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# A low nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio of VDR expression is an independent prognostic marker in breast cancer

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Abstract: The aim of this retrospective study was to analyze the prognostic value of cytoplasmic versus 23 nuclear expression of the vitamin D receptor (VDR) in breast cancer (BC) tissue samples and to relate 24 the results to clinicopathological parameters. VDR expression was assessed in 319 primary breast 25 cancer patients using the Remmele and Stegner immunoreactive scoring (IRS) system. Follow-up data 26 were obtained from the Munich Cancer Registry. The correlation with overall survival (OS) and disease-27 free survival (DFS) was calculated using univariate and multivariate analyses. Correlation analysis 28 revealed a correlation between nuclear VDR expression and improved outcomes for both OS (p=0.004) 29 and DFS (p=0.001). Conversely, cytoplasmic VDR expression was significantly associated with a shorter 30 OS (p=0.003) and DFS (p<0.001). Additionally, both cytoplasmic and nuclear VDR expression were 31 found to be independent markers of DFS (p<0.001; p=0.021) when examined alongside 32 clinicopathological parameters. Moreover, nuclear VDR expression was positively associated with 33 lower lymph node invasion (pN; p=0.01). For triple-negative patients, cytoplasmic VDR expression was 34 found to have a significant inverse correlation with DFS (p<0.001). Lastly, the ratio of VDR 35 nuclear/cytoplasmic was identified as an auxiliary independent marker of DFS and OS. These findings 36 strongly indicate that the subcellular localization of VDR is crucial in determining BC prognosis. The 37 expression of nuclear VDR appears to have a protective effect, while cytoplasmic VDR is associated 38 with a more aggressive disease course. The data may help identify subgroups of patients with high-risk 39 BC, possibly leading to specific options for targeted tumor therapy. 40

Keywords:Breast cancer;Vitamin D receptor;Subcellular localization;Immunohistochemistry;42Prognosis;Overall survival;Disease-free survival43

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#### 1. Background

More than 2.3 million cases of breast cancer (BC) occur each year, making it the most common cancer 47 among adults. In 95% of all countries, BC is the first or second leading cause of female cancer deaths 48 [1].

BC diagnostics, management, and treatment are multifarious and diverge based on clinical tumor 50 subtypes (Tao et al., 2015; Harbeck et al., 2019). The possibilities of BC therapy have expanded at a 51 breathtaking speed over the past decades, presenting a variety of therapeutic approaches depending on 52 the therapy intention, such as in adjuvant, neoadjuvant, or metastatic settings. Therapeutic regimens 53 comprise surgical interventions, radiation, and systematic procedures, i.e., chemotherapy and endocrine 54 therapy (Cauley et al., 2001; Fisher et al., 2005; Goss et al., 2011). Despite the tremendous development 55 of personalized BC therapies in recent years, including aromatase inhibitors, hormone receptor 56 modulators, and monoclonal antibodies targeting human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2), 57 consistently high mortality rates due to tumor metastasis persist (Fisher et al., 1998; Khazal and Hill, 58 2015). Therapies targeting nuclear receptors (NRs), such as the estrogen receptor (ER) and the 59 progesterone receptor (PR), are very effective therapeutic options used both for prevention and treatment 60 (Muscat et al., 2013). Endocrine therapy regimens account for the almost 30% decrease in BC-associated 61 mortality, making it necessary for the treatment of hormone receptor-positive (HR+) BC (Shaikh et al., 62 2015; Giordano et al., 2018; AWMF). Several clinical studies have already demonstrated a strong 63 correlation between the expression of steroid hormone receptors, such as ER and PR, and disease 64 progression (Ditsch et al., 2012; Welsh, 2017; Lang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2017; Reinert et al., 2018). 65 To date, however, some tumors are resistant to these therapeutic options, and the identification of new 66 potential therapeutic targets is a necessary research topic (Liu et al., 2017). 67

NRs function primarily as transcription factors in the nucleus when activated by binding lipophilic 68 hormones (Escriva et al., 2004; Dawson and Xia, 2012). Besides the well-known ER and PR, NRs such 69 as vitamin D receptor (VDR), retinoid X receptor (RXRa), thyroid hormone receptors (THRs), 70 peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR), and others are notably involved in the 71 pathophysiology of BC and other cancer entities (Hua et al., 2009; Zehni et al., 2019; Ditsch et al., 72 2020). Analysis of NR expression in different intracellular compartments indicates a specific prognostic 73 value that depends on subcellular localization (Shao et al., 2020). In a previous work, we showed a 74 significant correlation between the expression of cytoplasmic RXR $\alpha$  and a shorter outcome in terms of 75 overall survival (OS) and disease-free survival (DFS) in BC, whereas nuclear RXRa expression appears 76 to be a protective factor (Ditsch et al., 2020). In addition, nuclear THR has been confirmed to have 77 cancer-promoting activities in BC development (Shao et al., 2020). In epithelial ovarian cancer, 78 however, high nuclear THR localization was identified to be a positive predictive factor for OS (Ditsch 79

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et al., 2020). Further research in ovarian cancer demonstrated a direct link between the cytoplasmic <sup>80</sup> localization of VDR and reduced OS (Czogalla et al., 2020). <sup>81</sup>

Vitamin D and its receptor became significant in the past when it was demonstrated that this signaling 82 pathway was involved in cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer (Garland et al., 2006; Wang et al., 83 2008; Pittas et al., 2010). A reduced risk of developing certain cancer types, i.e., breast, ovarian, 84 colorectal, gastric, hematological, kidney, lung, pancreatic, liver, prostate, and skin cancer, is associated 85 with high circulating levels of vitamin D (Deuster et al., 2017). 1α-25 Dihydroxyvitamin D3 (calcitriol) 86 is a seco-steroid hormone and the biologically active metabolite of vitamin D that regulates calcium and 87 phosphate levels in bone metabolism and homeostasis (Holick and Chen, 2008) and affects proliferation 88 and differentiation in carcinoma cells (Kim et al., 2005). 89

Calcitriol exerts its functions on different tissues by binding to nuclear VDR (Christakos et al., 2003), 90 which interacts with other transcription factors. The best-studied one is probably RXR (Zhang et al., 91 2011). The interaction of VDR with RXR suggests that RXR could have a regulatory effect on 92 gynecological cancers. Supporting this hypothesis, overexpression of RXR and VDR has been 93 demonstrated in BRCA1-mutated breast cancer cases, predicting OS (Ferlay et al., 2015). The anti-94 proliferative impacts of calcitriol are believed to be mediated via the nuclear pathway by binding the 95 activated receptor to vitamin D-responsive elements (VDRE) (Cross et al., 1997; Friedich et al., 1999; 96 Omdahl et al., 2002; Carlberg, 2003). VDR has been found in 30 different tissues, where it influences 97 gene expression. VDR expression in the mammary gland undulates during the maturation of the female 98 body, beginning during puberty and peaking during pregnancy and lactation (Welsh, 2017). However, 99 in BC, the expression of VDR is inversely linked to higher cancer incidence, disease progression, and 100 worse prognosis (Ditsch et al., 2012). 101

Considering the major role of VDR in the etiology of cancer, it appeared necessary to further investigate 102 its behavior in BC. Until now, there has been no analysis of VDR subcellular localization as a prognostic 103 factor in human BC specimens. New knowledge may be promising regarding individualized targeted 104 BC therapy. This survey aimed to outline the prognostic role of cytoplasmic versus nuclear expression 105 of VDR in BC and to correlate the results with clinicopathological criteria. 106

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Patient collective

The TC (total collective) (Table 1) of this study included 319 primary BC patients who underwent 110 surgery at the Department of Gynecology and Obstetrics of the Ludwig Maximillian University in 111 Munich, Germany, between 2000-2002. Follow-up data were retrieved from the Munich Cancer 112

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Registry after an observation period of 10 years. The median age of the TC was 59.09, with a standard 113 deviation of  $\pm$  13.1. Tumor focality was determined by using clinical diagnostics such as ultrasound, X-114 ray, or magnetic resonance imaging. Tumor grading was determined according to the common Bloom 115 and Richardson grading system (Elston and Ellis, 1991). According to the Union for International 116 Cancer Control (UICC), the TNM staging at initial diagnosis was defined for each patient (Benson et 117 al., 2003). Hereby, the primary tumor size (pT), lymph node involvement (pN), and distant metastasis 118 (pM) were assessed. VDR expression was microscopically evaluated by using the immune-reactive 119 scoring system of Remmele and Stegner (IRS) (Giordano et al., 2018). 120

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**Table 1.** Patient characteristics of the total collective; pT = size of the tumor, pN = spread of cancer to122nearby lymph nodes, pM = spread of cancer from one part of the body to another, VDR = vitamin D123receptor124

Patient characteristics	n (%)
Age (years)	Median 59.1 ± 13.1 (S.D.)
Tumor foci	Unifocal 173 (54.2) Multifocal 146 (45.7)
Histology	No special Type (NST) 188 (61.4) Non-NST 118 (38.5)
Tumor grading	G1 or G2 165 (52.2) G3 151 (47.7)
рТ	pT1 197 (64.3) pT2-pT4 109 (35.6)
pN	pN0 166 (54.2) pN1-pN3 140 (45.7)
рМ	pM0 239 (78.1) pM1 67 (21.8)
Nuclear VDR	Positive 124 (38.9) Positive 168 (52.7)
Cytoplasmic VDR	Positive 155 (48.6)

#### 2.2. Patient treatment

The treatment of this cohort was previously published in other research works of this study group (Zehni 127 et al., 2019, 2020, 2021a,b; Weissenbacher et al., 2010, 2013). The primary surgical treatment involved 128 depended on disease progress: breast-conserving therapy or modified radical mastectomy. In the case of 129 lymph node involvement, patients received chemotherapy according to the guidelines of the Cancer 130 Treatment Center of Munich at that time. The chemotherapy regimen consisted of six cycles of CMF 131

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every 21 days (cyclophosphamide: 600 mg/m<sup>2</sup> body-surface area; methotrexate: 40 mg/m<sup>2</sup>; and 5-132 fluorouracil: 600 mg/m<sup>2</sup>). Adjuvant endocrine therapy with tamoxifen 20-30 mg/day was prescribed for 133 the postmenopausal, hormone receptor-positive patients in this study. When Gonadotropin-releasing 134 hormone (GnRH) analogs came on the market in the later years of the follow-up period, the 135 premenopausal cohort was supplemented with GnRH analogs. In the case of contraindications for the 136 abovementioned substances, patients received aromatase inhibitors. Since the guidelines for BC 137 treatment have substantially changed within the follow-up period of the study, the authors did not 138 include further oncological treatment details. 139

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# 2.3. Immunochemistry

The tissue samples gathered for immunohistochemistry to identify VDR expression were stained 142 according to previously published methods, described in brief below (Ditsch et al., 2012; Heublein et 143 al., 2017; Zehni et al., 2019; Czogalla et al., 2020). The formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded sections 144 were dewaxed for 15 minutes with xylol and then rehydrated in three ascending steps in 70-100% 145 concentrations of alcohol. Subsequently, the sections were exposed for 10 min in a pressure cooker using 146 sodium citrate buffer (pH 6.0), containing 0.1 M sodium citrate in distilled water and 0.1 M citric acid 147 for epitope retrieval. After cooling, the slides were washed twice in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). 148 Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched by immersion in 3% hydrogen peroxide (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>; Merck, 149 Darmstadt, Germany) in methanol for 20 min. At room temperature for 20 minutes, nonspecific binding 150 of the primary antibodies was prevented by incubating the sections with diluted normal serum (10 mL 151 PBS containing 150 µl horse serum; Vector Laboratories). After incubation with the primary antibodies 152 (anti-VDR, mouse IgG2a, monoclonal, Serotec, Puchheim) for one hour at room temperature, the PBS 153 washing steps were repeated. For 30 minutes, the slides were then incubated with diluted biotinylated 154 anti-serum secondary antibody (10 ml PBS containing 50 µl horse serum, Vector Laboratories, CA) at 155 room temperature. Then, the cells were incubated with the avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (diluted in 156 10 mL PBS; Vector Laboratories) for 30 minutes. After repeated PBS washing steps, visualization was 157 achieved with substrate and chromogen 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB; Dako, Glostrup, Denmark) for 158 8-10 min. As a last step, slides were counterstained with Mayer 's acidic hematoxylin, dehydrated in an 159 ascending series of alcohol reaching from 50 to 98%, and then covered with xylol. 160

#### 2.4. Staining evaluation

To quantify the specific VDR immunoreactivity in the nuclei and cytoplasm, the semiquantitative 163 immunoreactive scoring system of Remmele and Stegner (IRS) was used (Remmele and Stegner, 1987). 164

The intensity and distribution pattern of the staining reaction was evaluated by two independent blinded 165 observers. For staining evaluation, a light microscope by Leitz (Immuno-histochemistry Type 307-148.001 512 686, Wetzlar, Germany) and a 3CCD color camera (JVC, Victor Company of Japan, Japan) 167 were used.

The IRS method has been previously described and applied in numerous studies by our group (Zehni et 169 al., 2019, 2020, 2021a,b). In brief, the scoring system ranges from 0 to 12. For that, the staining intensity 170 (score 0 = no staining, score 1 = weak staining, score 2 = moderate staining, score 3 = strong staining) 171 was multiplied by the percentage of positively stained cells (0: no staining,  $1: \le 10\%$  of the cells, 2: 11-172 50% of the cells, 3: 51–80% of the cells and 4:  $\geq$ 81% of the cells). For each tissue sample, VDR staining 173 in the nucleus and cytoplasm was evaluated in parallel, with the separate determination of nuclear and 174 cytoplasmic IRS. Cut-off scores with an IRS  $\geq 1$  were defined as positive for either nuclear or 175 cytoplasmic VDR expression. 176

#### 2.5. Ethical approval

After all diagnostics had been completed, the tissue samples used in this study were retrieved from the 179 archive of Gynecology and Obstetrics, Ludwig Maximilian University in Munich, Germany. All patients 180 gave their consent to participate in the study. Patient data and clinical information from the Munich 181 Cancer Registry were fully anonymized and encoded for statistical analysis. The study was performed 182 according to the standards set in the Declaration of Helsinki in 1975. The current study was approved 183 by the Ethics Committee of Ludwig Maximilian University, Munich, Germany (approval number 048-184 08, 18th March 2008). The authors were blinded to the clinical information during the experimental 185 analysis. 186

# 2.6. Statistical analysis

For the statistical analysis, the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (IBM SPSS Statistic v26.0 189 Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used. In an implied manner, the results were inserted into the SPSS 190 database, building the TC. The TC was tested for significance using the different statistical devices listed 191 below. To be considered significant, a p-value <0.05 was determined in this study. All p-values and the 192 number of patients analyzed in each group are listed for each chart. To assess the distribution of clinical-193 pathological variables, the chi-squared test was used. Spearman's analysis tested for correlations 194 between immunohistochemical staining findings. By applying the nonparametric Kruskal-Walli's test, 195 differences between cytoplasmic and nuclear VDR expression regarding the set prognostic markers were 196 tested for significance. As prognostic markers in our study, OS and DFS (in years) were set. With 197

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Kaplan–Meier curves, the differences in patients' OS and DFS were illustrated, and the chi-square of 198 the log-rank test tested for significance. In addition, multivariate analyses were conducted by using Cox 199 regression for the set prognostic markers. The following factors were included: pT and pN of the TNM 200 staging system, grading, histology type, and Her2-neu-, estrogen-, and progesterone receptors. 201

### 3. Results

# 3.1. Nuclear and cytoplasmic VDR in BC samples

Figure 1 shows a selection of the immunohistochemically stained VDR in BC tissue. Positively stained 205 cells appeared in a brownish color, and unstained tissue appeared blue (Fig. 1 a-d). To assess the 206 specificity of the immunoreactions, negative and positive controls were performed. Human placenta 207 tissue sections incubated with preimmune IgGs (supersensitive rabbit negative control, BioGenex, 208 Fremont, CA, USA) instead of the primary antibody served as a negative control and are colored blue. 209 As positive controls, we used human placenta and vaginal samples for VDR detection. Here, positively 210 stained cells appeared in a brownish color. Pictures were taken with a digital charged-coupled device 211 camera system (JVC, Tokyo, Japan). 212



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In this cohort, nuclear VDR expression revealed a significant positive association with BC prognosis. 222 Patients showed a significantly longer OS when their tumors expressed nuclear VDR. This was 223 visualized in the Kaplan-Meier curve shown in Figure 2, and the log-rank test indicated a significant p-224 value of 0.004. Not only OS but also DFS was significantly positively affected by nuclear VDR 225 expression. These results are displayed in Figure 3, where the Kaplan-Meier curve shows that patients 226 with nuclear VDR expression have a significantly longer DFS (p=0.001). Supporting these results, 227 multivariate Cox regression revealed that nuclear VDR expression is an independent marker of DFS 228 (HR 0.574, 95% CI 0.358-0.921, *p*=0.021) (Table 2). 229



Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of positive and negative nuclear VDR expression in relation 231 to OS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95% 232 confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 233

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Figure 3. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of positive and negative nuclear VDR expression in relation238to DFS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95%239confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses.240

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Variable	Coefficient	HR (95%CI)	<i>p</i> -value
Nuclear VDR	0 556	0 574 (0 358 0 921)	0.021
>0	-0.550	0.374 (0.338-0.321)	0.021
Age	0.003	1.003 (0.984-1.022)	0.768
Histology	-0.067	0.935 (0.865-1.012)	0.096
Grading	0.001	1.001 (0.996-1.018)	0.812
рТ	0.309	1.362 (1.136-1.632)	0.001
pN	0.004	1.004 (0.990-1.018)	0.592
Her2neu	-0.006	0.994 (0.988-1.001)	0.098
ER	-0.077	0.926 (0.545-1.574)	0.777
PR	0.081	1.084 (0.639-1.841)	0.764

Significant results are shown in bold (p < 0.05); HR: hazard ratio; CI: confidence interval, pT = tumor size, pN = lymph node involvement.

#### 3.3. Cytoplasmic VDR expression significantly correlates with a worse BC prognosis

Cytoplasmic VDR expression was significantly associated with a worse BC prognosis. The Kaplan-247 Meier curve was visualized, and log-rank tests calculated a significantly worse course regarding OS 248 (p=0.003, Fig. 4) and DFS (p<0.001, Fig. 5) when cytoplasmic VDR was expressed in BC tissue. Similar 249 to the results of nuclear VDR cases, multivariate Cox regression identified cytoplasmic VDR as an 250 independent prognostic factor of DFS (HR 2.288, 95% CI 1.468-3.566, p<0.001) (Table 3). 251



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Figure 4. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of positive and negative nuclear VDR expression in relation to OS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95% 255 confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 256

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**Figure 5.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of positive and negative cytoplasmic VDR expression in relation to DFS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 263

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# Table 3. Multivariate Cox regression analysis of cytoplasmic VDR expression regarding DFS.

Variable	Coefficient	HR (95%CI)	<i>p</i> -value
Cytoplasmic VDR >0	0.828	2.288 (1.468-3.566)	<0.001
Age	0.002	1.002 (0.983-1.021)	0.843
Histology	-0.043	0.958 (0.889-1.032)	0.256
Grading	0.001	1.001 (0.996-1.005)	0.080
рТ	0.324	1.383 (1.167-1.640)	<0.001
pN	0.001	1.001 (0.987-1.015)	0.925
Her2neu	-0.007	0.993 (0.987-1.00)	0.047
ER	-0.044	0.957 (0.561-1.632)	0.871
PR	0.048	1.050 (0.616-1.788)	0.859

Significant results are shown in bold (p < 0.05); HR: hazard ratio; CI: confidence interval, pT = tumor size, pN = lymph node involvement

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#### 3.4 Subcellular localization of VDR and correlation with prognosis

Furthermore, the cohort was divided into four phenotypic combinatorial groups as follows: cytoplasmic 270 and nuclear VDR negative (n=19), only cytoplasmic VDR positive (n=63), only nuclear VDR positive (n=138), and cytoplasmic and nuclear VDR positive (n=80). Cut-off scores >0 for the IRS were defined 272 as either cytoplasmic or nuclear VDR positive. In some cases, where VDR expression was observed in 273 the nucleus and the cytoplasm, an IRS-ratio was given. 274

Supporting the results mentioned in 3.3 and 3.4, the Kaplan-Meier curve visualized a significantly better 275 outcome regarding OS (Fig. 6) and DFS (Fig. 7) for the patient cohort only expressing nuclear VDR and 276 a worse prognosis when only expressing cytoplasmic VDR. In contrast, the results of the combined 277 VDR expression groups were in between those of the other groups. The log-rank test calculated 278 significant results for both: OS *p*-value=0.004 and DFS *p*-value of <0.001. 279



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202	Mear	n OS time (years)	I	
283	95% confider	ice interval (CI)		
284 Combined VDR expression	Mean	SEM	lower border	higher border
285 Cytoplasmic and nuclear VDR negative (n=19)	9.488	0.873	7.777	11.199
<sup>286</sup> Cytoplasmic VDR positive 2007 (n=63)	7.868	0.530	6.830	8.906
Nuclear VDR positive 288 (n=138)	10.492	0.348	9.810	11.174
Cytoplasmic and nuclear <sup>289</sup> VDR positive (n=80)	9.428	0.475	8.498	10.359
Total (n=300)	9.662	0.253	9.165	10.159
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Figure 6. Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of the four combinatorial phenotypic VDR groups and their 291 expression in relation to OS. Statistical significance is shown as the *p*-value from the log-rank test 292 (\*p < 0.05). The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 293 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 294



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Mean DFS time in years									
			95% confide	nce interval (CI)					
Combined VDR expression	Mean	SEM	lower border	higher border					
Cytoplasmic and									
nuclear	8.069	1.055	6.001	10.137					
VDR negative (n=19)									
Cytoplasmic VDR									
positive	4.927	0.595	3.762	6.093					
(n=63)									
nuclear VDR positive	9.049	0.431	8.205	9.893					

298 (n=136)					
Cytoplasmic and					
naclear	7.101	0.595	5.934	8.267	
VDR positive (n=80)					
300 Total (n=298)	7.737	0.320	7.109	8.365	

**Figure 7.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of the four combinatorial phenotypic VDR groups and their expression in relation to DFS. Statistical significance is shown as the *p*-value from the log-rank test (\*p<0.05). The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 305

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# 3.5 Cytoplasmic VDR expression is an independent marker of DFS

For further analysis of the prognostic impact of cytoplasmic VDR, the combined VDR group (n= 216) 308 was correlated with cytoplasmic VDR only group (n=82), being cytoplasmic VDR positive and nuclear 309 VDR positive, for prognosis. Matching the results of the subcellular analysis of VDR (Section 3.4), 310 significantly reduced outcomes for OS (p=0.004) and DFS (p<0.001) were calculated via the log-rank 311 test and visualized with Kaplan-Meier analysis when only expressing cytoplasmic VDR compared with 312 combined VDR expression (Figures 8 and 9). Additionally, multivariate Cox regression identified 313 cytoplasmic VDR expression as an independent prognostic marker of DFS (HR 2.138, 95% CI 1.244-314 3.674, p<0.001) (Table 4). 315



	Ν	Aean OS time (ye	ears)	
			95% confiden	ce interval (CI)
Cytoplasmic VDR only	Mean	SEM	lower border	higher border
Cytoplasmic VDR only (n=82)	8.357	0.477	7.421	9.293
combined VDR (n=216)	10.101	0.286	9.540	10.662
Overall (n=298)	9.662	0.253	9.165	10.159

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**Figure 8.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of patients with cytoplasmic VDR positivity only and <sup>319</sup> combined VDR expression in relation to OS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, <sup>320</sup> standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. <sup>321</sup>



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	Ν	Aean DFS time (ye	ars)	
			95% confidence	ce interval (CI)
Cytoplasmic VDR only	Mean	SEM	lower border	higher border
Cytoplasmic VDR only (n=82)	5.837	0.575	4.711	6.964
combined VDR (n=216)	8.310	0.359	7.607	9.014
Overall (n=298)	7.737	0.320	7.109	8.365

**Figure 9.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of patients with cytoplasmic VDR positivity only and combined VDR expression in relation to DFS. The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time, standard error of the mean (SEM), and 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 328

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**Table 4.** Multivariate Cox regression analysis of cytoplasmic VDR expression only regarding DFS.

Variable	Coefficient	HR (95%CI)	<i>p</i> -value
Cytoplasmic VDR	0.760	2 128 (1 244 2 674)	0.004
only	0.700	2.138 (1.244-3.074)	0.000
Age	0.008	1.008(0.987-1.029)	0.459
Histology	-0.035	0.965 (0.905-1.029)	0.279
Grading	-0.003	0.997 (0.992-1.002)	0.274
рТ	0.371	1.449 (1.202-1.746)	<0.001
pN	0.008	1.008 (0.994-1.023)	0.271
Her2neu	-0.004	0.996 (0.989-1.003)	0.254
ER	-0.417	0.659 (0.336-1.290)	0.223
PR	-0.182	0 834 (0 477-1 458)	0.523

Significant results are shown in bold (p < 0.05); HR: hazard ratio; CI: confidence interval, pT 331 = tumor size, pN = lymph node involvement 332

# 3.6. Cytoplasmic VDR as a prognostic marker in triple-negative BC patients

The correlations between subcellular VDR expression were also investigated specifically in the <sup>336</sup> subcohort of triple-negative BC (TNBC) cases using the same statistical devices for evaluation. In the <sup>337</sup> TNBC patient cohort, cytoplasmic VDR expression revealed a significant negative correlation (p- <sup>338</sup> *value*=0.039) with DFS (Fig. 10). <sup>339</sup>

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**Figure 10.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of cytoplasmic VDR expression in the triple-negative patient 345 cohort in relation to DFS. Statistical significance is shown as the *p*-value from the log-rank test (p = 346 0.039). The risk table demonstrates the mean survival time in triple-negative patients, standard error of 347 the mean (SEM), and 95% confidence interval (CI) for univariate analyses. 348

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#### 3.7. Ratio of nuclear/cytoplasmic VDR expression as an independent marker of OS and DFS

Finally, we performed an analysis of the prognostic value of the ratio between the nuclear and 351 cytoplasmic expression of VDR (VDRnuc/cyt). To calculate this ratio, negative cytoplasmic expression 352 was set to 0.01 to avoid division by zero. As a result, we obtained three groups: 1. VDRnuc/cyt = 0—in 353 this group, the nuclear expression of VDR is zero; 2. VDRnuc/cyt = balanced—in this group, there is 354 positive staining in both the nucleus and the cytoplasm; and 3. VDRnuc/VDRcyt = infinite—in this 355 group, there is almost no VDR expression in the cytoplasm. Kaplan-Meier analysis showed that the 356 VDRnuc/cyt ratio is a very good prognostic marker of OS and DFS (Figure 11). In addition, multivariate 357 Cox regression identified the VDRnuc/cyt ratio as an independent prognostic marker of OS and DFS 358 (Table 5). 359

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Variable (OS)	Coefficient	HR (95%CI)	<i>p</i> -value
VDRnuc/cyt ratio	-0.294	0.746 (0.565-0.983)	0.037
Age	0.029	1.029 (1.014-1.045)	<0.001
Histology	-0.001	0.999 (0.975-1.024)	0.951
Grading	0.004	1.004 (0.999-1.008)	0.082
рТ	0.450	1.569 (1.348-1.826)	<0.001
pN	0.011	1.011 (1.002-1.020)	0.013
Her2neu	-0.002	0.998 (0.992-1.004)	0.508
ER	0.163	1.177 (0.698-1.983)	0.541
PR	-0.160	0.852 (0.506-1.434)	0.547
Variable (DFS)	Coefficient	HR (95%CI)	<i>p</i> -value
VDRnuc/cyt ratio	-0.548	0.578 (0.436-0.767)	<0.001
Age	0.004	1.004 (0.985 - 1.023)	0.672
Histology	-0.056	0.946 (0.876 -1.022)	0.158
Grading	0.000	1.000 (0.996 -1.005)	0.830
рТ	0.283	1.328 (1.114 -1.582)	0.002
pN	0.003	1.003 (0.989 -1.017)	0.680
Her2neu	-0.006	0.994 (0.988 -1.001)	0.104
ER	-0.011	0.989 (0.582-1.681)	0.986
PR	0.015	1.015 (0.598-1.724)	0.955

Significant results are shown in bold (p < 0.05); HR: hazard ratio; CI: confidence interval, pT = tumor size, pN = lymph node involvement





**Figure 11.** Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of the ratio between the nuclear expression and cytoplasmic 371 expression of VDR (VDRnuc/cyt). Patients with a ratio =0 showed the lowest OS and DFS in 372 comparison with patients with an infinite ratio of VDRnuc/cyt; p=0.001 for OS and <0.001 for DFS. 373

### 4. Discussion

Analysis and evaluation of the subcellular expression of VDR in BC and the correlation of these results 376 with clinicopathological criteria was the research focus of this retrospective study. This is the first 377 examination to outline the prognostic impact of cytoplasmic versus nuclear expression of VDR in BC. 378 This study was based on a relatively large patient cohort that did not receive any treatment before surgery 379 and had a long-term follow-up. Our data provide evidence that nuclear VDR expression is a protective 380 factor, whereas the expression of cytoplasmic VDR is a significant negative prognostic marker. These 381 results were strengthened by multivariate analysis, where cytoplasmic and nuclear VDR were found to 382 be independent prognostic markers of DFS, with poorer and better outcomes, respectively. 383

VDR is involved in cell growth, differentiation, and apoptosis in BC and normal mammary cells. 384 This receptor is expressed in epithelial as well as stromal and immune cells of the mammary gland. In 385

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the epithelial compartment, it is dynamically regulated in special hormonal phases, such as puberty and 386 pregnancy (Zinser et al., 2002; Zinser and Welsh, 2004). 1,25(OH)2D3 induces cell cycle arrest, 387 differentiation, and/or apoptosis through VDR in both estrogen-dependent and estrogen-independent BC 388 cells (Lazzaro et al., 2000; Narvaez and Welsh, 2001) through suppression of estradiol and growth factor 389 signaling pathways and induction of negative growth regulators, such as transforming growth factor 390 (TGF) (Stoica et al., 1999; Lazzaro et al., 2000; Cordero et al., 2002). Additionally, animal models have 391 revealed that a lack of VDR expression is related to alterations in the proliferation and apoptosis of 392 epithelial cells. For example, in VDR-KO mice, post-lactational involution, a process driven by 393 apoptosis of mammary epithelial cells, is delayed (Zinser and Welsh, 2004). 394

In our study, the patient cohort positive for nuclear VDR expression and negative for cytoplasmic VDR 395 revealed a significant correlation with improved OS and DFS when compared with the other 396 combinatorial VDR expression cohorts. In contrast, the worst prognostic outcomes in both OS and DFS 397 were seen in the patient cohorts with only cytoplasmic VDR expression. We suggest that the nuclear 398 and cytoplasmic forms of VDR may exhibit opposite roles in mammary carcinogenesis. This is possibly 399 due to the activation status of VDR. While the antiproliferative effect has been shown to be mediated 400 predominantly via the nuclear pathway by binding of the activated receptor to VDREs (Omdahl et al., 401 2002; Carlberg, 2003, 2014), a similar antiproliferative effect through VDR expression in the cytoplasm 402 could not be demonstrated in our analysis. Furthermore, the presence of inactive cytoplasmic VDR could 403 also be due to the absence of a corresponding ligand or decreased receptor response to the ligand. 404 Moreover, the results suggest that the protective effects of nuclear VDR expression may be neutralized 405 by a balanced expression of VDR in the cytoplasm and nucleus. This hypothesis is supported by the 406 significant results from the VDRnuc/cyt ratio analyses. Here, the importance of the subcellular 407 distribution of VDR expression is demonstrated, as well as its excellent suitability as an independent 408 prognostic marker. In our previous survey, nuclear VDR expression was significantly positively 409 associated with smaller tumor size, as well as lower regional lymph node involvement. These findings 410 strengthened the hypothesis of a specific role of the subcellular localization of VDR. 411

To date, no studies have examined the particular role of VDR in diverse cell compartments in BC tissue. 412 The VDR is mainly localized in the nucleoplasm. In addition, it is localized in the cytosol, while its 413 location in intermediate filaments is still discussed in the literature [65]. VDR, in the absence of its 414 ligand, seems to distribute between the nucleus and the cytoplasm and undergo nuclear translocation 415 upon ligand binding (Hsieh et al., 1998; Prufer et al., 2000). Moreover, the nuclear import of VDR is 416 promoted in the presence of RXR, suggesting that the process involves RXR-VDR heterodimers (Prufer 417 et al., 2000; Prufer and Barsony, 2002). Published research indicates that VDR is imported into the 418 nucleus by distinct pathways by binding importin a. This observation further proves the association of 419 VDR with its cognate importin  $\alpha$ ; hence, its nuclear import is increased by the respective ligands, but 420 the magnitude of the ligand response is noticeably different (Yasmin et al., 2005). VDR weakly interacts 421 with importin  $\alpha$  in the absence of its ligand, and the association is considerably enhanced in the presence 422 of calcitriol (Yasmin et al., 2005). However, the mechanisms that underlie the nuclear import of RXRcontaining heterodimers are not completely understood. 424

In accordance with the present findings, we demonstrated in an earlier study a correlation with nuclear 425 RXR $\alpha$  expression regarding improved OS, whereas cytoplasmic RXR $\alpha$  expression was significantly 426 correlated with shorter outcomes in terms of both OS and DFS (Zehni et al., 2021a). Furthermore, 427 consistent with our data, a direct link between the nuclear localization of THR and increased OS in 428 epithelial ovarian cancer has been proven (Ditsch et al., 2020). However, THR has also been identified 429 to represent cancer-promoting activities during BC development (Shao et al., 2020. 430

Interestingly, cytoplasmic VDR expression showed a significant negative correlation with DFS (Fig. 431 10) in the TNBC patient subcohort. Other known BC receptors demonstrate no statistically significant 432 correlation between prognosis and subcellular VDR expression. Further research on the intracellular 433 localization of the VDR in BC, especially in TNBC, should be of major interest, as this BC subtype is 434 characterized by shorter OS, as well as DFS and increased metastatic potential compared with other BC 435 subtypes. The identification of reliable predictive biomarkers is essential in the process of finding new 436 therapeutic regimens and approaches. 437

Epidemiological and preclinical evidence advocates the risk-reducing influence of vitamin D in 438 gynecologic carcinomas (Valdivielso and Fernandez, 2006). Besides, it is a widely shared point of view 439 that vitamin D supplementation decreases the risk of developing cancer (lappe et al., 2007; 440 Walentowicz-Sadlecka, 2013). Compelling epidemiologic evidence proposes that inadequate VDR 441 expression is associated with a more aggressive disease, which has led to the present standardized 442 vitamin D supplementation for BC prevention and therapy (Walentowicz-Sadlecka et al., 2013; AWMF, 443 Al-Azhri et al., 2017). In contrast, different studies have postulated increased VDR expression in diverse 444 gynecological cancers, such as multifocal BC and ovarian, cervical, and endometrial cancer (Deuster et 445 al., 2017; Zehni et al., 2019). Therefore, a critical reconsideration of vitamin D as a target subjected to 446 downregulation during BC progression is suggested. Additionally, VDR polymorphisms have been 447 shown to affect the risk of ovarian cancer (Deuster et al., 2017). 448

Certain aspects limit this study, such as the sample size, which was relatively low and may thus be 449 insufficient to interpret all the heterogeneous entities in BD. Furthermore, it is a retrospective analysis 450 based on a single database. Moreover, specific information on possible toxic environmental aspects or 451 a history of endocrine therapy and other patient characteristics could enrich the investigation of how 452 additional factors interact with VDR. Additionally, the guidelines for surgical, radiation oncology, and 453

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chemotherapy treatment options changed significantly within the observation time of the survey.454Consequently, oncological treatment details were not included in the analysis.455

Nevertheless, aside from these limitations, the results strongly indicate that the VDR pathway could 456 represent a promising therapeutic target in future BC treatment. These findings might serve to impulse 457 further investigation of the crosstalk between potential NR ligands and the VDR pathway regarding its 458 therapeutic potential in BC. 459

#### 5. Conclusions

In this paper, the prognostic potential of the nuclear localization of the VDR compared with its 462 cytoplasmic expression in human BC samples was investigated. Beyond that, the correlation between 463 clinicopathological criteria, as well as patient treatment outcomes and the subcellular localization of the 464 VDR, was analyzed. This is the first retrospective cohort study to define the prognostic role of 465 cytoplasmic versus nuclear expression of VDR in sporadic mammary cancer using a large clinical 466 467

VDR expression was found to inversely correlate with BC prognosis depending on its intracellular 468 localization: VDR expressed in the cytoplasm of BC tissues was negatively associated with patient OS, 469 while the opposite result was observed for VDR located in the nucleus. Most interestingly, the 470 VDRnuc/cyt ratio was identified as a highly significant and independent prognostic marker in BC. 471 Ultimately, nuclear receptors such as VDR and possible targeted treatments should be the subject of 472 future research. Further studies on the subcellular expression of VDR and other members of the NR 473 family are essentially required. Besides, the interaction between the VDR and other NRs (including 474 estrogen, progesterone, and androgen receptors) should be specifically analyzed. Additional 475 investigations to examine the biomolecular function of VDR in BC would be of major interest. 476 Nevertheless, the evidence provided in this study indicates a key role for the VDR in BC. 477

#### **Declarations**

**Ethics approval and consent to participate:** The tissue samples used in this study were leftover material after all diagnostics had been completed and were retrieved from the archive of Gynecology and Obstetrics, Ludwig Maximilian University, Munich, Germany. All patients gave their consent to participate in the study. All patient data were fully anonymized; the study was performed according to the standards set out in the Declaration of Helsinki, 1975. The current study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Ludwig Maximilian University, Munich, Germany (approval number 048-08) 05 February 2018. The authors were blinded from the clinical information during the experimental analysis.

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**Consent for publication:** Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

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492 493 Conflicts of Interest: Sven Mahner: research support, advisory board, honoraria, and travel expenses 494 from AbbVie, AstraZeneca, Clovis, Eisai, GlaxoSmithKline, Medac, MSD, Novartis, Olympus, 495 PharmaMar, Roche, Sensor Kinesis, Teva, and Tesaro. All other authors declare no conflict of interest. 496 497 Funding: This research was funded by internal departmental sources and has no funding grant number 498 or name. 499 500 Author Contributions: U.J., V.C., and N.D. conceived and designed the project. A.Z.Z. and C.S. wrote 501 the paper. A.Z.Z. carried out the statistical evaluation. A.Z.Z. carried out the method. U.J. provided the 502 concept, substantially contributed to the manuscript, and supervised the research. T.V., F.B., V.C., S.S., 503 S.M. M.K., and T.K. revised the manuscript for critical content and helped with statistical evaluation. 504 Funding acquisition, S.M. All authors have analyzed and interpreted the data and read and agreed to the 505 published version of the manuscript. 506 507 Abbreviations 508 BC Breast cancer 509 DFS Disease-free Survival 510 ER Estrogen receptor 511 HER2 Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 512 HR+ Hormone receptor-positive 513 NRs Nuclear receptors 514 OS Overall-survival 515 PPAR Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor 516 PR Progesterone receptor 517 IRS Immunoreactive Score 518 RXRα Retinoid X receptor 519 Total collective TC 520 Thyroid hormone receptors THRs 521 VDR Vitamin D receptor 522 VDRE Vitamin D-responsive element 523 524

Availability of data and materials: The data presented in this study are available upon request from

the corresponding author. The data are not publicly available due to ethical issues.

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