



Published in final edited form as:

Biotech Histochem. 2022 January ; 97(1): 1–10. doi:10.1080/10520295.2021.2005147.

Differential expression of microRNA between triple negative breast cancer patients of African American and European American descent

William M. MacCuaig^{1,2}, Alexandra Thomas³, Juan C. Carlos-Sorto^{1,4}, Jorge G. Gomez-Gutierrez⁵, Adam C. Alexander^{1,6}, Elizabeth A. Wellberg^{1,7}, William E. Grizzle⁸, Lacey R. McNally^{1,4}

¹Stephenson Cancer Center, University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

²Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma

³Department of Hematology Oncology, Wake Forest Baptist Health, Winston-Salem, North Carolina

⁴Department of Surgery, University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

⁵Department of Child Health, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

⁶Department of Family and Preventive Medicine, University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

⁷Department of Pathology, University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

⁸Department of Pathology, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, Alabama

Abstract

There are racial disparities in the outcome of triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) patients between women of African ancestry and women of European ancestry, even after accounting for lifestyle, socioeconomic and clinical factors. MicroRNA (miRNA) are non-coding molecules whose level of expression is associated with cancer suppression, proliferation and drug resistance; therefore, these have potential for biomarker applications in cancers including TNBC. Historically, miRNAs up-regulated in African American (AA) patients have received less attention than for patients of European ancestry. Using laser capture microdissection (LCM) to acquire ultrapure tumor cell samples, miRNA expression was evaluated in 15 AA and 15 European American (EA) TNBC patients. Tumor sections were evaluated using RNA extraction followed by miRNA analysis and profiling. Results were compared based on ethnicity and method of tissue fixation. miRNAs that showed high differential expression in AA TNBC patients compared to EA included: miR-19a, miR-192, miR-302a, miR-302b, miR-302c, miR-335, miR-520b, miR-520f and miR-645. LCM is a useful technique for isolation of tumor cells. We found a greater

CONTACT: Lacey R McNally, Professor, Department of Surgery, University of Oklahoma Health Science Center, 755 Research Park, Rm 471, Oklahoma City, OK 73104, Phone:1-405-271-8000, ext. 47320, lacey_mcnally@hotmail.com.

Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflict of interest.

abundance of RNA in frozen samples compared to formalin fixed, paraffin embedded samples. miRNA appears to be a useful biomarker for TNBC to improve diagnosis and treatment.

Keywords

African American; European American; Caucasian; human; laser-capture microdissection; microRNA; racial disparity; triple negative breast cancer

Although women of African ancestry exhibit a lower incidence of breast cancer than European American (EA) women, African American (AA) women experience significantly poorer survival (Danforth 2013; Thomas et al. 2019). Even accounting for the fact that AA are more likely to be diagnosed at more advanced stages (Banegas and Li 2012), have a more aggressive subtype of cancer (Carey et al. 2006; Howlader et al. 2014) and are less likely to undergo recommended treatment (Ooi et al. 2011), the trend persists. Factors including incidence, higher tumor growth index (Morris and Mitchell 2008), tumor location (Han et al. 2019) and microenvironment (Deshmukh et al. 2017) have all been proposed as potential reasons for racial disparities in breast cancer. Translation of predisposing information into alterations of treatment and attitudes, however, has not yet followed. Characterization and discovery of biomarkers that are expressed differentially in races could elicit information useful for the diagnosis, treatment and overall prognosis to narrow racial disparities and lower breast cancer mortality.

MicroRNA (miRNA) is a small non-coding RNA molecule that binds to target mRNA to prevent subsequent protein production (MacFarlane and Murphy 2010; McNally et al. 2013). Although specifics concerning the function of miRNA molecules are relatively unknown, miRNAs are important factors for regulating gene expression (Esau et al. 2006; Garzon et al. 2006; Naguibneva et al. 2006); they are an intriguing possibility for predicting disease risk. miRNAs are useful biomarkers; they are stable in vitro and exhibit long duration in vivo, two significant advantages over mRNA (Lim et al. 2005; Lu et al. 2005). A significant number of miRNAs could have oncogenic potential and could signal discrepancies in outcomes due to race. For example, miRNA-19a is related to malignancy by regulating drug resistance (Wang et al. 2013) and cell proliferation (Xu et al. 2012) as well as having anti-inflammatory characteristics (Sonkoly and Pivarcsi 2009).

Other miRNAs that regulate inflammatory responses, miRNAs 192 and 335, also have been implicated in oncogenic activity (Braun et al. 2008; Sonkoly and Pivarcsi 2009; Zhu et al. 2014; Arner and Kulyté 2015; Dong et al. 2018; Ali Ahmed et al. 2020). Controlling inflammatory responses is critical for many diseases; these responses participate in cancer, particularly onset of carcinogenesis and difficulty of treatment (Greten and Grivennikov 2019). Prior to an oncogenic event, normal inflammatory responses often are regulated incorrectly, which results in chronic inflammation, immunosuppression and ultimately cancer (Okabe and Medzhitov 2016; Greten and Grivennikov 2019). Reduction of inflammation using nonsteroidal, anti-inflammatory drugs such as aspirin is an effective preventative (Castelao et al. 2000; Baron et al. 2003) and co-therapy approach (Todoric et al. 2016; Ritter and Greten 2019). Although miRNA levels and their association with inflammation and cancers have been reported, there is significant under-representation of

patients who are not of European ancestry. Few reports have addressed the disproportionate levels of miRNA in AA patients compared to EA patients. It is possible that lack of representation in clinical studies is among the reasons that AA patients experience worse outcomes despite lower incidence.

Studies of miRNA expression often are concerned with the entire cancer tissue and use techniques that do not isolate cancer cells completely, which results in inclusion of stromal cells, vasculature and immune cells that can be confounding factors in efforts to determine true expression of miRNA in cancer cells (Wang et al. 2010). To prevent sample contamination by extracellular matrix/stromal structures, laser capture microdissection (LCM) can be used to isolate tumor cells (Wang et al. 2010; Hackler et al. 2012).

Establishing racial differences in miRNA expression in triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) patients could improve diagnosis and treatment to facilitate determination of outcome associated with race. We investigated differential miRNA expression in TNBC in AA and EA patients using LCM.

Material and methods

Sample collection

We used 30 TNBC specimens acquired from University of Alabama at Birmingham under an approved IRB for specimens collected as part of the tissue repository at the University. To determine potential differences in TNBC miRNA from either AA or EA female patients, the samples were matched for breast cancer subtype, stage (IIB–IIIA), age (+/– 5 years). Both frozen and paraffin embedded specimens were prepared. All 30 patients were classified by race, sex, age, stage (IIIA or IIB) and diagnosis. Two samples were obtained for each specimen, one for frozen section and the other for paraffin embedding (60 total specimens). Fifteen patients were self-identified as AA and 15 were self-identified as EA with a diagnosis of TNBC at stages IIB or IIIA. Patients were 40–55 years old and had a confirmed diagnosis of TBNC at either stage IIB or IIIA. AA samples were selected based on availability of samples large enough for two samples each at least 7 mm. Table 1 is a summary of sample characteristics. Prior to LCM, sections of either frozen or formalin fixed, paraffin embedded (FFPE) were cut at 8 μm from each specimen. Frozen sections remained on dry ice until LCM. Initial sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H & E) (Kerr et al. 2013; Garza-Morales et al. 2018; MacCuaig et al. 2021). A board-certified pathologist (WEG) identified areas of tissues with sufficient malignancy for LCM.

LCM

To prepare for LCM, frozen or paraffin tissue sections were dehydrated and stained as follows: 100% EtOH, 1 min; 95% EtOH, 30 sec; 70% EtOH, 30 sec; 50% EtOH, 30 sec; 0.5% crystal violet, 1 min; 50% EtOH, 30 sec; 70% EtOH 30 sec; 95% EtOH, 30 sec; and 100% EtOH, 1 min. Samples were dried completely using a desiccator. Individual tumor cells were selected based upon morphology and collected from the slide using a high energy UV laser pulse to catapult tissue into 10 μl of RNase-free PCR caps that contained cell lysis buffer. At least a 500,000 μm^2 area of cells were collected using LCM. Cell pellets

were collected by centrifugation at 100 x g for 5 min at 27 °C and placed on dry ice until extraction of RNA.

RNA extraction from frozen tissue samples

We used the RNAqueous-Micro kit (Ambion Ltd., Cambridgeshire, UK) to extract RNA from frozen samples. The protocol for miRNA isolation has been described by Huang et al. (2013). Briefly, frozen pelleted cells were washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), then re-suspended and mixed with 100 µl lysis solution and 50 µl 100% EtOH. The solution was filtered using a microfilter cartridge at 21,330 x g for 1 min. Wash solutions 1, 2 and 3, 180 µl each, were used to wash the sample three times. The filtrate was discarded and the sample was collected by centrifugation at 21,330 x g for 1 min; 10 µl eluates were obtained in micro-elution tubes. The LCM sample was placed in 30 µl lysis solution and incubated for approximately 30 min. The cartridge assembly filter was moistened with 30 µl lysis solution for 5 min and 3 µl LCM additive was introduced and mixed. Then 1.25 volume of 100% EtOH was added and the mixture passed through another microfilter assembly at 10,000 x g for 1 min. Three washes with each of the three solutions, 180 µl each, produced 10 µl of eluted RNA.

RNA extraction from FFPE samples

We used the RecoverAll Total Nucleic Acid Isolation kit (Ambion Ltd., Sydney, NSW) to isolate RNA from FFPE cells as described by Yang et al. (2015) except for the tube type. Instead, a smaller filter cartridge and tube was used (AM1066G; Invitrogen, Green Island, NY) for concentrating a smaller quantity of sample. Briefly, 100 µl digestion buffer and 4 µl protease were mixed with each sample followed by incubation for 15 min at 50 or 80 °C. Then, 100 µl isolation additive and 275 µl 100% EtOH were added to the filter cartridge followed by centrifugation at 10,000 x g for 30 sec. Samples were washed with 500 µl wash 1 and 200 µl each washes 2 and 3. Solutions were incubated for 30 min at 50 °C with 60 µl DNase. Samples were washed again, i.e., 500 µl, wash 1; 200 µl, wash 2; 200 µl, wash 3 and eluted into 5 µl 75 °C nuclease-free water. Total volume was increased to 10 µl by adding 5 µl nuclease-free water. RNA isolation RIN (RNA Integrity Number) values were consistent with expected results.

MiRNA expression

The TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was used to perform reverse transcription with MegaPlex RT primer as described earlier (Mestdagh et al. 2008). Samples, 15 µl, were incubated for 40 cycles as follows: 16 °C for 2 min, 42 °C for 1 min, 50 °C for 1 sec, 85 °C for 5 min and maintaining subsequently at 4 °C. Pre-amplification used Megaplex Preamp Primer Pools A and B and the following cycle: 95 °C for 10 min, 55 °C for 2 min; 72 °C for 2 min, 12 cycles at 95 °C for 15 sec, 60 °C for 4 min, 99.9 °C for 10 min, then maintained at 4 °C. The 7300 Real-time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) was used to quantify pre-amplified product in a 384-well Taqman Open Array Real-time PCR plate. We detected 750 miRNA targets in three samples for each run. SDS 1.4 (Applied Biosystems) was used to calculate cycle threshold values. miRNA expression levels in samples were calculated using a standard concentration curve constructed from synthetic miRNA calibration; 2^{-Ct} was used to determine changes in gene expression.

Statistical analysis

Sex, age, tumor type, stage and pathology were factors in case matching. Log-linear generalized linear models (GLMs) were used to calculate differential expression between FFPE and frozen samples between AA and EA patients. Poisson distribution was used to read counts and the EdgeR package was used to estimate of the gene-wise dispersion factor using the empirical Bayes procedure. A significant difference in linear models was determined by a likelihood ratio test. Heatmaps and PC plots were used to confirm roles in tumor classification. Two-sample t-test for differences in read counts between FFPE vs. frozen and AA or EA was used to determine sample size. Differential miRNA expression in the FFPE and frozen samples from the two patient types were calculated using linear model fitting. Specifically, the linear model was fit to the Ct values derived from Taq-Man low density arrays. Controlling the false discovery rate (FDR) to 0.05 was performed to account for multiple comparisons. Values for $p < 0.05$ were considered significant.

Results

LCM and RNA extraction

Two specimens of RNA were extracted from each of 15 AA and 15 EA patients: 1 FFPE and 1 frozen fixed for each patient, for a total of 60 specimens. Following drying and staining, tumor cells were isolated using LCM as illustrated in Figures 1 and 2. Because TNBC tumors are heterogeneous, separation of tumor cells from inflammatory cells enables assessment of the tumor cell population for specific miRNAs that may be important for tumor initiation and progression. Figures 1 and 2 show H & E staining of a TNBC tissue section containing tumor cells (red circle), inflammatory cells (blue circles) and stroma. Figure 2 shows the process of collecting a homogenous TNBC tumor cell population using LCM without potential contamination from immune cells. Isolated homogenous TNBC tumor cells were collected in PCR caps following LCM. RNA was extracted using FFPE/frozen extraction methods (Huang et al. 2013; Yang et al. 2015).

miRNA expression

We assessed 756 miRNAs using open array plates. miRNA expression was evaluated by comparing ethnicity, i.e., AA or EA, and type of fixation, i.e., frozen or FFPE. Significant differences in miRNA expression in FFPE samples of AA and EA TNBC patients were observed (Figure 3A). Specifically, the following miRNAs showed racial disparities: 19a, 30a-30, 95, 192, 206, 211, 302a, 302b, 302c, 335, 367, 372, 375, 520b, 520f 601, 548d, 367c, let7g, and 645. LCM isolated tumor cells also exhibited differential miRNA expression depending on whether the sections were frozen or embedded in paraffin (Figure 3B).

Discussion

LCM techniques enabled precise isolation of tumor cells while excluding cellular matrix components such as stromal and immune cells. Exclusion of the latter cells enables collection of RNA that is specific to tumor cells, and miRNA extraction and profiling, which improves interpretation concerning miRNA expression. LCM is an important technique for

for future therapeutic TNBC strategies, because each may participate in progression of cancer both directly and indirectly through inflammatory pathways. The evidence suggests that miRNA expression and subsequent biological events have a disproportionate impact on AA TNBC patients.

We found that the miRNA-302 class (a, b, c) is implicated in racial disparities in TNBC patients. Specifically, miRNA-302a and 302b were down-regulated in AA patients, while miRNA-302c was up-regulated. Up-regulated miRNA-302a is associated with suppression of proliferation and metastasis in colorectal (Wei et al. 2015), prostate (Zhang et al. 2015) and breast (Liang et al. 2014) cancers by regulation of MAPK and AKT signaling pathways and CXC4 expression. These investigators also reported that reduction of miRNA-302a expression resulted in cancer growth and metastasis (Liang et al. 2014; Wei et al. 2015; Zhang et al. 2015). Also, cooperative action of the miRNA-302 class sensitizes breast cancer to adriamycin via the ERK pathway (Zhao et al. 2016). Sensitization is achieved by directly binding to and down-regulating levels of MAP/ERK kinase 1 (MEKK1), which decreases drug resistance of cells due to over-expression of P- glycoprotein (Zhao et al. 2016; Lee et al. 2020). Also, miRNA-302b regulates inflammatory responses (Zhou et al. 2014). Weak expression of inflammatory regulators causes chronic inflammation, and increased risk and difficulty of cancer treatment (Grivennikov et al. 2010; Greten and Grivennikov 2019). Because we observed lower miRNA-302a/b expression in AA patients, we conclude that lack of miRNA- 302a/b expression could be a factor in the poor outcome of AA TNBC patients compared to EA patients due to rapid proliferation, metastasis and complications due to inflammation.

We also found that the class of miRNA-520 (b, f) was less expressed in AA TNBC patients compared to EA patients. miRNA-520b has been identified as a tumor suppressor in several types of malignancies. This function includes inhibition of growth and proliferation in glioblastoma (Liu et al. 2016), hepatoma (Zhang et al. 2012) and colorectal cancers (Xiao et al. 2018) as well as sensitizing breast cancer to drugs (Cui et al. 2010; Keklikoglou et al. 2012). Also, miRNA-520f inhibits cancer cell proliferation and reverses epithelial to mesenchymal transition in several cell models (van Kampen et al. 2017; Du et al. 2018). In addition to direct cancer effects, the miRNA-502 class is associated with insulin insensitivity and inflammation, which are indirect risk factors for cancer (Arner and Kulyté 2015; Guo et al. 2016). Because we observed less expression of both miRNA-502b and 502f in AA TNBC patients, it is possible that these miRNAs participate in the poorer outlook for AA patients with TNBC.

In addition to the miRNAs that are under-expressed in AA TNBC patients, others exhibited increased expression, particularly, miRNA-95 and 548d in EA patients compared to AA patients. miRNA-95 influences radiation sensitivity (Ma et al. 2016). miRNA-95 causes resistance to radiation and over-expression causes a highly proliferative, invasive phenotype (Huang et al. 2013). Although miRNA-95 generally is up-regulated in breast cancer, the racial disparity in breast cancer suggests the need for further exploration.

miRNA-548d also is associated with AA TNBC patients. Strong expression of miRNA-548d promotes proliferation and suppresses apoptosis both in vitro and in vivo (Song et al.

2016; Zhao et al. 2016). Little is known about miRNA-548d expression, but it is expressed strongly in AA compared to EA TNBC patients. Inclusion of miRNAs such as miRNA-95 and 548d must be considered together with other differentially expressed miRNAs as potential diagnostic and therapeutic tools for TNBC that could decrease differences in racial outcomes.

Prostate cancer exhibits differences in miRNA expression between AA and EA patients. Over-expression of miRNA-26a (Theodore et al. 2010) and IL-16 miRNA (Hughes et al. 2013) in AA prostate cancer patients has been implicated in accelerated onset of carcinogenesis as well as specific miRNA-mRNA pairings (Wang et al. 2015), epigenetic factors (Theodore et al. 2014) and increased inflammation in the tumor microenvironment (Wallace et al. 2008). miRNA-182 has been implicated in lower survival of AA colon cancer patients compared to EA colon cancer patients (Li et al. 2014). Although miRNA and other tumor microenvironmental factors have been linked to inflammation and overall breast cancer development (Iorio et al. 2005; Martin et al. 2009; Dietze et al. 2015), the need remains to characterize further the differences in AA TNBC compared to other populations. We found differential miRNA expression levels in TNBC patients, but more studies are required to incorporate our findings into diagnostic and therapeutic techniques to improve outcomes.

Figure 3B compares the quantity of miRNA measured in FFPE tissue vs. frozen tissue regardless of race. These data may be used to determine the location of miRNA. Historically, frozen samples were used for determination of mRNA, because FFPE tissue samples produced poor quality extracted RNA due to rapid degradation and chemical modification (Masuda et al. 1999; Srinivasan et al. 2002). miRNAs, however, are a class of small RNAs that have the potential for increased survivability and resistance to alterations when prepared as FFPE samples (Li et al. 2007). Our findings suggest that the quantity of miRNAs is greater when prepared as FFPE samples compared to frozen samples, but this not consistent for all miRNAs measured. Fenestrations in cellular membranes due to freezing samples could explain the decreased miRNA in the cytosol. For example, miRNA 548d was less common in frozen samples than in FFPE samples, which suggests that miRNA 548d is a cytosol miRNA and that it leaked from the cytosol through the cell membrane. By contrast, miRNA 367 may be a nuclear miRNA, because large amounts were found in frozen samples. This suggests that both frozen and FFPE techniques are useful for interpreting miRNA abundance.

We identified racial disparities in miRNA expression in AA and EA TNBC patients with emphasis on miRNAs that have been shown to be related to cancer and related inflammatory regulation pathways. Our findings could be exploited to improve diagnosis and therapeutic targets to decrease disparities in TNBC outcomes associated with race. We also provide evidence for the critical need to include patients of a variety of ethnic backgrounds in studies to characterize biomarker association with cancers.

Funding

This research was funded by the National Institute of Health grants R01CA205941 and R01CA212350.

References

- Ali Ahmed E, Abd El-Basit SA, Mohamed MA, Swellam M. 2020. Clinical role of MiRNA 29a and MiRNA 335 on breast cancer management: their relevance to MMP2 protein level. *Arch Physiol Biochem* 1–8.
- Arner P, Kulyté A. 2015. MicroRNA regulatory networks in human adipose tissue and obesity. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 11:276–2015. [PubMed: 25732520]
- Banegas MP, Li CI. 2012. Breast cancer characteristics and outcomes among Hispanic Black and Hispanic White women. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 134:1297–1304. [PubMed: 22772379]
- Baron JA, Cole BF, Sandler RS, Haile RW, Ahnen D, Bresalier R, McKeown-Eyssen G, Summers RW, Rothstein R, Burke CA. 2003. A randomized trial of aspirin to prevent colorectal adenomas. *N Engl J Med* 348:891–899. [PubMed: 12621133]
- Braun CJ, Zhang X, Savelyeva I, Wolff S, Moll UM, Schepeler T, Ørntoft TF, Andersen CL, Döbelstein M. 2008. p53-Responsive microRNAs 192 and 215 are capable of inducing cell cycle arrest. *Cancer Res* 68:10094–10104. [PubMed: 19074875]
- Carey LA, Perou CM, Livasy CA, Dressler LG, Cowan D, Conway K, Karaca G, Troester MA, Tse CK, Edmiston S. 2006. Race, breast cancer subtypes, and survival in the Carolina Breast Cancer Study. *J Am Med Assoc* 295:2492–2502.
- Castelao J, Yuan J, Gago-Dominguez M, Yu M, Ross R. 2000. Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs and bladder cancer prevention. *Br J Cancer* 82:1364–1369. [PubMed: 10755416]
- Chen L, Song Y, Lu Y, Zheng W, Ma W, Zhang C. 2016. miR-335 inhibits cell proliferation, migration and invasion in HeLa cervical cancer cells. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol* 9:10351–10362.
- Cui W, Zhang Y, Hu N, Shan C, Zhang S, Zhang W, Zhang X, Ye L. 2010. miRNA-520b and miR-520e sensitize breast cancer cells to complement attack via directly targeting 3' UTR of CD46. *Cancer Biol Ther* 10:232–241. [PubMed: 20574151]
- Danforth DN Jr. 2013. Disparities in breast cancer outcomes between Caucasian and African American women: a model for describing the relationship of biological and nonbiological factors. *Breast Cancer Res* 15:1–15.
- Deshmukh SK, Srivastava SK, Tyagi N, Ahmad A, Singh AP, Ghadhban AA, Dyess DL, Carter JE, Dugger K, Singh S. 2017. Emerging evidence for the role of differential tumor microenvironment in breast cancer racial disparity: a closer look at the surroundings. *Carcinogenesis* 38:757–765. [PubMed: 28430867]
- Dietze EC, Sistrunk C, Miranda-Carboni G, O'regan R, Seewaldt VL. 2015. Triple-negative breast cancer in African American women: disparities versus biology. *Nat Rev Cancer* 15:248–254. [PubMed: 25673085]
- Dong Y, Liu Y, Jiang A, Li R, Yin M, Wang Y. 2018. MicroRNA-335 suppresses the proliferation, migration, and invasion of breast cancer cells by targeting EphA4. *Mol Cell Biochem* 439:95–104. [PubMed: 28795314]
- Du X, Fan W, Chen Y. 2018. microRNA-520f inhibits hepatocellular carcinoma cell proliferation and invasion by targeting TM4SF1. *Gene* 657:30–38. [PubMed: 29505836]
- Esau C, Davis S, Murray SF, Yu XX, Pandey SK, Pear M, Watts L, Booten SL, Graham M, McKay R. 2006. miR-122 regulation of lipid metabolism revealed by in vivo antisense targeting. *Cell Metab* 3:87–98. [PubMed: 16459310]
- Gao X-L, Li J-Q, Dong Y-T, Cheng E-J, Gong J-N, Qin Y-L, Huang Y-Q, Yang J-J, Wang S-J, An D-D. 2018. Upregulation of microRNA-335-5p reduces inflammatory responses by inhibiting FASN through the activation of AMPK/ULK1 signaling pathway in a septic mouse model. *Cytokine* 110:466–478. [PubMed: 29866515]
- Garza-Morales R, Gonzalez-Ramos R, Chiba A, de Oca-Luna RM, McNally L, McMasters K, Gomez-Gutierrez J. 2018. Temozolomide enhances triple-negative breast cancer virotherapy in vitro. *Cancers* 10:144.
- Garzon R, Pichiorri F, Palumbo T, Iuliano R, Cimmino A, Aqeilan R, Volinia S, Bhatt D, Alder H, Marcucci G. 2006. MicroRNA fingerprints during human megakaryocytopoiesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci. USA* 103:5078–5083. [PubMed: 16549775]

- Greten FR, Grivennikov SI. 2019. Inflammation and cancer: triggers, mechanisms, and consequences. *Immunity* 51:27–41. [PubMed: 31315034]
- Grivennikov SI, Greten FR, Karin M. 2010. Immunity, inflammation, and cancer. *Cell* 140:883–899. [PubMed: 20303878]
- Guo L, Zhang Y, Zhang L, Huang F, Li J, Wang S. 2016. MicroRNAs, TGF- β signaling, and the inflammatory microenvironment in cancer. *Tumor Biol* 37:115–125.
- Hackler L, Masuda T, Oliver VF, Merbs SL, Zack DJ. 2012. Use of laser capture microdissection for analysis of retinal mRNA/miRNA expression and DNA methylation. *Retinal Development* Springer; Humana Press, Totowa, NJ. p. 289–304.
- Han Y, Moore JX, Langston M, Fuzzell L, Khan S, Lewis MW, Colditz GA, Liu Y. 2019. Do breast quadrants explain racial disparities in breast cancer outcomes? *Cancer Causes Contr* 30:1171–1182.
- Heyn H, Engelmann M, Schreek S, Ahrens P, Lehmann U, Kreipe H, Schlegelberger B, Beger C. 2011. MicroRNA miR-335 is crucial for the BRCA1 regulatory cascade in breast cancer development. *Int J Cancer* 129:2797–2806. [PubMed: 21618216]
- Howlander N, Altekruse SF, Li CI, Chen VW, Clarke CA, Ries LA, Cronin KA. 2014. US incidence of breast cancer subtypes defined by joint hormone receptor and HER2 status. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 106:dju055. [PubMed: 24777111]
- Huang J, Egger M, Grizzle W, McNally L. 2013. MicroRNA-100 regulates IGF1-receptor expression in metastatic pancreatic cancer cells. *Biotech Histochem* 88:397–402. [PubMed: 23373509]
- Huang X, Taeb S, Jahangiri S, Emmenegger U, Tran E, Bruce J, Mesci A, Korpela E, Vesprini D, Wong CS. 2013. miRNA-95 mediates radio-resistance in tumors by targeting the sphingolipid phosphatase SGPP1. *Cancer Res* 73:6972–6986. [PubMed: 24145350]
- Hughes L, Ruth K, Rebbeck TR, Giri VN. 2013. Genetic variation in IL-16 miRNA target site and time to prostate cancer diagnosis in African American men. *Prost Cancer Prost Dis* 16:308–314.
- Iorio MV, Ferracin M, Liu C-G, Veronese A, Spizzo R, Sabbioni S, Magri E, Pedriali M, Fabbri M, Campiglio M. 2005. MicroRNA gene expression deregulation in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 65:7065–7070. [PubMed: 16103053]
- Keklikoglou I, Koerner C, Schmidt C, Zhang J, Heckmann D, Shavinskaya A, Allgayer H, Gückel B, Fehm T, Schneeweiss A. 2012. MicroRNA-520/373 family functions as a tumor suppressor in estrogen receptor negative breast cancer by targeting NF- κ B and TGF- β signaling pathways. *Oncogene* 31:4150–4163. [PubMed: 22158050]
- Kerr EH, Frederick PJ, Egger ME, Stockard CR, Sellers J, DellaManna D, Oelschlager DK, Amm HM, Eltoum I-E, Straughn JM, Buchsbaum DJ, Grizzle WE, McNally LR. 2013. Lung resistance-related protein (LRP) expression in malignant ascitic cells as a prognostic marker for advanced ovarian serous carcinoma. *Ann Surg. Onc* 20:3059–3065.
- Lee S, Rauch J, Kolch W. 2020. Targeting MAPK signaling in cancer: mechanisms of drug resistance and sensitivity. *Int J Mol Sci* 21:1102–1130.
- Li E, Ji P, Ouyang N, Zhang Y, Wang XY, Rubin DC, Davidson NO, Bergamaschi R, Shroyer KR, Burke S. 2014. Differential expression of miRNAs in colon cancer between African and Caucasian Americans: implications for cancer racial health disparities. *Int J Oncol* 45:587–594. [PubMed: 24865442]
- Li J, Smyth P, Flavin R, Cahill S, Denning K, Aherne S, Guenther SM, O’Leary JJ, Sheils O. 2007. Comparison of miRNA expression patterns using total RNA extracted from matched samples of formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) cells and snap frozen cells. *BMC Biotechnol* 7:1–6. [PubMed: 17199888]
- Liang Z, Bian X, Shim H. 2014. Inhibition of breast cancer metastasis with microRNA-302a by downregulation of CXCR4 expression. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 146:535–542. [PubMed: 25030358]
- Lim LP, Lau NC, Garrett-Engle P, Grimson A, Schelter JM, Castle J, Bartel DP, Linsley PS, Johnson JM. 2005. Microarray analysis shows that some microRNAs downregulate large numbers of target mRNAs. *Nature* 433:769–773. [PubMed: 15685193]

- Liu X, Wang F, Tian L, Wang T, Zhang W, Li B, Bai Y-a. 2016. MicroRNA-520b affects the proliferation of human glioblastoma cells by directly targeting cyclin D1. *Tumor Biol* 37:7921–7928.
- Lu J, Getz G, Miska EA, Alvarez-Saavedra E, Lamb J, Peck D, Sweet-Cordero A, Ebert BL, Mak RH, Ferrando AA. 2005. MicroRNA expression profiles classify human cancers. *Nature* 435:834–838. [PubMed: 15944708]
- Lu K, Liu C, Tao T, Zhang X, Zhang L, Sun C, Wang Y, Chen S, Xu B, Chen M. 2015. MicroRNA-19a regulates proliferation and apoptosis of castration-resistant prostate cancer cells by targeting BTG1. *FEBS Lett* 589:1485–1490. [PubMed: 25936765]
- Ma W, Ma C, Li X, Zhang Y. 2016. Examining the effect of gene reduction in miR-95 and enhanced radiosensitivity in non-small cell lung cancer. *Cancer Gene Ther* 23:66–71. [PubMed: 26915403]
- MacCuaig WM, Fouts BL, McNally MW, Grizzle WE, Chuong P, Samykutty A, Mukherjee P, Li M, Jasinski JB, Behkam B, McNally LR. 2021. Active targeting significantly outperforms nanoparticle size in facilitating tumor-specific uptake in orthotopic pancreatic cancer. *ACS Appl. Mater. Interf* 13: 49614–49630.
- MacFarlane L-A, R Murphy P. 2010. MicroRNA: biogenesis, function and role in cancer. *Curr Genom* 11:537–561.
- Martin DN, Boersma BJ, Yi M, Reimers M, Howe TM, Yfantis HG, Tsai YC, Williams EH, Lee DH, Stephens RM. 2009. Differences in the tumor microenvironment between African American and European American breast cancer patients. *PLoS One* 4(2):e4531–e4531. [PubMed: 19225562]
- Masuda N, Ohnishi T, Kawamoto S, Monden M, Okubo K. 1999. Analysis of chemical modification of RNA from formalin-fixed samples and optimization of molecular biology applications for such samples. *Nucl Acids Res* 27:4436–4443. [PubMed: 10536153]
- McNally LR, Manne U, Grizzle WE. 2013. Post-transcriptional processing of genetic information and its relation to cancer. *Biotech Histochem* 88:365–372. [PubMed: 23286224]
- Mestdagh P, Feys T, Bernard N, Guenther S, Chen C, Speleman F, Vandesompele J. 2008. High-throughput stem-loop RT-qPCR miRNA expression profiling using minute amounts of input RNA. *Nucl Acids Res* 36:e143–e143. [PubMed: 18940866]
- Miller B, Chalfant H, Thomas A, Wellberg E, Henson C, McNally MW, Grizzle WE, Jain A, McNally LR. 2021 Diabetes, obesity, and inflammation: impact on clinical and radiographic features of breast cancer. *Int J Mol Sci* 22:2757 [PubMed: 33803201]
- Morris GJ, Mitchell EP. 2008. Higher incidence of aggressive breast cancers in African American women: a review. *J Natl Med Assoc* 100:698–702. [PubMed: 18595572]
- Naguibneva I, Ameyar-Zazoua M, Poleskaya A, Ait-Si-Ali S, Groisman R, Souidi M, Cuvellier S, Harel-Bellan A. 2006. The microRNA miR-181 targets the homeobox protein Hox-A11 during mammalian myoblast differentiation. *Nat Cell Biol* 8:278–284. [PubMed: 16489342]
- Okabe Y, Medzhitov R. 2016. Tissue biology perspective on macrophages. *Nat Immunol* 17:9–17. [PubMed: 26681457]
- Ooi SL, Martinez ME, Li CI. 2011. Disparities in breast cancer characteristics and outcomes by race/ethnicity. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 127:729–738. [PubMed: 21076864]
- Ritter B, Gretten FR. 2019. Modulating inflammation for cancer therapy. *J Exp Med* 216:1234–1243. [PubMed: 31023715]
- Shi XB, Tepper CG, White RW. 2008. MicroRNAs and prostate cancer. *J Cell Mol Med* 12:1456–1465. [PubMed: 18624768]
- Sochor M, Basova P, Pesta M, Dusilkova N, Bartos J, Burda P, Pospisil V, Stopka T. 2014. Oncogenic microRNAs: miR-155, miR-19a, miR-181b, and miR-24 enable monitoring of early breast cancer in serum. *BioMed Cent Cancer* 14:448–448
- Song Q, Song J, Wang Q, Ma Y, Sun N, Ma J, Chen Q, Xia G, Huo Y, Yang L. 2016. miR-548d-3p/TP 53 BP 2 axis regulates the proliferation and apoptosis of breast cancer cells. *Cancer Med* 5:315–324. [PubMed: 26663100]
- Sonkoly E, Pivarcsi A. 2009. MicroRNAs in inflammation. *Int Rev Immunol* 28:535–561. [PubMed: 19954362]
- Theodore SC, Rhim JS, Turner T, Yates C. 2010. MiRNA 26a expression in a novel panel of African American prostate cancer cell lines. *Ethn Dis* 20(Suppl. 1):96–100.

- Srinivasan M, Sedmak D, Jewell S. 2002. Effect of fixatives and tissue processing on the content and integrity of nucleic acids. *Am J Pathol* 161:1961–1971. [PubMed: 12466110]
- Theodore SC, Davis M, Zhao F, Wang H, Chen D, Rhim J, Dean-Colomb W, Turner T, Ji W, Zeng G. 2014. MicroRNA profiling of novel African American and Caucasian prostate cancer cell lines reveals a reciprocal regulatory relationship of miR-152 and DNA methyltransferase 1. *Oncotarget* 5:3512–3525. [PubMed: 25004396]
- Thomas A, Rhoads A, Pinkerton E, Schroeder MC, Conway KM, Hundley WG, McNally LR, Oleson J, Lynch CF, Romitti PA. 2019. Incidence and survival among young women with stage I–III breast cancer: SEER 2000–2015. *J Natl Cancer Inst Cancer Spect* 3:pkz040
- Todoric J, Antonucci L, Karin M. 2016. Targeting inflammation in cancer prevention and therapy. *Cancer Prevent Res* 9:895–905.
- Trinchieri G. 2012. Cancer and inflammation: an old intuition with rapidly evolving new concepts. *Ann Rev Immunol* 30:677–706. [PubMed: 22224761]
- van Kampen JG, van Hooij O, Jansen CF, Smit FP, van Noort PI, Schultz I, Schaapveld RQ, Schalken JA, Verhaegh GW. 2017. miRNA-520f reverses epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition by targeting ADAM9 and TGFBR2. *Cancer Res* 77:2008–2017. [PubMed: 28209612]
- Wallace TA, Prueitt RL, Yi M, Howe TM, Gillespie JW, Yfantis HG, Stephens RM, Caporaso NE, Loffredo CA, Ambs S. 2008. Tumor immunobiological differences in prostate cancer between African American and European American men. *Cancer Res* 68:927–936. [PubMed: 18245496]
- Wang B-D, Ceniccola K, Yang Q, Andrawis R, Patel V, Ji Y, Rhim J, Olender J, Popratiloff A, Latham P. 2015. Identification and functional validation of reciprocal microRNA-mRNA pairings in African American prostate cancer disparities. *Clin Cancer Res* 21:4970–4984. [PubMed: 26089375]
- Wang F, Li T, Zhang B, Li H, Wu Q, Yang L, Nie Y, Wu K, Shi Y, Fan D. 2013. MicroRNA-19a/b regulates multidrug resistance in human gastric cancer cells by targeting PTEN. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 434:688–694. [PubMed: 23603256]
- Wang S, Wang L, Zhu T, Gao X, Li J, Wu Y, Zhu H. 2010. Improvement of tissue preparation for laser capture microdissection: application for cell type-specific miRNA expression profiling in colorectal tumors. *BioMed Cent Genom* 11:163.
- Wei Z-J, Tao M-L, Zhang W, Han G-D, Zhu Z-C, Miao Z-G, Li J-Y, Qiao Z-B. 2015. Up-regulation of microRNA-302a inhibited the proliferation and invasion of colorectal cancer cells by regulation of the MAPK and PI3K/Akt signaling pathways. *Int J Clin Exp Pathol* 8:4481–4491. [PubMed: 26191138]
- Wu F, Zikusoka M, Trindade A, Dassopoulos T, Harris ML, Bayless TM, Brant SR, Chakravarti S, Kwon JH. 2008. MicroRNAs are differentially expressed in ulcerative colitis and alter expression of macrophage inflammatory peptide-2 α . *Gastroenterology* 135:1624–1635. [PubMed: 18835392]
- Xiao J, Li G, Zhou J, Wang S, Liu D, Shu G, Zhou J, Ren F. 2018. MicroRNA-520b functions as a tumor suppressor in colorectal cancer by inhibiting defective in cullin neddylation 1 domain containing 1 (DCUN1D1). *Oncol Res Preclin Clin Cancer Ther* 26:593–604.
- Xu X-M, Wang X-B, Chen M-M, Liu T, Li Y-X, Jia W-H, Liu M, Li X, Tang H. 2012. MicroRNA-19a and-19b regulate cervical carcinoma cell proliferation and invasion by targeting CUL5. *Cancer Lett* 322:148–158. [PubMed: 22561557]
- Yan-Chun L, Hong-Mei Y, Zhi-Hong C, Qing H, Yan-Hong Z, Ji-Fang W. 2017. MicroRNA-192–5p promote the proliferation and metastasis of hepatocellular carcinoma cell by targeting SEMA3A. *Appl Immunohistochem Mol Morphol* 25:251–260. [PubMed: 26580097]
- Yang X-D, Xu X-H, Zhang S-Y, Wu Y, Xing C-G, Ru G, Xu H-T, Cao J-P. 2015. Role of miR-100 in the radio resistance of colorectal cancer cells. *Am J Cancer Res* 5:545–559. [PubMed: 25973296]
- Zhang G-M, Bao C-Y, Wan F-N, Cao D-L, Qin X-J, Zhang H-L, Zhu Y, Dai B, Shi G-H, Ye D-W. 2015. MicroRNA-302a suppresses tumor cell proliferation by inhibiting AKT in prostate cancer. *PLoS One* 10(4): e0124410. [PubMed: 25922934]
- Zhang W, Kong G, Zhang J, Wang T, Ye L, Zhang X. 2012. MicroRNA-520b inhibits growth of hepatoma cells by targeting MEKK2 and cyclin D1. *PloS One* 7(2): e31450. [PubMed: 22319632]

- Zhao G, Wang T, Huang Q-K, Pu M, Sun W, Zhang Z-C, Ling R, Tao K-S. 2016. MicroRNA- 548a-5p promotes proliferation and inhibits apoptosis in hepatocellular carcinoma cells by targeting Tg737. *World J Gastroenterol* 22:5364–5373. [PubMed: 27340352]
- Zhao L, Wang Y, Jiang L, He M, Bai X, Yu L, Wei M. 2016. MiR-302a/b/c/d cooperatively sensitizes breast cancer cells to adriamycin via suppressing P-glycoprotein (P-gp) by targeting MAP/ERK kinase 1 (MEK1). *J Exp Clin Cancer Res* 35:1–14. [PubMed: 26728266]
- Zhou X, Li X, Ye Y, Zhao K, Zhuang Y, Li Y, Wei Y, Wu M. 2014. MicroRNA-302b augments host defense to bacteria by regulating inflammatory responses via feedback to TLR/IRAK4 circuits. *Nat Commun* 5:1–14.
- Zhu L, Chen L, Shi C-M, Xu G-F, Xu L-L, Zhu L-L, Guo X-R, Ni Y, Cui Y, Ji C. 2014. MiR-335, an adipogenesis-related microRNA, is involved in adipose tissue inflammation. *Cell Biochem Biophys* 68:283–290. [PubMed: 23801157]

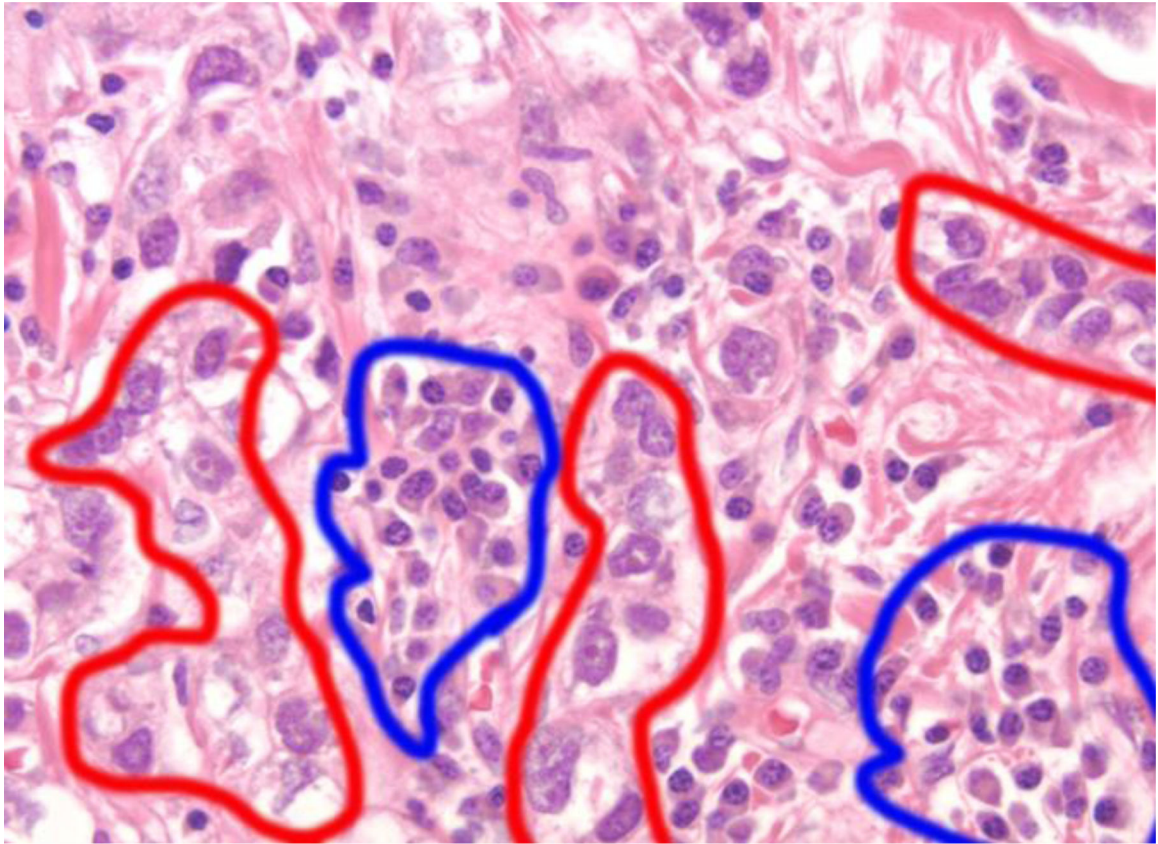


Figure 1. H & E staining of TNBC tissue isolated using laser capture microdissection. Cells outlined in blue are inflammatory cells; cells outlined in red are cancer cells as indicated by enlarged nuclei. 40X magnification.

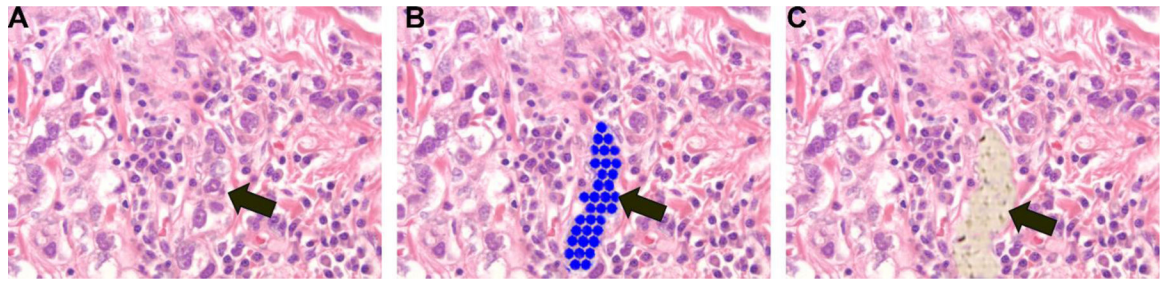


Figure 2.

TNBC tumor cells were identified and captured using laser capture microdissection. A) Visualization of initial TNBC tissue. B) Identification of TNBC tumor cells to be captured using LCM. Blue dots denote the area to be collected using LCM and identified with an arrow. C) Arrow shows the complete removal of the target area following microdissection. 40X magnification.

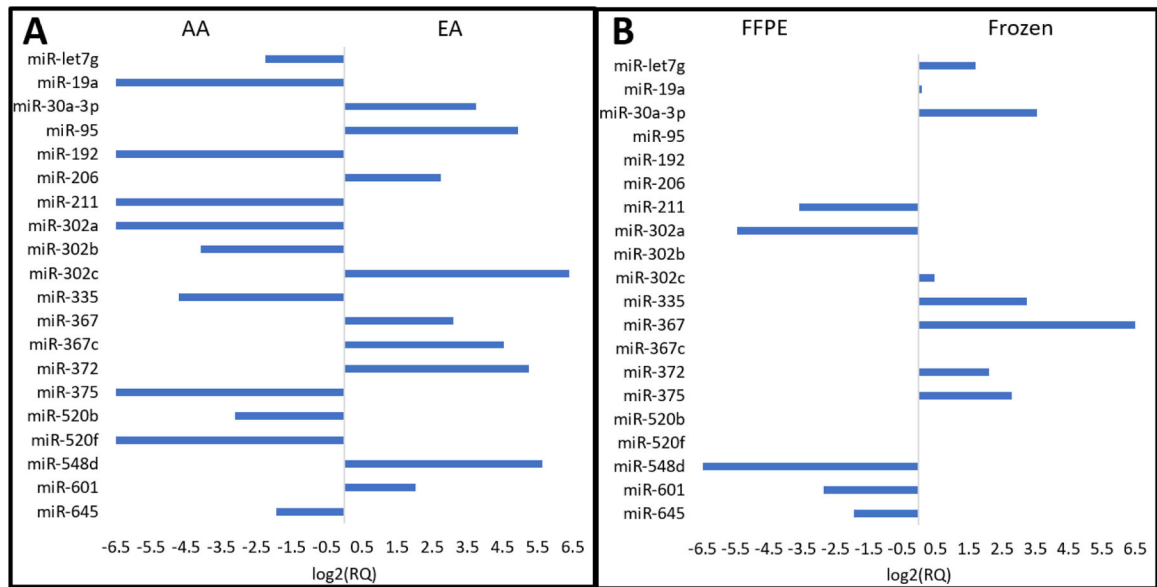


Figure 3.

Differential miRNA expression in tumor cells. A) AA patients compared to EA TNBC tumor cells that were preserved using FFPE. B) TNBC tumor cells preserved using formalin fixed, paraffin embedded sections were compared to frozen sections. Data compares method of fixation and contains both AA and EA samples. Selected miRNAs are listed from top to bottom: let7g, 19a, 30a-3p, 95, 192, 206, 211, 302a, 302b, 302c, 335, 367, 367c, 372, 275, 520b, 520f, 548d, 601 and 645. The length of the bar represents increased quantity of difference in miRNA expression.

Table 1.

Patient information.

Patient race	Histology	Stage	Age
AA	TNBC	IIB	42
AA	TNBC	IIB	56
AA	TNBC	IIIA	52
AA	TNBC	IIB	48
AA	TNBC	IIB	41
AA	TNBC	IIIA	50
AA	TNBC	IIB	48
AA	TNBC	IIB	46
AA	TNBC	IIIA	43
AA	TNBC	IIB	50
AA	TNBC	IIB	49
AA	TNBC	IIB	41
AA	TNBC	IIB	55
AA	TNBC	IIIA	52
AA	TNBC	IIB	43
EA	TNBC	IIB	44
EA	TNBC	IIIA	46
EA	TNBC	IIB	50
EA	TNBC	IIIA	51
EA	TNBC	IIB	40
EA	TNBC	IIB	58
EA	TNBC	IIB	50
EA	TNBC	IIB	43
EA	TNBC	IIIA	50
EA	TNBC	IIB	45
EA	TNBC	IIB	48
EA	TNBC	IIB	50
EA	TNBC	IIIA	49
EA	TNBC	IIB	47
EA	TNBC	IIIA	45

AA, African American; EA, European American; TNBC, triple negative breast cancer.