## 筑 波 大 学

# 博士(医学)学位論文

# MicroRNA-155-5p is associated with oral squamous cell carcinoma metastases and poor prognosis.

(MicroRNA-155-5p は口腔扁平上皮がんの転移と予 後に関与する)

### 2016

筑波大学大学院博士課程人間総合科学研究科

### 馬場 脩

#### Contents

Abbrevi	atior	ıs•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	P.	4
Abstrac	t••	•	••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	P.	5
Introdu	ction	•	••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	P.	6
Material	ls an	d n	neth	ods	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	P	<b>)</b> .	13
Results	••	•	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Р	•	19
Discuss	ion	••	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Р	•	22
Figures	and	tał	oles	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	• •	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Р		26
Referen	ices	••	•••	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	Р		33

#### Abbreviations

miRNA: microRNA

- OSCC: oral squamous cell carcinoma
- EMT: epithelial mesenchymal transition
- qRT-PCR: quantitative reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction

SOCS1: suppressor of cytokine signaling 1

STAT3: signal transducer and activator of transcription 3

SEER: the surveillance, epidemiology, and end results

N-cadherin: neural cadherin

FFPE: formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded

TNM: tumor-node-metastasis

DMEM: Dulbecco's modified eagle medium

SNORD95: small nucleolar RNA, C/D box 95

RNU6B: RNA, U6 small nuclear 2

CT: comparative threshold

E-cadherin: epithelial cadherin

GAPDH: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

NC: negative control

UTR: untranslated region

#### Abstract

Background: Abnormal miRNA expression was recently implicated in the metastasis of oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) with poor prognosis. The initiation of the invasion-metastases cascade involves epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT). The aim of the present study was to clarify if misexpression of miRNA, particularly miR-155-5p, contributes to OSCC metastasis through EMT.

Methods: Tumor samples were collected from 73 subjects with OSCC. The transcripts were analyzed by quantitative reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR), and correlations between miR-155-5p levels and clinical characteristics were investigated. OSCC cell lines were analyzed by miRNA microarray and by transfection with miR-155-5p mimics or inhibitors, followed by proliferation and wound-healing migration assays. qRT-PCR analyses of EMT makers in cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor were performed.

Results: High miR-155-5p expression was observed in tissue samples from subjects with OSCC that had metastasized to cervical lymph nodes. HSC-3 cells also strongly expressed miR-155-5p. The epithelial marker E-cadherin was strongly expressed in HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor. In addition, there was a tendency of elevated SOCS1 and decreased STAT3 expression in those cells.

Conclusion: The results suggest that miR-155-5p causes OSCC to metastasize, and miR-155-5p inhibitor may function as an EMT suppressor.

#### Introduction

Oral cancer accounts for 1-5% of all malignant tumors in humans (1, 2), and oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) comprises approximately 91% of all oral cancers (1). Despite advances in OSCC diagnosis and management, the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) data for 2011 show that the 5-year overall survival rate of patients with oral cavity and pharyngeal cancer has not significantly improved in the past decade (61.8%, 2002; 62.7%, 2011)(2). Therefore, we needed more effective methods for the diagnoses and managing OSCC. Metastases strongly decrease the likelihood of a favorable outcome for cancer. (3, 4)

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are short non-coding RNAs consisting of 20-22 nucleotides which function in RNA silencing and post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression. (5, 6) As miRNA is involved in the normal functioning of cells, the abnormal expression of miRNAs has been implicated in numerous disease states by suppressing the translation of the target gene's mRNA (7-13), and miRNA-based therapies are under investigation. (14-17) Many miRNAs have subsequently been found to have links with various types of cancer. (18) OSCC-specific miRNAs have been identified (19-21), including miR-155. (22) Although altered miR-155 expression in OSCC cells is known to alter OSCC cell behavior (23-25), its role in OSCC is not clear.

miRNAs are initially transcribed from their own genes or introns as several hundred nucleotides long RNAs named a primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs), which contain about 80 nucleotide RNA hairpin loop. (26, 27) A single pri-miRNA may contain from one to six hairpin loop structures. RNase III, known as Drosha, cleaves RNA into about eleven nucleotides from the hairpin base to liberate these hairpins from pri-miRNAs. (28, 29) The resulting product is often named as a precursor-miRNA (pre-miRNA). Exportin-5, the neucleocytoplasmic shuttler, exports pre-miRNA hairpins out of the nucleus. (30) In the cytoplasm, the RNase III enzyme Dicer cleaves the pre-miRNA hairpin (31) by interacting with 5' and 3' ends of the hairpin (32) and cuts away the loop joining the 3' and 5' arms, yielding an about 22 nucleotides length miRNA duplex named a mature miRNA. (31) The mature miRNA is a part of an active RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), where the miRNA and its mRNA target interact, containing Dicer and many associated proteins (33) including Members of the Argonaute (Ago) protein. Ago protein family is central in RISC function. Argonautes are need for miRNA-induced silencing and contain two conserved RNA binding domains. They bind the mature miRNA and orient it for interaction with a target mRNA. RISC with incorporated miRNA is referred as "miRISC." Although each strand of the duplex may potentially act as a functional miRNA, only one strand selected on the basis of its thermodynamic instability and weaker base pairing relative to the other strand is incorporated into the miRISC. (34-36) The position of the stem-loop may also influence the strand choice. (37) The other strand, named the passenger strand, is normally degraded due to its low expression level in the steady state.

One miRNA is complementary to a part of one or more mRNAs for the purpose of the function of miRNA in gene repression. miRNAs often have only partly the right complementary sequence of nucleotides in the 3'UTR to bond with the target mRNA. As a result, these mRNA molecules are silenced by one or more of cleavage of the mRNA strand, leading to destabilization of the mRNA through shortening of its poly A tail, and less efficient translation of the mRNA into proteins by ribosomes. (38-40) But translational repression is accomplished through whether mRNA degradation, the translational inhibition or combination of both processes is still unclear. Partially complementary miRNAs recognize their targets. Although, 6-8 nucleotides of 5' end of the miRNA, named seed region, have to be perfectly complementary. (41-44) miRNAs that are partially complementary to a target can also increase deadenylation, causing mRNAs rapid degrading. (45)

The human genome is considered to encode over 2000 miRNAs (46-49) and appear to target about 30-60% of all human genes. (41,50) Estimates of the average number of unique mRNAs that are targets for repression by a typical miRNA vary, depending on the method used to make the estimate, (51) but a given miRNA may have hundreds of different mRNA targets, and a given target might be regulated by multiple miRNAs. (52-56) Hence, miRNA research has revealed multiple roles of miRNAs in many other biological processes.

miRNA expression can be quantified in a two-step polymerase chain reaction process of modified RT-PCR followed by quantitative PCR. miRNAs can also be hybridized to microarrays, slides or chips with probes to hundreds or thousands of miRNA targets, so that relative levels of miRNAs can be determined in different samples. (57)

miRNA mimics and inhibitors are used as analysis tools of miRNA function. (58-60) miRNA mimics and inhibitors provide means to study the function of specific miRNAs in a range of organisms, and to validate their role in regulating targeting genes. miRNA mimics are small, chemically modified double-stranded RNA molecules that are designed to mimic endogenous mature miRNAs, resulting in artificial down-regulation of target mRNA translation and accompanied, in some cases, by reduction in transcript levels. (61) Like natural miRNAs, these mimics have two mature strands, one of which is functional and used by the Ago protein to target mRNA. miRNA inhibitors are chemically modified, single-stranded oligonucleotides designed to specifically bind to and inhibit endogenous miRNAs, resulting in artificial up-regulation of target mRNA translation. (62) The function of miRNA inhibitor is application of the antisense method using antisense nucleic acid. The antisense method is a method to inhibit or downergulate the target RNA by using antisense RNA molecules. (63, 64) Thus, it is possible to identify miRNA function in cells by specific strong inhibition of the target miRNA. (65, 66) These short RNA molecules are expected to be used as treatment agents for such human diseases as cancer.

Before cells in the primary tumor can metastasize, they must undergo invasion via epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT). EMT is a process by which epithelial cells in primary tumor change into mesenchymal cells; i.e., they lose cell polarity and cell-cell adhesion mediated by E-cadherin repression, and break free of neighboring cells, thereby acquiring the ability to metastasize via vascular invasion. When these circulating tumor cells exit the vessels to form micrometastases, they undergo mesenchymal-epithelial transition (MET) for outgrowth at the metastatic sites; e.g., in the cervical lymph nodes in case of OSCC. Thus, EMT, and its reverse process, MET, form the initiation and completion of the invasion-metastasis cascade. (67, 68)

EMT and MET bring not only phenotypic but also functional changes to the cells. Epithelial cells are closely connected to each other by tight, gap and adherens junctions, have apico-basal polarity, polarization of the actin cytoskeleton and are bound to the basal membrane with their basal surface. On the other hand, mesenchymal cells lack such polarization, have a spindle-shaped morphology and interact with each other only through focal points. (69) Epithelial cells express high levels of epithelial biomarkers, E-cadherin, whereas mesenchymal cells express those of mesenchymal biomarkers, including vimentin and neural cadherin (N-cadherin), the latter is also known as cadherin-2. (70) E-cadherin is commonly found in epithelial tissues and plays a crucial role in cell-cell adhesion, forming the above-mentioned junctions to bind cells within tissues together. Vimentin is a primary cytoskeletal component of mesenchyme-derived cells or cells undergoing EMT. N-cadherin is commonly found in cancer cells; it frees cancer cells to metastasize by causing the failure of cell-cell adhesion. (71) Therefore, loss of E-cadherin is considered to be an essential event in EMT. EMT inducing transcription factors (EMT-TFs) that can repress E-cadherin directly or indirectly are previously identified. Snail, Slug, Zeb1 and Zeb2 can repress E-cadherin directly by binding E-cadherin promoter and repress its transcription, whereas factors such as Twist repress E-cadherin indirectly. (72, 73) Since EMT occurs during cancer progression, many of the EMT-TFs are thought to be involved in development of metastases. On the other hand, a recent study also showed that some miRNAs contribute to EMT. (74-76)

Suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 (SOCS1) is recently identified as a novel miR-155 target in several cancer cells. (77, 78) SOCS1 is a protein that is encoded by the SOCS1 gene in humans (79, 80). It is a tumor suppressor that functions as a negative feedback regulator of Janus activated kinase (JAK)/signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) signaling. SOCS genes, also known as SOCS family, encode a member of the STAT-induced STAT inhibitor (SSI). SSI family members are cytokine-inducible negative regulators of cytokine signaling. The protein encoded by this gene functions downstream of cytokine receptors, and takes part in a negative feedback loop to attenuate cytokine signaling. Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) is a transcription factor that is encoded by the STAT3 gene in humans. (81) Constitutive STAT3 activation is associated with various human cancers and commonly suggests poor prognosis. (82-85) The STAT protein regulates many aspects of growth, survival and differentiation in cells. The transcription factors of this family are activated by JAK. (86) In addition, STAT3 is described to modulate the expression of EMT transcriptional factors, including Twist, Snail, Zeb1, Zeb2, and Slug. (87, 88)

In this study, I, with colleagues found that miR-155-5p was significantly upregulated both in OSCC cell lines and in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue samples from patients with OSCC metastases to cervical lymph nodes, which is associated with a poor prognosis. I, with colleagues also found that HSC-3 cells expressed increased levels of E-cadherin and decreased levels of N-cadherin and vimentin mRNAs when transfected with an miR-155-5p inhibitor. Furthermore, there

11

was trend that SOCS1 was upregulated and STAT3 was downregulated in HSC-3 cells transfected with the miR-155-5p inhibitor.

My results showed that miR-155-5p expression correlated significantly with metastasis to the cervical lymph nodes in OSCC and with a poor prognosis. My findings also suggest that miR-155-5p would be a potential novel target for the prevention of OSCC metastasis.

#### Materials and methods

#### Clinical samples

The study included 73 patients with OSCC and five patients who did not have cancer. All subjects visited the University of Tsukuba Hospital for the first time between February 2008 and November 2010, and tissue samples were collected on each subject's first visit, before administering treatment. Patients with oral cancers other than OSCC were excluded from this study. Samples of oral tumors were collected as part of a biopsy procedure. Thirty-four samples were from the tongue, 25 from the gingiva, seven from the cheek, four from the floor of the mouth, and three from the soft palate. Five patients without OSCC who had an impacted wisdom tooth volunteered to provide an oral biopsy sample for this study. All control samples were from the gingiva around the wisdom tooth. The samples were prepared for FFPE histology using standard procedures. OSCC was diagnosed and classified based on the Tumor-Node-Metastasis (TNM) system of Unio Internationalis Contra Cancrum. All cases were diagnosed histologically and clinically, as confirmed by pathologists. The median follow-up period was 24 months (range, 3–50 months).

Table 1 shows the clinical characteristics of subjects with OSCC. Follow-up data were obtained from each patient's medical chart. Disease-free survival time was calculated from the date of the patient's first visit to a final time point of 60 months, when the overall survival rate was poor.

This study was reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee University of Tsukuba Hospital (No.215). All patients gave informed written consent prior to enrollment.

#### Cell lines, reagents, and cultures

HaCaT and HSC-3 cell lines were obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources. HSC-3 is a human oral squamous carcinoma cell line with high metastatic potential. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Nichirei Bioscience, Tokyo, Japan) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% air. HaCaT cells, an immortalized human keratinocyte line, were used as a control.

# TaqMan-based quantitative reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) assays of miRNA expression

Mature miRNA expression levels were analyzed by TaqMan miRNA assay. Total RNA was extracted with the miRNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Venlo, Limburg, Netherlands) for cell lines and the miRNeasy FFPE Kit (Qiagen). Total RNA was then reverse-transcribed into complementary DNA using a TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse-Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster city, CA). The miR-155-5p level in the HSC-3 cell line was compared with the level in HaCaT cells. PCR reactions were first incubated at 16°C for 30 min and then at 42°C for 30 min, followed by inactivation at 85°C for 5 min. For the miRNA microarray analysis, reactions were then incubated in an miRNA PCR array platform (Human Cancer Pathway Finder miScript miRNA PCR array, MIHS-102Z, Qiagen), and other samples were incubated in a 384-well plate at 50°C for 2 min and at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 1 min, using the 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) for MIHS-102Z, and the CFX384 Real-Time System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Pleasanton, CA, USA) for 384-well plates. Relative miRNA expression was normalized against SNORD95 in the miRNA microarrays, and other samples were normalized against RNU-6B. Relative expression was calculated by the comparative threshold (CT) method. All experiments were performed at least in quintuplicate.

#### TaqMan-based qRT-PCR assays of mRNA expression

The qRT-PCR primers for E-cadherin, N-cadherin, and vimentin mRNA were as described previously (89-91): E-cadherin, 5'-TGCCCAGAAAATGAAAAAGG-3' 5'-GTGTATGTGGCAATGCGTTC-3' (reverse); (forward) and N-cadherin, 5'-ACAGTGGCCACCTACAAAGG-3' (forward) and 5'-CCGAGATGGGGTTGATAATG-3' (reverse); vimentin, 5'-GAGTCCACTGAGTACCGGAGAC-3' (forward) and 5'-TGTAGGTGGCAATCTCAATGTC-3' (reverse): SOCS1, 5'-GAGGGAGC GGATGGGTGTA-3' (forward) and 5'-GAGGTAGGAGGT GCGAGTTCAG-3' STAT3, 5'-CCAAGGAGGAGG CATTCG-3' (forward) (reverse); and and 5'-ACATCGGCAGGTCAATGG-3' (reverse). Total RNA was extracted with the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) and then reverse-transcribed into complementary DNA using a PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan). PCR reactions were first incubated at 16°C for 30 min and then at 42°C for 30 min followed by inactivation at

15

85°C for 5 min. Reactions were then incubated in a 384-well plate at 95°C for 20 s, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 3 s and 60°C for 30 s using the CFX384 Real-Time system (Bio-Rad Laboratories). Relative mRNA expression was normalized against GAPDH. Relative expression was calculated by the CT method. All experiments were performed at least in quintuplicate.

#### Transfection with miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor

Cells were transfected with miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor or with scrambled negative control (NC; Ambion, Austin, TX, USA) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Twenty-four hours after the beginning of the transfection, I, with colleagues isolated RNA and assayed cell proliferation and wound-healing migration.

#### Cell-proliferation assay

HSC-3 cells were seeded in triplicate 6-well plates with 3 ml of cell suspension per well (total  $2.5 \times 10^5$  cells/well) and incubated for 24 h to allow attachment. The cells were transfected with miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor or with NC, and were counted 24 and 48 h after transfection using a TC10 (Bio-Rad) automated cell counter.

#### Wound-healing migration assay

HSC-3 cells were seeded in 6-well plates with 3 ml of cell suspension per well (total 2.5  $\times 10^5$  cells/well), cultured until approximately 80% confluent, and then transfected with miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor or with NC. Twenty-four hours later, the cells were

washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline, starved by incubation in serum-free medium for 24 h, and then a wound was simulated with a straight scratch using a 200-µl pipette tip. The cells' migratory ability was measured by photographing the wound area every 3 h and quantifying it by ImageJ software (U. S. National Institutes of Health). (92, 93) All experiments were performed at least in duplicate.

#### Statistical analysis

Data from the OSCC cell line were compared by the Student's t-test. Data from the FFPE tissue samples were compared by the Mann-Whitney U-test. Data from the Student's t-test are presented as the mean + standard deviation, and data from the Mann-Whitney U-test are presented as boxplots. Data from cervical lymph-node metastasis and disease-free survival data were analyzed by the chi-square test. Survival data were analyzed by Kaplan-Meier survival analysis; Kaplan-Meier curves were compared using the log-rank test. In chi-square tests and the Kaplan-Meier survival analysis, the miR-155-5p expression level was classified as high or low by normalizing miR-155-5p expression to that of normal tissue (expression of miR-155-5p in normal tissue = 1, high > 1, low < 1). Data from FFPE tissue samples and patients' clinical characteristics, including treatments for OSCC, were used for multivariate analysis of prognostic variables by Cox regression analysis. Metastasis to cervical lymph nodes was excluded from the multivariate analysis because of its obvious contribution to a poor prognosis. A two-tailed P value <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant. All statistical analyses were performed using JMP for Macintosh version 11 (SAS

institute).

#### Results

High miR-155-5p expression was associated with poor overall survival in OSCC patients

To determine the clinical significance of miR-155-5p expression, tissue samples from patients with OSCC and those without cancer were collected, prepared for FFPE, and analyzed by qRT-PCR. The miR-155-5p levels were then compared with patients' clinical characteristics, to look for significant correlations (n=73; Table 1) after confirmation that there were no statistically significant differences in expression of miR-155-5p between each site. Mann-Whitney *U* and chi-square tests showed that high miR-155-5p expression was positively correlated with cervical lymph-node metastasis in OSCC patients (Fig. 1a, b). Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of miR-155-5p expression and a poor disease-free survival rate (P = 0.017, Fig. 1c). In addition, multivariate analysis of prognostic variables in OSCC prognosis (P = 0.023, Table 2).

#### miR-155-5p was upregulated in OSCC cells

To determine which miRNAs are differentially expressed in HSC-3 cells, I, with colleagues analyzed 84 miRNAs by microarray, using the Human Pathway Finder miRNA PCR Array: MIHS-102Z (Fig. 2a-c). I, with colleagues found that miR-146a-5p, miR-10b, miR-155-5p, and miR10a-5p were upregulated more than 4-fold in HSC-3

cells. Conversely, 38 miRNAs were downregulated, albeit less than 4-fold (Fig. 2b). Furthermore, the expression of miR-155-5p was 8.04-fold higher in the HSC-3 cells than in the HaCaT cells (Fig. 2c).

#### Effect of miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor on OSCC-cell proliferation and migration

I, with colleagues investigated correlations between miR-155-5p and the ability of HSC-3 cells to proliferate and migrate by assaying cell proliferation and wound-healing migration in cells transfected with an miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor. I, with colleagues first confirmed that transfection was successful by performing qRT-PCR for miR-155-5p. Proliferation did not differ markedly between HSC-3 cells transfected with the miR-155-5p mimic or the inhibitor (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, although there was no statistically significant difference, the migratory ability of HSC-3 cells tended to increase by the miR-155-5p mimic and to decrease by the miR-155-5p inhibitor (Fig. 3b). Together, my data suggest that miR-155-5p may affect the ability of HSC-3 cells to migrate rather than their ability to proliferate.

#### Effect of miR-155-5p on E-cadherin, N-cadherin, and vimentin mRNA expression

To investigate correlations between miR-155-5p and the mRNA of genes related to epithelial or mesenchymal properties, I, with colleagues analyzed E-cadherin, N-cadherin, and vimentin in HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor. E-cadherin was significantly upregulated in HSC-3 cells transfected with the miR-155-5p inhibitor (Fig. 4a). In contrast, N-cadherin and vimentin tended to be downregulated in HSC-3 cells transfected with the miR-155-5p inhibitor (Fig. 4a).

miR-155-5p inhibitor suppressed the STAT3 signaling pathway through SOCS1

To identify the biological mechanism by which miR-155-5p inhibitor mediates the upregulation of E-cadherin and the downregulation of N-cadherin and vimentin, I, with colleagues used qRT-PCR to analyze SOCS1 and STAT3 in HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor. I, with colleagues found trends for SOCS1 to be upregulated and STAT3 to be downregulated (Fig. 4b).

#### Discussion

The most fatal characteristics of oral squamous cell carcinoma is its potential for metastasis. When removing a primary OSCC tumor, surgeons may also remove nearby lymph tissue—especially cervical lymph nodes, as these are frequently the first metastasis sites. Once OSCC metastasizes to the lymph system, the likelihood of a favorable outcome decreases significantly. (3, 4) My study suggests that miR-155-5p induces metastasis to the lymph nodes, which leads to a poor prognosis. Thus, miR-155-5p might be a useful prognostic biomarker and an important therapeutic target for OSCC.

High levels of miR-155-5p were significantly associated with a poor prognosis, metastasis to cervical lymph nodes, and poor overall survival. Multivariate analysis confirmed that this association of miR-155-5p with a poor prognosis for OSCC was not influenced by other prognostic variables such as treatment, pTNM stage, or age. Therefore, miR-155-5p merits consideration as a potential prognostic biomarker.

Analysis by miRNA microarray confirmed that the miR-155-5p levels were high in OSCC cell lines compared with HaCaT cells. The roles of miR-155 upregulation and EMT in metastasis have been investigated in several cancers. (94, 95) I, with colleagues hypothesized that miR-155-5p also plays a crucial role in OSCC metastasis through EMT and could serve as a novel target for OSCC treatment. To investigate miR-155-5p's effect on OSCC cell proliferation, migration, and expression of EMT-related mRNAs, I, with colleagues conducted a series of loss- and gain-of-function assays with an miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor. My data showed that increased miR-155-5p function caused trends toward enhanced OSCC-cell migration rather than enhanced proliferation.

Recently, miRNAs have been found in serum, plasma, saliva, and other body fluids. In addition, circulating extracellular vesicles, such as exosomes, containing miRNA are significantly associated with treatment resistance, metastatic properties, and a poor prognosis. (96-98) These findings suggest that the effect of miRNAs is not limited to the cancer cell itself, but that miRNAs can influence the behavior of both neighboring and distant cells. In other words, miRNAs exert not only autocrine effects, but also paracrine or endocrine effects. The miRNAs contained in exosomes influence the microenvironment of cells in the stroma of the neoplasm, including endothelial cells and fibroblasts, permitting them to begin migrating and invading other tissues (96). This mechanism may explain why the changes in the HSC-3 cells' migration were not statistically significant, even though a clear relationship between metastasis and the expression of miR-155-5p was shown in clinical samples.

In HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor, the epithelial marker E-cadherin was upregulated while the mesenchymal markers N-cadherin and vimentin decreased. During EMT, epithelial makers are progressively lost as mesenchymal markers increase, and the cells develop a mesenchymal phenotype. (70) However, one fundamental function of miRNA is to silence mRNAs by cleaving their target mRNA strand or by decreasing the efficiency of its translation into protein. Thus, I, with colleagues hypothesized that miR-155-5p induced EMT by inhibiting an unknown biological mechanism. This would explain the high levels of epithelial-related mRNAs in HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor and the high miR-155-5p levels in both the HSC-3 cell line and the FFPE tissue samples. This would also support the potential for developing a novel OSCC therapeutic agent based on miR-155-5p function.

A recent study reported a STAT3-mediated association between miR-155 and EMT that leads to invasion and metastases. (91) In head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, previous study reported SOCS1 regulates STAT3 activation in cell line and tissue samples (99) and STAT3 alternation correlates with poor prognosis (100, 101) and is considered to be a novel therapeutic target. (102)

Expression of E-cadherin mRNA was upregulated in HSC-3 cells transfected with miR-155-5p inhibitor (Fig. 4a), and significant contribution of miR-155-5p inhibitor to EMT inhibition was confirmed. Abundant expression of SOCS1 and STAT3 mRNAs was also confirmed in HSC-3 cells. The SOCS1 and STAT3 levels showed tendencies to be up- and down- regulated, respectively, by the transfection with miR-155-5p inhibitor, although the changes were not statistically significant (Fig. 5). miR-155-5p inhibitor may function as an EMT suppressor that increases SOCS1 expression and suppresses STAT3 signaling as previously described (77, 87). Thus, it is strongly suggested that miR-155-5p inhibitor causes inhibition of EMT, which could be mediated by the SOCS1-STAT3 signaling cascade. Further studies are needed to clarify the mechanisms how miR-155-5p inhibitor leads to EMT inhibition.

Since, high correlation of miRNA expression and carcinogenesis is observed, the development of nucleic acid medicine for variety of human diseases like cancer have been carried out. Recently, reducing expression level of the oncomiR has attracted attention as one of the developing therapeutic agents of human diseases including cancer. (103-106) In addition, use of the disease signature miRNAs has been increasingly investigated in clinical trials in several countries. (107)

Taken together, my findings indicate that the induction of metastasis and the poor prognosis associated with high miR-155-5p expression may be a direct result of EMT. Although my results indicate that miR-155-5p merits consideration as a prognostic biomarker and a treatment target, the details of the mechanism by which miR-155-5p exerts its effects remain obscure. Furthermore, I, with colleagues have evaluated the function of miRNA only at the miRNA and mRNA levels, and since the no significant differences for N-cadherin, Vimentin, STAT3 and SOCS1 mRNA, it is only speculations that miR155-5p contributes to EMT through STAT3 signaling pathway via SOCS1 in HSC-3 cell. Further studies of OSCC, specifically focusing on mRNA translation to protein, will be necessary to determine the mechanism underlying miR-155-5p's association with poor prognosis in more detail. Additionally, Only 73 OSCC specimens from five different sites were included to this study. Although there was no statistically significant difference in miR-155-5p expression between each biopsy site, some factors may affect my results depending on which site in the oral cavity the biopsy is taken. Larger number of patients and comparison of each biopsy site may improve the study quality.

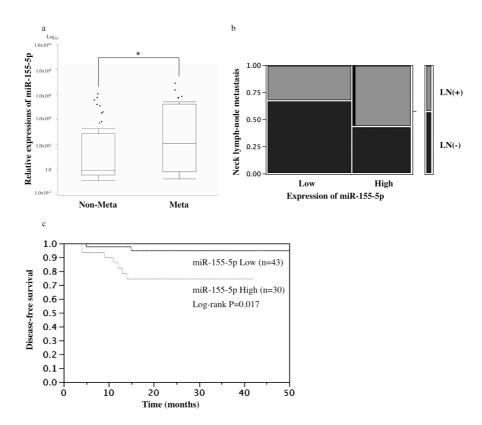
### Figures and tables

Table 1 Clinical characteristics of patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma

			o expression / normal	
	Number of patients	High expression	Low expression	
Patient characteristics	(total n=73)	n=30	n=43	P value
Age				
<60	18	7	11	0.48
≧60	55	23	32	
Gender				
Male	49	21	28	0.15
Female	24	9	15	
T-primary tumor				
T1,2	37	14	23	0.60
T3,4	36	16	20	
N-regional lymph node				
N(-)	42	13	29	0.045*
N(+)	31	17	14	
pTNM stage				
I-II	29	11	18	0.60
III-IV	44	19	25	
Treatment				
Surgery only	24	9	15	0.57
Surgery + preoperative therapy	41	17	24	0.94
Radiotherapy only	3	2	1	0.28
Chemotherapy + radiotherapy	3	1	2	0.96
Unknown	2	1	1	0.87

\*P<0.05.

Figure 1 Association of high miR-155-p expression with oral squamous cell carcinoma (OSCC) metastasis to neck lymph nodes and poor prognosis for OSCC



(a) High miR-155-5p levels are found in tissue samples from OSCC patients with metastasis to neck lymph nodes (\*P = 0.045). (b) miR-155-5p levels in formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissue samples from patients with OSCC correlate with metastasis to neck lymph nodes. Significance of correlation between miR-155-5p expression in FFPE tissue samples and the clinical index (presence or absence of metastasis) are determined by chi-square test (P = 0.040). (c) Kaplan-Meier survival analysis support the correlation between a poor disease-free survival rate for OSCC patients and high miR-155-5p expression (P = 0.017).

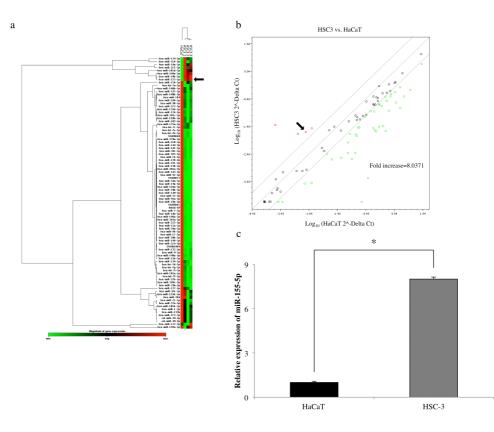
#### Table 2 Cox-regression multivariate analysis of prognostic variables in oral squamous

cell carcinoma patients

Patient characteristics		Number of patients (total n=73)	Hazard ratio	P value		
Expression of n	niR-155-5p					
	High	30	5.156	0.023*		
	Low	43				
Age						
			0.845	0.358		
pTNM stage						
	Ι	13	1.097	0.778		
	II	16				
	III	10				
	IV	34				
Treatment						
	Surgery only	24	2.480	0.115		
	Surgery + preoperative therapy	41	1.363	0.243		

\*P<0.05.

Figure 2 miR-155-5p expression in HSC-3 cells



miRNA microarray analysis of 84 miRNAs that are expressed differently in HSC-3 vs. HaCaT cells. (a) miR-155-5p express more strongly in HSC-3 cells than HaCaT cells (black arrow). Clustergram generated from miRNA microarray data of HaCaT and HSC-3 cells. Red: high expression; green: low expression; levels are continuously mapped on the color scale at the bottom of the figure. (b) miR-155-5p expression is 8.04-fold higher in HSC-3 cells than HaCaT cells. Scatterplot generated from miRNA microarray data from HaCaT and HSC-3 cells. (c) miR-155-5p expression is significantly higher in HSC-3 cells than HaCaT cells (\* $P = 0.026 \times 10^{-4}$ ).

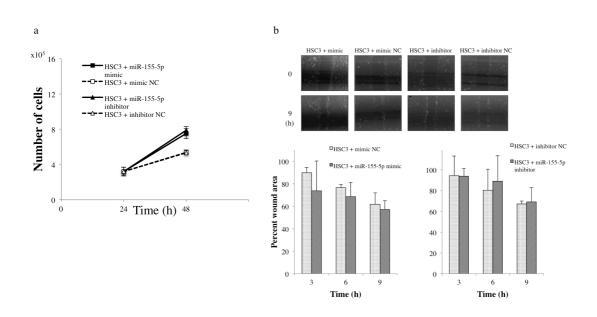
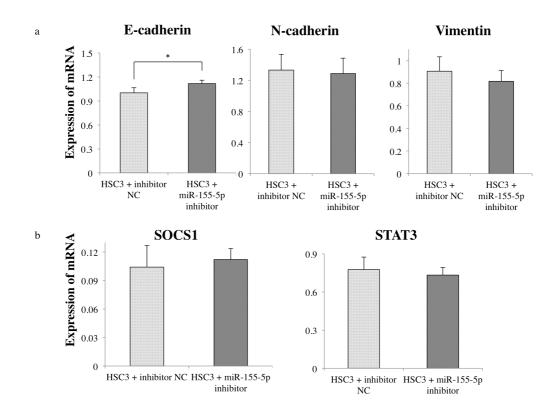


Figure 3 Effect of miR-155-5p regulation on the proliferation and migration of HSC-3

cells

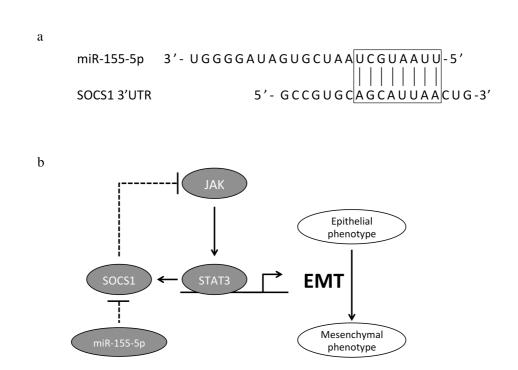
(a) Proliferation assay of HSC-3 cells transfected with an miR-155-5p mimic or inhibitor. There are no significant differences in HSC-3 cell proliferation in either condition. (b) Wound-healing migration assay of HSC-3 cells. HSC-3 cells' migration is increased by transfection with an miR-155-5p mimic and decreased by transfection with an miR-155-5p inhibitor, but the difference is not statistically significant.



**Figure 4** Effect of miR-155-5p inhibitor on the expression of epithelial-mesenchymal transition related mRNA

(a) E-cadherin expression is significantly increased in HSC-3 cells transfected with an miR-155-5p inhibitor (\*P = 0.041). HSC-3 cells transfected with an miR-155-5p inhibitor shows trends toward decreased N-cadherin and vimentin expression. (b) Suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 expression tend to be upregulated in HSC-3 cells after transfection with the miR-155-5p inhibitor, while STAT3 expression tend to be downregulated.

**Figure 5** Suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 (SOCS1) is a potential target of miR-155-5p. miR-155-5p is associated with epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) through STAT3-signaling modulation via SOCS1



(a) The seed region of miR-155-5p shows good complementarity to the SOCS1 3'UTR.

(b) miR-155-5p induces EMT by upregulating STAT3 via SOCS1 downregulation.

#### References

- Japan Society for Head and Neck Cancer, Cancer Registry Committee. Report of head and neck cancer registry of Japan, clinical statistics of registered patients, 2003. Jpn J Head and Neck Cancer 2007; 33(suppl): 1-96.
- (2) Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER), http://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/oralcav.html
- (3) Ebrahimi A, Clark JR, Zhang WJ, Elliott MS, Gao K, Milross CG and Shannon KF. Lymph node ratio as an independent prognostic factor in oral squamous cell carcinoma. Head & Neck 2011; 33(9): 1245–1251.
- (4) Wang B, Zhang S, Yue K and Wang XD. The recurrence and survival of oral squamous cell carcinoma: a report of 275 cases. Chin J Cancer 2013; 32 (11): 614-618.
- (5) Ambros V. The functions of animal microRNAs. Nature 2004; 431(7006): 350-5.
- (6) Bartel DP. MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function. Cell.2004; 116(2): 281-97.
- (7) Costa-Pinheiro P, Ramalho-Carvalho J, Vieira FQ, Torres-Ferreira J, Oliveira J, Gonçalves CS, Costa BM, Henrique R and Jerónimo C. MicroRNA-375 plays a dual role in prostate carcinogenesis. Clin Epigenetics 2015; 7(1): 42.
- (8) He L, Thomson JM, Hemann MT, Hernando-Monge E, Mu D, Goodson S, Powers S, Cordon-Cardo C, Lowe SW, Hannon GJ and Hammond SM. A microRNA polycistron as a potential human oncogene. Nature 2005; 435(7043): 828–33.

- (9) Nielsen BS, Jørgensen S, Fog JU, Søkilde R, Christensen IJ, Hansen U, Brünner N, Baker A, Møller S and Nielsen HJ. High levels of microRNA-21 in the stroma of colorectal cancers predict short disease-free survival in stage II colon cancer patients. Clin Exp Metastasis 2011; 28(1): 27–38.
- (10) Võsa U, Vooder T, Kolde R, Fischer K, Välk K, Tõnisson N, Roosipuu R, Vilo J, Metspalu A and Annilo T. Identification of miR-374a as a prognostic marker for survival in patients with early-stage nonsmall cell lung cancer. Genes Chromosomes Cancer 2011; 50(10): 812–22.
- (11) Wu H and Mo YY. Targeting miR-205 in breast cancer. Expert Opin Ther Targets 2009; 13(12): 1439–48.
- (12) Mraz M and Pospisilova S. MicroRNAs in chronic lymphocytic leukemia: from causality to associations and back. Expert Rev Hematol 2012; 5(6): 579-81.
- (13) Jiang Q, Wang Y, Hao Y, Juan L, Teng M, Zhang X, Li M, Wang G and Liu Y. miR2Disease: a manually curated database for microRNA deregulation in human disease. Nucleic Acids Res. 2009; 37(Database issue): D98-104.
- (14) Trang P, Weidhaas JB, Slack FJ. MicroRNAs as potential cancer therapeutics.Oncogene 2008; 27 Suppl 2: S52-7.
- (15) Li C, Feng Y, Coukos G and Zhang L. Therapeutic microRNA strategies in human cancer. AAPS J. 2009; 11(4): 747-57.
- (16) Hydbring P and Badalian-Very G. Clinical applications of microRNAs. F1000Res.2013; 2: 136.

- (17) Ishida M and Selaru FM. Selaru. miRNA-Based Therapeutic Strategies. Curr Anesthesiol Rep 2013; 1(1): 63–70.
- (18) Musilova K and Mraz M. MicroRNAs in B-cell lymphomas: how a complex biology gets more complex. Leukemia. 2015; 29(5): 1004-17.
- (19) Kolokythas A, Miloro M and Zhou X. Review of MicroRNA Deregulation in Oral Cancer. Part I. J Oral Maxillofac Res 2011; 2(2): e1.
- (20) Fukumoto I, Hanazawa T, Kinoshita T, Kikkawa N, Koshizuka K, Goto Y, Nishikawa R, Chiyomaru T, Enokida H, Nakagawa M, Okamoto Y and Seki N. MicroRNA expression signature of oral squamous cell carcinoma: functional role of microRNA-26a/b in the modulation of novel cancer pathways. British Journal of Cancer 2015; 112: 891–900.
- (21) Soga D, Yoshiba S, Shiogama S, Miyazaki H, Kondo S and Shintani S. microRNA expression profiles in oral squamous cell carcinoma. Oncology reports 2013; 30(2): 579-583.
- (22) Ni YH, Huang XF, Wang ZY, Han W, Deng RZ, Mou YB, Ding L, Hou YY and Hu QG. Upregulation of a potential prognostic biomarker, miR-155, enhances cell proliferation in patients with oral squamous cell carcinoma. Oral Surgery, Oral Medicine, Oral Pathology and Oral Radiology 2014; 117(2): 227-233.
- (23) Lajer CB, Nielsen FC, Friis-Hansen L, Norrild B, Borup R, Garnæs E, Rossing M, Specht L, Therkildsen MH, Nauntofte B, Dabelsteen S and von Buchwald C.

Different miRNA signatures of oral and pharyngeal squamous cell carcinomas: a prospective translational study. Br J Cancer 2011; 104(5): 830–40.

- (24) Hui AB, Lenarduzzi M, Krushel T, Waldron L, Pintilie M, Shi W, Perez-Ordonez
  B, Jurisica I, O'Sullivan B, Waldron J, Gullane P, Cummings B and Liu FF.
  Comprehensive MicroRNA profiling for head and neck squamous cell carcinomas.
  Clin Cancer Res 2010; 16(4): 1129–39.
- (25) Rather MI, Nagashri MN, Swamy SS, Gopinath KS and Kumar A. Oncogenic microRNA-155 down-regulates tumor suppressor CDC73 and promotes oral squamous cell carcinoma cell proliferation: implications for cancer therapeutics. J Biol Chem 2013; 288(1): 608–18.
- (26) Lee Y, Kim M, Han J, Yeom KH, Lee S, Baek SH and Kim VN. MicroRNA genes are transcribed by RNA polymerase II. EMBO J 2004; 23(20): 4051–4060.
- (27) Cai X, Hagedorn CH and Cullen BR. Human microRNAs are processed from capped, polyadenylated transcripts that can also function as mRNAs. RNA 2004; 10(12): 1957-66.
- (28) Han J, Lee Y, Yeom KH, Kim YK, Jin H and Kim VN. The Drosha-DGCR8 complex in primary microRNA processing. Genes Dev 2004; 18(24): 3016-27.
- (29) Han J, Lee Y, Yeom KH, Nam JW, Heo I, Rhee JK, Sohn SY, Cho Y, Zhang BT and Kim VN. Molecular basis for the recognition of primary microRNAs by the Drosha-DGCR8 complex. Cell 2006; 125(5): 887-901.
- (30) Murchison EP and Hannon GJ. miRNAs on the move: miRNA biogenesis and the RNAi machinery. Curr Opin Cell Biol 2004; 16(3): 223-9.

- (31) Lund E and Dahlberg JE. Substrate selectivity of exportin 5 and Dicer in the biogenesis of microRNAs. Cold Spring Harb Symp Quant Biol 2006; 71: 59-66.
- (32) Park JE, Heo I, Tian Y, Simanshu DK, Chang H, Jee D, Patel DJ and Kim VN.
  Dicer recognizes the 5' end of RNA for efficient and accurate processing. Nature.
  2011; 475(7355): 201-5.
- (33) Rana TM. Illuminating the silence: understanding the structure and function of small RNAs. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 2007; 8(1): 23-36.
- (34) Krol J, Sobczak K, Wilczynska U, Drath M, Jasinska A, Kaczynska D and Krzyzosiak WJ. Structural features of microRNA (miRNA) precursors and their relevance to miRNA biogenesis and small interfering RNA/short hairpin RNA design. J Biol Chem 2004; 279(40): 42230-9.
- (35) Khvorova A, Reynolds A and Jayasena SD. Functional siRNAs and miRNAs exhibit strand bias. Cell. 2003; 115(2): 209-16.
- (36) Schwarz DS, Hutvágner G, Du T, Xu Z, Aronin N and Zamore PD. Asymmetry in the assembly of the RNAi enzyme complex. Cell 2003; 115(2): 199-208.
- (37) Lin SL, Chang D and Ying SY. Asymmetry of intronic pre-miRNA structures in functional RISC assembly. Gene 2005; 356: 32-8.
- (38) Bartel DP. MicroRNA Target Recognition and Regulatory Functions. Cell. 2009;
   136(2): 215–233.
- (39) Fabian MR, Sonenberg N and Filipowicz W. Regulation of mRNA Translation and Stability by microRNAs. Annual Review of Biochemistry 2010; 79: 351-379.

- (40) Williams AE. Functional aspects of animal microRNAs. Cell Mol Life Sci 2008;65(4): 545-62.
- (41) Lewis BP, Burge CB, Bartel DP. Conserved seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of human genes are microRNA targets. Cell 2005; 120(1): 15-20.
- (42) Lewis BP, Shih IH, Jones-Rhoades MW, Bartel DP and Burge CB. Prediction of mammalian microRNA targets. Cell 2003; 115(7): 787-98.
- (43) Ellwanger DC, Büttner FA, Mewes HW and Stümpflen V. The sufficient minimal set of miRNA seed types. Bioinformatics 2011; 27(10): 1346-50.
- (44) Mazière P, Enright AJ. Prediction of microRNA targets. Drug Discov Today 2007:
   12(11-12); 452–458.
- (45) Eulalio A, Huntzinger E, Nishihara T, Rehwinkel J, Fauser M and Izaurralde E.
   Deadenylation is a widespread effect of miRNA regulation. RNA 2009; 15(1):
   21-32.
- (46) Homo sapiens miRNAs in the miRBase(http://www.mirbase.org/cgi-bin/mirna\_summary.pl?org=hsa) at ManchesterUniversity.
- (47) Bentwich I, Avniel A, Karov Y, Aharonov R, Gilad S, Barad O, Barzilai A, Einat P, Einav U, Meiri E, Sharon E, Spector Y and Bentwich Z. Identification of hundreds of conserved and nonconserved human microRNAs. Nat Genet 2005; 37(7): 766-70.

- (48) Friedländer MR, Lizano E, Houben AJ, Bezdan D, Báñez-Coronel M, Kudla G, Mateu-Huertas E, Kagerbauer B, González J, Chen KC, LeProust EM, Martí E and Estivill X. Evidence for the biogenesis of more than 1,000 novel human microRNAs. Genome Biology 2014; 15:R57.
- (49) Londin E, Loher P, Telonis AG, Quann K, Clark P, Jing Y, Hatzimichael E, Kirino Y, Honda S, Lally M, Ramratnam B, Comstock CE, Knudsen KE, Gomella L, Spaeth GL, Hark L, Katz LJ, Witkiewicz A, Rostami A, Jimenez SA, Hollingsworth MA, Yeh JJ, Shaw CA, McKenzie SE, Bray P, Nelson PT, Zupo S, Van Roosbroeck K, Keating MJ, Calin GA, Yeo C, Jimbo M, Cozzitorto J, Brody JR, Delgrosso K, Mattick JS, Fortina P and Rigoutsos. Analysis of 13 cell types reveals evidence for the expression of numerous novel primate- and tissue-specific microRNAs. PNAS 2015; 112(10): E1106-15.
- (50) Benjamin P. Lewis, Christopher B. Burge and David P. Bartel. Conserved and seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of human genes are microRNA targets. Cell 2005; 120(1): 15-20.
- (51) Daniel W. Thomson, Cameron P. Bracken and Gregory J. Goodall. Experimental strategies for microRNA target identification. Nucleic Acids Res 2011; 39(16): 6845–6853.
- (52) Friedman RC, Farh KK, Burge CB and Bartel DP. Most mammalian mRNAs are conserved targets of microRNAs. Genome Res 2009; 19(1): 92-105.

- (53) Krek A, Grün D, Poy MN, Wolf R, Rosenberg L, Epstein EJ, MacMenamin P, da Piedade I, Gunsalus KC, Stoffel M, Rajewsky N. Combinatorial microRNA target predictions. Nat Genet 2005; 37(5): 495-500.
- (54) Lim LP, Lau NC, Garrett-Engele P, Grimson A, Schelter JM, Castle J, Bartel DP, Linsley PS and Johnson JM. Microarray analysis shows that some microRNAs downregulate large numbers of target mRNAs. Nature 2005; 433(7027): 769-73.
- (55) Selbach M, Schwanhäusser B, Thierfelder N, Fang Z, Khanin R and Rajewsky N.
  Widespread changes in protein synthesis induced by microRNAs. Nature 2008;
  455(7209): 58-63.
- (56) Baek D, Villén J, Shin C, Camargo FD, Gygi SP and Bartel DP. The impact of microRNAs on protein output. Nature 2008; 455(7209): 64-71.
- (57) Shingara J, Keiger K, Shelton J, Laosinchai-Wolf W, Powers P, Conrad R, Brown D and Labourier E. An optimized isolation and labeling platform for accurate microRNA expression profiling. RNA 2005; 11(9): 1461-70.
- (58) Meyer SU, Pfaffl MW and Ulbrich SE. Normalization strategies for microRNA profiling experiments: a 'normal' way to a hidden layer of complexity? Biotechnol Lett. 2010; 32(12): 1777-88.
- (59) Van Rooij E and Kauppinen S. Development of microRNA therapeutics is coming of age. EMBO Mol Med 2014; 6(7): 851-64.
- (60) Sucharov C, Bristow MR and Port JD. miRNA expression in the failing human heart: functional correlates. J Mol Cell Cardiol 2008; 45(2): 185-92.

- (61) Wang Z. The Guideline of the Design and Validation of MiRNA Mimics. Methods Mol biol 2011; 676: 211-23.
- (62) Cheng AM, Byrom MW, Shelton J and Ford LP. Antisense inhibition of human miRNAs and indications for an involvement of miRNA in cell growth and apoptosis. Nucl. Acids Res 2005; 33 (4): 1290-1297.
- (63) Zamecnik PC and Stephenson ML. Inhibition of Rous sarcoma virus replication and cell transformation by a specific oligodeoxynucleotide. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1978; 75(1): 280–284.
- Mizuno T, Chou MY and Inouye M. A unique mechanism regulating gene expression: translational inhibition by a complementary RNA transcript (micRNA).
   Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 1984; 81(7): 1966-70.
- (65) Boutla A, Delidakis C and Tabler M. Developmental defects by antisense-mediated inactivation of micro-RNAs 2 and 13 in Drosophila and the identification of putative target genes. Nucleic Acids Res 2003; 31(17): 4973-80.
- (66) Lennox KA and Behlke MA. A direct comparison of anti-microRNA oligonucleotide potency. Pharm Res. 2010; 27(9): 1788-99.
- (67) Larue L and Bellacosa A. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition in development and cancer: role of phosphatidylinositol 3' kinase/AKT pathways. Oncogene 2005; 24(50): 7443-54.
- (68) Chaffer CL and Weinberg RA. A perspective on cancer cell metastasis. Science 2011; 331(6024): 1559–64.

- (69) Thiery JP and Sleeman JP. Complex networks orchestrate epithelial–mesenchymal transitions. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology 2006; 7: 131-142.
- (70) Kalluri R and Weinberg RA. The basics of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. J Clin Invest 2009; 119(6): 1420–8.
- (71) Ramis-Conde I, Chaplain MAJ, Anderson ARA and Drasdo D. Multi-scale modelling of cancer cell intravasation: the role of cadherins in metastasis. Phys Biol 2009; 6(1): 16008.
- (72) Peinado H, Olmeda D and Cano A. Snail, Zeb and bHLH factors in tumour progression: an alliance against the epithelial phenotype? Nature Reviews Cancer 2007; 7: 415-428.
- (73) Yang J and Weinberg RA. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition: at the crossroads of development and tumor metastasis. Dev Cell. 2008; 14(6): 818-29.
- (74) Taube JH, Malouf GG, Lu E, Sphyris N, Vijay V, Ramachandran PP, Ueno KR, Gaur S, Nicoloso MS, Rossi S, Herschkowitz JI, Rosen JM, Issa JP, Calin GA, Chang JT and Mani SA. Epigenetic silencing of microRNA-203 is required for EMT and cancer stem cell properties. Sci Rep 2013; 3: 2687.
- (75) Zhang J and Ma L. MicroRNA control of epithelial-mesenchymal transition and metastasis. Cancer Metastasis Rev 2012; 31(0): 653–662.
- (76) Cong N, Du P, Zhang A, Shen F, Su J, Pu P, Wang T, Zjang J, Kang C and Zhang Q. Downregulated microRNA-200a promotes EMT and tumor growth through the wnt/β-catenin pathway by targeting the E-cadherin repressors ZEB1/ZEB2 in gastric adenocarcinoma. Oncology reports 2013; 29(4): 1579-1587.

- Jiang S, Zhang HW, Lu MH, He XH, Li Y, Gu H, Liu MF and Wang ED.
   MicroRNA-155 functions as an OncomiR in breast cancer by targeting the suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 gene. Cancer Res 2010; 70(8): 3119–27.
- (78) Zhao XD, Zhang W, Liang HJ and Ji WY. Overexpression of miR-155 promotes proliferation and invasion of human laryngeal squamous cell carcinoma via targeting SOCS1 and STAT3. PLoS One 2013; 8 (2): e56395.
- (79) Yoshimura A, Ohkubo T, Kiguchi T, Jenkins NA, Gilbert DJ, Copeland NG, Hara T and Miyajima A. A novel cytokine-inducible gene CIS encodes an SH2-containing protein that binds to tyrosine-phosphorylated interleukin 3 and erythropoietin receptors. The EMBO J 1995, 14(12): 2816-2826.
- (80) Minamoto S, Ikegame K, Ueno K, Narazaki M, Naka T, Yamamoto H, Matsumoto T, Saito H, Hosoe S and Kishimoto T. Cloning and functional analysis of new members of STAT induced STAT inhibitor (SSI) family: SSI-2 and SSI-3.
  Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1997; 237(1): 79-83.
- (81) Akira S, Nishio Y, Inoue M, Wang XJ, Wei S, Matsusaka T, Yoshida K, Sudo T, Naruto M and Kishimoto T. Molecular cloning of APRF, a novel IFN-stimulated gene factor 3 p91-related transcription factor involved in the gp130-mediated signaling pathway. Cell 1994; 77(1): 63-71.
- (82) Klampfer L. Signal Transducers and Activators of Transcription (STATs): Novel Targets of Chemopreventive and Chemotherapeutic Drugs. Current Cancer Drug Targets 2006; 6(2):107-121.

- (83) Alvarez JV, Greulich H, Sellers WR, Meyerson M and Frank DA. Signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 is required for the oncogenic effects of non-small-cell lung cancer-associated mutations of the epidermal growth factor receptor. Cancer Res 2006; 66(6): 3162-8.
- (84) Yin W, Cheepala S, Roberts JN, Syson-Chan K, DiGiovanni J and Clifford JL. Active Stat3 is required for survival of human squamous cell carcinoma cells in serum-free conditions. Mol Cancer 2006; 5: 15.
- (85) Kusaba T, Nakayama T, Yamazumi K, Yakata Y, Yoshizaki A, Inoue K, Nagayasu T and Sekine I. Activation of STAT3 is a marker of poor prognosis in human colorectal cancer. Oncol Rep 2006; 15(6): 1445-51.
- (86) Schindler C and Darnell JE Jr. Transcriptional responses to polypeptide ligands: the JAK-STAT pathway. Annu Rev Biochem 1995; 64: 621–651.
- (87) Wendt MK, Balanis N, Carlin CR and Schiemann WP. STAT3 and epithelial-mesenchymal transitions in carcinomas. Jak-Stat 2014; 3(1): e28975.
- (88) Xiong H, Hong J, Du W, Lin YW, Ren LL, Wang YC, Su WY, Wang JL, Cui Y, Wang ZH and Fang JY. Roles of STAT3 and ZEB1 proteins in E-cadherin down-regulation and human colorectal cancer epithelial-mesenchymal transition. J Biol Chem 2012; 287(8): 5819–32.
- (89) Mani SA, Guo W, Liao MJ, Eaton EN, Ayyanan A, Zhou AY, Brooks M, Reinhard F, Zhang CC, Shipitsin M, Campbell LL, Polyak K, Brisken C, Yang J and Weinberg RA. The Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition Generates Cells with Properties of Stem Cells. Cell 2008; 133(4): 704–15.

- (90) Phillips S, Prat A, Sedic M, Proia T, Wronski A, Mazumdar S, Skibinski A, Shirley SH, Perou CM, Gill G, Gupta PB and Kuperwasser C. Cell-State Transitions Regulated by SLUG Are Critical for Tissue Regeneration and Tumor Initiation. Stem Cell Reports 2014; 2(5): 633–47.
- (91) Huang C, Li H, Wu W, Jiang T and Qiu Z. Regulation of miR-155 affects pancreatic cancer cell invasiveness and migration by modulating the STAT3 signaling pathway through SOCS1. Oncol Rep 2013; 30(3): 1223–30.
- (92) Rasband W.S., ImageJ, U. S. National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA 1997-2012, http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/
- (93) Schneider C.A., Rasband W.S. and Eliceiri K.W., "NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis". Nature Methods 2012; 9: 671-675.
- (94) Xiang X, Zhuang X, Ju S, Zhang S, Jiang H, Mu J, Zhang L, Miller D, Grizzle W and Zhang HG. miR-155 promotes macroscopic tumor formation yet inhibits tumor dissemination from mammary fat pads to the lung by preventing EMT. Oncogene 2011; 30(31): 3440–53.
- (95) Castilla MÁ, Moreno-Bueno G, Romero-Pérez L, Van De Vijver K, Biscuola M, López-García MÁ, Prat J, Matías-Guiu X, Cano A, Oliva E and Palacios J. Micro-RNA signature of the epithelial-mesenchymal transition in endometrial carcinosarcoma. J Pathol 2011; 223(1): 72–80.
- (96) Kosaka N, Iguchi H and Ochiya T. Circulating microRNA in body fluid: a new potential biomarker for cancer diagnosis and prognosis. Cancer Sci 2010; 101(10): 2087–92.

- (97) Yamamoto Y, Yoshioka Y, Minoura K, Takahashi RU, Takeshita F, Taya T, Horii R, Fukuoka Y, Kato T, Kosaka N and Ochiya T. An integrative genomic analysis revealed the relevance of microRNA and gene expression for drug-resistance in human breast cancer cells. Mol Cancer 2011; 10: 135.
- (98) Ono M, Kosaka N, Tominaga N, Yoshioka Y, Takeshita F, Takahashi RU, Yoshida M, Tsuda H, Tamura K and Ochiya T. Exosomes from bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells contain a microRNA that promotes dormancy in metastatic breast cancer cells. Sci Signal 2014; 7(332): ra63.
- (99) Lee TL, Yeh J, Waes CV and Chen Z. Epigenetic modification of SOCS-1 differentially regulates STAT3 activation in response to interleukin-6 receptor thorough JAK and/or MEK in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas. Mol Cancer Ther 2006; 5(1): 8-19.
- (100) Masuda M, Suzui M, Yasumatu R, Nakashima T, Kuratomi Y, Azuma K, Tomita K, Komiyama S and Weinstein IB. Constitutive Activation of Signal Transducers and Activators of Transcription 3 Correlates with Cyclin D1 Overexpression and May Provide a Novel Prognostic Maker in Head and Neck Squamous Cell Carcinoma. Cancer Res 2002; 62(12): 3351-5.
- (101) Macha MA, Matta A, Kaur J, Chauhan SS, Thakar A, Shukla NK, Gupta SD and Ralhan R. Prognostic significance of nuclear pSTAT3 in oral cancer. Head Neck 2011; 33(4): 482-9.

- (102) Geiger JL, Grandis JR and Bauman JE. The STAT3 pathway as a therapeutic target in head and neck cancer: Barriers and innovations. Oral Oncol 2015; pii: S1368-8375(15)00412-1.
- (103) Medina PP, Nolde M and Slack FJ. OncomiR addiction in an in vivo model of microRNA-21-induced pre-B-cell lymphoma. Nature 2010; 467: 86–90.
- (104) Garzon R, Marcucci G and Croce CM. Targeting microRNAs in cancer: rationale, strategies and challenges. Nature Reviews Drug Discovery 2010; 9: 775-789.
- (105) Lindow M and Kauppinen S. Discovering the first microRNA-targeted drug. J.Cell Biol 2012; 199 (3): 407-412.
- (106) Janssen HL, Reesink HW, Lawitz EJ, Zeuzem S, Rodriguez-Torres M, Patel K, van der Meer AJ, Patick AK, Chen A, Zhou Y, Persson R, King BD, Kauppinen S, Levin AA and Hodges MR. Treatment of HCV Infection by Targeting MicroRNA. N Engl J Med 2013; 368:1685-1694.
- (107) Reddy KB. MicroRNA (miRNA) in cancer. Cancer Cell Int 2015; 15: 38.