



Regulation of cell proliferation and tumor suppressor roles of microRNA 329-3p of the MAP kinase pathway in cervical squamous carcinoma

ISSN: 2076-506

Elfansu¹, Faria Rashid², K. Abirami³, Sivakumar Krishnamoorthy⁴, Kshitija Aherkar¹, R. Mythreyi¹,Uthamalingam Murali⁵, Kanthesh M. Basalingappa¹*, Selvaraj Jagannathan⁶, E. Boojhana⁻, M. Maghimaa⁻*

¹Division of Molecular Biology, School of Life Sciences, JSS Academy of Higher Education and Research, Mysuru-570015, Karnataka, India, ²Tenby International School Ipoh, Malaysia, ³Department of Microbiology, Vivekanandha College of Arts and Science for Women, Tiruchengode, Namakkal-637205, Tamil Nadu, India, ⁴Agricultural Microbiology, Institute of Horticulture, Horticulture Research Station, Tamil Nadu Agriculture University, Pechiparai, Kanyakumari-629161, Tamil Nadu, India, ⁵Department of Surgery, Manipal University College Malaysia, Malaysia, ⁶Department of Microbiology, Pasteur Institute of India, Coonoor, The Nilgiris-643103, Tamil Nadu, India, ⁷Department of Microbiology, Muthayammal College of Arts and Science, Rasipuram, Namakkal-637408, Tamil Nadu, India

ABSTRACT

Cervical squamous cell carcinoma is observed as the second major cause of mortality worldwide. A highly conserved mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway occurs in a wide range of cellular processes which includes differentiation, proliferation, migration, senescence, and apoptosis. MAPK pathway can be activated by various extracellular signals, capable of generating responses as per the cell type. Thus, alteration of the EGFR receptor in this particular pathway leads to the condition of cancer due to abnormal activation of receptor tyrosine kinases. The characteristic features of microRNA (miRNA) which are endogenous, single-stranded, small non-coding RNA for their role in RNA silencing and post-transitional regulation of gene expression have been studied over the years. The miRNA functions by base pairing with the complementary sequences within the mRNA molecule. One such miRNA, miR-329-3p has a critical tumor suppressor role in the MAPK pathway, however, is least understood. Therefore, miRNA could be considered as a potential biomarker for diagnosis, prognosis, and therapeutic purposes and brought out to its fullest use to mankind.

KEYWORDS: Cervical cancer, Squamous cell carcinoma, Biomarker, Proliferation, Metastasis, Apoptosis

Received: January 09, 2024 Revised: April 19, 2024 Accepted: May 14, 2024 Published: June 04, 2024

*Corresponding authors:
Kanthesh M. Basalingappa
E-mail: kantheshmb@jssuni.
edu.in
M. Maghimaa
E-mail: maghimaamm@
gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Cancer is a wide range of diseases characterized by the uncontrollable division of cells with the ability to infiltrate and destroy normal human tissue (Wani, 2023). When cancer begins, normal cells in that area of the body start to proliferate in an uncontrolled manner as a consequence of a change in one gene of one cell or a few cells which eventually begins to grow and multiply in an uncontrolled manner. Primary cancer refers to the location in the body where cancer first develops. The original site in the cells may separate and disperse to various body regions (Chanu & Singh, 2022). Subsequently, these cells may develop into new cancers. These are referred to as metastases or secondary cancers. Any aberrant cell proliferation, whether benign or malignant, is referred to as a tumor (Hanahan

& Weinberg, 2000; Chanu & Singh, 2022). A benign tumor stays in its original place and does not invade nearby tissue; however, a malignant tumor can invade the normal tissue around it and to travel throughout the body through the lymphatic or circulatory systems (Hanahan & Weinberg, 2000).

Being a genetic disease, the cancer can arise from factors categorized mainly as hereditary or environmental. However, the majority of the occurrences are due to mutations of the gene that arise from a plethora of environmental factors (Anand *et al.*, 2008). Some of these include tobacco (25%-30%), diet and obesity (30%-35%), infections (15%-20%), radiation (both ionizing and non-ionizing up to 10%), age, diet, obesity, stress, lack of physical activity and pollution (Hanahan & Weinberg, 2000; Kolonel *et al.*, 2004; Anand *et al.*, 2008).

Copyright: © The authors. This article is open access and licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.o/) which permits unrestricted, use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, or format for any purpose, even commercially provided the work is properly cited. Attribution — You must give appropriate credit, provide a link to the license, and indicate if changes were made.

Over 200 different types of cancer are known to exist with the cases increasing at an alarming rate over time (Mohemed *et al.*, 2023). As per the origin of the site, cancer can be classified as thyroid cancer, breast cancer, lung cancer, cervical cancer, colon cancer, thyroid cancer, etc.

CERVICAL CANCER

The uncontrolled growth and proliferation of the cells at the cervixis termed "cervical" cancer. The cervix forms the lowest portion of the uterus that joins the vagina and has two major parts - the lower part projects into the vagina and is termed as vaginal part, while the upper part is called the supra vaginal part. It is conical in shape. The cervix connects the body of the uterus with the vagina or the birth canal at the external osteum (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003). The part of the cervix close to the uterus is named as endocervix which is lined by squamous cells while the part next to the vagina is called as exocervix which is lined by glandular cells (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003). The zone merging the two kinds of cells is called the squamous columnar junction (SCJ) or the transformation zone that forms the major site of infection and occurrence of cancer (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003). Cervical cancer is divided into three subgroups based on histology: squamous cell carcinoma, adenocarcinoma, and adenosquamous carcinoma (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003; Li et al., 2017). Squamous cell carcinoma is the most frequent of these subtypes, accounting for 85% of all occurrences (Li et al., 2017).

According to the Cervical Cancer Statistics, cancer of the cervix uteri is found to be the fourth most common cancer affecting women on a global scale and the second most common cancer in developing regions (Zheng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). The estimated global incidence is about 5,30,000 women develop cervical cancer each year and nearly 2,70,000 women deaths are recorded annually (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003; Zheng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). India has a population of 432.2 million women and every year around 122,844 women are diagnosed with cervical cancer and 67,477 die from the same (Sellors & Sankaranarayanan, 2003; Zheng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). Most of the cases, that is, around 85% are found to be present in advanced and late stages, and more than half that is from 63% to 89% have regional disease at the time of presentation. Therefore, preventive vaccination and organized screening programs are critical for the identification of cervical cancer. Thus, an understanding of the molecular mechanisms of cervical cancer development and the identification of novel biomarkers are essential for the early detection and treatment of cervical cancer.

Cervical cancer is mainly due to a persistent infection with high-risk types of the human papilloma virus (hrHPV) (Bowden et al., 2023). The human papilloma virus (HPV) contributes to more than 90% of cases while other causes include smoking, birth control pills, sexual intercourse at an early age, a greater number of sexual partners, a weak immune system, etc (Zheng et al., 2015; Bowden et al., 2023). Genetic instability due to the presence of a transforming infection can ultimately result in the accumulation of specific genetic and epigenetic changes

in the host-cell genome. This, in turn, drives progression to a malignant phenotype. The oncogenic cell transformation is found to occur in a discrete cell population at the SCJ (Zheng et al., 2015; Bowden et al., 2023). The uncontrolled growth of cells leads to lumpy regions in the cervix that can spread to distant sites via metastasis. In the majority of cases, the mortality is due to this metastatic behavior of the cancer cells that invade other organs of the body from the primary location of the invasion (Zheng et al., 2015; Bowden et al., 2023). Thus, early detection and diagnosis as done by processes including biopsy proves to be helpful. Generally, to estimate the spread of tumors medical imaging is done. Screening is typically by a PAP smear test that helps to identify the precancerous change occurring in the body. Thus, on early detection, the occurrence of cancer can be prevented (Bhatla et al., 2018; Basoya & Anjankar, 2022; Bowden et al., 2023).

There are various molecular mechanisms including pathways such as PCP/WNT, BETA catenin, RAS/RAF, JNK, AKT, PCT, etc. that play a vital role in the normal functioning of the body. Among these, the oncogenic virus infection that is caused by a classical pathway is the MAP kinase pathway. Any pathway has basically few important criteria which include:

- Signaling molecules They are generally hormones that include epidermal growth factor hormone (EGFH) and plasma-derived growth factor (PDGF).
- Receptor They are usually transmembrane proteins like Epidermal growth factor receptors.
- Core signaling molecule and some messengers that involve kinases.

MICRO RNA

The micro RNAs (miRNAs) are single-stranded, small non-coding RNA molecules that consist of a short nucleotide single-stranded region. These are found in all plants, animals, and some viruses and are involved in the RNA silencing and post-transitional regulation of gene expression (Ying et al., 2008). They are known to play important roles in a wide range of physiological and pathological processes that occur within the body including important regulatory roles in cellular proliferation, apoptosis, angiogenesis, invasion, and migration (Ying et al., 2008). It affects the activities of other genes involved in protein synthesis by being transcribed from DNA as opposed to being translated into protein (Ying et al., 2008).

miRNA, which includes the lin-4 and let-7 genes, were first discovered in *C. elegans* as 18-23 nucleotide long RNA molecules that are complementary to the 3' untranslated regions of their target transcripts and were later discovered to exist in a variety of animals, including worms, flies, and humans (Ying *et al.*, 2008; Bhatla *et al.*, 2018). Most miRNAs are produced via transcription of DNA sequences into fundamental miRNAs, precursor miRNAs, and then mature miRNAs. The majority of the time, miRNAs interact with the target mRNAs' 3' untranslated region to cause mRNA degradation and translational suppression (Allmang *et al.*, 1999; Ying *et al.*, 2008). The study over the years has shown that miRNAs are organized into highly conserved

families with common seed regions of occurrence of about 6-8 nucleotides which determine the target specificity (Allmang et al., 1999). The miRNA functions via the base pairing with the complementary sequences inside the mRNA molecule1 (Allmang et al., 1999; Bartel, 2009). The human genomes comprise of about 1000 miRNAs and are found to affect the target of about 60% of the genes of humans and other mammals (Abbott et al., 2005; Bartel, 2009).

miRNA binds to target mRNA to block the creation of proteins through one of two different processes. Primary miRNA which joins the effect or complex RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), is cleaved twice to produce mature miRNA (Abbott *et al.*, 2005; Betel *et al.*, 2008). By base-pairing with the target mRNA to inhibit its production, the miRNA acts as a guide (O'Brien *et al.*, 2018).

The importance of miRNA in human carcinogenesis is becoming increasingly recognized, and the potential role of miRNA in cervical cancer development is being developed and demonstrated in only a few studies. The recent work on miRNA functioning has revealed that miRNA could negatively modulate its matched target genes by binding the 3' untranslated regions (3'UTRs) of mRNA, leading to mRNA degradation and thus translation inhibition (Betel *et al.*, 2008; O'Brien *et al.*, 2018). The silencing of the RNA can be performed by; a) Cleavage of mRNA strand into pieces. b) Destabilization of the mRNA through shortening of its poly (A) tail and c). The translational of less efficient mRNA into proteins by ribosomes (Betel *et al.*, 2008; O'Brien *et al.*, 2018).

Each miRNA has numerous gene targets, and a particular gene can be targeted by multiple miRNAs providing a combinatorial effect on the gene regulation (Vasudevan, 2012). Human miRNA is located at fragile sites on the chromosomal regions that are affected by cancer.

The miRNAs can be detected depending on their genomic location and are found in both coding and non-coding genes as they consist of introns and exons. They share the expression pattern and regulation along with the host cells (Bentwich et al., 2005; Vasudevan, 2012). Thus, they can regulate many targeted gene expressions, which include proliferation, invasion, apoptosis, migration, and differentiation (Griffiths-Jones, 2004; Bentwich et al., 2005; Vasudevan, 201). Many studies have provided evidence that a variety of miRNAs are involved with the initiation and progression of human malignancies. Several studies have shown altered miRNA expression patterns in cervical cancer cell lines and cervical cancer tissues (Lewis et al., 2005). So far, only limited data on genome-wide miRNA expression patterns in CIN lesions is available (Lewis et al., 2003, 2005). Thus, the role of microRNA in inhibition of proliferative cells in the MAPK pathway and hence the downregulation of cancer cells in the cervical region plays a crucial role. Over the last decade, an increasing number of studies have found that miRNAs play an important role in carcinogenesis and progression. MiRNAs can behave as oncogenes by negatively influencing tumor-suppressor genes, whereas lowly expressed miRNAs can function as tumor suppressors by directly targeting oncogenes (Lewis et al., 2003; Li et al., 2017). As a result, identifying novel miRNAs to act as therapeutic targets in human cancer may be advantageous.

Many miRNAs including microRNA 29a, microRNA 362, microRNA 329 3p, microRNA 133a, microRNA 139 3p, microRNA 338 3p, etc. are known to play crucial roles as per their specific mechanism of action. The validation and approval are still under study with the recorded data. One such microRNA, miRNA 329 3p is thought to serve as a predictive marker since its expression in cancer cells, was found to be at a lower expression level as known for lymph nodes and metastasis (Rajewsky, 2006; Liu et al., 2007; MacFarlane & Murphy, 2010; Li et al., 2017). The upregulation of the same, on the other hand, is related to suppression of the cell proliferation, migration, and invasion in the cancer cells (Cullen, 2004; John et al., 2004; Rajewsky & Socci, 2004; Krek et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2007; Zhao & Srivastava, 2007; Fabian et al., 2010). Recent evidence suggests that miR-329-3p not only suppresses tumors but also plays a role in tumor cell proliferation and spread in various cancers (Zeng & Cullen, 2003; Ambros, 2004; Cullen, 2004; Aravin & Tuschl, 2005).

Thus, considering the silencing of the MAPK1 via the direct target gene miRNA 329 3p leads to the process of RNA interference (Perron & Provost, 2008; Bartel, 2014). Consequently, it is suggested that the miR-329-3p has a critical tumor suppressive role wherein it directly targets the MAP Kinase pathway in cervical cancer.

THE ROLE OF THE MAP KINASE PATHWAY

The MAP kinase pathway is generally a signal transduction pathway that regulates the communication between the extracellular signals and the cell machinery. This controls the functional processes such as cell growth, proliferation, apoptosis, differentiation, migration, and invasion (Kyriakis et al., 1994). Figure 1 displays the total pathway representation of MAP Kinase. The pathway originated from one of the first members of the protein family and is hence called the mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinases pathway. This pathway is regulated in three levels of phosphorylation cascades. The induction of the pathway depends on the kinases which include the receptor tyrosine kinases (RTKs) that can be activated by the attachment of the ligand (Sun et al., 2015). The RTKs are the surface receptors for many of the growth factors, hormones, cytokines, and extracellular signaling molecules. They comprise the subfamily- Epidermal growth factor receptors (EGFR), Fibroblast growth receptor (FGFR), insulin and insulin-like growth factor receptors (IR and IGFR), platelet-derived growth factor receptors (PDGFR), Hepatocyte growth factor receptors (HGFRs), vascular endothelial growth receptors (VEGR), etc. (Dérijard et al., 1994; Sun et al., 2015). The activation of the RTKs provides further induction of the phosphorylation process. This involves downstream kinases leading to the phosphorylation of the targeted protein.

The transforming growth factor alpha (TGF alpha) is a protein coded by the TGFA gene. It is a mitogen polypeptide (Burotto

et al., 2014; De Luca et al., 2012). As a member of the epidermal growth factor family, the protein becomes activated by binding to the receptors, which undergo protein kinase activity for cellular signaling (Robinson & Cobb, 1997; Wan et al., 2004; De Luca et al., 2012; Burotto et al., 2014). It serves as a ligand for EGFR thereby activating the signaling pathway. It may act in two ways: the bound ligand or the ligand of the soluble receptor tyrosine kinases on action with the receptor of EGFR (Epidermal growth factor receptor) undergoes phosphorylation and hence results in the attachment with the SOS (sons of seven less) which are guanine encoding exchange factors along with the Grb2 (Growth factor receptor bound protein 2) (Robinson & Cobb, 1997). Table 1 demonstrates the mammalian MAP Kinase pathway.

The factor brings SOS and the protein adapter Grb2 is in close proximity to the plasma membrane. The smaller GTPase and RAS results in the nucleotide exchange of GDP to GTP (i.e., Guanine diphosphate to guanine triphosphate) (Robinson & Cobb, 1997; Wan *et al.*, 2004; De Luca *et al.*, 2012). This substitution reaction leads to the activation of serine/tyrosine kinase RAF/MAP kinase kinase kinase (MAPKKK) that occurs as a result of the internal phosphorylation and the utilization of the

ATP leading to further activation of the MAP kinase (MAPKK) and finally, the MAP kinase in its active form (Boulton *et al.*, 1991; Robinson & Cobb, 1997; Scaltriti & Baselga, 2006). Thus, a cascade of reactions occurs which undergoes phosphorylation including the RAF phosphorylation of MEK½ (methyl ethyl ketone) which in turn phosphorylates and activates Erk½ (Yarden & Ullrich, 1988; Kaplan *et al.*, 1991).

The MAP Kinase pathway is involved in tumor suppression, increased expression of phosphorylation of several transcription factors such as the p53, activating transcription factor 2 (ATF2), E1K1, protein kinases, MAPK activated kinases 2 (MK2)/(MAPK2), nitrogen and stress-activated protein kinases1 MAP kinase interacting serine/threonine kinase (Zhang & Liu, 2002).

TARGETING THE RAS/RAF PATHWAY IN CERVICAL CANCER

RAS proteins are proto-oncogenes that are encoded by three distinct genes that are widely expressed: HRAS, KRAS, and NRAS. These proteins are GTPases, which act as molecular switches, controlling pathways involved in cell growth and

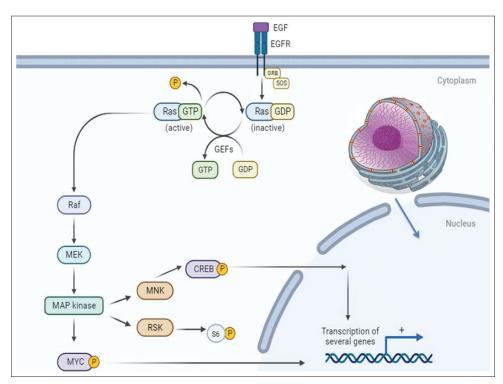


Figure 1: Total pathway representation of MAP Kinase pathway

Table 1: Map Kinase Pathway (Mammalian)

S. No.	Map Kinase	Other Names	Comments	P Site Motif	References
1	ERK1	p44 MAPK	>80% identical to ERK2 Abundant and ubiquitous	TEY	45
2	ERK2	p42 MAPK	Abundant and ubiquitous	TETY	42
3	MRK	MAK related kinase	Expressed in embryonic myocardium.	TDY	60
4	JNK1	SAPK	Multiple spliced forms	TPY	42,45
5	JNK2	SAPKα	Multiple spliced form	TPY	42,45

survival. Ras proteins are generally closely regulated by GEFs that promote GDP dissociation and GTP binding and GTPaseactivating proteins (Zhang & Liu, 2002). Also, the RAS super family of GTP hydrolysis-coupled signal transduction relay proteins is divided into RAS, RHO, RAB, and ARF families, as well as the closely related Gα family (Zhang & Liu, 2002). They are mainly concerned with the control of cell proliferation, working as cellular switches, linking signals from receptors of the membrane to the expression of a particular gene. The classical mutations in the RAS proteins that are found in human tumors increase the amount of protein produced in the GTPbound state, making them constitutively active (Zhang & Liu, 2002). Figure 2 showcase the signaling pathways and inhibitors of EGFR. Activation of EGFR leads to homodimerization/ heterodimerization, and phosphorylation of specific tyrosine residues.

The majority of cancers occur due to the mutations that affect the signaling pathway involved in MAP kinase in the RAS and RAF genes (Yarden & Ullrich, 1988; Boulton *et al.*, 1991; Kaplan *et al.*, 1991; Robinson & Cobb, 1997; Zhang & Liu, 2002; Scaltriti & Baselga, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2017). Generally, even point mutation can cause drastic changes in the pattern of the on-and-off mechanism involved in that pathway and can result in an adverse impact on the body, which can be fatal (Quilliam *et al.*, 2002; Colicelli, 2004).

The RAS protein/RAS family of genes has three sub-categories which are:

K RAS:

• It is a GTPase protein and one of the early players in the signal transduction pathway. It is usually adhered to the cell membrane because of the isoprene group at its C terminus. It plays an important role in the conversion of GTP to GDP (Kaplan *et al.*, 1991; Quilliam *et al.*, 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2002; Colicelli, 2004).

• A high frequency of mutations of KRAS is reported in certain diseased conditions found in the pancreatic, large intestine, biliary tract, small intestine, lung, endometrial and ovarian cancers (Kaplan *et al.*, 1991; Quilliam *et al.*, 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2002; Colicelli, 2004). Table 2 demonstrates the frequency of mutations.

N RAS:

- This also serves as a GTPase and aids in transmitting signals by attaching a molecule of GTP. It functions in the maintenance of cell division, cell differentiation and apoptosis.
- The mutations of N RAS are associated with melanoma, nervous system, hemopoietic, lymphatic, and thyroid cancers.

H RAS:

- Its structure and adherence nature are similar to that of the KRAS gene protein. It also acts like a molecular switch playing on and off and hence activating the proteins required for the propagation of receptor signals, such as C RAF and PC kinases. It binds to GTP and possesses an enzyme cleavage activity at the terminal phosphate of nucleotide (Quilliam et al., 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2002; Colicelli, 2004).
- The mutation in this gene can cause salivary gland, urinary tract, cervix, upper aero digestive tract, prostate, and skin cancer (Boguski & McCormick, 1993; Quilliam et al., 2002; Zhang & Liu, 2002; Colicelli, 2004).

The mutations in the HRAS region result in various cancers among which the predominantly occurrences are discovered in the bladder (9%), upper digestive tract (6%), skin, and cervical cancer (16% and 5% respectively). RAS mutations commonly occur at G12 and G13 residues, which are responsible for the prevention of the binding between RAS and GAP thereby

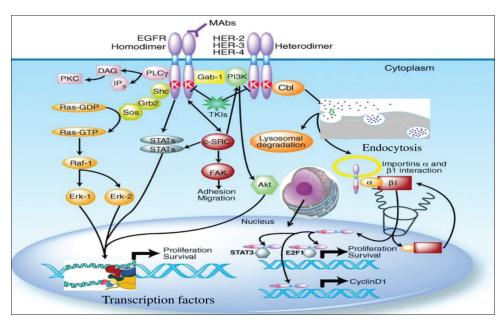


Figure 2: Signaling pathways and inhibitors of EGFR. Activation of EGFR leads to homodimerization/heterodimerization, and phosphorylation of specific tyrosine residues

Table 2: Frequency of Mutations

S. No.	Disease	KRAS (%)	NRAS (%)	HRAS (%)	BRAF (%)
1	Breast	4	2	1	1.1
2	Brain	1	1	0	8
3	Cervix	7	2	5	9.9
4	Endometrium	14	0	1	0
5	Lung	17	0.6	0.5	2.2

preventing the hydrolysis of GTP (Boguski & McCormick, 1993; Davies *et al.*, 2002). Thus, these mutations occur in the active state leading to the activation of the subsequent downstream effectors and are referred to as hyperactivation.

Thus, RAS-RAF-MAPK-ERK pathways activate other effect or pathways like the phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K) (Tsai et al., 2006). Research in several aspects has also led to the understanding that the activation of the MAPK signaling pathway could significantly promote the generation of epithelial-mesenchymal transitions (EMT) in cervical cancer cells (Lee et al., 1996). Hence, the activation of these pathways is imperative since it provides a cytoprotective tumor environment, consequently granting the tumor cells resistance to the conventional theory. This hypothesis can lead to new facets that are yet to be discovered and thus, subsequent discoveries can aid in the development of potential therapeutics.

REFERENCES

- Abbott, A. L., Alvarez-Saavedra, E., Miska, E. A., Lau, N. C., Bartel, D. P., Horvitz, H. R., & Ambros, V. (2005). The let-7 MicroRNA family members mir-48, mir-84, and mir-241 function together to regulate developmental timing in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Developmental Cell*, 9(3), 403-414. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2005.07.009
- Allmang, C., Kufel, J., Chanfreau, G., Mitchell, P., Petfalski, E., & Tollervey, D. (1999). Functions of the exosome in rRNA, snoRNA and snRNA synthesis. *The EMBO Journal, 18*, 5399-5410. https://doi.org/10.1093/emboj/18.19.5399
- Ambros, V. (2004). The functions of animal microRNAs. *Nature, 431*, 350-355. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature02871
- Anand, P., Kunnumakara, A. B., Sundaram, C., Harikumar, K. B., Tharakan, S. T., Lai, O. S., Sung, B., & Aggarwal, B. B. (2008). Cancer is a preventable disease that requires major lifestyle changes. *Pharmaceutical Research*, 25, 2097-2116. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11095-008-9661-9
- Aravin, A., & Tuschl, T. (2005). Identification and characterization of small RNAs involved in RNA silencing. *FEBS Letters, 579*(26), 5830-5840. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2005.08.009
- Bartel, D. P. (2009). MicroRNAs: target recognition and regulatory functions. *Cell*, 136(2), 215-233. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2009.01.002
- Bartel, D. P. (2014). MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function. Cell, 116(2), 281-297. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(04)00045-5
- Basoya, S., & Anjankar, A. (2022). Cervical cancer: early detection and prevention in reproductive age group. *Cureus*, 14(11), e31312. https://doi.org/10.7759/cureus.31312
- Bentwich, I., Avniel, A., Karov, Y., Aharonov, R., Gilad, S., Barad, O., Barzilai, A., Einat, P., Meiri, E., Sharon, E., Spector, Y., & Bentwich, Z. (2005). Identification of hundreds of conserved and nonconserved human microRNAs. *Nature Genetics*, 37, 766-770. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng1590
- Betel, D., Wilson, M., Gabow, A., Marks, D. S., & Sander, C. (2008). The microRNA.org resource: targets and expression. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 36(S1), D149-D153. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkm995
- Bhatla, N., Aoki, D., Sharma, D. N., & Sankaranarayanan, R. (2018). Cancer of the cervix uteri. *International Journal of Gynecology &*

- Obstetrics, 143(S2), 22-36. https://doi.org/10.1002/ijgo.12611
- Boguski, M. S., & McCormick, F. (1993). Proteins regulating Ras and its relatives. *Nature*, 366, 643-654. https://doi.org/10.1038/366643a0
- Boulton, T. G., Nye, S. H., Robbins, D. J., Ip, N. Y., Radzlejewska, E., Morgenbesser, S. D., DePinho, R. A., Panayotatos, N., Cobb, M. H., & Yancopoulos, G. D. (1991). ERKs: a family of protein-serine/threonine kinases that are activated and tyrosine phosphorylated in response to insulin and NGF. Cell, 65(4), 663-675. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(91)90098-J
- Bowden, S. J., Doulgeraki, T., Bouras, E., Markozannes, G., Athanasiou, A., Grout-Smith, H., Kechagias, K. S., Ellis, L. B., Zuber, V., Chadeau-Hyam, M., Flanagan, J. M., Tsilidis, K. K., Kalliala, I., & Kyrgiou, M. (2023). Risk factors for human papillomavirus infection, cervical intraepithelial neoplasia and cervical cancer: an umbrella review and follow-up Mendelian randomisation studies. *BMC Medicine*, 21, 274. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12916-023-02965-w
- Burotto, M., Chiou, V. L., Lee, J.-M., & Kohn, E. C. (2014). The MAPK pathway across different malignancies: a new perspective. *Cancer, 120*(22), 3446-3456. https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.28864
- Chanu, M. T., & Singh, A. S. (2022). Cancer disease and its' understanding from the ancient knowledge to the modern concept. *World Journal of Advanced Research and Reviews*, 15(2), 169-176. https://doi.org/10.30574/wjarr.2022.15.2.0809
- Colicelli, J. (2004). Human RAS superfamily proteins and related GTPases. *Science's STKE, 2004*(250), re13. https://doi.org/10.1126/stke.2502004re13
- Cullen, B. R. (2004). Transcription and processing of human microRNA precursors. Molecular Cell, 16(6), 861-865. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. molcel.2004.12.002
- Davies, H., Bignell, G. R., Cox, C., Stephens, P., Edkins, S., Clegg, S., Teague, J., Woffendin, H., Garnett, M. J., Bottomley, W., Davis, N., Dicks, E., Ewing, R., Floyd, Y., Gray, K., Hall, S., Hawes, R., Hughes, J., Kosmidou, V., Futreal, P. A. (2002). Mutations of the BRAF gene in human cancer. *Nature*, 417, 949-954. https://doi.org/10.1038/ nature00766
- De Luca, A., Maiello, M. R., D'Alessio, A., Pergameno, M., & Normanno, N. (2012). The RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK and the PI3K/AKT signalling pathways: role in cancer pathogenesis and implications for therapeutic approaches. *Expert Opinion on Therapeutic Targets, 16*(S2), S17-S27. https://doi.org/10.1517/14728222.2011.639361
- Dérijard, B., Hibi, M., Wu, I., Barrett, T., Su, B., Deng, T., Karin, M., & Davis, R. J. (1994). JNK1: a protein kinase stimulated by UV light and Ha-Ras that binds and phosphorylates the c-Jun activation domain. Cell, 76(6), 1025-1037. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(94)90380-8
- Fabian, M. R., Sonenberg, N., & Filipowicz, W. (2010). Regulation of mRNA translation and stability by microRNAs. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, 79, 351-379. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-biochem-060308-103103
- Griffiths-Jones, S. (2004). The microRNA registry. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 32(S1), D109-D111. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkh023
- Hanahan, D., & Weinberg, R. A. (2000). The hallmarks of cancer. *Cell, 100*(1), 57-70. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(00)81683-9
- John, B., Enright, A. J., Aravin, A., Tuschl, T., Sander, C., & Marks, D. S. (2004). Human microRNA targets. PLoS Biology, 3(7), e264. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.0030264
- Kaplan, D. R., Martin-Zanca, D., & Parada, L. F. (1991). Tyrosine phosphorylation and tyrosine kinase activity of the trk protooncogene product induced by NGF. *Nature*, 350, 158-160. https:// doi.org/10.1038/350158a0
- Kolonel, L. N., Altshuler, D., & Henderson, B. E. (2004). The multiethnic cohort study: exploring genes, lifestyle and cancer risk. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 4, 519-527. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrc1389
- Krek, A., Grün, D., Poy, M. N., Wolf, R., Rosenberg, L., Epstein, E. J., MacMenamin, P., da Piedade, I., Gunsalus, K. C., Stoffel, M., & Rajewsky, N. (2005). Combinatorial microRNA target predictions. *Nature Genetics*, 37, 495-500. https://doi.org/10.1038/ ng1536
- Kyriakis, J. M., Banerjee, P., Nikolakaki, E., Dai, T., Rubie, E. A., Ahmad, M. F., Avruch, J., & Woodgett, J. R. (1994). The stress-activated protein kinase subfamily of c-Jun kinases. *Nature*, 369, 156-160. https://doi. org/10.1038/369156a0
- Lee, J.-H., Lee, S.-K., Yang, M.-H., Ahmed, M. M., Mohiuddin, M., & Lee, E. Y. (1996). Expression and mutation of H-ras in uterine cervical

- cancer. *Gynecologic Oncology, 62*(1), 49-54. https://doi.org/10.1006/gyno.1996.0188
- Lewis, B. P., Burge, C. B., & Bartel, D. P. (2005). Conserved seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of human genes are microRNA targets. *Cell*, 120(1), 15-20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2004.12.035
- Lewis, B. P., Shih, I., Jones-Rhoades, M. W., Bartel, D. P., & Burge, C. B. (2003). Prediction of mammalian microRNA targets. *Cell*, 115(7), 787-798. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(03)01018-3
- Li, W., Liang, J., Zhang, Z., Lou, H., Zhao, L., Xu, Y., & Ou, R. (2017). MicroRNA-329-3p targets MAPK1 to suppress cell proliferation, migration and invasion in cervical cancer. *Oncology Reports*, 37(5), 2743-2750. https://doi.org/10.3892/or.2017.5555
- Liu, W., Mao, S.-Y., & Zhu, W.-Y. (2007). Impact of tiny miRNAs on cancers. World Journal of Gastroenterology, 13(4), 497-502.
- MacFarlane, L.-A., & Murphy, P. R. (2010). MicroRNA: biogenesis, function and role in cancer. *Current Genomics*, 11(7), 537-561. https://doi.org/10.2174/138920210793175895
- Mohemed, F. M., Fatih, B. N., Qadir, A. A., Abdalla, S. H., & Mahmood, Z. H. (2023). Cancer Publications in One Year (2022): A Cross-Sectional Study. *Barw Medical Journal*, 1(2), 30. https://doi.org/10.58742/ bmj.v1i2.30
- O'Brien, J., Hayder, H., Zayed, Y., & Peng, C. (2018). Overview of microRNA biogenesis, mechanisms of actions, and circulation. *Frontiers in Endocrinology*, *9*, 402. https://doi.org/10.3389/fendo.2018.00402
- Perron, M. P., & Provost, P. (2008). Protein interactions and complexes in human microRNA biogenesis and function. *Frontiers in Bioscience*, 13(7), 2537-2547. https://doi.org/10.2741/2865
- Quilliam, L. A., Rebhun, J. F., & Castro, A. F. (2002). A growing family of guanine nucleotide exchange factors is responsible for activation of Ras-family GTPases. *Progress in Nucleic Acid Research and Molecular Biology*, 71, 391-444. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0079-6603(02)71047-7
- Rajewsky, N. (2006). microRNA target predictions in animals. *Nature Genetics*, *38*, S8-S13. https://doi.org/10.1038/ng1798
- Rajewsky, N., & Socci, N. D. (2004). Computational identification of microRNA targets. *Developmental Biology*, 267(2), 529-535. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ydbio.2003.12.003
- Robinson, M. J., & Cobb, M. H. (1997). Mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways. *Current Opinion in Cell Biology*, *9*(2), 180-186. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0955-0674(97)80061-0
- Scaltriti, M., & Baselga, J. (2006). The epidermal growth factor receptor pathway: a model for targeted therapy. *Clinical Cancer Research*, 12(18), 5268-5272. https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432. CCR-05-1554

- Sellors, J. W., & Sankaranarayanan, R. (2003). Colposcopy and treatment of cervical intraepithelial neoplasia: A beginner's manual. Lyon, France: International Agency for Research on Cancer.
- Sun, Y., Liu, W.-Z., Liu, T., Feng, X., Yang, N., & Zhou, H.-F. (2015). Signaling pathway of MAPK/ERK in cell proliferation, differentiation, migration, senescence and apoptosis. *Journal of Receptors and Signal Transduction*, 35(6), 600-604. https://doi.org/10.3109/10799893.20 15.1030412
- Tsai, F.-M., Shyu, R.-Y., & Jiang, S.-Y. (2006). RIG1 inhibits the Ras/mitogenactivated protein kinase pathway by suppressing the activation of Ras. *Cellular Signalling*, *18*(3), 349-358. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. cellsig.2005.05.005
- Vasudevan, S. (2012). Posttranscriptional upregulation by microRNAs. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: RNA, 3*(3), 311-330. https://doi.org/10.1002/wrna.121
- Wan, P. T. C., Garnett, M. J., Roe, S. M., Lee, S., Niculescu-Duvaz, D., Good, V. M., Cancer Genome Project, Jones, C. M., Marshall, C. J., Springer, C. J., Barford, D., & Marais, R. (2004). Mechanism of activation of the RAF-ERK signaling pathway by oncogenic mutations of B-RAF. Cell, 116(6), 855-867. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0092-8674(04)00215-6
- Wani, A. A. (2023). Cancer: Its Symptoms, Challenges and Opportunities in Research in India: A Review. *Saudi Journal of Medical and Pharmaceutical Sciences*, *9*(1), 1-5. https://doi.org/10.36348/sjmps.2023.v09i01.001
- Yarden, Y., & Ullrich, A. (1988). Growth factor receptor tyrosine kinases. *Annual Review of Biochemistry*, *57*, 443-478. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.bi.57.070188.002303
- Ying, S.-Y., Chang, D. C., & Lin, S.-. (2008). The microRNA (miRNA): overview of the RNA genes that modulate gene function. *Molecular Biotechnology*, 38, 257-268. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12033-007-9013-8
- Zeng, Y., Yi, R., & Cullen, B. R. (2003). MicroRNAs and small interfering RNAs can inhibit mRNA expression by similar mechanisms. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 100*(17), 9779-9784. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1630797100
- Zhang, W., & Liu, H. T. (2002). MAPK signal pathways in the regulation of cell proliferation in mammalian cells. *Cell Research*, 12, 9-18. https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.cr.7290105
- Zhao, Y., & Srivastava, D. (2007). A developmental view of microRNA function. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences, 32*(4), 189-197. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibs.2007.02.006
- Zheng, W., Liu, Z., Zhang, W., & Hu, X. (2015). miR-31 functions as an oncogene in cervical cancer. *Archives of Gynecology and Obstetrics*, 292, 1083-1089. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00404-015-3713-2