



Interactions between Pro-inflammatory Cytokines and Estrogen Receptors in Endometrial Cancer

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ABSTRACT

Endometrial cancer (EC) is a hormone-driven malignancy in which estrogen receptor (ER) signaling plays a central role. Meanwhile, chronic inflammation, particularly mediated by pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-6 (IL-6) and interleukin-17 (IL-17), has emerged as a key contributor to endometrial cancer progression. This review examines the interplay between IL-6, IL-17, and estrogen receptors (ER α and ER β) in endometrial cancer cells, highlighting how these cytokines regulate ER expression and function through multiple signaling pathways, including the Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK/STAT), nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathways. IL-6 and IL-17 have been shown to upregulate ER α and suppress ER β , thereby enhancing estrogen-mediated tumor proliferation and potentially contributing to hormonal therapy resistance. Moreover, evidence suggests a bidirectional feedback loop in which estrogen signaling further amplifies cytokine production, creating a self-sustaining inflammatory environment that promotes tumor progression. Understanding this cytokine-ER crosstalk provides novel insights into endometrial cancer pathogenesis and reveals potential therapeutic targets. Strategies that combine endocrine therapy with anti-inflammatory agents or cytokine pathway inhibitors may help overcome resistance and improve clinical outcomes in selected patients. Further mechanistic studies and clinical trials are needed to validate the prognostic and therapeutic relevance of IL-6 and IL-17 in hormone-responsive endometrial cancer.

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: May 30, 2025

Revised: June 24, 2025

Accepted: June 25, 2025

KEYWORDS

Endometrial cancer, ER α ; ER β ; Interleukin-6; Interleukin-17; Inflammation; Hormone signaling; Tumor microenvironment

Introduction

Endometrial cancer (EC) is the most common gynecologic malignancy in developed countries, with incidence rates rising globally due to increasing life expectancy, obesity, and hormonal imbalances [1, 2]. Traditionally, EC has been classified into two major molecular and clinicopathological subtypes. Type I EC, accounting for approximately 80-90% of cases, is typically estrogen-dependent, well-differentiated, and associated with a favorable prognosis [2, 3]. It of-

ten arises in the setting of unopposed estrogen exposure and is characterized by alterations in genes such as phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN), phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha (PIK3CA), and Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog (KRAS). In contrast, Type II EC is estrogen-independent and poorly differentiated; it exhibits more aggressive clinical behavior and is frequently associated with tumor protein P53 (TP53) mutations and serous or clear cell histology [3, 4].

Estrogen plays a central role in the pathogenesis of Type I EC by promoting endometrial cell proliferation and survival through the activation of estrogen receptors (ERs), primarily ER α and ER β [5]. ER α is generally considered the dominant isoform mediating proliferative responses, whereas ER β may exert antagonistic and tumor-suppressive effects [6, 7]. Dysregulation in the balance between ER α and ER β expression has been implicated in the initiation and progression of endometrioid endometrial carcinoma, with increased ER α and decreased ER β often observed in malignant tissues compared to normal endometrium [8-10].

In parallel with hormonal dysregulation, inflammation is increasingly recognized as a critical component of tumorigenesis, including in malignancies of the female reproductive tract [11, 12]. Pro-inflammatory cytokines can alter the tumor microenvironment, promote angiogenesis, and facilitate immune evasion. Among these, IL-6 and IL-17 have garnered considerable attention due to their roles in modulating cancer-related signaling pathways and influencing tumor behavior [13-15].

Emerging evidence suggests that interleukin-6 (IL-6) and interleukin-17 (IL-17) contribute to tumor-promoting inflammation and interact with hormone receptor signaling [14, 16-18]. These pro-inflammatory cytokines may influence the expression and function of ER α and ER β through complex intracellular signaling networks, including the signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3), nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B), and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathways [15, 19, 20].

This review aims to synthesize current knowledge on the regulatory effects of IL-6 and IL-17 on estrogen receptors in endometrial cancer, focusing on molecular mechanisms, biological consequences, and clinical implications. Understanding this inflammatory-hormonal interface may provide new insights into endometrial cancer pathogenesis and open avenues for targeted therapeutic strategies.

2. Pro-inflammatory Cytokines and ERs

2.1 Estrogen Receptors in Endometrial Cancer

Estrogen exerts its biological effects mainly through two nuclear receptors estrogen receptor alpha (ER α , encoded by ESR1) and estrogen receptor beta (ER β , encoded by ESR2) as well as membrane estrogen receptors (mERs) such as G protein-coupled receptor 30 (GPR30 encoded by the GPER gene),

ER-X, and Gq-coupled membrane estrogen receptor (Gq-mER). These receptors function as ligand-activated transcription factors and initiators of signaling pathways that regulate genes involved in cell proliferation, differentiation, and survival [21]. In normal endometrium, ER α and ER β expression is temporally and spatially coordinated, contributing to cyclical growth and shedding of the uterine lining [22].

In endometrial cancer, dysregulation of estrogen receptor expression is common and correlates with tumor differentiation, histologic subtype, and clinical outcome. ER α is predominantly expressed in Type I (endometrioid) tumors, which are typically hormone-sensitive and associated with a favorable prognosis. Conversely, ER α expression is often diminished or lost in Type II (non-endometrioid) tumors, such as serous or clear cell carcinoma, which are more aggressive and less responsive to hormone therapy [5, 23].

ER β is generally thought to counterbalance the proliferative effects of ER α , acting as a tumor suppressor in many estrogen-responsive tissues [6, 24]. However, its role in endometrial cancer remains incompletely understood. Several studies have reported reduced ER β expression in malignant tissues compared to normal endometrial tissues, and a low ER β /ER α ratio has been associated with more aggressive tumor features and a poorer prognosis [9, 10, 25].

The balance between ER α and ER β expression is crucial in determining estrogen responsiveness. Changes in this ratio may result from genetic, epigenetic, or environmental factors including inflammatory cytokines that influence the transcription, translation, or degradation of estrogen receptors [26-28]. Therefore, understanding the regulation of ER α and ER β in the context of inflammatory signaling is essential for improving hormone-based therapeutic strategies in endometrial cancer.

2.2 Inflammatory Cytokines in the Tumor Microenvironment

The tumor microenvironment (TME) is a complex and dynamic system composed of cancer cells, immune cells, stromal cells, endothelial cells, and extracellular matrix components. A hallmark feature of the TME is chronic, non-resolving inflammation, which is critical in tumor initiation, promotion, and metastasis [29, 30]. Inflammatory cytokines released by infiltrating immune cells, cancer-associated fibroblasts, and even tumor cells create a pro-tumorigenic niche.

Among the pro-inflammatory cytokines, IL-6 and IL-17 have emerged as key players in shaping the immune landscape of various solid tumors, including endometrial cancer (Figure 1). IL-6 is a pleiotropic cytokine produced by multiple cell types, including macrophages, dendritic cells, and epithelial cells. It acts through the IL-6 receptor and the gp130 co-receptor complex to activate downstream signaling pathways, including the Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of the transcription 3 (JAK/STAT3), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (AKT) pathways [13, 31, 32]. These pathways mediate diverse biological effects, including cell proliferation, survival, angiogenesis, and immune modulation [33, 34].

IL-17, primarily secreted by Th17 cells, has been increasingly recognized as a pro-inflammatory cytokine involved in autoimmune diseases and cancer. It exerts its effects by binding to the IL-17 receptor (IL-17R) complex, triggering the activation of NF- κ B, MAPK, and C/EBP signaling pathways [14, 35, 36]. IL-17 can promote tumor growth indirectly by recruiting neutrophils, stimulating angiogenesis, and enhancing the production of other pro-tumor cytokines such as IL-6, IL-8, and TNF- α [15, 37, 38]. Significantly, IL-17 signaling may also influence the immune evasion capacity of tumors by modulating regulatory T cells (Tregs) and myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs) [39].

Elevated levels of IL-6 and IL-17 have been detected in tumor tissues and sera of patients with endometrial cancer, and their expression often correlates with poor differentiation, advanced stage, and unfavorable prognosis [19, 40]. While the mechanisms by which these cytokines influence tumor cell behavior are multifaceted, increasing attention is being directed toward their potential role in modulating hormone receptor signaling, particularly the expression and activity of estrogen receptors [20, 26, 41].

In addition to immune and stromal components, tumor cells themselves have also been shown to produce IL-6 and IL-17 in certain contexts, contributing to autocrine signaling loops [26]. For instance, single-cell transcriptomic studies [42, 43] suggest heterogeneous expression of IL6 and IL17 genes among epithelial tumor cells in endometrial cancer. These datasets provide further evidence that cytokine production is not confined to immune infiltrates and may originate from malignant clones with inflammatory phenotypes.

2.3 IL-6 and ER Expression in Endometrial Cancer

IL-6 is one of the most extensively studied inflammatory cytokines. Its role in endometrial cancer extends beyond immune modulation, as increasing evidence suggests that IL-6 may directly influence the expression and function of estrogen receptors (ERs), especially ER α and ER β [13, 19, 44]. IL-6 is frequently elevated in the sera and tumor tissues of endometrial cancer patients, and its expression is associated with higher tumor grade, advanced stage, and poor prognosis [45, 46].

The effects of IL-6 on ER signaling are primarily mediated through the JAK/STAT3 pathway. Upon binding to the IL-6R/gp130 complex, IL-6 induces phosphorylation of STAT3, which translocates into the nucleus to regulate gene expression [31, 47]. Several studies have demonstrated that IL-6/STAT3 activation upregulates ER α expression in hormone-dependent cancers such as breast, endometrial, and ovarian cancer [24, 48, 49].

In vitro studies using endometrial cancer cell lines have shown that IL-6 stimulation increases ER α mRNA and protein levels, enhancing estrogen-induced cell proliferation [27, 50]. IL-6 also promotes the expression of estrogen-responsive genes, such as pS2 and progesterone receptor (PR), indicating functional amplification of ER α signaling [27, 51]. In addition, IL-6 may protect ER α from degradation by inhibiting specific ubiquitin ligases or proteasome activity [52].

In contrast, ER β appears to be negatively regulated by IL-6. Studies indicate that IL-6 exposure leads to reduced ER β expression, possibly through epigenetic modifications such as promoter hypermethylation or histone deacetylation at the ESR2 locus [29, 53, 54]. Since ER β has tumor-suppressive properties in the endometrium, its downregulation may facilitate estrogen-driven carcinogenesis.

Immunohistochemical analyses of clinical specimens have revealed that high IL-6 expression often coincides with elevated ER α and diminished ER β expression in endometrial tumors [10, 45, 55]. These findings support the hypothesis that IL-6 contributes to an altered ER α /ER β balance, favoring a pro-proliferative phenotype. Furthermore, high IL-6 levels have been associated with resistance to progestin-based therapy, potentially due to disrupted ER signaling and reduced PR expression [56, 57].

These data suggest that IL-6 promotes a pro-inflammatory tumor environment and directly enhances ER α -mediated signaling while suppressing ER β .

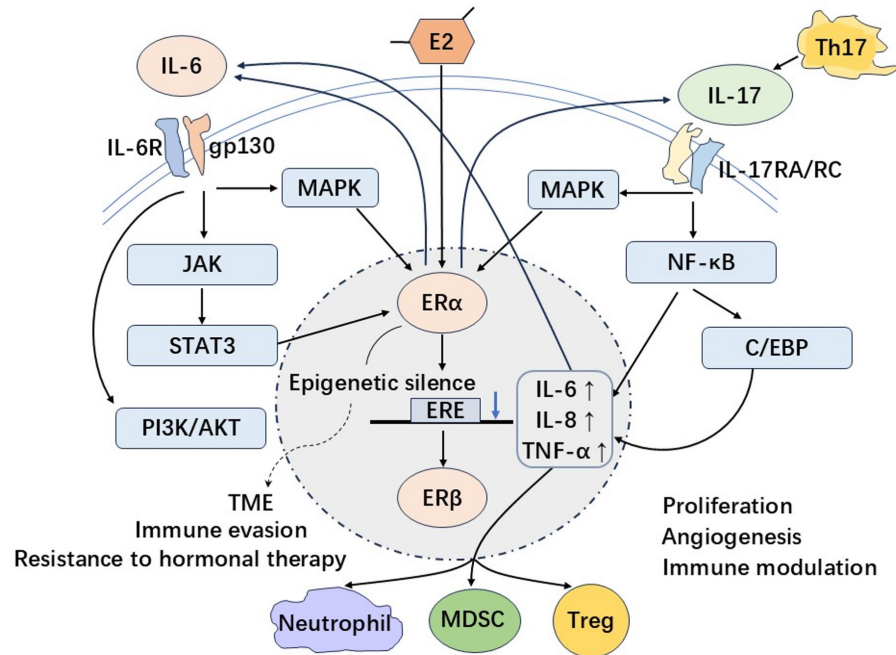


Figure 1. Interactions between cytokines and ERs. Tumor-associated macrophages, cancer cells, and stromal fibroblasts secrete IL-6. It activates the JAK/STAT3, MAPK, and PI3K/AKT pathways, promoting tumor proliferation, angiogenesis, and immune modulation. IL-17, produced mainly by Th17 cells, acts via the IL-17R complex to activate NF-κB, MAPK, and C/EBP signaling cascades, leading to enhanced secretion of IL-6, IL-8, and TNF-α. Both cytokines contribute to recruiting neutrophils, myeloid-derived suppressor cells (MDSCs), and Tregs, suppressing anti-tumor immunity. These inflammatory signals indirectly influence estrogen receptor expression, particularly increasing ERα and reducing ERβ, thereby linking inflammation with hormone responsiveness.

This dual effect may reinforce estrogen-driven tumor progression and reduce hormonal therapy efficacy in endometrial cancer.

2.4 IL-17 and ER Expression in Endometrial Cancer

IL-17, primarily secreted by Th17 cells, is a pro-inflammatory cytokine increasingly recognized for its role in tumor biology, including endometrial cancer [14, 35, 58]. Although IL-17's direct impact on estrogen receptor signaling remains less well studied than that of IL-6, emerging data suggest that IL-17 can directly and indirectly regulate ER expression [36, 59].

IL-17 signals through the IL-17 receptor complex (IL-17RA/RC), activating pathways such as NF-κB, MAPK, and C/EBP, influencing gene transcription and epigenetic regulation [36, 60, 61]. In endometrial cancer cell models, IL-17 promotes proliferation, migration, and chemoresistance by enhancing inflammatory gene expression and survival signaling [62, 63].

Indirectly, IL-17 can upregulate IL-6 and other cytokines, amplifying the IL-6/STAT3 axis and influencing ERα expression [33, 48, 64]. Some studies

have also suggested that IL-17 may suppress ERβ expression through epigenetic silencing mechanisms, such as DNA methylation or histone deacetylation at the ESR2 promoter [29, 54, 65].

Limited clinical data indicate high IL-17 expression correlates with intense ERα staining and poor differentiation in endometrial tumors [40, 66]. In other hormone-sensitive cancers, IL-17 has been shown to enhance ER transcriptional activity by recruiting coactivators to estrogen response elements, supporting a similar mechanism in EC [67, 68].

Moreover, IL-17 and IL-6 may synergistically modulate ERα/ERβ balance and promote estrogen-driven tumor proliferation. Their combined signaling sustains a pro-tumor inflammatory environment, potentially driving resistance to hormonal therapies [69, 70].

In summary, IL-17 contributes to the inflammatory regulation of estrogen receptors in endometrial cancer, particularly through IL-6 dependent mechanisms and the suppression of ERβ. These actions highlight IL-17 as a critical mediator of hormone-inflammation crosstalk and a potential therapeutic target.

2.5 Crosstalk Between Inflammatory Cytokines and Estrogen Signaling Pathways

The interactions between inflammatory cytokines and estrogen receptor signaling play important roles in the pathophysiology of endometrial cancer (Figure 1). IL-6 and IL-17, two prominent pro-inflammatory cytokines enriched in the tumor microenvironment, not only drive chronic inflammation but also influence hormone receptor dynamics, particularly those of ER α and ER β [13-15, 19, 26, 48, 58].

Mechanistically, IL-6 and IL-17 share overlapping downstream signaling pathways including STAT3, MAPK, and NF- κ B, which can modulate estrogen receptor expression and transcriptional activity [31, 36, 47, 61]. IL-6, through JAK/STAT3 activation, upregulates ER α and enhances estrogen-induced gene transcription [24, 27, 49]. IL-17, by increasing IL-6 secretion and promoting a pro-inflammatory loop, indirectly strengthens the ER α -dominant profile while suppressing ER β expression via epigenetic repression [29, 54, 64, 65].

Importantly, the interactions are bidirectional. Estrogen signaling can amplify inflammatory cytokine expression as estradiol acts via ER α to upregulate IL-6 production in stromal and epithelial cells [46, 71, 72], while estrogen exposure also influences Th17 cell differentiation and IL-17A expression [68, 73, 74]. This feed-forward loop sustains a chronic inflammatory environment that supports tumor proliferation and immune evasion [30, 34, 75].

Clinically, tumors with elevated expression of IL-6 and IL-17 as well as an altered ER α /ER β ratio often exhibit aggressive behavior and reduced responsiveness to endocrine therapy [40, 56, 76, 77]. Cytokine-driven ER α overexpression may confer hormone hypersensitivity, while chronic inflammation may lead to PR loss and endocrine resistance [55, 57, 78]. The combined action of cytokines and estrogen also impacts the immune milieu, favoring the recruitment of immunosuppressive cell types such as Tregs and MDSCs, further promoting immune escape [33, 39, 79, 80]. These insights highlight the importance of inflammatory-hormonal crosstalk as a therapeutic target in EC. Disrupting this signaling intersection may enhance treatment efficacy and help overcome hormone therapy resistance in selected patients.

2.6 Therapeutic Implications and Future Perspectives

The emerging understanding of how IL-6 and IL-17 influence estrogen receptor signaling in endome-

trial cancer has opened new avenues for therapeutic intervention. Since these cytokines can upregulate ER α and suppress ER β , thereby contributing to tumor progression and hormonal resistance, targeting the IL-6/IL-17/ER axis holds considerable potential for clinical translation [24, 27, 29, 48, 54, 64, 65, 76].

Endocrine therapeutics including progestins, aromatase inhibitors, and selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) are often used in hormone-responsive endometrial cancer. Still, their effectiveness is limited in advanced or recurrent disease, particularly when cytokine-driven inflammation disrupts ER signaling [5, 56, 78, 81].

IL-6-induced STAT3 activation has been implicated in acquired hormone resistance, decreased PR expression, and immune escape [31, 46, 57]. Targeting IL-6 signaling with monoclonal antibodies such as Tocilizumab or small-molecule JAK inhibitors (e.g., Ruxolitinib) has shown efficacy in preclinical models and other inflammatory tumors [82-84]. These agents may suppress STAT3-driven ER α expression and restore sensitivity to hormone therapy [24, 49, 85]. Similarly, IL-17 inhibitors, such as Secukinumab or Ixekizumab, already approved for autoimmune conditions, may help disrupt the IL-17/IL-6/ER α loop in endometrial cancer [69, 86]. Preclinical studies suggest that combining cytokine blockade with hormone therapy may improve treatment response and delay resistance [87, 88].

In addition, epigenetic therapies, including DNA methyltransferase inhibitors (e.g., Decitabine) and histone deacetylase inhibitors (e.g., Vorinostat), may restore ER β expression by reversing IL-6/IL-17-mediated repression of ESR2, thereby resensitizing tumors to progestins [53, 54, 89, 90].

Biomarker development is another important focus. IL-6, IL-17, ER α /ER β ratios, and STAT3 activation status may guide patient selection and predict responsiveness to anti-inflammatory or hormonal interventions [45, 67, 91, 92].

Future clinical trials should evaluate combinatorial strategies, such as endocrine therapy plus IL-6/IL-17 inhibitors or immune checkpoint blockade with cytokine modulation in inflamed, hormone-sensitive endometrial tumors [80, 93, 94]. Integrative approaches, including transcriptomic, epigenetic, and immunologic profiling, will be essential to personalizing therapy and optimizing treatment outcomes. Disrupting the inflammatory-estrogen receptor signaling crosstalk represents a promising strategy for overcoming resistance and improving outcomes in

endometrial cancer. Translating this concept into clinically actionable treatments will require robust biomarker validation and well-designed trials.

3. Conclusion

The intricate interactions between inflammatory cytokines and estrogen receptor signaling play a pivotal role in the development and progression of endometrial cancer. IL-6 and IL-17, two central mediators of tumor-associated inflammation, have been shown to modulate estrogen receptor expression-upregulating ER α and suppressing ER β -through signaling pathways including JAK/STAT3, NF- κ B, and MAPK [13, 24, 31, 36, 47, 54, 61]. These changes enhance estrogen-driven tumor proliferation and contribute to resistance against endocrine therapies [56, 76, 78].

Moreover, evidence indicates a bidirectional feedback loop in which estrogen signaling promotes inflammatory cytokine production, creating a self-sustaining tumor-promoting microenvironment [46, 68, 72, 75]. This crosstalk also affects immune regulation, fostering the recruitment of immunosuppressive cells such as Tregs and MDSCs that may facilitate immune evasion [37, 39, 79, 80].

Targeting the IL-6/IL-17/ER axis offers promising opportunities for therapeutic intervention. Combination strategies involving cytokine inhibitors, endocrine agents, and epigenetic modulators may overcome resistance and improve clinical outcomes in selected patients [24, 48, 53, 69, 85, 90, 93, 94].

Future research should aim to clarify the spatio-temporal regulation of cytokine-ER signaling, define predictive biomarkers (e.g., IL-6/IL-17 levels, ER α /ER β ratio, and STAT3 activation), and test rationally designed therapeutic combinations in prospective clinical trials [67, 76, 92]. As understanding deepens, targeting both inflammation and hormone signaling pathways may become a cornerstone of precision therapy in endometrial cancer.

Acknowledgement: Dr. Lin Li was supported by the Sichuan Provincial Science and Technology Department's Key R&D Project (Grant No. 2024YFFK0327) and the Chengdu Municipal Science and Technology Bureau (Grant No. 2024-YF05-00059-SN). Dr. Zongbing You was supported by an LB Grant and a COR Faculty International Travel Grant from the Office of Academic Affairs & Provost at Tulane University.

Conflict of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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