Pathogenesis of uterine fibroids: current understanding and future directions

Marie-Madeleine DOLMANS, Felice PETRAGLIA, William H. CATHERINO, Jacques DONNEZ

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4	Marie-Madeleine DOLMANS <sup>1-2</sup> , Felice PETRAGLIA <sup>3-4</sup> , William H. CATHERINO <sup>5</sup> , Jacques
5	DONNEZ <sup>6-7</sup>
6	
7	
8	<sup>1</sup> Pôle de Recherche en Gynécologie, Institut de Recherche Expérimentale et Clinique,
9	Université Catholique de Louvain (UCL), Brussels, Belgium
10	<sup>2</sup> Gynecology Department, Cliniques Universitaires Saint-Luc, Brussels, Belgium
11	<sup>3</sup> Obstetrics and Gynecology, Department of Maternal-Infancy, Careggi University Hospital
12	Florence, Italy
13	<sup>4</sup> Department of Experimental, Clinical and Biomedical Sciences, University of Florence, Largo
14	Brambilla 3, 50134, Italy
15	<sup>5</sup> Department of Gynecologic Surgery and Obstetrics, Uniformed Services University of the
16	Health Sciences, Bethesda, Maryland, USA
17	<sup>6</sup> Prof Emeritus, Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium
18	<sup>7</sup> Society for Research into Infertility (SRI), 143 Avenue Grandchamp, 1150 Brussels, Belgium
19	
20	
21	Corresponding author:
22	Marie-Madeleine DOLMANS (marie-madeleine.dolmans@uclouvain.be)
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## Abstract

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26	Fibroids are benign uterine tumors characterized by proliferation of uterine smooth muscle
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27	cells, embedded in an abundant extracellular matrix. Their prevalence is estimated to be more
28	than 50% in women over the age of 45 years.
29	Fibroids represent a considerable health burden. It is time to acquire a deeper mechanistic
30	understanding of uterine fibroid-related etiology and pathogenesis, which may help pinpoint
31	new strategies and an individualized approach. There is a need to gather prospective data and
32	conduct studies to compare alternative approaches and assess long-term outcomes with respect
33	to quality of life, recurrence of symptoms (bleeding, bulk symptoms), fertility, and even
34	complications The goal of this review is to evaluate the widely accepted pathogenesis and
35	identify risks factors and future directions for clinical and basic research into fibroids.
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45 Key words: uterine fibroids, pathogenesis, risks factors

Fibroids are benign uterine tumors characterized by disordered monoclonal proliferation of uterine smooth muscle cells, embedded in an abundant extracellular matrix (ECM) (1) containing collagen, fibronectin and proteoglycans. The prevalence of fibroids depends upon ethnicity (1, 2) and is estimated to be more than 50% in women over the age of 45 years (2-5). Some fibroids are asymptomatic, but others result in symptoms like heavy menstrual bleeding, pelvic pain, bulk symptoms and infertility (3,6,7). These manifestations impact the quality of life of affected women and certainly warrant therapy (2, 4, 6, 7).

Fibroids represent a considerable health burden. Current management strategies are mainly surgical and expensive (2). Of 600,000 hysterectomies carried out every year in the United States, one-third are for fibroids (8). As stressed by Dolmans et al (9), it is time to acquire a deeper mechanistic understanding of uterine fibroid-related etiology and pathogenesis, which may help pinpoint new strategies and an individualized approach. The goal of this review is to evaluate the widely accepted pathogenesis and identify risks factors and future directions for clinical and basic research into fibroids.

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## **1-Pathogenesis**

Uterine fibroids, or leiomyomas, are benign tumors in smooth muscle and connective tissue
of the myometrium. They mainly contain myocytes and are characterized by excessive
deposition of CM substances, primarily collagen (10).

The fact that ovarian steroid hormones play a major role in the pathogenesis of uterine fibroids is supported by epidemiological, clinical and experimental evidence. Estradiol and progesterone prompt mature leiomyoma cells to release mitogenic stimuli to adjacent immature cells, thereby providing these myomas with undifferentiated cells that are likely to support tumor growth. Progesterone action is required for complete development and

69 proliferation of leiomyoma cells. Sex steroids are critical to fibroid development and 70 maintenance, but a number of autocrine and paracrine messengers are also involved in this 71 process. Furthermore, estradiol and progesterone work together to maintain viability for 72 tumor development, since estrogens increase the availability of progesterone receptors inside 73 cells (Reis et al, 2016).

74 Uterine fibroids are considered fibrotic disorders because they contain 50% more ECM 75 proteins than their corresponding myometrium. Excessive ECM accumulation and aberrant remodeling are central features of uterine fibroids. They are characterized by elevated levels 76 of collagens, fibronectin, laminins and proteoglycans (11). They can also induce 77 78 mechanotransduction by activation of the integrin-Rho/p38 MAPK/ERK pathway (12), resulting in altered bidirectional signaling between leiomyoma cells and the ECM. Growth 79 80 factors (transforming growth factor beta [TGF- $\beta$ ], activin-A and platelet growth factor), cytokines (tumor necrosis factor alpha), steroid hormones (estrogen and progesterone) and 81 microRNAs (miR-29 family, miR-200c and miR-93/106b) all influence ECM accumulation (Islam 82 et al, 2018). 83

TGF-β 1 and 3 and activin-A are the main players in excessive ECM accumulation (fibrosis) and myofibroblasts in leiomyomas (13). Interestingly, the ECM may serve as a reservoir of profibrotic growth factors and enhance their activity by increasing their stability and extending their duration of signaling (14). Sphingosine-1-phosphate signaling, which is involved in multiple-organ fibrosis, is dysregulated in uterine fibroids and involved in growth factorinduced fibrosis 15).

Some evidence supports the hypothesis that uterine fibroids originate from myometrial stem
cells (MMSCs), but the specific cell of origin has not yet been identified. One hypothesis from
the team of Al-Hendy (17) points to genetic transformation of a single MMSC into a tumor-

93	initiating	cell	due	to	various	factors,	including	genomic	instability,	inflammatory
94	microenvi	ronm	ent, a	nd d	evelopme	ental and	environme	ntal insults	(17,18).	

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## 2- Risks factors

97 Risk factors for uterine fibroids are illustrated in Figure 1.

98 **1) Age** 

By magnetic resonance imaging, the average growth rate was calculated to be 9% over the course of 6 months in a series of 72 women with uterine fibroids (n=262 fibroids), but growth rates differed between races when age was taken into account (19). Furthermore, delaying the first pregnancy until the third decade of life is known to place women at higher risk of myomas (20,21).

104 2) Race

Race constitutes an important risk factor for leiomyoma development (22-25). The incidence of uterine fibroids was found to be as high as 60% by age 35 among African-American women, increasing to >80% by age 50, while Caucasian women showed rates of 40% by age 35, climbing to 70% by age 50 (26). African-American women are clearly at greater risk of being affected by uterine fibroids, particularly at an earlier age (27,28). Moreover, recurrence rates after surgery (myomectomy) may be close to 60% after an interval of 4–5 years (2,29,30) in women of African origin.

112 3) Early menarche

113 Menarche at an early age increases the risk of developing fibroids and is also considered a risk 114 factor for other hormonally mediated diseases, such as endometrial and breast cancers 115 (24,31,32). It has been demonstrated that steroids, particularly progesterone and

progestogens, play a crucial role in the development of leiomyomas (2,33,34,35). By binding
to cytosol and nuclear progesterone receptor, progestogens favor proliferation and inhibit
apoptosis in uterine fibroids through a number of pathways, including the Akt pathway (35).
Use of oral contraceptives can reduce the risk of developing fibroids (32).

120 **4)** Parity

Pregnancy has been found to have a protective effect against development of uterine fibroids, but the mechanism remains unclear. Indeed, nulliparous women are more often affected by uterine fibroids than multiparous women (32), with each subsequent child lowering the risk. It has been suggested that during postpartum uterine remodeling, small lesions may be subject to selective apoptosis. Fibroid tissue may also be highly susceptible to ischemia during both uterine remodeling and childhood (26,36). High progesterone exposure during pregnancy and its rapid withdrawal after delivery may also influence the uterine remodeling.

#### 128 5) Caffeine and alcohol

An association was reported between alcohol and caffeine consumption and an elevated risk
of developing uterine fibroids in a study into the health of women of African origin (23,28).

#### 131 6) Obesity, hypertension, smoking

132 General health status may also be predictive of leiomyoma growth, with factors such as obesity and high blood pressure playing a part. Obesity is a significant risk for uterine fibroid 133 134 development. It is attributed to the metabolic functions of adipose tissue, which releases growth factors and cytokines that may be involved in different pathological processes. 135 Moreover, aromatase, present in adipose tissue, is responsible for conversion of adrenal 136 137 androgens into estrogens (27). The greater risk of developing uterine fibroids in African-138 American populations in the United States is related to high rates of obesity and excessive 139 body mass index, which are more prevalent among African-Americans than other racial

groups. Concerning arterial hypertension (37,38), there is an association between increased diastolic blood pressure and a higher risk of uterine fibroids. In fact, women suffering from high blood pressure are five times more likely to develop myomas. A diet rich in red meat appears to increase the risk, while smoking decreases the risk for unknown reasons (21,24,32,33).

#### 145 7) Endocrine disruptors

Endocrine disruptors (EDs) are known to be linked to development of estrogen-dependent
diseases like endometriosis (39). Recent reviews (16,21), have suggested their involvement in
the pathogenesis of uterine fibroids (see below).

#### 149 *8) Genetic factors*

Some specific genetic alterations are linked to fibroid growth (40-44). Mehine et al (40) 150 151 performed whole genome sequencing and gene expression profiling of 38 uterine leiomyomas and their corresponding myometrium. The common occurrence of chromothripsis in uterine 152 fibroids suggests that it also plays a role in their genesis and progression (40,42). So-called 153 derived genetic alterations responsible for the formation of fibroids were identified thanks to 154 155 genomic technologies. The most prevalent mutations were found to be in the Xq 13 gene 156 encoding the RNA polymerase II mediatic subunit MED-12. High-mobility group AT-hook 2 (HMGA2) and collagen IVa5 (COL4A5) were the other two most frequently encountered 157 somatically derived mutations (40). Mutations in fumarate hydratase on chromosome 1 were 158 also found in leiomyomas (45). 159

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# 3-New approaches to understanding the pathophysiology

162 1) MED-12 mutations

According to a recent meta-analysis (46), MED-12 mutations occur more commonly in women of African origin than in white populations. However, the molecular basis by which MED-12 mutations cause uterine fibroids and the high prevalence of MED-12 exon 2 mutations are not yet understood. Nonetheless, it is clear that these mutations interact with hormonal angiogenic and growth regulatory factors to favor fibroid progression.

Several studies (43,44, 47-54) have indeed revealed that MED-12 mutation-positive uterine fibroids are associated with smaller tumor size, conventional tumor histology, increased tumor number and subserous locations (55). In normal culture conditions (monolayer in vitro culture), primary cells from MED-12 mutation-negative uterine fibroids were able to survive for many passages, while those derived from MED-12 mutation-positive tumors were rapidly lost within the first few passages. This may explain why MED-12 mutation positive and negative tumors might exhibit unique growth features (16,55).

According to Yang et al (16), MED-12 exon 2 mutations could possibly give a selective 175 advantage to myometrial stem/progenitor cells by altering their growth and/or trajectory of 176 differentiation, leading to formation of uterine fibroid stem cells. The pathogenesis of uterine 177 178 fibroids points to genetic transformation of a single MMSC into a tumor-initiating cell that 179 sustains clonal tumor growth through endocrine, autocrine and paracrine factors, and 180 hormone receptor signaling (56). However, multiple genetic subtypes may be present in a 181 uterus where fibroids arise independently and signaling pathways show substantial overlap, explaining why genotype-based therapies have not been developed (42). Moreover, multiple 182 concurrent gene rearrangements and genomic instability also play a role in the pathogenesis 183 of fibroids (40-42). 184

185 2) Endocrine disruptors

186 In the view of Yang et al (16), the adverse effects of environmental (exposure to EDs) and hence developmental insults may target MMSCs and alter their characteristics, which govern 187 reprogramming of the epigenome and initiation of hormone-dependent uterine fibroid 188 pathogenesis. 189

EDCs are present in plasticizers, dioxins, polychlorinated biphenyls, organochlorines, 190 191 phthalates and diethylstilbestrol. Direct association of EDs with the estrogen receptor and 192 epigenetic reprogramming of the developing uterus is one conceivable hypothesis, according 193 to Pavone et al (21). Numerous EDs (57,58) can bind to nuclear receptors and consequently 194 alter hormone functions by mimicking naturally occurring hormones in the body, thereby 195 blocking binding of endogenous hormones. In a recent review, Jang et al (16) reported some 196 molecular mechanisms underlying developmental ED exposure-induced risks of uterine 197 fibroids. They concluded that this exposure epigenetically targeted MMSCs, leaving a hormonal imprint on key signaling pathways, which results in an increased risk of uterine 198 fibroids in hormone-dependent women. 199

It is not ruled out that intrauterine and early-life environmental exposure to EDs may act as 200 201 an 'early hit' by hijacking epigenomic plasticity to induce MMSC reprogramming. 202 Reprogrammed cells could also be transformed into tumor-initiating stem cells after later-life adverse exposure in what Yang (16) calls the 'late HIT'. 203

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### 3) Epigenomic and enhancer dysregulation

Mlodawska et al (59) recently reported the latest findings on epigenomic changes found in 206 207 uterine fibroids: aberrant DNA methylation and histone tail modification. Such modifications 208 in the promoter or enhancer regions can dysregulate gene expression, which helps to form 209 the uterine fibroid phenotype. Application of an altered enhancer landscape to identify

consequences on gene regulation requires further investigation and should be considered a 210 new approach to elucidate the development of uterine fibroids (59). According to Mlodawska 211 et al (59), interplay of cell signaling pathways and histone modifications explains the altered 212 213 3D chromatin structure, which contributes to development of uterine fibroid-specific gene 214 dysregulation, resulting in its pathogenesis. Dysregulated genes participate in tumor 215 suppression, apoptosis, angiogenesis, ECM formation and stem cell differentiation. These 216 recent findings may shed light on novel approaches on prevention and identification of 217 epigenomic targets for long-term management of uterine fibroids. In their review, Mlodawska 218 et al (59) acknowledge that while many molecular mechanisms and epigenomic features have 219 been explored, reasons for the racial disparity remain unclear.

#### 220 4) MicroRNAs

Among the numerous microRNAs (miRNAs) identified in uterine fibroids whose expression profiles differ from autologous myometrium, miR-21 and miR-29 play key roles (24). MiR-21 is overexpressed in leiomyomas by blocking the inhibitory effects of the Smad 7 protein. This stimulates the TGF- $\beta$  signaling pathway, enhances expression of TGF- $\beta$  in uterine fibroids and boosts collagen and cell proliferation (60). Knockdown of miR-21 in leiomyoma cells leads to increased apoptosis (61). MiR-29 is downregulated in fibroids and is a negative regulator of ECM genes, including collagens I, II and III (62).

#### 228 **5) Vitamin D**

Vitamin D binds to its specific vitamin D receptor to mediate its functions through steroid transcriptional mechanisms (63) The action of vitamin D in uterine fibroids was recently reviewed by the team of Al-Hendy (16,64). Vitamin D inhibits TGF-β and is associated with its reduced expression and induced ECM proteins, including collagen type 1 and fibronectin in uterine fibroid cells, which are otherwise overexpressed (64). It also inhibits proliferation of

fibroid cells by downregulating proliferating cell nuclear antigen (65). Vitamin D actually acts
as an antiproliferative compound against small uterine fibroids by arresting cell growth (66).
In the first randomized study, Arjeh et al (67) showed that addition of 50,000 IU vitamin D for
12 weeks inhibited growth of uterine fibroids whereas their volume increased in the placebo
group (68).

#### 239 6) Microbiome and uterine fibroids

240 Many intestinal microbes influence the physiological functions of the host. A number of bacteria in the intestinal flora can metabolize estrogen and they are referred to as the 241 estrobolome. Their abundance correlates with systemic estrogen. For example, clostridium 242 and pneumococcus exert the most significant effects on estrogen metabolism (69,70). Further 243 and deeper analysis should help us understand whether gut microbiota could influence the 244 245 risk of uterine fibroids Historically, female reproductive organs were considered uncontaminated, but in fact they are colonized by microorganisms. The human microbiome 246 project reported that the uterine cavity harbors a unique microbiome (71,72) whose specific 247 function remains unknown. So far, there is no evidence that the uterine microbiome plays a 248 249 role in the pathogenesis of uterine fibroids. Evaluation of a possible role should be regarded 250 as a critical aspect of future investigations.

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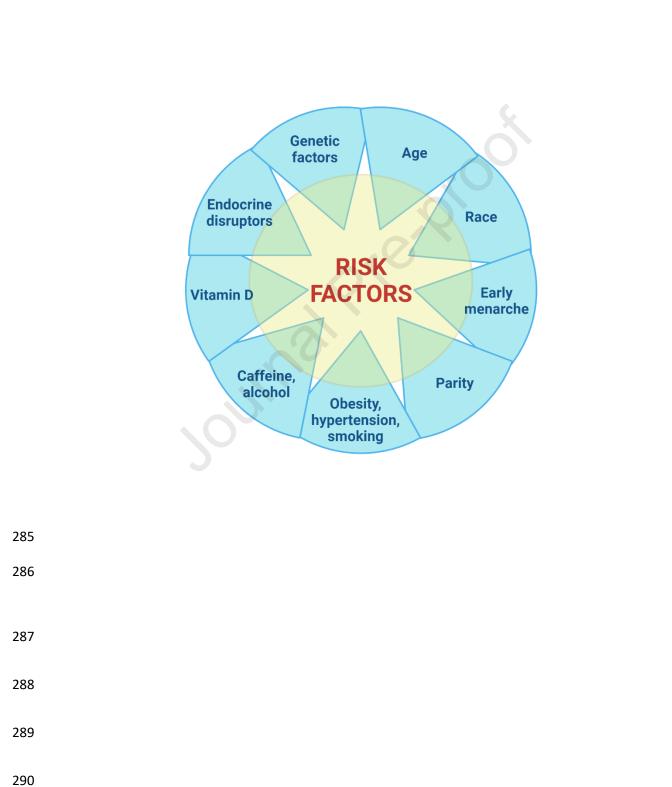
## 4- Conclusions

The current review focuses on the pathogenesis of and risk factors for developing uterine fibroids. There is no doubt that a better understanding of the pathogenesis of leiomyomas could lead to more effective and comprehensive management of these risk factors, and thereby possibly prevent their development (9). We need to gather prospective data and conduct studies to compare alternative approaches and assess long-term outcomes with

257	respect to quality of life, recurrence of symptoms (bleeding, bulk symptoms), fertility, and
258	even complications (73,74). Very recently, Vafaei et al (75) proposed an approach termed
259	ESCAPE (evidence-based approach for secondary prevention) and recommended several
260	strategies to prevent occurrence of uterine fibroids and their potential recurrence after
261	myomectomy.
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281 Figure 1: Risk factors for uterine fibroid. These include age, race, early menarche, parity, obesity,

hypertension, smoking, caffeine, alcohol, Vitamine D, endocrine disruptors and geneticalterations.



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