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Mechanismy rezistence a metabolismus železa u nádorových kmenových buněk

Mechanisms of resistance and iron metabolism in cancer stem cells

Doctoral thesis

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Praha, 2018

Statement of originality

I declare that I wrote the thesis independently and that I stated all the information sources and literature. This work or a substantial part of it was not presented to obtain another academic degree or equivalent.

In Prague, October 2018

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I further declare that I have truthfully stated my contribution to the works published with the collective authorship in the chapter 5. “Results“.

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Abstract (EN)

Analogously to normal stem cells within the tissues, cancer stem cells (CSCs) have been proposed to be responsible for maintenance and growth of tumours. CSCs represent a small fraction of cells within the tumour, which is characterised by self-renewal capacity and ability to give rise to a tumour when grafted into immunocompromised mice. Cells with increased stemness properties are believed to be responsible for tumour resistance, metastases formation and relapse after tumour treatment.

The first part of this work concentrates on resistance of the tumours, which is often associated with increased expression of ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters pumping chemotherapeutics out of the cells. For the purposes of this study, we utilized an *in vitro* model of CSCs, based on cultivation of cells as 3D “spheres”. Expression profiling demonstrates that our model of CSCs derived from breast and prostate cancer cell lines express higher mRNA level of ABC transporters, particularly *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCB10*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* and *ABCG2* among the cell lines tested. The protein level of ABC transporters tested in breast CSCs showed higher expression of ABCB8, ABCC1, ABCC2, ABCC10 and ABCG2 but downregulation of ABCB10 and ABCF2 proteins. Consistently, T47D and MCF7 spheres show resistance to daunorubicin and doxorubicin and interestingly, higher sensitivity to ABCC1 and ABCG2 inhibitors. These results suggest that ABC transporters may play an important role in maintenance of CSC phenotype unrelated to drug efflux.

The transition from oestrogen dependent to oestrogen independent tumour growth in breast cancer is associated with loss of oestrogen receptor α (ER α) and is connected with worse prognosis. This process might be regulated by microRNAs, 22 nucleotides long, single stranded, non-coding RNAs that negatively regulate gene expression by binding to mRNA, resulting in translation inhibition and mRNA degradation. We found that oncogenic microRNA-301a-3p (miR-301a-3p) is highly elevated in our *in vitro* model of breast CSCs, which show a decrease in ER signalling. We demonstrated that miR-301a-3p negatively regulates ER signalling by direct repression of ER α mRNA translation. High miR-301a-3p expression decreases the sensitivity of oestrogen dependent MCF7 cells to 17- β oestradiol

and similarly inhibits growth of the tumour derived from this cell line in nude mice. Yet, the resulting tumours show significantly increased expression of genes related to CSCs and epithelial to mesenchymal transition suggesting for enrichment of CSCs population. Moreover, miR-301a-3p expression negatively correlates with *ESR1* level in biopsies from breast cancer patients. Thus, miR-301a-3p may serve as a prognostic marker of poor patient prognosis, oestrogen independency and resistance to anti-oestrogenic drugs.

The last part of this work is focused on metabolism of iron in CSCs. Iron is indispensable micronutrient required as a cofactor for normal function of a plethora of proteins involved in cellular respiration, Krebs cycle, redox reactions as well as enzymes necessary for DNA replication and repair. Not surprisingly, deregulation of iron metabolism leads to many pathological situations including cancer. We show that MCF7 spheres exhibit higher labile iron pool, higher iron uptake with predominant mitochondrial iron accumulation and are more susceptible to iron chelation. MCF7 spheres also show activation of IRP/IRE system, explaining higher iron uptake and decrease in iron storage. Activity of iron sulphur cluster (ISC) containing enzymes in MCF7 spheres is lower suggesting for disruption of ISC machinery. Further, MCF7 spheres show higher oxidative environment reflected by higher level of reactive oxygen species and lower level of reduced glutathione. Gene expression profiling of CSCs derived from breast and prostate cell lines identified specific gene signature related to iron metabolism consisting of genes related to iron uptake (*CYBRDI*, *TFRC*), iron sensing and iron regulation (*ACO1*, *IREB1*), mitochondrial haem and ISC synthesis (*ABCB10*, *GLRX5*), hypoxia response (*EPAS1*, *QSOX1*), iron export and iron export regulation (*HEPH*, *HFE*), suggesting for profound changes in iron metabolism. Moreover, principal component analysis based on this signature is able to distinguish CSC from non-CSC population *in vitro*. Our findings show critical changes in iron metabolism related to CSC phenotype.

Altogether, our results point to a critical role of CSCs in tumour biology, highlighting differences between normal cancer cells and CSCs that could be potentially used for cancer diagnostics and therapy.

Abstract (CZ)

Rakovinné kmenové buňky (RKB), stejně jako normální kmenové buňky v tkáních, zodpovídají za zachování a růst nádorů. RKB představují malou frakci buněk uvnitř nádoru, která je charakteristická vlastní obnovovací kapacitou a schopností vyvolat nádor v myších s nefunkčním imunitním systémem. U buněk se zvýšenými kmenovými vlastnostmi se předpokládá, že jsou odpovědné za rezistenci nádorů k léčbě, tvorbu metastáz a návrat nádorového onemocnění.

První část této práce se zabývá rezistencí nádorů, která je často spojena se zvýšenou expresí „ATP-binding cassette” (ABC) transportérů pumpujících chemoterapeutikum ven z buněk. Pro účely této studie jsme použili *in vitro* model RKB založený na kultivaci buněk jako tzv. 3D "sféry". Expresní profil ukazuje, že náš model RKB odvozený z buněčných linií rakoviny prsu a prostaty exprimuje celkově vyšší hladinu ABC transportérů, zejména *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCB10*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* a *ABCG2*. Analýza proteinové hladiny ABC transportérů v RKB prsu pak ukázala vyšší expresi transportérů *ABCB8*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC10* a *ABCG2* a naopak snížení hladiny proteinů *ABCB10* a *ABCF2*. V souladu s těmito daty, sféry připravené z buněčných linií T47D a MCF7 vykazují rezistenci k daunorubicinu a doxorubicinu, a zajímavě také vyšší citlivost k inhibitorům transportérů *ABCC1* a *ABCG2*. Tyto výsledky naznačují, že ABC transportéry mohou hrát důležitou roli při udržování fenotypu RKB, jež nesouvisí s transportem léčiv.

Nádory rostoucí nezávisle na přítomnosti estrogenu často ztratí estrogenový receptor α (ER α), což je spojeno s horší prognózou pacientek. Tento proces může být regulován pomocí mikroRNA, 22 nukleotidů dlouhých, jednořetězcových, nekódujících RNA, které negativně regulují genovou expresi vazbou na mRNA, což vede k inhibici translace mRNA a její degradaci. Dále jsme zjistili, že onkogenní microRNA-301a-3p (miR-301a-3p) je vysoce zvýšená v našem modelu prsních RKB, které vykazují pokles ER signalizace. Ukázali jsme, že miR-301a-3p negativně reguluje ER signalizaci přímou represí translace mRNA kódující ER α . Vysoká exprese miR-301a-3p snižuje citlivost estrogen dependentních MCF7 buněk k 17- β estradiolu a podobně vede k inhibici růstu nádoru pocházejícího z této buněčné linie v nahých myších, které mají poškozený imunitní systém. Vzniklé nádory nicméně vykazují

významně zvýšenou expresi genů souvisejících s fenotypem RKB a epiteliálně-mezenchymální tranzicí, naznačující obohacení populace nádoru o RKB. Navíc exprese miR-301a-3p negativně koreluje s hladinou exprese genu *ESR1* u biopsií z pacientů s rakovinou prsu. MiR-301a-3p tak může sloužit jako ukazatel závislosti růstu nádoru na estrogeneru a jeho rezistenci vůči anti-estrogenním lékům, ale také jako ukazatel prognózy pacienta.

Poslední část této práce je zaměřena na metabolismus železa v RKB. Železo je nepostradatelným prvkem, který je nutný jako kofaktor pro normální funkci mnoha enzymových proteinů, které se účastní buněčného dýchání, Krebsova cyklu, redoxních reakcí, ale také replikace a opravy DNA. Není divu, že deregulace metabolismu železa vede k mnoha patologickým situacím, včetně nádorového bujení. Naše data ukazují, že sféry odvozené z buněčné linie MCF7 vykazují vyšší množství volného železa, vyšší příjem železa s jeho převažující akumulací v mitochondriích a jsou citlivější k chelaci železa. Sféry z MCF7 buněk také vykazují aktivaci IRP/IRE systému, což potvrzuje vyšší absorpci železa a snížení feritinově vázaných železových zásob. Aktivita enzymů obsahujících železo-sírné klastry je ve sférách snížena, což naznačuje narušení mechanismu jejich biogeneze. Dále MCF7 sféry vykazují vyšší oxidační prostředí, které je odrazem vyšší tvorby reaktivních druhů kyslíku a nižší hladiny redukovaného glutationu. Expresní profil genů spojených s metabolismem železa u RKB odvozených z buněčných linií rakoviny prsu a prostaty odhalil specifický expresní genový profil založený na rozdílné expresi genů souvisejících s vychytáváním železa (*CYBRDI*, *TFRC*), detekcí hladiny železa a její regulací (*ACO1*, *IREB1*), mitochondriální syntézou hemu a železo-sírných klastrů (*ABCB10*, *GLRX5*), hypoxií (*EPAS1*, *QSOX1*), exportem železa a regulací jeho exportu (*HEPH*, *HFE*), což poukazuje na značné změny v metabolismu železa u RKB. Analýza hlavních komponent založená na tomto genovém profilu je navíc schopna rozlišit RKB od ostatních nádorových buněk *in vitro*. Tato data tak dokumentují důležité změny metabolismu železa v souvislosti s fenotypem RKB.

Závěrem lze konstatovat, že naše výsledky dále prohlubují poznatky o zásadní úloze RKB v biologii nádorů, přičemž vystihují rozdíly mezi normálními rakovinnými buňkami a RKB, které by mohly potenciálně sloužit při diagnostice nádorů a jejich léčbě.

List of publications

Publications related to the thesis are underlined.

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List of abbreviations

ABC	ATP-binding cassette
AKT	RAC-alpha serine/threonine-protein kinase
ALAS2	Aminolevulinate synthase 2
ALDH	Aldehyde dehydrogenase
APP	Amyloid beta precursor protein
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
BCA	Bicinchinonic acid
BCL-2	B-cell lymphoma 2
BIM	BCL2-interacting mediator of cell death
BMP	Bone morphogenetic protein
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
CCK-8	Cell counting kit-8
CCL2	Chemokine C-C motif ligand 2
CDB	Cell dissociation buffer
CDC14A	Cell division cycle 14A
CDK6	Cyclin dependent kinase 6
DCF-DA	2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate
DFO	Deferoxamine
DHE	Dihydroethidium
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
Dp44mT	Di-2-pyridylketone-4,4-dimethyl-3-thiosemicarbazone
CI	Complex I
CP	Ceruloplasmin
CSC	Cancer stem cell
CSTD	Cathepsin D
CUL1	Cullin-1
CXCL12	Chemokines C-X-C motif ligand 12
DCYTB/CYBRD1	Duodenal cytochrome b reductase
DGCR8	DiGeorge critical region gene 8 protein
DMT1/SLC11A2/NRAMP2	Divalent metal transporter 1/Solute carrier family 11 member 2/Natural resistance-associated macrophage protein 2
E ₂	Oestradiol
EGF	Epidermal growth factor
EMSA	Electrophoretic mobility shift assay
EMT	Epithelial to mesenchymal transition
ER	Oestrogen receptor
ERK	Extracellular signal-regulated kinase
EV	Empty vector
FBS	Foetal bovine serum
FBXL5	F-box/LRR-repeat protein 5
FDX2	Ferredoxin
FGF	Fibroblast growth factor
FPN/SLC40A1	Ferroportin/Solute carrier family 40 member 1
FTH	Ferritin heavy chain
FTL	Ferritin light chain
FXN	Frataxin
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
GLRX5	Glutaredoxin 5

GREB1	Growth regulation by oestrogen in breast cancer 1
GSH	Reduced form of glutathione
GSSG	Oxidised form of glutathione – glutathione disulphide
HAMP	Hepcidin
HEPH	Hephaestin
HEPES	4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid
HER2	Human epidermal growth factor receptor 2
HFE	Hereditary haemochromatosis protein
HFE2/HJV	Haemochromatosis type 2 protein/ Haemojuvelin
HIF	Hypoxia-inducible factor
HIF-2 α /EPAS1	Hypoxia-inducible transcription factor-2 α /Endothelial PAS domain-containing protein 1
HMOX1	Haem oxygenase 1
HMGA2	High mobility groups A2
HPF	Hydroxyphenyl fluorescein
HSPA9	Heat shock 70 kDa protein 9
IL	Interleukin
IRE	Iron responsive element
IRP1/ACO1/IREB1	Iron-responsive element-binding protein 1/Aconitase 1/Iron regulatory protein 1
IRP2/ACO3/IREB2	Iron-responsive element-binding protein 2/Aconitase 3/Iron regulatory protein 2
ISC	Iron-sulphur cluster
ICSA1 and 2	Iron-sulfur cluster assembly 1 and 2
ISCU	Iron-sulphur cluster assembly enzyme scaffold protein
LIC	Leukemia initiating cell
LIP	Labile iron pool
LYRM4	LYR motif-containing protein 4
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein kinase
MDR	Multi-drug resistance
MET	Mesenchymal to epithelial transition
MFRN1 and 2	Mitoferrin 1 and 2
miRNA	MicroRNA
miR-301a-3p	MicroRNA-301a-3p
MRCK α	CDC42-binding protein kinase α
MRP	Multi-drug resistance protein
NADPH	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NKRF	NF- κ B-repressing factor
NBD	Nucleotide binding domain
NF- κ B	Nuclear factor kappa B
NOTCH1	Neurogenic locus notch homolog protein 1
NTBI	Non-transferrin bind iron
OCT-4	Octamer-binding protein 4
PBS	Phosphate-buffered saline
PCA	Principal component analysis
PDCD4	Programmed cell death 4
PDGF	Platelet derived growth factor
PCBP	Poly r(C)-binding protein
PHD	Prolyl hydroxylase
PI3K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase

PR	Progesterone receptor
pre-miRNA	Precursor microRNA
pri-miRNA	Primary microRNA
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homologue
QSOX1	Sulfhydryl oxidase 1
RKB	Rakovinné kmenové buňky
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RISC	RNA induced silencing complex
RPMI	Roswell park memorial institute medium
RUNX3	Runt-related transcription factor 3
RT-qPCR	Reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction
SC	Stem cell
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulphate
SIH	Salicyl isonicotinoyl hydrazine
SKA2	Spindle and kinetochodre associated complex subunit 2
SKP1	S-phase kinase associated protein 1
SMAD	Sma and mother against decapentaplegic
SNAIL	Snail family transcriptional repressor 1
SOX2	SRY (sex determining region Y)-box 2
STE	Sucrose, Tris, Edta buffer
STEAP	6-transmembrane epithelial antigen of the prostate
TAM	Tumour associated macrophages
TBE	Tris, Boric acid, Edta buffer
TBS-T	Tris-buffered saline with 0,05% Tween 20
Tf	Transferrin
TfR1 and 2	Transferrin receptor 1 and 2
TF	Transcription factor
TGF- β	Transforming growth factor β
TNF- α	Tumour necrosis factor- α
TMD	Transmembrane domain
TMRM	Tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester
TMPRSS6	Transmembrane protease serine 6, matriptase-2
TP53	Tumour protein p 53
TWIST1	Twist family bHLH transcription factor 1
UBE2N	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2 N
UTR	Untranslated region
VDAC	Voltage dependent anoint channel
VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor
VIM	Vimentin
ZEB1 and ZEB2	Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 1 and 2
ZIP14/SLC39A14	Zrt/Irt-like protein 14/Solute carrier family 39 member 14
$\Delta\Psi_m$	Mitochondrial membrane potential

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Objectives and significance of the study

Despite the considerable progress in the knowledge of cancer biology, cancer is still the leading cause of death in economically developed countries. Although we are able to effectively treat the primary disease, cancer recurrence remains a major problem as treated cells evolve mechanisms how to evade treatment and remain resistant to therapy (1). The fast proliferating cancer cells can also spread from the original site to other parts of the body where they form metastases, which are often the cause of cancer death. Thus, although patients overcome primary tumour, they eventually relapse with often harder to treat secondary tumours (1). In this regard, making cancer drug treatment more effective and finding a way of overcoming secondary tumour formation is of high clinical importance.

Tumours are heterogeneous entities and consist of multiple cellular populations. The ongoing cancer research tackle the idea, which is starting to be accepted by scientific community, that cancer stem cells (CSCs) present the main reason for ineffective cancer treatment, leading to metastasis formation and cancer recurrence. Although the biology of these cells within the tumours is extensively studied, the effective treatment targeting the whole tumour population is still not available. This is due to the high plasticity of CSCs enabling them to adjust to unfavourable conditions such as undergoing treatment and continue in tumour growth (2). For these reasons, we decided to study the biology of CSCs from angles of view of resistance to treatment and metabolism of iron, trying to find new therapeutic opportunities or novel diagnostic and prognostic markers.

CSCs are believed to have higher level of adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, whose main function is attributed to detoxification, but due to the variety of transporter substrates, these proteins may also have other functions important for stem cell maintenance, which have not been described in the literature yet. Study of these mechanisms could thus elucidate new implications of ABC transporters important for the biology of CSCs.

In breast cancer, the loss of oestrogen receptor α (ER α) is always connected with overall worse prognosis of the treatment but reports connecting ER α loss with CSCs phenotype are

scarce. ER α negative tumours become independent on oestrogenic signalling for their growth and become resistant to treatment by anti-oestrogenic drugs. In most cases, breast CSCs are reported to be ER α negative (3). Although ER signalling promotes proliferation of the ER α positive tumour, it is also reported to inhibit the epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) process (4). Thus, it is important to study the mechanisms, which lead to loss of ER α , as they increase invasiveness of cells, their stem cells characteristics and resistance to treatment.

Next part of this thesis is focused on metabolism of iron in CSCs. Iron is very important element for many cellular processes indispensable for cellular proliferation and also for normal function of human body (5). The role of iron in cancer has been already studied and reports refer to importance of iron for cancer progression (6,7). Although iron chelators have been proved to have therapeutic effect in specific cancer types such as bladder cancer and some haematological malignancies (8,9), they are not widely used as cancer therapeutics. Metabolism of iron in CSCs has not been studied at all, therefore defining the role of iron metabolism in these cells may be the basis for new therapeutic approaches.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Mechanisms of cancer resistance

Drug resistance is the main reason for failure of cancer treatment. The resistance may be either pre-existent (intrinsic) or induced by therapy (acquired). Intrinsic resistance refers to a failure of a tumour to respond to therapy, while in acquired resistance, an initially responsive tumour subsequently progresses during the course of treatment (10). The mechanisms of cancer resistance are highly complex and not fully understood. Cancer cells may evade the effect of therapy by inactivation of the anticancer drug or changing the drug metabolism. Another way is decreasing the intracellular drug concentration either by reducing the absorption of the drug or by increasing the export of the drug out of the cell, or compartmentalization of the drug within the cell, where it is not effective. Further mode of evasion includes inhibition of the cell death induction, changing the targets of chemotherapeutic agents by mutations or dysregulation the target expression level, enhancing the DNA repair, gene amplification, epigenetic altering or microRNAs (miRNAs) actions. The important contributing factors are also tumour microenvironment and tumour heterogeneity (10,11).

2.1.1. Tumour heterogeneity

Tumour heterogeneity is a prominent factor contributing to therapeutic failure. Tumours are not homogeneous mass of cells, instead they are dynamic entities quickly evolving during the disease progression, consisting of heterogeneous population of malignant but also non-malignant cells such as immune cells, endothelial cells or cancer associated fibroblast (12). Tumour heterogeneity can be described as inter-tumoral and intra-tumoral (13). The inter-tumour heterogeneity refers to heterogeneity in tumours of different tissue and cell types, but also to heterogeneity of tumours of the same tissue but in different patients or to heterogeneity of various tumours within the same patient. The inter-tumour heterogeneity provides basis for classifying cancer into types and subtypes according to gene and protein signature and specific markers expression, which may provide clinically relevant prognostic information (13). The intra-tumour heterogeneity is defined as a variation within the same

tissue of the same patient (13). The main reason for tumour heterogeneity is genomic instability, which is caused by various distinct routes, allowing for creation of genetically and phenotypically diverse subclones of cells within the tumour (14,15). Diverse cell populations are subjected to clonal selection by tumour microenvironment and therapeutic context, leaving different genomic background of clones with phenotypic advantage that influence tumour evolution and patient outcome. This branched tumour evolution model (or stochastic model) (Fig. 2.1. A) thus allows for extensive tumour heterogeneity, which has been observed in a range of tumour types (16–18).

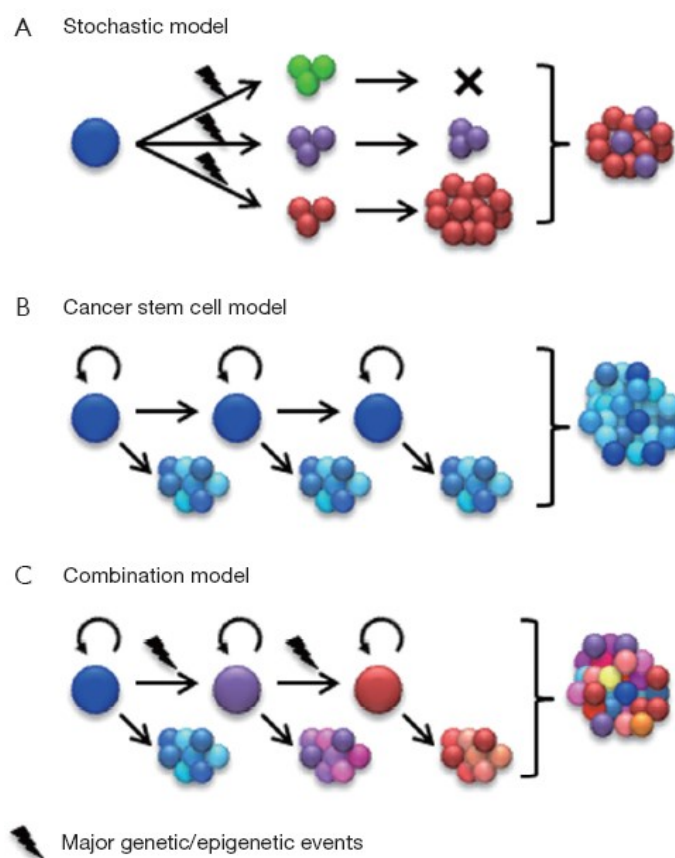


Fig. 2.1. Modelling of tumour heterogeneity. A, Stochastic or branched evolution model assumes that tumour heterogeneity is defined by intrinsic factors, B, Cancer stem cell model assumes that tumour is organised in a hierarchical structure with cancer stem cell on the top, C, Combination or plasticity model suggest that tumour heterogeneity is driven by combination of two above mentioned models. Figure adapted from ref. (19).

Other researchers believe that the intra-tumour heterogeneity is based on CSC model (Fig. 2.1. B) where it is suggested that only a subset of cancer cells defined as CSCs are able to

self-renew and differentiate into a variety of cell types, each with its own abilities and phenotypes. The resulting hierarchical organization includes CSCs that give rise to intermediate progenitors and terminally differentiated progeny (20). However, the clonal evolution model and CSC model are not mutually exclusive. The connection between these two models explains a plasticity model (Fig. 2.1. C) postulating that cancer cells can interconvert between stem cell and differentiated states upon intrinsic or extrinsic stimuli (21). Thus, genomic instability can give rise to a cancer cell with stem cell phenotype, which has specific features influencing tumour outcome.

2.1.1.1. Heterogeneity of breast cancer in relation to oestrogen receptor α

Breast cancer is the most prevalent type of cancer in women worldwide (22). Breast cancer displays inter- and intra-tumour heterogeneity, which can complicate diagnosis and challenge therapy. The most reproducibly identified molecular subtypes of breast cancer are defined according to ER α , progesterone receptor (PR) and receptor tyrosine-protein kinase ERBB2 (known as human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)) status expression. Luminal A type (ER⁺/PR⁺/HER2⁻) of breast cancer has better prognosis than luminal B type (ER⁺/PR⁺/HER2⁺) characterised by higher expression of proliferation markers such as Ki67. Aggressive and invasive HER2 enriched type (ER⁻/PR⁻/HER2⁺) has a poor prognosis and triple negative type, which does not express any of the three receptors, has the worst prognosis (23,24). Within these subtypes, the genomic and transcriptomic profiling of breast tumours revealed new subgroups, providing better view for assessing the prognosis and treatment (25).

Tumours with ER α and PR expression, which are diagnosed in 75 % of breast cancer patients, are mostly well-differentiated, less invasive and are associated with better prognosis than tumours without ER α and PR expression (24,26). ER α is one of the oestradiol (E₂)-activated transcription factor, which regulates a wide range of genes connected with cellular proliferation, differentiation and migration (27), and plays a crucial role in normal mammary gland biology and development (28). E₂/ER α signalling promotes proliferation of ER α positive breast cancer cells and it is important for the growth of the primary tumour. Nevertheless, the expression of ER α negatively correlates with the progressive grade of

invasive ductal breast cancer (29). Moreover, ER α signalling antagonises pathways leading to EMT and CSC phenotype (30,31). Thus, ER α expression is considered to be a good indicator for breast cancer treatment and tumour growth dependency on oestrogenic receptor signalling is exploited for treatment with selective oestrogen receptor modulators (tamoxifen), selective oestrogen receptor down regulators (fulvestrant) or aromatase inhibitors (letrozole) (32). The main problem in clinical treatment of breast cancer is resistance to hormonal therapies caused by transition of originally hormone-dependent tumour to tumour growth that is hormone-independent and often connected with aggressive metastatic behaviour (33,34). To date, multiple mechanisms have been proposed to explain how breast cancer cells escape dependency on oestrogen control and acquire hormone-independent, invasive and resistant phenotype. Among them, epigenetic modulation (35), transcription regulation (36), gene mutation (37), alternative usage of splice variants (38), posttranslational modifications (39) or microRNA deregulation (40) have been described so far.

2.1.2. Cancer stem cells

In many adult tissues, stem cells (SCs) are responsible for tissue homeostasis and regeneration (41). SCs differ from other cells by their capacity for long term self-renewal and an ability to differentiate into one or multiple cell lineages that enables them to create a hierarchical tissue organization that is driven by intrinsic mechanisms (41). Based on this concept, Dick and colleagues (42,43) have shown that in human acute leukemia, only a subset of cells is able to propagate tumour when transplanted into immunodeficient mice. These leukemic cells are expressing the same markers as normal haematopoietic SCs (CD34⁺/CD38⁻) and were called leukemia initiating cells (LICs) or CSCs (43). Subsequently, a small fraction of cells (less than 0,04 % (44)) with self-renewing capacity and ability to reconstitute secondary tumours in immunodeficient mice, was also found in solid tumours. Gradually, CSCs and their specific markers were found in breast cancer (CD44⁺/CD24^{-/low} and ALDH1^{high} (45,46)), pancreatic cancer (CD44⁺/CD24⁺/ESA⁺)(47), brain tumours (CD133⁺) (48), colorectal cancer (CD133⁺) (49), prostate cancer (CD44⁺/α2β1^{high}/CD133⁺) (50), melanoma (CD271⁺) (51), ovarian cancer (CD44⁺/CD117⁺)

(52) and other solid tumours. The principal characteristics of CSCs are self-renewal, tumour initiation and long term tumour repopulation potential that create the heterogeneous lineages of cancer cells comprising the tumour (53). These properties allow CSCs to differentiate into heterogeneous cancer cells with altered phenotypes that influence treatment, propagation and maintenance of the tumour (21). Important processes such as EMT and metastasis formation are also connected with CSCs. EMT is a process in which an epithelial cell loses its adhesion with its neighbours and adopts a mesenchymal morphology allowing the cell to migrate long distances. At specific destination, the cell can reacquire epithelial phenotype again in a process called mesenchymal to epithelial transition (MET) and eventually form a secondary tumour or metastases. EMT is regulated by signalling pathways, microRNAs, transcription factors (TFs) (such as Snail family transcriptional repressor 1 (SNAIL), Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 1 and 2 (ZEB1 and ZEB2), Twist family bHLH transcription factor 1 (TWIST1)) and other factors that promote transition to migratory phenotype (54,55). EMT phenomenon also promotes cancer cell stemness. Upregulation of TWIST1, ZEB1 or SNAIL TFs confers CSC properties and enhances tumour propagation in immunodeficient mice (56,57). Increasing evidence indicates that metastases are initiated by specific cancer cells with CSC properties and that CSCs are the cause of tumour initiation, self-renewal and metastasis formation (58–60). The plasticity and dormancy of metastases is also a feature of CSCs supporting this idea (61). Another important feature of CSCs is their resistance to therapy leading to tumour relapse. CSCs are either intrinsically or extrinsically resistant which means that either they are already resistant to therapy or they become resistant under the selective pressure of therapy. There is supporting evidence that radio- or chemotherapy often enriches or induces cells with CSC phenotype (62–64). There are several ways how CSCs can avoid effective therapy. First, the selectivity of conventional chemotherapy is often based on killing the fast proliferating cancer cells. But CSCs are rather less proliferative and more quiescent which gives them the capability to survive chemotherapeutic treatment (65–67). Moreover, CSCs are resistant to DNA damage-induced cell death as they possess high DNA repair capability. The quiescent phenotype of CSCs also contributes to resistance by giving the cell more time for DNA repair. CSCs escape radiotherapy and chemotherapy induced DNA damage by preferential activation of DNA damage checkpoints and by faster DNA damage repair compared to differentiated tumour cells (63,68,69). CSCs have also higher expression of free radical scavenging machinery,

giving them the ability to escape reactive oxygen species (ROS) producing agents, which are deleterious to normal cancer cells (70). Moreover, CSCs have elevated level of anti-apoptotic proteins, thus their threshold level for inducing apoptosis is higher than in non-CSC counterparts (71,72). Undergoing the EMT process confers resistance to therapy as cells that underwent EMT have lower level of ROS and TFs controlling EMT have important role in resistance to therapy (73). Resistance and an accelerated repopulation potential of CSCs is also ascribed to persistent activation of pathways important for embryonic development and tissue homeostasis such as Notch, Wnt/ β -catenin and Hedgehog (74,75). The microenvironment of the tumour plays another important role in CSCs resistance. Cell-to-cell interactions and tumour stroma derived growth factors and cytokines play a role in mediating the connections between CSCs, their niche and non-CSCs, and are involved in maintaining CSCs self-renewal and sensitivity to radiation and cytotoxic drugs (76,77). Among these molecules we can name interleukins (IL-6, 8), chemokines (C-X-C motif ligand 12, CXCL12; C-C motif ligand 2, CCL2), platelet derived growth factor (PDGF), epidermal growth factor (EGF), tumour necrosis growth factor-alpha (TNF- α), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), fibroblast growth factor (FGF) and transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β) (76,77). The low oxygen tension within CSCs niches has also positive influence on cancer resistance and CSCs maintenance. Hypoxia activates hypoxia-inducible factors (HIFs) HIF-1 α and HIF-1 β and EMT phenotype (78,79). HIF transcription factors not only regulate cellular response to hypoxia but also activate developmental pathways Notch, Wnt/ β -catenin and Hedgehog (80–82). Similarly to normal SCs, CSCs express high level of so called multidrug resistance (MDR) proteins or ABC transporters that mediate drug efflux and thus decrease the intracellular drug concentration to inefficient level, leading to resistance (83). Consistently with this notion, CSCs can be isolated based on higher efflux of Hoechst 33342 dye by the ABCG2 transporter (84,85). Aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH), a marker of CSCs, catalyses the oxidation of aldehydes to carboxylic acids and its activity is important for CSCs maintenance (86). ALDH confers resistance against chemo- and radiotherapy by abrogating oxidative stress by producing reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NAD(P)H) (87) and by activation of pro-survival pathways as phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/RAC-alpha serine/threonine-protein kinase (PI3K/AKT) and mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase (MAPK/ERK) (88).

All of these above mentioned properties of CSCs show their important role during tumour growth and relapse. The goal of cancer therapy should thus be the elimination or terminal differentiation of CSCs by combination of therapeutic agents. Although many features of the CSCs biology are already known, properties defining their role in cancer development require further investigation.

2.1.3. MicroRNAs

MiRNAs are single stranded, 22 nucleotides long, non-coding RNAs that negatively regulate the post-transcriptional expression of genes (89). Genes coding miRNAs are transcribed by RNA polymerase II as a primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs) (90). Pri-miRNAs are first processed in the nucleus by enzyme complex called Drosha-DiGeorge critical region gene 8 protein (Drosha-DGCR8) into precursor miRNAs (pre-miRNAs) (Fig. 2.2.) (91). After processing, pre-miRNAs are transported to cytoplasm (92) for final cleavage by ribonuclease Dicer into 22 nucleotides long mature miRNAs (Fig. 2.2.) (93). Mature miRNAs are then assembled into multiprotein RNA induced silencing complex (RISC) and guided to complementary bind the target mRNA to suppress gene expression by translation inhibition and/or mRNA degradation (Fig. 2.2.) (94). The functional strand of miRNA can bind into 3' untranslated region (UTR), coding region, 5' UTR or promoter region of different target mRNA. Thus, one miRNA might modulate expression of hundreds of mRNA transcripts (95). On the other hand, expression of certain mRNA might be regulated by different miRNAs in an orchestrated manner (96). One miRNA might regulate expression of mRNA molecules coding for proteins in one signalling pathways or interconnected nodes in the regulatory networks and thereby amplify the regulatory effect (97). Last but not least, miRNAs are also used in a feedback regulation (97).

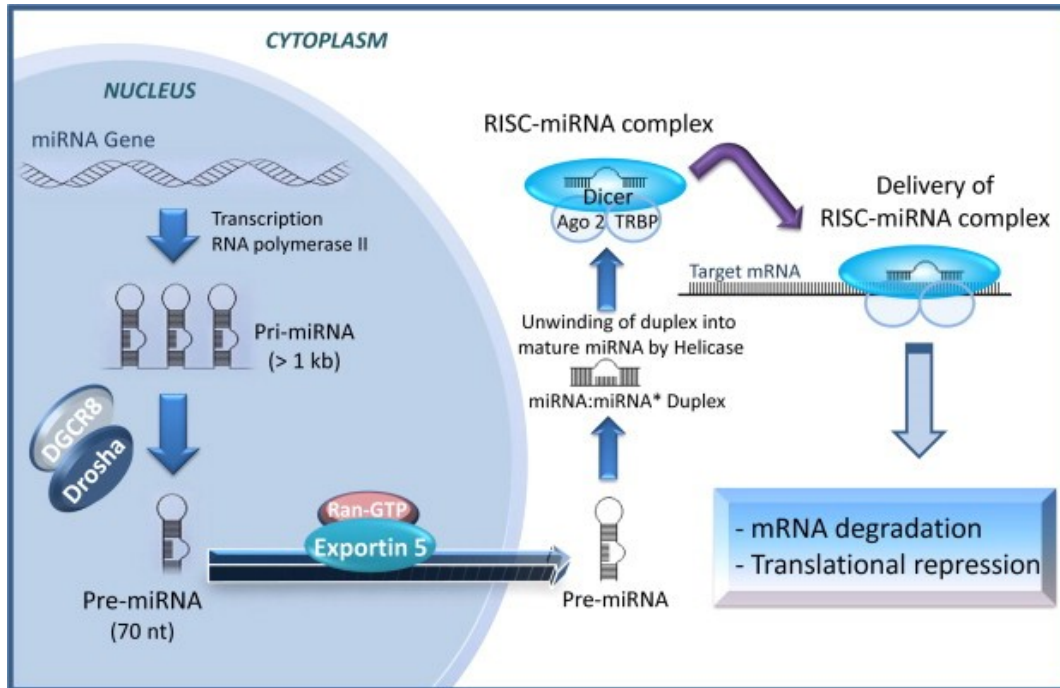


Fig. 2.2. Schema of biosynthesis, processing and function of miRNAs. MiRNAs are transcribed by RNA polymerase II into primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs) which are processed by Drosha-DGCR8 (DiGeorge critical region gene 8 protein) enzyme complex into precursor-miRNAs (pre-miRNAs). The pre-miRNAs are exported into cytoplasm by exportin-5 and Ran-GTP, where they are cleaved by ribonuclease Dicer into 22 nucleotides long mature miRNAs. Helicase unwinds duplex miRNA:miRNA*, miRNA* fragment is degraded and miRNA molecule binds to an Argonaute (Ago) protein and forms a RNA induced silencing complex (RISC) that target complementary mRNA leading to translational repression and mRNA degradation. Figure adapted from ref. (98).

2.1.3.1. MicroRNAs in tumorigenesis

MiRNAs are evolutionary conserved, expressed in all kind of tissues and cell types and are involved in many biological processes including regulation of cell cycle, differentiation, proliferation, apoptosis, and response to stress stimuli. Due to their wide spectrum of functions, deregulation of miRNA expression is a sign of many pathological conditions, including cancer (99). In tumorigenesis, miRNAs can act as tumour suppressors whose downregulation by deletion or methylation of the miRNA locus leads to activation of oncogenes. Contrary, upregulation of oncogenic miRNAs by amplifying the miRNA encoding locus in DNA may inhibit action of the tumour suppressors (98). MiRNAs regulate various aspects of carcinogenesis from tumour initiation to tumour growth and progression into metastasis, tumour resistance to therapy and CSCs maintenance (100). Usually,

the overall downregulation of miRNAs is present in many cancers compared to their normal tissue counterparts as they are connected with regulation of differentiation. Let-7, the most studied tumour suppressor miRNA, has been shown to regulate EMT and CSCs (101). Let-7 is downregulated in many cancers, especially in CSCs and its knockdown increases self-renewal and sphere formation (102). Targets of let-7 represent oncogenes coding for RAS, MYC, high mobility groups A2 (HMGA2), cell cycle regulators cyclin D, cyclin dependent kinase 6 (CDK6), M-phase inducer phosphatase 1 (CDC25a), proliferation signalling pathways PI3K/AKT by targeting insulin growth factor 1 receptor, mRNA of ribosomal proteins, metabolic enzymes etc. (103) Let-7 suppression also leads to enhanced expression of octamer-binding protein 4 (OCT-4) and SRY (sex determining region Y)-box 2 (SOX2) TFs and enhanced CSCs properties (104). Other tumour suppressor miRNAs are miR-34, -200 and -205. MiR-34 inhibits CSCs and metastasis by direct repression of CD44, B-cell lymphoma 2 (BCL-2) and neurogenic locus notch homolog protein 1 (NOTCH1) proteins expression (105,106). Moreover, miR-34 represses pluripotent SCs reprogramming by targeting pluripotency genes *NANOG*, *SOX2* and *N-MYC* (107). MiR-200 attenuates EMT directly by targeting EMT-related TFs ZEB1 and ZEB2 (108) and reduces CSC properties by repressing the stem self-renewal factor polycomb complex protein BMI-1 (109). ZEB1 in feed-forward loop directly inhibits transcription of miR-200 to stabilise EMT phenotype (110). Several additional studies show that upregulation of miR-200 enhances the chemosensitivity to several anti-cancer agents (111). MiR-205 acts as a radio-sensitizing miRNA by inhibiting DNA damage repair through direct repression of *ZEB1* and *ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2 N (UBE2N)* mRNA expression (112). Interestingly, expression of miR-34, -200 and -205 is induced by frequently inactivated tumour protein 53 (TP53), connecting TP53 with regulation of EMT (113). Contrary, the expression of oncomiR miR-21 is associated with poor prognosis in many types of cancer where it targets tumour suppressors genes such as *phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN)* or *programmed cell death 4 (PDCD4)* (114).

These several examples show potential of miRNAs for anticancer therapy, as they may regulate genes in both CSCs and non-CSCs and regulate progression of the disease and resistance to therapy. For this reason, miRNAs may also serve as good evaluating and prognostic factors in treatment of malignancies.

2.1.3.2. Oncogenic microRNA-301a

MiR-301a has been recently discovered as an oncogenic miRNA whose expression is connected with tumour progression and poor prognosis of patient with pancreatic (115), breast (116), gastric (117), colorectal (118) and hepatocellular cancer (119). MiR-301a is positioned in the intron of *spindle and kinetochodre associated complex subunit 2 (SKA2)* gene, which is a part of Ska complex important for proper chromosomal segregation during mitotic division (120). High SKA2 protein expression correlates with miR-301a expression, which is regulated by SKA2 in a positive feedback loop (121), contributing to worse phenotype (116). In breast cancer, miR-301a directly inhibits tumour suppressor gene *PTEN*, which leads to constitutively active Wnt/ β -catenin signalling, supporting invasive phenotype (122). MiR-301a positively regulates nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) signalling in pancreatic cancer by direct repression of translation of *NF- κ B-repressing factor (NKRF)* mRNA. Moreover, NF- κ B in a positive feedback loop increases expression of miR-301a, which leads to persistent activation of NF- κ B signalling. Inhibition of miR-301a causes reduction in tumour growth derived from pancreatic cancer cells *in vivo* (123). In pancreatic cancer cells, miR-301a also supports cellular proliferation by inhibition of pro-apoptotic gene *BCL2-interacting mediator of cell death (BIM)* (115). High expression of miR-301a was also described in gastric cancer where it inversely correlates with cell differentiation and supports cell proliferation and invasion by inhibition of tumour suppressor gene *runt-related transcription factor 3 (RUNX3)* (117). These and several more studies show that miR-301a is an oncogenic miRNA influencing several signalling pathways important for tumour development and could be used as a biomarker of cancer progression.

2.1.4. ABC transporters

As mentioned above, failure of conventional or targeted chemotherapy can be attributed to increased efflux of therapeutic agents out of the cells, leading to a decrease of intracellular drug concentration to inefficient level. This phenomenon usually leads to resistance to multiple agents and it is caused by increased expression of ABC transporter superfamily (124). ABC transporters have important physiological role as they transport hormones, lipids, peptides, ions, signalling molecules and xenobiotics across the plasma membrane or

intracellular membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum (125), nucleus (126), Golgi (127), peroxisomes, mitochondria (128) and lysosomes (129). Some ABC transporters have a very narrow substrate specificity, whereas others can transport very broad spectrum of compounds and these transporters have usually high potential to transport anticancer drugs.

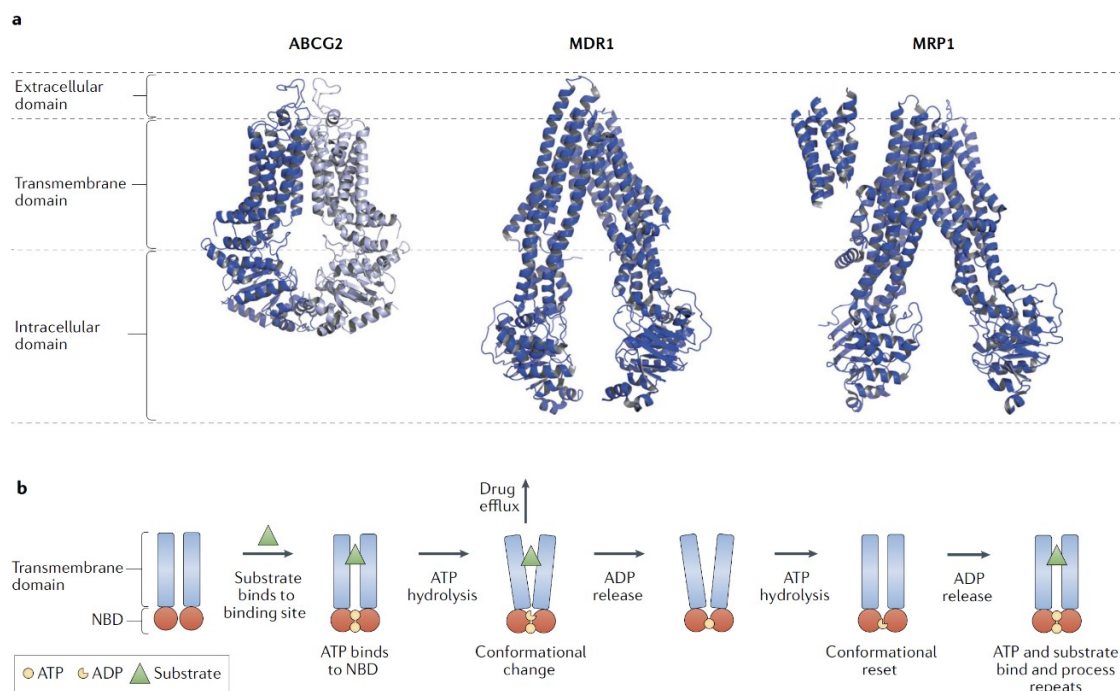


Fig. 2.3. Structure and mechanism of ABC transporters. A, Structures of the three best known transporters ABCG2, ABCB1 (MDR1), ABCC1 (MRP1). **B,** Scheme of ABC transporter pumping action. Substrate binds to its binding pocket and 2 ATP molecules bind to nucleotide binding domains (NBDs). Hydrolysis of ATP causes conformational change of the transporter which allows the substrate to be released on the other side of the membrane. The hydrolysis of the second ATP molecule allows for conformational reset of ABC transporter and process may be repeated. Figure adapted from ref. (130).

The polypeptide chain of functional transporter typically contains four domains, two ATP-binding domains, known as nucleotide binding domains (NBDs), and two transmembrane domains (TMDs) (Fig. 2.3. A). All four domains may be located in one polypeptide chain constituting full transporter or within two polypeptides creating half transporter with one TMD and one NBD. Half transporters must form homo- or heterodimers to assemble a functional transporter (131). TMDs contain 6-11 membrane spanning α -helices and are responsible for substrate recognition and binding. NBDs bind ATP and energy from its

hydrolysis is used to induce conformational change in TMDs to move substrate across membrane, irrespective of concentration gradient (131) (Fig. 2.3. B).

2.1.4.1. ABC transporters subfamilies and their physiological functions

The 48 members of the ABC transporter family are divided into seven subfamilies A-G, according to their sequence similarity, structure and character of transported compounds (131). To date, 12 members of the ABCA subfamily have been identified. The A subfamily encompasses the largest ABC transporters, having more than 200 kDa of predicted molecular weight. They are expressed in diverse organs and tissues where they play an important role in trafficking of cellular cholesterol and other lipids. Subcellularly, these transporters are localised in plasma and lysosomal membranes (132). Mutations in genes from this group are connected with genetic diseases related to lipid transport such as Harlequin ichthyosis (*ABCA12*), neonatal surfactant deficiency (*ABCA3*) or neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's disease (132).

The group B of the ABC transporters includes 11 members with different functions and subcellular localization. ABCB1 is expressed in the intestinal epithelium, liver, kidney and in blood-brain barrier epithelial cells where it pumps xenobiotics to detoxify organism (133). ABCB2 and ABCB3 (also called TAP1 and TAP2) are half-transporters forming heterodimers in membranes of endoplasmic reticulum where they pump peptides from cytosol for presentation on the major histocompatibility complexes of class I, which is important for immune response against infected or malignant cells (125). Another half-transporter is ABCB9, which forms homodimers in lysosomes, pumping peptides into lysosomal lumen (134). Full transporters ABCB4 and ABCB11 are expressed in liver where they regulate secretion of bile acids (135). The last members of B group are mitochondrial transporters localised in outer (ABCB6) and inner (ABCB7, ABCB8 and ABCB10) mitochondrial membranes. They have important role in iron-sulphur cluster (ISC) and haem biosynthesis (128).

The C group of ABC transporters includes 12 full transporters with diverse functions. ABCC7 (also known as cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator CFTR)

functions as chloride ion channel in epithelial cell membranes. Mutation in *ABCC7* gene leads to dysregulation of epithelial fluid transport resulting in cystic fibrosis (136). *ABCC8* and *ABCC9* (also known as *SUR1* and *SUR2*) are sulfonyleurea receptors which together with potassium channels regulate insulin secretion (137). Remaining members *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC4*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC6*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* and *ABCC12* (also called *MRP1-9*) belong to the multidrug resistance proteins (MRPs). They are able to transport a wide range of xenobiotics and endogenous compounds such as glutathione conjugates, glucuronide conjugates, sulfate conjugates, purine and pyrimidine nucleotide analogues, anticyclines, vinca alkaloids etc. Some substrates of MRPs also serve as an important signalling molecules altering signalling pathways in tumours, enabling them to survive and proliferate (124).

ABC transporters belonging to the group D are localised in peroxisomal (*ABCD1-3*) and lysosomal (*ABCD4*) membranes. Peroxisomal ABC transporters are involved in transport of long chain and branched chain fatty acids or their CoA-derivatives into peroxisomes whereas *ABCD4* transport vitamin B12 from lysosome to cytosol. Dysfunction of *ABCD1* leads to X-linked adrenoleukodystrophy, a severe neurodegenerative disease (138). Groups E (*ABCE1*) and F (*ABCF1-3*) consist of ABC transporters that have only NBDs and do not contain any TMDs. *ABCE1* contains two ISCs that have important role for translation initiation and ribosomal biogenesis (139). *ABCF* transporters are thought to be involved in inflammation process and regulation of translation (140). The last group of the ABC transporter family includes five members *ABCG1*, *ABCG2*, *ABCG3*, *ABCG5* and *ABCG8*, which are all half transporters. *ABCG1* is important for intracellular sterol and lipid homeostasis (141). *ABCG2* may exist as a higher order homooligomer in plasma membranes of epithelial cells in gastrointestinal tract, blood brain barrier, liver, placenta and stem cells where it fulfils its function by protecting the cells from xenobiotics. Various compounds have been shown to be substrates of *ABCG2* including anticancer drugs, sulfate and glucuronide conjugates of sterols and xenobiotics, natural compounds and toxins, fluorescent dyes, photo-sensitisers and antibiotics (142). *ABCG5* and *ABCG8* form heterodimers that pump sterols out of enterocytes and hepatocytes. Mutations in *ABCG5* and *ABCG8* genes cause sitosterolemia; a metabolic disorder characterised by hyper-absorption and decreased biliary excretion of dietary sterols (143).

2.1.4.2. ABC transporters in cancer biology

Several members of ABC transporters are known as MDR proteins due to their ability to efflux cytotoxic chemotherapeutics. MDR phenomenon is a term for resistance to several anti-cancer drugs that are structurally and functionally unrelated. More than half of the members of ABC transporters have been shown to confer drug resistance, from which the most crucial are ABCB1, ABCC1 and ABCG2 (144). The most common chemotherapeutic substrates of selected ABC transporters are listed in Table 2.1. Numerous studies showed a correlation between expression of ABCB1, ABCC1 and ABCG2 transporters and malignant progression, aggressive phenotype and poor overall survival in various types of cancers (reviewed in (145)). The overall patient survival also decreases with increasing number of simultaneously expressed ABC transporter genes (146). ABCB1 (also known as P-glycoprotein or MDR1) was the first ABC transporter identified and connected with resistance to anticancer drugs (147). P-glycoprotein transports neutral or positively charged hydrophobic compounds and has been shown to transport a wide range of cancer chemotherapeutics (Table 2.1.), which seem to induce its expression (148). ABCG2 (also known as breast cancer resistant protein) is a half transporter that was firstly identified as a mediator of doxorubicin resistance in breast cancer (149). ABCG2 is able to transport a particularly wide range of chemotherapeutics (Table 2.1.). ABCC1 (also known as MRP1) was identified in small cell lung cancer cell line as a mediator of acquired resistance to doxorubicin (150). Substrates of ABCC1 represent unmodified hydrophobic molecules and a broad range of xenobiotics and endogenous substrates (Table 2.1.), mostly glutathione and glucuronide conjugates. ABCC1 transports reduced as well as oxidised glutathione and thus might also have a role in maintaining and modulating responses to oxidative stress (151).

Some ABC transporters are highly expressed in CSCs to protect them against xenobiotics. ABCG2 is considered a CSC marker and its expression is important for maintenance of stem cell phenotype and proliferation (152). In line with this concept, some reports also indicate that ABCG2 has a role in resistance that is independent of drug efflux (153). Inhibition of ABCB1 was also reported to reduce CSC phenotype (154,155) and ABCB5 was reported as a marker of malignant-melanoma-initiating cells (156). Concordantly, signalling pathways and TFs involved in CSC maintenance were reported to regulate expression of ABC transporters. Hedgehog signalling regulates ABCB1 and ABCG2 expression (157). ABCG2

is also a target of Notch signalling (158). OCT-4, a pluripotent transcription factor, can regulate genes coding for ABC transporters (159). ABCC1 and ABCC4 expression is a highly predictive factor in neuroblastoma, because of its transcriptional regulation by *N-MYC* oncogene, a driver of neuroblastoma tumorigenesis (160,161). The presence of ABC transporters in CSCs from tumours of different tissues, where they are involved in the transport of various substrates, indicates that they are also involved in basic cellular processes. In addition to drug efflux, ABC transporters also contribute to tumorigenesis by transporting signalling molecules such as prostaglandins, leukotrienes, sphingosine-1-phosphate, platelet activating factor, cholesterol and cyclic nucleotides (Table 2.1.). These molecules act in an autocrine or paracrine manner, they bind to their receptors and activate pathways involved in cell proliferation, migration, angiogenesis, cell survival and inflammation (162).

Table 2.1. Chemotherapeutics and endogenous substrates of ABC transporters (162,163).

ABC transporter	Chemotherapeutic substrates	Endogenous (cellular) substrates
ABCB1	Doxorubicin, daunorubicin, vinblastine, docetaxel, irinotecan, topotecan, paclitaxel, chloroquine, glucocorticoids	PAF
ABCC1	Doxorubicin, daunorubicin, methotrexate, vincristine, etoposide, chloroquine	LTC ₄ , PGA ₂ , 15d-PGJ ₂ , PGE ₂ and S1P
ABCC2	Methotrexate, vinblastine, etoposide, vincristine, cisplatin, epirubicin, taxanes, doxorubicin	LTC ₄ , PGD ₂ , PGA ₁ and PGE ₂
ABCC3	Etoposide, methotrexate	LTC ₄ and 15d-PGJ ₂
ABCC4	Mercaptopurine, thioguanine, campotothecins, azidothymidine, azathioprine, topotecan, methotrexate	LTB ₄ , LTC ₄ , PGA ₁ , PGE ₁ , PGE ₂ , PGF _{1α} , PGF _{2α} , TXB ₂ , cAMP and cGMP
ABCC5	Fluorouracil, mercaptopurine, thioguanine, azathioprine, methotrexate	cAMP and cGMP
ABCC6	Antracyclines, etoposide	LTC ₄
ABCC10	Docetaxel, paclitaxel, vincristine, vinblastine, nucleoside analogues and epothilone B	LTC ₄
ABCC11	Methotrexate, fluorouracil	LTC ₄ , cAMP and cGMP
ABCG2	Mitoxantrone, topotecan, doxorubicin, daunorubicin, irinotecan, imatinib, methotrexate	cGMP

cAMP, cyclic AMP; cGMP, cyclic GMP; LT, leukotriene; PAF, platelet activation factor; PG, prostaglandin; S1P, sphingosine- 1-phosphate; TX, thromboxane

The strategy to overcome resistance by generating inhibitors of ABCB1, ABCC1 or ABCG2 has advanced into production of the third generation inhibitors. Despite significant improvement in specificity, there are still extensive side effects and inhibitors failed to show any benefits (164). The main reasons for ABC transporter inhibitors failure are redundancy of ABC transporters and also interference of inhibitors with the normal ABC transporter physiology (165).

Thus, new strategies and understanding molecular mechanisms that modulate the expression and post-transcriptional regulation of ABC transporters, will be necessary to overcome cancer resistance.

2.2. Metabolism of iron

2.2.1. Importance of iron

Elemental iron is a fundamental micronutrient which has an indispensable role in mammalian cells. The human body utilises iron for synthesis of iron-containing proteins where iron is incorporated in form of haem or ISCs. These proteins are then involved in basic cellular processes, such as cell replication, metabolism and growth. The iron-containing proteins include oxygen transporting proteins, haemoglobin and myoglobin, enzymes important for function of mitochondrial respiratory chain, Krebs cycle and redox reactions as well as enzymes necessary for DNA replication and repair. Cellular iron level must thus be tightly regulated as improperly sequestered free iron catalyses production of ROS through the Fenton and Haber-Weiss reactions (166,167). Balanced iron metabolism is achieved by strict coupling of iron uptake with iron demands connected with distribution of iron into cellular compartments, which are involved in iron utilization and storage. Defects in proteins involved in iron metabolism are associated with chronic degenerative disorders having neurodegenerative, haematological or metabolic phenotype (5). Besides this, defects in mitochondrial and cytoplasmic ISC biogenesis and its insertion into particular proteins may also cause DNA damage and genome instability; a condition which leads to many pathological situations including cancer (168).

2.2.2. Iron trafficking

The human body absorbs 1-3 mg of iron every day to replenish the losses in sweat, urine, blood and desquamated cells. The systemic iron level is maintained by controlled intestinal absorption of dietary non-haem ferric iron by enterocytes *via* divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1, also known as SLC11A2 or NRAMP2) (169). Prior to the absorption, the ferric (Fe^{3+}) iron is reduced to ferrous (Fe^{2+}) iron by ferric reductases such as duodenal cytochrome b (DCYTB, also known as CYBRD1), which is together with DMT1 expressed on the apical side of the membrane of enterocytes (170). Haem iron is also taken up by enterocytes as an intact metalloporphyrin, and after entering the cells, it is broken down into Fe^{2+} , bilirubin and carbon monoxide by haem oxygenase (HMOX1) (Fig. 2.4.) (171). Intracellular transport of iron from apical to the basolateral side of enterocytes is still not fully described (172). Export of iron from enterocytes into bloodstream is facilitated by basolateral divalent iron exporter ferroportin (FPN, also known as SLC40A1) (173) with the help of ferroxidase hephaestin (HEPH), which oxidises Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} . HEPH is anchored into basolateral membrane of enterocytes together with FPN to enhance the iron export in these cells (Fig. 2.4.). In other cells of the body, this role is taken by circulating HEPH homolog, known as ceruloplasmin (CP) (174).

Upon release from enterocytes, oxidised iron rapidly binds to serum transferrin (Tf), which can bind two Fe^{3+} ions. Under normal conditions, only 30 % of serum Tf is occupied by iron, providing a sufficient buffering capacity in case of sudden increase in free iron level called non-Tf-bound iron (NTBI), which may be toxic (175). The complex Tf-diferric iron binds to transferrin receptor 1 and 2 (TfR1 and 2, encoded by *TFRC* and *TFR2* genes) on all cells, followed by clathrin-mediated endocytosis of TfR with bound Tf (Fig. 2.4.) (176). Upon endosome acidification, Fe^{3+} is released from Tf, and reduced by endosomal 6-transmembrane epithelial antigen of the prostate (STEAP) family of ferriductases (in case of immature erythroid cells STEAP3) to Fe^{2+} (177) and exported to the cytosol by DMT1 (178) or directly to mitochondria by a “kiss and run” mechanism (179). While iron ions may pass freely through the outer mitochondrial membrane into intermembrane space through voltage dependent anion channel (VDAC), crossing the inner membrane is an active process dependent on membrane potential. Transport of iron to mitochondria through the inner membrane is facilitated by mitoferrins, MFRN1 and MFRN2 (180).

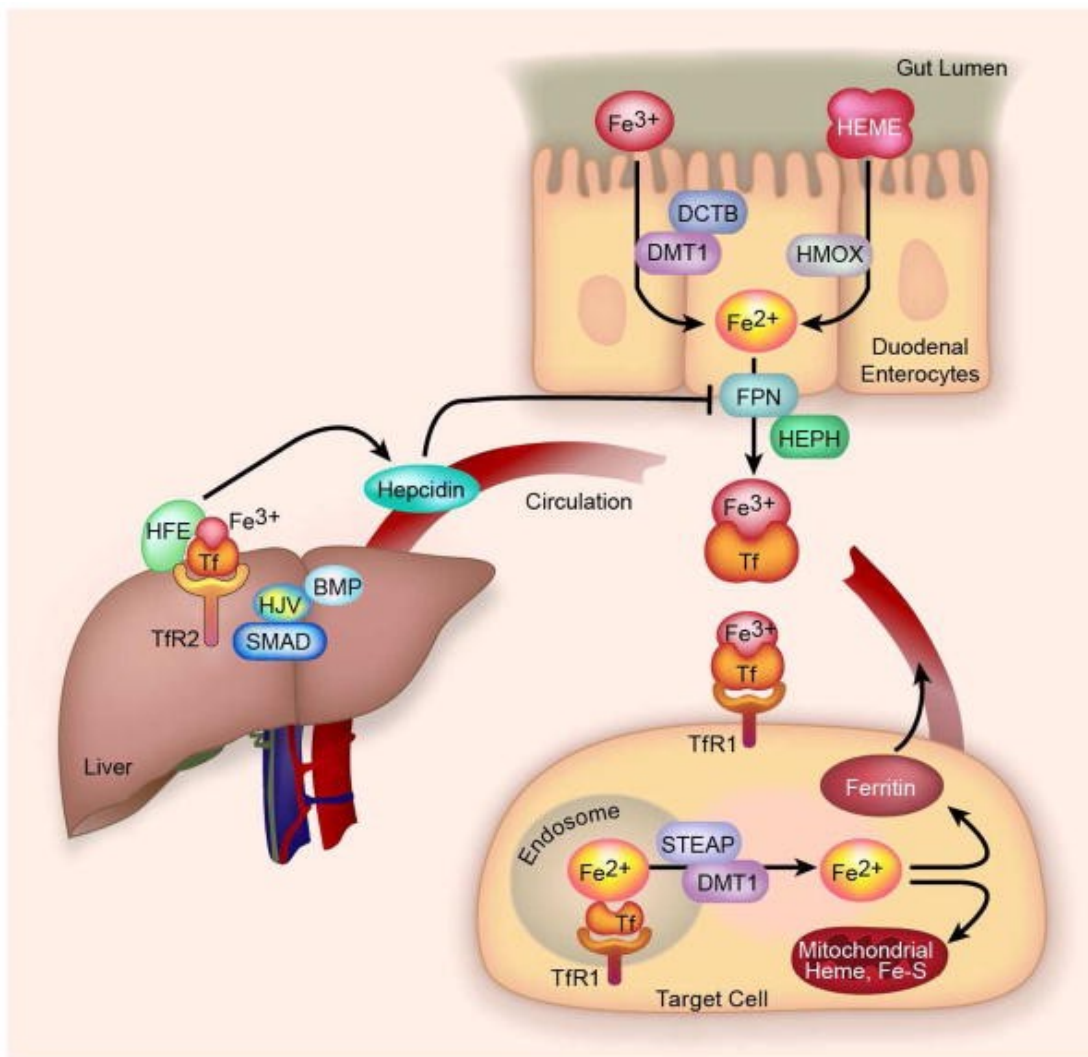


Fig. 2.4. Overview of iron trafficking. Fe³⁺ is reduced to Fe²⁺ by Duodenal cytochrome b reductase (DCTB) and enters intestinal cells through divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1). Haem is also taken up by enterocytes and Fe²⁺ is released by haem oxygenase (HMOX). Fe²⁺ is exported from cells by ferroportin (FPN) and after oxidation by hephaestin (HEPH), iron binds to transferrin (Tf) in the bloodstream. Tf binds to transferrin receptor 1 and 2 (TfR1 and TfR2) on target cells. TfR1 is endocytosed and after acidification of the endosome, Fe³⁺ is released from TfR1, reduced by 6-transmembrane epithelial antigen of the prostate (STEAP) reductase and transported from endosome to cytosol by DMT1. From cytosol, iron is transported to sites of its utilization (e.g. mitochondrion for haem and Fe-S cluster synthesis) or stored within ferritin. In the liver, Tf binds to TfR2 and protein HFE and together with GPI-anchored protein haemojuvelin (HJV), bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) and SMAD signal transduction pathways, controlling the production of hepcidin. Hepcidin controls the release of iron from cells by internalization and degradation of FPN. Figure adapted from ref. (181).

TfR with bound Tf is then recycled on the cell surface where Tf without bound iron dissociates from TfR at neutral pH (182). TfR2 has 30 times lower affinity for Tf and differs

from TfR1 in such a way that its expression is not regulated by the intracellular level of iron (183). Upon higher iron demand, iron depleted cells express and secrete glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) which acts as transferrin receptor and enhance cellular uptake of Tf and iron (184). In addition to Tf bound iron, NTBI can also be very efficiently taken up by many cell types using the NTBI transporters of the Zrt/Irt-like protein family, especially by the ZIP14 (also known as SLC39A14) (185).

Free intracellular iron is toxic to the cell and it is therefore obvious that it is sequestered by association with iron-binding proteins or chaperones, which either store iron or transport it within the cell. In cytosol, we can find members of poly r(C)-binding proteins (PCBPs), PCBP1 and PCBP2, functioning as an iron ion chaperones. They bind iron in cytosol and deliver it to cytosolic acceptors such as iron storage protein ferritin (186), iron exporter protein FPN1 (187) or to the iron cofactor requiring enzymes like iron-dependent prolyl hydroxylases (PHDs) and asparaginyl hydroxylases that modify HIF1 α (188).

Iron storage is a crucial part of intracellular iron homeostasis. The cytosolic iron is stored within ferritin, the major intracellular iron storage protein. Ferritin is composed of 24 protein subunits, the ferritin light (FTL) and the ferritin heavy chains (FTH), which form a nanocage or a spherical shell. This subunits are coded by *FTL* and *FTH* genes. One ferritin molecule can store around 4500 of iron ions, which entry and exit ferritin through pores in the ferritin shell (189). The ferritin expression increases with rising cellular iron concentration. High concentration of iron loaded ferritin leads to ferritin aggregation. These aggregates then fuse with lysosomes, where ferritin is degraded into mixture of Fe³⁺ and a protein component called haemosiderin (190). Ferritin is also secreted from the cells in amounts that strongly correlate with intracellular iron concentration (190).

2.2.3. Systemic iron homeostasis

Systemic iron homeostasis is maintained by regulation of duodenal iron absorption, iron recycling of senescent erythrocytes and mobilization of iron from the storage sites (liver, spleen). Hepcidin (HAMP) is a small circulating peptide that is upregulated in hepatocytes in response to high iron stores and inflammation and it is downregulated during hypoxia and

iron deficiency. Hepcidin acts as an important regulator of iron stores by binding to iron exporter FPN on its target cells (hepatocytes, macrophages and enterocytes), causing FPN internalization and degradation, which leads to retention of iron within the cell (191,192). The central role in regulating hepcidin level in response to iron level plays the bone morphogenetic protein/sma and mother against decapentaplegic (BMP/SMAD) pathway (Fig. 2.4.) (193). BMPs belong to the TGF- β superfamily of cytokines. Several members of BMPs have been demonstrated to increase hepcidin levels with BMP6 being the key hepcidin modulator (194). BMP6 is produced by liver cells in response to hepatic iron stores (195). The binding of BMP to its receptor BMPR on the cell surface requires binding of BMP with its cell surface co-receptor haemochromatosis type 2 protein (HFE2, also known as haemojuvelin (HJV)) for full activation of hepcidin expression (Fig. 2.4.) (196). The amount of HFE2 is regulated by cell surface serine protease matriptase-2 (TMPRSS6) expressed primarily in the liver. When activated, TMPRSS6 inhibits *HAMP* gene transcription by cleaving HFE2 and thus abrogating its function as a BMP co-receptor (197). Importantly, molecules that can sense circulating level of iron such as Tfr2, Tfr1 and hereditary haemochromatosis protein (HFE) are required for BMP pathway activity (Fig. 2.4.) Tfr2 has been recently found to be involved in upregulation of BMP6 in response to high iron level and HFE is probably involved in efficient downstream transmission of the regulatory signal from BMP6 (198). Mutations/dysfunction of HFE, TFR2 and HFE2 leads to inappropriately low levels of hepcidin, causing a disease termed hereditary haemochromatosis, characterized by iron overload and tissue damage in skin, heart, liver, pancreas, joints and gonads (199). Tfr1, HFE and Tfr2 have been proposed to form a complex that senses serum iron saturation and regulates hepcidin expression (200).

2.2.4. Cellular iron homeostasis

Since iron is important in biological redox reactions and cells have no mechanism how to eliminate iron excess, the maintenance of cellular iron is coordinated by tight regulation of iron uptake, storage and export. The commonly described mechanism of regulation is *via* iron-dependent binding of iron regulatory proteins (IRPs) to the iron-responsive elements (IREs). IREs are stem-loop structures of RNA located in 5' or 3' UTRs of mRNAs coding

for iron metabolism-related proteins. Binding of IRPs to IREs located at the 5' end of UTRs of certain mRNAs leads to translational repression of such genes. On the other hand, binding of IRPs to IRE situated at the 3' end of UTR causes mRNA stabilization and its enhanced translation (Fig. 2.5.) (201). When the iron concentration in the cell is low, IRPs bind to the 5' IREs of ferritin and FPN mRNA, thereby inhibiting translation of these genes, and to the 3' IREs of TfR1 and DMT1 mRNA leading to increase in their stability and expression. It leads to higher iron acquisition from plasma Tf and a decrease in ferritin synthesis as iron storage becomes futile under iron deficiency. Inversely, a high cellular iron concentration causes dissociation of IRPs from IREs, leading to an increase in translation of ferritin and FPN mRNAs and degradation of TfR1 and DMT1 mRNAs (Fig. 2.5.). The superfluous amount of iron is then stored within ferritin and the intracellular flux of iron through TfR1 is suppressed (202–206). The functional 5' IRE motif has been identified in other mRNAs coding for proteins involved in haem synthesis (erythroid aminolevulinate synthase, ALAS2) (207), hypoxia adaptation (hypoxia-inducible transcription factor-2 α , HIF-2 α also known as EPAS1) (208), tricarboxylic acid cycle (mitochondrial aconitase, ACO2) (209) or in Alzheimer's disease (amyloid beta precursor protein, APP) (210). The 3' IRE motif has been also found in mRNAs for proteins participating in cytoskeletal reorganization (CDC42-binding protein kinase α , also known as MRCK α) (211) and cell cycle control (cell division cycle 14A, CDC14A) (212). These examples show that IRP/IRE regulation extends to other processes besides iron homeostasis (213).

The main IRPs are IRP1 (also known as ACO1 or IREB1) and IRP2 (also known as ACO3 or IREB2) belonging to the aconitase family of proteins (214). This family also encompasses ACO2, the mitochondrial enzyme containing a cubic [4Fe-4S] cluster in its active site, which catalyses the conversion of citrate to isocitrate *via cis*-aconitate intermediate during Krebs cycle (215). IRP1 and IRP2 both bind IRE containing mRNA but they differ in several ways. IRP1 also contains the [4Fe-4S] cluster in its active site and works as a bifunctional enzyme. Under normal conditions, with the ISC inserted into its active site, IRP1 resembles the cytosolic function of ACO2, but in iron depleted cells, holo-IRP1 is converted into apo-IRP1 possessing the IREs binding activity (216). Unlike IRP1, IRP2 does not contain ISC and thus exhibits only IREs binding function (217).

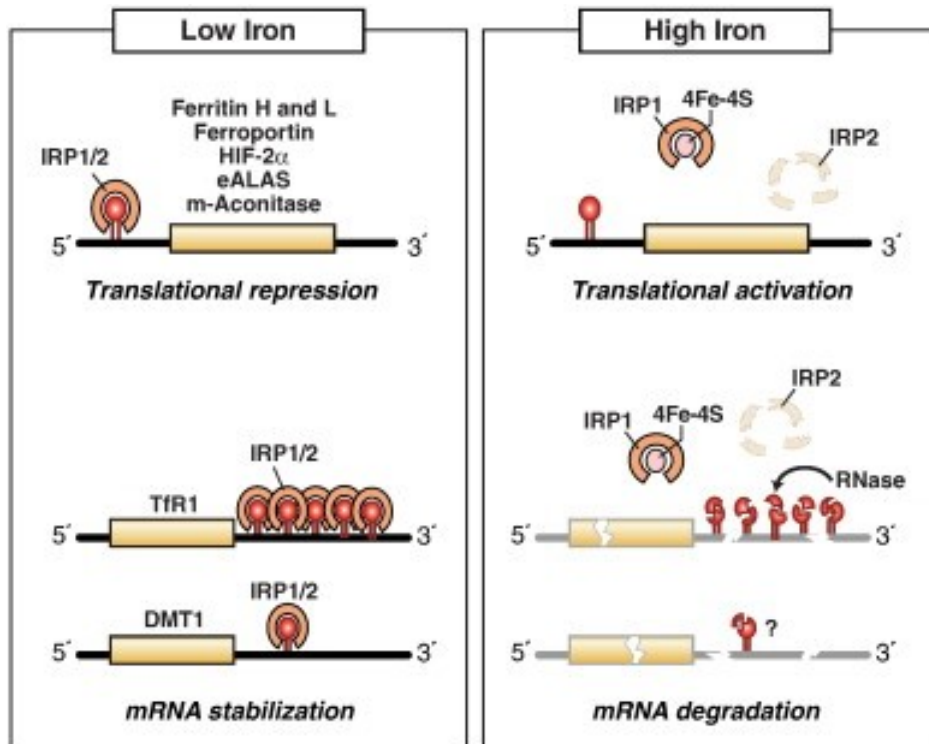


Fig. 2.5. Regulation of translation of mRNAs containing iron-responsive elements by iron responsive proteins (IRP1/2). When iron is limited, IRPs1/2 are activated and bind to 5' ends of mRNAs coding for ferritin, ferroportin, hypoxia inducible factor-2 α (HIF-2 α), 5-aminolevulinate synthase (ALAS) or m-aconitase, which leads to translation repression, and to 3' end of mRNAs coding for transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1) and divalent metal transporter 1 (DMT1) leading to mRNA stabilization. In iron replete cells, IRPs1/2 dissociate from target mRNAs. Figure adapted from ref. (218).

IRP1 is regulated by multiple mechanisms. A key role in IRP1 regulation plays the [4Fe-4S] cluster, which provides a direct sensor of the level of cellular iron as formation of the ISC cofactors is iron dependent. Several enzymes, as described in the chapter 2.2.5., are necessary for the biogenesis of ISCs and thus conversion of apo-IRP1 to holo-IRP1. Silencing of components of mitochondrial and cytosolic ISC biogenesis and/or iron deprivation leads to disruption of ISC formation and thus to activation of the IRP1 (218). IRP1 is also regulated by ROS and reactive nitrogen species. The [4Fe-4S] cluster is solvent accessible and reactive species such as superoxide anion ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) or peroxynitrite ($NOO^{\cdot-}$) can initiate cluster conversion to the [3Fe-4S], leading to formation of the IRP1 containing the [3Fe-4S] cluster that does not possess IRE binding activity. However, the responses to NO and H_2O_2 are more complex, probably involving other signalling pathways, and lead to cluster disassembly and activation of the IRP1/IRE binding on mRNA molecules (219,220).

Excess of iron causes inactivation of the IRP1 by two ways. First is so called iron-sulfur switch that is insertion of the [4Fe-4S] cluster into active site of IRP1, converting it into ACO1. The second mechanism is iron-mediated degradation of the IRP1 (221). IRP1 can be phosphorylated by protein kinase C at the conserved Ser¹³⁸ and Ser⁷¹¹ residues. Phosphorylation of Ser¹³⁸ sensitises IRP1 to non-oxidative demetallation of the [4Fe-4S] to the [3Fe-4S] cluster (222) and marks the IRP1 to iron-dependent degradation (221). IRP1 phosphorylated at Ser⁷¹¹ displays negligible IREs binding and aconitase activity (223).

IRP2 is regulated merely by iron mediated degradation. In iron replete cells, the IRP2 is targeted for proteasomal degradation by S-phase kinase associated protein 1-cullin-1-F-box/LRR-repeat protein 5 (SKP1-CUL1-FBXL5) E3 ubiquitin ligase complex. FBXL5 is a member of the F-box family adaptor proteins that has substrate specificity to SCF (SKP1-CUL1-F-box) E3 ubiquitin ligases. FBXL5 itself is regulated by intracellular iron level as it is degraded in cells upon iron and oxygen depletion and stabilised in iron-replete cells. This process requires iron-binding haemerythrin-like domain in FBXL5 N-terminus, which in the presence of iron and oxygen, binds iron and stabilises FBXL5 E3 ligase that ubiquitinates IRP2 and targets it to proteasomal degradation (224,225).

2.2.5. Iron-sulphur cluster biogenesis

ISCs are inorganic cofactors that typically bind to cysteinyl ligands in ISC binding proteins. Most commonly, the ISC requiring proteins contain rhomboid [2Fe-2S], cuboidal [3Fe-4S] or cubane [4Fe-4S] clusters (226). The biogenesis of mammalian ISCs is a multistep process located in both mitochondria and cytosol.

The first step in ISC formation is assembling of [2Fe-2S] cluster on an iron-sulphur cluster assembly enzyme scaffold protein (ISCU). This is accomplished by desulphuration of soluble cysteine by cysteine desulfurase complex NFS1-ISD11 serving as a sulphur donor (227). NFS1 is a pyridoxal phosphate-dependent transaminase that converts free cysteine to alanine and creates an enzyme-bound persulphide(-SSH) group serving as a source of sulphur (228). ISD11 (also known as LYR motif-containing protein 4 (LYRM4)) acts as a stabilizing partner of NFS1 heterodimer (229) that binds two diametrically opposed ISCU

scaffold proteins. ISCU provides the cysteine ligands to coordinate the nascent cluster. *De novo* [2Fe-2S] cluster synthesis requires the function of reduced ferredoxin (FDX2) (230), which reduces the persulphide sulphur (S^0) to sulphide (S^{2-}), and frataxin (FXN) for stimulation of sulphur transfer from NFS1 to ISCU (231) and/or possibly providing iron (Fig. 2.6.) (232).

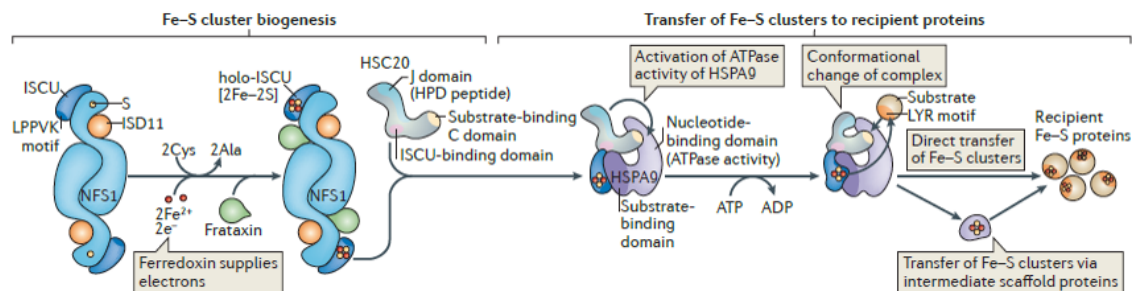


Fig. 2.6. The Fe-S cluster biogenesis and transfer to recipient proteins. The cysteine desulphurase NFS1 binds to its stabilizing partner protein ISD11 and two iron-sulphur cluster assembly enzyme scaffold proteins (ISCU). Desulphurase activity of NFS1 generates a persulphide (S, shown as a yellow circle) and cysteinyl ligand provided by ISCU stabilises the nascent cluster. Ferredoxin reduces the persulphide sulphur (S^0) to sulphide (S^{2-}) (230), and frataxin stimulates transfer of sulphur from NFS1 to ISCU (231) and/or possibly provides iron (232). The co-chaperon HSC20 binds to ISCU and facilitates ISCU release from NFS1-ISC11. The Leu-Pro-Pro-Val-Lys (LPPVK) motif of ISCU is recognised by substrate binding domain of HSPA9. The C domain of HSC20 binds to Leu-Tyr-Arg (LYR) motif of recipient proteins to tether them close to Fe-S cluster. The J domain of HSC20 protein activates ATPase activity of the nucleotide-binding domain of HSPA9. ATP hydrolysis drives conformational change for direct transfer of the Fe-S cluster from ISCU to target protein. The indirect transfer of Fe-S clusters requires other intermediate scaffold proteins. Figure adapted from ref. (233).

After the formation of a nascent cluster, it has to be transferred to target proteins. This is carried out by help of a co-chaperone HSC20, which binds ISCU, and forms a complex with its chaperone partner heat shock 70 kDa protein 9 (HSPA9), a member of the HSP70 heat shock protein family. HSPA9 uses energy from hydrolysis of ATP to drive conformational changes required for transfer of ISC to target proteins (Fig. 2.6.) (234). ISC is transferred directly or indirectly to recipient proteins. Direct transfer is *via* guiding function of HSC20, which binds to leucine-tyrosine-arginine (LYR) motif in acceptor proteins (234). The indirect ISC transfer includes intermediate carriers such as glutaredoxin 5 (GLRX5), which transiently accept [2Fe-2S] cluster and engage chaperone-co-chaperone complex to facilitate cluster insertion into target apoproteins (235). [2Fe-2S] cluster is also used for biosynthesis of the [4Fe-4S] clusters in a process requiring mitochondrial complex of

proteins iron-sulfur cluster assembly 1 and 2 (ISCA1, ISCA2) and putative transferase CAF17 (known as IBA57) (236). Additional factors then facilitate trafficking of newly synthesised [4Fe-4S] clusters to target apoproteins (237).

The biogenesis of cytosolic and nuclear ISC containing proteins is dependent on mitochondrial ISC assembly apparatus for generation of sulphur-containing compounds, which are exported to cytosol by the mitochondrial ABC transporter ABCB7. In the cytosol, these sulphur-containing compounds are then utilised by the cytosolic iron-sulphur protein assembly machinery for ISC formation, followed by ISC insertion into extra-mitochondrial target proteins (reviewed (238,239)).

2.2.6. Iron in cancer progression

As mentioned above, iron is an important micronutrient essential for cell replication, DNA synthesis, cellular metabolism and growth, and thus necessary for cancer cell proliferation. Ability to gain and lose electrons, makes iron indispensable in a broad range of enzymatic reactions but also enables iron to generate potentially deleterious ROS. Low levels of ROS may contribute to proliferation but high levels of ROS lead to oxidative damage to lipids, proteins and DNA, which may be mutagenic and/or lethal (166).

Over the years, it has been discovered that iron excess correlates with an increased cancer risk, mutagenesis and enhanced tumour growth. Several studies describe altered iron metabolism in cancer cells to maintain their demand for high iron requirements due to their proliferative nature and metabolic needs (6). Thus, components of machinery maintaining iron acquisition (TfR1, TfR2, DMT1, DCYTB, STEAP), storage (Ferritin), efflux (FPN) and regulation (IRP1 and IRP2) are all perturbed in cancer in a way to provide cells with sufficient amount of iron (reviewed in (6,7)). The higher demand for iron has also been already used in development of anti-cancer therapies. In view of important function of iron in cancer cells, iron chelators provide a way for cancer treatment. Some of them such as deferoxamine (DFO) or di-2-pyridylketone-4,4-dimethyl-3-thiosemicarbazone (Dp44mT) have been shown to inhibit cancer growth *in vitro* and *in vivo* by depletion of cellular iron and formation of ROS (8,240–243). Targeting of TfR1 also showed potential in cancer

treatment for direct targeting by antibodies or development of Tf conjugates for tumour specific TfR1 targeted delivery systems (244). Iron mediated generation of ROS to induce ferroptosis, a form of non-apoptotic cell death, was also utilised in treatment of cancer (245). Interestingly, a combination of iron chelator with antibodies against TfR1 showed an anticancer effect *in vitro* (246), yet this finding has not been translated into cancer treatment so far .

There are seldom reports describing the iron metabolism and importance of iron for biology of CSCs. Recently, it was shown by us (247) that CSCs of prostate and breast origin exhibit altered iron metabolism. Higher iron uptake, TfR1 and ferritin expression was reported in glioblastoma CSCs compared to non-CSCs (248). Contrary, silencing of *FTH* gene expression increased CSCs and EMT markers in ovarian and breast cancer cells (249,250). Another study shows that iron induces CSC phenotype in non-small cell lung cancer cells (251). Further, overexpression of FPN reduced EMT markers in breast cancer (252).

Importantly, data presented in these studies are in agreement with results that we obtained in our *in vitro* model of breast CSCs [245], suggesting that iron metabolism plays an important role in cancer progression and in the maintenance and self-renewal of CSCs. It is thus likely that reprogramming of iron/ROS metabolism is an important aspect of tumour cell survival. Targeting iron metabolism may thus provide new tools for cancer therapy which would not only affect proliferation of cancer cells but it would also target CSCs.

3. AIMS OF THE STUDY

Since the main objectives and significance of this work for study of cancer biology with relation to cancer treatment are already discussed in the first chapter of this thesis, in this part, the specific experimental aims of this study are given:

- 1) Generation of cells in form of floating spheres as an *in vitro* model of CSCs from different breast and prostate cancer cell lines by two different approaches, their comparison and validation of the phenotype of the resulting CSCs
- 2) Elucidation of the mechanisms of resistance in CSCs
 - a. Measurement of the response of CSCs to chemotherapeutic drugs together with usage of specific ABC transporters inhibitors.
 - b. Expression profiling of genes coding for 48 ABC transporters in generated spheres by using the high-throughput platform BioMark HD System (Fluidigm).
 - c. Confirmation of the most differentially expressed genes on the protein level for further experimental work.
 - d. Elucidating of the role of miR-301a-3p in the *in vitro* model of CSCs.
 - e. Defining the molecular mechanisms of miR-301a-3p action.
 - f. Determine the role of miR-301a-3p in tumor growth and its relevance as a prognostic factor.
- 3) Elucidation of iron metabolism in CSCs
 - a. Defining the role of iron in CSC biology by using iron chelators and measurement of iron flux in the cells.
 - b. Expression profiling of selected iron metabolism-related genes in generated spheres by using the high-throughput platform BioMark HD System (Fluidigm).

- c. Confirmation of the most differentially expressed genes on the protein level for further experimental work.
- d. Measurement of oxidative environment, activity of IRP/IRE system and activity of ISC containing enzymes in spheres.

4. MATERIALS AND METHODS

4.1. Tissue culture and sphere generation

All cell lines used in this work were obtained either directly from American Type Culture Collection or from prof. Lopez (Griffith University, Australia). Cells were routinely cultivated in Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM, Sigma) (BT474, DU-145, MCF7, T47D, ZR-75-30, ZR-751, MDA-MB-231 cells) or Roswell park memorial institute medium (RPMI, Sigma) (LNCaP cells) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS, Thermo Scientific), 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin; in 5% CO₂ and 37 °C. MCF10A cells were cultivated in DMEM/F12 (Lonza) with 5% horse serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, supplemented with 0.1 ng/ml cholera toxin, 20 ng/ml EGF (Thermo Scientific), 0.5 µg/ml hydrocortisone and 1 mg/ml insulin.

For generation of spheres, we used advanced DMEM/F12 or advanced RPMI1640 (for LNCaP cells) (Thermo Scientific) supplemented with 5% proliferation supplement (Stem Cell Technologies), 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, 10 mM 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), 2 mM glutamine, 20 ng/ml EGF, 5 ng/ml FGF (Thermo Scientific), 4 µg/ml heparin (Sigma). The control medium contained 5% FBS, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, 10 mM HEPES and 2 mM glutamine.

MCF7 cells with inducible expression of miR-301a were generated by stable transfection with two vectors from Clontech; trans-activator coded by pEF1-TET3G vector and doxycycline-inducible pTREG-IRES vector containing miR-301a gene or no insert (empty vector, EV),

4.2. DNA constructs

4.2.1. MiR-301a inducible vector

The sequence of pri-miRNA-301a was amplified by PCR from cDNA obtained from MCF7 cell line using Q5 hot start high-fidelity DNA polymerase (New England BioLabs) with the following primers:

Forward 5' CCCTCGTAAAGTCGACTGCATGTTTCTGTTCGAATG;

Reverse 5' CAGTTACATTAGATCTGGGCAAGTAACTGCAGGAAA.

The amplified sequence was then cloned into the Sall/BglII sites of pTRE3G-IRES vector (Clontech).

4.2.2. Luciferase vectors

The whole 4 kbp long 3'UTR sequence of *ESR1* gene was amplified by PCR from cDNA originating from MCF7 cell line using the following primers containing the NotI restriction sites:

Forward 5' TGCAAGTGAGCGGCCGCGAGCTCCCTGGCTCCCACA;

Reverse 3' TGCAAGTGAGCGGCCGCTTAGTTTAATTCTTTATTTGAACATC.

The amplified product was then cloned into NotI site of pTK-Cypridina vector (Thermo Scientific). Vectors with deleted the first, the second and both sites of predicted miR-301a-3p binding were created by site directed mutagenesis by using Q5 Hot start high-fidelity DNA polymerase (New England BioLabs) according to manufacturer's protocol with the following primers:

Site 1 Forward 5' TTGTTTTCTAAGTAATTGCTGCCTCTGTCTTTTGAGATTCAAGA
AAAATTTC;

Site 1 Reverse 5' GAAATTTTTCTTGAATCTCAAAGACAGAGGCAGCAATTACTT
AGAAAACAA;

Site 2 Forward 5' CATCCCGCTGGATTCTTTTTCAATGTTTCATTAAACAAAGCAA
AGC;

Site 2 Reverse 5' GCTTTGCTTTGTTTAATGAAACATTGAAAAAGAATCCAGCGGG
ATG.

The thermal conditions for PCR were: 98 °C for 5min; 5 cycles of 98 °C for 15 s, 80 °C for 10 s, 70 °C for 30 s and final extension at 72 °C for 8 min then 15 cycles of 98 °C for 10 s, 80 °C for 10 s and 72 °C for 8 min followed by final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. Product of PCR reaction was then incubated with DpnI Fast digest enzyme (Thermo Scientific) at 37 °C for 30 min and transformed into TOP10 ultracompetent cells. All constructs were verified by Sanger sequencing (GATC Biotech).

4.3. Luciferase assay

MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells were seeded at a concentration of 40 000 cells per well of a 24-well plate. Next day, cells were transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic (Sigma HMI0442), miR-301a-3p anti-miR (Ambion AM17000) and corresponding controls (Sigma HMC0003, Ambion AM17010) using INTERFERin transfection reagent according to manufacturer's protocol (Polyplus). After 24h, the medium was changed and the second transfection with reporter luciferase vectors (250 ng/well) and normalization pTK-Gaussia-Dura Luc vector (50 ng/well) (Thermo Scientific) was performed using Lipofectamine LTX and Plus Reagent (Thermo Scientific) according to manufacturer's instructions. After 24 h of incubation, medium was harvested to detect the activities of luciferases using the Pierce Gaussia/Cypridina Glow Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific) using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

4.4. MiR-301a-3p mimic and miR-301a-3p anti-miR transfection

MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells were seeded at concentration of 200 000 cells per well of a 6-well plate. Next day, cells were transfected with 40 nM miR-301a-3p mimic (Sigma HMI0442) or 80 nM miR-301a-3p anti-miR (Ambion AM17000) and corresponding controls (Sigma HMC0003, Ambion AM17010) using INTERFERin (Polyplus) according to manufacturer's instruction. After 72h of incubation cells were used for subsequent protein and RNA analysis or for measurement of response of cells to 17- β -E₂ (see chapter 4.5.).

4.5. Response of MCF7 cells to 17- β -oestradiol

Trypsinised cells were collected, washed several times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and seeded at a concentration of 2 500 cells per well of a 96-well plate in 100 μ l of DMEM media without phenol red (Sigma) supplemented with 10% charcoal stripped FBS (Thermo Scientific) and 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin. Cells were incubated with the increasing concentration of 17- β -E₂ for 5 days. Cells were then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS, washed with PBS and stained with 0.05% crystal violet dye (Sigma). The unbound dye was washed away with PBS and the bound dye was dissolved in 1% sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS). The absorbance was measured at 595 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

4.6. Cellular viability assays

Experiments showing sensitivity of cells to iron chelator were performed by using Cell Titer Glow (Promega, G7570) and Cell Titer Fluor assays (Promega, G6080) according to manufacturer's instruction. 5 000 cells per well were seeded into a white 96-well luminescence plate (Cell Titer-Glow) or a 96-well black fluorescent plate (Cell Titer-Fluor) and incubated with increasing concentration of iron chelator salicyl isonicotinoyl hydrazone (SIH) for 72 h. Cells were then incubated with equal amount of Cell Titer-Glow reagent and

luminescence was measured by Infinity M200 reader (TECAN). Similarly, cells were incubated with a fluorogenic peptide glycyphenylalanyl-aminofluorocoumarin and its fluorescence recorded at the excitation wavelength of 400 nm and emission wavelength of 505 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

Experiments showing sensitivity to daunorubicin and doxorubicin were performed by using cell counting kit-8 (CCK-8; Dojindo, CK04-20). 10 000 cells was seeded into 96-well plate and next day incubated with increasing concentration of doxorubicin or daunorubicin for 48 h. CCK-8 solution was then added into cell suspension and the mixture was incubated for 2 h. Absorbance was measured at 450 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

4.7. RNA isolation and quality determination

The isolation of total RNA was performed by means of RNazol (Molecular Research Center) and RNA from mice tumours was isolated by RNA Blue (Top-Bio), both according to manufacturer's instructions. RNA quantity was measured by using Nanodrop spectrophotometer (ND-1000, Thermo Scientific), and RNA integrity was measured with the Agilent 2100 Bionalyser (Agilent Technologies).

4.8. cDNA synthesis

RNA samples of RNA quality with RNA integrity number 8-10 were used. For fluidigm reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR), RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA by the Maxima H minus reverse transcriptase kit according to manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Scientific), using 400 ng of total RNA as a template and oligo-dT as primers.

For other application in this work, cDNA was synthesised using RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas) following manufacturer's instructions, using 700 ng of total RNA as a template and oligo-dT as primers.

4.9. Fluidigm RT-qPCR

Primer BLAST was used to design all primers in this work. The assays were designed to span intron and to have at least one primer covering an exon/exon boundary. The sequences of assays are listed in Supplementary table 1. Each sample for a fluidigm RT-qPCR was pre-amplified with mix of all primer pairs for 18 cycles. One reaction contained: 5 µl of iQ Supermix (Bio-Rad), 2 µl of diluted cDNA, 1.25 µl of pre-amplification primer mix in a final concentration of 25 nM and 1.25 µl of water. The pre-amplification thermal profile was: 95 °C for 60 s, 18 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 4 min at 60 °C. RT-qPCR was performed using the high-throughput platform BioMark HD System (Fluidigm) with 96.96 Dynamic Array IFC for gene expression. 5 µl of sample pre-mix contained: 1 µl of 20 x diluted pre-amplified cDNA, 2.5 µl of SsoFast EvaGreen Supermix (Bio-Rad), 0.25 µl of 20 x SG sample loading reagent (Fluidigm) and 1.25 µl of water. 5 µl of assay pre-mix contained: 2 µl of 10 µM primer assays, 2.5 µl of 2 x assay loading reagent (Fluidigm) and 0.5 µl of water. Thermal conditions for fluidigm RT-qPCR were: 98 °C for 3 min, 35 cycles of 98 °C for 5 s and 60 °C for 5 s. Raw data were subtracted from the gDNA control and efficiencies of individual assays were calculated from the serial dilutions of a mixed cDNA sample. Assays with insufficient efficacy or very high Cq values (> 25) were excluded from the analysis. The actual analysis was performed *via* the GenEx software version 6 and the missing values were replaced by the mean of average value calculated from the whole group. Reference genes for normalization were identified by Normfinder; data were normalised to several reference genes (*GAPDH*, *POLR2A*, *RPLP0*, *HPRT1* and *TBP*). The acquired data were subjected to statistical analysis by using the unpaired t-test *via* the GenEx software version 6; p-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant and results statistically significant with the Dun-Bonferroni correction are marked with #.

4.10. RT-qPCR using Eva Green DNA-binding dye

Primers for measurement of RT-qPCR were designed as described in the chapter 4.9. The sequences of used primers are listed in Supplementary table 1. One reaction for normal RT-qPCR contained: 2.5 µL of cDNA (containing 10 ng of template RNA), 1.5 µl of 5 x

HOT FIREpol Eva Green RT-qPCR mix (Solis Biodyne), 0.197 μ l of 10 μ M primer assays and 3.3 μ l of H₂O). The thermal profile for RT-qPCR was: 95 °C for 12 min, 38 cycles of 95 °C for 10 s, 60 °C for 20 s and 72 °C for 20 s. The data were analysed *via* GenEx software version 6, reference genes for normalization of the data were selected by Normfinder.

4.11. RT-qPCR using TaqMan probe

The expression of hsa-miR-301a-3p was measured by using the TagMan MicroRNA Assay (Applied Biosystems, TM000528); snU6 was used for normalization (Applied Biosystems, TM001973). Hsa-miR-301a-3p and snU6 were transcribed by RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas) using specific RT primers. One reaction for reverse transcription contained: 3.5 μ l of RT master mix (1.5 μ l of 5 x reaction buffer, 0.095 μ l of RNase inhibitor, 0.75 μ l of 10 mM dNTPs, 0.5 μ l of reverse transcriptase, 0.655 μ l of H₂O), 2.5 μ l of RNA (2 ng/ μ l) and 1.5 μ l of oligo-dT primers. Thermal profile for reverse transcription was: 16 °C for 30 min, 42 °C for 30 min, and 85 °C for 5 min. The subsequent RT-qPCR was carried out by using HOT FIREpol universal probe mastermix (Solis Biodyne). 1.5 μ l of 5 x mastermix, 0.375 μ l of TaqMan assay (20 x), 3.125 μ l of H₂O and 2.5 μ l of 5 x diluted cDNA was mixed and run for 95 °C 10 min and 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 60 s. The data were analysed *via* GenEx software version 6.

4.12. Western blotting

The amount of a specific protein was measured by standard western blot assay. Harvested cells were washed with PBS and lysed in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% NP-40) supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors. Protein concentration was measured *via* the bicinchoninic acid (BCA, Thermo Scientific). Samples were mixed with 4 x sample loading buffer and incubated for 5 min at 95 °C (exception was made for ABC transporters, where the samples were not boiled). 50 μ g of total protein was resolved on SDS polyacrylamide gels according to standard procedure at 20 mA per gel and blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane (BioRad) *via* Xcell blotting module (Invitrogen) at a constant voltage (35 V) for 2 h. After blocking with 5%

non-fat milk (Serva)/Tris-buffered saline with 0.05% Tween 20 (TBS-T) for 1 h, the membrane was incubated overnight in 5% bovine serum albumin (Sigma)/TBS-T with primary antibody against ACO1 (PA5-27824, Thermo Scientific), CYBRD1 (bs-8297R, Bioss), EPAS1 (PA116510, Thermo Scientific), GLRX5 (bs-13395R, Bioss), HEPH (bs-15458R, Bioss), HFE (bs-12335R, Bioss), IREB2 (PA116544, Thermo Scientific), QSOX1 (SAB2700031, Sigma), TfR1 (13-6800, Thermo Scientific), SLC39A14 (ab191199, Abcam), SLC40A1 (bs-4906R, Bioss), SLC11A2 (15083, Cell Signalling), Ferritin (ab75973, Abcam), ER α (sc-544, Santa Cruz), PR (8757S, Cell Signaling), GREB1 (HPA024616, Sigma), Cathepsin D (2284S, Cell Signaling), CXCL12 (3740S, Cell Signaling), BMP7 (ab129156, Abcam), ABCA1 (mAB10005, Merck Millipore), ABCA3 (LS-C313351, LSBio), ABCA5 (HPA022032, Sigma), ABCA7 (sc-377335, Santa Cruz), ABCA12 (ab98976, Abcam), ABCB1 (ab170904, Abcam), ABCB6 (ab194409, Abcam), ABCB7 (PA530219, Thermo Scientific), ABCB8 (HPA045187, Sigma), ABCB9 (sc-393412, Santa Cruz), ABCB10 (PA5-30468, Thermo Scientific), ABCC1 (14685S, Cell Signaling), ABCC2 (sc-5770, Santa Cruz), ABCC3 (14182S, Cell Signaling), ABCC4 (12705S, Cell Signaling), ABCC5 (bs-1437R, Bioss), ABCC6 (ab134913, Abcam), ABCC7 (sc-376683, Santa Cruz), ABCC8 (SAB1404430, Sigma), ABCC10 (bs-5761R, Bioss), ABCC11 (sc-249895, Santa Cruz), ABCC12 (sc-249900, Santa Cruz), ABCD3 (sc-20973, Santa Cruz), ABCD4 (sc-31878, Santa Cruz), ABCF1 (sc-377185, Santa Cruz), ABCF2 (sc-390496, Santa Cruz), ABCF3 (HPA036332, Sigma), ABCG1 (ab52617, Abcam), ABCG2 (4477S, Cell Signaling), ABCG4 (PA5-50289, Thermo Scientific), Actin (MA5-15739-HRP, Thermo Scientific), Tubulin (ab4742, Abcam). Next day, the membrane was washed with TBS-T and incubated with corresponding horseradish peroxidase- conjugated antibody in 1% non-fat milk/TBS-T for 1 h. The membrane was then washed again with TBS-T and incubated with either Clarity ECL (Biorad) or Sirius ECL substrate (Advansta) and chemiluminescence was assessed with ImageQuant LAS 4000 (GE Healthcare).

4.13. Measurement of labile iron pool

Labile iron pool (LIP) was measured by using fluorescence probe calcein, which binds Fe²⁺ rapidly, stoichiometrically, and reversibly while forming fluorescence quenched Ca-Fe

complexes (253). Cells were incubated with 250 nM calcein acetoxymethylester-(calcein-AM) for 30 min in medium without serum and sodium bicarbonate supplemented with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma). Cells were then washed twice with Hanks Balanced Salt Solution and seeded at concentration of 10,000 cells per well of 96-well plate. Fluorescence measurement started at the excitation wavelength of 468 nm, emission wavelength of 517 nm, after initial 5 min measurement by using infinity M200 reader (TECAN). Then 100 μ M of iron chelator SIH was added and the fluorescence was recorded after 2 min.

4.14. Measurement of ^{55}Fe uptake

Cells were dissociated with cell dissociation buffer (CDB; 1% BSA, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA in PBS, pH 7.4), washed twice with the reaction buffer (50 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 94 mM NaCl, 7.4 mM KCl, 0.74 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM D-Glucose) and 200 μ l of reaction buffer containing 1 million of cells was put into tube. 1 μ l of 1 μ Ci of ^{55}Fe in complex with citrate (1:10) was added into tube with cell solution. Tube was then incubated at 37 °C for 90 min with occasional mixing and cooled on ice. Background binding was determined by addition of 1 μ Ci of ^{55}Fe to the cells followed by immediate cooling. Samples were then washed 5 x with the reaction buffer, re-suspended in 100 μ l of water and added to 5 ml of scintillation fluid. Radioactivity was measured on a scintillation counter and background was corrected.

4.15. Measurement of ^{55}Fe subcellular localization

Cells were incubated with 50 nM ^{55}Fe complexed with citrate 1:10 for 72 h. Cells were dissociated in CDB and washed with reaction buffer used in the chapter 4.14. Cells were counted and diluted in STE buffer (250 mM sucrose, 10 mM TRIS, 1 mM EDTA) to a concentration of 4 million of cells per 1 ml of STE buffer. Cells were homogenised according to Smitt et al. (254) to retain intact mitochondria. Cellular homogenate was spun at 800 \times g for 5 min to collect nuclei then spun at 3000 \times g for 5 min and resulting supernatant was spun at 9,000 \times g for 10 min to gain mitochondrial fraction and cytosolic fraction. Protein content in each fraction was determined by the BCA assay (Thermo Scientific) and 20 μ g of

protein was used for radioactivity measurement by a scintillation counter and background was corrected.

4.16. Aconitase activity assay

Activity of aconitase enzyme was measured by using the aconitase activity assay (MAK051, Sigma) according to manufacturer's instructions. Absorbance was measured at 450 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN). Background was subtracted by using activity of lysates without substrate and values were normalised to protein content measured by BCA method (Thermo Scientific).

4.17. Activity of mitochondrial complex I

Activity of mitochondrial complex I (CI) was detected by mitochondrial respiratory CI assay (ab109721, Abcam) according to manufacturer's instructions. Assay is based on immune-capturing of CI followed by colorimetric reaction measuring its activity. Absorbance was measured at 450 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

4.18. Assessment of the iron responsive protein/iron responsive element binding activity

Harvested cells were spun at $300 \times g$ for 5 min, washed with PBS and lysed in buffer containing 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 3 mM MgCl₂, 40 mM KCl, 1 mM DTT and 0.2% NP-40. Proteins were quantified by the BCA method (Thermo Scientific). 60 µg of protein lysate was incubated with 4 µM of Cy5 labelled IRE probe containing the IRE sequence from the human *FTH* gene (Cy5-UCGUCGGGGUUUCCUGCUUCAACAGUGCUUGG-ACGGAACCGGCGCU) in 24 mM HEPES, 60 mM KCl, 5% Glycerol, 0.004 U/µl RNAsin, with or without 2% β-mercaptoethanol in a total volume of 20 µl for 20 min. Then 2 µl of heparin (255,256) was added and mixture was incubated for another 10 minutes.

Consequently, 2.4 μl of 10 x loading dye was added and the reaction mixture was loaded onto 3–20% acrylamide gel in TBE buffer (89 mM Tris (pH 7.6), 89 mM boric acid, 2 mM EDTA). Electrophoresis run at 70 V for 30 minutes, followed by 120 V until the blue dye reached the bottom of the gel. The gel was then visualised by the Typhoon instrument.

4.19. Detection of reduced glutathione and reduced/oxidised glutathione ratio level

The level of reduced glutathione (GSH) and ratio between GSH and oxidised glutathione - glutathione disulphide (GSSG) was detected by using fluorescence based kit (BioVision) according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cells were spun, washed with PBS and lysed in cell lysis buffer. Protein concentration was measured by the BCA method (Thermo Scientific). 1 μg of total protein lysate was mixed with 25 μl of assay buffer in black 96-well plate. 25 μl of the glutathione assay mixture or total glutathione assay mixture was added to samples. Fluorescence was measured at the excitation wavelength of 480 nm and emission wavelength at 520 nm using infinity M200 reader (TECAN).

4.20. Measurement of the level of mitochondrial membrane potential and reactive oxygen species

Spheres and control cells were dissociated by CDB used in the chapter 4.14 to obtain single cell suspension and incubated with fluorescent probes for 15 min. ROS were assessed by using 5 μM 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA), 2.5 μM dihydroethidium (DHE), 5 μM hydroxyphenyl fluorescein (HPF) or 2.5 μM MitoSOX and mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi\text{m}$) was measured by 50 nM tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (TMRM). After incubation, cells were spun 300 x g for 5 min and re-suspended in PBS. Fluorescence was measured by flow cytometer (BD FACS Calibur) and expressed as a mean fluorescence intensity *via* FlowJo 9.6.2. software.

4.21. *In vivo* experiments

All animal studies were approved by Czech Academy of Sciences and conducted in accordance with Czech Council guidelines for the Care and Use of Animals in Research and Teaching.

Female Balb/c nude athymic mice (CAnN.Cg-Foxn1nu/Crl, Charles River) were implanted subcutaneously with 0.72 mg/90-day-release 17β -E₂ pellet (Innovative Research of America, NE-121). Next day, mice were injected subcutaneously with MCF7 cells inducibly expressing miR-301a or with an EV in amount of 2×10^6 cells per animal (4 mice per group and experiment was repeated twice). Mice were given doxycycline diet (200 mg/kg, Bio-Serv). The tumour growth was monitored twice a week by ultrasound imaging instrument Vevo770 (Visual Sonics) and quantified by Vevo software version 3. Mice were then sacrificed and tumours taken for further analysis (measurement of gene and protein expression by RT-qPCR and western blot).

4.22. Patient samples

Fresh frozen tumour tissue samples were obtained from 111 patients with primary breast carcinoma diagnosed at the Motol University Hospital (Prague, Czech Republic), the Hospital Atlas (Zlin, Czech Republic), and the Faculty Hospital Kralovske Vinohrady (Prague, Czech Republic) between years 2003 and 2014. Processing of the tissue samples was described in detail previously (257). Histological classification of carcinomas was performed according to standard diagnostic procedures (258). Expression of ER and PR was assessed immunohistochemically with the 1% cut-off value for classification of tumours as hormone receptor positive. ERBB2 (OMIM:164870) status was defined as positive in samples with immunohistochemical score 2+ or 3+ confirmed by fluorescence in situ hybridization or silver in situ hybridization analysis. Clinical characteristics of studied breast carcinoma patients are described in Table 4.1.

The expression level of the hsa-miR-301a-3p and snU6 was assessed in patient samples by RT-qPCR as described in the chapter 4.11. All patients were informed about the study and

those who agreed and signed an informed consent participated in the study. The study was approved by the Ethical Commission of the National Institute of Public Health in Prague. The methods were carried out in accordance with guidelines approved by the above Ethical Commission.

Table 4.1. Clinical characteristics of studied breast carcinoma patients

Characteristics	Number of patients (%)
<i>Menopausal status</i>	
premenopausal	12 (10.8)
postmenopausal	93 (83.8)
not available	6 (5.4)
<i>Histological type</i>	
invasive ductal carcinoma	111 (100)
<i>Tumor size, median \pm S.D., mm</i>	
	18.5 \pm 9.8
<i>Lymph node metastasis</i>	
positive (pN1-3)	40 (36.0)
negative (pN0)	60 (54.1)
not determined (pNx)	11 (9.9)
<i>Pathological stage</i>	
I	39 (35.2)
II	50 (45.0)
III	11 (9.9)
not available	11 (9.9)
<i>Histological grade</i>	
G1	17 (15.3)
G2	54 (48.6)
G3	40 (36.0)
<i>Oestrogen receptor expression</i>	
positive	55 (49.5)
negative	56 (50.5)
<i>Progesterone receptor expression</i>	
positive	55 (49.5)
negative	56 (50.5)
<i>HER2 expression</i>	
positive	46 (41.4)
negative	65 (58.6)
<i>Pathological subgroup</i>	
ER ⁺ , PR ⁺ , ERBB2 ⁺	22 (19.8)
ER ⁺ , PR ⁺ , ERBB2 ⁻	33 (29.7)
ER ⁻ , PR ⁻ , ERBB2 ⁺	24 (21.6)
ER ⁻ , PR ⁻ , ERBB2 ⁻	32 (28.8)

4.23. Statistics

Results are represented as mean values \pm SEM from at least three independent experiments. Statistics to calculate the difference between groups was carried out using the Student t-test, where $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

5. RESULTS

The majority of results presented in this thesis were done by me personally. However, in the last part of this thesis dedicated to iron metabolism in CSCs, I also present data which were obtained mainly by Z. Rychtarčíková and other co-workers from the Laboratory of tumour resistance. My main contribution to the iron metabolism project was preparation and cultivation of cell samples for subsequent analysis and expression profiling of the iron metabolism related genes on the mRNA level. Yet, I present all data that are necessary to illustrate the main scientific findings and their relevance to CSC biology as otherwise it would show incomplete picture of our findings and would present only fragmental knowledge of the topic. The data panels that are not the result of my personal work are thus labelled as “adapted from (247)” in all corresponding figure legends.

5.1. Spheres as an *in vitro* model of CSCs

To study the properties of CSCs *in vitro*, we used previously published methods of generating CSCs based on formation of non-adherent spheres (Fig. 5.1. A) *via* two alternative approaches. First method utilises cultivation of cancer cells on non-adherent plastic (259) and spheres generated by this approach are further referred as “agar”. The second method is based on cultivation of cancer cells on normal plastic but in serum free medium containing proliferation supplement, EGF, FGF and heparin, which was already tested for CSCs generation in our lab (260). We were able to produce spheres from several breast (MCF7, BT474, T47D, ZR-75-30, MDA-MB-231) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines but in some cell lines (DU-145) only the “agar” approach produced spheres. We also used non-malignant cell line of breast origin (MCF10A), from which we were not able to generate spheres by neither of the mentioned approach. Thus, we showed that only malignant cells, but not immortalised ones, have the propensity to generate spheres. However, the second approach generated spheres with more profound expression of CSC and EMT markers (Fig. 5.1. B), and this approach was used for further experiments.

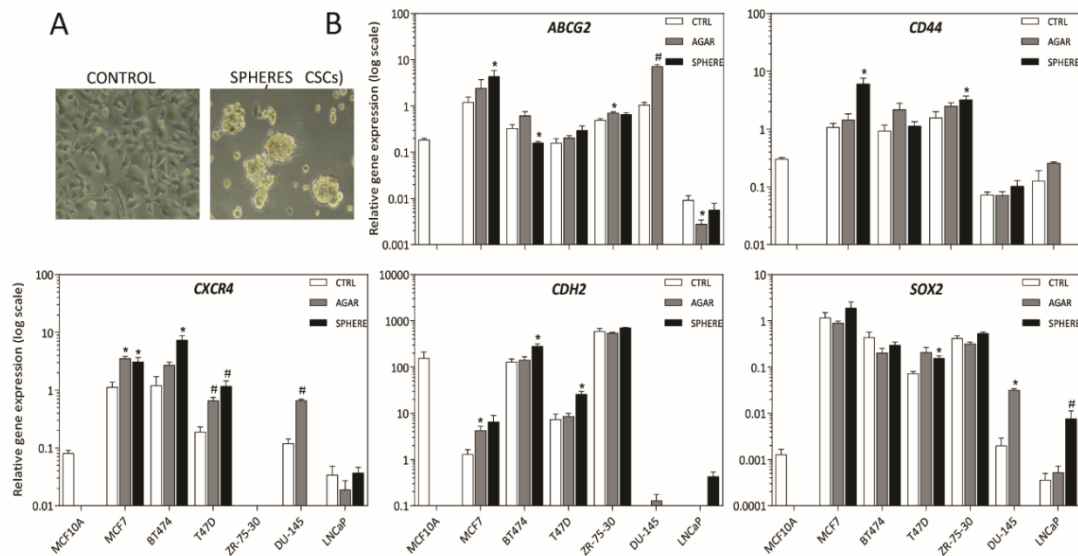


Fig. 5.1. Expression of cancer stem cell (CSC) and epithelio-mesenchymal transition (EMT) markers in various cell lines and their corresponding spheres representing CSCs. A, Appearance of MCF7 cells growing under control and sphere forming conditions B, Fluidigm RT-qPCR of stem cell and EMT markers in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$, # denotes statistical significance involving Dun-Bonferroni correction.

5.2. Mechanisms of resistance in CSCs

5.2.1. Spheres derived from MCF7 and T47D cell lines show resistance to anthracyclines doxorubicin and daunorubicin

The presence of CSCs in tumours is reported to be one of the reasons for resistance of tumours to cancer treatment. Therefore, we examined the response of our *in vitro* model of CSCs to commonly used drugs doxorubicin and daunorubicin. We treated control adherent and sphere cells derived from MCF7 and T47D cell lines with increasing concentrations of doxorubicin and daunorubicin for 48 h and measured their viability. We detected significantly higher amount of living cells in spheres derived from both cell lines than in corresponding control adherent cells, both in case of doxorubicin and daunorubicin (Fig. 5.2. A, B, C, D).

In conclusion, our *in vitro* model of CSCs exhibits resistance to commonly used anti-cancer drugs doxorubicin and daunorubicin and confirms the hypothesis that CSCs play a role in resistance.

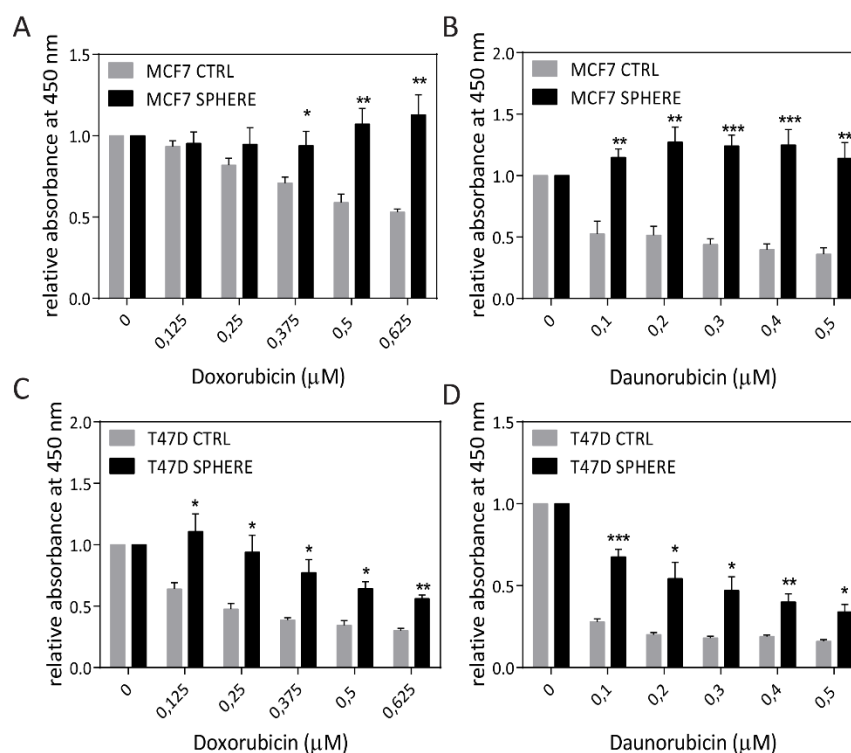


Fig. 5.2. Spheres derived from MCF7 and T47D cell lines are more viable than control adherent cells in response to doxorubicin and daunorubicin. A, B, C, D, Absorbance of reduced WST-8 formazan dye showing effect of doxorubicin and daunorubicin after 48 h on spheres derived from MCF7 and T47D cell lines and control cells. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2.2. Inhibitors of ABC transporters decrease viability of CSCs

To see whether the inhibitors of ABC transporters may reverse the effect of chemotherapeutics, we treated cells for 24 h with inhibitors of ABCB1 (verapamil), ABCC1 (MK-571) and ABCG2 (novobiocin) transporters, which are known to transport doxorubicin and daunorubicin. As an assessment of cellular cytotoxicity, we used Cell Titer Glow assay, which detects cellular ATP level and it is used as a measure of cellular viability. Interestingly, we realised that spheres derived from MCF7, T47D and BT474 cell lines were

less viable than control adherent cells in the presence of the inhibitors. We detected a significant reduction in ATP level in MCF7, T47D and BT474 spheres when using MK-571 and novobiocin inhibitors and also a significant decrease in ATP level in BT474 spheres when using verapamil inhibitor in comparison to control adherent cells (Fig. 5.3.).

In summary, ABC transporter inhibitors MK-571, novobiocin and partly verapamil cause a decrease in viability of our *in vitro* model of CSCs, suggesting that ABC transporters play an important role in the biology of these cells.

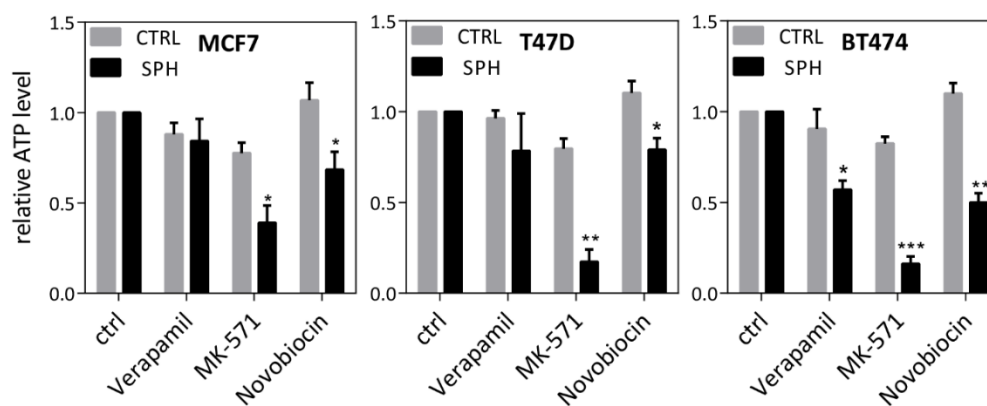


Fig. 5.3. Inhibitors of ABCB1 (verapamil), ABCC1 (MK-571) and ABCG2 (novobiocin) reduce viability of spheres derived from MCF7, T47D and BT474 cell lines. Spheres and control MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells were incubated with verapamil (20 μ M), MK-571 (80 μ M) or novobiocin (100 μ M) for 24 h and ATP level was measured by Cell Titer Glow assay. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2.3. CSCs generated from several cancer cell lines show alterations in expression of genes belonging to the ABC transporter superfamily

The specificity of verapamil, MK-571 and novobiocin against given transporter might be questionable as they also exerts other mechanisms of action. To better understand the role of ABC transporters in biology of CSCs, we decided to perform expression profiling of 48 members of ABC transporter family. Using fluidigm RT-qPCR from Biomark, we performed expression profiling of these genes in control adherent and sphere cells derived from various breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP)

cancer cell lines and non-malignant (MCF10A) cell line of breast origin. We obtained expression profile of 39 genes belonging to ABC transporters that were detectable in our cell lines and showed reliable RT-qPCR standard curves (Table 5.1.). We detected significant changes in gene expression in almost all groups of ABC transporters, the most significant mRNA upregulation across cell lines was detected in *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCB10*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* and *ABCG2* (Table 5.1.). Interestingly, although there were some downregulated ABC transporters in individual cell lines, there was not a single one that would be significantly downregulated in all cell lines tested.

Next, we decided to assess the expression of ABC transporters also on the protein level by western blot analysis in breast cancer cell lines. Firstly, we wanted to check only the most upregulated genes, but we eventually discovered that the protein level of most ABC transporters did not significantly correlate with their mRNA level. Thus, we decided to measure the protein level of additional ABC transporters in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cell lines. We detected significant changes between control and sphere cells in almost all groups of ABC transporters with exception of the ABCD and ABCE groups (Fig. 5.4.). From western blot analysis, we selected the most differentially expressed ABC transporters, which were significantly altered in all three cell lines. Among these are ABCB8, ABCC1, ABCC2, ABCC10 and ABCG2 upregulated while ABCB10 and ABCF2 transporters are downregulated in spheres, and their role in biology of CSCs will be further studied.

In summary, we performed an expression profile of all 48 ABC transporters on mRNA and majority of them on protein level. We selected several ABC transporters which showed highest difference in expression between sphere and control cells for further study of their role in the biology of CSCs.

Table 5.1. Expression profiling of ABC transporters in CSCs derived from breast and prostate cancer cell lines.

Gene	(MCF7 SPH) vs (MCF7 CTRL)	(T47D SPH) vs (T47D CTRL)	(BT474 SPH) vs (BT474 CTRL)	(ZR-75-30 SPH) vs (ZR-75-30 CTRL)	(DU-145 AGAR) vs (DU-145 CTRL)	(LNCaP SPH) vs (LNCaP CTRL)				
	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value				
1 ABCA1	0.7446	0.0009	8.14	0.0135	1.17	0.6380	1.45	0.5310	2.32	0.0453
2 ABCA2	1.02	0.8976	-1.14	0.4335	1.15	0.6777	1.20	0.3730	1.56	0.0312
3 ABCA3	1.96	0.0119	3.96	0.0068	1.60	0.7153	11.88	0.0385	1.62	0.0300
4 ABCA4	-1.23	0.5424	-5.51	0.0115	1.10	0.8703	-1.68	0.0545	2.71	0.1559
5 ABCA5	1.23	0.5406	3.29	0.0032	6.28	0.0061	3.40	0.0135	2.22	0.0598
6 ABCA7	1.54	0.0331	1.33	0.3484	1.09	0.6745	-1.32	0.5971	3.65	0.0267
7 ABCA10	-1.41	0.0523	1.09	0.4930	1.07	0.4853	-4.45	0.2672	-1.35	0.1932
8 ABCA12	2.43	0.0912	3.72	0.0039	2.19	0.0368	-1.01	0.0859	2.20	0.1932
9 ABCA13	2.14	0.2248	3.97	0.0003	-1.16	0.8219	1.77	0.3722	3.73	0.0005
10 ABCB1	1.43	0.2607	-1.23	0.7141			7.30	0.1812	2.48	0.0509
11 ABCB4	2.20	0.0022								
12 ABCB6	1.86	0.0437	1.34	0.0001	1.45	0.0545	-2.20	0.4241	1.82	0.0091
13 ABCB7	1.36	0.0166	1.85	0.0255	1.52	0.0131	2.18	0.1724	2.05	0.0782
14 ABCB8	1.39	0.1300	1.46	0.0760	1.31	0.0261	1.25	0.4125	1.94	0.0214
15 ABCB9	1.59	0.0620	1.65	0.0538	2.25	0.0335	-1.02	0.8416	3.05	0.0978
16 ABCB10	1.93	0.0167	1.72	0.1498	1.71	0.1549	2.73	0.0670	2.40	0.0454
17 ABCB11					1.69	0.3496			-3.86	0.0010
18 ABCC1	1.62	0.0673	2.92	0.0228	1.88	0.0406	2.51	0.0713	7.84	0.0505
19 ABCC2	7.13	0.0008	5.64	0.0085	3.42	0.0214	3.60	0.0537	11.37	0.0014
20 ABCC3	1.52	0.4250	4.29	0.0016	15.73	0.0000	5.45	0.0108	1.49	0.2588
21 ABCC4	1.34	0.3057	3.27	0.1727	3.27	0.1727	1.28	0.4261	1.51	0.3116
22 ABCC5	2.20	0.0122	4.04	0.0036	1.48	0.2568	-1.04	0.9606	4.91	0.0260
23 ABCC6	4.20	0.0803	-1.11	0.6528			2.81	0.3394	-1.47	0.3892
24 ABCC7 (CFTR)	2.29	0.0000	-2.03	0.3997					2.28	0.0089
25 ABCC8	2.02	0.0123	1.96	0.0754	3.94	0.0009			1.58	0.0799
26 ABCC10	1.64	0.0809	1.82	0.2097	1.58	0.0209	1.53	0.0022	2.47	0.0489
27 ABCC11	17.00	0.0012	4.10	0.0046	5.06	0.0103				
28 ABCC12			21.31	0.0002	10.52	0.0144				
29 ABCD1	1.46	0.2771	-1.45	0.2096	1.74	0.1282	-1.33	0.0393	1.11	0.8475
30 ABCD2	-1.10	0.7000					2.72	0.2072	-1.72	0.1879
31 ABCD3	1.64	0.0490	1.04	0.8695	1.76	0.0274	-2.59	0.4817	1.54	0.2811
32 ABCD4	1.09	0.4228	1.07	0.7292	1.06	0.6164	1.45	0.2833	1.26	0.0407
33 ABCE1	1.03	0.8798	-1.08	0.8438	-1.23	0.3721	1.30	0.6154	1.58	0.5806
34 ABCF1	1.28	0.0773	1.36	0.1496	1.43	0.0049	-2.39	0.4739	1.31	0.1170
35 ABCF2	1.21	0.1116	1.16	0.2832	-1.02	0.8878	1.29	0.1748	1.08	0.5564
36 ABCF3	1.31	0.0636	1.20	0.0264	1.43	0.0076	1.48	0.3320	1.42	0.0843
37 ABCG1	2.39	0.0644	1.66	0.0825	5.09	0.0003			3.36	0.0595
38 ABCG2	2.77	0.1416	1.85	0.1586	-2.01	0.0411	1.36	0.0424	6.84	0.0003
39 ABCG4	1.17	0.7282	2.19	0.0105	1.39	0.6257	-1.00	0.1464	2.19	0.1464

Table shows fold changes in expression of given genes (downregulation is expressed as negative fold change > 1.5, yellow field show fold change > 1.5, yellow field show fold change < -1.5), statistical significance was calculated by t-test, green field show p < 0.05. The analysis was performed by GenEx software. Genes ABCA6, ABCA8, ABCA9, ABCB2, ABCB3, ABCB5, ABCC13, ABCG5, ABCG8 were excluded from the analysis due to assay inefficiency or their low detection.

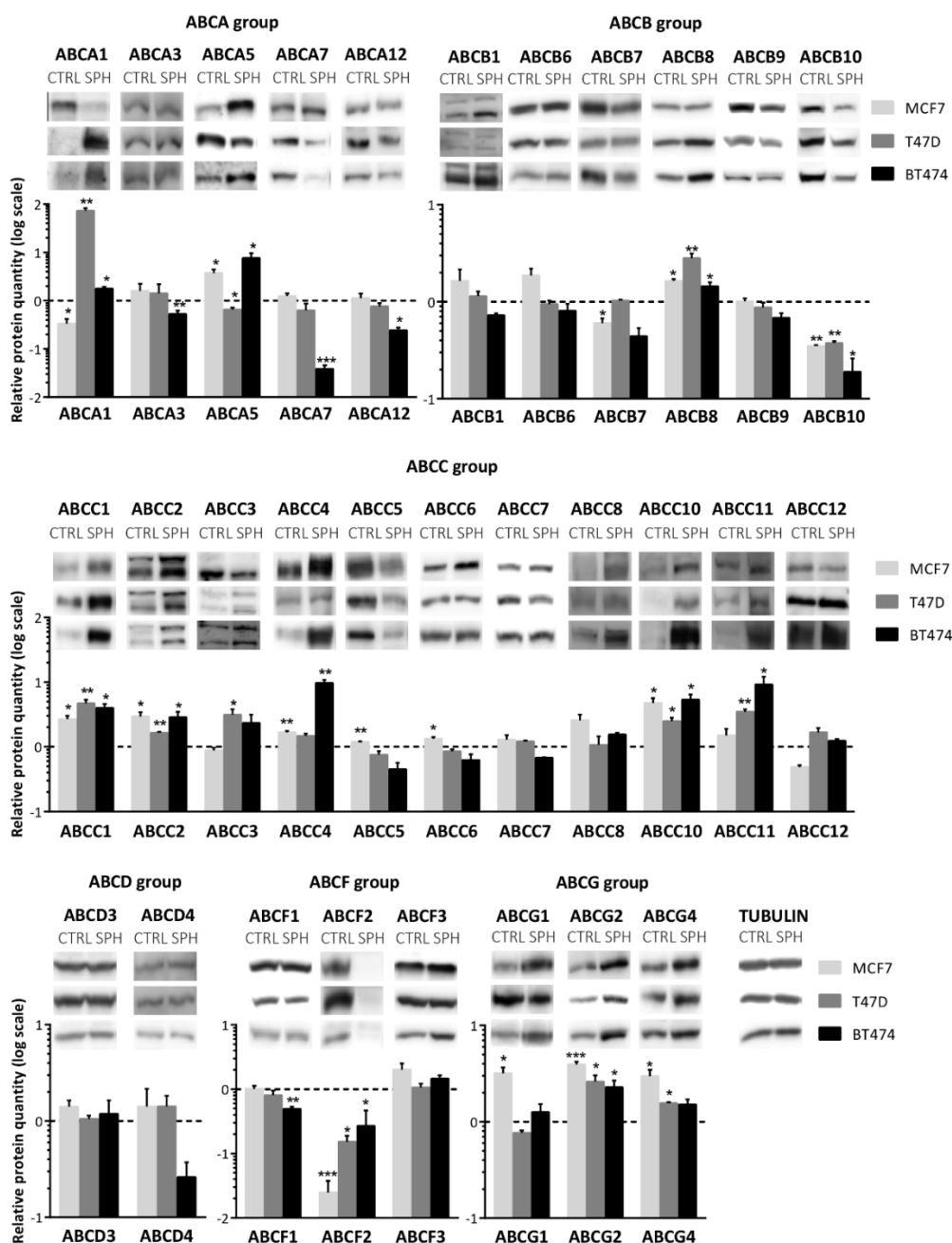


Fig. 5.4. Expression of ABC transporters in spheres derived from MCF7, T47D and BT474 cell lines. Representative western blots showing expression of given ABC transporters in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7, T47D and BT474 cancer cell lines. Below each set of western blot pictures is the densitometry evaluation of a given ABC transporter in each cell line expressed relatively to control adherent cells which were given value 0 (logarithm of 0 equals 1). Bars over the line intersecting value 0 show upregulation of ABC transporters, bars below 0 value show down-regulation of ABC transporters in sphere samples. Densitometry was performed by image J software, each western blot was related to corresponding tubulin protein (representative western blots shown), which was used as a loading control. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test, where the values obtained from the spheres were compared to the control values; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2.4. CSCs generated from breast cancer cells lines show increased expression of miR-301a-3p

Increasing evidence suggests that invasive properties of breast cancer cells are related to their reprogramming into CSCs (59,261). It has been recently discovered that expression of miR-301a-3p correlates with invasive properties of breast cancer cells and also other tumour types (116,123,262). Moreover, it was also reported that expression of miR-301a-3p supports EMT (263). Therefore, we assessed the expression level of miR-301a-3p in our *in vitro* model of CSCs by using a specific Taqman assay. We generated spheres from several ER α positive breast cancer cell lines (MCF7, T47D, BT474 and ZR-751) and compared the expression level of miR-301a-3p between spheres and control counterparts. MCF10A were included as a control representing normal breast epithelial cells. We detected significantly increased expression level of miR-301a-3p in spheres when compared to control cells in MCF7, T47D and ZR-751 cell lines (Fig. 5.5. A). However, we did not detect any difference in miR-301a-3p expression level between sphere and control cells in the BT474 cell line, which might be explained by already very high miR-301a-3p expression level in BT474 control cells when compared to other tested adherent cells.

Importantly, we analysed the ER signalling in the spheres derived from MCF7 cell line and corresponding control cells as oestrogen signalling has been proposed to play an important role in maintenance and self-renewal capacity of CSCs (3,264). We detected inhibition of ER signalling in spheres as documented by western blot analysis showing a decrease in ER α protein expression followed by decreased protein expression of ER α regulated genes such as growth regulation by oestrogen in breast cancer 1 (GREB1) and PR (Fig. 5.5. B).

Together, our data show increased expression of miR-301a-3p in CSCs which exhibit inhibition of ER signalling.

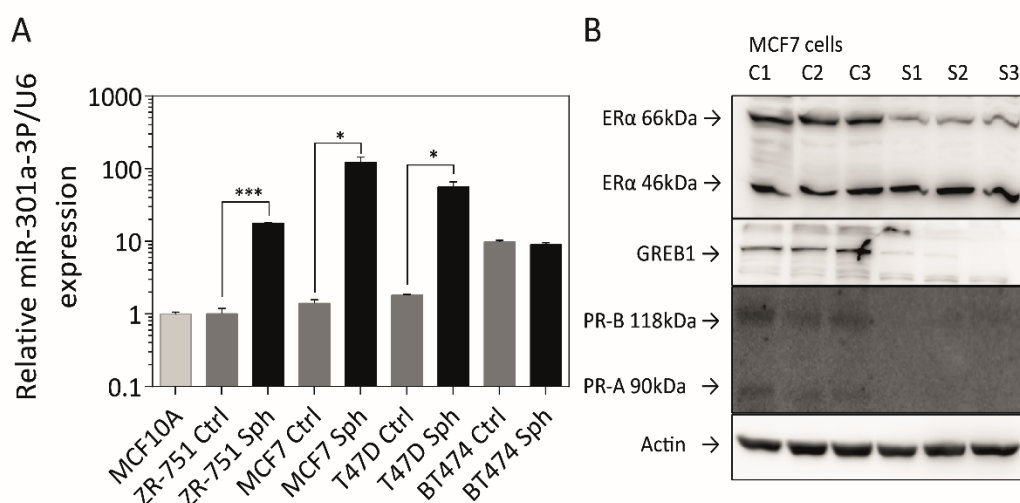


Fig. 5.5. Mir-301a-3p is highly upregulated in CSCs with downregulated ER signalling.

A, RT-qPCR was used to measure expression of miR-301a-3p in different cell lines cultivated as spheres and normal adherent cells. **B**, Western blots showing decreased expression of ER α , GREB1 and PR proteins in MCF7 control and sphere cells. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test, where the values obtained from the spheres were compared to the control values; * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2.5. *ESR1* mRNA is a direct target of miR-301a-3p

In order to gain further insight into whether miR-301a-3p plays a role in regulation of ER signalling, we searched for miR-301a-3p binding sequences within the *ESR1* mRNA encoding ER α protein. For this purposes, we used three different publicly available miRNA databases (MiRanda, TargetScan, miRBase) where we found that within 3' UTR of *ESR1* mRNA are two miR-301a-3p seed sequences (Fig. 5.6. A).

To validate the prediction that miR-301a-3p negatively regulates expression of *ESR1* mRNA through binding into its 3' UTR, we cloned a 4 kbp long 3' UTR of *ESR1* mRNA (containing two miR-301a-3p binding sites) downstream of the *Cypridina* luciferase gene in a reporter plasmid system. MCF7 cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and miR-301a-3p anti-miR and corresponding controls were then transfected with reporter plasmid. We detected a significant decrease in luciferase activity in cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and conversely significant increase in luciferase activity in cells transfected with miR-301a anti-miR (Fig. 5.6. B). We did not detect any change in luciferase activity, when reporter plasmid

with deleted miR-301a-3p binding sites was used (Fig. 5.6. B). To identify, which miR-301a-3p binding site is more crucial in regulation of *ESR1* mRNA translation, we also constructed the same reporter system with deleted first, second or both miR-301a-3p binding sites and transfected them into MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells. We detected significant increase in luciferase activity in cells transfected with these reporter plasmids, meaning both binding sites are important in regulation of *ESR1* mRNA translation (Fig. 5.6. C). However, removal of the first site resulted in an increase in luciferase activity comparable to luciferase activity of the plasmid carrying both deleted miR-301a-3p binding sites while deletion of the second binding site led to only partial increase (Fig. 5.6. C), meaning that the first site has a prominent role in regulation of *ESR1* mRNA translation by miR-301a-3p.

To confirm the biological relevance of miR-301a-3p in regulation of *ESR1* mRNA translation, we assessed the effect of the ectopic miR-301a-3p expression on the level of *ESR1* mRNA and its protein product ER α . We detected that high level of miR-301a-3p resulted in a significant decrease in *ESR1* mRNA level in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells (Fig. 5.6. D), as well as in a decrease in ER α protein level in these cells, however protein decrease was significant only in MCF7 and T47D cells (Fig. 5.6. E). Our data also show that downregulation of miR-301a-3p by using miR-301a-3p anti-miR had only marginal effect on *ESR1* mRNA and protein expression which was significant only in BT474 cells (Fig. 5.6. D, E). It is in line with the fact, that BT474 cell line has the highest endogenous miR-301a-3p level and thus, its downregulation was the most effective (Fig. 5.6. D).

Altogether, our results demonstrate that miR-301a-3p recognises and binds to 3' UTR of *ESR1* mRNA to suppress its translation, resulting in a decrease in ER α protein level.

5.2.6. MiR-301a-3p mimic downregulate canonical oestrogen receptor signalling pathway

ER α is a ligand activated transcription factor that regulates expression of many target genes and is one of the crucial marker for cancer diagnosis and treatment (265). For this reason, we assessed the influence of miR-301a-3p on expression of genes that are positively or negatively regulated by ER α . As an experimental system, we used MCF7, T47D and BT474 cell lines transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic, miR-301a-3p anti-miR and corresponding control RNAs. Increased ectopic expression of miR-301a-3p leads to a significant decrease in mRNA expression of genes that are positively regulated by ER α such as *progesterone receptor α* (*PGRA*), *GREB1*, *CXCL12* or *cathepsin D* (*CSTD*) and to a significant increase in mRNA expression of *bone morphogenetic protein 7* (*BMP7*), a gene which is negatively regulated by ER α (Fig. 5.7.). Changes in the expression of these genes were also replicated on protein level (Fig. 5.8.). The effect of downregulation of miR-301a-3p by miR-301a-3p anti-miR on ER α signalling pathway was significant only in BT474 cell line (Fig. 5.7., 5.8.). In MCF7 and T47D cell lines, the effect of miR-301a-3p anti-miR was only marginal (Fig. 5.7., 5.8.). As mentioned in the previous chapter, BT474 cell line has already high endogenous level of miR-301a-3p, thus the effect of miR-301a-3p anti-miR is the most evident here and resulted in a significant upregulation of *ESR1* mRNA and ER α protein, which was accompanied by statistically significant increase in mRNA level of ER α regulated genes *GREB1*, *PGRA* and *CXCL12* (Fig. 5.7.).

In conclusion, our findings demonstrate that miR-301a-3p negatively regulates the activity of the ER signalling pathway.

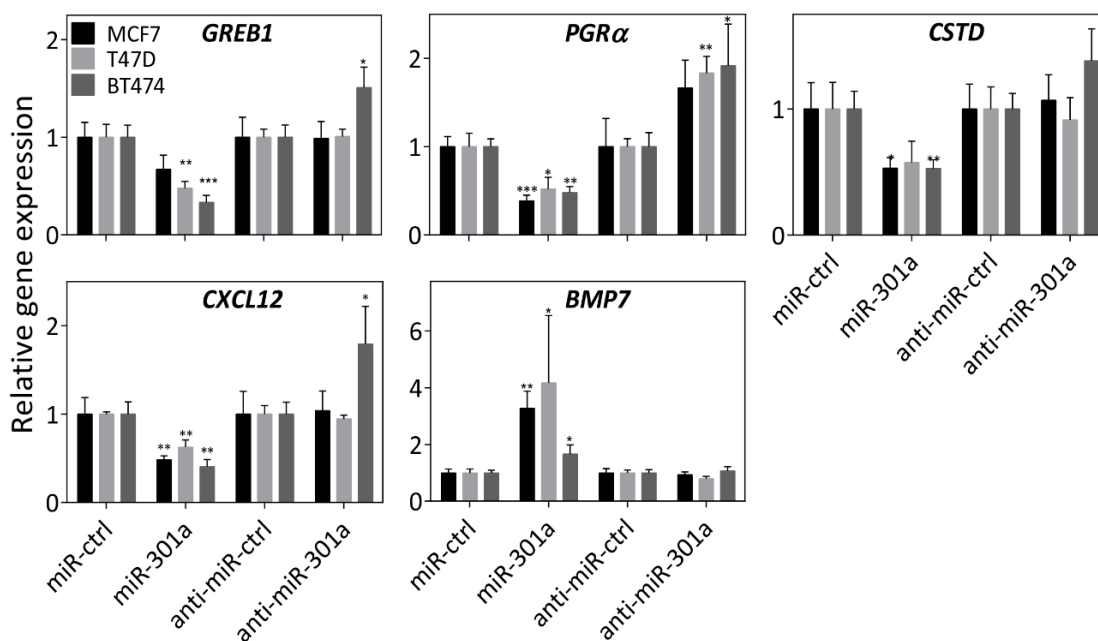


Fig. 5.7. Mir-301a-3p affects expression of genes regulated by ER α positively (*GREB1*, *PGR α* , *CSTD*, *CXCL12*) and negatively (*BMP7*) in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells. RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression of *GREB1*, *PGR α* , *CSTD*, *CXCL12* and *BMP7* genes in MCF7, BT474 and T47D cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and miR-301a-3p anti-miR. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

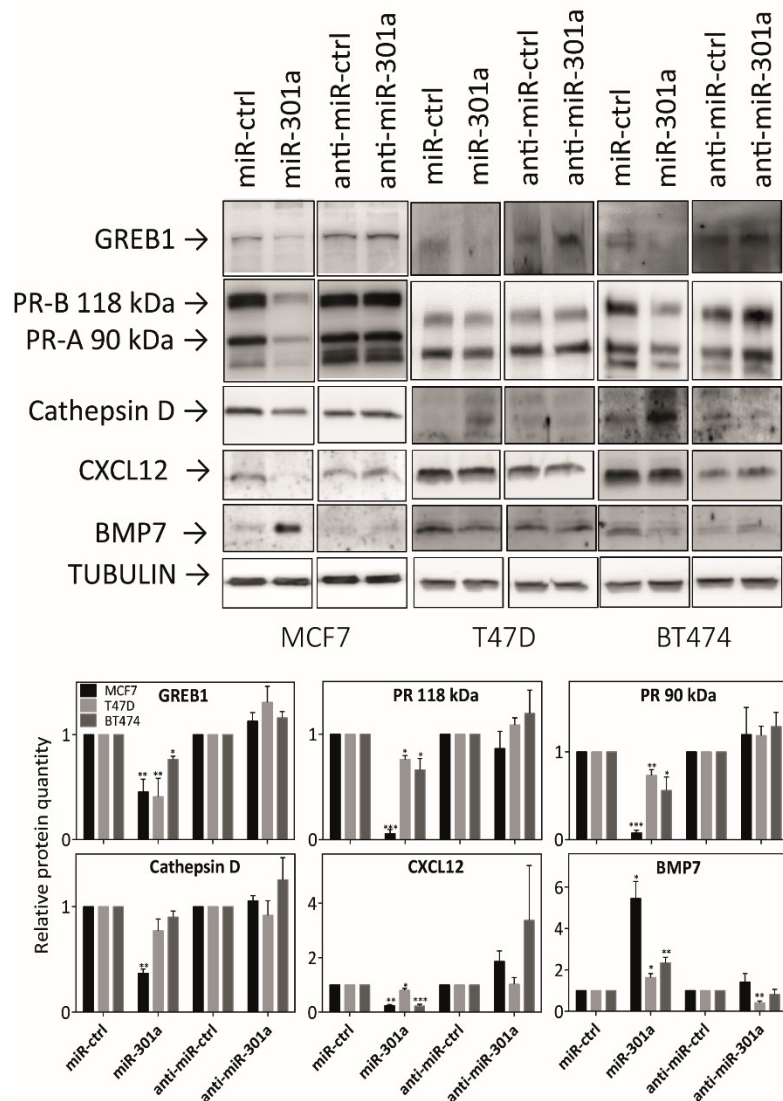


Fig. 5.8. MiR-301a-3p affects expression of proteins regulated by the ER α signalling in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells. Active ER α signalling induces certain proteins (GREB1, PR, CSTD, CXCL12) while others are downregulated (BMP7). Representative western blots showing expression of GREB1, PR, Cathepsin D, CXCL12 and BMP7 proteins in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and miR-301a-3p anti-miR and densitometry evaluation by image J software (bottom panel). Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.2.7. Upregulation of miR-301a-3p level in MCF7 cell line leads to blunted response to 17- β oestradiol

Because ER α is an E₂-activated transcription factor which stimulates proliferation of ER α positive breast cancer cells, we assessed the effect of miR-301a-3p overexpression on the response of MCF7 cell line to 17- β E₂. MCF7 cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and anti-miR and corresponding controls were seeded in a 96-well plate and cell number in oestrogen-free medium as well as in the presence of increasing concentrations of 17- β E₂ was measured by crystal violet assay (266). We detected significantly less cells in cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic in response to 17- β E₂ in comparison with cells transfected with control mimic (Fig. 5.9. A). We did not see any statistically significant difference in response to 17- β E₂ in cells transfected with miR-301a-3p anti-miR and control anti-miR (Fig. 5.9. B), probably due to already low basal level of miR-301a-3p in these cells.

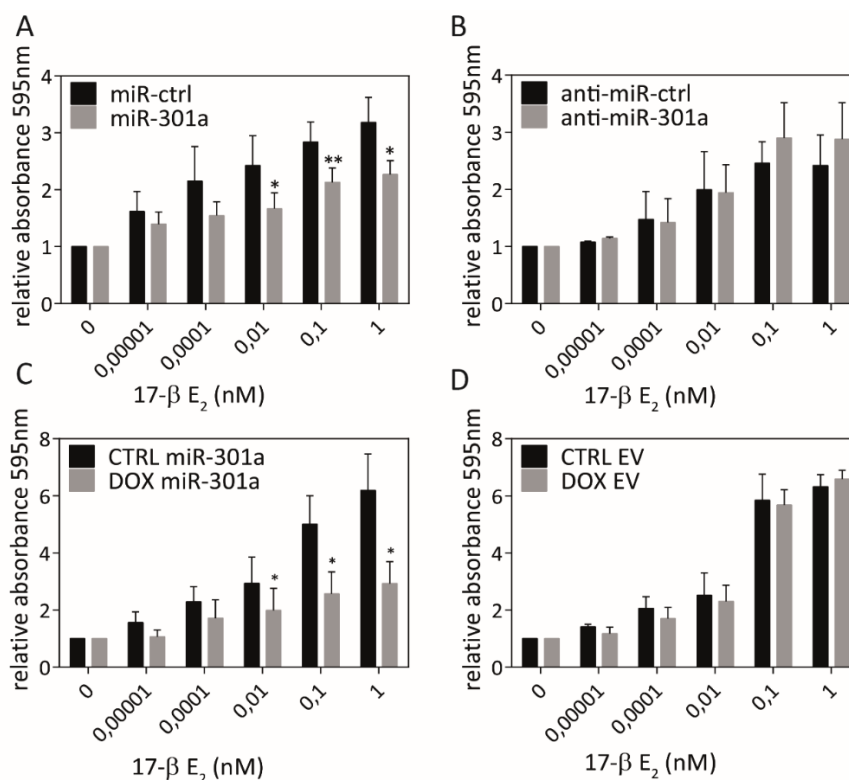


Fig. 5.9. MiR-301a-3p modulates growth of MCF7 cells in response to 17- β oestradiol (17- β E₂). A, B, C, D Absorbance at 595 nm obtained by the crystal violet staining, demonstrating the effect of 17- β E₂ on growth of MCF7 cells transfected with miR-301a-3p mimic and miR-301a-3p anti-miR and MCF7 cell line inducibly expressing miR-301a or EV after induction by doxycycline. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

The effect of miR-301a-3p upregulation was also replicated in MCF7 cell line with doxycycline inducible expression of miR-301a (Fig. 5.9. C). Increased level of miR-301a by doxycycline resulted in decreased number of cells in response to 17- β E₂. No such effect was seen when using MCF7 cell line stably transfected with EV (Fig. 5.9. D).

In summary, the decrease of ER α expression by miR-301a-3p leads to decreased response of MCF7 cells to 17- β E₂.

5.2.8. Overexpression of miR-301a leads to decreased growth of MCF7 cell line *in vivo*, inhibition of oestrogen receptor signalling and enrichment of CSCs

In order to determine the role of miR-301a in tumour growth, Balb/c nude athymic mice were implanted with a slow-release E₂ pellet and injected subcutaneously with MCF7 cell line expressing either miR-301a or EV after induction by doxycycline. Both MCF7 cell lines with inducible expression of miR-301a or EV (Fig. 5.10. A) exhibited similar growth *in vitro* as shown *via* confluency measurement by JuLI™ FL cell analyser (Fig. 5.10. B), and the changes in proliferation rates are thus not due to inherent properties of selected clones of MCF7 cells. The mice were given a doxycycline diet (200 mg/kg) and the tumour growth was monitored twice a week with ultrasound imaging (Vevo770). We detected profound inhibition of tumour growth in group of mice injected with miR-301a overexpressing cells in comparison with group of mice injected with cells carrying EV (Fig. 5.11. A). Tumour volume and tumour mass were significantly reduced in group overexpressing miR-301a versus control group (Fig. 5.11. A, B, C).

Furthermore, the miR-301a overexpression led to a decrease in expression of ER α and PR proteins in tumours as shown by western blot analysis (Fig. 5.11. D), and also to inhibition of the ER signalling, measured by RT-qPCR (Fig. 5.11. E). These *in vivo* data are in line with previously measured *in vitro* results and confirm the fact that MCF7 cells are dependent on oestrogen for their growth and once the ER signalization is restricted, they stop proliferation. Moreover, we have detected significantly increased expression of genes such

as *CD44*, *ALDH1*, *ABCG2*, *Vimentin (VIM)*, *ZEB1*, *ZEB2*, *HER2* and *VEGFA* related to CSC, EMT and metastasis phenotype (Fig. 5.11. F)

In conclusion, miR-301a overexpression inhibits ER α expression and thus ER signalling, which results in inhibition of tumour growth of the oestrogen-dependent MCF7 cell line *in vivo*, but also to enrichment of CSCs population within the tumour.

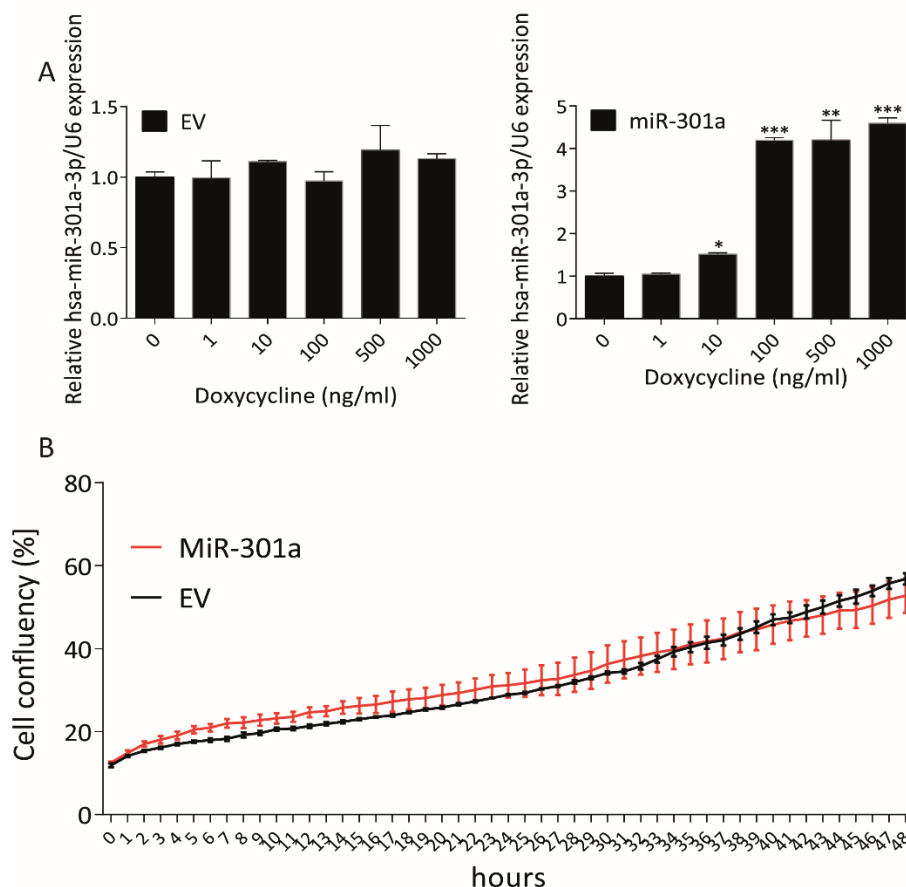


Fig. 5.10. Characteristics of the miR-301a or EV doxycycline inducible MCF7 cell lines. **A**, RT-qPCR showing expression of miR-301a-3p after doxycycline addition in miR-301a doxycycline-inducible MCF7 cell line and in MCF7 cell line carrying EV. **B**, Graph showing confluency curve of MCF7 cell lines carrying doxycycline inducible miR-301a or EV measured without addition of doxycycline by JuLI™ cell analyzer. Experiments were performed in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

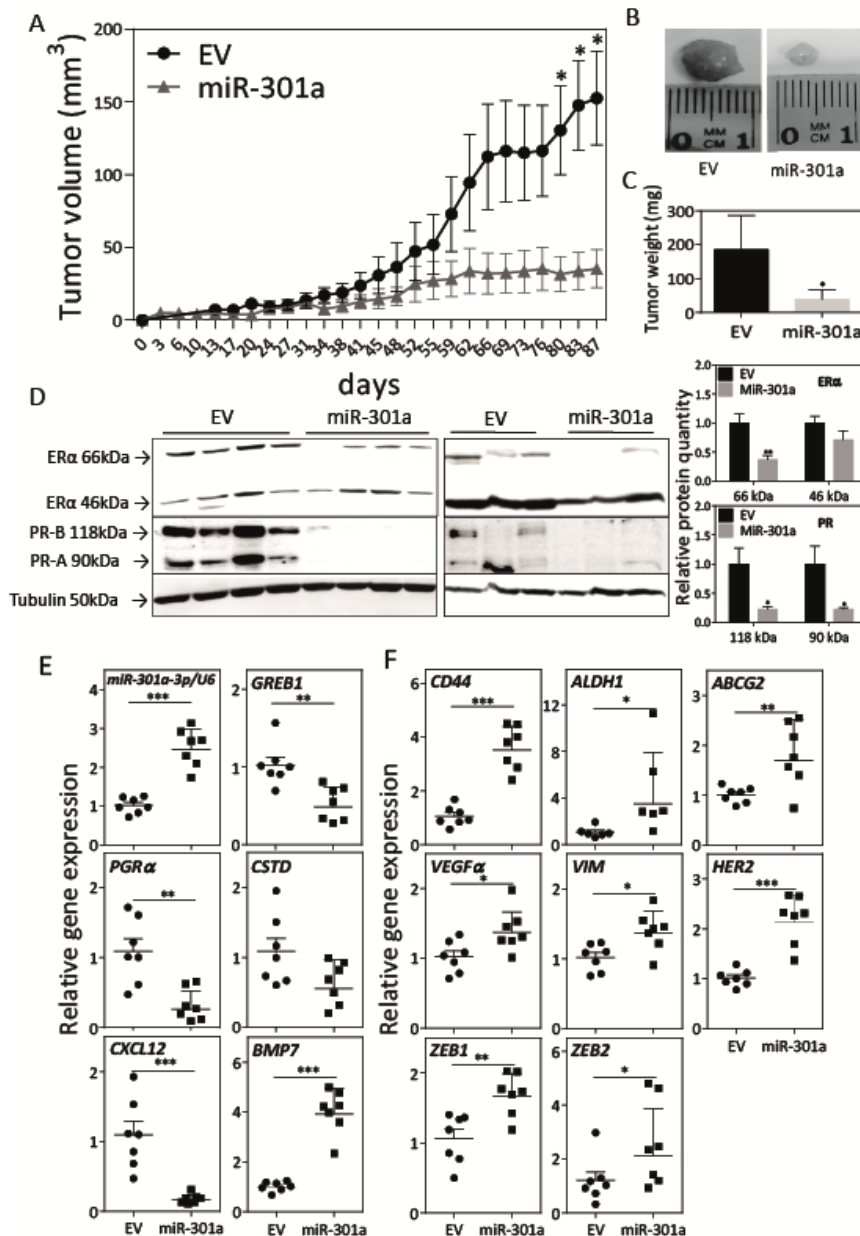


Fig. 5.11. Mir-301a-3p reduce tumour growth and inhibit ER signalling *in vivo*. **A**, Growth of MCF7 cell line inducibly expressing miR-301a or EV after doxycycline addition in Balb/c nude mice (injected 2×10^6 cells per animal), which were implanted with slow-release oestradiol pellet and given a doxycycline diet. Tumour volume was monitored twice a week and evaluated by ultrasound imaging instrument Vevo 770. **B**, Photographs showing representative tumours formed. **C**, Weight of the tumours at the end of the experiment. **D**, Western blots showing expression of ER α and PR proteins in tumour samples in control or miR-301a overexpressing tumours and corresponding densitometry evaluation by image J **E**, **F**, RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression of miR-301a-3p and *GREB1*, *PGR α* , *CSTD*, *CXCL12*, *BMP7*, *CD44*, *ALDH1*, *ABCG2*, *VEGF α* , *VIM*, *ZEB1*, *ZEB2* and *HER2* genes in control and miR-301a overexpressing tumours. Animal experiment was performed twice, 4 animals in each group, standard error is SEM (n=7). Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001.

5.2.9. Expression of miR-301a-3p negatively correlates with *ESR1* level in breast cancer patient samples

To determine the role of miR-301a-3p in breast cancer, we assessed its expression level in 111 tumour tissue samples obtained from patients with primary breast carcinoma, divided into four groups according to ER, PR and HER2 expression status. ER status was further confirmed by TaqMan RT-qPCR (Fig. 5.12. A). We detected that expression of miR-301a-3p is gradually increased in groups in following order $ER^+/PR^+/HER2^- < ER^+/PR^+/HER2^+ < ER^-/PR^+/HER2^+ < ER^-/PR^+/HER2^-$ (Fig. 5.12. B), and it is significantly increased in groups with ER^-/PR^- phenotype when compared to groups with ER^+/PR^+ phenotype. Moreover, there is a statistically significant negative correlation between *ESR1* mRNA and miR-301a-3p levels in the primary tumour samples (Fig. 5.12. C). Unlike ER and PR, the expression of *HER2* had no significant correlation with miR-301a-3p expression in studied samples (Fig. 5.12. B).

In summary, these data show that expression of miR-301a-3p negatively correlates with ER/PR status, suggesting that higher level of miR-301a-3p is connected with lower *ESR1* expression.

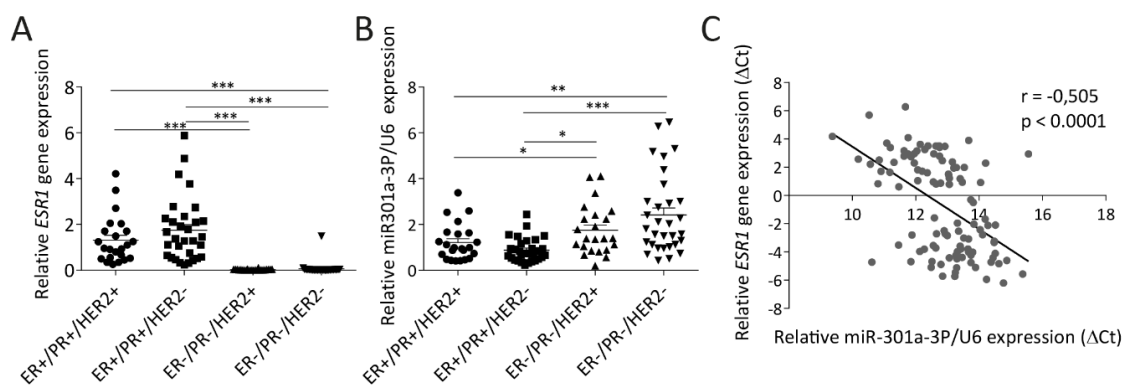


Fig. 5.12. MiR-301a-3p and *ESR1* levels inversely correlate in human breast cancer. **A**, RT-qPCR using Taqman probe showing level of *ESR1* mRNA in breast cancer tissues divided according to their ER, PR and HER2 status into 4 groups. **B**, RT-qPCR using Taqman probe showing level of miR-301a-3p in breast cancer tissues divided according to their ER, PR and HER2 status into 4 groups. **C**, Pearson's correlation scatter plot of the correlation between *ESR1* gene and miR-301a-3p in breast cancer tissues. Results are represented as mean values \pm S.E.M. Statistical significance was calculated using the t-test; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

5.3. Iron metabolism in CSCs

5.3.1. MCF7 spheres show higher intracellular iron pool, iron uptake and sensitivity to iron withdrawal

Iron as well as CSCs has been shown to play an important role in cancer progression but the role of iron and iron metabolism in CSC maintenance has not been studied so far. To identify the significance of iron for the biology of CSCs, we have tested the level of LIP, iron uptake, intracellular iron localization and sensitivity to iron chelators in MCF7 spheres as model of CSCs. Using the calcein fluorescence-based method, we have found significantly higher LIP in MCF7 spheres than in normal adherent cells (Fig. 5.13. A). Furthermore, we have noticed significantly higher uptake of ^{55}Fe in these cells (Fig. 5.13. B), and intracellular distribution showed significantly higher ^{55}Fe level in mitochondria (Fig. 5.13. C). To test the importance of iron for CSCs viability, we used cell permeable iron chelator SIH. Application of SIH led to a reduction in viability of MCF7 spheres compared to adherent counterparts as measured by Cell Titer-Glow (Fig. 5.13. D) and Cell Titer-Fluor (Fig. 5.13. E) viability assays. Together, these data describe an important role of iron for survival of MCF7 spheres, connected with higher LIP, iron uptake and accumulation of iron inside mitochondria.

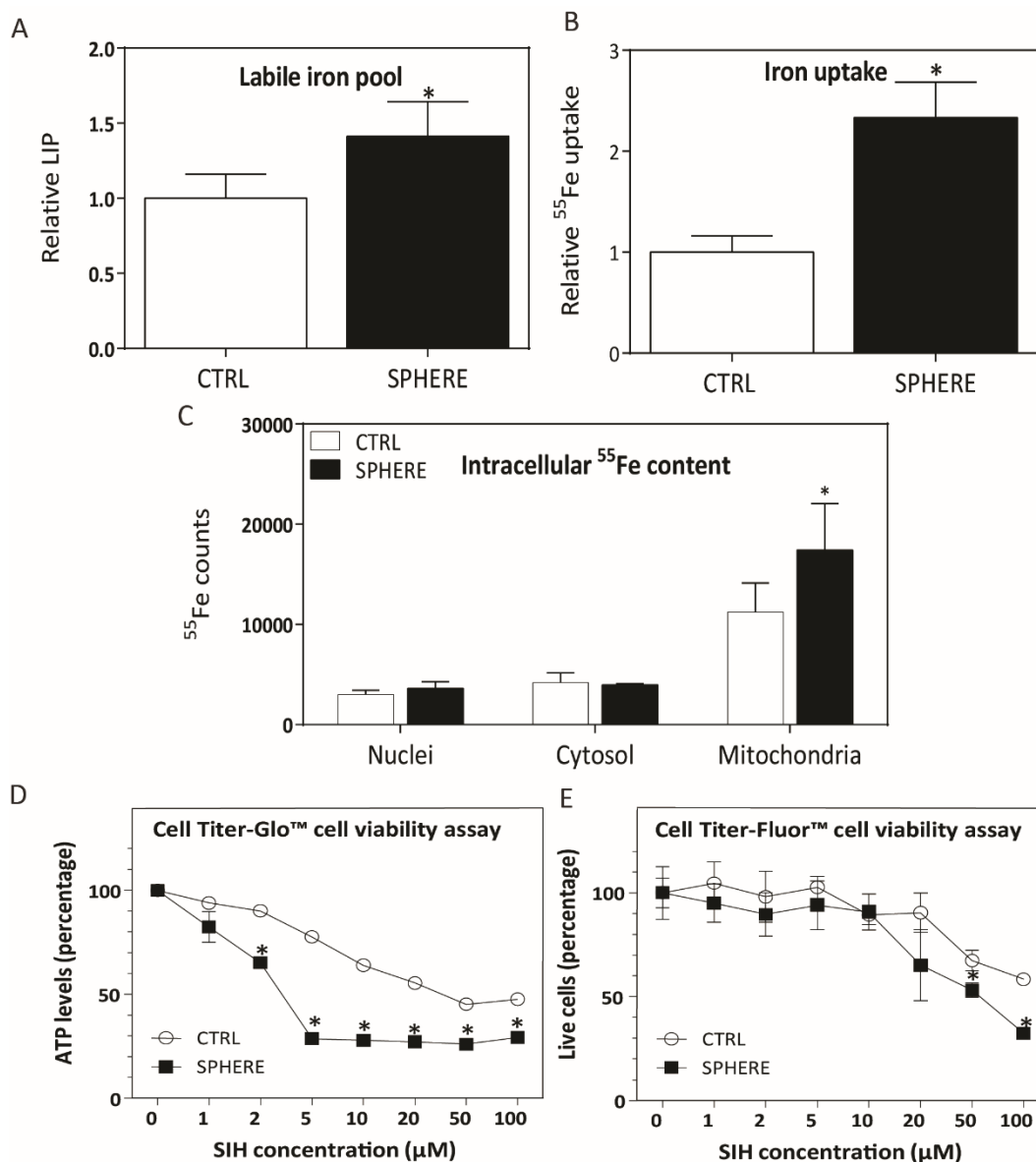


Fig. 5.13. MCF7 spheres show higher intracellular iron pool, iron uptake and sensitivity to iron withdrawal. Measurement of **A**, labile iron pool (LIP) detected by the calcein fluorescence method and **B**, ⁵⁵Fe uptake in control and sphere MCF7 cells. **C**, Intracellular distribution of ⁵⁵Fe in spheres and adherent MCF7 cells. Sphere and adherent MCF7 cells were exposed to increasing concentration of iron chelating agent salicyl isonicotinoyl hydrazine (SIH) and cell viability was measured by **D**, Cell Titer-Glow and **E**, Cell Titer-Fluor assays. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated using the unpaired t-test, where the values obtained from spheres were compared to the control values; * $p < 0.05$. Panels **A**, **B**, **D** and **E** are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.2. CSCs derived from several cancer cell lines show alterations in expression of genes related to iron metabolism

To further explore the molecular mechanisms underlying our results, we performed expression profiling of genes that are related to metabolism of iron. We selected 39 genes coding for proteins involved in iron uptake, export, transport and storage of iron, ISC and haem biogenesis, and regulation of iron metabolism. Using fluidigm RT-qPCR from Biomark, we performed expression profiling of these genes in control adherent and sphere cells derived from various breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines and non-malignant (MCF10A) cell line of breast origin. We obtained expression profile of 34 genes that were detectable in our cell lines and showed appropriate qPCR standard curves (Table 5.2.). Next, we compared the mRNA expression profile between control and sphere cells and selected genes that showed altered expression (> 1,5 fold change) reproducibly at least in 60 % of tested cell lines. The result of this selection was a selection of 10 genes (*CYBRD1*, *TFRC*, *ACO1*, *IREB2*, *ABCB10*, *GLRX5*, *EPAS1*, *QSOX1*, *HEPH*, *HFE*) which we called as CSC iron metabolism-related gene signature.

In order to define, whether the expression of 10 selected genes related to iron metabolism is able to distinguish CSCs from non-CSCs, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) based on expression of the selected genes. Importantly, the PCA clusters control adherent cell samples separately from sphere cell samples in all tested cell lines (Fig. 5.14.). Thus, we identified iron metabolism-related gene expression profile, which is specific for our *in vitro* model of CSCs.

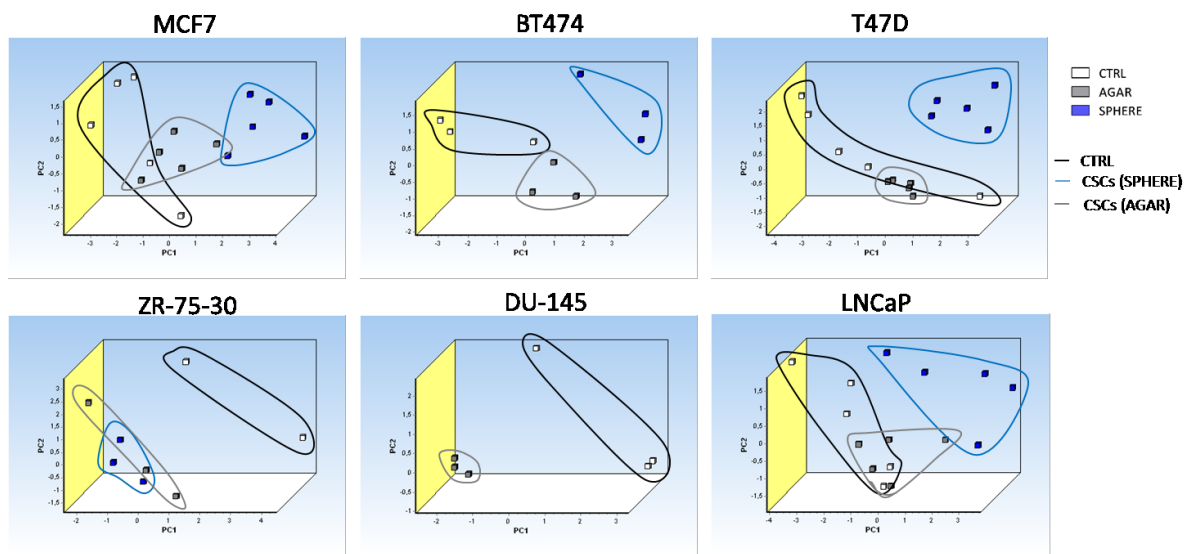


Fig. 5.14. Principal component analysis (PCA) based on the expression of selected iron metabolism-related genes (*CYBRD1*, *TFRC*, *ACO1*, *IREB2*, *ABCB10*, *GLRX5*, *EPAS1*, *QSOX1*, *HEPH*, *HFE*) discriminates CSCs from control cancer cells. PCA was run on malignant breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cell lines based on expression of selected genes in control and sphere cells by GenEx software.

Table 5.2. Expression profile of iron metabolism-related genes in CSCs derived from breast and prostate cancer cell lines.

Iron related genes	(MCF7 SPH) vs (MCF7 CTRL)		(T47D SPH) vs (T47D CTRL)		(BT474 SPH) vs (BT474 CTRL)		(ZR-75-30 SPH) vs (ZR-75-30 CTRL)		(DU-145 AGAR) vs (DU-145 CTRL)		(LNCaP SPH) vs (LNCaP CTRL)	
	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value	Fold change	P-Value
1 ABCB10	1.93	0.0167	1.72	0.1498	1.71	0.1549	1.86	0.0290	2.40	0.0454	1.34	0.0851
2 ABCB6	1.86	0.0437	1.34	0.0001	1.45	0.0545	1.08	0.8031	1.82	0.0091	1.19	0.1194
3 ABCB7	1.36	0.0166	1.85	0.0255	1.52	0.0131	1.39	0.1430	2.05	0.0782	1.16	0.3627
4 ABCB8	1.39	0.1300	1.46	0.0760	1.31	0.0261	1.04	0.8613	1.94	0.0214	1.44	0.7424
5 ACO1	1.91	0.0010	1.59	0.1147	2.60	0.0424	2.19	0.0189	2.01	0.0335	1.04	0.4072
6 BMP6	-1.11	0.7923	-1.51	0.4697	-1.51	0.4697	-1.51	0.4697	4.10	0.0449	1.52	0.1418
7 CYBD1	1.85	0.0940	1.43	0.0059	7.85	0.0014	1.60	0.6814	3.52	0.0035	3.12	0.1309
8 EPAS1 (HIF2a)	1.78	0.0836	1.39	0.2402	3.26	0.0867	1.51	0.4439	5.53	0.0178	1.78	0.3774
9 FTH1	1.31	0.3190	1.17	0.3845	-1.03	0.9079	-1.19	0.9306	1.20	0.3677	1.02	0.8960
10 FTL1	1.78	0.0242	-1.22	0.2448	1.51	0.1079	1.11	0.3238	1.10	0.7044	-1.10	0.4926
11 FXN	-1.43	0.0288	-2.53	0.0042	-1.34	0.0390	1.02	0.9228	-2.85	0.0495	-1.13	0.4466
12 GLRX2	-1.41	0.4361	1.69	0.3087							-1.03	0.9492
13 GLRX5	-1.84	0.0007	-3.67	0.0231	-2.52	0.0834	-1.24	0.5379	-1.14	0.6391	-1.49	0.2423
14 HAMP	1.37	0.4913	3.42	0.1412	3.42	0.1412	1.93	0.7012	-1.42	0.5643		
15 HEPH	3.65	0.1227	3.66	0.0026	6.84	0.0008	1.12	0.9126			1.94	0.0610
16 HFE	1.65	0.0583	1.59	0.0167			1.01	0.9604	2.12	0.0204		
17 HIF1	-1.28	0.1434	1.21	0.4935	-1.12	0.6406	1.82	0.0073	2.22	0.0696	1.68	0.1311
18 HMOX1	1.61	0.0436	1.82	0.0850	1.67	0.0198	1.08	0.5925	1.53	0.2438	1.29	0.1401
19 HMOX2	1.23	0.0807	-1.13	0.4845	1.73	0.0041	1.13	0.5075	-2.47	0.0226	1.33	0.0094
20 IRE2	1.63	0.0208	2.79	0.0136	1.96	0.0443	2.06	0.0014	4.20	0.0262	1.65	0.0458
21 ISCA1	-1.05	0.7360	1.22	0.0810	-1.04	0.8895	-2.04	0.1140	-1.01	0.9017	-1.48	0.2392
22 ISCA2	-1.17	0.3320	-1.62	0.1246	-1.06	0.7136	-1.46	0.2241	-1.78	0.1333	-1.08	0.2160
23 ISCU	1.16	0.3817	1.18	0.0268	1.28	0.0820	1.09	0.4547	1.17	0.3265	1.18	0.1909
24 LYRM4 (SD11)	-1.10	0.1764	-1.07	0.5439	1.01	0.9250	-1.10	0.1621	-1.38	0.2701	1.05	0.4894
25 QSOX1	2.84	0.0009	4.77	0.0003	2.85	0.0001	1.03	0.9050	1.30	0.4621	1.87	0.0021
26 SLC11A2v2 (NRAMP2, IRE)	1.31	0.4048	1.99	0.0451	1.32	0.2426	2.08	0.0649	39.37	0.0123	-1.06	0.8948
27 SLC25A28 (MFRN2)	-1.02	0.9334	-1.03	0.8638	-1.10	0.6242	1.12	0.0613	1.32	0.4156	1.10	0.6073
28 SLC25A37 (MFRN1)	-1.29	0.1087	-1.49	0.1463	-1.38	0.2714	-1.26	0.2743	-2.42	0.1699	-1.04	0.8360
29 SLC48A1 (HRG-1)	1.33	0.2906	-1.22	0.5409	1.55	0.1263	-1.87	0.5940	2.00	0.1705	2.35	0.1635
30 STEAP3	1.26	0.4476	1.21	0.6134	-2.51	0.0448	-1.19	0.7325	1.61	0.2908	-1.53	0.4283
31 TFR2	2.55	0.0088	2.54	0.4361	-2.42	0.4624	-1.39	0.4275	1.37	0.5287	-1.56	0.3756
32 TFR3	2.11	0.0041	-1.08	0.8108	1.95	0.0865	2.46	0.0364	4.04	0.0553	3.07	0.0056
33 TMPRSS6	1.70	0.2885	-1.85	0.3358	-1.85	0.3358					31.66	0.0004
34 VEGFA	1.43	0.4778	3.28	0.0035	1.28	0.3248	-1.36	0.4863	1.99	0.0035	-1.07	0.8677
35 SLC6A1	2.84	0.0090	5.50	0.0060	2.61	0.0067	2.19	0.0046	8.02	0.0007	-7.07	0.2052
36 SLC39A14	1.84	0.0282	3.58	0.0075	2.74	0.0207	2.03	0.2367	4.25	0.0182	-2.03	0.2767

Table shows fold changes in expression of given genes (downregulation is expressed as negative fold change > 1.5, yellow field show fold change < -1.5), statistical significance was calculated by t-test, green field show p < 0.05. The analysis was performed by GenEx software. Genes *FTMT*, *HFE2*, *HIF3* were excluded from the analysis due to assay inefficiency or their low detection.

5.3.3. CSCs show increased expression of components involved in iron uptake machinery

Product of *CYBRDI* gene is a ferric reductase that is highly expressed on duodenal brush border, where it plays an important role in absorption of intestinal iron (170). We detected upregulation of *CYBRDI* mRNA in spheres derived from most cell lines tested (MCF7, LNCaP; significantly in BT474, T47D, DU-145,) with approximate 2-7 fold induction (Fig. 5.15. A, Table 5.2.). This has been replicated also on protein level in MCF7 sphere model where both detected isoforms of CYBRD1 protein were significantly upregulated (Fig. 5.15. B). *TFRC* gene codes for TfR1 and plays a crucial role in uptake of Tf bound iron (176). Expression of *TFRC* mRNA was also upregulated in spheres (DU-145, significantly in MCF7, BT474, ZR-75-30, LNCaP) (Fig. 5.15. C, Table 5.2.). On protein level, we detected increased level of TfR1 in MCF7 sphere cells which did not reach statistical significance (Fig. 5.15. D).

To further assess alternative mechanisms of the iron uptake, especially of the NTBI uptake, we also assessed the expression of the ZIP14 protein (coded by *SLC39A14* gene). Although we detected upregulation of *SLC39A14* mRNA in spheres derived from most cell lines tested (statistically significant in MCF7, BT474, T47D and DU-145), we did not detect any significant change on the protein level in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.15. E, F, Table 5.2.).

Together, our results suggest that ZIP14 is not involved in higher iron uptake in our model of CSCs, pointing to TfR1 and possibly CYBRD1 as the main mediators of higher iron import in these cells. Expression of *TFRC* mRNA is subjected to regulation by IRP/IRE system which is discussed in the next chapter.

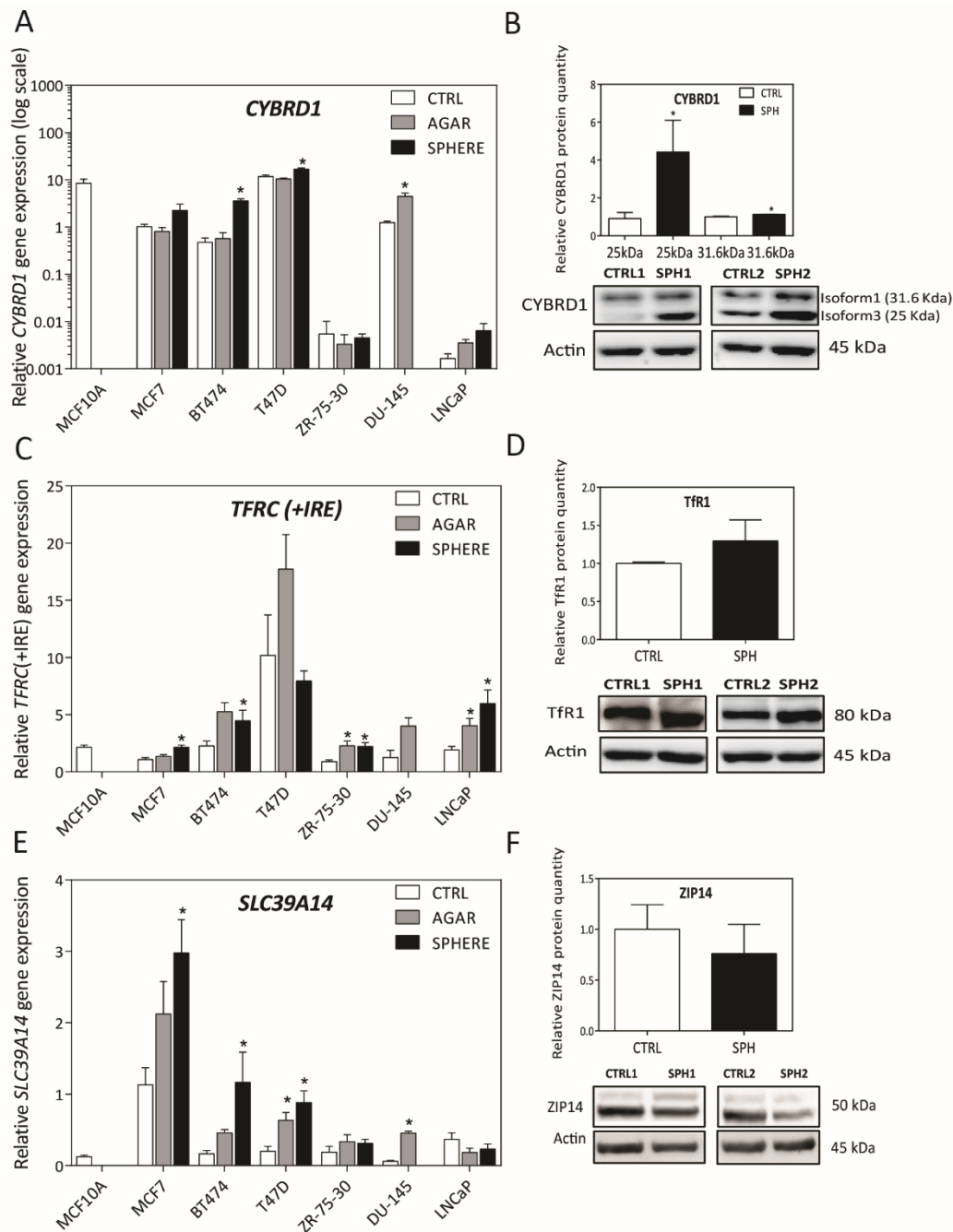


Fig. 5.15. CSCs exhibit increased expression of components involved in iron uptake machinery. A, C, E, RT-qPCR showing expression of *CYBRD1*, *TFRC* and *SLC39A14* mRNAs in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. B, D, F, Western blots showing expression of *CYBRD1*, *TfR1* and *ZIP14* proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$. Panels B, D and F are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.4. CSCs exert activation of components of the IRP/IRE system

The main components of the IRP/IRE system are IRP1 (coded by *ACO1* gene) and IRP2 (coded by *IREB2* gene). In our experimental model, we saw significant upregulation of *ACO1* mRNA level in all tested cell lines except T47D cells, where the increase was not significant (Fig. 5.16. A, Table 5.2.). The significantly higher level of ACO1 protein level was also detected in MCF7 sphere model (Fig. 5.16. B). The *IREB2* mRNA expression was significantly elevated in all tested cell lines (Fig. 5.16. C, Table 5.2.), whereas on the protein level, we detected significant decrease in IREB2 expression in MCF7 sphere model (Fig. 5.16. D). This discrepancy between mRNA and protein level could be plausibly explained, taking into account our other results. Since IREB2 is targeted for proteasomal degradation upon high iron levels (267) and we detected higher LIP in MCF7 spheres, the lower level of IREB2 protein is the expected outcome.

ACO1 is an ISC containing enzyme, upon iron deprivation ISC is removed as a consequence of conformational change revealing IRP1 properties of ACO1, which binds to IRE in UTRs to enhance *TFRC* and *DMT1* genes mRNA expression and decrease *FTH*, *FTL* and *FPN* genes mRNA expression. Similar IRE-binding properties has IREB2 (202–206). For this reason we analysed the binding ability of IRP1 and IRP2 to IREs by a modified electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA). We detected significantly higher binding activity of IRP1 to IRE sequence of human ferritin in MCF7 sphere model (Fig. 5.16. E). The activity of IRP2 was also higher in MCF7 spheres but not significantly (Fig. 5.16. E).

The conformational change in ACO1 enzyme leading to ISC removal is stimulated by insufficient/dysfunctional ISC biogenesis (218) or generation of ROS (219) as discussed further. Together, these results confirm activation of the IRP/IRE system in our CSC model *in vitro* and are in line with higher iron uptake by TfR1 whose mRNA is stabilised by an active IRE/IRP system.

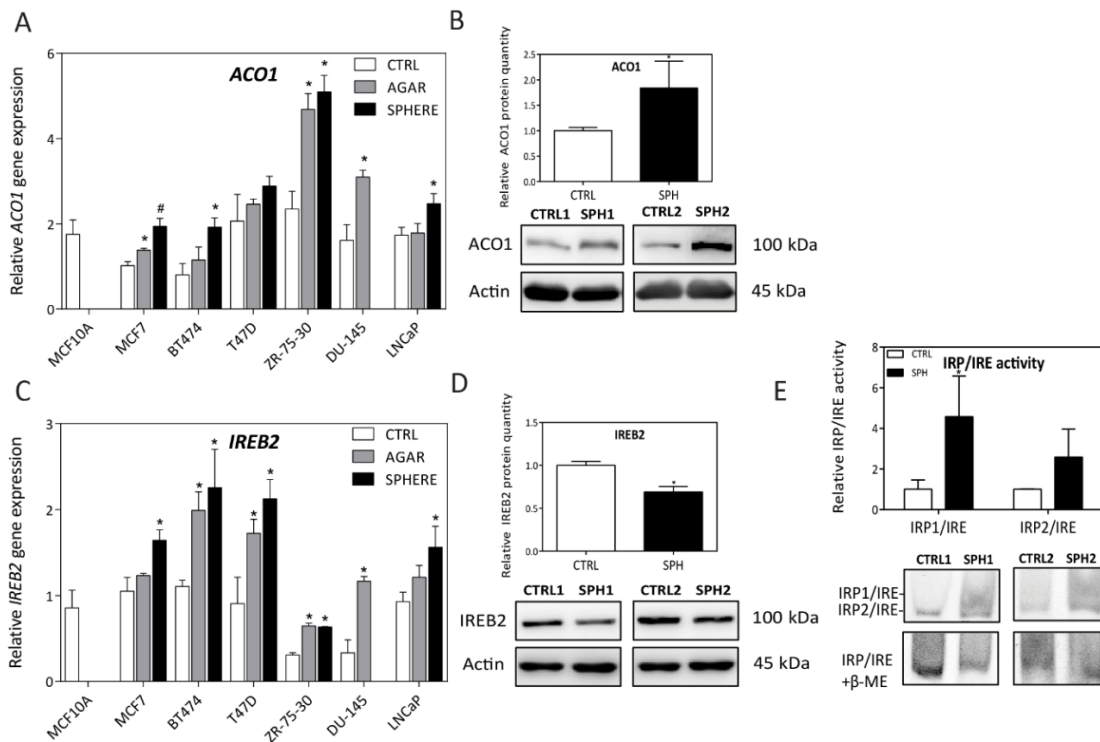


Fig. 5.16. CSCs exert activation of components of IRP/IRE system. A, C, RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression level of *ACO1* and *IREB2* genes in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. B, D, Western blots showing expression level of ACO1 and IREB2 proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. E, Fluorescent EMSA showing activity of IRP/IRE system in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell line with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panel. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$, # denotes statistical significance involving Dun-Bonferroni correction. Panels B, D and E are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.5. CSCs show deregulation of post-transcriptionally regulated proteins by IRP

We also probed other proteins related to iron uptake, storage and export, which are known to be regulated post-transcriptionally, and thus were not selected by expression profiling. Firstly, we checked for the expression of NRAMP2 (also known as DMT1), which is a known transporter of iron from gut lumen into enterocytes but also from acidic environment of lysosomes to cytoplasm (169,178). While we detected significant increase on mRNA level of *SLC11A2* gene (coding for NRAMP2 protein) in T47D and DU-145

sphere cells (Fig. 5.17. A, Table 5.2.), we measured significantly decreased NRAMP2 protein expression in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.17. B), suggesting decreased transport of iron from acidic endosomes to cytosol and its lysosomal compartmentalization. This result may explain the fact that while we detect higher LIP in CSCs, we have active IRPs showing that cells are short of the biologically active form of iron.

Next, we investigated the level of ferritin, which is the major iron storage protein, capable of binding an enormous amount of iron, store it and release it when needed. Ferritin is composed of two subunits coded by the *FTL1* and *FTH1* genes. FTL subunit plays a role in iron nucleation and protein stability, whereas FTH subunit carries the ferroxidase activity necessary for iron storage (189). We detected a significant increase in *FTL1* mRNA only in MCF7 cells and no difference was seen in *FTH1* mRNA level in tested cell lines (Fig. 5.17. C, D, Table 5.2.). However, we documented a significant decrease in ferritin protein level in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.17. E), which is in line with described increase in the IRP/IRE system activity. Finally, we also tested the expression level of the iron exporter ferroportin (coded by the *SLC40A1* gene). We measured significant upregulation of *SLC40A1* mRNA level in spheres from MCF7, BT474, T47D, ZR-75-30 and DU-145 cell lines (Fig. 5.17. F, Table 5.2.), while no significant change was seen on FPN protein level in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.17. G), leaving us with the idea that iron export is not involved in higher LIP in MCF7 spheres.

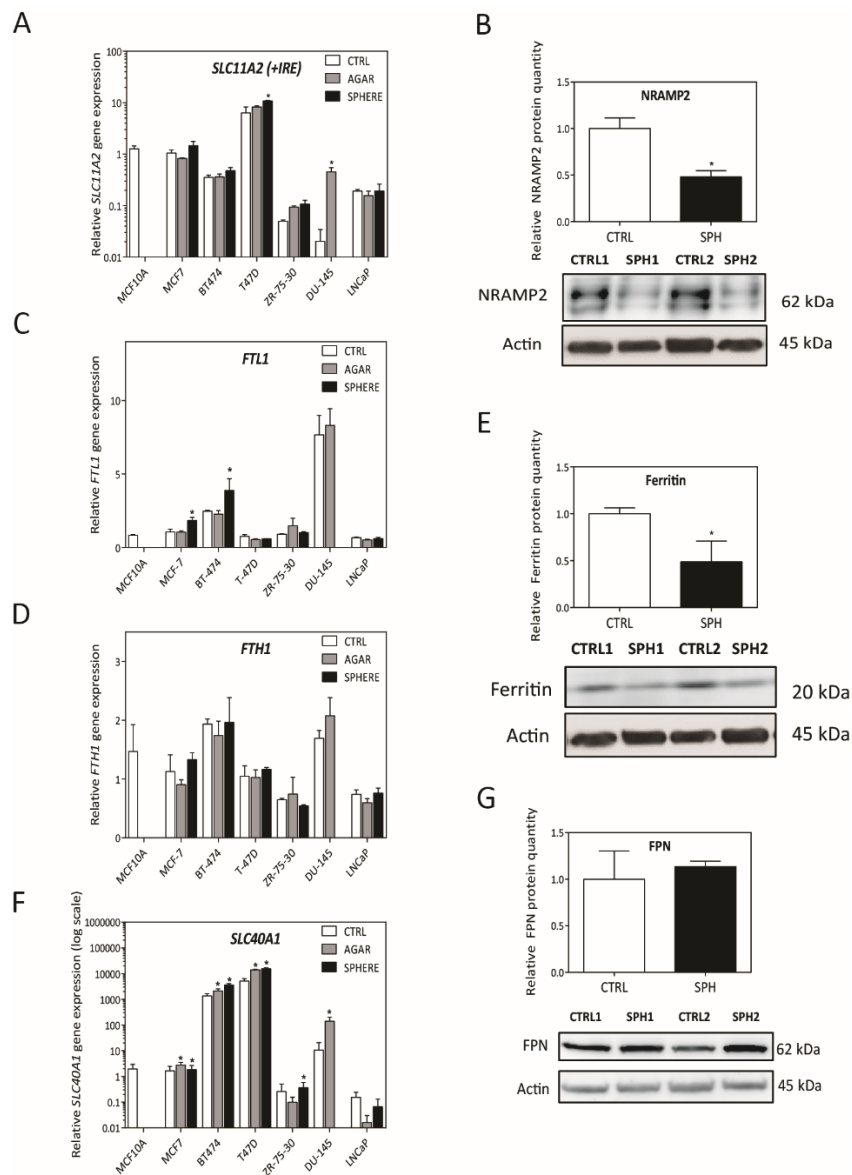


Fig. 5.17. CSCs show deregulation of post-transcriptionally regulated proteins by IRPs. **A, C, D, F,** RT-qPCR showing expression level of *SLC11A2*, *FTL1*, *FTH1* and *SLC40A1* genes in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. **B, E, G,** Western blots showing expression level of NRAMP2, Ferritin (light chain) and FPN proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$. Panels **B, E, F** and **G** are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.6. CSCs show a decrease in expression of genes participating in haem and ISC biogenesis

ABCB10 is a transporter localised into inner mitochondrial membrane, where it forms complex with MFRN1 and ferrochelatase, participating in haem biosynthesis (268). The mRNA level of *ABCB10* gene was increased in spheres derived from all cell lines tested, reaching significance in MCF7, ZR-70-30 and DU-145 cells (Fig. 5.18. A, Table 5.2.), yet the level of protein was strongly decreased in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.18. B). This suggests that ABCB10 protein expression is regulated by some posttranscriptional mechanism. Lower level of ABCB10 protein in our model is in line with already published data about ABCB10 function. It was reported that ABCB10 is important for haematopoietic differentiation and its knockdown leads to iron accumulation within mitochondria (269). Since, we are studying CSCs, where we observed high mitochondrial iron accumulation, lower level of ABCB10 protein might give an explanation of the molecular mechanism underlying this finding.

GLRX5 is an important component of the ISC biogenesis machinery that facilitate insertion of nascent ISC into target apoproteins (235). We detected a decrease in mRNA expression of *GLRX5* gene in spheres obtained from all cell lines tested (statistically significant in spheres from MCF7 and T47D; Fig. 5.18. C, Table 5.2.). Furthermore, we also detected a significant reduction in GLRX5 protein level in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.18. D).

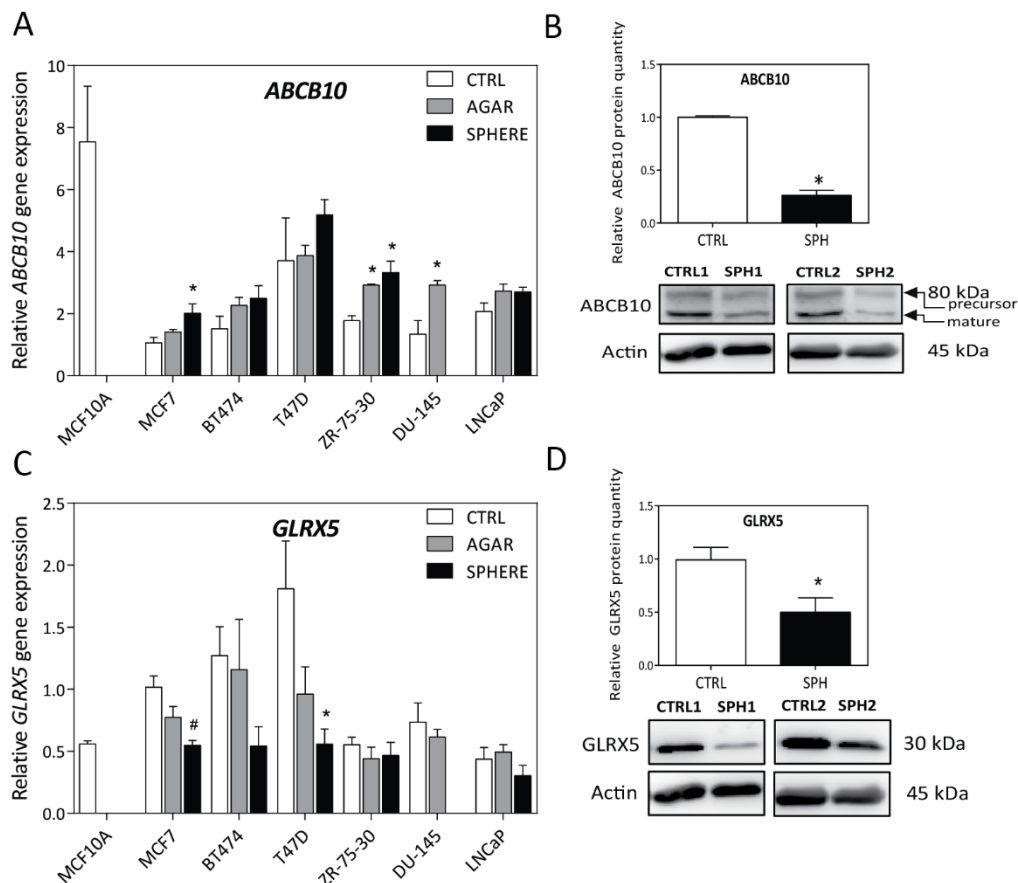


Fig. 5.18. CSCs exhibit reduced expression of *ABCB10* and *GLRX5* mRNA and protein levels. **A, C**, RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression level of *ABCB10* and *GLRX5* genes in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. **B, D**, Western blots showing expression level of *ABCB10* and *GLRX5* proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$, # denotes statistical significance involving Dun-Bonferroni correction. Panels **B** and **D** are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.7. CSCs show altered function of the ISC containing enzymes and higher oxidative stress

The higher activity of IRP1/2 and decreased level of *ABCB10* and *GLRX5* proteins may be the cause or the consequence of improper function of ISC machinery and higher level of ROS. The properly assembled ISC is necessary for enzymatic function of ACO1 and mitochondrial CI. Therefore, we assessed their enzymatic activity and noticed decreased activity of both enzymes in MCF7 spheres, whereas only ACO1 (both the cytosolic and

mitochondrial form) activity was decreased significantly (Fig. 5.19. A, B). We also measured the level of ROS by a set of probes such as 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA, general reactive oxygen species probe), hydroxyphenylfluorescein (HPF, detecting hydroxyl radical), dihydroethidium (DHE, detect superoxide production) and mitochondrial superoxide indicator (mitoSOX). The level of ROS was significantly elevated in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.19. E) as well as the level of mitochondrial membrane potential ($\Delta\Psi_m$) measured by tetramethylrhodamine, methyl ester probe (TMRM; Fig. 5.19. F). Glutathione plays an essential role in preventing oxidative stress by serving as an electron donor being simultaneously converted into its oxidised form GSSG (270). Consistently with higher level of ROS, we detected reduced level of GSH in MCF7 spheres and also lower ratio of GSH/GSSG, confirming higher oxidative stress in spheres (Fig. 5.19. C, D).

Together, these data document lower activity of ISC cluster containing enzymes ACO1 and CI and higher oxidative stress in CSCs, which may be caused by higher LIP in these cells.

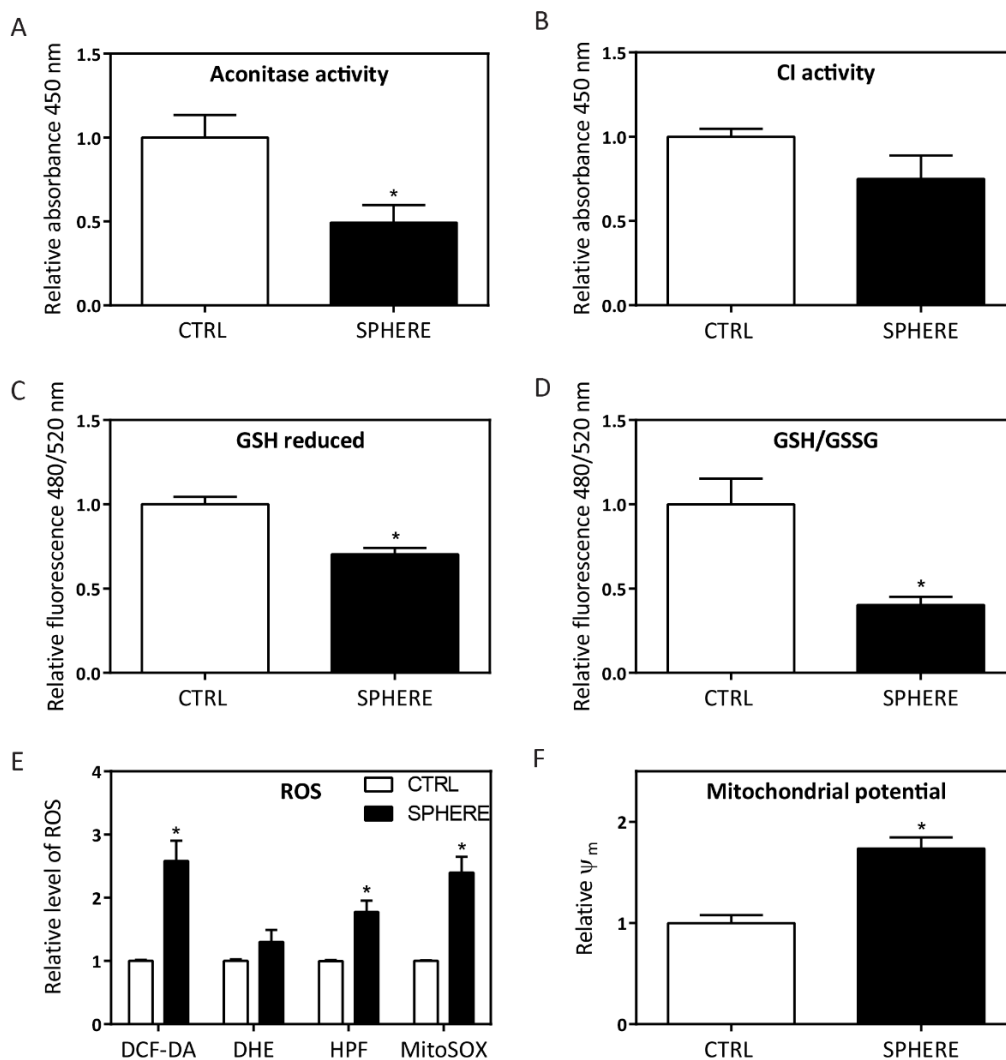


Fig. 5.19. CSCs exhibit altered function of ISC containing enzymes (aconitase and mitochondrial complex I (CI)) and higher oxidative stress. Control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell line were assessed for **A**, enzymatic activity of mitochondrial and cytosolic aconitase, **B**, enzymatic activity of mitochondrial CI, **C**, level of reduced glutathione (GSH), **D**, ratio of reduced and oxidised glutathione GSH/GSSG, **E**, level of reactive oxygen species (ROS) measured by using 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCF-DA), dihydroethidium (DHE), hydroxyphenylfluorescein (HPF) and mitochondrial superoxide indicator (mitoSOX) probes and **F**, mitochondrial potential measured by tetramethylrhodamine methylester probe. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$. Panels **A**, **B**, **C** and **D** are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.8. CSCs activate hypoxia induced genes

Product of the *EPAS1* gene is the HIF-2 α protein, which together with HIF-1 α plays a central role in response of cells to hypoxia. HIF-2 α was also shown to play an important role in iron metabolism. *EPAS1* mRNA is a target of IRP1 and HIF-2 α as a transcription factor regulates expression of iron related genes (271). HIFs are targeted for proteasomal degradation under normal oxygen tension and stabilised under hypoxia, but can also be stabilised by increased ROS (272). *EPAS1* mRNA level was slightly elevated in spheres of tested cell lines (significantly only in DU-145) (Fig. 5.20. A, Table 5.2.), and protein level of HIF-2 α was significantly increased in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.20. B).

Next, we detected significantly increased mRNA level of the HIF target gene *sulphydryl oxidase 1 (QSOX1)* in spheres derived from MCF7, BT474, T47D, LNCaP cell lines (Fig. 5.20. C, Table 5.2.). QSOX1 is an enzyme catalysing generation of disulphide bonds within proteins, accompanied by production of hydrogen peroxide as a side product of the reaction (273). This protein has two isoforms. The first isoform is inserted into membrane by its transmembrane domain. The second QSOX1 isoform emerges after proteolytic cleavage within the ectodomain of the protein, leaving transmembrane domain associated with the cell and excreting ectodomain into extracellular matrix (273). We found higher expression of the short QSOX1 protein isoform in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.20. D), which is in correlation with published literature associating QSOX1 with tumour progression and invasion (273).

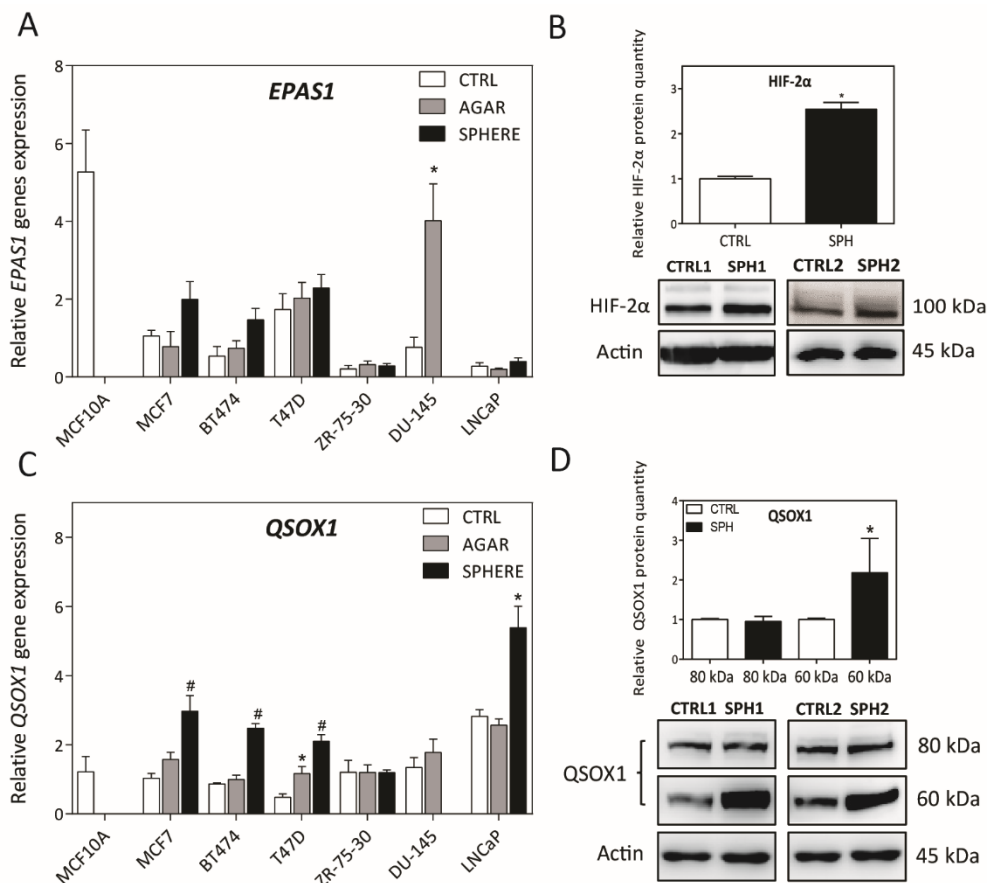


Fig. 5.20. CSCs exhibit higher expression of *EPAS1* and *QSOX1* mRNA and protein level. A, C, RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression level of *EPAS1* and *QSOX1* genes in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCAp) cancer cell lines. B, D, Western blots showing expression level of HIF-2α and QSOX1 proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$, # denotes statistical significance involving Dun-Bonferroni correction. Panels B and D are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

5.3.9. Deregulation of iron export related HEPH oxidase and HFE protein linked to iron overload in CSCs

We detected changes in the *HEPH* expression, whose protein product is a multi-copper oxidase anchored into basolateral membrane of enterocytes, helping FPN to export iron from these cells (FPN is discussed in the next chapter as an IRE/IRP responsive protein) (174). We detected increased expression of *HEPH* mRNA in spheres derived from all cell lines

tested (significantly in BT474 and T47D) (Fig. 5.21. A, Table 5.2.). We detected two isoforms of HEPH protein in MCF7 spheres, from which expression of canonical 130 kDa isoform was statistically increased and expression of the 100 kDa isoform was only slightly decreased (Fig. 5.21. B).

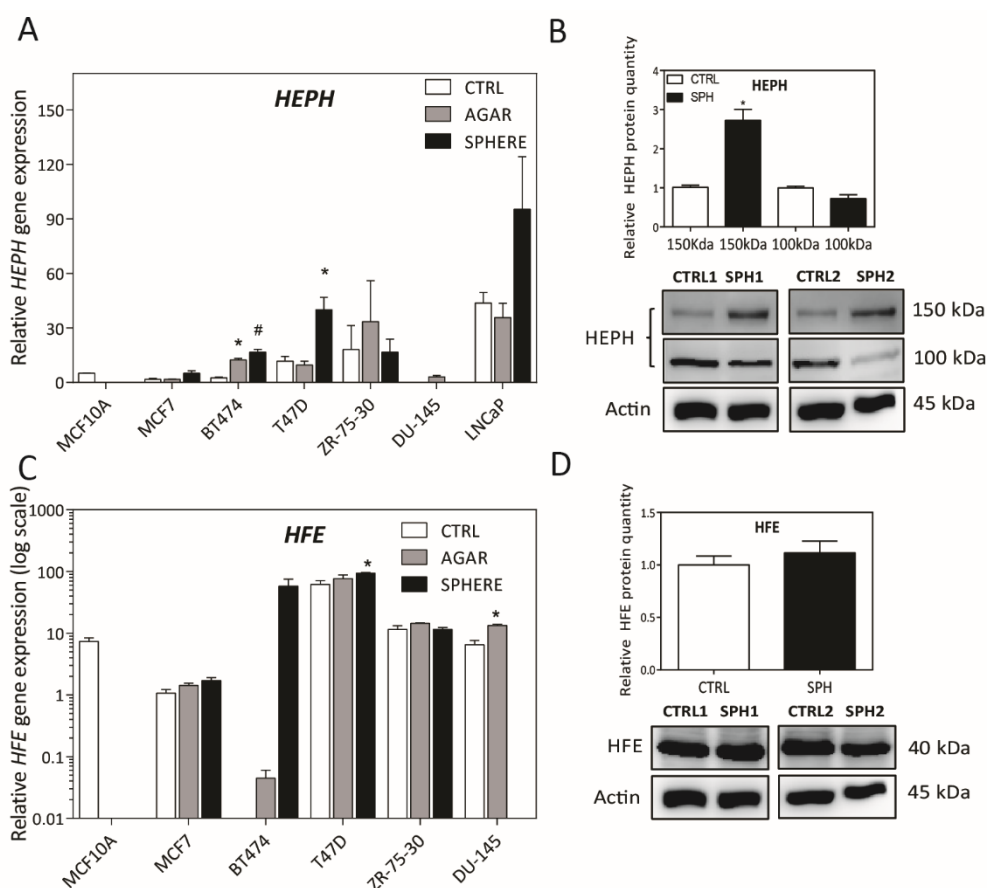


Fig. 5.21. CSCs exhibit higher expression of *HEPH* mRNA and protein levels and higher *HFE* mRNA level. **A, C**, RT-qPCR showing mRNA expression level of *HEPH* and *HFE* genes in control and sphere cells derived from breast (MCF7, T47D, BT474, ZR-75-30) and prostate (DU-145, LNCaP) cancer cell lines. **B, D**, Western blots showing expression level of HEPH and HFE proteins in control and sphere cells derived from MCF7 cell lines with densitometry evaluation performed by image J software in upper panels. Experiments were performed at least in triplicate, standard error is SEM. Statistical significance was calculated by GenEx software using the unpaired t-test; * $p < 0.05$, # denotes statistical significance involving Dun-Bonferroni correction. Panels **B** and **D** are not my own results and are adapted from (247).

The *HFE* gene codes for haemochromatosis protein, whose mutations leads to excessive iron overload in haemochromatosis patients and it is connected with cancer development (274). We detected upregulation of *HFE* mRNA in all spheres tested (significantly in T47D and

DU145; Fig. 5.21. C, Table 5.2.). Nevertheless, the level of HFE protein remained unchanged in MCF7 spheres (Fig. 5.21. D), suggesting that this protein is not linked to CSC phenotype.

6. DISCUSSION

6.1. Mechanisms of resistance in CSCs

CSCs are reported to play a major role in cancer resistance causing unresponsive reactions of tumours to treatment and relapse of the disease due to residual cancer cells in the organism (2). The mechanisms of resistance are highly complex, ranging from efflux of the drugs by ABC transporters to metabolic and epigenetic adaptations as well as to inhibition of apoptosis (10,11).

6.1.1. Expression profiling of ABC transporters in CSCs

The basic mechanism of protection of CSCs is through the expression of ABC transporters serving as guardians of stem cell population in the body (275). Unfortunately these ATP powered efflux pumps afford protection of CSCs in the tumours as well, shielding them from the adverse effect of chemotherapy (275). Although there is direct evidence for the role of ABCB1, ABCC1 and ABCG2 in multidrug resistance, the contribution of other family members is not so well explored (276). Moreover, the mechanism by which the ABC transporters are involved in the maintenance of the CSCs phenotype *via* their drug-efflux-independent function is even less understood (275). For these reasons we have decided to study the expression of all members of ABC transporters in our model of CSCs.

Since CSCs are known to be more resistant to cancer treatment due to overexpression of the ABC transporters (275), we have checked a response of our sphere model of CSCs to common chemotherapeutic drugs such as daunorubicin and doxorubicin. MCF7 spheres and T47D spheres were much less sensitive than their adherent counterparts. Daunorubicin and doxorubicin were reported as substrates of ABCB1, ABCC1, ABCG2, ABCC2 and ABCC3 transporters (162,163), therefore we applied ABCB1, ABCG2 and ABCC1 inhibitors in order to reverse the unresponsiveness of CSCs to daunorubicin and doxorubicin. Unexpectedly, we observed that these inhibitors alone had significant effect on viability of spheres. Even though the specificity of individual inhibitors is rather controversial and we were interested in all ABC transporters, we performed expression profiling analysis of 48

members of the human ABC transporter family in our model of CSCs. On the mRNA level, many of the ABC transporter genes were upregulated; the most significantly *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCB10*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* and *ABCG2*, and these changes were observed in majority of the tested cell lines. This result correlates with the hypothesis that CSCs express higher level of these ATP-driven pumps (277). However, we realised that the protein levels of ABC transporters quite often do not correlate with the mRNA levels, which is not a surprise, as post-transcriptional and post-translational modifications of ABC transporters are ubiquitous and already described (278,279). Based on the protein level, we then selected transporters that were consistently upregulated (*ABCB8*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC10* and *ABCG2*) or downregulated (*ABCB10*, *ABCF2*) in spheres derived from three breast cancer cell lines. The role of the individual transporters in CSC biology is currently being investigated by further experiments.

The protein data nicely explain the results obtained with the daunorubicin and doxorubicin as we observed increased expression of *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCG2* and *ABCC3* (only in T47D cells) transporters, which pump these chemotherapeutics out of the cell. The results obtained with ABC transporter inhibitors also correlate with protein data. The decrease in sphere viability after using *ABCG2* inhibitors is in line with published data that *ABCG2* expression is conserved in stem cells, protecting them from cell death and preserving stem cell phenotype (152). It is also considered a CSC marker, thus further validating our sphere model (152). Another interesting response in cell viability was observed with an inhibitor of *ABCC1*, as our sphere cells were highly sensitive to inhibition of this transporter whose expression was highly upregulated. Apart from xenobiotics, *ABCC1* transports proinflammatory cysteinyl leukotriene C₄ and glutathione and glucuronide conjugates (151). By transporting GSH and GSSG, *ABCC1* is also involved in regulating responses during oxidative stress and was recently reported as an important mediator of oxidative stress in endothelial murine EOMA cells (126). Since we detected higher ROS in our sphere model, the *ABCC1* transporter might have an important function in cellular detoxification and its inhibition thus may lead to further increase in intracellular ROS, which is deleterious for cells. This hypothesis still needs further experimental verification.

The inhibition of ABCB1 transporter by verapamil had significant impact on viability only in BT474 sphere cells while no difference was observed in other cell lines, yet the protein level of this well-known transporter was very low, rising the probability that the observed effect was likely non-specific. Interestingly, there is no change in protein level of ABCB1 transporter in our model of CSCs. The *ABCB1* mRNA expression was scarcely detectable in all prostate and breast cancer cell lines tested and ABCB1 protein level was very low in the tested breast cancer cell lines, both in the adherent and sphere cells. Since ABCB1 transporter is one of the most studied, characterised and main detoxifying representative of ABC transporters, increased expression was expected at least in some of the CSCs. Interestingly, ABCB1 expression was documented to be high in MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells resistant against certain chemotherapeutics, but this seems to be rather an adaptive response of the cells because normal levels of ABCB1 in these cell lines are low (280–284). However, this might be cell type specific as ABCB1 inhibition leads to a decrease in CSCs properties and seems to reverse resistance in non-small cell lung cancer and in renal cell carcinoma (154,155).

Apart from ABCC1 and ABCG2, protein profiling data also showed consistent changes in expression of ABCC2, ABCB8, ABCC10, ABCB10 and ABCF2 transporters. ABCC2 is expressed in the apical membranes of canalicular cells in the liver where it functions as the major exporter of organic anions from the liver into the bile. ABCC2 expression is associated with resistance to platinum containing drugs in various cancer types (285–288) and correlates with poorly differentiated state of the tumour. Reports associating ABCC2 expression with CSCs are scarce and further investigation is required to shed more light on its role in biology of CSCs. The same holds true for ABCC10, which also transports a broad range of xenobiotics but no report describes its function in CSCs (289). Interestingly, mitochondrial transporter ABCB8 is involved in doxorubicin resistance in melanoma cells, by protecting mitochondrial genome, but its role in other breast and ovarian cancer cell lines remains elusive (290) and its function in CSCs as well as its physiological functions are not well known.

Surprisingly, ABCB10 and ABCF2 transporters were highly downregulated on the protein level in our sphere model. Since ABCB10 is related to iron metabolism, it is discussed in the next section 6.2. and here we focus only on ABCF2. ABCF2 is reported as a prognostic

marker in ovarian cancer (291) where it contributes to cisplatin resistance (292). On the other hand, in breast cancer it is reported to play a suppressive role in metastatic sites and its expression in ER⁻/PR⁻ breast tumours is a good prognostic marker (293). Since ABCF2 has only NBDs and lacks the transmembrane domains, it has cellular function unrelated to transport and similarly to ABCF1, it plays a role in other cellular processes such as inflammation or translation initiation (140). Moreover, the expression of ABCF1, the transporter from the same group as ABCF2, was correlated with differentiated states (140) and it is possible that the same expression pattern applies for ABCF2, which correlates with obtained data. The exact molecular mechanism how ABCF2 contributes to the CSC phenotype remains to be determined.

Similarly, other transporters may play roles unrelated to drug transport and be involved in the maintenance of CSCs phenotype. The mentioned increase in mRNA level of *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8* and *ABCC11* was not consistently replicated on protein level, therefore we are not discussing these transporters further. Transport of endogenous substrates by ABC transporters may act in an autocrine or paracrine way to influence cellular processes such as apoptosis, proliferation, differentiation, cell migration and metastasis (162). Recent reports also show multiple subcellular localization of ABC transporters, thus transporters thought to be only in the plasma membrane were also found in mitochondrial or nuclear membranes and therefore might be transporting molecules within the subcellular compartments (126,287,294). Besides, some transporters are localized in membranes of subcellular organelles as lysosomes (*ABCA2*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCB9*, *ABCD4*) (132,134,295), peroxisomes (*ABCD1*, *ABCD2*, *ABCD3*) (138), mitochondria (*ABCB6*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB8*, *ABCB10*) (128) or endoplasmic reticulum (*ABCB2*, *ABCB3*) (125), fulfilling important functions in protein, lipid and fatty acid metabolism as well as in immune response. Some ABC transporters were reported to act as transcription factors besides their function of transporting molecules (296). For these reasons it is appropriate to investigate whether the expression of ABC transporters has a fundamental role in the CSC phenotype, or occurs as a result of other genetic changes during tumorigenesis. However, due to the large number of known ABC transporters and their high expression levels in stem cells, it is likely that partial functional redundancy might mask their importance for stem cell maintenance or growth.

To further elucidate the function of those individual ABC transporters more precisely, we are currently working on a model of individual ABC overexpression or knockout by the CRISPR technology and we believe that this would give some important answers to the puzzle of the CSC biology.

6.1.2. Regulation of oestrogen receptor signalling by miR-301a-3p in ER α positive breast cancer

High level of miR-301a-3p correlates with metastatic potential and was shown to be a negative prognostic marker in many human cancers (122,297). However, the role of miR-301a-3p in progression of ER-positive breast cancer has not been elucidated yet. Breast cancer present the prevailing type of carcinoma in women worldwide. The majority of diagnosed breast cancer are classified as ER-positive subtypes, characterised by good prognosis for patient, who benefit from treatment with the anti-oestrogenic drug, tamoxifen. Although the drug is efficient and well tolerated, the reason for cancer relapse and metastasis formation is the loss of ER α , leading to non-responsiveness to endocrine therapy (298,299). Development of resistance connected with the transition from ER-positive to ER-negative breast cancer thus represents a very important clinical problem and finding markers predicting oestrogen independence is of high importance. Dysregulated miRNA expression may underline the abnormal function of cellular processes by regulating expression of drug targets and thus constitute a resistant phenotype (300).

ESR1 gene coding for ER α mRNA has a long 3' UTR region of about 4.3 kbp bearing many evolutionarily conserved miRNA target sites. Several miRNAs such as miR-22 (301), -206 (302,303), -145 (304) have already been reported to regulate ER α protein expression. We analysed the *cis* regulatory sequences in the 3' UTR of the *ESR1* gene mRNA and identified two seed sequences, which are able to bind miR-301a-3p. To validate our hypothesis, we have generated a reporter vector where *Cypridina* luciferase gene is coupled to the 3' UTR of *ESR1* gene and demonstrated that deletion of these two sites results in higher luciferase expression. Thus, we confirmed the role of these two sites in the negative regulation of the ER α protein expression. Interestingly, the first site closer to the end of translation is a preferred binding site for miR-301a-3p as deletion of this site only resulted in phenotype

identical to the deletion of both binding sites. However, the deletion of the second site also led to an increase in reporter luciferase expression suggesting that this site can be utilised by miR-301a-3p as well albeit its miR-301a-3p binding is less profound.

Our results demonstrate that miR-301a-3p suppresses *ESR1* mRNA and ER α protein expression and, more importantly, inhibits the canonical ER signalling pathway in ER positive MCF7, T47D and BT474 breast cancer cell lines. High miR-301a-3p expression leads to lower expression of genes positively regulated by ER α (*PGRA*, *GREB1*, *CXCL12*, *CSTD*) and to induction of genes negatively regulated by ER α (*BMP7*). Moreover, we showed that overexpression of miR-301a-3p caused inhibition of proliferation of oestrogen-dependent MCF7 cells *in vitro* and suppressed the growth of miR-301a-3p overexpressing tumours derived from MCF7 cells in nude mice. These results confirm that *ESR1* mRNA is a direct target of miR-301a-3p *in vitro* and *in vivo* and are consistent with already published results referring to other miRNAs targeting ER α (303,304). On the contrary, we did not detect any significant changes when using miR-301a-3p anti-miR with exception of BT474 cells. These cells express significantly higher level of miR-301a-3p compared to MCF7 and T47D cells, which is probably the reason why miR-301a-3p anti-miR had an impact only on these cells. *ESR1* mRNA and ER α protein is relatively abundant in MCF7 and T47D cells and thus further increase in ER α protein is probably not beneficial for cells. Alternative explanation is that *ESR1* mRNA contains long 3' UTR with many other regulatory miRNA sites (305) and the impact of miR-301a-3p anti-miR could be limited by low expression of miR-301a-3p in comparison with other abundant and non-inhibited regulatory miRNAs as suggested by Androsavich and Chau (306).

Interestingly, we detected higher expression of the *HER2* gene in miR-301a-3p overexpressing tumours. This observation is in line with reports showing that a decrease in ER α signalling leads to upregulation of *HER2* in order to sustain proliferation by activation of other signalling pathways. Moreover, HER2 signalling further inhibits ER α signalling (307). Increased *HER2* gene expression also increases invasiveness and expression of CSC genes in breast cancer (308). Consistently, we observed upregulation of other markers related to CSCs, EMT and metastatic phenotype such as *CD44*, *ALDH1*, *ABCG2*, *VIM*, *ZEB1*, *ZEB2* and *VEGFA* in tumours derived from MCF7 cell line overexpressing miR-301a-3p. The correlation of miR-301a-3p expression with CSC phenotype was further confirmed

by analysis of our model of CSCs, where we observed highly upregulated miR-301a-3p expression together with significantly decreased ER α protein level accompanied by inhibition of expression of ER α target proteins GREB1 and PR. Moreover, other ER α -regulating miRNAs such as miR-22, -145 and -206 were not significantly and consistently elevated in sphere samples (data not shown) suggesting that miRNA regulation of ER α expression in connection with CSC phenotype is specific for miR-301a-3p. Furthermore, recent reports show that miR-301a-3p renders breast cancer non-responsive to the anti-oestrogenic drug tamoxifen and also involvement of miR-301a-3p in regulation of other signalling pathways that are important in the progression of breast cancer such as PTEN/AKT, NF- κ B or Wnt/ β -catenin (116,122,123). MiR-301a-3p was also shown to promote EMT by inhibiting E-cadherin expression (263). Thus, we hypothesised that upregulation of miR-301a-3p may represent a feasible mechanism contributing to the phenotypical shift of primarily ER α dependent cells towards tumour cells relying on other proliferative signals. More importantly, since miR-301a-3p overexpressing cells acquire properties of CSCs, which are highly invasive and resistant to treatment (2,276,309), they might represent the subpopulation that survives endocrine therapy and gives rise to relapsing metastasis.

Next, the analysis of biopsies from human breast tumours revealed the significantly higher level of miR-301a-3p expression in tumours which were classified as ER/PR negative in comparison with tumours which were ER/PR positive. Similarly, we detected a significant negative correlation between *ESR1* and miR-301a-3p expression, suggesting that miR-301a-3p might serve as a biomarker of cancer progression, patient prognosis and also the response to endocrine treatment. These data are in accordance with report showing that expression of miR-301a-3p is significantly associated with larger tumour size and lymph node metastases in triple negative breast cancer (310).

In conclusion, our study provides functional evidence that miR-301a-3p regulates ER signalling in the ER positive breast cancer cells *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* by direct inhibition of *ESR1* mRNA translation. Thus, miR-301a-3p forces oestrogen dependent cancer cells to become oestrogen-independent with high selection pressure to activate alternative survival/pro-proliferative pathways in order to proliferate. The transition of oestrogen-dependent tumour to oestrogen-independent tumour is one of the crucial steps in progression

of breast cancer. Collectively, our data together with published papers showing effects of miR-301a-3p on cancer motility and metastasis (116), suggest that miR-301a-3p might be used as a marker of poor patient prognosis with higher chance to become hormone-insensitive and resistant to tamoxifen.

6.2. Metabolism of iron in CSCs

Due to the irreplaceable function of iron in cellular reactions and processes necessary for cell growth and replication, it is not surprising that iron plays an important function in cancer development. This notion was supported by multiple experimental studies associating altered expression of genes and proteins involved in iron metabolism and iron regulation with tumorigenesis (reviewed in (311)). Application of iron chelating drugs has been shown to inhibit tumour growth, confirming its role in tumour biology (240,242,246). Thus, defining how iron contributes to development of cancer is essential for developing novel therapeutic strategies. CSCs are considered to be one of the main reasons for cancer progression and metastasis. However, no studies have described the role of iron and its metabolism in the maintenance and biology of CSCs so far. For this reason, we decided to describe the iron metabolism in spheres, derived from several cancer cell lines, which we used as an *in vitro* model of CSCs.

We detected higher LIP and iron uptake with predominant iron accumulation within mitochondria in MCF7 spheres. We also demonstrated that MCF7 spheres are more prone to iron withdrawal than control adherent MCF7 cells, suggesting that iron is an important micronutrient necessary for survival of CSCs. In order to better understand iron metabolism in CSCs, we performed expression profiling of genes related to iron metabolism. The selected genes with altered mRNA expression (more than 1.5 fold change), which changed reproducibly among studied cell lines, gave us iron metabolism-related gene expression signature typical for our model of CSCs. Among differentially expressed genes are individual genes participating in iron uptake (*CYBRDI*, *TFRC*), iron sensing and iron regulation (*ACO1*, *IREB1*), mitochondrial haem and ISC synthesis (*ABCB10*, *GLRX5*), hypoxia response (*EPAS1*, *QSOX1*), iron export and iron overload regulation (*HEPH*, *HFE*). Association of the expression of these genes with CSC phenotype was confirmed also by

PCA based on expression of selected genes, showing clear differentiation between control and sphere samples in all cell lines.

Next, we investigated expression of individual genes on protein level in our model of CSCs derived from MCF7 cell line. We detected higher level of *CYBRDI* mRNA in spheres and its 25 kDa protein isoform in MCF7 spheres. Increased *CYBRDI* mRNA level in spheres is in line with the detected activation of HIF-2 α , which is known to regulate its expression to enhance iron uptake (312). High expression of DCYTB protein has been recently reported in breast cancer cells where it inhibits adhesion of cells to fibronectin (313), suggesting that in our model this reductase may have function unrelated to iron metabolism and pointing to possible role of different DCYTB protein isoforms in CSCs. High expression of TfR1 has been already connected with cancer progression (7) and it is expected due to HIF (314) and IRP/IRE system activation (204). Recently published data in glioblastoma CSCs highlights the importance of TfR1 for maintenance of CSC phenotype (248), supporting our results. In order to further decipher other possible mechanisms of iron uptake, we also assessed other proteins involved in the NTBI uptake such as ZIP14 and a putative NTBI transporter DMT1 (315,316). DMT1 has maximal iron transport activity at pH 5-6 and it is known that tumours exhibit acidic microenvironment (315,317). However, published studies showed that DMT1 is dispensable for NTBI uptake at least in normal hepatocytes (318) and its role as an NTBI uptake pump is rather unclear. Using our CSCs model, we found decreased DMT1 protein level and thus we do not consider DMT1 a substantial contributor to higher LIP in our model of spheres. Because the amount of DMT1 was detected in whole cell lysates, we cannot rule out that the actual amount/proportion of DMT1 on the plasma membrane differs in CSCs. We found that iron importer ZIP14 (coded by *SLC39A14* gene) was increased on mRNA level and ZIP14 protein level was decreased, suggesting for post-transcriptional mechanism of regulation. ZIP14 is reported to be targeted for proteasomal degradation in response to iron deprivation in HEPG2 cells (319), which we think is actually also occurring in our model of CSCs despite our data show higher LIP pool (see below). Decreased ZIP14 protein level is also in line with newly published data in human prostate cancer where authors connect lower ZIP14 expression with more invasive phenotype (320). In hepatocellular carcinoma, lower ZIP14 expression was also noticed probably to protect cells from tumour suppressive effect of zinc, which is another ZIP14 substrate (321). From the expression of these two iron importing proteins, we assume that higher iron uptake in MCF7 spheres is

thus facilitated mostly by higher level of TfR1 or *via* DCYTB, although we cannot fully exclude the contribution of other proteins from the ZIP family (such as ZIP8) that we did not assess.

We also detected higher level of ACO1 and IREB2 mRNA in our sphere model. On the protein level, ACO1 level was increased whereas IREB2 level was decreased. Since, ACO1 and IREB2 stands for IRP1 and IRP2, we also checked for their activity and detected higher IRP/IRE binding activity in MCF7 sphere model. IRPs are activated in cells in response to iron deprivation and would explain higher iron uptake and lower iron storage in our model. Yet, paradoxically, we found higher LIP in our model of spheres but since LIP measures all “chelatable” iron within the cells it does not discriminate between iron that is biologically active or inactive and thus iron measured as total LIP can be biologically inactive or locked within subcellular structures or vesicles and thus be consistent with the IRP activation in the cytosol. Interestingly, we found lower level of IRP2, yet it was active in the IRE binding. Since IRP2 is targeted to proteasomal degradation in iron repleted cells (224), this might explain the lower level of IREB2 protein in sphere cells but the exact mechanism remains to be clarified.

ACO1 contains the ISC in its active site and the IRE binding activity is exerted after ISC is removed. The presence of ISC in ACO1 is dependent on iron level within the cells and especially on the proper function of all components important for ISC biogenesis (218). The impaired ISC biogenesis is indicated by the lower activity of ISC containing enzymes, and consistently mitochondrial CI and aconitase activity (cytosolic and mitochondrial) was decreased in our MCF7 sphere model. The impaired ISC biogenesis is also a possible reason for accumulation of iron within mitochondria (322), which we observed in our sphere model. GLRX5 is an important component of Fe-S cluster biogenesis and its deficiency causes sideroblastic anemia connected with impairment of the ISC biogenesis, IRP1 activation, mitochondrial CI and aconitase activity decrease and mitochondrial iron accumulation in human erythroblast (323). We detected reduction in *GLRX5* gene and protein expression in our model of sphere cells which might partly explain the observed phenomenon of lower activity of ISC containing enzymes due to insufficient ISC formation resulting in IRP1 activation and mitochondrial iron accumulation. The evidence about the role of GLRX5 in carcinogenesis is scarce but the inhibition of ISC biogenesis may provide an explanation of

the genomic instability of CSCs, as impairment of the function of ISC dependent enzymes results in reduced activity of enzymes, which maintain the integrity of the genome (324).

Destabilization of ISC and thus IRP1 activation is also promoted by generation of ROS (219). We detected higher oxidative environment within sphere cells than in normal adherent cells. The overall level of ROS is higher not only in cytosol but also in mitochondria and this is also reflected by lower level of reduced glutathione and lower GSH/GSSG ratio in sphere cells. Although CSCs were reported to have lower amount of ROS due to higher expression of free radical scavenging system (70), we detected the opposite. ROS are critical signalling molecules involved in each stage of cancer development including tumour initiation, development and progression, and are also reported to be involved in EMT process (325). Our method of generating spheres is based on cultivation of cells as floating spheres in media without FBS supplemented with EGF and FGF that enrich population of cells with increased EMT and CSC markers. EMT process is known to increase the CSC phenotype (56) and it is also reported to be regulated by ROS (326). Moreover, Zhang et al. (327) showed that EMT process contributes to ROS production by inhibition of ferritin levels in cytosol leading to further increase in LIP. We detected significantly lower levels of ferritin and higher levels of LIP in our sphere model, which is consistent with higher ROS production. It is also reported that EMT process is initiated by specific CSCs (58,59), thus we can only speculate that CSCs initiate EMT process through deregulation of iron metabolism to produce higher ROS and induce EMT. Moreover, sphere formation led to higher ROS generation in ovarian cancer cells where application of ROS scavenger decreased their sphere forming capacity (328). Reduced level of mitochondrial transporter ABCB10 might present another mechanism that increases ROS level as it is reported to play a protecting role against ROS (329). Although the data document rather small (2-fold), yet significant increase in mRNA level in all tested cell lines, substantially reduced ABCB10 protein level in all tested cell lines suggests for some post-transcriptional mechanism of regulation of ABCB10 protein. ABCB10 is localised within inner mitochondrial membrane where it stabilises MFRN1 and forms a complex with ferrochelatase, participating in haem synthesis (268,330). Reduced level of ABCB10 protein in our model corresponds with the observed iron accumulation in mitochondria and higher level of ROS, a situation which has been observed in embryos of mice with ABCB10 deletion (269). Low ABCB10 level in our model is also in line with the notion that ABCB10 expression is induced during erythroid

differentiation (331). On the contrary, Wang et al. (332) reported higher ABCB10 protein activity in lung CSCs mediated by activation of HIF-1 α in these cells. Thus, the correlation of ABCB10 expression with cancer progression and CSC phenotype needs further investigation. The increase in mitochondrial membrane potential in our sphere model correlates with published data that CSCs possess higher mitochondrial potential than other cancer cells (333).

Another role for ROS in reprogramming cells into CSCs might be through HIF transcription factors. Under normoxic conditions, HIFs are targeted for proteasomal degradation by the function of PHDs (334). These hydroxylases also require iron as an essential cofactor, thus shortage of intracellular iron results in their low activity and stabilization of HIFs (314). High ROS level has been shown to activate HIF transcription factors through inhibition of function of PHDs (272,335). On the other hand, HIF-2 α has been shown to be a direct target of IRP1 that limits its mRNA expression during iron deficiency. Interestingly, our data show higher level of HIF-2 α and HIF regulated protein QSOX1 and already mentioned DCYTB. The effect of activated IRP1 on HIF-2 α mRNA expression is thus probably not the decisive factor in our model. Due to low levels of HIF1 α and lack of reliable antibody, we were not able to probe the protein level of HIF-1 α , so it remains an open question for further determination. Activity of HIF transcription factors has been shown to promote the activation of developmental pathways such as Notch, Wnt/ β -catenin and Hedgehog (80–82) often activated in CSCs as they are important for maintaining the CSC phenotype (75). Both HIF transcription factors have stage specific roles during reprogramming of human cells into pluripotent SCs (336). Moreover, HIF-2 α has been shown to activate OCT-4 and C-MYC transcription factors (337). It is thus plausible that cells activate HIFs to maintain CSCs phenotype but whether the increased iron level followed by ROS generation is the cause of HIF activation needs further investigation. The increase in activity of HIF transcription factors is also supported by increased expression of HIF-regulated gene *QSOX1*. *QSOX1* is a sulfhydryl oxidase with both disulfide-generating and disulfide transferring capabilities (273). *QSOX1* contributes to ROS generation as a result of its enzymatic activity creating feedback loop where ROS induce *QSOX1* expression through activation of HIFs. We detected higher expression of short variant of *QSOX1* protein without transmembrane domain that is known to be overexpressed in tumour cells (273). *QSOX1* is secreted into extracellular matrix where it is thought to play a role in tissue remodelling to

facilitate cell invasion and metastasis (273). This is in line with published data that QSOX1 protein level correlates with aggressive phenotype of breast cancer (338) and inhibitory QSOX1 antibody inhibits cell migration (339). Research connecting QSOX1 expression with CSC phenotype has not been published yet, but it is likely that QSOX1 expression is supporting EMT.

We further looked at the expression of other genes connected with the regulation of iron metabolism on cellular as well as organismal level such as HEPH, HFE and DMT1. The HEPH protein was reported to be decreased in colorectal and breast cancer (340,341) and in our model we see increased 150 kDa isoform while only a slight decrease in 100 kDa isoform of this protein. HEPH mediates iron export from enterocytes by oxidizing Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} but its role in breast tissue and its relation to CSC phenotype has not been elucidated yet and needs further investigation. HFE is involved in regulation of the level of hepcidin, thus affecting indirectly the iron export from cells through the hepcidin/ferroportin axis (198). Mutations in this gene are connected with excessive iron loading in haemochromatosis patients resulting in increased risk of cancer development (274,342). Although we have seen an increase in the *HFE* mRNA level, no change was observed on the level of protein assuming this protein is not linked to CSC phenotype.

FPN is the only known iron exporter. The downregulation of FPN expression is correlated with worse prognosis in colorectal, breast and prostate cancer (343–346). Since we detected no difference in FPN protein level, we assume that iron export is not changed in CSCs and higher LIP is maintained mainly by higher iron uptake in these cells. Given the IRP activation, we expected lower level of ferroportin, which was not observed. Nevertheless, FPN can be regulated independently of IRPs and these mechanisms might explain changes in FPN expression in our system (347–349).

Ferritin is the main iron storage protein in the cell and its differential expression has been associated with progression of Hodgkin's lymphoma, breast and pancreatic cancer and hepatocellular carcinoma (350). Intriguingly, in breast cancer, the increased ferritin level was associated more with tumour stroma than with cancer cells (351). According to Alkhateeb et al. (352), ferritin is localised within tumour associated macrophages (TAM), which secrete ferritin into tumour stroma where it exerts pro-proliferative effect on cancer

cells unrelated to iron. Moreover, TAM associated FTL expression was reported as negative prognostic marker (353) and expression of FTH in cancer cells was shown to be a good indicator in treatment of breast cancer (354). Consistently, our results show decreased level of ferritin protein in our model of MCF7 spheres which is also in line with activation of the IRP/IRE system. The role of low ferritin level in maintenance of stem cell phenotype was supported by Lobello et al. (250), who showed that FTH is a negative regulator of ovarian CSCs expansion and EMT. Furthermore, FTH silenced MCF7 cells show EMT phenotype accompanied by increased level of ROS (249) which is in agreement with data obtained in our model. On the other hand, work of Schonberg et al. (248) reports glioblastoma CSCs depending on ferritin expression to propagate and form tumour, pointing to tissue dependent role of ferritin in cancer progression.

Another protein regulated by IRP/IRE system is the DMT1 which is involved in iron transport from gut lumen into enterocytes but also from acidic environment of lysosomes to cytoplasm; and as discussed above, DMT1 has also been implicated in the uptake of NTBI (316). Reports about DMT1 in cancer are scarce with few showing high DMT1 expression in oesophageal adenocarcinoma, hepatocellular carcinoma and colorectal cancer (355–357). Unexpectedly, while we detected upregulation of *DMT1* mRNA level, protein level was much lower in our sphere model of CSCs. Since the activity of IRP should stabilise *DMT1* mRNA level, there must be some other post-transcriptional mechanism repressing its translation into protein or some post-translational process leading to DMT1 protein degradation. In neurons, DMT1 protein is targeted for proteasomal degradation in response to high iron levels (358). Since we detected higher LIP, it is possible that similar phenomenon is occurring in our model. The higher iron uptake through TfR1 and lower DMT1 protein level in spheres suggest that iron might remain locked in endosomes after TfR1 endocytosis and it is unable to enter cytosol, which could explain the activation of IRP/IRE system together with simultaneous accumulation of iron within mitochondria. In developing erythroid cells and also in non-erythroid cells, iron is transferred directly from transferrin-containing endosomes to mitochondria by so called “kiss and run mechanism”, thus bypassing the oxygen-rich cytosol (179,359,360). It is possible that similar process is occurring also in our model of CSCs, explaining higher iron uptake, higher LIP locked in endosomes, activation of IRP/IRE system due to shortage of iron in cytosol and accumulation of iron within mitochondria.

Altogether, our work shows that CSCs represented by our sphere model exhibit massive changes related to iron metabolism, highlighting the importance of iron metabolism in context of tumour development and biology of CSCs. The main discoveries are summarised in Fig. 6.1., however the research covering the area of iron metabolism in cancer is still not fully elucidated due to the complexity of these mechanisms and requires further experimental work.

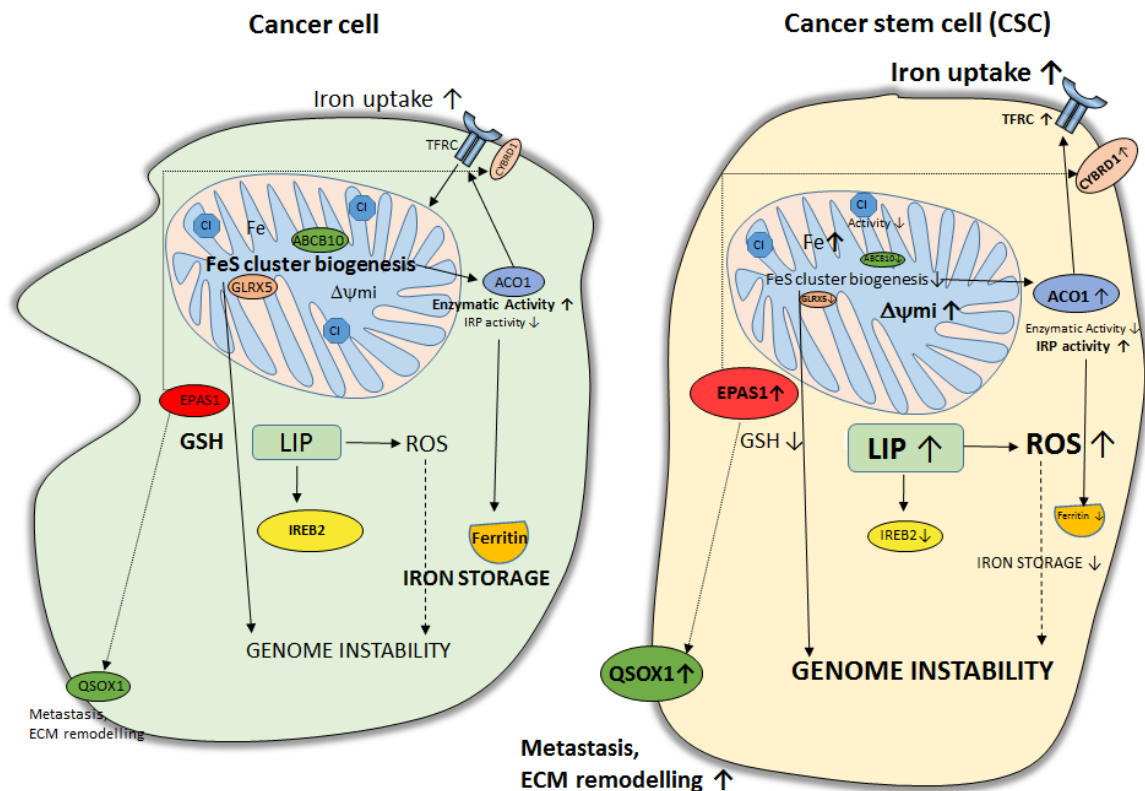


Fig. 6.1. Scheme highlighting the changes in iron metabolism between cancer and cancer stem cells (CSC). CSCs exhibit higher level of labile iron pool (LIP) and reactive oxygen species (ROS) together with lower reduced glutathione level (GSH). CSCs show defect in biogenesis of iron sulphur clusters (lower expression of ABCB10 and GLRX5) connected with mitochondrial iron accumulation and lower aconitase 1 (ACO1) and mitochondrial complex I (CI) activity, which may also affect genome stability and thus plasticity of CSCs. CSCs show activation of iron responsive element (IRP) connected with higher iron uptake by transferrin receptor (TfR1) and lower level of ferritin. CSCs exhibit also stabilization of hypoxia inducible factor-2 α (HIF-2 α , coded by *EPAS1* gene) followed by higher expression of HIF regulated gene QSOX1 involved in extracellular matrix (ECM) remodelling. CSCs have also higher level of CYBRD1 and lower level of IREB2 proteins. Figure adapted from (247).

7. SUMMARY

This work focus on the expression of ABC transporters in CSCs to reveal the most differentially expressed transporters for further study of their function in relation to the maintenance and biology of CSCs. Next, we focused on the regulation of ER α by miR-301a-3p in the context of CSCs and resistance. The last part of the thesis is then dedicated to the elucidation of iron metabolism in CSCs.

All specific aims presented in the chapter 3. have been achieved and conclusions derived from obtained data were published in two scientific papers (see List of publications), which form the basis of this work and where the author of this thesis is first author and shared first author. However this work also shows some data which have not been published yet, but indeed broadens our understanding of the biology of CSCs. The conclusions which reflect the specific aims asked in the chapter 3. are:

- 1) We document that both methods generates spheres whereas the expression of CSC and EMT markers such as *CD44*, *ABCG2*, *CXCR4*, *CDH2* and *SOX2* is more profound with the approach based on culturing cells in media without serum supplemented with proliferation supplement, EGF, FGF and heparin.
- 2) Elucidation of the mechanisms of resistance in CSCs
 - a. Our sphere model of CSCs derived from T47D and MCF7 cells exhibit resistance to daunorubicin and doxorubicin and CSCs derived from MCF7, T47D and BT474 cells show a decrease in viability when exposed to ABCC1 and ABCG2 inhibitors.
 - b. The most significantly upregulated ABC transporters on mRNA level in our model of prostate and breast CSCs are *ABCA1*, *ABCA3*, *ABCA5*, *ABCA12*, *ABCA13*, *ABCB7*, *ABCB9*, *ABCB10*, *ABCC1*, *ABCC2*, *ABCC3*, *ABCC5*, *ABCC8*, *ABCC10*, *ABCC11* and *ABCG2*.
 - c. Our model of breast CSCs exhibit higher protein level of ABCB8, ABCC1, ABCC2, ABCC10 and ABCG2 transporters. On the other hand, we detected a decrease in protein level of ABCB10 and ABCF2 transporters.

- d. MiR-301a-3p is highly expressed in our model of breast CSCs which exhibit inhibition of ER signalling.
 - e. MiR-301a-3p inhibits ER signalling by direct inhibition of *ESR1* mRNA translation in ER positive breast cancer cell lines and decreases sensitivity of oestrogen dependent MCF7 cell line to $17\text{-}\beta\text{ E}_2$.
 - f. Mir-301a-3p inhibits growth of the tumour derived from oestrogen dependent MCF7 cell line in nude mice, yet miR-301a-3p overexpressing tumours increase the expression of genes related to CSC and EMT phenotype. Moreover, miR-301a-3p expression negatively correlates with *ESR1* expression in biopsies from patient with breast cancer.
- 3) Elucidation of iron metabolism in CSCs
- a. CSCs derived from MCF7 cell lines exhibit higher LIP, iron uptake with predominant iron accumulation in mitochondria and are more sensitive to iron chelation.
 - b. CSCs derived from prostate and breast cancer cell lines show deregulation of genes related to iron metabolism, the most upregulated genes being *CYBRD1*, *TFRC*, *ACO1*, *IREB2*, *ABCB10*, *EPAS1*, *QSOX1*, *HEPH*, *HFE* while *GLRX5* is downregulated. These genes constitute the so called iron metabolism-related CSC gene signature and PCA based on expression of this signature clearly distinguishes CSC population from non-CSC population *in vitro*.
 - c. MCF7 spheres show significant upregulation of *CYBRD1*, *ACO1*, *EPAS1*, *QSOX1*, *HEPH* protein level and a decrease in *IREB2*, *ABCB10*, *GLRX5*, *NRAMP2* and *FLH1* protein expression.
 - d. MCF7 spheres show activation of IRP/IRE system, higher oxidative environment reflected by increased ROS generation, lower GSH level and lower GSH/GSSG ratio, a decrease in aconitase and mitochondrial CI activity and higher mitochondrial potential.

Taken together, our research provides evidence that CSCs are very plastic cells with highly diverse characteristics encompassing changes in iron metabolism and in the expression of ABC transporters and miRNAs, distinguishing them from normal cancer cells. Due to this plasticity, CSCs have unique properties enabling them to resist the chemotherapy and metastasise to various parts of the body. It is then of high clinical importance to fully clarify the biology of CSCs maintenance and self-renewal in order to be able to effectively fight against cancer.

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Supplementary material

Supplementary table 1. List of used primers

Fluidigm RT-qPCR		
Gene		Primer sequence
<i>ABCA1</i>	Forward 5'	AGCCTGGAACCTTCAGCCCTGGATGTACA
<i>ABCA1</i>	Reverse 5'	GCCAGGGTCTTTGGTGAGGGCGTTTAA
<i>ABCA2</i>	Forward 5'	ATCATGGTGAACGGTTCGCCTG
<i>ABCA2</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTCCGCACCGTGATCATGTAG
<i>ABCA3</i>	Forward 5'	ACCTACATCCCCTGATGGCGGAGAAC
<i>ABCA3</i>	Reverse 5'	TACTCCATGATGGCCCGGTCCACA
<i>ABCA4</i>	Forward 5'	ACAGCAGACTGAAAGTCATGACCTCC
<i>ABCA4</i>	Reverse 5'	GTTCCTTTCTGGCTGCAGGAACG
<i>ABCA5</i>	Forward 5'	TTATCATGCTCACACTTAATAGTA
<i>ABCA5</i>	Reverse 5'	ATAAAGATGATCTCCGTAAGC
<i>ABCA6</i>	Forward 5'	CTATAAGCTGCCCCGTGGCAGAC
<i>ABCA6</i>	Reverse 5'	GTGCACTGAGAAAGGCTGTATTCTTCC
<i>ABCA7</i>	Forward 5'	CTGTATGGCTGGTCGATCACAC
<i>ABCA7</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTATGCAGGTGAGCACCACATAG
<i>ABCA8</i>	Forward 5'	TCTTCGGGATTCAGCGTTCT
<i>ABCA8</i>	Reverse 5'	AACAAGTGCCAAGAAAAGGGC
<i>ABCA9</i>	Forward 5'	TGCCCTCAGGAGAATGCGCTGT
<i>ABCA9</i>	Reverse 5'	TAACCGTGTGATGGCGATCATTGCGTC
<i>ABCA10</i>	Forward 5'	ATGTCCACCCTCTATCTCGGGC
<i>ABCA10</i>	Reverse 5'	CTGCTCCAAGGTAGCCTGAGAGA
<i>ABCA12</i>	Forward 5'	ATGGTATGATCCAGAAGGCTATCACTCC
<i>ABCA12</i>	Reverse 5'	TACATGATGATGCCATGTCGGGC
<i>ABCA13</i>	Forward 5'	CAATAATGAAGGAGGTTCGGGAA
<i>ABCA13</i>	Reverse 5'	CATTTGAAGCTGCCGTTAACC
<i>ABCB1</i>	Forward 5'	AAAGCGACTGAATGTTCACTGGCTCCGAG
<i>ABCB1</i>	Reverse 5'	ACCCGGCTGTTGTCTCCATAGGCAA
<i>ABCB2 (TAP1)</i>	Forward 5'	ATCCTGGATGATGCCACCAGT
<i>ABCB2 (TAP1)</i>	Reverse 5'	GAGAAGCACTGAGCGGGAGTA
<i>ABCB3 (TAP2)</i>	Forward 5'	CCTCAGCGCTGAAGCAGAAGTC
<i>ABCB3 (TAP2)</i>	Reverse 5'	ACAGTAAAGCCGCGTCCACCA
<i>ABCB4</i>	Forward 5'	AGGCGGCAAAGAACGGAACAG
<i>ABCB4</i>	Reverse 5'	AATACTCCAATCATTTTCACTGTCTTCGT
<i>ABCB5</i>	Forward 5'	GCAAGGGAAGCAAATGCGTA
<i>ABCB5</i>	Reverse 5'	TGCGATCCTCTGTTTCTGCC
<i>ABCB6</i>	Forward 5'	GCTCTGGCTGCATCCGAATA
<i>ABCB6</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGGGGCACAACCTCCAATGT
<i>ABCB7</i>	Forward 5'	ATCCGGCCTTTAGTCTCTGTTAGCGG

<i>ABCB7</i>	Reverse 5'	CTCTGGAATCTGCTGGTAGGCTCGAG
<i>ABCB8</i>	Forward 5'	GTGCATTTATTTTCGGGTCGGG
<i>ABCB8</i>	Reverse 5'	CTGCGGTAGCCATCAGAGTA
<i>ABCB9</i>	Forward 5'	GCCTCCTTCTTCCATCATCGTG
<i>ABCB9</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTCTGGATGACGATGCCATCAA
<i>ABCB10</i>	Forward 5'	ATCATTGCTGTAATTTATGGGCG
<i>ABCB10</i>	Reverse 5'	ATTTCCAATACGTTCCCTCAGCTA
<i>ABCB11</i>	Forward 5'	GCTACCAGGATAGTTTAAGGGCTTC
<i>ABCB11</i>	Reverse 5'	GATCTACAACAGCTAATGGAGGTTTCG
<i>ABCC1</i>	Forward 5'	TCTCAGATCGCTCACCCCTGTTCTCG
<i>ABCC1</i>	Reverse 5'	CTGTGATCCACCAGAAGGTGATCCTCGAC
<i>ABCC2</i>	Forward 5'	TTGTGAACAGGTTTGCCGGCGATA
<i>ABCC2</i>	Reverse 5'	TGGCCATGCAGATCATGACAAGGG
<i>ABCC3</i>	Forward 5'	GGAGAAGGACCTCTGGTCCCTAAAGGAA
<i>ABCC3</i>	Reverse 5'	CCTTGTGTCGTGCCGTCTGCTTTTC
<i>ABCC4</i>	Forward 5'	CAAGATGCTGCCCCGTGTACCA
<i>ABCC4</i>	Reverse 5'	AATTTTAAACAAGGGATTGAGCCACCAGA
<i>ABCC5</i>	Forward 5'	ATCATCCCCAGTCCTGGGTATAG
<i>ABCC5</i>	Reverse 5'	CAAGGCATCTTGGCATTCCAAC
<i>ABCC6</i>	Forward 5'	ACAAGTGTGCTGACCGAGGCGA
<i>ABCC6</i>	Reverse 5'	ATGAGGATCTGGGTCTTCCGGAGAAGG
<i>ABCC7 (CFTR)</i>	Forward 5'	ACTGGTGCATACTCTAATCACAG
<i>ABCC7 (CFTR)</i>	Reverse 5'	TATTAAGAATCCCACCTGCTTTCA
<i>ABCC8</i>	Forward 5'	TTCATCCAGAAGTACTTCCGGG
<i>ABCC8</i>	Reverse 5'	TGAGTCCTTCTACGGTTTCGG
<i>ABCC9</i>	Forward 5'	ATGATTGTGGGCCAAGTAGGA
<i>ABCC9</i>	Reverse 5'	TTACATTGCTCCAGTGAAC TTTTCC
<i>ABCC10</i>	Forward 5'	GGGAGAAGGGTGTCACCCTTAG
<i>ABCC10</i>	Reverse 5'	CCAGAGGGTCATCGAGGAGATAGA
<i>ABCC11</i>	Forward 5'	TGGATCGTCAGCGGGAACATC
<i>ABCC11</i>	Reverse 5'	CAGAAGTTCCAGGTCCCGATTTCAG
<i>ABCC12</i>	Forward 5'	TCCTTTGCAGAAAGATATGACCC
<i>ABCC12</i>	Reverse 5'	GAAAATGTGGCGAAGGAGAGTA
<i>ABCC13</i>	Forward 5'	ATCAAGAAACCATCTCTACTCTATGC
<i>ABCC13</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTCATTATGAGTGGGCTAGTGAA
<i>ABCD1</i>	Forward 5'	CCAGCGCATGTTCTACATCCCGCAGAG
<i>ABCD1</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTTGCATGTCCCTCCACTGAGTCCGGGTA
<i>ABCD2</i>	Forward 5'	AAATGTTCCCAT AATTACACCAGCAGG
<i>ABCD2</i>	Reverse 5'	AAGAGAGA ACTTTTCCCACAACCATTG
<i>ABCD3</i>	Forward 5'	CTTCAGCAAGTACTTGACGGCGCGAAAC
<i>ABCD3</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTTTTCCA TTTTCTTACCGTGCAGGCC
<i>ABCD4</i>	Forward 5'	GAAGTCACAGGACTGCGAGA
<i>ABCD4</i>	Reverse 5'	GAGATGGAGACCCGCTCAAG

<i>ABCE1</i>	Forward 5'	TAGGACCACGCTCGACGTCGGAGAAAAG
<i>ABCE1</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGTTCAACGCCGTTGGCGAAGCC
<i>ABCF1</i>	Forward 5'	AATGCAGACCTGTACATTGTAGCCGGCCG
<i>ABCF1</i>	Reverse 5'	GATGCTCAGGGCTCGGTTGGCAATGTG
<i>ABCF2</i>	Forward 5'	AATTGACCTTGACACACGAGTGGCTC
<i>ABCF2</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTCGGATCATGCCATCTGTGGGTAGTA
<i>ABCF3</i>	Forward 5'	TTCGCTACAATGCCAACAGG
<i>ABCF3</i>	Reverse 5'	TTCCTTGTCACAGGCTTCAG
<i>ABCG1</i>	Forward 5'	GAAGGTGTCTGCTACATCATGC
<i>ABCG1</i>	Reverse 5'	AAGCTTCAGATGTGCCGACAC
<i>ABCG2</i>	Forward 5'	TCGTTATTAGATGTCTTAGCTGCAA
<i>ABCG2</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGTACCACGTAACCTGAATTACA
<i>ABCG4</i>	Forward 5'	CTGGTACAGCCTCAAAGCGT
<i>ABCG4</i>	Reverse 5'	GCCCGTCATCCAGTACACAA
<i>ABCG5</i>	Forward 5'	TGCTTCTCCTACGTCCTGCAGA
<i>ABCG5</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTCTGGAAGGAGCCGGGATTG
<i>ABCG8</i>	Forward 5'	AGAGGAGAGAGGGCTGCCGAAA
<i>ABCG8</i>	Reverse 5'	AGGTGAAGTACAGGCTGTTGTCACCTTCA
<i>ACO1</i>	Forward 5'	TGCCATTACTAGCTGCACAAACA
<i>ACO1</i>	Reverse 5'	GACAGGCTAGTTTTGATGTAAGGCA
<i>BMP6</i>	Forward 5'	AACGACGCGGACATGGTCA
<i>BMP6</i>	Reverse 5'	ACTCTTTGTGGTGTGCTGA
<i>CD44</i>	Forward 5'	GCTGACCTCTGCAAGGCTTTCAATAG
<i>CD44</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTCTTCGACTGTTGACTGCAATGCA
<i>CXCR4</i>	Forward 5'	TTGATGTGTGCTAGGCAGGA
<i>CXCR4</i>	Reverse 5'	GATTCACTACACGCTCTGGAATG
<i>CYBRD1</i>	Forward 5'	AGTGATTGCAACAGCACTTATGGG
<i>CYBRD1</i>	Reverse 5'	AGGATCAGAAGGCCAAGCGTA
<i>EPAS1</i>	Forward 5'	CGCCATCATCTCTCTGGATTTCGGGAATC
<i>EPAS1</i>	Reverse 5'	TCTGGGTGCTGTGGCTCCTCAA
<i>FTH1</i>	Forward 5'	CTGATGAAGCTGCAGAACCAAC
<i>FTH1</i>	Reverse 5'	AATGTAATGCACACTCCATTGCATT
<i>FTL1</i>	Forward 5'	TTGTACCTGCAGGCCTCCTACACCTAC
<i>FTL1</i>	Reverse 5'	TCCTCGGCCAATTCGCGGAAGAA
<i>FTMT</i>	Forward 5'	AGGCTGCCATCAACCGCCAGATCA
<i>FTMT</i>	Reverse 5'	AGTTGTTCAAGGCCACGTCATCCCGG
<i>FXN</i>	Forward 5'	ACCGACATCGATGCGACCTGCA
<i>FXN</i>	Reverse 5'	CCTCAAATTCATCAAATAGACACTCTGCT
<i>GAPDH</i>	Forward 5'	GGGAAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTCA
<i>GAPDH</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGATGGCAACAATATCCACTTTACCAGA
<i>GLRX2</i>	Forward 5'	AGCAAGTGAGCCGCTTCTCCCCTCTAAA
<i>GLRX2</i>	Reverse 5'	ATTGCTCTCCATCCTCCTCGCAGCTGA
<i>GLRX5</i>	Forward 5'	AAGAAGGACAAGGTGGTGGTCTTCCTCAA

<i>GLRX5</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGTAGGCCCGCGTAATCGCGGA
<i>HAMP</i>	Forward 5'	ACAGACGGCACGATGGCACTGA
<i>HAMP</i>	Reverse 5'	CAAGTTGTCCCGTCTGTTGTGGGAAAACA
<i>HEPH</i>	Forward 5'	GTGCATGCTCATGGAGTGCTA
<i>HEPH</i>	Reverse 5'	CCAGACCTCTCTGGGATGTTC
<i>HFE</i>	Forward 5'	AAGGAAGAGGCAGGGTTCAAGA
<i>HFE</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTGTCTCCTTCCCACAGTGAGT
<i>HFE2</i>	Forward 5'	GGAGCTGACCCACAGAGTAG
<i>HFE2</i>	Reverse 5'	CCGGAAGCCCTGTAAGTGA
<i>HIF1A</i>	Forward 5'	AAGACATCGCGGGGACCGATTCA
<i>HIF1A</i>	Reverse 5'	TTACTTCGCCGAGATCTGGCTGCATC
<i>HIF3A</i>	Forward 5'	TGAAGAGTACACTCACCAGCCGCG
<i>HIF3A</i>	Reverse 5'	GCAGGTGGCTTGTAGGCCCTCATA
<i>HMBS</i>	Forward 5'	CGAGACTCTGCTTCGCTGCATCGCTGAAA
<i>HMBS</i>	Reverse 5'	TGCCCATCCTTCATAGCTGTATGCACGGC
<i>HMOX1</i>	Forward 5'	CAACCCGACAGCATGCCCCAGGATTTG
<i>HMOX1</i>	Reverse 5'	GGGTCACCTGGCCCTTCTGAAAGTTCCTC
<i>HMOX2</i>	Forward 5'	TGAGAATGGCTGACCTCTCGGA
<i>HMOX2</i>	Reverse 5'	ATGTTGCCTTTCAAGAAGTCCTTGACAA
<i>HPRT1</i>	Forward 5'	GACACTGGCAAACAATGCAGA
<i>HPRT1</i>	Reverse 5'	CGTGGGGTTCCTTTTCACCAG
<i>IREB2</i>	Forward 5'	AAATGACAGTTCACATAAGAAGTTCTTCG
<i>IREB2</i>	Reverse 5'	AGCTTCCAACAAGACCCGTAT
<i>ISCA1</i>	Forward 5'	AGATGTCGGCTTCCTTAGTCCGGG
<i>ISCA1</i>	Reverse 5'	TGTTTACTGCTGAAGGTGTCAGGGTGAG
<i>ISCA2</i>	Forward 5'	GATCCGCCTCACAGACAGTTG
<i>ISCA2</i>	Reverse 5'	TGAAAATTTGTATTGGAATCCGGAGCA
<i>ISCU</i>	Forward 5'	TGAAATTACAGATTCAAGTGGATGA
<i>ISCU</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTTCCTTTCACCCATTTCAGT
<i>LYRM4 (ISD11)</i>	Forward 5'	AACATATGCTGTCAGGAGGATAAG
<i>LYRM4 (ISD11)</i>	Reverse 5'	TGTCGACGAATTACTCCAAGG
<i>CDH2</i>	Forward 5'	GCGGAGATCCTACTGGACGGTT
<i>CDH2</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTCAAAGTCGATTGGTTTGACCACGG
<i>POLR2A</i>	Forward 5'	TGCTCCGTATTCGCATCATGAACA
<i>POLR2A</i>	Reverse 5'	ATCTGTCAGCATGTTGGACTCGATG
<i>PPIA</i>	Forward 5'	AACGTGGTATAAAAGGGGCGGG
<i>PPIA</i>	Reverse 5'	GTCGAAGAACACGGTGGGGTT
<i>QSOX1</i>	Forward 5'	AGTCCCATCATGACACGTGGC
<i>QSOX1</i>	Reverse 5'	GCCAGGTACTCTTCGTTATTTCTCGC
<i>RPLP0</i>	Forward 5'	ATCACAGAGGAAACTCTGCATTCTCG
<i>RPLP0</i>	Reverse 5'	GATAGAATGGGGTACTGATGCAACAGTT
<i>SLC11A2 (NRAMP2, IRE)</i>	Forward 5'	TGCACCATGAGGAAGAAGCA
<i>SLC11A2 (NRAMP2, IRE)</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTGGATACCTGAGTGGCTG

<i>SLC25A28 (MFRN2)</i>	Forward 5'	AGGGATCCTGGAGCACTGCGTGATGTAC
<i>SLC25A28 (MFRN2)</i>	Reverse 5'	GAGGGCCTCCAACACATTGCGATAGCG
<i>SLC25A37 (MFRN1)</i>	Forward 5'	CCGTGTCCACCCACATGA
<i>SLC25A37 (MFRN1)</i>	Reverse 5'	TGGGCTTTGGGATCTGGACT
<i>SLC40A1 (FPN1)</i>	Forward 5'	CTACTGCAATCACAATCCAAAGGGA
<i>SLC40A1 (FPN1)</i>	Reverse 5'	GGCTAAGATGTTGGTTAACTGGTCAA
<i>SLC48A1</i>	Forward 5'	CTCGTCTGGACGGTGGTCTA
<i>SLC48A1</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGCATGTACATCACGTGCG
<i>SOX2</i>	Forward 5'	CAGAGAAGAGAGTGTTTGCAAAGGGG
<i>SOX2</i>	Reverse 5'	GGCTTAAGCCTGGGGCTCAA
<i>STEAP3</i>	Forward 5'	TAACAGGCAGGTGCCCATCTGC
<i>STEAP3</i>	Reverse 5'	GATCCCATGTCCACGGGCATGAAG
<i>TBP</i>	Forward 5'	TGTATCCACAGTGAATCTTGGTTGAAA
<i>TBP</i>	Reverse 5'	CGTGGCTCTCTTATCCTCATGATTAC
<i>TFR2</i>	Forward 5'	TGGCTTCCCTTCCTTCAATCAAACC
<i>TFR2</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTGAGCTTCCTCAGCAGGCG
<i>TFRCv1</i>	Forward 5'	GACGCGCTAGTGTCTTCTGTGTGGC
<i>TFRCv1</i>	Reverse 5'	CGAGCCAGGCTGAACCGGGTATATGA
<i>TFRCv2 (IRE)</i>	Forward 5'	GGCTGCAGGTTCTTCTGTGTGGCAGTT
<i>TFRCv2 (IRE)</i>	Reverse 5'	CGAGCCAGGCTGAACCGGGTATATGACA
<i>TMPRSS6</i>	Forward 5'	CTTGTAACAACCAGTCGGACCCCTG
<i>TMPRSS6</i>	Reverse 5'	TTTCTCTCATCCAGGCCGTTGGG
<i>VEGFA</i>	Forward 5'	AGGGCAGAATCATCACGAAGTG
<i>VEGFA</i>	Reverse 5'	ATGTACTCGATCTCATCAGGGTACTC
RT-qPCR mouse genes		
Gene		Primer sequence
<i>mPolr2a</i>	Forward 5'	TGGTCCTTCGAATCCGCATC
<i>mPolr2a</i>	Reverse 5'	GGACTCAATGCATCGCAGGA
<i>mActin</i>	Forward 5'	CGAGTCGCGTCCACCC
<i>mActin</i>	Reverse 5'	ACCCATTCCCACCATCACAC
<i>mGapdh</i>	Forward 5'	GTGCAGTGCCAGCCTCGTCC
<i>mGapdh</i>	Reverse 5'	GCCACTGCAAATGGCAGCCC
<i>mAbcb10</i>	Forward 5'	CACATCCCCTGTTCGCCA
<i>mAbcb10</i>	Reverse 5'	GATGACACTGGACACAGCCA
<i>mAcol</i>	Forward 5'	AACACCAGCAATCCATCCGT
<i>mAcol</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTGACCACTCCACTTCCAG
<i>mCybrd</i>	Forward 5'	GTGACCGGCTTCGTCTTCA
<i>mCybrd</i>	Reverse 5'	TTAACCCGGCATGGATGGAT
<i>mCd34</i>	Forward 5'	ATCCGAGAAGTGAGGTTGGC
<i>mCd34</i>	Reverse 5'	GGAGCAGACACTAGCACCAG
<i>mEpas1</i>	Forward 5'	GGGGTTAAGGAACCCAGGTG
<i>mEpas1</i>	Reverse 5'	GGCATCACGGGATTTCTCCT
<i>mGlx5</i>	Forward 5'	CCTACAACGTGCTGGACGAC

<i>mGlx5</i>	Reverse 5'	CTGCCGTTGAGGTACACTT
<i>mHeph</i>	Forward 5'	CGAGCCGACCTTACACCATT
<i>mHeph</i>	Reverse 5'	TCAGTGGGGGCATGACTTTC
<i>mHfe</i>	Forward 5'	CCTCCACGTTTCCAGATCCT
<i>mHfe</i>	Reverse 5'	CTCTGAGGCACCCATGAAGAG
<i>mIreb2</i>	Forward 5'	TACCTGCATGACATTTGGCCT
<i>mIreb2</i>	Reverse 5'	CATCCCATGGAAACAGCACG
<i>mQsox1</i>	Forward 5'	CTGGACTAGCCACAACAGGG
<i>mQsox1</i>	Reverse 5'	AAAGTTGAGGGTGGCACCAA
<i>mTfrc</i>	Forward 5'	GAGGCGCTTCCTAGTACTCC
<i>mTfrc</i>	Reverse 5'	ACTTGCCGAGCAAGGCTAAA
<i>mKit</i>	Forward 5'	TGACGGTACATGGCTGCATT
<i>mKit</i>	Reverse 5'	ACCACCGTAAATGTGTCCCC
<i>mLtf</i>	Forward 5'	CCTGCTTGCTAACCAGACCA
<i>mLtf</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTTGCTGTTGGGAGCACAC
RT-qPCR human genes		
Gene		Primer sequence
<i>ESR1</i>	Forward 5'	CCGGTCCGCAAATGCTACGA
<i>ESR1</i>	Reverse 5'	AGCGGGCTTGGCAAAGGTT
<i>GREB1</i>	Forward 5'	GGACCAGCTTCAGTCACCTT
<i>GREB1</i>	Reverse 5'	CCAAGGGCTACCATTTGGGT
<i>PGRA</i>	Forward 5'	TGGTGTCTTACCTGTGGGA
<i>PGRA</i>	Reverse 5'	CCAGCCTGACAGCACTTCT
<i>BMP7</i>	Forward 5'	ACAAGGCCGTCTTCAGTACC
<i>BMP7</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTAGCGTGGGTGGAAGAAT
<i>CSTD</i>	Forward 5'	CTGGACATCGCTTGCTGGAT
<i>CSTD</i>	Reverse 5'	TGCCTCTCCACTTTGACACC
<i>CXCL12</i>	Forward 5'	GTGCCCTTCAGATTGTAGCCC
<i>CXCL12</i>	Reverse 5'	GCCCTTCCCTAACACTGGTT
<i>HER2</i>	Forward 5'	CACCCAAGTGTGCACCGGCA
<i>HER2</i>	Reverse 5'	GCACGTAGCCCTGCACCTCC
<i>CD44</i>	Forward 5'	GCTGACCTCTGCAAGGCTTTCAATAG
<i>CD44</i>	Reverse 5'	CTTCTTCGACTGTTGACTGCAATGCA
<i>ABCG2</i>	Forward 5'	TCGTTATTAGATGTCTTAGCTGCAA
<i>ABCG2</i>	Reverse 5'	TTGTACCACGTAACCTGAATTACA
<i>ALDH1</i>	Forward 5'	ATGCTTCCGAGAGGGGGCGA
<i>ALDH1</i>	Reverse 5'	CCCAACCTGCACAGTAGCGCA
<i>VIMENTIN</i>	Forward 5'	GCGACAACCTGGCCGAGGAC
<i>VIMENTIN</i>	Reverse 5'	GGTCAAGACGTGCCAGAGACGC
<i>VEGFA</i>	Forward 5'	AGGGCAGAATCATCACGAAGTG
<i>VEGFA</i>	Reverse 5'	ATGTACTCGATCTCATCAGGGTACTC
<i>POLR2A</i>	Forward 5'	TGCTCCGTATTCGCATCATGAACA
<i>POLR2A</i>	Reverse 5'	ATCTGTCAGCATGTTGGACTCGATG

<i>TBP</i>	Forward 5'	TGTATCCACAGTGAATCTTGGTTGTAAA
<i>TBP</i>	Reverse 5'	CGTGGCTCTCTTATCCTCATGATTAC
<i>P0</i>	Forward 5'	ATCACAGAGGAAACTCTGCATTCTCG
<i>P0</i>	Reverse 5'	GATAGAATGGGGTACTGATGCAACAGTT
<i>ZEB1</i>	Forward 5'	AACCCAACTTGAACGTCACA
<i>ZEB1</i>	Reverse 5'	ATTACACCCAGACTGCGTCA
<i>ZEB2</i>	Forward 5'	TGCCCAACCATGAGTCCTCCCC
<i>ZEB2</i>	Reverse 5'	CGGTCTGGATCGTGGCTTCTGG