

DOTTORATO DI RICERCA IN "SCIENZE BIOMEDICHE E BIOTECNOLOGICHE"

CICLO XXXIV°

COORDINATORE Prof. Pinton Paolo

Transcriptomics and cancer: beyond messenger RNA

Settore Scientifico Disciplinare MED/06

Dottoranda Tutore

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Anni 2018/2021

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INTRODUCTION

Non coding RNAs (ncRNAs) represent a large portion of the human genome which is not translated into proteins, mediating transcriptional gene modulation [1]. Many non-coding RNAs contribute to the alteration of biological functions in normal cells, leading to progression and malignant phenotype in cancer [2]. Among them, the class of Ultra-conserved regions (UCRs) are DNA elements of more than 200 base pairs long, without insertion or deletion and extremely conserved in the orthologous loci of vertebrates, in particular human $[3]$, mouse, and rat genomes $[4]$, but Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) in UCRs are related to cancer susceptibility ^[5]. Their expression is altered in leukemia ^[6], liver cancer ^[7], glioma $[8]$, and neuroblastoma $[9]$, which might be modulated either by promoter hypermethylation or by interactions with microRNAs (miRNAs) [10]. The Transcribed-UCRs (T-UCRs) are a class of non-coding RNAs and are involved in gene expression regulation transcription $[11]$ and splicing $[12]$ during development processes. There is a considerable overlap between T-UCRs and long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) [13, 14]. The biological functions of lncRNAs are ascribable to control and regulation of cell cycle, metabolism, immune response [15], differentiation $[16]$, and transcription/translation $[17]$, but they can also regulate cancer onset, progression, or survival of patients $[18-21]$. MiRNAs, a group of small non-coding RNAs, act as regulators of gene expression: they can enable oncogenes or inactivate onco-suppressors in solid cancers ^[22]. CircularRNAs (circRNAs) are convalently closed and single strand RNAs (ssRNAs) present in human cells with tissue- and cell-specific expression^[23]. Since their discovery^[24], they have been considered as aberrant products of splicing. Recent advances in RNA sequencing and circRNA-specific decoding tools allowed their quantification and characterization. Their biogenesis is specifically regulated and circRNAs may exert their functions in various ways, for example by acting as miRNA ('sponges'), as protein inhibitors ('decoys') or by being translated into proteins. Different studies have recently shown that tens of thousands of potential circRNAs are transcribed from the human genome^[25, 26] and that their expression can be modulated in breast cancer and other cancers or leukemias^[27-29].

CHAPTER 1: THE CODING POTENTIAL OF CIRCULAR RNAS IN HUMAN CANCER SAMPLES

The full functional role of circRNAs in cancer is still under debate^[30] and several studies asserted that circRNAs can act as templates for translation. For example, Abe et al. demonstrated that a pool of circRNAs comprise boundless Open Reading Frames (ORFs) that can be translated in a protein concatemer by a mechanism called "rolling cycle amplification"^[31]. Furthermore, Chen et al. confirmed the cytoplasmic localization of circRNAs in eukaryotic cells^[32]. Different research groups explained two cap-independent mechanisms of circRNAs translation: the internal ribosome entry sites (IRES)-mediated translation and N6 methyladenosines (m6A)-mediated translation^[33, 34]. To date, an increasing number of studies have also been investigating the coding potential of $circRNAs^{[35-37]}$ and the role of the peptides encoded by circRNAs and long noncoding RNAs in glioblastoma^[38], colorectal cancer^[39] and neurodegenerative disease^[40]. In this paper, we studied the coding potential of the circRNAs sourced by MiOncoCirc, a pan-cancer compendium of more than 160,000 cancer circRNAs detected through a poly(A)-independent method and gene-body targeting: exome capture RNA-seq^[28, 41]. We then studied the expression of a focused group of circRNAs with strong potential for novel protein isoforms in a wide range of human cancers and cell lines.

1.1 METHODS

Cancer circRNA selection. The MiOncoCirc dataset includes RNA-Seq data from a large number (n=2036) of cancer samples, derived from several tumor types (prostate adenocarcinoma, breast cancer, lung cancer, pancreatic cancer, liver cancer, etc.) and controls^[28]. From the MiOncoCirc compendium (about 160,000 circRNAs), after excluding the read-through circRNAs (rtCircRNAs) located between two different genes, we selected the circRNAs with absolute count higher than 40, i.e., expressed in at least 40 different human samples (n=47,415). We then used the genomic coordinates of these circRNAs in conjunction with GENCODE (v. 33) to determine all different spliced isoforms. To account for alternative splicing events for each circRNA, the different transcripts corresponding to these circRNAs, and at least 150 nucleotides long, amounted to 56819 were considered. Using TransDecoder (v.5.5.0) we predicted for each circRNA transcript, and retained for further analysis, the circular ORFs (circORF) encoding for at least 50 ammino acids, starting with a methionine and ending with a stop codon.

In-silico characterization of polypeptides predicted from circRNAs. Using protein-BLAST (ver. 2.9.0) we determined the homologies between the polypeptides encoded by a circORF and by the respective linear isoforms (from Ensembl, release-101), with an e-value lower than 1e-10. In addition, we considered only the protein isoforms validated in the Consensus Coding Sequence (CCDS) dataset at NCBI. Next, we used a Python script to isolate all circRNAs encoding for proteins with a mismatch of at least 1 amino acid at the amino- and/or carboxy- terminus, when compared to their CCDS isoforms. Upon comparison with the CCDS isoforms, we annotated the predicted circRNA proteins as having "canonical" or "internal" starting methionine and a "premature" or "canonical" stop codon.

The domain structure of circRNA encoded proteins. Then, we investigated the domain composition of the circRNA protein by using HMMER HmmScan (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/pfa/hmmer_hmmscan/). We compared the domains of each circRNA protein with those of each parental isoform (GENCODE, v. 33). We developed a Python script to identify the predicted circular proteins which had domain mismatches with the linear isoforms, in particular: i) different order (the circular RNA protein has the same domains but in a different order), ii) partial overlap only (missing one or more domains when compared to the parental isoforms), iii) partial overlap and one or more additional domain (i.e., missing a domain and presenting a circular RNA predicted domain that is not present in the linear isoforms), iv) same parental domain structure with additional domains, v) no overlap with the domain structure of parental isoforms.

Expression profile of circRNAs with unique protein coding potential in cancer. Finally, we investigated the cancer expression of the circRNAs with predicted unique polypeptides, focusing on those differing in primary structure when compared with the parental isoforms. We used the exome capture RNA-Seq data collected in MiOncoCirc [28] from clinical samples, cell lines and normal tissues $(n=2036)$ $[42-44]$. Data were expressed as $log2$ reads per million (RPM); 15330 circRNAs with low variation in cancer and normal samples were retained using an IQR threshold of 0.5, of which 1308 code for proteins different from the linear isoforms. Samples with overall high expression of circular RNAs (n=1018) were filtered using the median of total log2 RPM counts as threshold.

Functional characterization of the circRNA with unique encoded proteins and expressed in cancer. The genes encoding the circRNAs differential expressed in cancer and with coding potential were studied for statistical over/under representation (FDR<0.05) using PantherDB [\(http://pantherdb.org/\)](http://pantherdb.org/).

Identification of novel peptides in PeptideAtlas compendium. The novel terminuses from coding circRNAs, not aligned with linear counterparts, were used to find any match with Peptide Atlas (build: Human 2021-01), a compendium of peptides collected by mass spectrometer experiments from human and other organisms $[45, 6]$ 46].FASTA36^[47] (version 36.3.8h Aug, 2019) was used to align the novel terminuses with Peptide Atlas database. We used BLASTP 2.13.0+ and the database RefSeq Select proteins as reference to check the similarity between the carboxy-terminus and peptides from Peptide Atlas.

1.2 RESULTS

1.2.1 Coding potential for novel proteins in cancer circular RNAs

With our work, we aimed to understand what the coding potential of circRNAs was, in cancer, for each human gene. Additionally, we looked for the most substantial alterations when compared to the canonical linear (parental) isoforms. Our hypothesis being that circRNAs possess the capacity to encode for unique and novel protein isoforms, that while still belonging to the locus parental protein family, are functionally different isoforms. Such functional relevant changes could include full or partially novel polypeptides, but also modifications of the parental domain structure. Figure1.1 illustrates the bioinformatics cascade leading to the identification of coding circRNAs, with novel protein structures and differentially expressed in cancer.

Figure 1.1 The flow chart representation of the study. The diagram synthesizes the bioinformatics analysis flow which led to the identification of the circRNAs with novel coding potential (structurally divergent proteins from those encoded by the linear mRNAs) and differentially expressed in a set of human cancer types. Legend: ORF: open reading frame.

Thus, we predicted the proteins from "complete" circular ORFs (circORFs), i.e., starting with AUG, terminating with a stop codon, and considered thereafter only those at least 50 residues long. Next, we looked for novel sequences among these circORF encoded proteins. Essentially, for each gene, we focused on the longest circORF proteins (n=4361) bearing a partial overlap (e-value lower than 1e-10) with their standard protein counterparts (from CCDS). Most of these novel protein coding circORFs started at the canonical AUG and were thus preceded at 5' by the proper ribosome binding site (77.2%), followed by a minority of internal AUG (18.8%), while the remaining portion (4%) started with a novel 5' extension encoding a completely new amino-terminus. On the contrary, the largest portion of these circRNA predicted human proteins had a novel sequence only at the carboxy-terminus (88.3%), while the minor parts ended with a premature termination (5.1%) or with the canonical stop codons of the linear protein (6.6%). Among them a small percentage of the predicted circORF proteins possessed both novel N and C termini (1.6%). Figure 1.2 illustrates the annotation of circORF terminuses-based.

Figure 1.2 The percentage of circORFs characterized by novel or unexpected terminuses. This pie chart illustrates the number and the relative percentage of the circORFs with novel or unexpected combination of terminuses compared to all linear counterparts. The circORFs annotated as "canonicalMet|canonicalSTOP" are not included in the pie chart.

The distribution of the length for the predicted novel peptide extensions, respectively at amino- and at carboxy- terminus, alongside the descriptive statistics, are plotted in Figure 1.3

Figure 1.3 Density of the amino- and carboxy- terminus lengths from circRNAs with coding potential and the relative statistics.

The average length of the extra peptides (mean = 24.1 Aa) was slightly higher for those at N-terminus than those at C-terminus (mean =17.0 Aa).

In addition to changes in the primary structure of circRNA proteins, we also looked for specific differences in their domain structure. Although most of the circRNA predicted proteins shared the exact domain structure with their linear isoforms, still about a fifth of them showed unique structures (n=1,179). The most frequent structural alteration in circular RNA proteins was domain loss: when compared to their linear mRNA products 931, circORF were lacking one or more domains.

Different domains' order was also apparent (n=120); additionally, there were instances of: i) inclusion of an extra domain (n=50), ii) coincidental domain loss and inclusion of extra domains (n=58), and iii) circORF proteins with completely novel domain structure (n=20) (Figure 1.4)

Domain structure of predicted circRNAs proteins

Figure 1.4 Domain structure of predicted circRNA proteins compared with the parental linear isoforms.

1.2.2 CircRNAs terminuses annotated in Peptide Atlas database.

To support our study, we compared the amino- and carboxy- terminuses with Peptide Atlas database. We found that 82 novel terminuses overlapped with a peptide, at least 10 amino acids long, reported in Peptide Atlas database (Table S9). Most of them (n=77) are aligned with a peptide related to the linear counterparts, although the primary sequence of the entire circRNAs resulted as original. Of interest, 3 of them present a carboxy-terminus aligned with a peptide sequence referred to a protein different from that parental. (Table 1.3)

Table 1.3. Coding circRNAs with C-Term overlapped a peptides referred to a different protein from parental. The Table reported: circID composed by the transcript_ID,

chromosome, start-end of chromosome and gene symbol; PeptideAtlas_ID, the length of the carboxy-terminus and the number of the amino acids overlapped.

In particular, the carboxy-terminuses of the circZBTB20 overlapped with peptides 10 and 11 amino acids long which referred to PELI3 protein while circRBCK1 Cterminus overlapped with a peptide 20 amino acid long and is not significantly related to a linear protein (evalue≥ 0.43).

1.2.3 circRNAs with unique coding potential and expression in cancer

To proceed further with the study of circRNAs roles in different cancer types, cell lines and normal samples, the expression profiles of circular RNAs with either original amino/carboxy predicted peptides or novel domain content were investigated in 1018 human samples from the MiOncoCirc compendium. We focused on the samples with high circRNA level (using the median of the total circRNA expression as threshold) and identified 629 circRNAs, with highly variable expression across the cancer and control human samples (IQR > 0.5).

Then, to reveal possible cancer associated roles of peptide circRNAs, we performed a differential expression analysis: 183 circRNAs showed a significant difference in their expression when cancer and cell lines were compared with normal samples (BH adjusted p-value <0.05) (Table 1.1)

chr3 138570317 138572984 CEP70 C-term|canMet -0.67 -3.251803 0.0035151 chr15 57437984 57442478 CGNL1 C-term|canMet -1.55 -4.775137 9.54E-14 chr20_41512845_41551360 CHD6 C-term|canMet -0.76 -3.920032 0.000124 chr8_60741258_60743097 CHD7 C-term|canMet 0.92 -2.893806 0.0009427 chr16 53155925 53157541 CHD9 C-term|canMet -0.46 -4.070529 0.0213699 chr10_124038514_124046724 CHST15 C-term|canMet|lackDom 1.12 -3.435645 7.33E-05 chr12_70278131_70319364 CNOT2 C-term|canMet 0.36 -4.690489 0.0392907 chr2_207555627_207577655 CREB1 canMet|consStr|premTerm 0.25 -5.181895 0.025331 chr20_495718_508660 CSNK2A1 C-term|canMet|consStr 0.32 -4.785032 0.0370166 chr4_1228198_1241519 CTBP1 consStr 0.35 -5.022798 0.0118515 chr4_1225359_1241519 CTBP1 consStr 0.56 -3.268335 0.0108594 chr14_59263440_59291306 DAAM1 consStr 0.66 -4.476877 0.0116871 chr15_65752378_65756472 DENND4A C-term|canMet 0.36 -4.986049 0.0271981 chr19_47352753_47362693 DHX34 C-term|canMet|inslackDom 0.34 -5.111878 0.004739 chr22_38552665_38568289 DMC1 C-term|canMet|consStr 0.32 -5.044676 0.033584 chr1_224952669_224968874 DNAH14 C-term|canMet 0.63 -4.834016 0.0036914 chr20_63928334_63931022 DNAJC5 canMet|consStr|premTerm 1.05 -3.099577 2.28E-05 chr21_37420298_37472880 DYRK1A C-term|canMet 0.67 -2.153783 8.37E-05 chr17_47326225_47345098 EFCAB13 C-term|canMet 0.30 -5.030541 0.0270689 chr6_130926604_130956499 EPB41L2 C-term|canMet -1.77 -3.291045 6.02E-08 chr6_130955104_130956499 EPB41L2 C-term|canMet|lackDom -0.94 -3.411731 0.000558 chr1_50567076_50596216 FAF1 C-term|intMet 0.53 -4.623733 0.0046739 chr2_201016990_201024039 FAM126B C-term|canMet|consStr 0.41 -4.894143 0.0032404 chr6_70475409_70502791 FAM135A consStr|intMet|premTerm -0.54 -5.141151 2.02E-05 chr4 186706562 186709845 FAT1 C-term|canMet|lackDom -1.73 -3.500236 1.75E-05 chr11_128758114_128782023 FLI1 C-term|canMet|lackDom 0.74 -4.418677 0.0005382 chr11_128758114_128768272 FLI1 C-term|canMet 0.74 -4.722216 1.58E-05 chr11_128758114_128772985 FLI1 C-term|canMet|lackDom 0.80 -4.23791 0.0003691 chr3_172112451_172251541 FNDC3B C-term|canMet 0.65 -4.087266 0.0053531 chr3_172112451_172226947 FNDC3B C-term|canMet 0.91 -3.624134 0.0002726 chr6_108663454_108664889 FOXO3 canSTOP|consStr|intMet 0.48 -4.390282 0.0302275 chr11_62638982_62639731 GANAB C-term|N-term 0.63 -4.576324 0.0002095 chr16_67685456_67685802 GFOD2 C-term|canMet|consStr -0.33 -5.09809 0.00951 chr16 4332214 4333519 GLIS2 C-term|canMet -1.43 -3.455216 7.33E-05 chr9_4286037_4286523 GLIS3 C-term|canMet -1.22 -3.761582 9.16E-05 chr1_1804418_1839238 GNB1 C-term|canMet|consStr 0.46 -4.946419 0.0008211 chr1_1815755_1839238 GNB1 C-term|canMet 0.88 -4.377537 1.56E-06 chr3_120750522_120751000 GTF2E1 C-term|canMet|consStr 0.75 -4.273575 8.37E-05 chr1_113940381_113941459 HIPK1 consStr 0.49 -4.714052 0.0035151 chr11_33286412_33328633 HIPK3 C-term|canMet|consStr -0.85 -4.794648 1.68E-08 chr11_33286412_33287511 HIPK3 C-term|canMet|consStr -0.76 1.2523144 3.46E-07 chr14_21230318_21234229 HNRNPC C-term|canMet|consStr 0.61 -2.054603 8.59E-05 chr19_5016256_5041251 KDM4B C-term|canMet|consStr 0.49 -4.760458 0.0038446 chr3_183643479_183672484 KLHL24 C-term|canMet|consStr -1.17 -3.875801 1.26E-07 chr3_183650295_183651276 KLHL24 C-term|canMet|lackDom -1.08 -4.135783 9.74E-07 chr3_183643479_183665039 KLHL24 C-term|canMet|lackDom -0.93 -4.917762 1.32E-11 chr3_183643479_183651276 KLHL24 C-term|canMet|lackDom -0.92 -2.320361 1.18E-05 chr3_183650295_183672484 KLHL24 C-term|canMet|consStr -0.91 -4.830024 2.47E-08 chr18 6237963 6312056 L3MBTL4 consStr -0.39 -4.894219 0.0237472 chr8_70637814_70641050 LACTB2 canSTOP|intMet|lackDom 0.52 -4.751059 0.0018406

12

chr13 21045684 21046230 LAT chr12_51049033_51058128 LETI chr1_211778917_211793190 LPG chr9 128907156 128909321 LRR chr1_235830225_235833667 LYST chr2_127335869_127343194 MA chr10_48401611_48410168 MA chr10_48401611_48404981 MA chr3_15411244_15415942 MET chr10_72562894_72566794 MIC chrX_10566887_10567603 MID chr14_45246742_45247377 MIS chr9_13216773_13250372 MPI chr14_67269700_67303599 MPI chr8_17743603_17755961 MTI chr15_72045723_72046634 MY chr2 24643965 24683128 NCO chr8 70213902 70216764 NCO chr16_69695135_69695379 NFA chr7_44645326_44666851 OGDH C-term|N-term|intMet 0.21 -5.226649 0.0371473 chr3_16294855_16303592 OXNAD1 N-term|canSTOP|consStr -0.45 -4.891907 0.0008146 chr5_139363758_139364743 PAII chr8_51831443_51861246 PCM chr8_51845660_51861246 PCM chr1_65913244_65918835 PDE chr2 172568740 172596023 PDK chr2_172570725_172596023 PDK chr3 52412810 52414587 PHF chr11_86022366_86031611 PICA chr1 151427822 151442205 POG chr2 169603641 169614724 PPIG chr4 120710308 120811449 PRD chr5_145796441_145826200 PRE chr17_76312869_76313891 PRP chrX_37386598_37426000 PRR chr14_73147794_73173707 PSE chr9 112262434 112297916 PTB chr9 112268048 112297916 PTB chr1 31915894 31919658 PTP chr6_57193841_57210445 RAB chr9 122957010 123020459 RAB chr20_34072065_34078553 RALY N-term|canSTOP|consStr 0.46 -3.739214 0.0302275 chr18_22936753_22949713 RBB chr9_122877470_122897576 RC3 chr1 24514313 24514567 RCA chr12 123498543 123499536 RILF chr3_149846010_149912083 RNF chr3 149846010 149921227 RNF chr3 149846010 149895560 RNF chr6_7176654_7189322 RRE

Table 1.1: CircRNAs differentially expressed in pan-cancer dataset "MiOncoCirc". Benjamini Hochberg adjusted pvalue < 0.05. Abbreviations. logFC: log fold change; canMet: canonical methionine; canSTOP: canonical STOP; lackDom: lacking domain; consStr: conserved structure; premTerm: premature term; diffOrd: different order; intMet: intern methionine; insLackDom: inserted and lacking domains; novDomStr: novel Domain Structure. Color Legend: "green" rows indicated the circRNAs down-regulated in tumor samples than control while "red" rows indicated those over-expressed.

When reassessing the predicted protein sequence for the differentially expressed circRNAs, we determined that 121 of them had only changes in N- and/or Cterminal sequence/s, 9 displayed only novel domain content, 28 had both types of structural changes. Furthermore, 12 circRNAs started from an internal methionine (shorter N-terminal) and/or premature termination. The remaining part of circRNAs (n=13) conserved the structure domain of the linear counterparts.

The Figure 1.5 illustrates the candidate circRNA proteins (orange points) differentially and significantly expressed and also down or over expressed in cancer than control samples.

Table 1.6: The volcano plot shows the circRNA protein (orange point) differentially and significantly expressed(-Log¹⁰ adjusted pvalue) and also down or over expressed in cancer than control samples (Log² fold change).

1.2.3 Expressed circRNAs with novel coding properties participate in cancer pathways

The circRNAs with coding potential for novel polypeptides could in principle bear novel functional roles. For example, a circular RNA protein missing a domain could act as dominant negative, or display altered cellular localization. Therefore, we studied the gene ontology and the molecular features of the genes bearing the forementioned characteristics. We focused on the 183 circRNAs that were regulated in cancer and normal samples. We interrogated PantherDB^[48] to perform a statistical over-representation analysis of the circRNA genes (n=156). The results of this analysis (Table 1.1) showed a significant (BH corrected p<0.05) over-representation for reactome pathways, biological processes, molecular functions and cellular components.

downstream of ESR-membrane signaling

Table 1.1 Gene Ontology analysis for circRNAs novel peptides in cancer. The table illustrates the GO category significantly mapped and over-represented by the coding circRNAs differentially expressed in cancer. We used PantherDB to perform a statistical over-representation GO analysis. The Fisher's exact test was applied to evaluate the significance of the observed/expected gene ratio for each GO category and the Benjamini-Hochberg method to adjust p-values (FDR<0.05). Abbreviations. MF: molecular function; BP: biological process; CC: cellular component; RP: Reactome Pathway; pol II: RNA polymerase II; obs: observed; exp: expected.

In particular, coding circRNAs were over-represented in several interesting reactome pathways and biological processes illustrated in Figure 1.6. Among the most significant reactome pathways associated to coding circRNAs: the regulation of TP53 activity through phosphorylation, the heme signaling and the constitutive signaling by AKT1 E17K mutation in cancer. While, the regulation of response to stimulus, of signalling and of cell communication, the organelle organization and peptydil phosphorylation were some of the most significant biological processes overrepresented by coding circRNAs

Figure 1.6 Gene Ontology analysis: Reactome pathways and biological process for circRNAs novel peptides in cancer. The figure shows the statistical over-representation of the reactome pathways and biological processes altered in cancer for the differentially expressed circRNAs with novel coding potential (n=197). The orange bars indicate the expected number of genes predicted for each category, while the blue bars show the

observed number of genes in each of them. P-values were adjusted using FDR correction (adjusted p-value<0.05).*

Also molecular functions such as protein kinase activity and DNA binding, and cellular components such as nuclear speck and rough endoplasmic reticulum were mapped by the circRNAs with coding potential.

1.2.4 The coding circRNAs and differentially expressed in cancer are also involved in cytogenetically normal acute myeloid leukemia (CN-AML).

We compared the circRNAs which can encode for unique protein and differentially expressed in the pan cancer dataset (MiOncoCirc) and those associated with prognosis in a cohort of 365 younger CN-AML patients^[29]. Interestingly, 24 circRNAs relevant for prognosis in AML (Table 1.2) were also present in the pan cancer dataset, with 8 of them being differential expressed in cancer (adjusted pvalue <0.05).

Table 1.2. Coding circRNAs associated with prognosis in cytogenetically normal AML. Legend: the differentially expressed circRNAs in pan-cancer dataset (adjusted pvalue<0.05) are indicated in bold. Abbreviations. chr: chromosome

We performed a two tailed Fisher's test to demonstrate that the presence of 8 genes, encoding circRNAs with coding potential, in the intersection of the cancer and CN-AML sets, far exceeds that expected by random association (pvalue<0.001).

1.3 DISCUSSION

Since their discovery, circRNAs have been much debated with regards to their roles in the physiological and pathological processes. To date, an increasing number of reports have been confirming the differential expression of circRNAs in normal and tumor samples ^[49], their activity as microRNA 'sponges'^[50, 51] or as protein decoys [52, 53]. Among many studies, some investigators also reported that circRNA can act as messenger RNAs and be used by ribosomes to translate proteins^[54]. The aim of our study was to explore this latter avenue and systematically investigate the coding potential of more than 160,000 different circRNAs in cancer tissues. For this purpose, we leveraged on data from the "MiOncoCirc" pan-cancer compendium, produced by RNA-seq through a poly(A) independent method and using gene-body targeting exome capture. Using a bioinformatics approach, we predicted all peptides longer than 50 residues arising from circRNA open reading frames. Then we focused on the predicted circular RNA proteins that, with respect to their gene linear isoforms, had novelty either: i) in their primary structure, or ii) domain structure. Critically, we further highlighted those circRNAs with predicted polypeptides starting at the same AUG of their linear mRNAs (canonical AUG), and therefore expected to be '*de facto'* translatable. In a different approach, other investigators considered an internal ribosome entry site (IRES) in the circRNAs sequence as necessary for efficient $circ$ RNA translation $[55, 56]$. Due to the overall majority of canonical AUG in the circRNA ORFs we identified (about 3/4 of the proteins were predicted to start at the canonical Met), we did not deem necessary to investigate further for an IRES presence. Overall, we identified 3723 circRNAs potentially encoding for novel peptides at carboxy or amino termini in absence of domain alterations, and 1179 such circRNAs encoding for proteins with novel domain structures.

To further pinpoint highly relevant circRNAs with coding potential in cancer, we performed a differential expression analysis in 1018 human cancer, cell line and control samples and identified 183 circRNAs. These circRNAs are associated with i) biological processes such as regulation of signalling and protein phosphorylation, ii) molecular functions such as DNA binding and protein serine kinase activities, iii) cellular components such as nuclear speck, iv) reactome pathways such as Constitutive Signaling by AKT1 E17K in Cancer and heme signaling. In confutation of our working hypothesis, we searched through the list of circRNAs with coding potential, for any circRNA already reported in the literature. Reassuringly, we successfully identified 24 such circRNAs (Table 1.2) associated with prognosis in CN-AML^[29]. We further identified the ß-catenin-370aa isoform $[57]$ which is annotated in our pan-cancer derived list, as a circORF with novel Cterminus (six extra amino acids not aligned to the linear isoforms). A second previously reported protein circRNA, FBXW7-185aa^[35, 58], was present among our circORFs, with a novel C-terminal in cancer samples albeit not significant overall. To further support our study we interrogated Peptide Atlas database to find any matches with peptides validated by mass spectrometry. Among the alignments, we identified an overlap between the carboxy-terminus of the analyzed circRNAs and peptides sourced from Peptide Atlas not referred to the linear counterparts. These results can further suggest an unexplored landscape of transcriptomics and proteomics regulators in human cancer.

CHAPTER 2: UC.183, UC.110, AND UC.84 ULTRA-CONSERVED RNAS ARE MUTUALLY EXCLUSIVE WITH MIR-221 AND ARE ENGAGED IN THE CELL CYCLE CIRCUITRY IN BREAST CANCER CELL LINES

Pineau et al. demonstrated that miR-221/miR-222, the most upregulated miRNA in hepatocarcinoma, dysregulated cell growth by targeting the CDK inhibitor p27^[59]. The same miR-221/miR-222 have a strong effect on cell cycle with the promotion of G1/S transition and contribute to aggressiveness of breast cancer (BC) $[60]$.

In this study^[61], we investigated the genome-wide expression of all UCRs, analyzing the T-UCRs levels in a very large dataset of human normal and cancer samples. Thus, we identified strong T-UCRs candidates for cell cycle regulation using the expression of miR-221 as a 'bait'. Then, we employed siRNAs against T-UCRs to evaluate their impact on cell cycle regulation, focusing on their interactions with miR-221 and on some other key effectors of cell cycle. With this aim, we further investigated the T-UCRs' expression upon treatments of BC cell lines using anticancer drugs, which led to the identification of an alternative modulation of miR-221 and T-UCR.

2.1 METHODS

Data Mining of miRNA and T-UCRs Expression Profiles. We studied the expression of T-UCRs and miRNAs in 6604 samples, derived from cancer and control tissues, using the Ohio State University Comprehensive Cancer Center (OSUCCC) custom microarray $[8, 22]$. Two sub-cohorts of identical size (each one consisting of 3302 samples), a test and a validation dataset, were generated by random selection. The interquartile range (IQR) was used as a threshold to remove T-UCRs and miRNAs with low variability. Linear correlation (Pearson) and mutual information content (MIC) $[62]$ were used to assay co-regulation of miR-221 expression with T-UCRs and other miRNAs, and thus detect candidate alternatives/antagonists. Custom made scripts were coded using Python and R.

Cultures, Cell Cycle Synchronization, Silencing, and Drug Treatments. We used two breast cancer derived cell lines, MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231. MCF7 has a luminal A profile (ER+, PR+, HER2−) and wild type TP53, with a low proliferation rate and a low capacity of invasion. MDA-MB-231 belongs to the basal mesenchymal-like triple negative subtype presenting mutated TP53 with high proliferative and invasiveness potential [63, 64]. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium DMEM (GE-Healthcare) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2 mM L-Glutamine and 50 U/mL Penicillin and 50 μg/mL Streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, Milan, Italy).

The DNA content was evaluated to determine the percentage of cells in the different cell cycle stages. Fluorescence emitted from the propidium iodide–DNA complexes was quantified by the MUSE analyzer and the cell cycle kit (Luminex Corporation, Austin, TX, USA).

RNA interference experiments were carried out targeting selected T-UCRs, as reported in Table S1(https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978). The cells were transfected with 75 nM of a specific siRNA directed against the T-UCRs elements or against hsa-miR-221-3p (5′-AGCUACAUUGUCUGCUGGGUUUC-3′) [65]. Anti-miR-221 (5'-GAAACCCAGCAGACAAUGUAGCU-3')^[65] and a random pool of siRNAs were respectively used as positive or negative control [66] (Fidelity Systems Inc., Gaithersburg, USA). Approximately 100,000 cells/well were cultured in 6-well plates with complete medium 10% FBS and after 16 h the medium was replaced with 0.1% FBS-containing medium. Transfection with siRNA molecules was then performed using the siPORT transfection agent (Life Technologies, Monza, Italy) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

For cell cycle synchronization in G0/G1 phase, we used two different setups: double thymidine block $[67]$ or serum starvation for 48 h $[68]$. For the double thymidine block, cells were treated 18 h with 2 mM thymidine (Sigma-Aldrich, Milan, Italy), then washed twice with complete medium and incubated for additional 8 h (to release them from the first thymidine block). Subsequently, cells were treated again with 2 mM thymidine for 15 h before the second release. Finally, the cells were collected at 2 different times, i.e., at the end of the block (T0, release) (cell arrested in G0/G1 phase) and 8 h later (T8). For serum starvation, cells were maintained in 0.1% FBS medium for 48 h and harvested 8 h after replacement with complete medium. The BC cell lines were treated using 14 different anticancer drugs (Chemietek, Indianapolis, IN, USA), selected to target the major dysregulated pathways in BC and used at half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50), as reported by Baldassari et al. ^[69]. After 24 h of exposure to drugs, total RNA was collected using Trizol™ (Invitrogen, Monza, Italy).

Quantitative RT-PCRs. To analyze RNA expression, Reverse Transcription (RT) was performed using 400 ng of total RNA and oligo-dT plus random primers with the Superscript II enzyme (Invitrogen, Monza, Italy). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was carried out using the power SYBR Green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems,Foster City, CA) with the primer pairs listed in Table S2 (https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978). Reactions were first incubated at 50 °C for 2 min and then at 95 °C for 2 min, followed by 40 cycles, each at 95 °C for 15 s and at 60 °C for 1 min, on a Bio-Rad CFX thermal cycler. Each sample was analyzed in duplicate. β-actin was used as the endogenous reference gene. The RNA levels were assessed as relative expression values measured using ΔΔCq (Bio-Rad CFX Manager Software, version 3.1). The log2 fold changes (2−ΔΔCq) were calculated and compared to control samples. MiR-221 RT-qPCRs were performed following the protocol described by Wang et al. [70].

Statistical Analysis. The qPCR data were normalized using mock transfections and analyzed applying two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test as calculated by Bio-Rad CFX Manager Software (version 3.1), with significant adjusted *p*-values < 0.05. As control for multiple testing in the drug treatments, we used the Benjamini– Hochberg correction (FDR < 0.05). Cell cycle results were obtained from at least three independent experiments and analyzed using the Mann–Whitney U test.

2.2 RESULTS

2.2.1 Identification of T-UCRs Alternatively Expressed with miR-221

We performed a genome-wide study of T-UCRs expression with the aim to identify novel ncRNAs involved in the human cell cycle. We used approaches from information theory and statistics, respectively Maximal Information Coefficient (MIC) $[71]$ and Pearson correlation, to reveal any significant co-regulation between the expression of T-UCRs and miRNAs. The two data mining approaches we used were as distant as possible, although it has been previously reported that there still is a strong correlation between Pearson r and MIC $[71]$. We took advantage of a large dataset of T-UCRs and miRNA expression profiles, derived from 6604 human samples of cell lines, cancers and normal tissues ^[2], and randomly divided in two sub-sets representing a Test and a Validation cohort, each one containing 3302 samples. IQR was used to discard the ncRNAs with lowest variation. Finally, we retained the expression measures for 860 genome elements, either T-UCRs or miRNAs, expressed above background in at least 255 samples. We then proceeded to identify the strongest, positive, or negative, co-regulations in the Test cohort. A permutation analysis was used to simulate the noise in the procedure and generate confidence intervals. Depending on the role of the T-UCR, or its position in the transcriptional cascade, we would detect either a positive or a negative correlation score with miR-221. The scatter plot of all Pearson r and MIC score obtained in the test cohort (red points) and in the simulation (blue points) is shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1. Scatter plot of Maximal Information Coefficient and Pearson correlation of ncRNAs in the Test cohort (n = 3302). The values for 40,486 pairs of ncRNAs (T-UCRs and miRs) are reported in red. In blue are also plotted the values for the simulation.

The same procedure was performed in the Validation cohort, essentially confirming the results of the Test cohort. Of note these measures provided a profile of the cellular steady-state, as basically no time courses were used but only tissues and cell cultures.

As expected from a structured genome geared towards maintaining homeostasis, most of the real-world interactions (red dots) between miRNA: miRNAs, miRNAs:T-UCR, and T-UCR:T-UCR are located away from the noise (blue dots). Additionally and reassuringly, miR-222 (co-localized with miR-221 at Xp11.3) was the ncRNA with the maximum positive r and MIC in conjunction with miR-221. The miR-221/miR-222 relation was plotted as a red point at the top and right-hand quadrant of Figure 2.1, together with other cell cycle and miR-221 co-regulated ncRNAs. Conversely, the values for alternative ncRNA associations are graphed as red points in the right-hand side and lower quadrant of the distribution. In the following step, we focused on ncRNAs which could act as cellular alternatives, or even antagonists, to miR-221. Thus, we selected the T-UCRs/miR-221 pairs with MIC larger than 0.2 and Pearson r lower than −0.4, as listed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Data mining results for co-regulations of T-UCRs and miR-221. The name and genomic strand of both miRs (MATURE) and T-UCRs (ULTRACONS) correlated with miR-221 (bait) are reported, after selection of those with MAS ≥ 0.01, MIC ≥ 0.2, and abs(r) ≥ 0.4 threshold. The OSU microarray chip has probes for mature miRNAs (which tend to be conserved in the genomic sequences) and ultraconserved UCRs.

The most relevant T-UCRs, candidate as miR-221 alternatives/antagonists, are listed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Genomic coordinates and characteristics of T-UCRs, candidate alternatives/antagonists of miR-221.

Finally, we used the miRDB $[82]$ online tool to verify whether any of these T-UCR sequences could bear predicted targeting sites for miR-221, or miR-222. We further extended this investigation applying the RNA22^[83] and PITA $[84]$ algorithms, but no targets for miR-221 or miR-222 were detected, suggesting that the microRNA and the T-UCRs could be indirectly linked, perhaps through an indirect transcriptional control.

2.2.2 Analysis of T-UCRs Involvement in the Cell Cycle of BC Cells

We performed in vitro experiments to evaluate the possible role of the T-UCRs associated with negative co-regulation of miR-221, in relation to cell cycle and to quantify their levels in different cell cycle phases. We designed specific siRNA molecules against T-UCRs, one pair for each strand, as reported in Table 2, and assayed their silencing potential on MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells. Since miR-221 strongly affects cell cycle promoting G1/S transition, we investigated whether these siRNAs showed comparable activity. We performed a primary screen of these thirteen candidate T-UCRs using siRNA pools (Figure S1-S3; https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978), and chose uc.183, uc.110, uc.96, and uc.84 (Appendix A, Figure SA1-SA4; https://www.mdpi.com/2073- 4425/12/12/1978) for further validation. Their expression was quantified in unsynchronized MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells (basal levels reported in Figure S4; https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978), as well as upon double thymidine block or serum starvation (Table S3; https://www.mdpi.com/2073- 4425/12/12/1978). The results confirmed that miR-221 transcription was abundant in MDA-MB-231, as previously reported $[60]$. Consistently, the levels of both premiR-221 and miR-221 were increased at T8 (8 h from block release) in synchronized MCF-7 and MDA-MB-231 cells, while the levels of uc.183, uc.110, and uc.96 were decreased when cell cycle was blocked using double thymidine or serum starvation. Such pattern was thus in agreement with the inverse correlation between these T-UCRs and miR-221 expression detected in the Test cohort.

Focusing our attention on the relationship between T-UCRs and miR-221, we carried out experiments of silencing in each synchronized cell line, and assaying cell cycle phases using the MUSE cell analyzer. If a siRNA against T-UCRs was effective, it would show an effect similar to that observed with miR-221. As described in Figure 2.2, uc.183 and uc.96 both revealed such a miR-221-like activity, leading to significant increase of MDA-MB-231 cells in the S phase.

Figure 2.2. RNA interference of uc.84, uc.96, uc.110, and uc.183 on cell cycle in BC synchronized cell lines. Cell cycle was analyzed after transfections with siRNAs against the selected T-UCR, with miR-221 or anti-miR-221 (AM-221). Quantification was plotted as log2 ratio (median). Statistical significance was calculated, and the result compared to control random siRNA by 2-tailed Mann–Whitney test. p-values < 0.05 (), p-values < 0.01 (**).*

By analogy, the same trend of uc.183 and uc.96 was detected in MCF-7 cells; however, the data were not significant, maybe depending on the higher basal levels in this kind of cells as occurred in the case of treatment with anti-miR-221 (see Figure 2.2, phase S). The effects on cell cycle by uc.183 and uc.110 siRNAs, and by miR-221 transfection were confirmed when considering all data independently from the cell line (*p* < 0.05). We also provide a representation of the mean fold change of cell cycle data ± SEM in Figure S5 (https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978).

For this reason, we further studied the possible relationship between T-UCRs and miR-221, in synchronized MCF-7 cells using another approach, i.e., evaluating the expression of T-UCRs upon transfection with synthetic miR-221. Indeed, uc.183, uc.110, and uc.84 decreased at very low levels after treatment with the miR-221 mimic molecule (Figure 2.3A).

Figure 2.3. Effects of downregulation of T-UCRs or miR-221 in MCF-7 cells. RT-qPCR analysis of T-UCRs and miR-221 levels. (A), transfection using miR-221 mimic molecule and evaluation of T-UCRs expression; (B), transfection using T-UCR siRNAs and evaluation of pre-miR-221 and miR-221. The relative expression was normalized on the mock transfection and calculated as 2−∆∆Cq. Values reported are the means of 4 experiments ± SEM. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired two tailed Student t-test. p-values: < 0.05 (), p-values< 0.01 (**), p-values < 0.001 (***).*

Conversely, we also evaluated the levels of both pre-miR-221 and miR-221 following MCF-7 transfection with T-UCRs' siRNAs. As shown in Figure 2.3B, miR-221 displayed increase levels after treatment with uc.183 and uc.96 siRNAs.

Summarizing the data obtained considering these T-UCRs, the uc.183 was the only effective in all the investigated systems and seems to be the best candidate to interfere with miR-221 expression in inverse manner and dependently of S phase of cell cycle. Other T-UCR, namely uc.84 and uc.110, were also modulated during the cell cycle and showed a negative response in vitro to miR-221 upregulation. However, unlike uc.183, these two T-UCR could not reciprocate and appeared as simply downstream of miR-221.

2.2.3 Downstream Effectors of T-UCR Inhibition

Since uc.183 is localized on a *FBXW11* coding exon (Table 2, Figure S1; https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978), we investigated *FBXW11* mRNA expression in synchronized MDA-MB-231 cells (either at T0 or T8), and any effect determined by T-UCR siRNAs. *FBXW11* levels were apparent at T8 (Figure 2.4A), thus siRNA treatment was performed in this cell culture condition.

Figure 2.4. RT-qPCR analysis of FBXW11 mRNA in synchronized MDA-MB-231 cells. (A) FBXW11 mRNA levels evaluated at T0 (release from double thymidine block) and T8 (8 h after release). (B) FBXW11 mRNA levels analyzed in silenced cells with siRNA against uc.183 or siRNA negative control. The values were expressed as log2 fold changes quantified using 2−ΔCq formula with respect to control. Statistical significance was determined by standard two-tailed Student t-test, p-value < 0.05 (),p-value < 0.001 (***), derived from n = 4 independent replicates.*

As displayed in Figure 2.4B, transfection with siRNAs against uc.183 led to downregulation of *FBXW11* expression at T8 suggesting an involvement also of the protein-coding gene in the network under miR-221/uc.183 control [85].

Therefore, we enlarge our study investigating the effects of T-UCR perturbation, to include some genes known to be associated with the cell cycle and miR-221, e.g., *CDKN1B*, *TP53* and *E2F1* (known to be regulated by miR-221 [86–88]), as well as *CCNB1* and *CDKN1A* (Figure 2.5).

Gene expression upon siRNA transfection

Figure 2.5. Quantitative analysis of miR-221 targets and cell cycle genes upon T-UCR siRNA transfection. Quantification by RT-qPCR demonstrated modulation of gene expression after treatment, calculated with respect to mock transfections. The dashed line parallel to the X axis indicates control relative expression of 1. Histograms represent the means of 8 independent experiments ± SEM. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired two tailed Student's t-test; p-value < 0.05 (), p-value <0.01 (**), p-value <0.001 (***).*

Analyzing the levels of these transcripts, we observed that uc.110, uc.96, and uc.84 siRNAs significantly up-regulated *TP53*, *E2F1*, and *CDK1A* in at least one cell line, while the uc.96 siRNA was effective on the rise of *CCNB1*. The effects of uc.110 and uc.84 were consistent with their interference in cell cycle; indeed, they caused also a strong down-regulation of *CDKN1B*, a known target of miR-221 ^[59].

2.2.4 Modulation of T-UCR Levels by Anticancer Drugs

Since anticancer drugs often affect pathways related with the cell cycle, we investigated their possible action as modulators of T-UCRs. We used 14 drugs targeting the most frequently activated pathways in BC. We focused on the T-UCRs which were shown here to be experimentally involved in miR-221 activity or in the cell cycle. Therefore, we selected uc.183, which seemed to be entangled with miR-221 in a sort of negative loop, and uc.110 and uc.84 that seemed to succeed in the modulation of some cell cycle genes. We hypothesized a rise of these T-UCRs following the inhibitory activity of cancer drugs on cell cycle. Figure 2.6 shows an increase in expression of all tested T-UCRs (uc.183, uc.110, uc.84), in at least one cell line, upon treatment with the PI3K pathway inhibitors, AZD5363 (capivasertib) and BYL719 (alpelisib) that leave miR-221 completely unaffected (significant increase above 2-fold changes compared with untreated cells).

Figure 2.6. Gene expression analysis of T-UCRs and miR-221 upon treatment with anticancer drugs. Histograms describe the expression of uc.110, uc.84, and uc.183

detected by RT-qPCR and quantified by comparison with untreated cells using 2-∆∆Cq formula. Values are mean of 5 experiments ± SEM. For statistical analysis, unpaired and two tailed Student's t test has been used; adjusted p-values: < 0.05 (), p-value< 0.01 (**), p-value< 0.001 (***). Benjamini–Hochberg correction (FDR< 0.05) (Table S4; https://www.mdpi.com/2073-4425/12/12/1978). The dashed line parallel to the X axis indicates control relative expression of 1.*

The *p*-values were adjusted according to Benjamini and Hochberg, for correction of multiple testing (FDR = 0.05) (Table S4; https://www.mdpi.com/2073- 4425/12/12/1978).

Interestingly, the expression of miR-221 was upregulated by a range of other compounds, including doxorubicin and gefitinib, which instead did not up-regulate the T-UCRs. Thus, the treatments which affected the T-UCR expression did no alter the miR-221 levels and vice versa. Thus, with the small molecules inhibitors, we could show a completely differential response by miR-221 and T-UCRs, confirming the mutual exclusion detected in the initial data mining study.

In general, the accumulation of T-UCR occurred mostly in MCF7, excluding docetaxel and XL765, which acted selectively on uc.110 and uc.183 in MDA-MB-231. The Chk inhibitor, AZD7762 and ERK1/2 inhibitor, SCH772984 were the only compounds leading to high down-regulation of a T-UCR, respectively uc.183 in MDA-MB-231 and uc.84 in MCF7.

2.3 DISCUSSION

Notably, ncRNAs, such as T-UCRs are linked to cancer [89, 90] via various mechanisms such as miRNA regulation $[91]$. In this context, miR-221 is one of the most relevant miRNAs in association with tumorigenesis [59], cell proliferation, invasion $[60]$ malignancy, and metastasis $[92]$. In addition, miR-221 plays a pivotal role in cell cycle control [60] driving G1/S transition by targeting cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, p27 and p57 $^{[59]}$. The aim of this work was to discover ncRNAs involved in the regulation of miR-221 and cell cycle. To identify candidate RNAs, we studied a very large dataset of tumors and normal RNA profiles, including data from over 1000 T-UCRs and miRNAs. Amongst them, 13 T-UCRs displayed inverse co-regulation with miR-221, e.g., were strongly expressed in the absence of miR-221 and vice versa. For the purposes of our research, we focused only on uc.183, uc.110, uc.96, and uc.84, the most effective in modulating cell cycle phases with their respective siRNA. Our observation on T-UCRs are novel, as there are no other reports in the literature, not only in breast cancer, but also for other cancer types. We further investigated the relationship between these selected T-UCRs and miR-221, analyzing RNA interference of uc.84, uc.96, uc.110, and uc.183 on the cell cycle in synchronized BC cell lines. The results confirmed the mutually exclusive roles for miR-221 and the T-UCRs. In fact, the treatment with siRNAs against uc.183 and uc.96 increased cells in the S phase, just like miR-221 mimics. Additionally, miR-221 reduced the expression of uc.183, uc.110, and uc.84, and conversely, siRNAs against uc.183 and uc.96 increased pre-miR-221 and miR-221. By investigating the role of T-UCRs in the control of cell cycle, we demonstrated that siRNAs against uc.110, uc.96, and uc.84 up-

regulated *TP53*, *E2F1*, and *CDK1A*, whilst uc.110 and uc.84 siRNAs led to reduction of levels of *CDKN1B*, one of the most important targets for miR-221 ^[59]. Moreover, siRNA against uc.183 is associated with a downregulation of *FBXW11*. Lastly, the siRNAs against uc.96 solely up-regulated *CCKNB1*. Thus, T-UCRs appeared to be involved in the regulation of some key cell cycle genes, and, in particular, uc.110 and uc.84 to be engaged with CDKN1B.We further dissected the miR-221 and T-UCR response in vitro, using a set of cancer drugs. The drugs targeting PI3K (AZD5363, AZD7762, AZD8055) and mTOR pathway (XL765) [93] determined an over-expression of T-UCRs that was predominant in MDA-MB-231 cells, while BYL719, which directly targets PIK3CA, was borderline effective only in MCF-7 cells, possibly because the mutations of PIK3CA (E542K and E545K) are not present in MDA-MB-231 cells [94].

CHAPTER 3: THE NETWORK OF NON-CODING RNAS AND THEIR MOLECULAR TARGETS IN BREAST CANCER

The studies on non-coding RNAs and breast cancer (BC) prevalently investigate one or few RNAs that have been selected from clinical genomics. Typically, such works analyze the BC transcriptomes from retrospective cohort studies.

We decided to apply a data-driven study selection rather than use only our human and scientific sensitivity^[95]. Firstly, we performed two queries to isolate from PubMed all the articles on ncRNAs and miRNAs published in the last 5 years on BC (Table 3). To triage the studies considered for this review we then selected the journals based on their impact factors. A different, and probably fairer, criterion would have been the citation number, but this is impractical for articles with recent publication time, such as those we wanted to consider here. Furthermore, we let the skeleton of our work to self-assemble using the data themselves. We explored this procedure in our earlier organized view of the role of non-coding RNAs in drug resistance. Using an approach where the nodes are the non-coding RNAs, or their target genes and the edges (connections) are the PMIDs of their relative articles, we obtained a network that was used to organize this review. Separate groups of RNAs and genes that were not linked will be discussed as separate entities or 'sub-networks'. A statistical analysis of the network helped to identify nodes (RNAs or genes) with particular properties (i.e. degree, or number of interacting RNA/genes) and ultimately for prioritization. The number of citation of an RNA/gene depends both on its 'real' importance as determined by the experimental method, or on its 'perceived' importance, making it an element of choice by the investigators. The network of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) and their targets in BC, defined using this approach is shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1. The network of non-coding RNAs and its targets in breast cancer. The graph shows the non-coding RNAs (in the square nodes) cited in at least 2 different sources from literature. Empty circles correspond to the coding genes. Each connecting line (or edge) indicates a publication (PMID) from PubMed. When multiple edges connect the *same two RNAs in the network, then multiple publications described this interaction. The edges aredirected (i.e. from the non-coding RNA to its target, being either coding or noncoding). In red are depicted the links indicating a repressive action (flat arrowhead), while in black are those showing activation (with traditional arrowhead). Dashed lines correspond to edges indicating indirect effects. The network is the essential core showing what remains after filtering the nodes (non-coding RNAs, in orange, and miRNAs, in light blue) based on their degrees (i.e. the number of connections to targets or other noncoding RNAs). The network's details are reported in the Table 2.*

The graph shows the non-coding RNAs, and their targets, validated in at least two independent sources from literature. The edges are directed (i.e. from the noncoding RNA to its target). In red are depicted the links indicating a repressive action (flat arrowhead), while in black are those showing activation (with traditional arrowhead). Dashed lines correspond to edges indicating indirect effects. The network in Figure 1 is the essential core showing what remains after filtering the nodes (non-coding RNAs) based on their degrees (i.e. the number of connections to targets). The filtered out nodes, basically un-replicated findings, are shown in Table1. They are still worthy of consideration, but were strictly left out of the major network. We will discuss here the most prominent sub-networks and their single components and interactions, with the goal of understanding the involvement and roles of non-coding RNAs in BC.

3.1 THE MIR-200/205 ZEB2 SUB-NETWORK

Figure 3.2 shows that ZEB2 is a pivotal actor in this sub-network, interconnecting the cluster composed by miR-200a/b/c and miR-205 with that of miR-30a/e and miR-181. Several research groups independently asserted that miR-200a/b/c are down-regulated in triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) and function as metastasis suppressor reducing epithelial mesenchymal transition (EMT), tumour invasion and drug resistance^[96].

Figure 3.2. The miR-200s/ZEB2 cliche

MiR-200 family's components target other genes that antagonize malignant processes, among them Rho GTPase-activating protein 18 (ARHGAP18), an important regulator of cell shape, spreading, migration, and angiogenesis^[97] and the leptin receptor (OBR), which promotes the formation of cancer stem-like cells (CSCs) and up-regulates the obesity-associated adipokine itself associated to BC^[98]. Furthermore, in this subnetwork miR-205 is involved in the modulation of basal-like BC motility mediated by the ΔNp63α pathway, by preserving the epithelial cells characters^[99]. Mir-205 also is negatively correlated with DNA damage repair, promoting radio-sensitivity in TNBC, by targeting the ubiquitin conjugating enzyme E2N (UBC13) [100]. In contrast, Le et al. demonstrated that delivery of miR-200 family (miR-200a/b/c) by extracellular vesicles, through the circulatory system from highly metastatic tumour cells to poorly metastatic cells, in which ZEB2 and SEC23A were down-regulated, induced EMT and conferred the ability to colonize distant tissues^[101]. Further considerations on opposite effects of ncRNAs could be drawn by the second cluster, where the miR-30's family members suppressed cell invasion *in vitro* and bone metastasis *in vivo* by targeting genes implicated in invasiveness (ITGA5, ITGB3) and osteo-mimicry (CDH11) in TNBC[102]. Consistently, miR-30a was involved in EMT regulation, upon TP53 stimulation, by targeting ZEB2 $[103]$, while miR-30e displayed an oncosuppressor role through the modulation of ataxin 1 (SCA1) and EIF5A2, two disruptors of the BC acini morphogenesis promoted by laminin111 (LN1)^[104]. MiR-181a could also lead to a reduction in the activation of pro-MMP-2, cell migration and invasion of BC cells through matrix-metalloproteinase MMP-14[105]. In an apparently opposed fashion, Kuancan et al. demonstrated that miR-181a and miR-

30e, once stimulated by SOX2 activation, could promote migration and metastasis dissemination in Basal and Luminal BC via silencing of Tumour Suppressor Candidate 3 (TUSC3)^[106]. This subnetwork includes another crucial connection between miR-200c and miR-9, as antagonistic modulators of PDGFR ß-mediated vasculogenesis in TNBC. High levels of miR-9 exerted pro-metastatic function and mediated the acquisition of a mesenchymal and aggressive phenotype. In addition, miR-9 enhanced the generation of vascular lacunae both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, in part by direct repression of STARD13, and was also required for PDGFRßmediated activity. On the other hand, miR-200c in TNBC models strongly inhibited tumour growth and impaired tumour cell–mediated vascularization, by inhibiting PDGFRß activity in vascular lacunae and acting on ZEB1, one of the main transcriptional factors in EMT induction [107]. Furthermore, miR-9 in collaboration with miR-203a could lead to a CSC phenotype and to drug resistance after their release from exosomal vesicles (EV), upon treatment with chemotherapeutic agents. These miRNAs target the transcription factor One Cut Homeobox 2 (ONECUT2), whose reduction induces the expression of a variety of stemnessassociated genes, including NOTCH1, SOX9, NANOG, OCT4, and SOX2^[108]. Blocking the EV miRNA-ONECUT2 axis could constitute a potential strategy to maximize the anticancer effects of chemotherapy, as well as to reduce chemoresistance. MiR-203a can collaborate with miR-135 (not showed in this subnetwork) to inhibit cell growth, migration and invasion, by the down-regulation of Runx2 and IL11, MMP-13 and PTHrP targets. Indeed, an aberrant expression of Runx2, which promotes tumour growth and bone metastasis formation, was detected in BC^[109]. This subnetwork highlights another connection of miR-203a, occurring with the long non coding UCA1 which affects directly and indirectly the snail family transcriptional repressor 2 (SLUG). MiR-203 prevents the induction of motility in luminal BC cells, through down-regulation of ΔNp63α activity, and the inhibition of its SLUG and AXL targets^[99]. Of interest, UCA1 expression in BC cells correlated with TGF-β-induced EMT and tumour metastasis. Mechanistically UCA1 is up-regulated by TGF-β and cooperates with the LINC02599 (AC026904.1) in order to promote SLUG activation and maintenance^[110]. Furthermore, UCA1 was proposed to act as a competing endogenous RNA (ceRNA) to sequester miR-122, thus promoting BC invasion. Interestingly, a mechanism mediated by insulin-like growth factor 2 messenger RNA binding protein (IMP1) and repressing invasion has also been hypothesized, via UCA1 decay through the recruitment of the CCR4-NOT1 deadenylase complex. According to this model, IMP1 could compete with UCA1 for binding to miR-122 and restore miRNA targets to inhibit cell invasion[111]

3.2 THE LINC0511-HOTAIR SUBNETWORK

The intergenic non-protein coding RNA 00511 (LINC00511) participates in a subnetwork with HOTAIR (HOX transcript antisense RNA), which is linked to the methyltransferase EZH2 and causes impaired cell proliferation and inhibition of apoptosis in estrogen receptor (ER) negative BC cells^[112]; indeed, LINC00511 promotes metastasis dissemination by silencing NLK [113]. In this subnetwork LINC00511 was proposed to function as a competitive endogenous RNA,

sequestering miR-185, with the effect of inducing E2F1 expression, ultimately leading to stemness and tumorigenesis in all BC subtypes^[114]. The other subnetwork member HOTAIR, can act as a scaffold for the late endosomal/lysosomal adaptor, MAPK and MTOR activator 5 (HBXIP), which promotes the expression of three MYC targets, i.e. CCNA1, EIF4E and LDHA, as well as of the lysine demethylase 1A (LSD1), recruited by HBXIP itself [115]. A novel isoform of HOTAIR, named HOTAIR-N, was observed in association with an increase of invasion and metastasis in laminin-rich extracellular matrix-based three-dimensional organotypic cultures (lrECM 3D), compared with traditional "Claudin-low" culture. HOTAIR-N, once cells are attached to extracellular matrix, binds BRD4, a reader of histone markers that recognizes trimethylation on histone H3 lysine $4^{[116]}$.

ESR1 Eleanor **LMTK3** DNMT3B NCOA3 $LIN₂₈$ **FÓXO3** MIR2052HG PDR1 GGAS MAPK -- mir-25 $let-7$ SÁHH EGR1 H19 $H(XD)$ BTG₂ **PRKCB** BCL2011 AKT1 **MIR675** HIF1A P P B BECN1 **DYRKIA** $\frac{1}{10}$ Tbx⁵BRK LINK-A-**-**---RRK2 **PTEN** KLF_A

3.3 THE H19/LINK-A/MIR2052HG/MIR-25/MIR-10B/ELEANOR SUB-NETWORK

Figure 3.3. The H19/LINK-A/MIR2052HG/miR-25/miR-10b/Eleanor sub-network

Lnc-H19 and Long intergenic non-coding RNA for kinase activation 01139 (LINK-A) are both indirectly involved in the regulation of the expression of HIF1A. In particular, H19 could induce CSC properties and tumorigenesis possibly via LIN28 by acting as a competitive endogenous RNA towards let-7 miRNA. Furthermore, H19 can indirectly stimulate the expression of HIF1A and PDK1, thus promoting the glycolysis pathway, a crucial step in CSC reprogramming.

This relatively large sub-network is depicted in Figure 3.3.

H19 and PDK1 therefore may represent possible therapeutic targets, to contrast glycolysis and cancer stem-like properties^{[117],[118]}. Consistently, LINK-A is involved in the normoxic HIF1A stabilization pathway, through the recruitment of the protein tyrosine kinase 6 (BRK) and of LRRK2, that phosphorylate and activate HIF1A itself. From a functional point of view, LINK-A is associated with glycolysis reprogramming in TNBC and promotes tumorigenesis^[119]. H19 promotes tamoxifen resistance and autophagy in MCF7 cells, by down-regulating Beclin-1 methylation via epigenetic mechanisms. In details, H19 inhibits adenosylhomocysteinase (SAHH), with subsequent acyl-CoA synthetase medium chain family member 3 (SAH) accumulation, which in turn inhibits Beclin-1 promoter methylation by DNMT3B. Therefore the H19/SAHH/DNMT3B axis was proposed as a therapeutic target against tamoxifen resistance^[120]. LINK-A is further connected with MIR2052HG, miR-25 and miR-10b, all known activators of AKT1. In this sub-network a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), rs12095274: A>G, in LINK-A affects the phosphorylation status of AKT1 and is associated with AKT inhibitor-resistance by AKT-PREX1 interactions, which results in a worse prognosis for patients[121]. Also MIR2052HG presents a SNP (rs13260300), which have been associated with a higher recurrence of BC and resistance to aromatase inhibitors. MIR2052HG positively regulates estrogen receptor alpha (ERα) via the AKT/FOXO3 pathway, and limiting $ER\alpha$ ubiquitination^[122]. MIR2052HG has shown to regulate ERα expression by: *i)* promoting the recruitment of EGR1 on LMTK3 promoter with reduction of PKC activity, indirectly enhancing ERα protein levels; *ii)* limiting ERα ubiquitination via PKC/MEK/ERK/RSK1 pathway. Both mechanisms have been identified as active in the presence of the MIR2052HG SNP rs13260300 and of aromatase inhibitors in ERa -positive $BC^{[123]}$. MiR-25 can promote cell proliferation in TNBC by silencing B-cell translocation gene 2 (BTG2) and, indirectly, by the activation of AKT and ERK-MAPK pathways^[124]. Additionally it has been reported that miR-25 interacts with miR-93 (not present in this network), to down-regulate CGAS, by targeting NCOA3 at its promoter. Hence, it could determine immune evasion and accelerated cell cycle progression under hypoxia in Luminal A cells^[125].

The other microRNA engaged in this network is miR-10b which targets HOXD10 and KLF4 to play a pro-oncogenic role. It can promote cell invasion and metastasis formation in the TNBC subtype through its secretion via exosomal vesicles, mediated by neutral sphingomyelin phosphodiesterase 2 (nSMase) indeed and it is capable of transforming non malignant HMLE cells into cells with invasion-ability^[126]. Metastasis generation and self-renewal of CSCs driven by miR-10b are the results of the directly inhibition of miRNA target, PTEN, and the indirectly increase of the expression of $AKT^{[127]}$, as well as that of HOXD10 and BCL2 like 11(BIM) [128].

For this reason, miR-10b has been proposed as a "metastamiR", re-asserted by Kim and co-workers who focused on its targets onco-suppressors Tbx, PTEN, DYRK1A and the anti-metastatic gene HOXD10^[129]. Finally, Eleanor also plays a role in the cluster of non-coding RNAs, cis-activating both ESR1 and FOXO3^[130]. The inhibition of Eleanor could represent a key to switch off topologically associating domain (TAD) containing proteins and to target cells resistant to endocrine therapy^[131].

3.4 THE MALAT1/MIR-100 PARTNERSHIP

The sub-network shown in Figure 3.4 evidences long non-coding MALAT1 and miR-100. These non-coding RNAs are indirectly interconnected by VEGFA.

Figure 3.4. The MALAT1/miR-100 sub-network

MALAT1 modulates VEGFA isoforms expression enhancing TP53 mutations in basal-like BC subtype (BLBC). The interaction between MALAT1 and mutant TP53/ID4 is mediated by SRSF1 splicing factor and promotes MALAT1 delocalization from nuclear speckles and its recruitment on VEGFA pre-mRNA. [132]. In addition, MALAT1 acts as competitive endogenous RNA to sponge miR-216b, thus restoring the expression of PNPO, which is associated with promoted cell proliferation, migration and invasion in invasive ductal carcinoma (IDC). MALAT1/miR-216/PNPO pro-metastatic axis represents a target for molecular therapy, as validated in Luminal A and TNBC subtypes^[133]. However the role of MALAT1 is still debated. Other studies reported that MALAT1 inhibits the transcription of the pro-metastatic factor TEAD, hindering the interaction between the YAP1 at the TEAD promoters; suggesting MALAT1 as a metastasissuppressing factor in BLBC $[134]$. The transfer of miR-100 via MSC-derived exosomes in cancer cells determines the down-regulation of VEGFA secretion by directly targeting mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and modulating mTOR/HIF-1α axis, in fact the miR-100 up-regulation could inhibit angiogenesis and endothelial cell proliferation in the BC microenvironment^[135].

Furthermore, mir-100 is negatively correlated with CSC-like self-renewal by inhibiting the SMARCA5, SMARCD1 and BMPR2 regulatory genes in TNBC and

Luminal A subtypes. The miR-100 involvement in the inhibition of metastasis has also been validated *in vivo*[136] .

3.5 THE MIR-125A/B-MIR196 SUB-NETWORK

Figure 3.5 shows the miR-125/HER2 subnetwork.

Figure 3.5. The miR125/HER2 subnetwork

MiR-125a/b target the 3'UTR region of both HER2 which elevates HER3 expression levels, thus reducing HER2 mRNA levels and consequently their oncogenic effects in cellular models, including increase of tumour growth rates and trastuzumab resistance $[137]$. Consistently, the loss of miR-125b promotes HER2 signalling, and is associated with poor prognosis in patients with Luminal A tumours[138]. MiR-125a exerts also a crucial role in the regulation of apoptosis by silencing of HDAC5, upon stimulation of the RUNX3/p300 pathway, representing a novel anticancer strategy able to activate caspase 3/9^[139]. Indirectly, also miR-196 contributes to inhibit HER2 expression, by altering HOXB7 and HOXB7-ERα interaction. Nevertheless, miR-196 is down-regulated by MYC, which restores HOXB7 and promotes Luminal A breast cancer tumorigenesis and tamoxifen resistance^[140]. On the contrary, Jiang et al. demonstrated that miR-196a, upon stimulation by ER-α interaction, promotes growth of Luminal A breast cancer inhibiting SPRED1, a negative regulator of the RAS/RAF/MAPK signalling, indirectly activated by miR-196^[141].

3.6 THE MIR-182 AND MIR-96 MICRORNAS

A study by Yu et al. focuses on the pro-metastatic miR-182, which is associated with EMT, invasion, as well as distant metastasis formation. MiR-182 inhibits the expression of SMAD7, which is both a transcriptional target of TGFβ and a negative regulator of TGFβ signalling^[142]. Also, miR-96 modulates the proapoptotic FOXO1, a relevant target for precision therapies, and inspired the rational design of TargaprimiR-96^[143]. As a proof of concept, the development of a conjugate small molecule that selectively binds the oncogenic miR-96 hairpin precursor (RIBOTACs), is able to recruit a latent endogenous ribonuclease (RNase L) to FOXO1 transcript, inducing its cleavage. Functionally the silencing of miR-96 de-repressed FOXO1 and induced apoptosis exclusively in TNBC^[144]. Other articles highlight an opposite role for these two miRNAs. MiR-96 and miR-182 both target the 3'-UTR region of the PALLD gene. Down-modulation of Palladin transcript expression leads both to decreased migration and invasion of Luminal A breast tumour cells. However, when it is present rs1071738 SNP, a common functional variant of PALLD gene, at the miR-96/miR-182-binding site, the 3'UTR fails to bind the target microRNAs, compromising cell invasion, as verified in *in vitro* experiments^[145].

3.7 MIR29B AND MIR-29C

MiR-29b and miR-29c both target chaperone Hsp47, a modulator of the extracellular matrix (ECM) and promoter of BC development; their indirect regulation of ECM genes reduces collagen and fibronectin deposition^[146].

In addition, miR-29c targets TET2, thus inhibiting the metastatic phenotype and the genome instability induced by the conversion of 5-methylcitosine(5-mC) to 5 hydroxymethylcytosine (5-hmC). Nevertheless, in TNBC this condition is antagonized by the lymphoid specific helicase (LSH), which induces miR-29c silencing^[147]

Interestingly, miR-29b can act as both inhibitor and promoter of cell proliferation, in Luminal A and TNBC subtypes respectively, based on differential regulation of activation of NFkB and TP53 pathway, mediated by S100A7. In MCF7 cells, S100A7 inhibits NFKB signalling with a consequent upregulation of miR-29b that in turn targets CDC42 and PIK3R1 and indirectly activates TP53 leading to the activation of anti-proliferative pathways. In contrast, in MDA-MB-231 cells, miR-29b which has a lower expression than in MCF7 cells, is suppressed by NFkB with consequent repression of TP53 and promotion of metastasis dissemination^[148].

3.8 OTHER NON-CODING RNAS RELEVANT IN BREAST CANCER

In Figure 1 we showed all sub-networks, whose ncRNAs have been described in at least two different sources from literature.

One of these ncRNAs is the estrogen-inducible long non-coding NEAT1, which has been proposed to act as ceRNA and 'sponge' miR-204. MiR-204 inhibition in turn induced impaired cell proliferation and inhibition of apoptosis. These two processes were supported by the H19 lncRNA [149], to promote para-speckle formation under hypoxia condition, mediated by sequestration of HIF2A and F11 receptor (JAM1) [150]. NEAT1 was also involved in the promotion of invasion, EMT and metastasis dissemination in Luminal A cells by interfering with FOXN3/SIN3A interactions and leading to the repression of GATA3, a crucial regulator of EMT[151] .

Another miRNA, miR-27b negatively regulates the acquisition of drug resistance, and is able to induce tumour seeding, two critical properties of CSCs. These effects are mediated by the targeting of ENPP1 and by indirect prevention of the over-expression of ABCG2 transporter. This function was supported by anti-type II diabetes (T2D) drug metformin, that counteracted the generation of CSCs^[152]. MiR-27b was also shown to promote the Warburg effect, by inhibiting the PDHX with subsequent dysregulation of the levels of pyruvate, lactate and citrate that increase cell proliferation in the Luminal A and TNBC subtypes^[153].

MiR23b has also been subject of recent researches, and itself a notable ncRNA in BC. Its exosome-mediated delivery promoted by Docosahexaenoic acid, an antiangiogenesis compound, was able to suppress the pro-angiogenic targets PLAU and AMOTL1 in Luminal A and TNBC [154]. Furthermore, in ER-positive endocrine therapy resistant cells, miR-23b was involved in the reprogramming of aminoacid metabolism occurring in association with the down-regulation of SLC6A14 aminoacid transporter, the stimulation of autophagy and the import of aspartate and glutamate by SLC1A2 transporter^[155].

The lncRNA breast cancer anti-estrogen resistance 4 (BCAR4) is associated with advanced BC and metastasis. In response to CCL21 chemokine, BCAR4 binds SNIP1 and protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunit 10 (PNUTS) activating the non-canonical Hedgehog/GLI2 transcriptional program and promoting cell migration^[156]. It has been demonstrated that BCAR4 is also involved in the reprogramming of glucose metabolism mediated by YAP1 and favours the transcription of glycolysis promoters HK2 and PFKFB3 via Hedgehog-signalling. The activation of YAP1-BCAR4-glycolisis axis is linked with poor prognosis, and represents an interesting therapeutic target for locked nucleic acids (LNA) delivery, as shown by Zheng *et al.*[157]

In our review, miR-34a appears as the most discussed non-coding RNA, and several independent research groups all pointed it out as an oncosuppressor. MiR-34a, poorly-expressed in TNBC, revealed its anti-tumorigenic nature by direct targeting of c-SRC^[158], GFRA3^[159], and the MCTS1 re-initiation and release factor (MCT-1). Mir-34a also indirectly modulates IL-6, an interleukine associated with breast epithelial acini morphogenesis, and with EMT stimulation in TNBC^[160]. Consistently, miR-34a inhibits cancer stem cell properties and promotes doxorubicin sensitivity in MCF7 cells, by targeting NOTCH1. In MCF7 doxorubicin resistant (MCF7/ADR) cells, miR-34a is expressed at low level, possibly due to TP53 mutations[161]. Other effects promoted by miR-34a are the cell-cycle arrest and the apoptosis of TNBC by targeting tRNA^{, Met} and AGO2^[162]. Furthermore, miR-34a negatively regulates the EEF2K and FOXM1 proto-oncogenes, both associated with short-term patient survival^[163].

The tumour suppressor miR146a, (and its relative miR-146b) is up-regulated by FOXP3 and targets IRAK1 and TRAF6 causing NF-kB inactivation in the Luminal A subtype. The FOXP3/miR-146/NF-kB axis limits tumour growth and could be a valuable target for therapy^[164]. The role of miR-146a includes the reduction of fibronectin and opposing to the epithelial phenotype in TNBC subtype with a prometastatic activity supported via the oncosuppressor WWOX, that antagonizes MYC functions^[165].

3.9 DISCUSSION

The roles of non-coding RNAs in the establishment and evolution of breast cancer are still under scrutiny by many investigators currently active in the field. In this review we performed an unsupervised and large study of the recent literature in the last quinquennium (2014-2019). We used a data-driven approach in order to produce the most unbiased outcome. Orthogonally, we enforced a strict human based curation of each article selection by the PubMed queries. Only papers that clearly applied mechanistic approaches by using *in vitro* or *in vivo* methods were included in this review. Thus, we excluded, and did not report, papers with pure correlative analyses, which albeit revealing would not distinguish a causative action of the non-coding RNAs under scrutiny. All steps of our approach are synthesized in Fig. 3.6

Figure 3.6. Synthesis of data-approach used to build the network ncRNAs-target

CHAPTER 4: THE CURATED NETWORKS OF MIRNAS AND THEIR TARGETS IN COLON CANCER DRUG RESISTANCE

In our previous works, we dissected the relations between long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), or microRNAs (miRNAs), and drug resistance in various types of carcinomas^[166]; successively, we focused on non-coding RNAs and their targets in breast cancer^[95]. Here^[167], we merged these two approaches to systematically review the recent literature. Overall, our effort was aimed at the identification of the crucial central miRNAs and their targets in the pathways involved in the drug resistance of colon carcinoma. We restricted our study to 499 research articles listed in PubMed-NCBI and published after 2012 (Table 4.1).

Query for the article selection from Pubmed					
	of articles				
((("Colonic Neoplasms"[MeSH Terms] OR "colon carcinoma" OR "colon cancer" OR "colon neoplasm")	499				
OR "colonic cancer" OR "colorectal Neoplasms"[MeSH Terms] OR "colorectal tumor" OR "colorectal					
tumors" OR "colorectal cancer" OR "colorectal cancers" OR "colorectal carcinoma" OR "colorectal					
carcinomas")) AND (((microRNA* OR miRNA* or microRNAs OR miRNAs OR ("MicroRNAs"[nm]) AND					
["last 5 years"[PDat])))) AND ("Drug Resistance, Neoplasm"[MAJR] or 'drug resistance' or					
chemoresistance) Filters: from 2013 - 2021					

Table 4.1. Query composed by keywords and timing filter for the article selection from Pubmed.

The query we used for selection of the manuscripts on microRNA and drug resistance in colon cancer is reported in the Supplementary Information. Among those, we selected 102 research articles (not reviews or metagenomics studies) based solely on the journal impact factor (at least 5.0). We preferred the impact factor rather than the number of citations, since the latter is largely influenced by the publication age and might not be a fair criterium for papers published recently. Then, we carried out a fundamental task, that of human curation. This step allowed us to perform a quality control of the manuscripts to identify those describing validated and mechanistic models of interactions between miRNAs and protein targets. Thus, we excluded the miRNA/target associations when not validated by overexpression, silencing or genetic mutations. Finally, the manual curation allowed us to correctly standardize the gene naming, which so often diverges in the scientific literature. This final manual data standardization was necessary for the proper execution of the machine learning procedures and creation of networks. This procedure left us with a distilled set of 68 papers that we analyzed and whose results are included in this review. Cytoscape (v. 3.7.2) was used to create and visualize the networks describing the information obtained from the literature. With the aim of reporting robust findings, we start here by focusing on the miRNAs or drugs studied in at least two different scientific articles (Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1. The molecular networks of miRNAs and their targets in colon cancer drug resistance. Each network shows the miRNAs/targets (nodes), or drug resistances (edges) described in at least two articles. MiRNAs are identified with red, rounded squares and the targets with yellow circles. The connecting edges corresponds to the drug resistance (color-coding for the drugs is reported in the legend). We used continuous lines for pairwise (first order) interactions and dashed for secondary (higher order) ones. Flat arrows indicate repression, while pointed arrowheads indicate activation. The map size of the miRNAs (red squares), targets (yellow circles) and non-coding RNA upstream regulators (green triangle) depends on the node degree.

The coding genes' nomenclature was standardized by using the HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee (HGNC). In the network, we used a shape code to graphically highlight miRNAs (red square), their targets (yellow circle), miRNA upstream regulators (green triangle) and each type of drug (connection) with a specific color, as indicated in the legend of Figure 1. Each connecting edge corresponds to a single publication; thus, different lines of the same color indicate a different paper. To better visualize the most connected miRNAs, the node size is proportional to its degree (the number of links between a miRNA and its targets or vice versa); we assigned to lower degrees of value a smaller size. In the following paragraphs, we will describe the most prominent miRNA/target interactions within the context of drug resistance in colorectal cancer (CRC).

4.1 THE MIR-200/MIR-181/MIR-155 CTNNB1 BCL2 NETWORK

The members of the miR-200 family (miR-200a/b/c and miR-141) and miR-181a play a pivotal role in the multidrug resistance of colorectal carcinoma. These miRNAs were considered as suppressors of cancer growth and metastasis through the regulation of different molecular pathways. MiR-200c and miR-181a are the most-connected miRNAs participating in this network, and both inhibit catenin beta 1 (CTNNB1) expression, a key target associated with three different drug resistances (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2. MiR-200s/miR-181a and their targets in CRC drug resistance.

The miRNAs in the network are connected with a number of targets (direct or indirect) and are involved in the resistance to vincristine (VCR), irinotecan (CPT11), 5-fluorouracil (5-FU), oxaliplatin (L-OHP), trichostatin A (TSA) and cetuximab (CET). In detail, the overexpression of miR-200c leads to the direct suppression of c-Jun N-terminal kinase 2 (*JNK2*) and indirectly to that of *JUN*, ATP-binding cassette subfamily B member 1 (*ABCB1*) and matrix metallopeptidase 9 (*MMP9*), leading, in turn, to the overexpression of TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 1 (*TIMP1*) and *TIMP2* in HCT8 cells treated with VCR[168]. The ABCB1 molecular transporter is also an indirect target of miR-506, a negative regulator of CTNNB1 and cyclin D1 (*CCND1*), and promotes L-OHP sensitivity in colon cancer after forced expression^[169]. Juang *et al.* confirmed that miR-200c acted as promoter of CPT11 sensitivity in CRC cells after encapsulation in solid liposomes by suppressing the RAS/CTNNB1/ZEB pathway^[170]. Consistently, the loss of miR-200 and miR-141 were related to the overexpression of the zinc finger E-box-binding homeobox 1 (*ZEB1)* and snail family transcriptional repressor 2 (*SNAI2*) (targeted by miR-200a, miR-200b and miR-141) and twist family bHLH transcription factors (*TWIST*) (targeted by miR-200c and miR-141), all contributing to the epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) in 5- FU-resistant CRC[171]. Moon *et al.* investigated the direct correlation between the overexpression of miR-141 and the decrease of the tripartite motif containing 13 (*TRIM13*) expression in the 5-FU sensitivity of CRC and the consequent activation of apoptotic pathways[172]. Ren *et al.* focused their study on the antagonism between miR-141, which inhibited cancer stemness by the suppression of *CTNNB1*, and H19 lncRNA, which promoted cancer growth and L-OHP resistance acting as sponge for miR-141 $[173]$. Furthermore, miR-194 was reported to be 'sponged' by H19 lncRNA, albeit, as in most of these kinds of experiments, the stoichiometry was not reported; the restoration of the miR-194 levels led to the downregulation of sirtuin 1 (*SIRT1*), resulting in a decrease of H19/SIRT1 mediated autophagy and in an increase of 5-FU sensitivity^[174].

CTNN1B, one of the most connected proteins of this network, alongside BCL2, was also targeted by miR-181 and CRNDE lncRNA. The repression of miR-181 by CRNDE determined the higher expression of CTNNB1 and transcription factor 4 (*TCF4*) miR targets with a promotion of cancer cell growth, 5-FU and L-OHP resistance in CRC cells^[175]. MiR-181a also inhibited the 5-FU resistance directly targeting transcription factor 4 (*PLAG1*) and, indirectly, insulin-like growth factor 2 (*IGF2*) [176]. Furthermore, miR-181a cooperated with miR-199a and miR-30d (normally downregulated in colon cancer) to downregulate the endoplasmic reticulum chaperone heat shock protein family A (Hsp70) member 5 (*HSPA5*) and increase the TSA sensitivity in CRC cells^[177]. On the other hand, miR-199a, in addition to miR-375, is one of the miRNAs that strengthen the resistance to CET. In details, miR-199a and miR-375 silenced the common target PH domain and leucine-rich repeat protein phosphatase 1 (*PHLPP1*), leading to activation of the AKT pathway and increase in CET resistance^[178]. The involvement of miR-199a is the opposite for CET and TSA, since it promotes a resistance to the former (by targeting *PHLPP1* together with miR-375) while it inhibits that to the latter (by targeting *HSPA5* with miR-181a and miR-30d).

The miR-200c/*ZEB1* and miR-200c/*ABCB1* relations are confirmed in two different papers, with the first couple involved in 5-FU resistance^[170, 171] and the second one involved directly with CPT11 and indirectly with VCR[168, 170]. Furthermore, the influence of CTNNB1 on L-OHP is confirmed by two different papers, although via different miRNAs: miR-141 or miR-181a[173, 175]. Finally, *PHLPP1*, *HSPA5* and *CTNN1B* are first-order targets of several miRNA families in the context of drugs resistance. The lower and left portions of this network have genes and miRNAs that likely arise from the tumor microenvironment and are not expressed in the cancer cells themselves. MiR-204 and miR-129, acting as onco-suppressors, directly affect 5-FU resistance by targeting *BCL2*, an antiapoptotic oncoprotein, which was also downregulated by miR-204/miR-155 in L-OHP resistance. MiR-204 and miR-155 were both downregulated in tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs), due to the inhibitory role of the activated interleukin 6 (IL6)/signal transducer and activator of the transcription 3 (STAT3) pathway, with a consequent upregulation of CCAAT enhancer-binding protein beta (*CEBPB*), IL6 receptor (*IL6R*), *ABCB1* (by miR-155), *RAB22A* (by miR-204) and the shared *BCL2* target^[179]. This molecular mechanism, possibly involving exosomes and validated by a coculture of TAMs and CRC cells *in vitro*, conferred L-OHP and 5-FU resistance to CRCs. The miR-204 activity on RAB22A, a member of the RAS oncogene family, and the promotion of chemosensitivity after miRNA's ectopic expression was confirmed in L-OHP-resistant CRCs^[180]. The resistance to 5-FU was also associated with a low expression of miR-129. After an ectopic expression of miR-129 and the consequent targeting of *BCL2*, CRC apoptosis and 5-FU sensitivity were, in fact, promoted^[181]. Furthermore, miR-342 was competitively bound by SCARNA2, a non-coding RNA highly expressed in CRC tissues, thus leading to a secondary upregulation of both the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and BCL2 oncoproteins and to a sustained 5-FU resistance^[182]. BCL2 is one of the mostconnected proteins (together with CTNNB1) and one of the most affected by miRNA activity, as reported by a number of studies on 5-FU resistance. Nevertheless, the implications of miR-204/RAB22A on the resistance to L-OHP were reported by two independent research groups^[179, 180]. To understand the functional involvement of the genes in this network, we looked for the mostrepresented cellular pathways using Fisher's exact test (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. The cellular pathways over-represented by the genes included in the network composed by miR-200s/miR-181a and their targets in CRC drug resistance.

The false detection rate was additionally computed to control for multiple testing^[183]. As expected, RAS and PI3K are among the most-represented pathways (FDR <0.05), although the signaling by the cholecystokinin (CCK) receptor is the one spanning the most members $(n = 7)$ in the network (fold enrichment of 29.9 and FDR 5.6×10^{-7}). In both gastric and colon cancer cells transfected with the cholecystokinin 2 receptor (*CCK2R*), gastrin has been shown to enhance cyclooxygenase-2 (*COX-2*) gene expression. This key enzyme is known to play an important role in inflammation and carcinogenesis. COX-2 has been involved in hyperproliferation, transformation, invasion, and angiogenesis. In CRC, the extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) and PI3-kinase pathways are also involved in gastrin-induced COX-2 expression^[184].

4.2 THE TP53/MIR-34A NETWORK

In the second network we describe, miR-34a and TP53 are, respectively, the miRNA and the protein node with the highest degree. MiR-34a was involved in the regulation of resistance to 5-FU and cisplatin (CDDP) (Figure 4.3).

Figure 4.3. The miR-34a/TP53 network.

The loss of miR-34a expression by CpG methylation or mutation in the *TP53* gene can determine an increase of the colony stimulating factor 1 receptor (*CSF1R*), a direct target of miR-34a and a mediator of EMT, metastasis and 5-FU in CRC^[183]. CSF1R was also positively regulated by SNAIL and STAT3 levels, which negatively regulate the miR-34a. The restoration of the miR-34a levels in 5-FUresistant CRC through the treatment with regorafenib induced the decrease of *WNT1* and, indirectly, of *MYC* and *NOTCH1* expression, leading to an inhibition of the stemness[185]. MiR-34a action was also indirectly inhibited by miR-106b and miR-17, two miRNAs that promoted both cell proliferation and CDDP resistance by silencing TRIM8 and by the indirect regulation of MYCN signaling^[186]. MYC and *TP53* are also two of the direct targets of miR-149 involved, respectively, in L-OHP and 5-FU action. The replacement of miR-149, normally suppressed by SNAIL2 in colon carcinoma, was associated with an inhibition of EMT and 5-FU chemoresistance upon the targeting of *MYC* and nanog homeobox (*NANOG)* [187] and with a reduction in glucose metabolism after pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 2 (PDK2) inhibition^[188]. MiR-149 was also implicated in the L-OHP resistance regulated by a LINC00460 feedback loop in p53-mutated CRC cells (SW480/OxR), which, in turn, promoted the suppression of miR-149 and miR-150 and, thus, the overexpression of *TP53*[189]. Let-7b/f were proposed as tumor suppressor miRNAs, due to their negative regulation of the cell division cycle 34 (*CDC34*) and high mobility group AT-hook 2 (HMGA2) oncogenes^[190]. In this article, it was demonstrated that the levels of both let-7b and let-7f were upregulated by doxorubicin (DOXO) in a wildtype p53-dependent fashion, which led to the slowing of cancer cell proliferation. The Snail-dependent upregulation of miR-146a and the silencing of the NUMB endocytic adaptor protein (*NUMB*) were associated with asymmetrical cell division in colorectal CSCs and the promotion of resistance to CET^[191]. The downregulation of *NUMB* by miR-142 was also correlated with DOXO resistance in CRC cells. The miRNA-induced activation of Notch signaling determined an

increase in the stemness and drug resistance^[192]. It is interesting to note the bivalent position of miR-34a in two different contexts, the resistance to CDDP and 5-FU. MiR-34a can act as an inhibitor of *CSF1R*, *WNT1*, *MYC* and *NOTCH1* in 5- FU-resistant cells and promotes chemosensitivity, while it is downregulated by miR-106b and miR-17, which promote CDDP resistance. MiR-637 increased the L-OHP sensitivity by repressing *STAT3*, normally highly expressed in colon cancer. The circular RNA encoded by the homeodomain-interacting protein kinase 3 gene (circHIPK3) can compete with miR-637 in regulating cell viability, apoptosis and drug resistance^[193]. *TP53* is thus inhibited by four miRNAs and interacts with different drug resistances discussed in two distinct articles^[189, 194]. The involvement of MYC in 5-FU resistance was reported by two different articles via different mechanisms[185, 187]. The miR-149/5-FU relation was also independently validated^[187, 188], although, again, there was no agreement about the involved protein targets. Notch and WNT signaling are over-represented here, together with angiogenesis (FDR <0.05) (Table 4.3).

	Fold						
PANTHER Pathways	observed	expected		Enrichment $+/-$	raw P value FDR		
Notch signaling pathway			0.03	$72.01+$	3.74E-04	1.56E-02	
p53 pathway feedback loops 2			0.03	$62.13+$	4.97E-04	1.66E-02	
Interleukin signaling pathway			0.05	$36.84 +$	1.36E-03	3.80E-02	
Angiogenesis		3	0.11	$27.16+$	1.70E-04	9.46E-03	
Wnt signaling pathway			0.2	$19.99 +$	3.70E-05	6.17E-03	

Table 4.3. The Pathways over-represented by the genes included in the miR-34a/TP53 network.

4.3 THE MIR-514B AND MIR128 ACTIVITIES CONVERGE ON CDH1

MiR-514 and miR-128, as well as miR-340, regulate the proteins involved in CDDP, CPT11 and L-OHP resistance in colon cancer (Figure 4.4).

Figure 4.4. The miR-514b and miR128 microRNA niches are connected by CDH1.

Ren *et al.* investigated the antagonist effects of the miR-514b-5p and miR-514b-3p products, respectively, a promoter and suppressor of metastasis, EMT and CPT11/CDDP resistance, by regulating cadherin 1 (*CDH1)* and claudin 1 (*CLDN)*, the targets of miR-514b-5p, frizzled class receptor 4 (*FZD4*) and netrin 1 (*NTN1*), the targets of miR-514-5b-3p (previously shown in Figure 4.1)^[195]. On the other hand, miR-128 was associated with L-OHP sensitivity by its indirect enhancing of *CDH1* expression and the downregulation of multidrug resistance-associated protein 5 (*MRP5*) and the *BMI1* Polycomb Ring Finger proto-oncogene. This activity was reported to also be present in the exosomes secreted by L-OHPresistant cell lines^[196]. BMI1 is a promoter of stemness traits of cancer cells and represents a key mutual target linking miR-128 and miR-340, both suppressors of tumorigenesis in CRC. In particular, miR-340 appeared to be sponged by circ_001680, leading to an upregulation of *BMI1* and to an increase of both the cancer stem cell (CSC) population and CPT11 resistance^[197]. Among the key factors of this network, CDH1, an important onco-suppressor, was confirmed by two research groups. In fact, *CDH1* was downregulated by miR-514, promoting CPT11 and CDDP resistance, while it was indirectly upregulated by miR-128, which contrasted the oxaliplatin resistance. In addition, BMI was suppressed by either miR-340 or miR-128 to sensitize CRC cells, respectively, to C and to L-OHP treatments.

4.4 SMALLER MIRNA NETWORKS INVOLVED IN CRC DRUG RESISTANCE

Some smaller networks reported in Figure 4.1 were not discussed above, but in our opinion, they should be carefully noted. We list and discuss them briefly in the following paragraphs.

MiR-195. The role of miR-195 in drug resistance, depicted in Figure 4.1, was the object of divergent conclusions. Kim *et al*. sustained that miR-195-5p promotes 5- FU resistance by suppressing the WEE1 G2 checkpoint kinase (*WEE1)* and checkpoint kinase 1 (*CHK1*) in CRC[198]. Jin *et al*. affirmed that miR-195-5p enhanced 5-FU sensitivity and apoptosis, involving the suppression of mechanisms induced downstream by NOTCH2 and the recombination signalbinding protein for immunoglobulin kappa J region (*RBPJ*) [199]. Qu *et al.* concorded with the latter hypothesis of miR-195 as promoter of CRC chemosensitivity; in particular, they investigated the relation between the suppression of BCL2-like 2 (BCL2L2) by miR-195 and the sensitivity to DOXO^[200].

MiR-194. This miRNA was reported to be downregulated by HMGA2 as a consequence of *VAPA* suppression by miR-194, thus leading to the sensitization of cancer cells to CPT11 and L-OHP^[201].

MiR-15b. The overexpression of miR-15b determined the proapoptotic and antiproliferative effects and is associated with a major sensitivity to 5-FU treatment by suppressing either the Pim-1 proto-oncogene, serine/threonine kinase (PIM1)^[202] or doublecortin-like kinase 1 (DCLK1)^[203].

4.5 UNCONFIRMED ASSOCIATIONS OF MIRNAS WITH DRUG RESISTANCE IN CRC

The three networks we discussed above were those including 'validated' miRNA/drug or miRNA/target interactions, i.e., those described by at least two unrelated research teams. Nonetheless, Figure 4.1 also contains interactions that have not been independently confirmed. We describe below these findings, albeit with a cautionary note, grouping them by drug.

5-Fluorouracil resistance. MiR-372/373 acted as promoters of stemness and 5-FU resistance in CRC cells by silencing the genes implicated in the differentiation process, such as the speckle-type BTB/POZ protein (*SPOP*), SET domain containing 7, histone lysine methyltransferase (*SETD7*) and vitamin D receptor (*VDR*) targets[204]. MiR-377 downregulated the Wnt/β-catenin pathway by targeting the X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis (*XIAP*) and *ZEB2*, with a positive effect on apoptosis and 5-FU chemosensitivity^[205]. MiR-587 was considered as a 5-FU antagonist by repressing the protein phosphatase 2 scaffold subunit A beta (*PPP2R1B*) with an increased *XIAP* expression and AKT pathway activity[206]. This effect was reversed by the overexpression of *PPP2R1B* associated with a promotion of apoptosis. MiR-501 was downregulated by the KH-type splicing regulatory protein (*KHSRP*), with a consequent upregulation of its ERBB receptor feedback inhibitor 2 (*ERRFI2*) target, thus determining the 5-FU cell resistance and CRC proliferation^[207]. Both effects were contrasted by either *ERRFI2* knockdown or miR-501 overexpression. MiR-199b was commonly downregulated in colon cancer, while the miR target SET nuclear proto-oncogene (*SET*) was highly expressed and correlated to 5-FU resistance in advanced rectal cancer $(LARC)^{[208]}$. The ectopic expression of miR-199b determined the 5-FU sensitivity and represented a frontier to prevent drug resistance. MiR-1290 expression was highly detectable in deficient mismatch repair (dMMR) colon cancer and was associated with 5-FU resistance^[209]. The silencing of miR-1290 determined an upregulation of its direct target mutS homolog 2 (*MSH2*) and a relative 5-FU sensitivity in CRC cells. Liu *et al.* demonstrated that LINC01296 downregulates miR-26a and indirectly upregulates the polypeptide N-acetylgalactosaminyl transferase 3 (*GALNT3*) miR target, thus promoting the PI3K/AKT pathway by the catalysis of mucin 1 (MUC1) and 5-FU resistance^[210]. Tumor suppressor miR-22 was related to autophagy inhibition and a proapoptotic effect that led to a promoted 5-FU sensitivity^[211]. From a molecular point of view, miR-22 suppressed the BTG antiproliferation factor 1 (*BTG1*) target and, indirectly, thymidylate synthetase (*TYMS*) and upregulated sequestosome 1 (*SQSTM1*), a downstream target.

Irinotecan resistance. Sun *et al.* investigated the promoting effect of calcitriol on the miR-627 expression and demonstrated a relation between the suppression of its target, cytochrome P450 family 3 subfamily A member 4 (*CYP3A4*), and the CPT11 sensitivity in CRC cells with a relative inhibition of cell growth and an increase of apoptosis^[212]. The loss of miR-4454 expression was correlated with the activation of the G protein nucleolar 3-like (GNL3L)/NFKB pathway, resulting in a resistance to CPT11^[213]. The overexpression of miR-4454 restored GNL3L silencing and reduced chemoresistance and cancer aggression *in vitro*.

Cetuximab resistance. MiR-100 and miR-125b promoted CET resistance by suppressing the negative modulators of Wnt signaling, such as dickkopf WNT signaling pathway inhibitor (*DKK1*), *DKK3* (miR-100 targets) and APC regulator of WNT signaling pathway 2 (*APC2*), GATA-binding protein 6 (*GATA6*), ring finger protein 43 (RNF43) and zinc and ring finger 3 (ZNRF3) (miR-125b targets)^[214]. MiR-302a was generally downregulated in colon cancer; its overexpression directly inhibits metastasis and CET resistance by silencing nuclear factor I B (NFIB) and CD44 targets^[215].

Doxorubicin resistance. MiR-135b acted as promoter of DOXO resistance and antiapoptotic programs by directly targeting the tumor suppressor kinase 2 (*LATS2*) [216]. These results were also confirmed in a xenograft model.

Oxaliplatin resistance. LATS2 was silenced by miR-31, itself upregulated by forkhead box C1 (*FOXC1*) in L-OHP-resistant cells^[217]. MiR-107 was also a promoter of L-OHP resistance by suppressing calcium-binding protein 39 (*CAB39*) and activating the protein kinase AMP-activated (AMPK) mTOR pathway; these events could be reversed by dichloroacetate, which promoted the chemosensitivity^[218]. An additional study found that high levels of miR-153, detected in 21 (out of 30) colorectal cancer patients, correlated with L-OHP resistance, as well as a sustained cellular proliferation^[219]. Mir-19b acted as oncomiRNA and as a promoter of L-OHP resistance by targeting SMAD family member 4 (*SMAD4*); this link was firstly identified by bioinformatics and later confirmed *in vitro*[220]. MiR-203 was also correlated with the enhancement of L-OHP resistance; a high expression of miR-203 was present in three colorectal cell lines where the ATM protein kinase was its direct target^[221]. MiR-21 can play a pro-metastatic role and promote L-OHP resistance in CRC cells. In fact, Bullock *et al.* demonstrated that an ectopic expression of miR-21 increased the invasiveness by way of an indirect upregulation of matrix metallopeptidase 2 (*MMP2*), which was, in turn, negatively regulated by the reversion-inducing cysteine-rich protein with kazal motifs ($RECK$) miR-21 target^[222]. On the contrary, miR-27b, detected at low levels in L-OHP-resistant CRC cells due to c-MYC binding in the promoter of the miR-27B gene, was involved in chemosensitivity by repressing the autophagy-related 10 (*ATG10*) target, as well in the negative regulation of autophagy[223]. Rasmussen *et al.* investigated another key factor in the poor outcome of colon cancer patient, the downregulation of mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 6 (*MAP2K6)* by miR-625 and the reduction of p38 signaling linked to the evasion from apoptosis and to L-OHP resistance^[224]. A last miRNA involved in the promotion of L-OHP resistance was miR-122, which also activated glycolysis by an indirect upregulation of the pyruvate kinase M1/2 (*PKM2*) miR target and was proposed as a competitive 'sponged effect' by a circular RNA, hsa_circ_0005963^[225].

5-FU and Cisplatin resistance (Multidrug). A lower expression of miR-223 was detected in colon cancer cells presenting mutated TP53. The ectopic expression of miR-223 in p53-mutant CRCs promoted 5-FU and CDDP sensitivity by targeting stathmin 1 (*STMN1*) and enhanced apoptosis^[226]. When overexpressed, miR-497 targeted the 3'UTR site of the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (*IGF1R*) oncogene and determined an increase in cell death and 5-FU and CDDP sensitivity[227]. Gu *et al.* investigated a possible tumor suppressor role for miR-532, found to be downregulated in colorectal adenoma. Its ectopic expression determined a decrease of CRC aggressiveness *in vitro* and of a resistance to 5-FU and CDDP by suppressing the ETS proto-oncogene 1 transcription factor (*ETS1*)/transglutaminase 1 (*TGM1*) axis and the Wnt/β-catenin pathways[228] .

5-FU and L-OHP resistance (Multidrug). The expression of miR-4802 and miR-18a was indirectly repressed by Fusobacterium (F.) *nucleatum*, a component of the gut microbiota highly represented in drug-resistant colon cancer patients, resulting in the upregulation of autophagy-related 7 (*ATG7*) and unc-51-like autophagy activating kinase 1 (*ULK1*) targets, two activators of autophagy, as well as a resistance to 5-FU and L-OHP[229]. MiR-92a, secreted by cancer-associated fibroblasts in exosomes, was positively correlated with the tumorigenesis of colon cancer. It promoted stemness, metastasis, 5-FU and L-OHP resistance and inhibited mitochondrial apoptosis mediators, such as F-box and WD repeat domain containing 7 (*FBXW7*) and the modulator of apoptosis 1 (*MOAP1*) [230] .

Finally, the non-validated interactions for drugs that have not been the object of more than one study and for this reason not included in the networks of Figure 4.1 are listed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. List of miRNA target interactions and relative drugs not included in the Figure 4.1 networks.

4.6 DRUG-CENTRIC NETWORK AND CLUSTERS OF MIRNA/TARGETS INTERACTIONS IN CRC

In this paper, we have hitherto discussed the miRNAs and their interactions, either the first or higher order, to understand the mechanisms underlying various types of chemoresistance in CRC. Protein targets were included in the network and provided the connections of non-coding RNAs with the molecular effectors in apoptosis, cell proliferation and other major cellular processes of CRC. In some of these networks, members of the other classes of non-coding RNAs, such as lncRNAs or circular RNAs, also participated. At this stage, we wished to dig further into the intricate web of gene networks by using a different point of view, namely that of an all-in drug interaction. We obtained such a view by considering the drug nodes rather than, as above, edges. The resulting network is quite complex, and we report it integrally in Figure 4.5, highlighting the most connected drug

resistance (green rhombuses) and their relations with the miRNAs (red squares) and miRNA targets (yellow circles) in CRC.

Figure 4.5. Network of miRNAs and their targets connected to the drugs discussed in our review. In the network we included miRNAs (red rectangle), their target (yellow circle) and miRNA regulators (sky-blue triangle) connected to the drug resistances. The map node size was dependent to degree

The upstream regulators of miRNAs are indicated as sky-blue triangles. The map node size was proportional to the node's degree. Since this drug-centric network is highly connected, unlike the one of Figure 4.1, we looked for embedded clusters, using a community analysis, implemented by the GLay plugin in Cytoscape. Figure 4.5 shows the six major clusters identified within the drug-centric network. The largest cluster, on the top left, includes the miRNAs and proteins regulating the resistance to 5-FU: miR-155, miR-342 and miR-204 are the miRNAs with the highest degrees, while BCL2 and ABCB1 are the most prominent among proteins. In the L-OHP cluster miR-92, miR-181a and miR-506 are the most connected, and CTNNB1 is the protein with the highest degree. While, in the previous two clusters, there was only one drug, CPT11 and VCR share together another cluster, with EMT gene representation (miR-200c/miR141 and ZEB1/SNAI2 and VIM). DOXO, axitinib, sorafenib and nutlin are all in another cluster, which comprises miR-17, miR-106b, let-7b/f, miR-34a and miR-146a, alongside TP53, TRIM8, MYCN and CDC34. The biological process for the seven genes in this cluster is the 'positive regulation of cell death' (FDR = 9.2 E-3) as calculated using the PANTHER Overrepresentation Test. The CET and TSA cluster includes miR-125b and miR-199a and AKT1 as a protein target. The CET/TSA cluster corresponds to Wnt signaling

in the GO biological process (FDR = 1.2xE-4). CDDP spans miR-514 and miR-532, and the GO analysis points to gland development and other processes involved in cell differentiation.

Figure 4.6. Clusters of miRNAs/targets/upstream regulators connected to the moststudied drugs in the treatment of CRC. Each subnetwork represents a separate cluster of the major drug-centric network (Figure 4.5). We included miRNAs (red square), their targets (yellow circle) and miRNA and target upstream regulators (sky-blue triangle) connected to the most-studied drug resistances (green rhombus). The map node size was dependent on the nodes' degree. To build the network, we arbitrarily linked the protein targets or the ncRNA regulator with the drug and the miRNAs to either their targets or ncRNA regulator. The edges here are undirected and, thus, represent associations. Drug abbreviations: 5-FU, 5-fluorouracil; L-OHP, oxaliplatin; CPT11, irinotecan; CET, cetuximab, CDDP: cisplatin.

4.7 DISCUSSION

Our data-driven and machine learning-assisted review distilled some well-defined genetic networks involved in the drug resistance of CRC. The largest miRNA network in CRC drug resistance spanned miR-200s/miR-181a, among others, and was implicated in the action of six different anticancer treatments (Figure 4.2). In this network, CTNNB1 plays a pivotal role, and it is at the interface of two miRNA subnetworks. CTNNB1 is part of a complex of proteins forming adherens junctions, which are important for the establishment and maintenance of epithelial cell layers by regulating cell growth and adhesion between adjacent cells^[239]. *CTNNB1* is altered in 4.81% of colorectal carcinoma patients mutations, which are commonly homo- or hemizygous, indicating a higher threshold of CTNNB1 stabilization to be required for transformation in the colon as compared to extracolonic sites^[240]. Moreover, different mutational hotspots in *CTNNB1* for MSI-H and MSS CRCs suggest different effects on CTNNB1 stabilization. Reduced Ecadherin may also contribute to higher levels of transcriptionally active CTNNB1,

and it is not directly linked to the *CTNNB1* mutational status. Another target shared by both miR-181a and miR-200s is ABCB1, a membrane transport involved in multidrug resistance. ABCB1 links the larger portion of this network to the miR-155 lobe. MiR-155 is expressed both in CRC cells and in the tumor immune infiltrates, with the presence of CEBPB pointing to tumor-associated macrophages as additional actors in drug resistance. The potency of miR-155 indirectly regulates IL6R, which also suggests the inclusion of granulocytes in the relevant immune cells. Finally, there is a higher-order downregulation of the *BCL2* and *EGFR* oncogenes by both miR-155 and miR-342. The molecular mechanisms underlying multiple drug resistance are revealed here as crossing different types of cells and some of them appearing to be exosome-mediated.

Another network that stands out, albeit a smaller one, is highly concentrated around miR-34a^[241] and comprises heavy-weight cancer genes, namely TP53 and MYC, together with some other outstanding oncoproteins, such as MYCN, NOTCH1, WNT1, CSF1R, CDC34 and the stem cell regulator NANOG (Figure 4.3). The notorious onco-miR-17, which is transcribed by $MYC^{[241]}$, seems to have an opposite influence when compared to miR-34a. This small network has been reported in the resistance to five different cancer drugs.

A small number of microRNAs and proteins in the networks and clusters that we defined through our work are critically involved in major anticancer treatments for colon cancer. In particular, the family of miR-200, miR-34a, miR-155 and miR-17 appear among the key microRNAs. Thus, the regulation of these miRNAs and their downstream targets or effectors might help to interfere with several drug resistance mechanisms in CRC. As evidenced by our study, few miRNAs seem to have pleiotropic effects on different anticancer drugs. These miRNAs and their partners might also be used in predictive hybrid coding/non-coding gene signatures to address patients to the most effective therapy.

CONCLUSION

Summarizing these three years of studies we were able to prove our hypotheses identifying a sizeable group of circular RNAs that have the potential to generate novel protein components in the cellular circuitry. We also demonstrated that T-UCRs sustain cell cycle modulation in two cell line models of breast cancer, in particular uc.183, uc.110, and uc.84 are mutually exclusive of miR-221, and seem to be components of alternative cell cycle circuits. We have further unveiled some of the most important networks embracing ncRNA/target interactions, and described their involvement in breast development and in colon cancer drugresistance.

FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

-Whether the circRNAs might constitute a core of more stable mRNA forms, be mass regulated by somatic mutations in the splicing machinery genes, and really impact in some key cancer pathways remains to be experimentally determined. Certainly, this work can represent an hint for a deep investigation in *in vitro* and *in vivo* models and a new frontier for clinical applications.

-T-UCRs as well as circRNAs were considered as "dark genome" elements. In fact, the role of this class of ncRNAs is under scrutiny. With our data-mining study and *in vitro* experiments we demonstrated the influence of three T-UCRs in cell cycle circuitry and in the most dysregulated pathways in breast cancer cell lines. Consistently such a combined approach can be relevant to investigate on the potential role of these transcriptomics regulators in other cancer types.

-Our data-driven and machine learning-assisted review can be a useful and flexible strategy to synthesize the fragmented information about molecular relations, from literature. Such a systematic approach can help to quickly filter the eligible articles and to create a network composed by the molecular connections involved in different type of disease.

ABBREVIATIONS

BC: Breast cancer; BIM: BCL2 like 11; BLBC: Basal like breast cancer; BRK: Protein tyrosine kinase 6; CDDP: cisplatin; ceRNA: Competing endogenous RNA; CET: cetuximab; circRNA: Circular RNA; CPT11: irinotecan; CRC: colorectal cancer; CSCs: Cancer stem cells; DOXO: doxorubicin; EMT: Epithelial mesenchymal transition; ER: Estrogen receptor; ETR: Endocrine therapy resistant; EV: Exosomal vesicles; HBXIP: Late endosomal/lysosomal adaptorMAPK and MTOR activator 5; IDC: Invasive ductal carcinoma; IMP1: Insulin-like growth factor 2 messenger RNA binding protein; JAM1: F11 receptor; LINCRNA:Large intergenic non-coding RNAs; L-OHP: oxaliplatin; LN1:Laminin111; lncRNA:Long noncoding RNAs; LSD1:Lysine demethylase 1A; LSH:Helicase lymphoid specific; MCT-1:MCTS1 re-initiation and release factor; miR:Microrna; ncRNA:Non-coding RNA; nSMase:Sphingomyelin phosphodiesterase 2; ORF: open reading frame; PIP3:Phosphatidylinositol-3,4,5-trisphosphate dependent Rac exchange factor; PNUTS:Protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunit 10; RNA:Ribonucleic acid; SAH:Acyl-CoA synthetase medium chain family member 3; SAHH:Adenosylhomocysteinase; SCA1:Ataxin 1; SLUG:Snail family transcriptional repressor 2; SNP:Single nucleotide polymorphism; T-UCR:transcribed ultra-conserved region; TNBC:Triple negative breast cancer; TSA: trichostatin A; UBC13:Ubiquitin conjugating enzyme E2 N; UCR: ultraconserved region; VCR: vincristine; 5-FU: 5-fluorouracil

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