

Natural products as part of triple negative breast cancer

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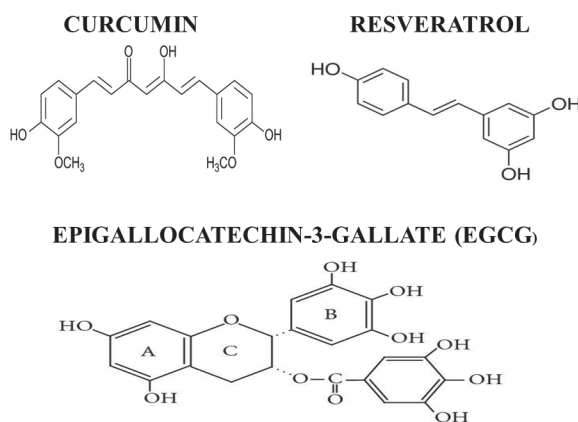
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Abstract

Triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) continues to be the breast cancer subtype with the highest recurrence and mortality rates. Treatment of TNBC can be challenging because the disease has different molecular subtypes. Various treatment options are available, such as chemotherapy, immunotherapy, radiation therapy, and surgery. Chemotherapy is the most common of these options. The serious side effects of chemotherapy significantly limit its use. Long-term toxicity can affect the majority of breast cancer survivors, significantly reducing their quality of life. Immunotherapy causes a wide variety of toxic effects called immune-related adverse events (IRAEs). This necessitates the search for alternative methods of treatment for triple negative breast cancer. More and more research in this field is focused on single or combination therapy based on compounds obtained from natural sources. Natural products such as curcumin, resveratrol, and epigallocatechin-3-gallate, with their mechanisms of action and antineoplastic properties, are the subject of numerous studies.

Graphical abstract



Keywords

triple negative breast cancer, therapy, side effects, natural products, curcumin, resveratrol, epigallocatechin-3-gallate

Introduction

Breast cancer represents a significant global challenge as a highly lethal disease affecting women, amid the adverse effects of chemotherapy, radiotherapy and the critical problem of multidrug resistance (MDR). It is the leading cause of death among women, with an estimated 2.3 million new cases in 2020, accounting for 30% of cancers in women alone (Sung et al. 2021; Mandapati and Lukong 2023).

Triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) encompasses a heterogeneous group of fundamentally different diseases with different histological, genomic, and immunological profiles, which are united under this term due to their lack of estrogen receptor (ER), progesterone receptor (PR), and human receptor 2 epidermal growth factor (HER2) (Derakhshan and Reis-Filho 2022; Foulkes et al. 2010). TNBCs represent the most common type of invasive breast cancer developing in the context of patients carrying germline BRCA1 mutations (Stevens et al. 2013). Indeed, >85% of breast cancers developing in the context of germline pathogenic BRCA1 variant carriers show a triple negative phenotype, and 11% to 19% of patients with triple negative disease carry BRCA1 germline or somatic mutations (Mavaddat et al. 2013; Kuchenbaecker et al. 2017). The prevalence of TNBC is increased in young women under 40 years of age of African or Hispanic ancestry. There is also a high prevalence of a first- or second-degree family history of breast or ovarian cancer in patients with this immunohistochemical subtype (Sandoval-Ato et al. 2024).

TNBCs typically resemble basal-like breast cancer (BLBC) with overlapping gene expression characteristics (Yin et al. 2020). Based on gene expression profiles, six TNBC subtypes were identified, each with a different gene expression profile and ontology, which are basal-like 1 (BL-1), basal-like 2 (BL-2), immunomodulatory subtype (IM), mesenchymal subtype (M), mesenchymal stem-like subtype (MSL), and luminal androgen receptor subtype (LAR) (Table 1) (Maqbool et al. 2022; Li et al. 2022b; Lehmann et al. 2011).

Table 1. Molecular subclasses and therapeutic targets in TNBC.

	Molecular subclasses	Candidate therapeutic target
TNBC	Basal-like (BL2)	EGFR, MET, EPHA2, mTOR
	Luminal androgen receptor (LAR)	AR, Hsp90, PI3K, FGFR4
	Mesenchymal stem-like (MSL)	SRC, MEK1/2, mTOR, PI3K, PDGFR, NFkB, IGF1R, FGFR, TGFBR3
	Immunomodulatory (IM)	STATs, JAK1/2, LYN, IRF1/7/8, BTK, NFkB
	Mesenchymal (M)	SRC, IGF1R, PI3 K and mTOR, PDGFR, FGFR
	Basal-like (BL1)	PARP1, TTK, PLK1, CHEK1, AURKA/B, RAD51
	Unstable (UNS)	PARP1, TTK, CHEK1, PLK1, AURKA/B, RAD51

Therapy

Triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) continues to be the breast cancer subtype with the highest recurrence and mortality rates. The lack of expression of target proteins such as the estrogen receptor and the absence of HER2 amplification has made reliance on cytotoxic chemotherapy necessary for decades (Leon-Ferre and Goetz 2023). Treatment of TNBC can be challenging because the disease has different molecular subtypes. Various treatment options are available, such as chemotherapy, immunotherapy, radiation therapy, and surgery. Chemotherapy is the most common of these options (Obidiro et al. 2023). Traditional treatment guidelines for early TNBC are based on surgery and postoperative adjuvant chemotherapy to prevent disease recurrence (Cardoso et al. 2019a). Adjuvant chemotherapy is based on anthracyclines, taxanes, and alkylating agents (Gupta et al. 2020). In stage II or III TNBC, neoadjuvant chemotherapy is preferred based on different treatment guidelines (Fig. 1) (Gradishar et al. 2022).

Research shows that anthracyclines kill cancer tissues directly and activate the immune system by activating CD8+ T cells (Katz and Alsharedi 2017). Anthracyclines such as doxorubicin and epirubicin have been shown to increase response rates and survival by several months (O'Reilly D et al. 2021). Adverse drug reactions include acute toxicity such as irreversible cardiotoxicity, myelotoxicity, alopecia, nausea, and vomiting (Chowdhury et al. 2021).

The key molecular mechanisms of taxanes include disruption of the mitotic spindle, mitotic escape, and inhibition of angiogenesis (Mosca et al. 2021). Three taxanes have been approved for clinical use: paclitaxel, docetaxel, and cabazitaxel. As a chemotherapy drug, docetaxel (Taxotere®), approved in the 1980s, is one of the most effective drugs for the treatment of cancer, but it can also lead to antibiotic resistance due to its adverse side effects on the normal microbial flora in the body (Catalano et al. 2022).

Platinum-based chemotherapy using carboplatin in the adjuvant or neoadjuvant setting improves long-term disease-free survival (DFS) and overall survival (OS) outcomes in early TNBC, with no evidence of subgroup differences (Mason et al. 2024). According to Feng et al. in a meta-analysis of the effects and safety of platinum compound-based neoadjuvant chemotherapy, it was found that the occurrence of anemia (RR = 8.22, 95% CI, 1.69–40.04, P = 0.009), leukopenia (RR = 1.63, 95% CI = 1.08–2.45, P = 0.02), neutropenia (RR = 2.08, 95% CI, 1.08–4.01, P = 0.03), and thrombocytopenia (RR = 6.01, 95% CI = 2.77–13.07, P < 0.001) was significantly higher in the group treated with platinum-based neoadjuvant chemotherapy compared with the group treated with non-platinum-based neoadjuvant chemotherapy (Feng et al. 2022).

Targeted agents for TNBC include inhibitors of poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP), epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), cytotoxic T-lymphocyte-associated protein 4 (CTLA-4), angiogenesis, microtubule, proto-oncogene tyrosine-protein kinase Src (Src kinase), AKT, checkpoint kinase 1 (Chk1), and mammalian target

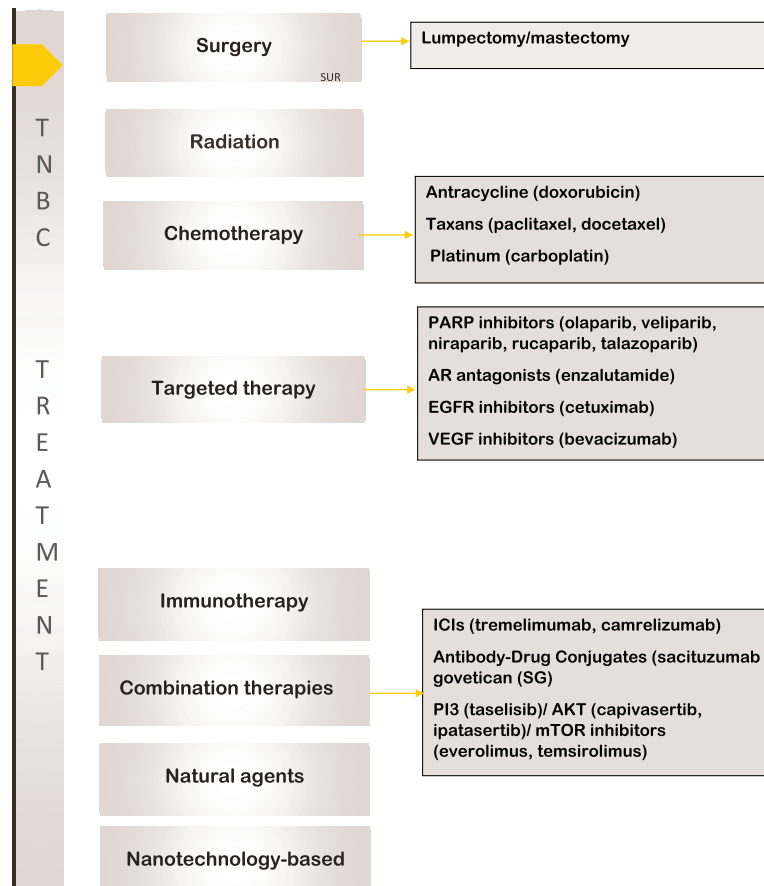


Figure 1. Breast cancer treatment options.

of rapamycin (mTOR). Programmed death receptor-1/programmed death ligand-1 (PD-1/PD-L1) antibodies, androgen receptor blockers, tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor agonists, and transforming growth factor antagonists - β also represent targeted agents for TNBC. In addition, signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3), EGFR, gamma-butyrobetaine hydroxylase (BBOX1), cyclin-dependent kinases CDK12/CDK13, mammalian transcription factor BACH1, cMET oncogene, and integrin subunit alpha-V gene (ITGAV) are described as potential therapeutic targets for TNBC in the literature (Catalano et al. 2022).

Several types of EGFR-targeted therapies are currently approved for clinical use. EGFR inhibitors include monoclonal antibodies as well as small molecule inhibitors that target the ATP-binding site of the kinase domain (Bhullar et al. 2018). Erlotinib is classified as one of the EGFR-TKIs and has previously been identified as a promising therapeutic target for TNBC. Simultaneous inhibition of EGFR/ERK and PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling pathways by the combination of monensin and erlotinib showed a synergistic effect on suppressing tumor proliferation and stemness of cancer cells in TNBC. The results show that the combination of monensin with erlotinib synergistically inhibits cell proliferation, migration rate, and invasion ability and reduces the proportion of CSCs (carcinoma stem cells) and the CSC markers SOX2 and CD133 in vivo and in vitro (Fang et al. 2024).

Androgen receptors (ARs) have been shown to play an important role in the growth, invasion, migration, and apoptosis of TNBC cells, both of which contribute to the complications of the disease. Targeting the AR with AR inhibitors may be the most effective therapy for TNBC (Barton et al. 2015). Clinical evidence suggests a role for antiandrogen therapies such as bicalutamide, enzalutamide, and abiraterone, offering an interesting chemotherapy-free alternative for patients who do not respond to chemotherapy and therefore potentially changing current treatment strategies (Gerratana et al. 2018).

PARP inhibitors have emerged as effective treatments in clinical trials for TNBC and BRCA-related sporadic cancers (van Beek et al. 2021; Singh et al. 2021). Two PARP inhibitors are currently approved for triple negative metastatic breast cancer, olaparib and talazoparib, based on two phase III trials that showed a progression-free survival benefit compared to chemotherapy. In addition, other PARP inhibitors such as talazoparib, rucaparib, and veliparib are currently under investigation (Barchiesi et al. 2021).

More recently, immunotherapy has revolutionized the landscape of cancer treatment, particularly immune checkpoint inhibitor (ICI) therapy, with FDA approval for over 20 types of cancer since 2011. Compared to other types of cancer, breast cancer has traditionally been considered immunologically cold; however, TNBC demonstrates the most promising use of immunotherapy, a timely discovery due to the lack of targeted therapy options

(Berger et al. 2021). Combining ICIs with PARP inhibitors may be a great strategy to improve antitumor immunity as well as treatment response. Promising efficacy and safety findings were reported in two single-arm phase 2 studies: TOPACIO and MEDIOLA for niraparib in combination with pembrolizumab and olaparib plus durvalumab, respectively (Domchek et al. 2020; Vinayak et al. 2019).

TNBCs exhibit aberrant initiation of the PI3K pathway through various mechanisms; the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway has been explored for therapeutic strategies in TNBC patients (Singh and Yadav 2021). PI3K and PARP inhibitors have been studied in a mouse model for BRCA1-associated tumors and provide synergistic effects in their treatment. The mTOR signaling pathway is an important targeting strategy for TNBC—it causes down-regulation of the PI3K pathway and also down-regulates the TNBC cell line (Singh and Yadav 2021; Ryu and Sohn 2021).

The KEYNOTE-355 trial reported that first-line chemotherapy with pembrolizumab significantly improved PFS compared with chemotherapy in patients with PD-L1-expressing metastatic TNBC (Kulangara et al. 2019).

Side effects

Neo/adjuvant therapy for early-stage breast cancer has become more common over the past few decades, and as a result, the number of breast cancer survivors who often experience debilitating long-term side effects has increased, including fatigue, insomnia, peripheral neuropathy, cognitive impairment, estrogen deprivation, cardiotoxicity, and secondary cancer. Long-term toxicity can affect the majority of breast cancer survivors, significantly reducing their quality of life (Di Nardo et al. 2022).

Based on a comprehensive web-based survey of the presence of long-term side effects of adjuvant breast cancer therapy in 1506 patients who had been diagnosed with primary breast cancer at least 1 year previously, the following data were obtained: fatigue, depression, depressed mood, lack of concentration, pain, changes in the mucosa and skin appendages, and symptoms of peripheral neuropathy are the most commonly reported complaints. Chemotherapies—particularly taxane-based regimens—are associated with increased rates of long-term symptoms, including persistent peripheral neuropathy (Haidinger and Bauerfeind 2019).

Although targeted oncology has improved survival by years for some incurable cancers, such as metastatic breast and lung cancer, only 8% of patients with advanced cancer qualify for targeted oncology drugs, and even fewer benefit. Other limitations include serious adverse events, illustrated by a 20% to 30% incidence of heart attack, stroke, or peripheral vascular events among patients taking ponatinib, which is used to treat chronic myelogenous leukemia. Adverse effects associated with immune checkpoint inhibitor therapy, such as hypothyroidism, are common, and more severe adverse events such as colitis and pneumonitis can be fatal and require immediate intervention. Drug interactions with widely prescribed drugs such as

antacids and warfarin are common. In addition, financial toxicity is a concern for cancer patients using costly targeted therapies (Smith and Prasad 2021).

Targeted therapies and immunotherapies are associated with a wide range of dermatological adverse events (dAEs) resulting from common signaling pathways involved in malignant behavior and normal homeostatic functions of the epidermis and dermis. Dermatological toxicity includes damage to the skin, oral mucosa, hair, and nails. Acneiform rash is the most common dAE seen in 25–85% of patients treated with epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) inhibitors (Lacouture and Sibaud 2018).

Immunotherapy hyperactivates the immune system, causing a wide variety of toxic effects called immune-related adverse events (IRAEs). IRAEs can range from mild flu-like symptoms to more serious manifestations, such as pneumonitis, colitis, hepatitis, and endocrinopathies such as type 1 diabetes and adrenal insufficiency, which can lead to the need for lifelong replacement therapies. The incidence of most of these serious events is less than 5%; however, when they do occur, it requires immediate and significant attention. There is wide variation in the severity and time of onset of IRAEs: some may present as a severe event after only one dose, while others develop months later. In addition, there appears to be a higher risk of IRAEs when ICIs are combined with chemotherapy versus monotherapy overall in all disease processes (Ramos-Casals et al. 2020; Yoest 20174; Kanjanapan et al. 2019).

Molecularly targeted anticancer drugs are commonly used in various forms of cancer. A concern is that the risk of serious adverse events (SAEs) and fatal adverse events (FAEs) of molecularly targeted drugs is increasing. An up-to-date meta-analysis of all Phase II/III/IV randomized trials of molecularly targeted anticancer drugs was performed to estimate the increased risk of SAEs and FAEs. There were significant differences in the association of molecularly targeted anticancer drugs with SAE (RR = 1.57, 95% CI = 1.35–1.82, $P < 0.01$, $I^2 = 81%$) and FAE (RR = 1.51, 95% CI = 1.19–1.91, $P < 0.01$, $I^2 = 0%$) compared with placebo. The overall incidence of SAE and FAE was 0.269 (95% CI = 0.262–0.276, $P < 0.01$) and 0.023 (95% CI = 0.020–0.025, $P < 0.01$), respectively. Molecularly targeted anticancer drugs significantly increase the risk of SAEs and FAEs (Wang et al. 2019).

Natural products

The percentage of antitumor drugs derived from natural products is approximately 50%. Chemoprevention and chemotherapy can be achieved with natural products because they inhibit cell proliferation, regulate the cell cycle, and affect several signaling pathways that lead to tumor growth (Naeem et al. 2022). Natural medicinal compounds have been widely studied in cancer models, including breast cancer, for their antineoplastic properties (Mallipeddi et al. 2021). Natural compounds have the potential to be used as therapeutic agents in the treatment of

TNBC. Some natural compounds and potential molecular targets in the TNBC signaling pathway have been identified as anticancer treatments.

Literature evidence is available for six promising compounds, including sulforaphane, curcumin, genistein, resveratrol, lycopene, and epigallocatechin-3-gallate. These compounds have been shown to promote cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in TNBC cells. They can also inhibit epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), which plays an important role in metastasis. Furthermore, these natural compounds were found to inhibit pathways important for CSCs (cancer stem cells), such as NF- κ B, PI3K/Akt/mTOR, Notch 1, Wnt/ β -catenin, and YAP. Clinical trials conducted on these compounds show varying degrees of effectiveness (Ke et al. 2022).

Curcumin

Curcumin, a polyphenolic compound, is the main pharmacological component extracted from the rhizome of *Curcuma longa* L. (Fig. 2). Modern pharmacological studies have found that curcumin has many types of pharmacological activities, such as anti-inflammatory, anti-tumor, anti-angiogenesis, anti-metastasis, and anti-multidrug resistance (Li et al. 2022a).

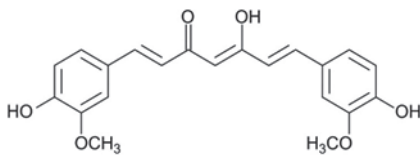


Figure 2. Chemical structure of curcumin ($C_{21}H_{20}O_6$).

Thus, curcumin may play an important role in the initiation and progression of various cancers, including breast, lung, and liver cancer, by affecting multiple signaling and molecular pathways, such as Rb, P53, mitogen-activated protein kinase, phosphatidylinositol 3-K (PI3K)/protein kinase B, and NF- κ B (nuclear factor κ B cells, NF- κ B) (Fig. 3) (El-Far et al. 2020; Wong et al. 2021; Joshi et al. 2021; Giordano and Tommonaro 2019).

Curcumin exerts its therapeutic potential in TNBC by modulating multiple signaling pathways. It can inhibit the epithelial-mesenchymal transition process by down-regulating the expression of proteins involved in the mTOR

and PI3K-Akt signaling pathways, thereby suppressing the motility of TNBC cells. These findings provide experimental evidence to consider curcumin as a potential therapeutic strategy in the treatment of TNBC (Chen et al. 2024).

Although previous studies have shown the ability of curcumin to inhibit cell proliferation and invasion in human TNBC MDA-MB-231 cells, the underlying molecular mechanisms have not yet been fully elucidated. Forty potential targets of curcumin against TNBC have been identified. Of these, STAT3, AKT1, TNF, PTGS2, MMP9, EGFR, PPARG, NFE2L2, EP300, and GSK3B were identified as the top 10 targets of curcumin against TNBC. Deng Z. et al. experimentally confirmed that in vitro CUR and CUR-NP could not only limit the invasion, migration, and proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells but also induce their apoptosis. In addition, molecular docking showed that CUR could spontaneously bind to the screened top 10 target proteins, and a real-time PCR experiment showed that both CUR and CUR-NP could down-regulate the gene expression levels of the 10 targets. Furthermore, according to the CUR-targets-pathways network, PI3K-Akt, EGFR tyrosine kinase inhibitor resistance, JAK-STAT, Foxo, and HIF-1 signaling pathways were identified as important pathways of CUR effects on TNBC. Among them, the inhibitory effects of CUR and CUR-NPs on the JAK-STAT signaling pathway were further confirmed by Western blot analysis (Deng et al. 2022). Also, curcumin reduced the invasion and migration abilities in stable Gli1-overexpressing MDA-MB-231 cells. Curcumin can inhibit TNBC cell proliferation and metastasis, EMT, and BCSC characteristics through the Hedgehog/Gli1 pathway (Li et al. 2022a).

To improve the sensitivity of resistant TNBC cells to carboplatin, Wang G. et al. administered a combination treatment with curcumin and found it to inhibit proliferation and induce apoptosis. Mechanistically, curcumin exerts its anticancer effect by increasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, which down-regulates the DNA repair protein RAD51, leading to up-regulation of γ H2AX. As expected, the ROS acceptor NAC reversed the inhibitory effect on the growth and activity of the curcumin-mediated DNA repair pathway. Taken together, our data show that curcumin increases the sensitivity of TNBC to the anticancer effect of carboplatin by increasing ROS-induced DNA damage, thereby providing an effective combination strategy for the treatment of TNBC (Wang et al. 2022).

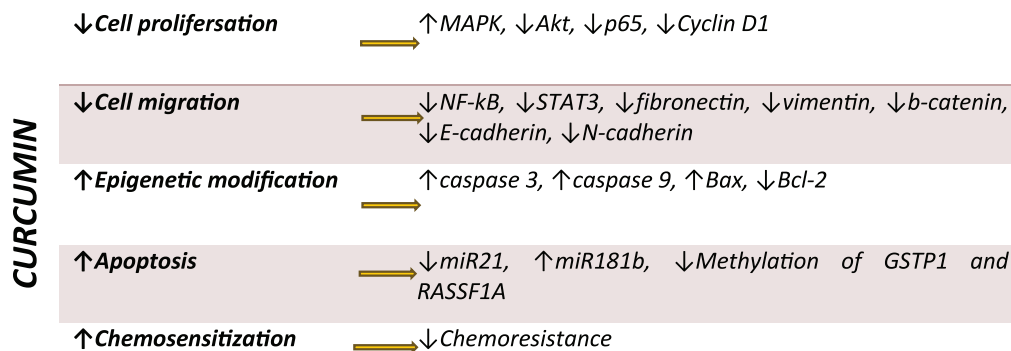


Figure 3. Potential therapeutic effects of curcumin in breast cancer.

Resveratrol

Resveratrol, known as 3,4',5-trihydroxystilbene (Fig. 4), is a phytoalexin belonging to the stilbenol class of compounds that occur naturally in various plants. It was first isolated in 1940 from the roots of white hellebore (*Veratrum grandiflorum*). The most common sources of resveratrol include red wine (0.1–14.3 mg L⁻¹), white wine (0.1–2.1 mg L⁻¹), grapes (0.16–3.54 µg g⁻¹), blueberries (~32 ng g⁻¹), peanuts (0.02–1.92 µg g⁻¹), pistachios (0.09–1.67 µg g⁻¹), *Polygonum cuspidatum* (0.524 mg g⁻¹), and *Rheum raphonticum* (3.9 mg g⁻¹) (Thapa et al. 2019). This compound serves as a natural phytoalexin released by plants in response to environmental stress (Cragg and Pezzuto 2016; Shen et al. 2017).

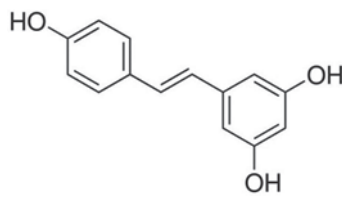


Figure 4. Chemical structure of resveratrol (C₁₄H₁₂O₃).

Resveratrol is a powerful antioxidant compound with anti-cancer, anti-angiogenic, anti-inflammatory, and cardiovascular protective effects. It targets various cancer signaling pathways (PI3K/AKT, RAS/RAF/ERK, PKCδ, AMPK, and RhoA/Lats1/YAP, etc.) by stimulating reactive oxygen species (ROS), followed by reduced proliferation and invasion. The antimetastatic effects induced by resveratrol are additionally useful in reducing the side effects of chemotherapy used in the treatment of TNBC (Keshavarz et al. 2020; Khazaei et al. 2020; Bozorgi et al. 2020; Kim et al. 2017).

Resveratrol has been reported to inhibit PARP enzymes, impairing the repair of DNA breaks (Lord and Ashworth 2017; Gao et al. 2015). PARP participates in the BER (base excision repair) pathway, repairing damaged DNA bases (Curtin and Szabo 2013). Inhibition of PARP by resveratrol impairs BER, prevents DNA damage repair, and potentially causes genomic instability and cell death. It can lead to the accumulation of unrepaired DNA damage in cancer cells, triggering cell cycle arrest and apoptosis, effectively inhibiting cancer cell growth (Ahmad et al. 2024). Resveratrol mediates its anticancer activity through various mechanisms such as autophagy, inhibition of tumor cell proliferation, inhibition of tumor cell migration, suppression of tumor progression, and induction of apoptosis, etc. (Avtanski and Poretsky 2018; Yeh et al. 2021; Mohammadhosseinpour et al. 2022). Resveratrol promotes apoptosis in TNBC cells by activating caspases, a family of cysteine proteases that play a central role in programmed cell death. Specifically, resveratrol activated caspase-3, caspase-8, and caspase-9 in TNBC cell lines (MDA-MB-231, MDA-MB-436, and MDA-MB-468) (Zhang et al. 2018).

Resveratrol suppresses the metastatic capacity and enhances the cytotoxic activity of ABT263 in TNBC cells. It can potentially be used as a metastasis repressor or sensitizer to ABT263 for the treatment of TNBC by upregulating CDH1 and CDKN1A through epigenetic mechanisms (Sakamoto et al. 2023).

It increases the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-2 (IL-2) and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α), which are essential for immune activation and cytotoxicity (Curtin and Szabo 2013). Resveratrol enhances the proliferation and activation of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, promoting their antitumor functions. It can also increase the production of cytokines such as interferon-gamma (IFN-γ) by T cells, further contributing to antitumor immune responses (Avtanski and Poretsky 2018; Liu et al. 2015).

Sequential administration of resveratrol and FL118 caused accumulation of TNBC cells in the G1 phase and significantly suppressed mRNA and protein levels of N-cadherin, β-catenin, and vimentin, and resveratrol-sensitized TNBC cells to FL118 by facilitating apoptosis, migration, invasion, and EMT and enhancing the intracellular uptake of FL118. Based on this, the possibility of resveratrol as a potential therapeutic agent in advanced breast cancer has been suggested (Yar Saglam et al. 2021).

Nanotechnology offers a promising approach to improve the biopharmaceutical characteristics of resveratrol to achieve clinical efficacy in various cancers. The small size (<200 nm) of the nanotechnology-mediated drug delivery system is useful for improving bioavailability, internalization in TNBC cells, and ligand-specific targeted delivery of loaded resveratrol to the tumor site, including reversal of MDR (multidrug resistance) (Ahmad et al. 2024).

EGCG

The compound (-)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG) (Fig. 5) is the main catechin found in green tea [*Camellia sinensis* L. Ktze. (Theaceae)]. This polyphenolic compound and several related catechins are thought to be responsible for the health benefits associated with green tea consumption. Potential health benefits attributed to green tea and EGCG include antioxidant effects, cancer chemoprevention, improving cardiovascular health, improving weight loss, protecting the skin from damage caused by ionizing radiation, and more (Nagle et al. 2006).

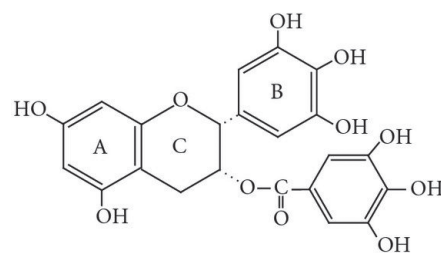


Figure 5. Chemical structure of EGCG (C₂₂H₁₂O₃).

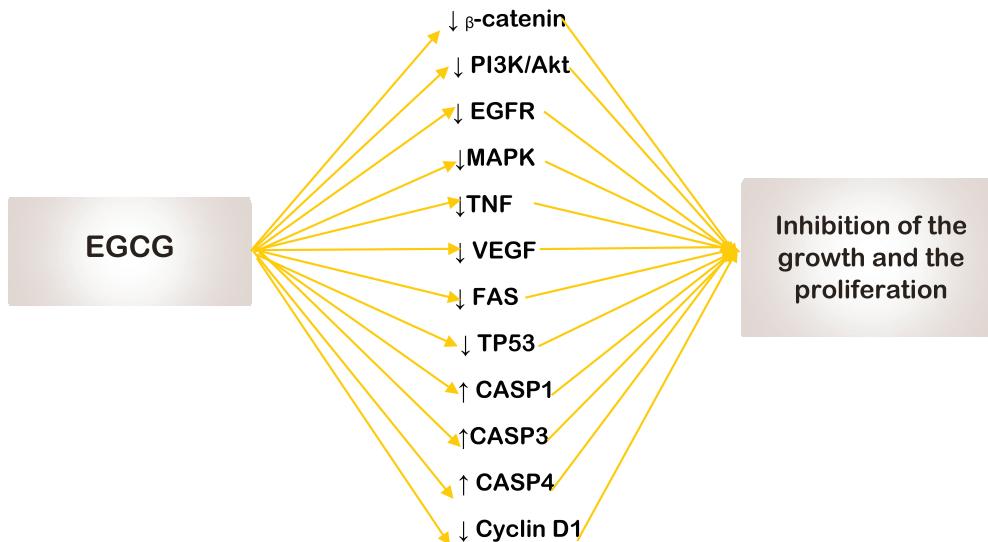


Figure 6. Molecular mechanism underlying the antitumor effect of EGCG in TNBC.

Accumulating studies have confirmed that EGCG can inhibit tumorigenesis and progression by triggering apoptosis, suppressing proliferation, invasion, and migration, altering tumor epigenetic modification, and overcoming chemotherapy resistance. However, its regulatory roles and biomolecular mechanisms in the immune microenvironment, metabolic microenvironment, and immunotherapy remain unclear. Furthermore, EGCG can suppress multiple metabolic reprogramming pathways, including glucose uptake, aerobic glycolysis, glutamine metabolism, fatty acid anabolism, and nucleotide synthesis. Finally, EGCG, as an immunomodulator and immune checkpoint blockade, may improve immunotherapeutic efficacy and may be a promising candidate for antitumor immunotherapy. In conclusion, EGCG plays a multifaceted regulatory role in TME and metabolic reprogramming, which provides new insights and combined therapeutic strategies for cancer immunotherapy (Fig. 6) (Li et al. 2024).

In triple negative breast cancer (TNBC), EGCG was found to inhibit the paracrine cross-talk between adipose-derived MSCs and TNBC cells. For example, on the one hand, evidence suggests that EGCG prevents a proinflammatory and tumor-associated adipocyte-like phenotype (with increased CCL2, CCL5, CXCL8, IL-1 β , IL-6, COX2, HIF-1 α , and VEGF) induced by the secretome of TNBC in adipose-derived MSCs mainly through the inhibitory effects of EGCG on Smad2 and NF- κ B signaling pathways (Gonzalez Suarez et al. 2022). On the other hand, a study revealed that EGCG suppresses the differentiation of MSCs into adipocytes and prevents STAT3-mediated paracrine carcinogenic control of TNBC invasion phenotypes in response to the adipocyte secretome (Gonzalez Suarez et al. 2021).

Steed Kl et al. applied suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA), a histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor, in combination with epigallocatechin-3-gallate, a DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) inhibitor isolated from green tea, to triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) cells. The

compounds decreased cIAP2 expression while increasing the expression of proapoptotic caspase 7. There were also changes in histone modifications, suggesting a role for epigenetic mechanisms in these changes in cIAP2 expression. These changes lead to an increase in apoptosis. SAHA and EGCG are also able to limit the migration of TNBC cells through the fibronectin (FN) matrix. SAHA and EGCG reduce the metastatic potential of TNBC by inducing the apoptotic pathway (Steed et al. 2020).

Cell proliferation, viability, and apoptosis of MDA-MB-231 cells were impaired by the combination of EGCG and tapentadol. Specifically, the data showed that EGCG and TAP reduced the proliferation of MDA-MB-231 cells by disrupting cell cycle progression ($p < 0.05$). These findings suggest that the combination of these substances may represent a new treatment strategy for patients suffering from triple negative breast cancer (Bimonte et al. 2019).

Conclusion

Natural products of plant origin show high potential as anticancer agents. Limited toxicity, availability, and diversity in mechanisms of action are the main advantages of anticancer natural products. However, low bioavailability, low solubility, and limited stability limit the use of these agents. Natural products are an integral part of the development of innovative anticancer drugs in cancer research, offering the scientific community the opportunity to explore new natural compounds against cancer. It is likely that natural products in combination with other drugs may have great potential to improve the efficacy of TNBC treatment and patient outcomes. The introduction of compounds obtained from natural sources into the therapeutic practice of oncological diseases as agents with minimal side effects correlates with the basic principle in medical ethics, namely “primum non nocere.”

Additional information

Conflict of interest

The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

Ethical statements

The authors declared that no clinical trials were used in the present study.

The authors declared that no experiments on humans or human tissues were performed for the present study.

The authors declared that no informed consent was obtained from the humans, donors or donors' representatives participating in the study.

The authors declared that no experiments on animals were performed for the present study.

The authors declared that no commercially available immortalised human and animal cell lines were used in the present study.

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Author contributions

All authors have contributed equally.

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Data availability

All of the data that support the findings of this study are available in the main text.

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