).

Our lab has previously linked these two important proteins by showing that PGRMC1 and σ 2R/TMEM97 form a complex with the LDLR, and the intact complex is required for efficient uptake of lipoproteins such as LDL (36). This complex represents a common biological mechanism for cholesterol uptake in a variety of cells including neurons (37) and breast cancer cells (manuscript in preparation). Supporting this, siRNA studies knocking down TMEM97 demonstrated a reduction in the rate of internalization of LDL by the LDLR (38). We also demonstrated in a subsequent clinical trial that *in vivo* quantification of a radioligand targeting TMEM97 correlates with proliferation in ER+ breast cancer (39). Although PGRMC1 is a membrane-associated progesterone receptor, its role in cell biology is historically poorly understood. It is likely a molecular chaperone that is involved in the translocation of lipophilic molecules such as cholesterol and other steroids from the plasma membrane and the endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, and other organelles. Before its identification as TMEM97, the σ 2R had also been implicated in cholesterol biosynthesis. Although we have demonstrated that PGRMC1 and σ 2R/TMEM97 are involved in the same biochemical pathways within the cell, little is known about the impact of the individual components on breast cancer clinical outcomes. The high association of PGRMC1 and σ 2R/TMEM97 and the suspected role of both proteins in proliferation spurred this investigation.

A possible link between cholesterol metabolism and ER+ breast cancer has been considered for decades, but the mechanism has been elusive, limiting possible therapeutic interventions for risk modification. Building on the studies above, our clinical question was whether components of the PGRMC1–TMEM97–LDLR protein complex affect clinical outcomes in breast cancer. To accomplish this on a large scale, we linked 17 publicly available databases. We also validated a new proliferation signature to allow adjustment for the clinically suspected link between this complex and proliferation in breast cancer because standard measures of proliferation like Ki-67 expression were not available in these datasets. Although the PGRMC1–TMEM97–LDLR protein complex could be a potential diagnostic or therapeutic target, little is known about the *in vivo* expression of these proteins in subtypes of human breast cancer or their association with clinical outcomes. We tested the hypothesis that these proteins correlate with proliferation in human breast cancer in order to examine the relationship between proteins affecting cholesterol transport and breast cancer subtypes, cellular proliferation, and markers of proliferation. We also evaluated the association among PGRMC1, TMEM97, LDLR, and breast cancer recurrence to determine whether they are prognostic biomarkers for aggressive disease.

Materials and Methods

Human breast cancer microarray datasets

A multiple-platform data integration method was utilized to normalize and simultaneously analyze microarray data from 17 publicly available primary breast cancer microarray datasets (“Integrated Dataset,” Supplementary

Table S1). Microarray data and corresponding clinical annotations were downloaded from NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (RRID: SCR_005012) or the original authors' websites. Microarray data were converted to a log₂ scale where necessary. Affymetrix microarray data were renormalized using robust multiarray average when .CEL files were available. Five breast cancer subtypes were used according to the PAM50 classification (40). PAM50 is a gene expression assay that can be used to categorize breast tumors into intrinsic subtypes that indicate distinct tumor behaviors. In total, data were available from 4,463 invasive breast cancers: 1,164 luminal A, 921 luminal B, 645 HER2-enriched, 860 basal, and 543 normal-like. In four datasets, patients received no systemic treatment; in two datasets, patients received neoadjuvant treatment; and the remaining datasets represented a mixture of adjuvant and no treatment (Supplementary Table S2).

Gene expression and prognostic variables/subtypes

The association between mRNA expression and categorical prognostic variables in human breast cancers, including ER status, progesterone receptor (PR) status, HER2 status, lymph node involvement, tumor size, tumor grade, and intrinsic molecular subtype, was assessed by ANOVA in pooled microarray datasets. For each categorical prognostic variable, gene expression was normalized against the mean expression of the same baseline group in each dataset and pooled across all datasets for which the prognostic variable was available. Baseline normalization was performed by subtracting mean gene expression (log₂ scale) in the baseline group from gene expression in each sample.

The Cancer Genome Atlas data analysis

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA; RRID: SCR_003193) was queried for invasive breast cancers with available RNA sequencing data (RNA Seq V2 RSEM) and differentiated according to IHC subtype. In total, data were available from 1,019 invasive breast cancers (Supplementary Table S3): 738 ER+, 215 ER-, 643 PR+, 307 PR-, 149 HER2+, 508 HER2-, and 102 triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC; ER-/PR-/HER2-). *PGRMC1* expression was first compared between all groups and plotted according to subtype. *PGRMC1* was then tested for correlation with 20,531 genes, which resulted in the identification of 461 genes in which expression was correlated with *PGRMC1* expression (Pearson $r > 0.25$) within tumor samples. A heatmap of expression levels for the top positively and negatively correlated genes was generated. These were analyzed for enrichment of pathways, functions, networks, and upstream regulators using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (RRID: SCR_008653; QIAGEN Redwood City, www.qiagen.com/ingenuity; Supplementary Table S4). The analysis was done using functions from MATLAB R2012b (RRID: SCR_001622).

Proliferation gene expression signature

Measures of proliferation, such as Ki-67 expression or mitotic index, were not available for the majority of breast cancer samples. Therefore, to estimate relative proliferation levels in human breast cancer samples, we generated a gene expression signature containing 224 genes (Prolif224) from the overlap of two gene sets: (i) 651 cell cycle-regulated genes identified in HeLa cells (41) and (ii) 1,882 serum-responsive genes identified in human fibroblasts (42). Serum-responsive genes were identified by differential expression analysis between the 0.1% and 10% serum groups using Cyber-T (43) at an FDR of 10%. In each human breast cancer dataset, levels of proliferation

were estimated using these 224 genes and a previously described scoring method (44), in which each gene was weighted using its log fold change between the 0.1% and 10% serum groups (42).

Correlation between the expression of individual genes and estimated relative proliferation level was assessed in human breast cancer datasets using the Pearson correlation coefficient and summarized across datasets by meta-analysis. Additional meta-analyses of Pearson correlation were performed in subsets of samples stratified by ER status, HER2 status, lymph node status, or molecular subtype. Correlation between two different genes was assessed in a similar fashion.

Gene expression and relapse-free survival

Within each dataset, the effect size of the association between mRNA expression and 5-year relapse-free survival was estimated using the HR from Cox proportional hazards regression in which gene expression was modeled as a continuous variable. Effect size estimates were combined across datasets by meta-analysis using the inverse variance weighting method (45). Between-study homogeneity of survival association was tested using the χ^2 test on Cochran's Q statistic (46), for which a *P* value of less than 0.05 was interpreted as evidence of significant heterogeneity. In the presence of significant heterogeneity, the random-effects model (47) was used for meta-analysis. In the absence of significant heterogeneity, the fixed-effects model (48) was used. Cox proportional hazards regression and meta-analysis were performed using the "coxph" function in the "survival" package and the "metagen" function in the "meta" packages in R 2.15.0. For datasets in which relapse-free survival information was not available, distant metastasis-free survival or disease-specific survival information, when available, was used for survival analysis.

Additional meta-analyses were performed in subsets of samples stratified by ER status, HER2 status, lymph node status, or intrinsic molecular subtype, as well as in the subset of patients who, according to available treatment information, did not receive any adjuvant systemic treatment. As HER2 IHC status was not available for several datasets, HER2 status was approximated by *ERBB2* mRNA expression as measured by microarray in a similar fashion as the Cancer Outlier Profile Analysis (49). In each dataset, HER2+ and HER2- samples were defined as being above and below a cutoff of 1.5 absolute deviations above the median, respectively, which resulted in an average specificity of 98% and sensitivity of 78% in five validation datasets (50–54). Due to the nonrandom association between ER and HER2 status, an approximation of HER2 status was not attempted in datasets consisting entirely of hormone receptor-positive or hormone receptor-negative cancers. Assignments of intrinsic subtype were done using the PAM50 classifier (40) after expression data were median-centered for each gene.

Data availability

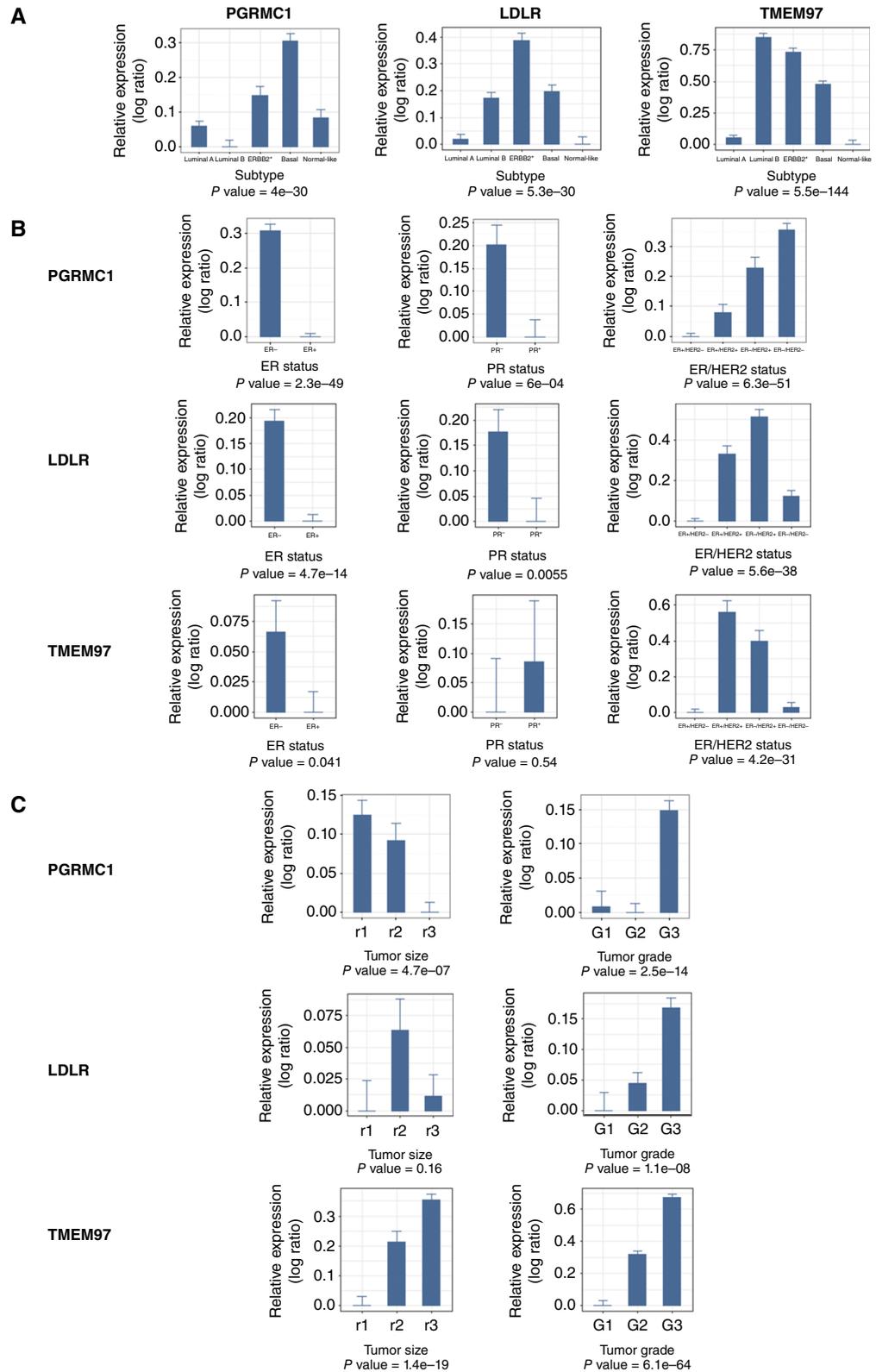
The data generated in this study are available upon request from the corresponding authors.

Results

PGRMC1, TMEM97, and LDLR are overexpressed in ER-breast cancer

Publicly available microarray data for 4,463 patients contained within 17 human primary breast cancer datasets (50–52, 55–67), along with the corresponding clinical annotations, were downloaded and converted to a log₂ scale where necessary. Affymetrix microarray data for which .CEL files

FIGURE 1 **A**, PGRMC1 is overexpressed in human breast cancers of the basal subtype using PAM50. TMEM97 has the highest expression in luminal B tumors. **B**, PGRMC1 is overexpressed in hormone receptor-negative cancers. LDLR expression is highest in ER-/HER2+. TMEM97 has the highest expression in ER+/HER2+ tumors. **C**, PGRMC1 is overexpressed in smaller higher-grade tumors. LDLR and TMEM97 expression is highest in higher-grade tumors.



were available were renormalized using robust multiarray average (68). PGRMC1 is overexpressed in human breast cancers of the basal subtype using PAM50 ($P = 4 \times 10^{-30}$). TMEM97 has the highest expression in

luminal B tumors (Fig. 1A). In an analogous manner, PGRMC1 was expressed at higher levels in ER- tumors, PR- tumors, and ER-/HER2- tumors (Fig. 1B). PGRMC1 was also expressed at higher levels in tumors

of higher grade ($P = 2.5 \times 10^{-14}$) and smaller size ($P = 4.7 \times 10^{-7}$; Fig. 1C). In the integrated dataset, *LDLR* and *TMEM97* also had the highest expression in ER- disease ($P = 4.7e-14$ and $P = 0.041$, respectively; Fig. 1B); *LDLR* and *TMEM97* were also each expressed at higher levels in tumors of higher grade ($P = 1.1 \times 10^{-08}$ and 6.1×10^{-64} , respectively; Fig. 1C).

To examine *PGRMC1* expression in cancers compared with normal breast tissue, TCGA data were analyzed based on tumor IHC classification for 738 ER+, 215 ER-, 643 PR+, 307 PR-, 149 HER2+, 508 HER2-, and 102 TNBC tumors and 108 normal controls. Normal tissues in TCGA database are matched samples (normal tissue from patients who also have a primary tumor). Consistent with its elevated expression in the basal subtype, *PGRMC1* was overexpressed in ER-, PR-, and TNBC compared with normal breast tissue (1.33-fold, $P = 2 \times 10^{-06}$; 1.23-fold, $P = 3 \times 10^{-04}$; and 1.30-fold, $P = 6 \times 10^{-6}$, respectively; Supplementary Fig. S1).

PGRMC1 and TMEM97 expression are associated with cellular proliferation in breast cancer

The association between components of the ternary complex and cellular proliferation in human breast cancer was assessed, in comparison with *TK1* as a validated marker for cellular proliferation (69). Because the vast majority of clinical samples for which *PGRMC1* expression was available did not have documented measures of cellular proliferation, such as Ki-67 or mitotic index, we pursued a computational approach utilizing a gene expression signature for proliferation to estimate cellular proliferation rates. First, we generated a gene expression signature containing 224 genes from the overlap of gene sets representing 651 cell cycle-regulated genes in HeLa cells (41) and 1,882 serum-responsive genes in human fibroblasts (see "Materials and Methods"; ref. 42). Next, in each human breast cancer dataset, levels of proliferation were estimated for each sample using this 224-gene set in combination with a previously described scoring method (44) in which each gene was weighted using its log fold change between the 0.1% and 10% serum groups (42).

PGRMC1 exhibited a robust positive association with signature-derived proliferation scores across all breast cancers ($r = 0.268$; $P = 6.5 \times 10^{-17}$; Table 1). When PAM50 molecular subtypes were considered, *PGRMC1* displayed a significant correlation with proliferation scores within each of the five subtypes, with the strongest association observed for the basal subtype ($r = 0.415$; $P = 2.4 \times 10^{-37}$). *PGRMC1* expression was also correlated with proliferation within each receptor subtype, except for ER+/HER2+ tumors (Table 1). As such, *PGRMC1* was a consistent marker for proliferation across subtypes, significantly correlating with proliferation in HER2+, ER-/HER2+, ERBB2-enriched, and luminal B tumors. *PGRMC1* expression was significantly associated with proliferation scores within lymph node-positive and lymph node-negative tumors (Table 1). In the *PGRMC1*- σ 2R/*TMEM97*-*LDLR* complex, *TMEM97* exhibited the strongest correlation with proliferation and the highest in ER+ disease (all: $r = 0.509$; $P = 6.1e-67$ and ER+: $r = 0.588$; $P = 8.1 \times 10^{-114}$), and *LDLR* only had a weak correlation with proliferation, regardless of subtype or IHC status (all: $r = 0.16$; $P = 6.6 \times 10^{-11}$; Table 1).

The association of proliferation scores with *TK1* expression was also analyzed, given its known positive correlation with proliferation. *TK1* is a cell cycle-regulated target of E2F in which expression and function are associated with cell-cycle status. *TK1* expression also correlates with the uptake of 3'-deoxy-3'-[^{18}F]fluorothymidine (^{18}F -FLT; refs. 70, 71). ^{18}F -FLT is trapped

in cells after undergoing phosphorylation by *TK1*, which is catalytically active during S-phase and represents the first metabolic step in the salvage pathway for incorporating exogenous thymidine into DNA (72-74). ^{18}F -FLT is currently the most widely used radiotracer for imaging tumor proliferation rates (75-77) with uptake reflecting *ex vivo* S-phase-specific bromodeoxyuridine incorporation and TK expression. ^{18}F -FLT was demonstrated to be a useful biomarker for breast cancer treatment response in a large multicenter trial (78). In our study, *TK1* exhibited a strong positive association with proliferation scores ($r = 0.688$; $P = 2.5 \times 10^{-145}$), particularly within ER+/HER2- tumors ($r = 0.727$; $P = 1.4 \times 10^{-202}$; Table 1).

PGRMC1 and TMEM97 expression are associated with early breast cancer relapse

To address whether components of the ternary complex were associated with the risk of breast cancer relapse, effect size estimates from Cox proportional hazards regression using gene expression as a continuous variable were aggregated across datasets by meta-analysis. The results demonstrated that *PGRMC1* expression is associated with a higher risk of early relapse (within 5 years) across all patients with breast cancer [HR = 1.25; 95% confidence interval (CI) = 1.12-1.39; $P = 6.4 \times 10^{-5}$; Fig. 2A]. Within the basal subtype, *PGRMC1* expression was also associated with relapse (HR = 1.29; 95% CI = 1.04-1.60; $P = 0.018$; Fig. 2B). The risk of early recurrence with *TMEM97* was present only in ER+/HER2- disease (HR = 1.5; 95% CI = 1.35-1.67; $P = 5.4 \times 10^{-14}$) and ER+ malignancies (HR = 1.49; 95% CI = 1.31-1.68; $P = 3.1 \times 10^{-10}$) and was not present in ER-/HER2- (HR = 1.05; 95% CI = 0.88-1.25; $P = 0.63$) or ER- disease (HR = 1.02; 95% CI = 0.89-1.17; $P = 0.75$; Fig. 3A and B). *LDLR* was not associated with a risk of early recurrence in ER+ disease (HR = 0.99; 95% CI = 0.87-1.13; $P = 0.93$) or ER+/HER2- tumors (HR = 1.01; 95% CI = 0.87; 1.17; $P = 0.9$).

The association of *TK1* expression with recurrence-free survival was tested to evaluate whether the association of *PGRMC1* and *TMEM97* expression with recurrence-free survival might be linked to their association with proliferation. Expression of *TK1* was associated with decreased relapse-free survival overall (HR = 1.45; 95% CI = 1.32-1.60; $P = 3.4 \times 10^{-14}$), particularly within the luminal A subtype (HR = 1.81; 95% CI = 1.29-2.54; $P = 5.4 \times 10^{-4}$) but not in the basal subtype (HR = 1.14; 95% CI = 0.97-1.34; $P = 0.13$; Supplementary Fig. S2). In contrast, *PGRMC1* was associated with decreased relapse-free survival overall (Fig. 2A), with no effect in the luminal A subtype (HR = 1.03; 95% CI = 0.72-1.49; $P = 0.86$). *TK1* expression was also associated with an increased risk of recurrence in combined ER+/HER2- tumors (HR = 1.67; 95% CI = 1.49-1.88; $P = 5.1 \times 10^{-18}$) as well as in ER+ and HER2- tumors (Supplementary Fig. S3).

After adjusting for estimated tumor proliferation rates, *PGRMC1*, *TMEM97*, and *TK1* were not associated with relapse-free survival (HR = 1.02; 95% CI = 0.91-1.14; HR = 1.04; 95% CI = 0.92-1.18; and HR = 1.05; 95% CI = 0.95-1.15, respectively; Figs. 2C and 3C; Supplementary Fig. S4]. This suggests that the associations of *PGRMC1*, *TMEM97*, and *TK1* with relapse-free survival are each mediated by their respective associations with cellular proliferation.

PGRMC1 expression is weakly associated with TK1 expression

As the expression of *PGRMC1* and *TK1* are associated with proliferation in human breast cancers, we next asked whether *PGRMC1*

TABLE 1 Association of *PGRMC1*, *TK1*, *LDLR*, and *TMEM97* with proliferation. Meta-analysis was performed to examine the association among a) *PGRMC1*, b) *TMEM97*, c) *TK1*, and d) *LDLR* and estimated proliferation rates of tumors

Strata	Correlation coefficient	P value	Strata	Correlation coefficient	P value
a) <i>PGRMC1</i> vs. proliferation signature			b) <i>TMEM97</i> vs. proliferation signature		
All	0.268	6.50e-17	All	0.509	6.1e-67
ER+	0.15	0.00017	ER+	0.588	8.1e-114
ER-	0.289	1.00e-10	ER-	0.38	8.2e-38
HER2+	0.204	0.0021	HER2+	0.392	1.5e-22
HER2-	0.271	1.40e-14	HER2-	0.524	1.6e-101
ER+/HER2+	0.098	0.11	ER+/HER2+	0.422	5.6e-13
ER+/HER2-	0.115	0.0019	ER+/HER2-	0.587	1.1e-110
ER-/HER2+	0.279	0.0086	ER-/HER2+	0.399	1.4e-10
ER-/HER2-	0.279	5.50e-15	ER-/HER2-	0.493	3.1e-47
Node*	0.302	1.10e-09	Node*	0.486	6.7e-30
Node-	0.221	7.20e-13	Node-	0.472	1.5e-38
Basal	0.415	2.40e-37	Basal	0.43	1.2e-16
ERBB2-enriched	0.254	1.70e-05	ERBB2-enriched	0.385	1.7e-10
Luminal A	0.07	0.018	Luminal A	0.394	2.7e-44
Luminal B	0.102	0.0021	Luminal B	0.486	2.8e-56
Normal-like	0.091	0.038	Normal-like	0.501	1.9e-35
c) <i>TK1</i> vs. proliferation signature			d) <i>LDLR</i> vs. proliferation signature		
All	0.688	2.50e-145	All	0.16	6.6e-11
ER+	0.712	6.50e-200	ER+	0.176	2.4e-10
ER-	0.531	4.00e-27	ER-	0.043	0.16
HER2+	0.445	4.80e-31	HER2+	0.137	0.00082
HER2-	0.725	6.60e-177	HER2-	0.154	2.3e-07
ER+/HER2+	0.528	2.10e-21	ER+/HER2+	0.159	0.0098
ER+/HER2-	0.727	1.40e-202	ER+/HER2-	0.155	6.7e-06
ER-/HER2+	0.338	4.20e-08	ER-/HER2+	0.143	0.025
ER-/HER2-	0.616	2.00e-27	ER-/HER2-	0.086	0.019
Node*	0.688	1.30e-44	Node*	0.137	2.9e-08
Node-	0.692	1.00e-150	Node-	0.176	5.8e-19
Basal	0.574	4.70e-30	Basal	0.1	0.0039
ERBB2-enriched	0.365	1.80e-21	ERBB2-enriched	0.136	0.00069
Luminal A	0.551	5.00e-32	Luminal A	0.143	0.0017
Luminal B	0.524	3.00e-68	Luminal B	0.115	0.00051
Normal-like	0.636	2.00e-65	Normal-like	0.137	0.0017

P value < 0.05.

expression was associated with the expression of *TK1*. *PGRMC1* exhibited a significant correlation with *TK1* when all cancers were combined, although the magnitude of these associations was weak ($r = 0.154$; $P = 9 \times 10^{-08}$; Table 2). Somewhat stronger associations were observed between *PGRMC1* and *TK1* expression within the basal subtype ($r = 0.241$; $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-12}$) and within ER-/HER2- breast cancers ($r = 0.256$; $P = 9.2 \times 10^{-13}$); however, the magnitude of these associations was smaller than the correlation between *PGRMC1* and proliferation scores within these same subsets of patients. This suggests that the association between *PGRMC1* and cellular proliferation is largely

independent of the association between *PGRMC1* expression and expression of *TK1*.

***PGRMC1* expression is associated with the activation of cell-cycle pathways**

TCGA data containing 1,019 breast cancers were analyzed in an exploratory fashion to evaluate expression patterns associated with *PGRMC1*. A total of 20,531 available genes were tested for correlation with *PGRMC1*. Within this dataset, 461 genes were significantly associated with *PGRMC1* with a coefficient of at least 0.25 (Supplementary Fig. S5A). These genes were analyzed for

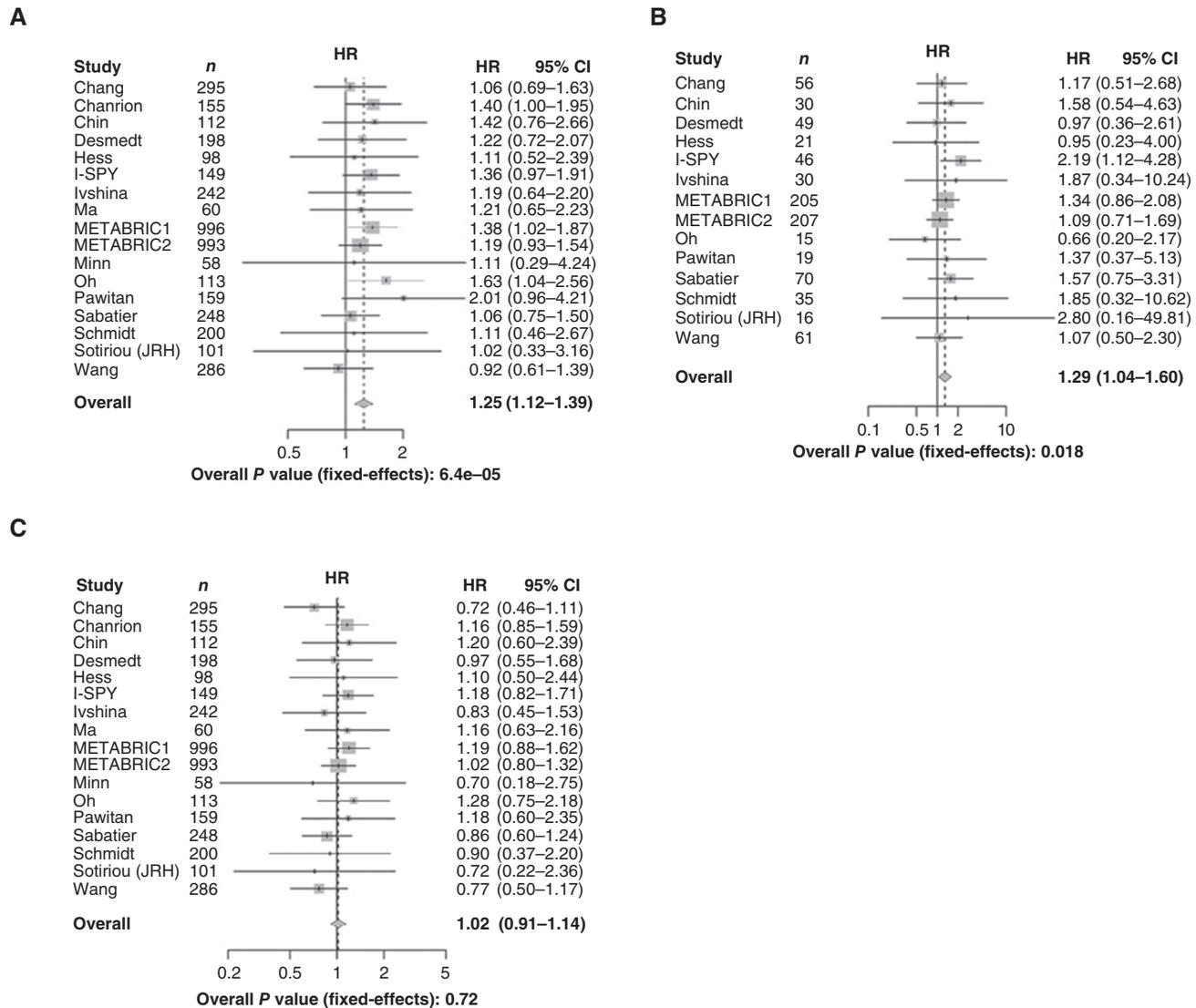


FIGURE 2 PGRMC1 is associated with early breast cancer relapse in a proliferation-dependent manner. Effect size estimates were aggregated across datasets by meta-analysis to determine the risk of relapse within 5 years from all cancers. **A**, Association of PGRMC1 with early breast cancer relapse. **B**, Association of PGRMC1 with early breast cancer relapse within the basal subtype. **C**, Association of PGRMC1 with early relapse adjusted for estimated proliferation. JRH, John Radcliffe Hospital.

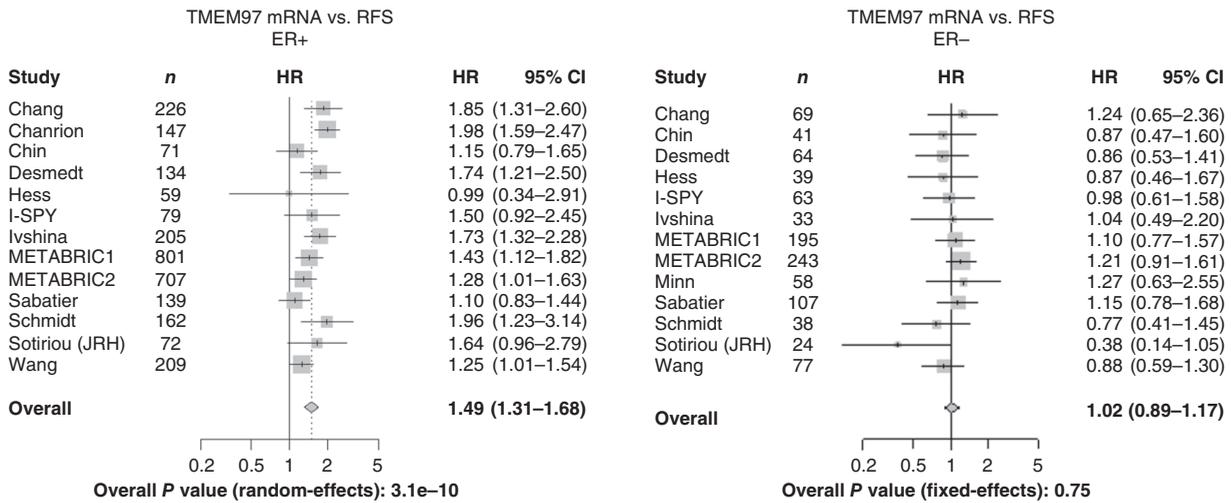
enrichment of pathways and targets for upstream regulators using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis. *PGRMC1* was associated with *CCND1* (cyclin D1) and *MYC* target pathway activities ($z = 2.45$; $P = 8 \times 10^{-5}$ and $z = 1.95$; $P = 10^{-6}$, respectively) and *RICTOR* target pathway inhibition ($z = -4$; $P = 3 \times 10^{-5}$; Supplementary Table S4). Exploratory pathway enrichment analysis revealed an overrepresentation of genes significantly correlated with *PGRMC1* that were related to mitochondrial dysfunction, ubiquitination, DNA damage, and oxidative phosphorylation pathways (Supplementary Fig. S5B).

Prolif224 is strongly related to PAM50, and the prognostic value is similar to the current clinical standard-of-care recurrence risk scores

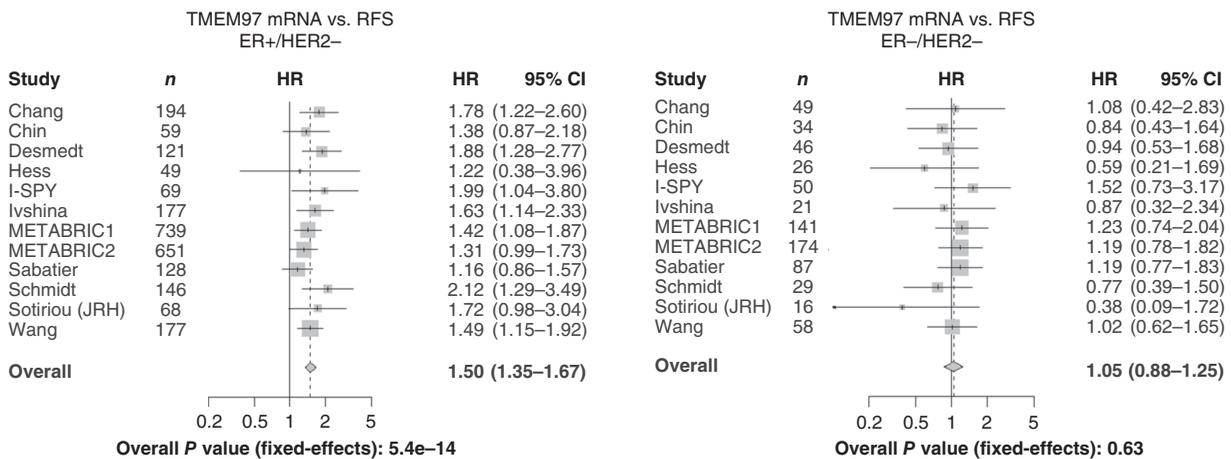
We tested whether our proliferation score, Prolif224, was related to Oncotype DX and/or PAM50. We hypothesized that there would be some

correlation because each recurrence score has proliferation as a strong component. Prolif224 was strongly related to PAM50 ROR (0.82 , $P = 5.7 \times 10^{-36}$) and greatest in ER+/HER2- ($r = 0.85$; $P = 1.5 \times 10^{-157}$) and HER2- disease ($r = 0.86$; $P = 0$; Supplementary Table S5). The correlation with Oncotype DX was somewhat weaker at 0.7 overall ($P = 1.4 \times 10^{-30}$; Supplementary Table S5). We tested a derived PAM50, Oncotype DX score, and our proliferation signature as predictive biomarkers. This established the predictive value of our signature as compared with standard clinical risk scores. The concordance index (C-Index) is a commonly used metric for assessing the association between a continuous variable (e.g., signature scores) and time-to-recurrence data. It is not affected by the scale of continuous variables and deals with censored observations. It was used in the Sage Bionetworks–DREAM Breast Cancer Prognosis Challenge (79), in which the best model among 300 international teams achieved

A



B



C

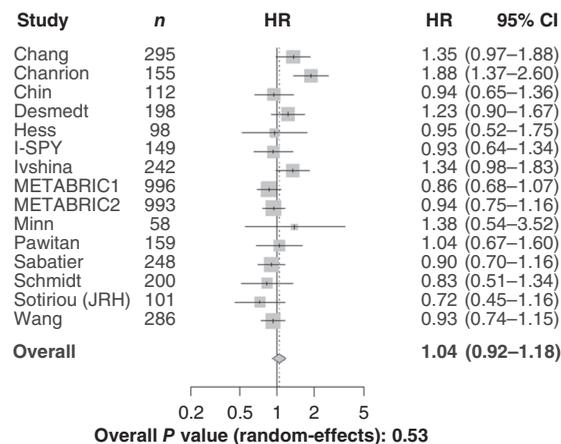


FIGURE 3 *TMEM97* is associated with early breast cancer relapse in a proliferation-dependent manner. Effect size estimates were aggregated across datasets by meta-analysis to determine the risk of relapse within 5 years. **A**, *TMEM97* is associated with early breast cancer relapse only in ER+ tumors. **B**, *TMEM97* is associated with early breast cancer relapse only in ER+/HER2- tumors. **C**, Association of *TMEM97* with early breast cancer relapse in ER+/HER2- tumors adjusted for proliferation. JRH, John Radcliffe Hospital; RFS, recurrence-free survival.

TABLE 2 PGRMC1 is weakly associated with TK1. PGRMC1 exhibits a significant correlation with TK1 when all cancers are combined, although the magnitude of these associations is weak. PGRMC1 vs. TK1

Strata	Correlation coefficient	P value
All	0.154	9.00E–08
ER+	0.016	0.66
ER–	0.214	7.90E–13
HER2+	0.102	0.013
HER2–	0.141	8.50E–07
ER+/HER2+	0.009	0.88
ER+/HER2–	–0.037	0.059
ER–/HER2+	0.147	0.021
ER–/HER2–	0.256	9.20E–13
Node ⁺	0.158	0.00017
Node [–]	0.105	1.50E–07
Basal	0.241	1.20E–12
ERBB2 ⁺	0.212	8.50E–08
Luminal A	–0.063	0.15
Luminal B	0.009	0.79
Normal-like	–0.015	0.73

P value < 0.05.

a C-Index of ~0.75. In that context, the research version of the 70-gene MammaPrint signature was reported to have a C-Index of ~0.6. The CIs for PAM50, Oncotype DX, and our new proliferation signature were from 0.63 to 0.66, which is moderate and reasonable, consistent with these prior reported data (Fig. 4). LDLR and PGRMC1 did not demonstrate a moderate or strong correlation with PAM50 ROR. TK1 and TMEM97 were moderately to strongly correlated. In both cases when comparing ER+, ER–, ER+/HER2–, and ER–/HER2–, the correlation was strongest in ER+/HER2– disease (TK1: $r = 0.70$; $P = 6.4 \times 10^{-105}$ and TMEM97: $r = 0.46$; $P = 2.1 \times 10^{-137}$; Supplementary Table S6).

Discussion

We report for the first time an analysis of the individual components of the putative PGRMC1- σ 2R/TMEM97-LDLR complex in human breast cancer as a function of receptor subtype, molecular subtype, and proliferation. Our studies reveal that each component is differentially expressed across breast cancer molecular subtypes, with the highest levels of expression observed within ER– disease. In addition, each protein in the complex has higher expression in high-grade tumors, and all three are positively associated with tumor cell proliferation rates, with the strongest association seen with TMEM97. Furthermore, we demonstrate that PGRMC1 and TMEM97 expression are associated with an increased risk of tumor recurrence within the first 5 years following breast cancer diagnosis, in a manner that seems to be mediated by their association with cellular proliferation. In the case of TMEM97, this is only applicable in ER+ disease. Our prognostic findings are supported by prior work noting that PGRMC1 is associated with tumor aggressiveness (14, 80, 81) and an analysis of a small patient subset (69 tumors) demonstrating that PGRMC1 overexpression is associated with breast cancer recurrence and

decreased survival when untreated tumor expression is dichotomized into positive and negative PGRMC1 IHC staining (82). There is also prior work demonstrating that patients with increased PGRMC1 have decreased overall survival (HR = 1.7; $P = 0.029$; ref. 83), but the latter publication did not account for the association of PGRMC1 with proliferation, which is known to correlate with worse survival outcomes in patients with breast cancer.

The most important finding in our study is that the impact of TMEM97 on recurrence-free survival seems to be mediated by its association with proliferation. This suggests a mechanism to explain a decade of data demonstrating that σ 2R/TMEM97 correlates with worse outcomes in a variety of solid tumors, including gastric (84), non-small cell lung (85, 86), squamous cell lung (87), and ovarian cancers (88). The association of TMEM97 with proliferation in breast cancer is consistent with *in vitro* cell culture studies (33, 89, 90) as well as studies in mice utilizing a highly selective, optically labeled (fluorescent) σ 2R ligand probe, SW120, wherein SW120 binding was positively correlated with the cell proliferation marker Ki-67 (91). Additionally, the association of σ 2R/TMEM97 with proliferation indicates that the σ 2R-selective *in vivo* radioligand imaging agent ¹⁸F-ISO-1 may be a useful marker for breast cancer imaging that could have utility in targeted cell-cycle therapy selection and evaluating response to therapy. Supporting this, a clinical trial correlated ¹⁸F-ISO-1 uptake *in vivo* with Ki-67 in ER+ breast cancer (39), notably the same IHC subset in which the correlation between σ 2R/TMEM97 and proliferation is the strongest and the same subset in which the association with early relapse is the highest. In particular, ¹⁸F-ISO-1 may provide information distinct from, and possibly complementary to another novel radiotracer, ¹⁸F-FLT. Unlike Ki-67 and ¹⁸F-ISO-1, ¹⁸F-FLT is trapped exclusively during the S-phase and not during G₁, M, or G₂. Furthermore, ¹⁸F-FLT has high background uptake in bone marrow, making it impossible to monitor bone metastasis, which is especially important in patients with breast cancer with receptor-positive disease. In an early human study for ¹⁸F-ISO-1, bone marrow uptake was noted to be low, making this a possible imaging agent for bone metastasis (34).

Table 1 shows an association between PGRMC1, TMEM97 and proliferation. This is consistent with previous literature showing high expression of these two proteins in rapidly proliferating cells. However, Table 1 also reveals only a weak correlation between LDLR and proliferation. As these proteins form a ternary complex, it is important to explain why all three proteins are not strongly correlated with proliferation. We propose the following explanation: The Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1985 was awarded jointly to Michael S. Brown and Joseph L. Goldstein for their discoveries about the regulation of cholesterol metabolism, which includes LDLR-mediated internalization. In normal tissues and quiescent tumor cells, this mechanism explains how cells take up LDL. However, in proliferating tumor cells, the demand for cholesterol surpasses the capacity of the Brown and Goldstein mechanism.

As a result, tumor cells have developed an alternative mechanism that increases the internalization rate of LDL. This is when the sigma-2-PGRMC1-LDL complex becomes crucial, as it can enhance the rate of internalization by up to tenfold (Fig. 5). Thus, we propose a revision to the Brown and Goldstein mechanism to include a secondary pathway for cholesterol internalization utilized by rapidly proliferating cells. We refer

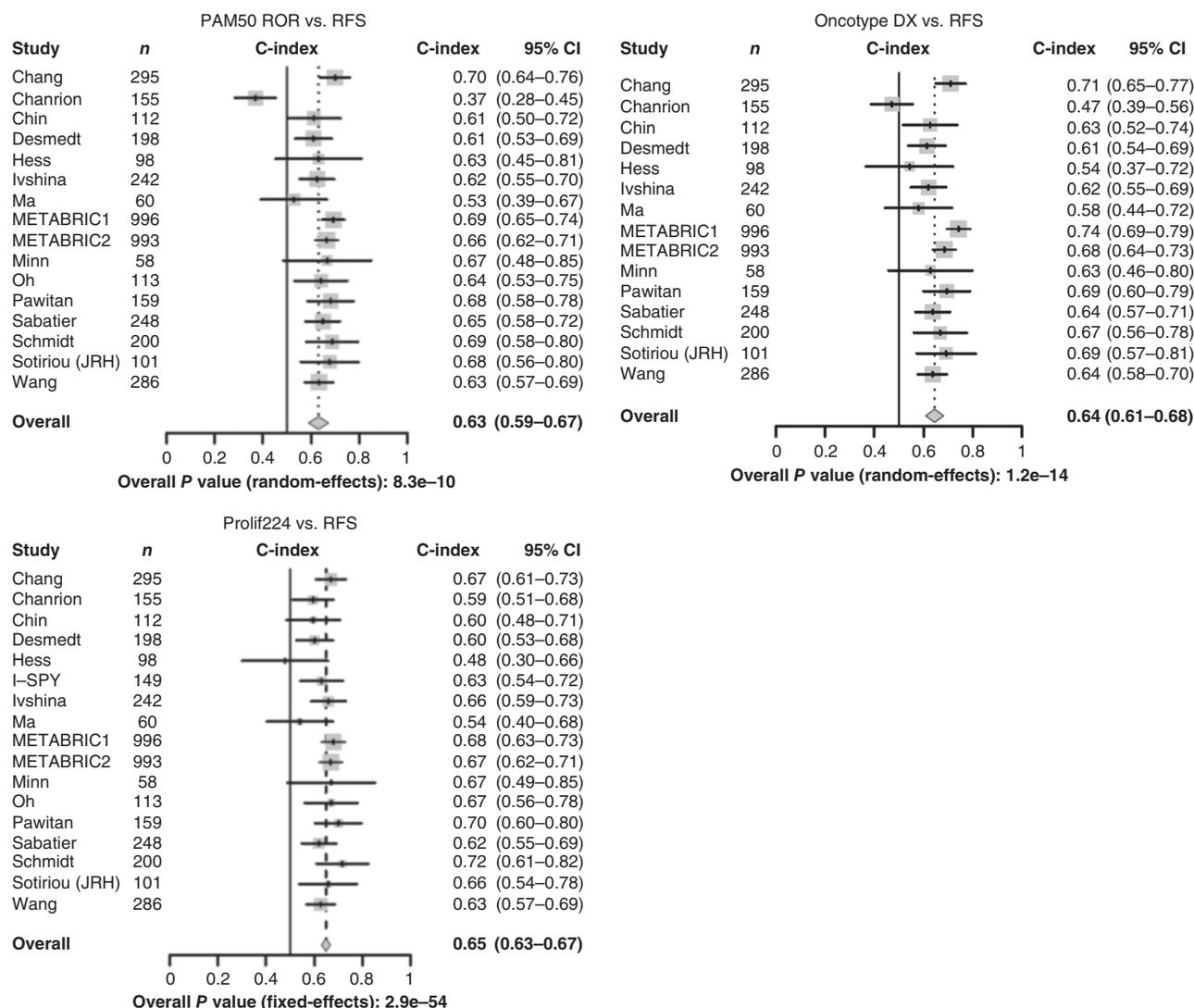


FIGURE 4 PAM50, derived Oncotype DX, and a new proliferation score (Prolif224) were all similarly related to RFS. JRH, John Radcliffe Hospital; RFS, recurrence-free survival.

to this as the “skip-the-line” mechanism because the ternary complex offers cholesterol a modified pathway of receptor mediated endocytosis to provide the heightened demand for cholesterol to support cell proliferation. TMEM97 and PGRMC1 are upregulated whereas the LDLR is not since the balance between the Brown and Goldstein mechanism and the “skip the line” mechanism is determined by the density of TMEM97 and PGRMC1 in the cell membrane. This observation aligns with prior studies showing that the activation of LDLR-mediated cholesterol influx is linked to cancer cell growth (92). The mechanisms underlying cholesterol biosynthesis and uptake in relation to cancer progression remain largely unclear. Therefore, further mechanistic studies, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*, are needed in addition to population-based epidemiologic data to better understand the role of cholesterol in cancer development.

The second important finding is that PGRMC1 is associated with proliferation. The clinical significance of the association of PGRMC1 with

proliferation includes the ongoing investigations into why one arm of the Women’s Health Initiative, including women treated with combination estrogen/progestin, had an increased risk for developing breast cancer versus the estrogen-only arm (93). PGRMC1 involvement in steroidogenesis, P4 responses in the nervous system, and cells associated with the female reproductive system are extensively established (94–96), and it has been postulated that PGRMC1 mediated the increased risk of breast cancer in the estrogen/progesterone arm via activation by synthetic progestin. There is evidence from cultured breast cancer cells and xenograft studies in mice to support this hypothesis (13, 16, 97–99). Interestingly, PGRMC1 shows a stronger correlation with proliferation in ER– cells, whereas TMEM97 is more closely associated with proliferation in ER+ cells. This raises questions about how ER status fits into the broader context of tumor proliferation and cholesterol transport. Notably, TMEM97 is generally more strongly correlated with proliferation, and variations in proliferation rates are likely more significant in ER+ tumors, as these tumors exhibit a wide range of

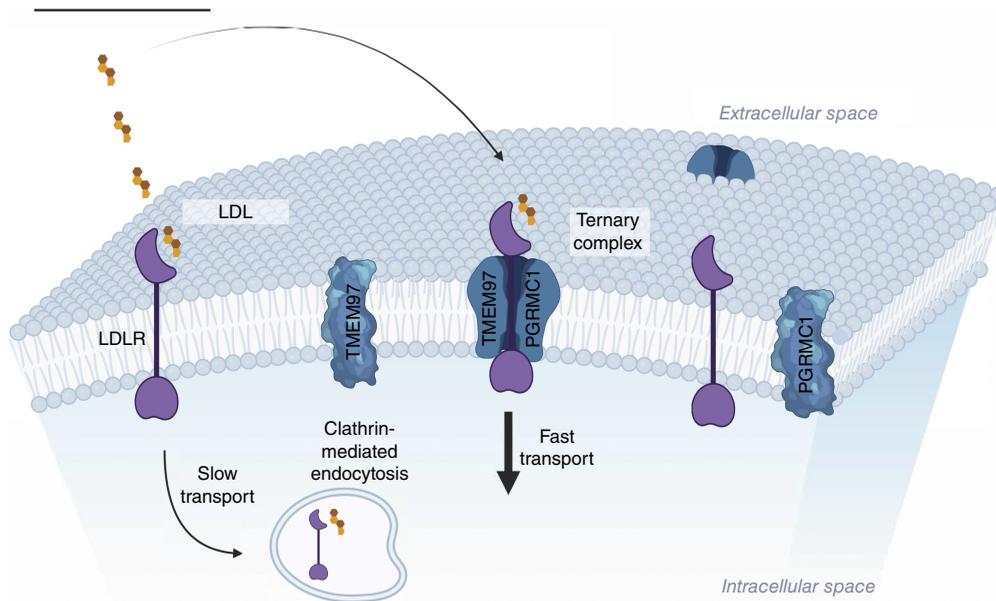


FIGURE 5 Proposed mechanism of a secondary pathway for cholesterol internalization utilized by rapidly proliferating cells demonstrating an “accelerated rate mechanism” of receptor mediated endocytosis. Created in BioRender. McDonald, E. (2024) <https://BioRender.com/i39x933>.

proliferation rates that can influence both treatment response and survival outcomes. One potential mechanism by which the more aggressive ER+ subgroup may overcome barriers to proliferation could involve cholesterol transport, a mechanism that might be less critical in ER–tumors. In contrast, TNBC tumors tend to have more uniform proliferation rates.

In a prior publication (36), we demonstrated in cells that there is more PGRMC1 not complexed with TMEM97 than TMEM97 not complexed with PGRMC1. This observation suggests that PGRMC1 performs multiple functions within the cell, with its complex formation with TMEM97 and the LDLR representing just one of its roles. In contrast, TMEM97 may primarily function in conjunction with PGRMC1 and LDLR to facilitate LDL transport, which could explain why TMEM97 has a stronger correlation with proliferation. This hypothesis warrants further investigation, as the specific functions of both proteins remain poorly understood. The role of PGRMC1 in supporting increased cholesterol demand may be more tightly tied to proliferation than the other functions of PGRMC1.

The role of cholesterol trafficking in the proliferation of human breast cancer is poorly understood, with some evidence that SERM inhibit angiogenesis independent of ERs, with that mechanism being partially attributed to inhibiting cholesterol trafficking in endothelial cells (9). Our data demonstrate that differential expression of PGRMC1 in human breast cancer is a function of cell proliferation, as well as breast cancer receptor and molecular subtypes, and further reveal an association between PGRMC1 and cell-cycle markers. Although the mechanisms underlying the association of PGRMC1 with proliferation are unknown, potential effector pathways associated with PGRMC1 expression in breast cancer provide a possible explanation (Supplementary Table S4). For example, increased cyclin D1 and MYC pathway activities were each correlated with PGRMC1 expression. *Cyclin D1* is an oncogene that is frequently amplified in human breast cancer, regulates cell-cycle progression, and is associated with chemoresistance (100) and decreased

overall survival in patients with ER+ breast cancers (101). Like *cyclin D1*, *c-MYC* is an oncogene that regulates cell growth and cell proliferation at the G₁ transition (102), and its amplification is associated with aggressive tumor behavior and poor outcome in patients with breast cancer (103). PGRMC1 was also associated with fourfold lower levels of RICTOR pathway activity. RICTOR is a subunit of the mTOR complex 2 that promotes proliferation through Akt/PKB signaling (104), which in turn regulates mTORC1, a cell-cycle progression factor implicated in resistance to endocrine therapy (105, 106).

A strength of this study is that publicly available data were leveraged to analyze a large number of invasive breast cancers, with the power to detect correlations that can guide further studies at the protein level. Limitations of our study include that mRNA expression may not accurately reflect protein levels, which have greater biological significance, that proteins may undergo posttranslational modifications, such as phosphorylation, that could affect ligand binding, and that protein subcellular localization might differ in tumors compared with normal tissue.

In summary, each component of the PGRMC1, TMEM97, and LDLR complex is a breast cancer biomarker associated with cellular proliferation. This should help guide *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies exploring them in the context of additional markers of proliferation. These data also inform the clinical use of ¹⁸F-ISO-1 in breast cancer, in which ¹⁸F-ISO-1 correlated with Ki-67, providing independent clinical trial data supporting the association of a component of the trimeric complex with breast cancer proliferation (39). ¹⁸F-FLT and ¹⁸F-ISO-1 PET/CT have the potential to serve as a clinically translatable approach for predicting and monitoring response to combinatorial CDK4/6 inhibitors and endocrine therapy in patients with ER+ breast cancer, with ¹⁸F-FLT measuring immediate changes in the S-phase as a predominate effect of targeting CDK4/6, providing a very early prediction of tumor response, and ¹⁸F-ISO-1 assessing delayed changes reflecting cell-cycle arrest and transition to quiescence (35). This work exploring the role of PGRMC1–TMEM97–LDLR in breast cancer demonstrates the importance of further research evaluating how

proliferation interplays with cholesterol metabolism in malignant transformation or propagation.

Authors' Disclosures

E.S. McDonald reports grants from the Susan G. Komen Foundation, American Roentgen Ray Society, and Abramson Cancer Center Pilot Grant during the conduct of the study, as well as grants from NCI, Pennsylvania Breast Cancer Coalition, and Department of Defense office of the Congressionally Directed Medical Research Programs. R.H. Mach reports being a cofounder of Accuronix Therapeutics, a small business that is commercializing a therapeutic targeting the sigma-2 receptor/TMEM97 protein. No disclosures were reported by the other authors.

Authors' Contributions

E.S. McDonald: Conceptualization, resources, data curation, supervision, funding acquisition, writing—original draft, project administration, writing—review and editing. **T. C. Pan:** Data curation, formal analysis, writing—original draft. **D.K. Pant:** Data curation, formal analysis, writing—original draft. **M.A. Troester:** Validation, investigation, writing—review and editing. **A.V. Kossenkov:** Data curation, formal analysis, writing—original draft. **D.A. Mankoff:** Conceptualization, resources, writing—review and editing. **R.H.**

Mach: Conceptualization, investigation, methodology, writing—review and editing. **L.A. Chodosh:** Resources, data curation, supervision, funding acquisition, writing—review and editing.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by NCI grants CA164490, CA148774, CA98371, CA127917, CA277541, CA259037 and CA143296; P30 CA016520; Komen Leadership grant SAC140060 and Komen CCR16376362; PA Breast Cancer Coalition 2023 Award; Department of Energy training grant DE-SE0012476; and the National Center for Research Resources and the National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences, NIH, through grant UL1TR000003. The results published here are in part based upon data generated by the TCGA Research Network: <http://cancergenome.nih.gov/>.

Note

Supplementary data for this article are available at Cancer Research Communications Online (<https://aacrjournals.org/cancerrescommun/>).

Received December 11, 2023; revised July 16, 2024; accepted January 08, 2025; published first January 13, 2025.

References

- Gabitova L, Gorin A, Astsurov I. Molecular pathways: sterols and receptor signaling in cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2014;20:28–34.
- Cedo L, Reddy ST, Mato E, Blanco-Vaca F, Escola-Gil JC. HDL and LDL: potential new players in breast cancer development. *J Clin Med* 2019;8:853.
- Johnson KE, Siewert KM, Klarin D, Damrauer SM, VA Million Veteran Program; Chang KM, Tsao PS, et al. The relationship between circulating lipids and breast cancer risk: a Mendelian randomization study. *PLoS Med* 2020;17:e1003302.
- Liu B, Yi Z, Guan X, Zeng Y-X, Ma F. The relationship between statins and breast cancer prognosis varies by statin type and exposure time: a meta-analysis. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2017;164:1–11.
- Zhao G, Ji Y, Ye Q, Ye X, Wo G, Chen X, et al. Effect of statins use on risk and prognosis of breast cancer: a meta-analysis. *Anticancer Drugs* 2022;33:e507–18.
- Chen Z, Wu P, Wang J, Chen P, Fang Z, Luo F. The association of statin therapy and cancer: a meta-analysis. *Lipids Health Dis* 2023;22:192.
- McKechnie T, Brown Z, Lovrics O, Yang S, Kazi T, Eskicioglu C, et al. Concurrent use of statins in patients undergoing curative intent treatment for triple negative breast cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Clin Breast Cancer* 2024;24:e103–115.
- Blackwell KL, Haroon ZA, Shan S, Saito W, Broadwater G, Greenberg CS, et al. Tamoxifen inhibits angiogenesis in estrogen receptor-negative animal models. *Clin Cancer Res* 2000;6:4359–64.
- Shim JS, Li R-J, Lv J, Head SA, Yang EJ, Liu JO. Inhibition of angiogenesis by selective estrogen receptor modulators through blockade of cholesterol trafficking rather than estrogen receptor antagonism. *Cancer Lett* 2015;362:106–15.
- Xu J, Dang Y, Ren YR, Liu JO. Cholesterol trafficking is required for mTOR activation in endothelial cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107:4764–9.
- Fang L, Choi S-H, Baek JS, Liu C, Almazan F, Ulrich F, et al. Control of angiogenesis by AIBP-mediated cholesterol efflux. *Nature* 2013;498:118–22.
- Lyu J, Yang EJ, Shim JS. Cholesterol trafficking: an emerging therapeutic target for angiogenesis and cancer. *Cells* 2019;8:389.
- Pru JK. Pleiotropic actions of PGRMC proteins in cancer. *Endocrinology* 2022;163:bqac078.
- Clark NC, Friel AM, Pru CA, Zhang L, Shioda T, Rueda BR, et al. Progesterone receptor membrane component 1 promotes survival of human breast cancer cells and the growth of xenograft tumors. *Cancer Biol Ther* 2016;17, 262–71.
- Zhou J, Yu Q, Chen R, Seeger H, Fehm T, Cahill MA, et al. Medroxyprogesterone acetate-driven increase in breast cancer risk might be mediated via cross-talk with growth factors in the presence of progesterone receptor membrane component-1. *Maturitas* 2013;76:129–33.
- Neubauer H, Ruan X, Schneck H, Seeger H, Cahill MA, Liang Y, et al. Overexpression of progesterone receptor membrane component 1: possible mechanism for increased breast cancer risk with norethisterone in hormone therapy. *Menopause* 2013;20:504–10.
- Hellewell SB, Bruce A, Feinstein G, Orringer J, Williams W, Bowen WD. Rat liver and kidney contain high densities of sigma 1 and sigma 2 receptors: characterization by ligand binding and photoaffinity labeling. *Eur J Pharmacol* 1994;268:9–18.
- Gebreselassie D, Bowen WD. Sigma-2 receptors are specifically localized to lipid rafts in rat liver membranes. *Eur J Pharmacol* 2004;493:19–28.
- Zeng C, Vangveravong S, Xu J, Chang KC, Hotchkiss RS, Wheeler KT, et al. Subcellular localization of sigma-2 receptors in breast cancer cells using two-photon and confocal microscopy. *Cancer Res* 2007;67:6708–16.
- Bem WT, Thomas GE, Mamone JY, Homan SM, Levy BK, Johnson FE, et al. Overexpression of sigma receptors in nonneural human tumors. *Cancer Res* 1991;51:6558–62.
- Vilner BJ, Bowen WD. Sigma receptor-active neuroleptics are cytotoxic to C6 glioma cells in culture. *Eur J Pharmacol* 1993;244:199–201.
- Vilner BJ, John CS, Bowen WD. Sigma-1 and sigma-2 receptors are expressed in a wide variety of human and rodent tumor cell lines. *Cancer Res* 1995;55:408–13.

23. Sun T, Wang Y, Wang Y, Xu J, Zhao X, Vangveravong S, et al. Using SV119-gold nanocage conjugates to eradicate cancer stem cells through a combination of photothermal and chemo therapies. *Adv Healthc Mater* 2014;3:1283-91.
24. Mir SU, Ahmed IS, Arnold S, Craven RJ. Elevated progesterone receptor membrane component 1/sigma-2 receptor levels in lung tumors and plasma from lung cancer patients. *Int J Cancer* 2012;131:E1-9.
25. Hashim YM, Spitzer D, Vangveravong S, Hornick MC, Garg G, Hornick JR, et al. Targeted pancreatic cancer therapy with the small molecule drug conjugate SW IV-134. *Mol Oncol* 2014;8:956-67.
26. Hashim YM, Vangveravong S, Sankpal NV, Binder PS, Liu J, Goedegebuure SP, et al. The targeted SMAC mimetic SW IV-134 is a strong enhancer of standard chemotherapy in pancreatic cancer. *J Exp Clin Cancer Res* 2017;36:14.
27. Kashiwagi H, McDunn JE, Simon PO Jr, Goedegebuure PS, Vangveravong S, Chang K, et al. Sigma-2 receptor ligands potentiate conventional chemotherapies and improve survival in models of pancreatic adenocarcinoma. *J Transl Med* 2009;7:24.
28. Jin J, Arbez N, Sahn JJ, Lu Y, Linkens KT, Hodges TR, et al. Neuroprotective effects of σ_2R /TMEM97 receptor modulators in the neuronal model of Huntington's disease. *ACS Chem Neurosci* 2022;13:2852-62.
29. Sahn JJ, Mejia GL, Ray PR, Martin SF, Price TJ. Sigma 2 receptor/Tmem97 agonists produce long lasting antineuropathic pain effects in mice. *ACS Chem Neurosci* 2017;8:1801-11.
30. Yi B, Sahn JJ, Ardestani PM, Evans AK, Scott LL, Chan JZ, et al. Small molecule modulator of sigma 2 receptor is neuroprotective and reduces cognitive deficits and neuroinflammation in experimental models of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurochem* 2017;140:561-75.
31. Weng CC, Riad A, Lieberman BP, Xu K, Peng X, Mikitsh JL, et al. Characterization of sigma-2 receptor-specific binding sites using [(3)H]DTG and [(125)I]RHM-4. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel)* 2022;15, 1564.
32. Sai KK, Jones LA, Mach RH. Development of (18)F-labeled PET probes for imaging cell proliferation. *Curr Top Med Chem* 2013;13:892-908.
33. Shoghi KI, Xu J, Su Y, He J, Rowland D, Yan Y, et al. Quantitative receptor-based imaging of tumor proliferation with the sigma-2 ligand [(18)F]ISO-1. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e74188.
34. Dehdashti F, Laforest R, Gao F, Shoghi KI, Aft RL, Nussenbaum B, et al. Assessment of cellular proliferation in tumors by PET using 18F-ISO-1. *J Nucl Med* 2013;54:350-7.
35. Elmi A, Makvandi M, Weng CC, Hou C, Clark AS, Mach RH, et al. Cell-proliferation imaging for monitoring response to CDK4/6 inhibition combined with endocrine-therapy in breast cancer: comparison of [¹⁸F]FLT and [¹⁸F]ISO-1 PET/CT. *Clin Cancer Res* 2019;25:3063-73.
36. Riad A, Zeng C, Weng C-C, Winters H, Xu K, Makvandi M, et al. Sigma-2 receptor/TMEM97 and PGRMC-1 increase the rate of internalization of LDL by LDL receptor through the formation of a ternary complex. *Sci Rep* 2018;8:16845.
37. Riad A, Lengyel-Zhand Z, Zeng C, Weng CC, Lee VM, Trojanowski JQ, et al. The sigma-2 receptor/TMEM97, PGRMC1, and LDL receptor complex are responsible for the cellular uptake of A β 42 and its protein aggregates. *Mol Neurobiol* 2020;57:3803-13.
38. Bartz F, Kern L, Erz D, Zhu M, Gilbert D, Meinhof T, et al. Identification of cholesterol-regulating genes by targeted RNAi screening. *Cell Metab* 2009;10:63-75.
39. McDonald ES, Doot RK, Young AJ, Schubert EK, Tchou J, Pryma DA, et al. Breast cancer ¹⁸F-ISO-1 uptake as a marker of proliferation status. *J Nucl Med* 2020;61:665-70.
40. Parker JS, Mullins M, Cheang MCU, Leung S, Voduc D, Vickery T, et al. Supervised risk predictor of breast cancer based on intrinsic subtypes. *J Clin Oncol* 2009;27:1160-7.
41. Whitfield ML, Sherlock G, Saldanha AJ, Murray JI, Ball CA, Alexander KE, et al. Identification of genes periodically expressed in the human cell cycle and their expression in tumors. *Mol Biol Cell* 2002;13:1977-2000.
42. Chang HY, Sneddon JB, Alizadeh AA, Sood R, West RB, Montgomery K, et al. Gene expression signature of fibroblast serum response predicts human cancer progression: similarities between tumors and wounds. *PLoS Biol* 2004;2:E7.
43. Baldi P, Long AD. A Bayesian framework for the analysis of microarray expression data: regularized t-test and statistical inferences of gene changes. *Bioinformatics* 2001;17:509-19.
44. Wertheim GBW, Yang TW, Pan T-C, Ramne A, Liu Z, Gardner HP, et al. The Snf1-related kinase, Hunk, is essential for mammary tumor metastasis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2009;106:15855-60.
45. Ramasamy A, Mondry A, Holmes CC, Altman DG. Key issues in conducting a meta-analysis of gene expression microarray datasets. *PLoS Med* 2008;5:e184.
46. Cochran WG. The combination of estimates from different experiments. *Biometrics* 1954;10:101.
47. DerSimonian R, Laird N. Meta-analysis in clinical trials. *Control Clin Trials* 1986;7:177-88.
48. Whitehead A, Whitehead J. A general parametric approach to the meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *Stat Med* 1991;10:1665-77.
49. Rubin MA, Chinnaiyan AM. Bioinformatics approach leads to the discovery of the TMPRSS2:ETS gene fusion in prostate cancer. *Lab Invest* 2006;86:1099-102.
50. Chin K, DeVries S, Fridlyand J, Spellman PT, Roydasgupta R, Kuo W-L, et al. Genomic and transcriptional aberrations linked to breast cancer pathophysiologies. *Cancer Cell* 2006;10:529-41.
51. Esserman LJ, Berry DA, Cheang MC, Yau C, Perou CM, Carey L, et al. Chemotherapy response and recurrence-free survival in neoadjuvant breast cancer depends on biomarker profiles: results from the I-SPY 1 TRIAL (CALGB 150007/150012; ACRIN 6657). *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2012;132:1049-62.
52. Hess KR, Anderson K, Symmans WF, Valero V, Ibrahim N, Mejia JA, et al. Pharmacogenomic predictor of sensitivity to preoperative chemotherapy with paclitaxel and fluorouracil, doxorubicin, and cyclophosphamide in breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24:4236-44.
53. Popovici V, Chen W, Gallas BG, Hatzis C, Shi W, Samuelson FW, et al. Effect of training-sample size and classification difficulty on the accuracy of genomic predictors. *Breast Cancer Res* 2010;12:R5.
54. Saal LH, Johansson P, Holm K, Gruvberger-Saal SK, She QB, Maurer M, et al. Poor prognosis in carcinoma is associated with a gene expression signature of aberrant PTEN tumor suppressor pathway activity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2007;104:7564-9.
55. Chang HY, Nuyten DS, Sneddon JB, Hastie T, Tibshirani R, Sørlie T, et al. Robustness, scalability, and integration of a wound-response gene expression signature in predicting breast cancer survival. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2005;102:3738-43.
56. Chanrion M, Negre V, Fontaine H, Salvétat N, Bibeau F, Mac Grogan G, et al. A gene expression signature that can predict the recurrence of tamoxifen-treated primary breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 2008;14:1744-52.
57. Curtis C, Shah SP, Chin SF, Turashvili G, Rueda OM, Dunning MJ, et al. The genomic and transcriptomic architecture of 2,000 breast tumours reveals novel subgroups. *Nature* 2012;486:346-52.
58. Desmedt C, Piette F, Loi S, Wang Y, Lallemand F, Haibe-Kains B, et al. Strong time dependence of the 76-gene prognostic signature for node-negative breast cancer patients in the TRANSBIG multicenter independent validation series. *Clin Cancer Res* 2007;13:3207-14.
59. Ivshina AV, George J, Senko O, Mow B, Putti TC, Smeds J, et al. Genetic reclassification of histologic grade delineates new clinical subtypes of breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 2006;66:10292-301.
60. Ma XJ, Wang Z, Ryan PD, Isakoff SJ, Barmettler A, Fuller A, et al. A two-gene expression ratio predicts clinical outcome in breast cancer patients treated with tamoxifen. *Cancer Cell* 2004;5:607-16.
61. Minn AJ, Gupta GP, Padua D, Bos P, Nguyen DX, Nuyten D, et al. Lung metastasis genes couple breast tumor size and metastatic spread. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2007;104:6740-5.
62. Oh DS, Troester MA, Usary J, Hu Z, He X, Fan C, et al. Estrogen-regulated genes predict survival in hormone receptor-positive breast cancers. *J Clin Oncol* 2006;24:1656-64.
63. Pawitan Y, Bjöhle J, Amler L, Borg AL, Egyhazi S, Hall P, et al. Gene expression profiling spares early breast cancer patients from adjuvant therapy: derived and validated in two population-based cohorts. *Breast Cancer Res* 2005;7:R953-64.

64. Sabatier R, Finetti P, Cervera N, Lambaudie E, Esterni B, Mamessier E, et al. A gene expression signature identifies two prognostic subgroups of basal breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2011;126:407-20.
65. Schmidt M, Böhm D, von Törne C, Steiner E, Puhl A, Pilch H, et al. The humoral immune system has a key prognostic impact in node-negative breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 2008;68:5405-13.
66. Sotiriou C, Wirapati P, Loi S, Harris A, Fox S, Smeds J, et al. Gene expression profiling in breast cancer: understanding the molecular basis of histologic grade to improve prognosis. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2006;98:262-72.
67. Wang Y, Klijn JG, Zhang Y, Sieuwerts AM, Look MP, Yang F, et al. Gene-expression profiles to predict distant metastasis of lymph-node-negative primary breast cancer. *Lancet* 2005;365:671-9.
68. Irizarry RA, Hobbs B, Collin F, Beazer-Barclay YD, Antonellis KJ, Scherf U, et al. Exploration, normalization, and summaries of high density oligonucleotide array probe level data. *Biostatistics* 2003;4:249-64.
69. Zhou J, He E, Skog S. The proliferation marker thymidine kinase 1 in clinical use. *Mol Clin Oncol* 2013;1:18-28.
70. Brockenbrough JS, Souquet T, Morihiro JK, Stern JE, Hawes SE, Rasey JS, et al. Tumor 3'-deoxy-3'-(18)F-fluorothymidine ((18)F-FLT) uptake by PET correlates with thymidine kinase 1 expression: static and kinetic analysis of (18)F-FLT PET studies in lung tumors. *J Nucl Med* 2011;52:1181-8.
71. Rasey JS, Grierson JR, Wiens LW, Kolb PD, Schwartz JL. Validation of FLT uptake as a measure of thymidine kinase-1 activity in A549 carcinoma cells. *J Nucl Med* 2002;43:1210-7.
72. McKinley ET, Ayers GD, Smith RA, Saleh SA, Zhao P, Washington MK, et al. Limits of [18F]-FLT PET as a biomarker of proliferation in oncology. *PLoS One* 2013;8:e58938.
73. Muzi M, Mankoff DA, Grierson JR, Wells JM, Vesselle H, Krohn KA. Kinetic modeling of 3'-deoxy-3'-fluorothymidine in somatic tumors: mathematical studies. *J Nucl Med* 2005;46:371-80.
74. Vesselle H, Grierson J, Muzi M, Pugsley JM, Schmidt RA, Rabinowitz P, et al. In vivo validation of 3'-deoxy-3'-[(18)F]fluorothymidine ((18)F)FLT as a proliferation imaging tracer in humans: correlation of [(18)F]FLT uptake by positron emission tomography with Ki-67 immunohistochemistry and flow cytometry in human lung tumors. *Clin Cancer Res* 2002;8:3315-23.
75. Bading JR, Shields AF. Imaging of cell proliferation: status and prospects. *J Nucl Med* 2008;49(Suppl 2):645-80S.
76. Mankoff DA, Shields AF, Krohn KA. PET imaging of cellular proliferation. *Radiol Clin North Am* 2005;43:153-67.
77. Shields AF, Grierson JR, Dohmen BM, Machulla HJ, Stayanoff JC, Lawhorn-Crews JM, et al. Imaging proliferation in vivo with [F-18]FLT and positron emission tomography. *Nat Med* 1998;4:1334-6.
78. Kostakoglu L, Duan F, Idowu MO, Jolles PR, Bear HD, Muzi M, et al. A phase II study of 3'-deoxy-3'-18F-fluorothymidine PET in the assessment of early response of breast cancer to neoadjuvant chemotherapy: results from ACRIN 6688. *J Nucl Med* 2015;56:1681-9.
79. Margolin AA, Bilal E, Huang E, Norman TC, Ottestad L, Mecham BH, et al. Systematic analysis of challenge-driven improvements in molecular prognostic models for breast cancer. *Sci Transl Med* 2013;5:181rel.
80. Asperger H, Stamm N, Gierke B, Pawlak M, Hofmann U, Zanger UM, et al. Progesterone receptor membrane component 1 regulates lipid homeostasis and drives oncogenic signaling resulting in breast cancer progression. *Breast Cancer Res* 2020;22:75.
81. Bai Y, Ludescher M, Poschmann G, Stühler K, Wyrich M, Oles J, et al. PGRMC1 promotes progesterone-dependent proliferation of breast cancer cells by binding prohibitins resulting in activation of ER α signaling. *Cancers (Basel)* 2021;13:5635.
82. Ruan X, Zhang Y, Mueck AO, Willibald M, Seeger H, Fehm T, et al. Increased expression of progesterone receptor membrane component 1 is associated with aggressive phenotype and poor prognosis in ER-positive and negative breast cancer. *Menopause* 2017;24:203-9.
83. Xu X, Ruan X, Zhang Y, Cai G, Ju R, Yang Y, et al. Comprehensive analysis of the implication of PGRMC1 in triple-negative breast cancer. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol* 2021;9:714030.
84. Wu X, Zhou F, Ji X, Ren K, Shan Y, Mao X, et al. The prognostic role of MAC30 in advanced gastric cancer patients receiving platinum-based chemotherapy. *Future Oncol* 2017;13:2691-6.
85. Han K-Y, Gu X, Wang H-R, Liu D, Lv F-Z, Li J-N. Overexpression of MAC30 is associated with poor clinical outcome in human non-small-cell lung cancer. *Tumour Biol* 2013;34:821-5.
86. Ding H, Gui X, Lin X, Chen R, Ma T, Sheng Y, et al. The prognostic effect of MAC30 expression on patients with non-small cell lung cancer receiving adjuvant chemotherapy. *Technol Cancer Res Treat* 2017;16:645-53.
87. Ding H, Gui XH, Lin XB, Chen RH, Cai HR, Fen Y, et al. Prognostic value of MAC30 expression in human pure squamous cell carcinomas of the lung. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev* 2016;17:2705-10.
88. Yang S, Li H, Liu Y, Ning X, Meng F, Xiao M, et al. Elevated expression of MAC30 predicts lymph node metastasis and unfavorable prognosis in patients with epithelial ovarian cancer. *Med Oncol* 2013;30:324.
89. McDonald ES, Mankoff DA, Mach RH. Novel strategies for breast cancer imaging: new imaging agents to guide treatment. *J Nucl Med* 2016;57(Suppl 1):69S-74S.
90. Wheeler KT, Wang LM, Wallen CA, Childers SR, Cline JM, Keng PC, et al. Sigma-2 receptors as a biomarker of proliferation in solid tumours. *Br J Cancer* 2000;82:1223-32.
91. Zeng C, Vangveravong S, Jones LA, Hyrc K, Chang KC, Xu J, et al. Characterization and evaluation of two novel fluorescent sigma-2 receptor ligands as proliferation probes. *Mol Imaging* 2011;10:420-33.
92. Ding X, Zhang W, Li S, Yang H. The role of cholesterol metabolism in cancer. *Am J Cancer Res* 2019;9:219-27.
93. Rossouw JE, Anderson GL, Prentice RL, LaCroix AZ, Kooperberg C, Stefanick ML, et al. Risks and benefits of estrogen plus progestin in healthy postmenopausal women: principal results from the Women's Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 2002;288:321-33.
94. Cahill MA. Unde venisti PGRMC? Grand-scale biology from early eukaryotes and eumetazoan animal origins. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)* 2022;27:317.
95. Cahill MA. Quo vadis PGRMC? Grand-scale biology in human Health and disease. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)* 2022;27:318.
96. Cahill MA, Jazayeri JA, Catalano SM, Toyokuni S, Kovacevic Z, Richardson DR. The emerging role of progesterone receptor membrane component 1 (PGRMC1) in cancer biology. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2016;1866:339-49.
97. Willibald M, Bayer G, Stahlhut V, Poschmann G, Stühler K, Gierke B, et al. Progesterone receptor membrane component 1 is phosphorylated upon progesterone treatment in breast cancer cells. *Oncotarget* 2017;8:72480-93.
98. Ruan X, Neubauer H, Yang Y, Schneck H, Schultz S, Fehm T, et al. Progesterone and membrane-initiated effects on the proliferation of human breast cancer cells. *Climacteric* 2012;15:467-72.
99. Stanczyk FZ. Can the increase in breast cancer observed in the estrogen plus progesterone arm of the Women's Health Initiative trial be explained by progesterone receptor membrane component 1? *Menopause* 2011;18:833-4.
100. Zalutnai A, Molnár J. Review. Molecular background of chemoresistance in pancreatic cancer. *In Vivo* 2007;21:339-47.
101. Xu XL, Chen SZ, Chen W, Zheng WH, Xia XH, Yang HJ, et al. The impact of cyclin D1 overexpression on the prognosis of ER-positive breast cancers: a meta-analysis. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2013;139:329-39.
102. Gomez-Roman N, Grandori C, Eisenman RN, White RJ. Direct activation of RNA polymerase III transcription by c-Myc. *Nature* 2003;421:290-4.
103. Deming SL, Nass SJ, Dickson RB, Trock BJ. C-myc amplification in breast cancer: a meta-analysis of its occurrence and prognostic relevance. *Br J Cancer* 2000;83:1688-95.
104. McDonald PC, Oloumi A, Mills J, Dobrev I, Maidan M, Gray V, et al. Rictor and integrin-linked kinase interact and regulate Akt phosphorylation and cancer cell survival. *Cancer Res* 2008;68:1618-24.
105. Gnant M. The role of mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) inhibition in the treatment of advanced breast cancer. *Curr Oncol Rep* 2013;15:14-23.
106. Vilquin P, Villedieu M, Grisard E, Ben Larbi S, Ghayad SE, Heudel PE, et al. Molecular characterization of anastrozole resistance in breast cancer: pivotal role of the Akt/mTOR pathway in the emergence of de novo or acquired resistance and importance of combining the allosteric Akt inhibitor MK-2206 with an aromatase inhibitor. *Int J Cancer* 2013;133:1589-602.