



Urinary MicroRNA-٩٦ and MicroRNA-١٢٦ as Diagnostic Biomarkers for Bladder Cancer Detection

Thesis

*Submitted for fulfillment for M.D. Degree in
Medical Biochemistry & Molecular Biology*

By

Hebat-Allah Emam Mohammed Ahmed

M.Sc

Faculty of Medicine - Benha University

Supervised by

Prof. Dr. Ahmed Hisham Attia

**Professor of Medical Biochemistry & Molecular Biology
Faculty of Medicine
Benha University**

Assistant Prof. Dr. Omnia Al-saied Abdullah

**Assistant Professor of Medical Biochemistry & Molecular Biology
Faculty of Medicine
Benha University**

Dr. Sania Khairy Eliwa

**Lecturer of Medical Biochemistry & Molecular Biology
Faculty of Medicine
Benha University**

Dr. Mohamed Abd El-Azeem Hassanien

**Lecturer of urology
Faculty of Medicine
Benha University**

٢٠٢١

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

وَفَعَلْنَا
أَعْمَلُوا
فَسِيرَى اللَّهِ عَمَلِكُمْ
وَرَسُولِهِ وَالْمُؤْمِنُونَ

صدق الله العظيم

سورة التوبة آية ١٠٥

لَا تَحْزَنْ

Acknowledgement

Before all, thanks God

Who gave me the power and strength to fulfill this work

I cannot express my gratitude to Prof. Dr. Ahmed Hisham Attia, Prof. of Medical Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University for his creative thinking, continuous supervision, valuable guidance, fruitful discussion of all results of this thesis and great support throughout this work.

I am deeply thankful and indebted to Prof. Dr. Omnia Al-saied Abdullah, Assistant Professor of Medical Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University for her precious advice, constructive guidance and valuable support.

I am deeply grateful to Dr. Mohamed Abd El-Azeem Hassanien, Lecturer in Urology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University. For his kind encouragement and support in carrying out the clinical part of the study.

I cannot find the appropriate words to show my appreciation to Dr. Sania Khairy Eliwa, Lecturer of Medical Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University. For her kind supervision, continues guidance, constant encouragement and unlimited support in carrying out the laboratory part of the study.

Finally, I would like to thank all the staff and members of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology Unit, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University who gave me all the facilities that help this work comes out.

LIST OF CONTENTS

| Title | Page |
|--|-------------|
| List of Tables | ii |
| List of Figures | v |
| List of Abbreviations | viii |
| Introduction | ١ |
| Aim of the Work | ٢ |
| Review of Literature | |
| Chapter (I): Bladder Cancer | ٣ |
| • Introduction | ٣ |
| • Epidemiology of bladder cancer | ٣ |
| • Risk factors of bladder cancer | ٣ |
| • Histopathology of bladder cancer | ٥ |
| • Diagnostic evaluation of bladder cancer | ٨ |
| • Treatment of bladder cancer | ١٤ |
| Chapter (II): MicroRNA ٩٦ and ١٢٦ | ٢٢ |
| • Definition of microRNA | ٢٥ |
| • Nomenclature | ٢٧ |
| • miRNA classification | ٢٨ |
| • Biogenesis of miRNAs | ٢٩ |
| • Mechanisms of miRNAs regulation | ٣١ |
| • Biological functions of miRNA | ٣١ |
| • miRNA and cancer | ٣٣ |
| • MicroRNA-٩٦ | ٣٥ |
| • MicroRNA-١٢٦ | |
| Chapter(III): Relationship between miR-٩٦, miR-١٢٦ and bladder cancer | ٣٩ |
| • miRNAs and bladder cancer | ٤٠ |
| • miR-٩٦ and bladder cancer | ٤١ |
| • miR-١٢٦ and bladder cancer | |
| Patients and Methods | ٤٣ |
| Results | ٥٠ |
| Discussion | ٩٢ |
| Conclusion | ٩٨ |
| Recommendations | ٩٩ |
| Summary | ١٠٠ |
| References | ١٠٣ |
| الملخص العربي | ١ |

LIST OF TABLES

| Table NO. | Table of review | page |
|---|---|------|
| ١. | TNM classification of urinary bladder cancer from The American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) Staging System | ١٠ |
| ٢. | Bladder cancer grading | ١٣ |
| Tables of patients & methods | | |
| ٣. | Volumes of miRNA and primers used for cDNA synthesis | ٤٧ |
| ٤. | Reaction setup for reverse transcription master mix preparation | ٤٨ |
| ٥. | Reaction setup for real-time PCR | ٤٩ |
| ٦. | Primer sequence of target and endogenous control genes | ٥٠ |
| Tables of results | | |
| ٧. | Comparison between the studied groups regarding age | ٥٢ |
| ٨. | Gender distribution among the studied groups | ٥٣ |
| ٩. | Comparison between bladder cancer group and control group regarding smoking | ٥٤ |
| ١٠. | Difference between bladder cancer group and control group regarding miR-٩٦ relative expression | ٥٥ |
| ١١. | Difference between bladder cancer group and control group regarding miR-١٢٦ relative expression | ٥٦ |
| ١٢. | Correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age in the studied groups | ٥٧ |
| ١٣. | Correlation between miR-١٢٦ relative expression and the age in the studied groups | ٥٩ |
| ١٤. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group | ٦٠ |
| ١٥. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group | ٦٢ |
| ١٦. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group | ٦٣ |
| ١٧. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group | ٦٤ |
| ١٨. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to that of non-smokers subjects in control group | ٦٥ |

| | | |
|-----|--|----|
| ١٩. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in smoker as compared to that of non-smoker subjects in the bladder cancer group | ٦٦ |
| ٢٠. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of smoker as compared to that of non-smoker subjects in control group | ٦٧ |
| ٢١. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of smoker as compared to that of non-smoker subjects in the bladder cancer group | ٦٨ |
| ٢٢. | Pathological data of bladder cancer group | ٦٩ |
| ٢٣. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to those with transitional cell carcinoma | ٧١ |
| ٢٤. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to those with transitional cell carcinoma | ٧٢ |
| ٢٥. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to those with non-muscle invasive tumors | ٧٣ |
| ٢٦. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to those with non-muscle invasive tumors | ٧٤ |
| ٢٧. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors | ٧٥ |
| ٢٨. | The mean \pm SD and test of significance of miR-٩٦ relative of patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors | ٧٥ |
| ٢٩. | Differences in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grades | ٧٦ |
| ٣٠. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors | ٧٧ |
| ٣١. | The mean \pm SD and test of significance of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors | ٧٩ |
| ٣٢. | Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with moderately differentiated tumors | ٧٩ |
| ٣٣. | Differences in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grades | ٨٠ |
| ٣٤. | Pearson correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and miR-١٢٦ relative expression in the studied samples | ٨١ |

| | | |
|-----|---|----|
| ۳۵. | Cutoff value, Sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of miR-۹۶ | ۸۳ |
| ۳۶. | Cutoff value, Sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of miR-۱۲۶ | ۸۴ |
| ۳۷. | Cutoff, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of combined miR-۹۶ and miR-۱۲۶ | ۸۵ |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure NO. | Figures of review | Page |
|---------------------------|--|------|
| ١. | Number of new BC cases in Egypt in both sexes and all ages | ٤ |
| ٢. | Illustration of the bladder composition and tumor invasion by stage. Adapted from (Magers et al., ٢٠١٩) | ١١ |
| ٣. | Field of pTa G _٢ bladder tumor with photodynamic diagnosis (right) versus white light cystoscopy (left) | ١٦ |
| ٤. | Field of pTa G _٢ bladder tumor with narrow-band imaging (right) versus white light cystoscopy (left) | ١٧ |
| ٥. | Nomenclature of miRNA | ٢٧ |
| ٦. | Biogenesis of miRNA | ٢٩ |
| ٧. | MiR-١٢٦, miR ١٢٦* and putative protein sequence of EGFL ^٧ | ٣٨ |
| Figures of results | | |
| ٨. | Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding age | ٥٢ |
| ٩. | Gender distribution among the studied groups | ٥٣ |
| ١٠. | Comparison between the studied groups regarding smoking | ٥٤ |
| ١١. | Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding miR-٩٦ relative expression | ٥٥ |
| ١٢. | Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding miRNA-١٢٦ relative expression | ٥٦ |
| ١٣. | Correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age of control group | ٥٧ |
| ١٤. | Non-significant correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group | ٥٨ |
| ١٥. | Correlation between miR-١٢٦ relative expression and the age of control group | ٥٩ |
| ١٦. | Correlation between miR-١٢٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group | ٦٠ |
| ١٧. | Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding gender in control group | ٦١ |
| ١٨. | Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding gender in bladder cancer group | ٦٢ |
| ١٩. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding gender in control group | ٦٣ |
| ٢٠. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression | ٦٤ |

| | | |
|-----|---|----|
| | regarding gender in bladder cancer group | |
| ٢١. | Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding smoking in control group | ٦٥ |
| ٢٢. | Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding smoking in bladder cancer group | ٦٦ |
| ٢٣. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding smoking in control group | ٦٧ |
| ٢٤. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding smoking in bladder cancer group | ٦٨ |
| ٢٥. | Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor stage | ٦٩ |
| ٢٦. | Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade | ٧٠ |
| ٢٧. | Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor type | ٧٠ |
| ٢٨. | Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding tumor type | ٧١ |
| ٢٩. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding tumor type | ٧٢ |
| ٣٠. | Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ expression of patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to that of patients with non-muscle invasive tumors | ٧٣ |
| ٣١. | Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding tumor stage | ٧٤ |
| ٣٢. | Differences in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade | ٧٨ |
| ٣٣. | Differences in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade | ٧٩ |
| ٣٤. | Significant positive correlation between miR-٩٦ and miR-١٢٦ relative expression in the studied samples | ٨٣ |
| ٣٥. | ROC curve for Performance of miR-٩٦ in early detection of BC | ٨٤ |
| ٣٦. | ROC curve for Performance of miR-١٢٦ in early detection of BC | ٨٥ |
| ٣٧. | ROC curve for Performance of both miR-٩٦ and miR-١٢٦ in early detection of BC | ٨٧ |
| ٣٨. | ROC curve for Performance of combined miR-٩٦ and miR-١٢٦ in early detection of BC | ٨٨ |
| ٣٩. | Fold expression changes of the expression of the mi-١٢٦ | ٨٩ |
| ٤٠. | Fold expression changes of the expression of the miR- ٩٦ | ٩٠ |

| | | |
|------|--|----|
| ε ١. | Typical amplification plot of miR ^{٩٦} and GAPDH as reference gene. | ٩١ |
| ε ٢. | Typical amplification plot of miR ^{١٢٦} and GAPDH as reference gene | ٩٢ |

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

| Abbreviation | Full term |
|-------------------------|--|
| AJCC | American Joint Committee on Cancer |
| ALT | Alanine aminotransferase |
| AST | Aspartate aminotransferase |
| BC | Bladder cancer |
| BCG | Bacillus Calmette-Guerin |
| CBC | Complete Blood Count |
| CIS | Carcinoma in situ |
| CLL | Chronic lymphocytic leukemia |
| CSS | Cancer specific survival |
| CT | Computerized tomography |
| CYFRA 21-1 | Cytokeratin 19 fragment |
| DNMT | DNA methyl transferases |
| EGFLV | Epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like domain V |
| ELISA | Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay |
| FDGPET/CT | Fluorodeoxyglucose -positron emission tomography |
| FISH | Fluorescence in situ hybridization |
| FOXO^α | Forkhead box O ^α |
| GC | Gemcitabine and cisplatin |
| GSTM1 | Glutathione-S-transferase genes |
| HA | Hyaluronic acid |
| HCC | Hepatocellular carcinoma |
| INR | International normalized ratio |
| IVP | Intravenous pyelograms |
| LOH | Loss of heterozygosity |
| LRC | Laparoscopic radical cystectomy |

| Abbreviation | Full term |
|-------------------------|--|
| MIBC | Muscle invasive bladder cancers |
| MRI | Magnetic resonance imaging |
| MSA | Microsatellite analysis |
| MVAC | Methotrexate, vinblastine, adriamycin, and cisplatin |
| NAC | Neoadjuvant chemotherapy |
| NATS | N-acetyltransferases |
| NBI | Narrow-band imaging |
| NMIBC | Non-muscle invasive bladder cancers |
| NMP₂₂ | Nuclear matrix protein ₂₂ |
| NSCLC | Non-small cell lung cancer |
| ORC | Open radical cystectomy |
| OS | Overall survival |
| PC | Prothrombin concentration |
| PCR | Polymerrase chain reaction |
| PDD | Photodynamic diagnosis |
| PTT | Partial thromboplastin time |
| PUNLMP | Urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential |
| qRT-PCR | Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction |
| RC | Radical cystectomy |
| RISC | RNA-induced silencing complex |
| RT-PCR | Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction |
| SCC | Squamous cell carcinoma |
| SD | Standard Deviation |
| TCC | Transitional cell carcinoma |
| TET | Ten- eleven translocation |

| Abbreviation | Full term |
|--------------------------------|--|
| TGF- β | Transforming growth factor- β |
| TNM | tumor-node-metastases |
| TUs | Transcription units |
| TURBT | Transurethral resection of the bladder tumor |
| UC | Urothelial carcinoma |
| UGT α | UDP-glycosyl transferases |
| UTR | Untranslated region |

Introduction

Bladder cancer (BC) represents a global health problem. It ranks ninth in worldwide cancer incidence (*Ploeg et al., 2009*). It is the fourth most common cancer in men (*Bray et al., 2014*). A lot of efforts have been devoted in bladder cancer field to find non-invasive, sensitive and specific molecular markers for bladder cancer (*Cheung et al., 2017*).

Numerous urinary markers have been investigated, with the aim of reducing frequency of cystoscopy (*Yutkin et al., 2010*). Several are commercially available, but none has been adopted into routine standard of care, owing to poor sensitivity and/or expense. These markers may serve as an adjunctive diagnostic test in cases where urine cytology is equivocal (*Cheung et al., 2017*).

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are endogenous, non-coding RNA molecules of about 22 nucleotides in length that regulate gene expression. They regulate their targeted messenger RNA (mRNA) by repressing mRNA translation and/or directing mRNA cleavage (*Brase et al., 2011*). A large number of studies have demonstrated that miRNAs are key regulators of a variety of fundamental biological processes such as development, cell proliferation, apoptosis, haematopoiesis and, importantly, tumorigenesis (*Huang et al., 2011*).

Many miRNAs were significantly upregulated or downregulated in bladder urothelial carcinoma compared to matched histologically normal urothelium. Most importantly, different cancer types, stages or differentiation states have unique miRNA expression profiles, suggesting that miRNAs play important roles in the initiation and progression of cancer (*Han et al., 2011*).

Aim of The Work

This study was designed to:

- ✓ Clarify the role of miR-96 and miR-126 in bladder cancer as non-invasive diagnostic urinary biomarkers and determine their expression in relation to various clinico-pathological parameters in bladder cancer.
- ✓ Determine the relationship between the expression of miR-96 and miR-126.

Literature Review

Chapter (I): Bladder Cancer

Introduction:

Bladder cancer (BC) is one of the most prevalent urologic malignancies worldwide. It has been known that BC is a heterogeneous disease with a variable natural history; so, new markers are still needed in clinical practice either for better diagnosis and treatment (*Saginala et al., 2020*).

Currently, no molecular or genetic biomarkers are widely incorporated into routine clinical practice (*Davis et al., 2020*). However, better understanding of the molecular alterations in BC will provide the basis for incorporation of molecular and genetic biomarkers into clinical decision making to guide management. Clinical application of such novel molecular and genetic concepts is the fundamental base of introducing the era of precision medicine into patient care (*Davis et al., 2020*).

Incidence and epidemiology of bladder cancer:

Globally, Bladder cancer is among the top ten most common cancer types. It is considered the second most common malignancy of the genitourinary tract. For the year 2019, the American Cancer Society estimates 80,470 new bladder cancer cases in the United States, and 17,670 bladder cancer related deaths. It has been demonstrated that

urinary bladder cancer accounts for $>5\%$ of newly diagnosed tumors in European countries (*Siegel et al., 2018*).

It is the fourth most common cancer in men, occurring less frequently in women with respective incidence and mortality rates of 9,6 and 3,2 per 100,000 in men: about 4 times those of women globally. The incidence of urinary bladder cancer is increased in developed countries compared with less developed regions, accounting for 5% of all new cancer cases in the United States (*Bray et al., 2018*). BC prevalence increases with age. About 90% of bladder cancer occurs at age 60 years or older; whereas only 1,8% of bladder cancer is developed at age younger than 40 years (*Cumberbatch & Noon, 2019*).

in Egypt, Bladder cancer accounted for around 4,2% of all new cases of cancer discovered in 2018 and was reported to be the second most common malignancy following hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in males (*Ibrahim et al., 2018*). According to the report conducted by the Global Cancer Observatory in 2018, Egypt has been ranked among the top twenty countries with the highest incidence rates of bladder cancer. Moreover, Egypt and three countries in the Middle East-North Africa region, namely Lebanon, Turkey and Armenia, have reported the highest mortality rates for bladder cancer (*Global Cancer Data: GLOBOCAN 2018*).

Moreover, a varying pattern of bladder cancer has been observed throughout the years in Egypt. In the past (1920- 1990), squamous cell carcinoma was the most prevalent bladder due to the high infection rates (70-80%) with the blood fluke *Schistosoma hematobium* (*Khaled, 2013*).

However, this profile has been dramatically changed over the past 20 years due to the success in the control of Schistosomiasis through introduction of efficient anti-bilharzial drugs and public awareness campaigns to eradicate schistosomiasis, which subsequently has led to a significant decline in the incidence of squamous cell cancer (*Antoni et al., 2014*). Furthermore, the high prevalence of tobacco smoking in cigarettes and water pipe smoking increase the risk for developing transitional cell carcinoma (TCC), thus minimizing the differences between its features in Egypt and that in western countries (*Antoni et al., 2014*).

Approximately 40% of bladder cancer cases are non-muscle invasive bladder cancers (NMIBC), with roughly 20% of those progressing to muscle invasive bladder cancers (MIBC). Patients with NMIBC have very good survival outcomes, with a 5-year relative survival rate around 90%, but require long-term clinical management of the disease as they are prone to recurrence. On the other hand, patients with MIBC exhibit a more heterogeneous spread with 5-year relative survival rates ranging from 23% to 10%. (*Shah et al., 2011*).

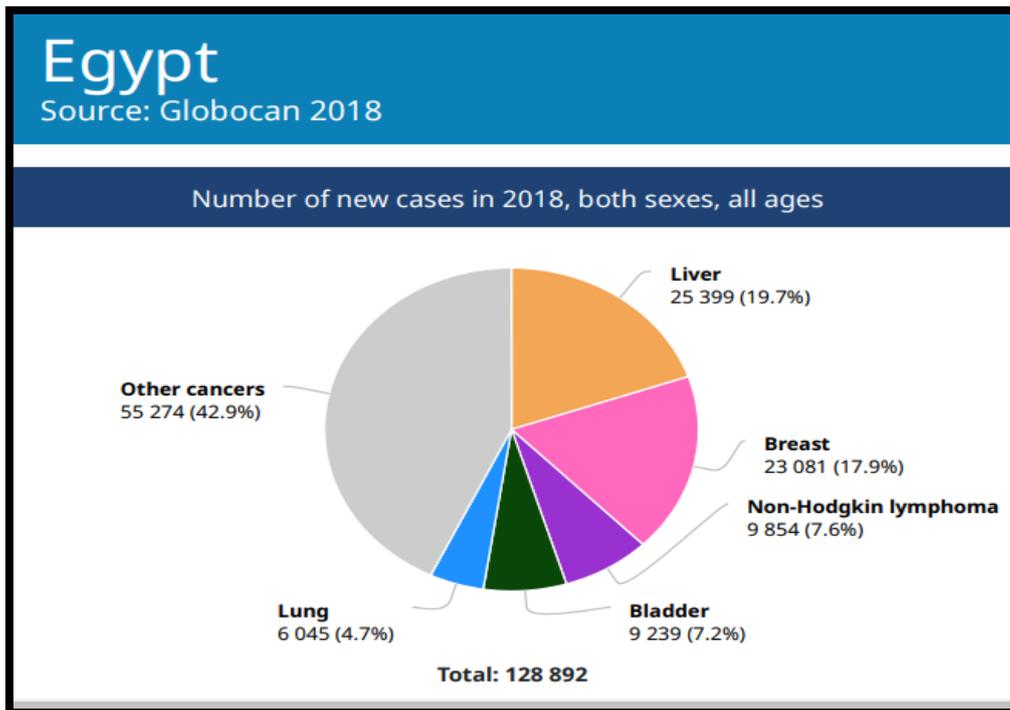


Figure (1): Number of new BC cases in Egypt in both sexes and all ages.
(Global Cancer Data: GLOBOCAN 2018)

Risk factors of bladder cancer:

Several factors have different impacts on the incidence and pathophysiology of BC. This phenomenon is called etiologic fraction or attributable risk (*Burger et al., 2013*). These factors include:

➤ Tobacco smoking

Tobacco smoking is considered the most well-established risk factor for BC, accounting for 50-60% of male cases and 20-30% of female cases (*van Osch et al., 2016*). The risk of BC development is increased with the number of cigarettes smoked per day and duration of smoking (*Gallaway et al., 2019*).

It has been stated that there is a significant association for both current and former smokers (*Gandini et al., 2004*). Moreover, an immediate decrease in the risk of BC was observed after smoking

cessation. 40% risk reduction within 1-5 years of smoking cessation and 70% after 20 years of smoke quitting (*Grotenhuis et al., 2010*).

Tobacco smoke contains aromatic amines, such as 2-naphthylamine, and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons known to cause BC. These are excreted via kidneys and exert a carcinogenic effect on the entire urinary system (*Burger et al., 2013*).

➤ Occupational exposure to chemicals

Occupational exposure is the second most important risk factor for BC. Work-related cases have accounted for 20-25% of all BC cases. The substances involved in chemical exposure include benzene derivatives and aryl amines (2-naphthylamine, o-toluidine, and 4,4'-methylenedianiline). These chemicals present in occupations in which dyes, rubbers, textiles, paints, leathers, and chemicals are used (*Daneshmand et al., 2014*).

After 10 years or more of occupational exposure to carcinogenic aromatic amines, the risk of BC is significantly elevated; the mean latency period usually exceeds 30 years (*Harling et al., 2010*).

The chemicals involved have contributed minimally to the current BC incidence in Western countries because of awareness and strict regulations. Population-based studies have revealed that the occupational factors for BC in men is 40%, whereas no such attribution has been established in women (*Ramsden et al., 2011*).

➤ Dietary factors

Many dietary factors have been considered to be related to BC; however, the links remain controversial. Several studies have shown a positive relationship between the western dietary pattern and the risk of BC. Moreover, there are an inverse association between dietary intake of

flavonols and lignans and the risk of BC, especially aggressive tumors (*Xiao et al.*, ۲۰۱۷).

➤ Bladder schistosomiasis and chronic urinary tract infection

For many years, squamous cell carcinoma (SCC) of the urinary bladder has been known to be associated with *Schistosoma haematobium* infection (*Ishida & Hsieh*, ۲۰۱۸), although a better control of the disease is decreasing the incidence of squamous carcinoma of the bladder in endemic zones such as Egypt (*Salem & Mahfouz*, ۲۰۱۲). *Haematobium* eggs are deposited in the urinary bladder wall inducing a granulomatous host immune response and chronic inflammation with accumulation of eosinophils, lymphocytes and macrophages around the eggs (*Moghadam & Nowroozi*, ۲۰۱۹).

In addition, they release some metabolites, such as estrogen like metabolites and novel compounds that derived directly from 8-oxo-dGTP (8-oxo-2'-deoxyguanosine (a product of DNA oxidation), that might act as potential bladder carcinogens (*Moghadam & Nowroozi*, ۲۰۱۹).

➤ Medical conditions

Bladder cancer may occur as a consequence of exposure to ionizing radiation and many pharmaceutical agents (*Burger et al.*, ۲۰۱۳).

long-term use of cyclophosphamide, an alkylating agent mainly applied in lymphoma and leukemia, may increase BC incidence. Also, long-term use of Pioglitazone, an antidiabetic drug of the thiazolidinedione class has a weak relation to BC incidence (*Cumberbatch & Noon*, ۲۰۱۹).

In addition, it has been found that exposure to radiotherapy for prostate, ovary and testis cancer treatment lead to developing second malignancies of the bladder (*Cumberbatch & Noon*, ۲۰۱۹).

➤ Genetic factors

There is increasing evidence that there is a correlation between genetic susceptibility factors and family associations and the incidence of BC. It was found that family history of cancer in first-degree relatives was associated with an increased risk of BC; the association being stronger among younger patients (*Burger et al., 2013*).

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of BC identified several susceptibility loci associated with BC risk. Polymorphisms in two carcinogen-metabolizing genes, N-acetyltransferases (NATS) and glutathione-S-transferase genes (GSTM1), have been related to BC risk, and furthermore they have demonstrated, together with UDP-glycosyl transferase (UGT1A1), to confer additional risk to exposure of carcinogens such as tobacco smoking (*García-Closas et al., 2009*).

Histopathology of bladder cancer:

➤ Major pathologic subtypes:

Bladder cancer is a malignancy of the urinary bladder lining. The most common type of bladder cancer is urothelial carcinoma (UC), formerly known as transitional cell carcinoma (TCC), which develops in the innermost cells (*Yaxley, 2016*).

UC is presented in male more than female cases and occurs at older ages (more than 60 years) than SCC. It accounts for more than 90% of bladder malignancies in industrialized countries as USA but for less than 10% of cases in Southeast Asia and <10% in some areas of Africa (*Alderson et al., 2020*).

Other types of bladder cancer include squamous cell carcinoma (SCC), which accounts for 2-5% of the bladder cancer cases. Less common types of bladder cancer include adenocarcinoma (secretory cell carcinoma), small-cell carcinoma, lymphoma, and sarcoma (*Felix et al., 2014*).

About 70% of the patients present with non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer (NMIBC) at the time of diagnosis. It is defined as disease confined to the mucosa (stage Ta and Cancer in situ (CIS)) or submucosa (stage T1). Although these three types of lesions indeed are non-muscle-invasive, T1 and CIS lesions are distinct from Ta lesions since they have a high potential to become invasive (~10% of CIS lesions progress if left untreated). Thus, accurate histopathologic assessment and diagnosis is crucial for correct clinical management which differs drastically between Muscle-invasive bladder cancer (MIBC) and NMIBC (*Bray et al., 2014*).

➤ **Staging:**

The most widely used and universally accepted staging system is the tumor-node-metastases (TNM) system as detailed in Table I (*Witjes et al., 2011*).

Table (1): TNM classification of urinary bladder cancer from The American Joint Committee on Cancer (AJCC) Staging System (8th edition, 2017)

| T - Primary Tumor | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| Tx | Primary tumor cannot be assessed |
| T0 | No evidence of primary tumor |
| Ta | Non-invasive papillary carcinoma |

| | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| Tis | Carcinoma in situ: “flat tumor” |
| T ¹ | Tumor invades subepithelial connective tissue |
| T ² | Tumor invades muscle |
| T ² _a | Tumor invades superficial muscle (inner half) |
| T ² _b | Tumor invades deep muscle (outer half) |
| T ³ | Tumor invades perivesical tissue |
| T ³ _a | Microscopically |
| T ³ _b | macroscopically (extravesical mass) |
| T ⁴ | Tumor invades any of the following: prostate stroma, seminal vesicles, uterus, vagina, pelvic wall, abdominal wall |
| T ⁴ _a | Tumor invades prostate stroma, seminal vesicles, uterus, or vagina |
| T ⁴ _b | Tumor invades pelvic wall or abdominal wall |
| N - Regional Lymph Nodes | |
| N _x | Regional lymph nodes cannot be assessed |
| N ⁰ | No regional lymph-node metastasis |
| N ¹ | Metastasis in a single lymph node in the true pelvis (hypogastric, obturator, external iliac, or presacral) |
| N ² | Metastasis in multiple lymph nodes in the true pelvis (hypogastric, obturator, external iliac, or presacral) |
| N ³ | Metastasis in common iliac lymph node(s) |
| M – Distant Metastasis | |
| M ⁰ | No distant metastasis |
| M ¹ | Distant metastasis |

It should be emphasized that there are efforts to refine the subgrouping of patients in order to better predict the most suitable treatment for a given patient. Five new distinct MIBC subtypes (luminal-papillary, luminal infiltrated, luminal, basal/squamous, and neuronal) have been identified.

These subtypes do not necessarily reflect the histopathological appearance of BC, but are rather associated with specific pathway alterations and other biological features (*Witjes et al., 2021*).

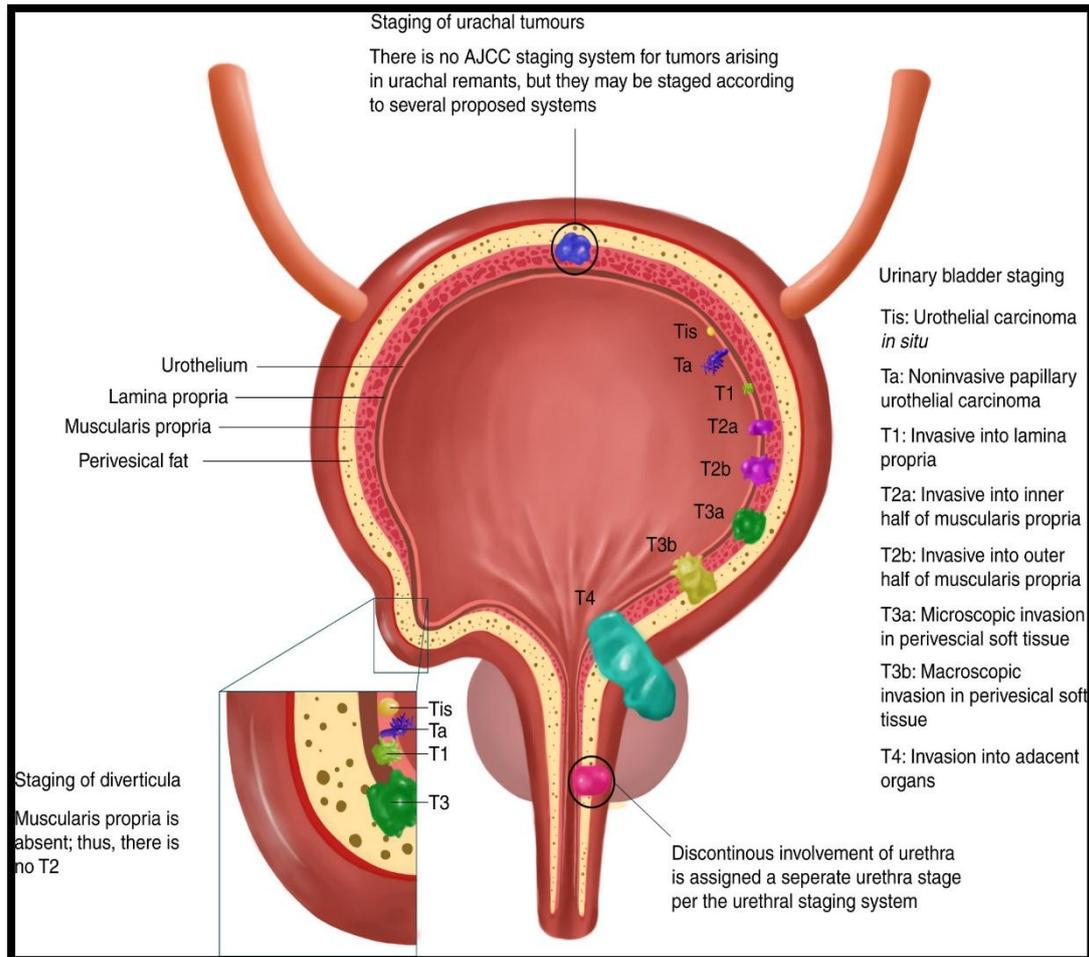


Figure (٢): Illustration of the bladder composition and tumor invasion by stage.
Adapted from (Magers et al., ٢٠١٩).

➤ **Tumor grading:**

The tumor is also given a histologic grade based on the degree of cellular atypia, growth pattern, and mitotic activity. The heterogeneous behavior of non-muscle invasive bladder tumors is main reason for the importance of grading in clinical decision-making. While the tumor stage is the most important factor for treatment selection, the grade of the

tumor reflects the inherent aggressiveness of the tumor (*Compérat et al., 2014*).

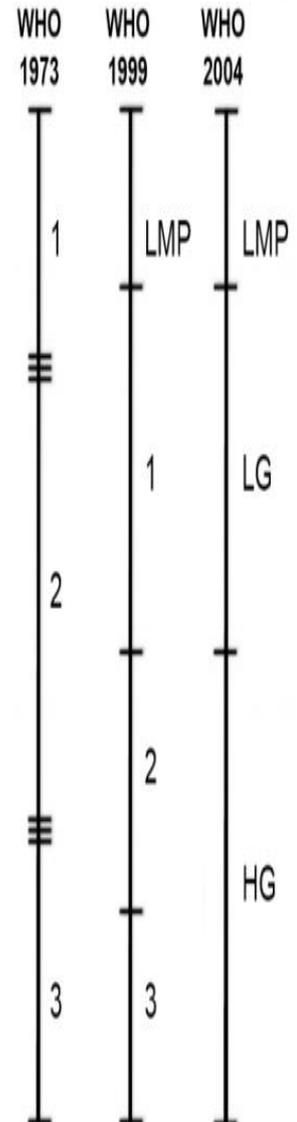
The most frequently used grading system is the WHO/ISUP 2004/2016 (International Society of Urological Pathology) grading system first proposed in 1998, and updated in 2004 and 2016. The WHO/ISUP system introduced the papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential (PUNLMP) category also used in the WHO 1999 system, but differs from the 1973 and 1999 systems by separating tumors into only two categories; low grade (LG) and high grade (HG), with “high grade” largely equating to those of grade 2 and 3 in the WHO 1999 system (*Soukup et al., 2017*). Comparisons of the 1973 and 2004 classification systems are shown in table (2).

| Table (2): Bladder cancer grading |
|-----------------------------------|
| <i>WHO 1973 grading</i> |
| Urothelial papilloma |
| Grade 1: (G1) Well differentiated |

| |
|---|
| Grade 2: (G2) Moderately differentiated |
| Grade 3: (G3) Poorly differentiated |
| WHO 1999 grading |
| Urothelial papilloma |
| Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential (PUNLMP) |
| Low-grade urothelial carcinoma, Grade 1 |
| High-grade urothelial carcinoma, Grade 2 |
| WHO 2004/2016 grading |
| Urothelial papilloma |
| Papillary urothelial neoplasm of low malignant potential (PUNLMP) |
| Low-grade papillary urothelial carcinoma |
| High-grade papillary urothelial carcinoma |

Diagnostic evaluation of BC:

1. Clinical



picture

The main clinical presentation in bladder cancer is intermittent or persistent hematuria. 98,3% of patients present with macroscopic and 13,7% of them present with microscopic hematuria (*Ramirez et al., 2016*). Patients with macroscopic hematuria usually suffered from advanced pathological stage. Unfortunately, many patients with microscopic hematuria suffer from inadequate evaluation especially in the absence of active BC screening (*Elias et al., 2010*).

The second most common presentation in BC patients is that of a symptom complex of bladder irritability and urinary frequency, urgency and dysuria. These symptoms are usually associated with diffuse

carcinoma in situ (CIS) or invasive bladder cancer (*Anastasiadis & de Reijke, 2012*).

Other uncommon symptoms include flank pain caused by ureteral obstruction, lower extremity edema and a palpable pelvic mass. Very rarely, patients present with symptoms of advanced disease, such as loss of weight and abdominal or bone pain from distant metastases. However, these symptoms almost occur with microscopic or macroscopic hematuria (*Anastasiadis & de Reijke, 2012*).

Physical examination includes rectal and vaginal bimanual palpation. A palpable pelvic mass can be found in patients with locally advanced tumors. In addition, bimanual examination under anesthesia should be carried out before and after transurethral resection of the bladder tumor (TURB), to assess whether there is a palpable mass or if the tumor is fixed to the pelvic wall (*Özbir et al., 2014*).

There is discrepancy between bimanual clinical examination and pathological (pT) stage after cystectomy (11% clinical overstaging and 31% clinical understaging), so some caution is suggested with the interpretation of bimanual examination (*Özbir et al., 2014*).

2. Investigations:

A. Cytology: Urine cytology is an essential modality for the detection of urothelial neoplasia. It has long been known that urine cytology is accurate in the diagnosis of high-grade urothelial carcinoma. However, it carries a much lower diagnostic yield for low-grade urothelial neoplastic lesions (*Brimo et al., 2009*). Many studies have evaluated the accuracy of urine cytology in the detection of bladder cancer. Overall, the reported

sensitivity ranges from 20% to 97,3%; specificity ranges from 44% to 99,0% (*Brimo et al., 2009*).

B. Cystoscopy and biopsy: Conventional or white-light cystoscopy is the “gold standard” for the detection of bladder cancer. A disadvantage of conventional cystoscopy is the difficulty in detecting flat lesions such as carcinoma in situ (CIS) (*Zhu et al., 2019*). This has led to the development of newer technologies such as photodynamic diagnosis (PDD) and narrow-band imaging (NBI) cystoscopy (Cheung et al., 2013b).

- **Photodynamic diagnosis (PDD):** Photodynamic diagnosis or fluorescence cystoscopy aims to improve the visualization of bladder cancer based on cystoscopic detection of fluorescent signals from neoplastic tissue. This fluorescence is accomplished by the intravesical administration of photosensitizing agents α -aminolevulinic acid or its derivative hexaminolevulinate which cause selective accumulation of photoactive porphyrins in rapidly proliferating cells (e.g., tumor cells) (Figure 3) (*Cauberg et al., 2011*).

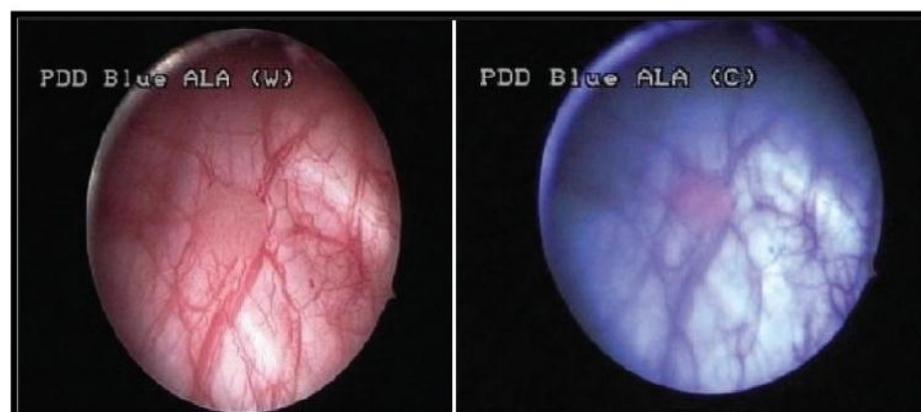


Figure (3): Field of pTa G₃ bladder tumor with photodynamic diagnosis (right) versus white light cystoscopy (left) (*Cauberg et al., 2011*).

- **Narrow-band imaging (NBI):** Narrow-band imaging is a straight forward optical technique designed for endoscopy to enhance the visualization of (sub) mucosal vessels. The working mechanism is based on the filtering of white light into two narrow bandwidths of light that are centered around 410 nm (blue light) and 690 nm (green light), which penetrate tissue only superficially and are specifically absorbed by hemoglobin (*Song et al., 2004*). Because bladder tumors tend to be well vascularised, narrow-band imaging will increase the contrast between these lesions and normal bladder mucosa (Figure 3) (*Cauberg et al., 2011*).



Figure (4): Field of pTa G¹ bladder tumor with narrow-band imaging (right) versus white light cystoscopy (left) (*Cauberg et al., 2011*).

C. Imaging: Ultrasonography is being used more frequently and is advantageous because it does not require contrast *agents* (*Jacobs et al., 2010*). Imaging with computerized tomography (CT) scan has essentially replaced intravenous pyelograms (IVP) in many centers. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) had been a reliable modality for patients with renal failure. CT scan and MRI may be used to determine the stage of bladder cancer; however, they are unable to accurately detect early

metastatic disease particularly in lymph nodes less than 10 mm (*Jacobs et al., 2010*).

D. Molecular markers: Numerous urinary markers have been investigated, with the aim of reducing frequency of cystoscopy (*Yutkin et al., 2010*). Several are commercially available, but none has been adopted into routine standard of care, owing to poor sensitivity and/or expense. These markers may serve as an adjunctive diagnostic test in cases where urine cytology is equivocal (*Cheung et al., 2013*).

- **Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH):** FISH can be used to detect urinary cells that have chromosomal abnormalities consistent with a diagnosis of bladder cancer. For example, The UroVysion Bladder Cancer Kit (UroVysion Kit) uses fluorescently labeled DNA probes to detect aneuploidy in chromosomes 3, 7, and 17 and loss of the 9p21 locus of the P16 tumor suppressor gene (*Cheung et al., 2013*).
- **Microsatellite analysis (MSA):** Microsatellites are highly polymorphic, short, tandem DNA repeats found in the human genome. Two types of microsatellite alterations can be found in many cancers: loss of heterozygosity (LOH), an allelic deletion, and somatic alteration of microsatellite repeat length (*Vrooman & Witjes, 2004*). In bladder cancer, most mutations are in the form of LOH. Microsatellite alterations in exfoliated urine are detected by a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) using DNA primers for a panel of known microsatellite markers (*Vrooman & Witjes, 2004*).
- **Immunocyte markers:** Immunocytology is based on the visualization of tumor associated antigens in urothelial carcinoma cells using monoclonal antibodies. Three fluorescently marked antibodies label

two mucin like proteins and a high molecular weight form of carcinoembryonic antigen. After this process the cells are examined under a fluorescent microscope (*Vrooman & Witjes, ۲۰۰۸*).

- **Telomerase:** Telomeres are repetitious sequences at the end of chromosomes that protect genetic stability during DNA replication. There is loss of telomeres during each cell division, which causes chromosomal instability and cellular senescence. Bladder cancer cells express telomerase, an enzyme that regenerates telomeres at the end of each DNA replication and therefore sets the cellular clock to immortality. Determination of telomerase activity is a PCR-based technology and must be performed in specialized laboratories (*Vrooman & Witjes, ۲۰۰۸*).
- **Bladder tumor antigen (BTA) BTA-TRAK™ and BTA-stat™:** BTA-TRAK and BTA-stat (Alidex Inc, Redmond, WA, USA) are both versions of the bladder tumor antigen assay that measures complement factor H-related protein in urine (*Vrooman & Witjes, ۲۰۰۸*).
- **Hyaluronic acid and hyaluronidase:** Hyaluronic acid (HA) is a glycosaminoglycan and a normal component of tissue matrices and body fluids. In tumor tissues, elevated HA is mostly localized to tumor stroma. In bladder carcinoma HA is found in tumor cells, and elevated HA levels have been shown in urinary samples of bladder cancer patients (*Lokeshwar et al., ۲۰۰۵*). The concentration of HA is also associated with tumor metastases (*Lokeshwar et al., ۲۰۰۵*). Hyaluronidase (HA-ase) is an enzyme that cleaves HA into fragments. HA-ase levels are elevated in bladder tumor tissue, and an increase is correlated with tumor grade (*Vrooman & Witjes, ۲۰۰۸*).

- **Nuclear matrix protein 22 (NMP22):** NMP22 is a nuclear matrix protein and is an important regulator of mitosis. In tumor cells the nuclear mitotic apparatus is elevated and NMP22 is released from cells in detectable levels (*Vrooman & Witjes, 2004*).
- **Cytokeratins:** Cytokeratins are intermediate filaments; their main function is to enable cells to withstand mechanical stress. In humans 20 different cytokeratin isotypes have been identified. Cytokeratins 18, 19, and 20 have been associated with bladder cancer. The Urinary Bladder Cancer test detects cytokeratin 18 and 19 fragments in urine (*Vrooman and Witjes, 2004*). Cytokeratin 19 fragment (CYFRA 21-1) is a soluble fragment of cytokeratin 19, is analyzed with Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA), and is measurable in serum and urine (Y. L. Huang et al., 2010).
- **Survivin:** Survivin is a member of the family of proteins that regulate cell death, the so-called inhibitor of apoptosis family. Its overexpression inhibits extrinsic and intrinsic pathways of apoptosis (*Moussa et al., 2004*). Survivin is expressed during fetal development but not in terminally differentiated adult tissues. However, it is one of the most commonly overexpressed genes in cancer. In bladder cancer, survivin is expressed in urine, and its expression is associated with disease recurrence, stage, progression and mortality (*Shariat et al., 2004*). Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) provides a diagnostic tool to detect surviving messenger RNA (mRNA) in urine (*Vrooman and Witjes, 2004*).

E. microRNA: microRNAs are receiving growing attention because of numerous reports on their dysregulation in human diseases and their potential as diagnostic and therapeutic targets. Because of their stability

and presence in almost all body fluids, miRNAs constitute a novel class of noninvasive biomarkers (*Brase et al.*, 2011).

Some miRNAs have been reported to be up-regulated in bladder cancer tissues. For example, miR-129 was the most commonly upregulated and its up-regulation was associated with poor outcome (*Dyrskjöt et al.*, 2009); the expression of miR-96 and miR-183 in urine were significantly correlated with tumor stage and grade, and their expressions were significantly decreased after radical surgery (*Yamada et al.*, 2011); miR-133b and miR-518c were also strongly up-regulated in bladder cancer tissues (*Dyrskjöt et al.*, 2009).

Meanwhile, some miRNAs were reported to be downregulated in cancer tissues and might function as tumor suppressors. miR-200 family members were lower in urine sediment of bladder cancer patients and increased significantly following surgery which suggested this microRNA family could be used as diagnostic and prognostic markers of bladder cancer (*Wang et al.*, 2012). These aberrant expression miRNAs in bladder cancer are attractive as potential biomarkers and new targets for bladder cancer therapy (*Feng et al.*, 2014).

F. Metastatic work-up: For invasive bladder tumors, metastatic evaluation should include chest radiography, liver function tests, and alkaline phosphatase (*Kirkali et al.*, 2008). Abdominal and pelvic imaging (MRI or CT) is not accurate for staging of the primary bladder tumor but may be useful when metastatic disease is suspected. A bone scan is unnecessary in all cases, but it should be performed in the presence of bone pain or elevated alkaline phosphatase (*Kirkali et al.*, 2008).

Briefly, the diagnostic work-up includes, but is not limited to, physical examination, imaging and transurethral resection of the bladder tumor (TURBT) with subsequent histological evaluation. In patients with confirmed MIBC, Computer tomography (CT) of the chest, abdomen and pelvis is currently used for staging due to yet insufficient data supporting advantages of FDGPET/CT (*Bray et al., 2014*).

Treatment of bladder cancer:

Because of the unpredictable disease course, high recurrence rate, and risk of progression, patients with bladder cancer require continuous, costly, follow-up monitoring which poses a burden both to the patient and the healthcare system. This makes bladder cancer one of the most expensive malignancies per patient (*Yeung et al., 2014*).

The tumor stage is closely related to patient outcome and is the crucial factor for treatment selection. For patients with stage Ta, Tis, and T₁ tumors the preferred treatment choice is local resection of the tumor, paired most commonly with intravesical immunotherapy in the form of Bacillus Calmette-Guerin (BCG) instillations or intravesical cytostatic chemotherapy using mitomycin C, a DNA crosslinking drug, or DNA intercalating agents such as epirubicin or pirarubicin (*Svatek et al., 2014*). Intravesical therapy is particularly well suited for NMI bladder cancers because of their superficial confinement as well as the anatomical properties of the bladder, and aims to reduce the risk of recurrence and progression (*Svatek et al., 2014*). Chemotherapy has been shown to significantly reduce the rate of recurrences, but shows little effect on the rate of progression (*Sylvester et al., 2017*).

BCG was developed as a live attenuated vaccine against tuberculosis in the beginning of the 20th century. In the 1930s it was noted that tuberculosis patients had a lower cancer incidence (*Alhunaidi & Zlotta, 2019*), and BCG was proposed as a potential cancer therapy. The first use of BCG for the treatment of bladder cancer was reported in 1976 (*Morales et al., 1976*).

Intravesical chemotherapy and BCG both significantly reduces the rate of tumor recurrences, but the reduction is greater with the use of BCG. BCG also has the advantage of reducing the rate of disease progression, and is considered the superior treatment of choice both for high and intermediate risk NMI bladder cancer (*Spencer et al., 2013*). The use of BCG is primarily limited by the eligibility of the patients due to toxicity, underutilization by clinicians, as well as a recent supply shortage associated with its production (*Mostafid et al., 2019*).

The mode of action of BCG immunotherapy is complex and not fully understood, depending on molecular interactions between the patient, the immune system, and the tumor (*Redelman-Sidi et al., 2014*). While BCG is effective, the treatment fails in up to 30-40% of patients (*Nepple et al., 2010*). It has been reported that the survival rate for patients progressing from NMI to muscle invasive disease may be worse than for patients with MIBC without a history of NMIBC (*Van Den Bosch & Witjes, 2011*).

The most appropriate treatment method for high risk T₁ and operable primary or progressed muscle invasive tumors (stage \geq T₂) is radical cystectomy (RC). This is a surgery with curative intent involving removal of the urinary bladder and pelvic lymphadenectomy, and is

always accompanied by prostatectomy in males or usually hysterectomy in females. If the patient is eligible, the cystectomy may be paired by systemic neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NAC) to target potential micrometastatic disease prior to surgery, which has been shown to provide a 8-11% increase in overall survival (OS) and a 9% increase in cancer specific survival (CSS) (*Yin et al., 2017*).

The chemotherapy mainly consists of cisplatin-based combination e.g. gemcitabine and cisplatin (GC), or methotrexate, vinblastine, adriamycin, and cisplatin (MVAC). These regimes are sometimes also used in the adjuvant setting (*Zargar et al., 2014*).

Open radical cystectomy (ORC) is the current gold-standard treatment for MIBC and for high-risk recurrent NMIBC. Ideally, all patients with MIBC should receive platinum-based neo-adjuvant chemotherapy (*Grossman et al., 2008*). The 5-year survival after cystectomy is about 50%. Advanced bladder cancer metastasizes to lymph nodes, bones, lungs or liver and these patients can be treated with cisplatin systemically (*Shah et al., 2011*).

ORC has a peri-operative complication rate of 20 to 62%. Therefore, minimally invasive techniques such as laparoscopic radical cystectomy (LRC) have been explored (*Cheung et al., 2013*). The advantages of LRC include decreased blood loss, reduced postoperative pain, early return of bowel function and shorter hospital stay (*Haber & Gill, 2007*). Furthermore, LRC has good early oncologic outcomes with low morbidity in large cohorts with up to 5 years follow up (*Shah et al., 2011*).

Chapter (II):

MicroRNA 96 and 126

Definition of microRNA(miRNA)

miRNAs are endogenous, non-coding short RNA molecules ~22 nucleotides (nt) long that are abundantly expressed across organs and species. They are considered to regulate the cleavage of target mRNAs or just repress their translation at posttranscriptional level.

According to miRNA Data base (*miRBase, www.mirbase.org*), December 2016, there are 2088 mature human miRNAs annotated as well as 1881 human precursor miRNAs. It is hypothesized that mature miRNAs regulate transcription of more than 60% of all protein coding genes (*Martinez et al., 2019*), and thereby regulate many developmental and cellular processes in the eukaryotic organism. It has to be taken into consideration that one miRNA can regulate and influence hundreds of mRNAs (*O'Brien et al., 2014*).

Discovery of miRNAs

Lee et al. (1993) discovered the first miRNA *lin-4* during a study of developmental timing in *Caenorhabditis elegans* (*C. elegans*). About few years later, a second miRNA *let-7* (*let-7*) was characterized (*Reinhart et al., 2000*).

These two discoveries of miRNA encouraged further studies on discovery of new miRNAs, and consequently a large class of small non-coding RNAs emerged with a diverse range of biological functions, such as temporal regulation of development, cell death and proliferation, hematopoiesis and tumorigenesis (*Kim & Bae, 2004*).

Over 2000 miRNAs have been identified in the human genome, which are thought to regulate more than 30% of the protein-coding genes (*MacFarlane & R. Murphy, 2010*).

Nomenclature

The name for a miRNA consists of the prefix “mir” followed by a dash and a number. The number indicates order of naming. For example, miR-123 was named and discovered prior to miR-456. The uncapitalized (r) in “mir-” refers to immature miRNA, while a capitalized (R) in “miR” refers to the mature form. miRNAs with nearly identical sequences except for one or two nucleotides are annotated with an additional lower case letter. For example, miR-123a is closely related to miR-123b. Precursor-miRNAs (pre-miRNA) that lead to 100% identical mature miRNAs but that are located at different places in the genome are indicated with an additional dash-number suffix (*Gonzalez et al., 2014*). For example, the premiRNAs mir-194-1 and mir-194-2 lead to an identical mature miRNA (miR-194) but are located in different regions of the genome (Figure 4) (*Gonzalez et al., 2014*).

Species of origin is designated with a three-letter prefix, e.g., *Homo sapien*-miR-123 is a human miRNA (hsa-miR-123) and *Ovis aries*-miR-123 is a sheep miRNA (oar-miR-123). Other common prefixes include 'v' for viral miRNA encoded by a viral genome and 'd' for *Drosophila* miRNA (for example d-mir-281 in *Drosophila*). When two mature microRNAs originate from opposite arms of the same premiRNA, they are denoted with a -3p (3' arm) or -5p (5' arm) suffix. In the past, this distinction was also made with 's' (sense) and 'as' (antisense) (*Griffiths-Jones et al., 2006*).

When relative expression levels are known, an asterisk following the name indicates a miRNA expressed at low levels relative to the miRNA in the opposite arm of a hairpin, for example, miR-123 and miR-123* would share a pre-miRNA hairpin, but more miR-123 would be found in the cell (*Griffiths-Jones et al., 2006*).

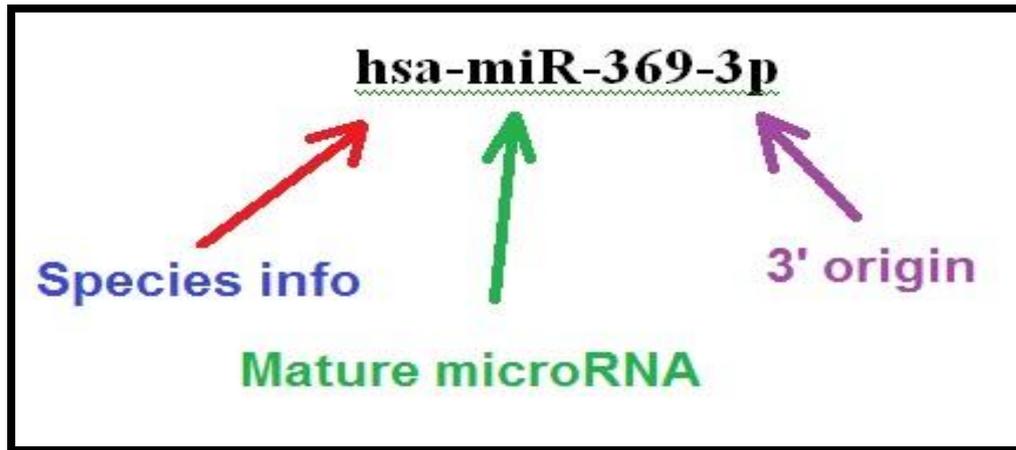


Figure (9): Nomenclature of miRNA

<http://blog-biosyn.com/2013/04/11/how-can-micrnas-be-described/>

miRNA classification:

According to genomic organization, miRNA genes can be classified as intergenic and intragenic miRNA gene. Intergenic miRNAs have independent transcription units (TUs), including promoter, transcript sequence, and terminator units, and they do not overlap with other genes (*Yang et al., 2012*). However, intragenic miRNAs are located within other TUs (host genes) within either intronic or exonic regions (*Olena & Patton, 2010*).

In addition, some miRNAs were located in both intergenic and intragenic regions and were denoted as mixed miRNAs (*Jiu et al., 2010*).

Biogenesis of miRNAs

MiRNAs can either be transcribed from specific genes or they can be expressed from introns of protein-coding genes. In Eukaryotes, miRNAs biogenesis begins when RNA polymerase II transcribes a primary product that is several thousand nucleotides long which contains stem-loop structures (pri-miRNA). Following transcription, cleavage of this pri-miRNA occurs in nucleus and pre-miRNA with a small hairpin structure is liberated. This step is performed by the nuclear RNase III-endonuclease Drosha (*Tétreault & De Guire, 2013*).

After its cleavage in nucleus, pre-miRNA is transported to the cytoplasm via a nucleo/cytoplasmic cargo transporter, Exportin-5, as demonstrated in Figure 1,13. Another RNase III-endonuclease located in cytosol, Dicer, cleaves the pre-miRNA hairpin structure into a small double-stranded RNA duplex that is made of a mature RNA strand and its complementary strand. These two strands are also termed as miR-5p and miR-3p (*Tétreault and De Guire, 2013*).

Upon cleavage, the double stranded duplex generated by Dicer is loaded into an AGO protein and RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) is formed. AGO proteins are part of the Argonaute family proteins. As the integral parts of the RISC complex, they bind to small non-coding RNAs and play role in RNA silencing as effector molecules. When the AGO protein associates with RNA duplex, the pre-RISC complex is formed. In pre-RISC, the complementary strand of the duplex is degraded and mature RISC is generated (*Ha & Kim, 2014*).

The RISC complex chooses the RNA strand with the lowest thermodynamic stability at its 5' end as the guide strand, while the complementary strand is often degraded. The guide strand leads RISC to its target (*Yamamoto et al., 2011*).

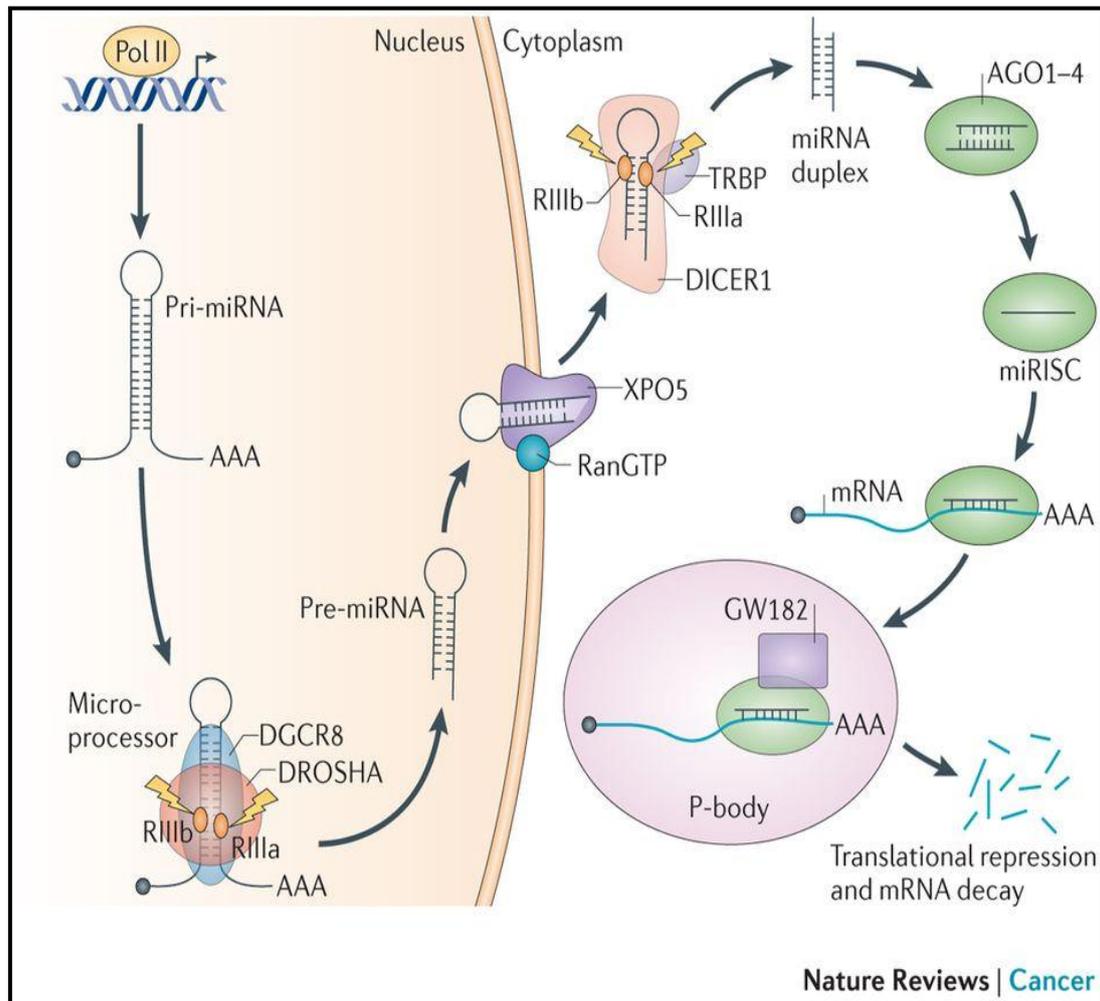


Figure (2): Biogenesis of miRNAs adopted from (Ha and Kim, 2014).

Mechanisms of miRNAs regulation:

Regulation of microRNA expression can be exerted through several mechanisms, which result to be altered in human diseases, including cancer: chromosomal abnormalities, as suggested by the

evidence that microRNAs are frequently located in regions of the genome involved in alterations in cancer (*Iorio & Croce, 2012*).

The deregulated microRNA expression in cancer can also be due to epigenetic changes, as altered DNA methylation. An extensive analysis of genomic sequences of miRNA genes have shown that approximately half of them are associated with CpG islands, suggesting that they could be subjected to this mechanism of regulation (*Weber et al., 2007*).

Several reports have indeed shown that aberrant methylation can result in aberrant miRNA expression in cancer. *Saito and colleagues (2009)* reported a strong upregulation of miR-127, a miRNA characterized by a CpG island promoter able to target the proto oncogene BCL-2, found silenced in several cancer cells. Hypermethylation and down-modulation of miR-9-1 has been described in breast cancer (*Lehmann et al., 2004*).

Conversely, upregulation of putative oncogenic miRNAs can result from DNA hypomethylation, as shown in lung adenocarcinoma or epithelial ovarian cancer for miR-21 (*Brueckner et al., 2007*). Methylation is not the only epigenetic modification that can affect miRNAs expression. *Scott et al., (2006)* showed that in breast carcinoma cells, an extensive and rapid alteration of miRNA levels followed histone deacetylase inhibition.

Finally, miRNA dysregulation can result from increased or decreased transcription activity of a transcription factor at the promoter. The miR-393a, miR-393b and miR-393c family of miRNAs, for instance, was shown to be directly induced by the tumor suppressor p53 and to be

partially responsible of the phenotype induced by this oncosuppressor (*Chang, 2004*).

Nevertheless, despite the advances in our understanding of the mechanisms causing miRNA deregulation, the daunting task still remains the elucidation of the biological role of miRNAs in the initiation and in the development of cancer (*Iorio and Croce, 2012*).

Biological functions of miRNA

MiRNAs were found to regulate gene expression by targeting mRNAs through sequence specific targeting, resulting in mRNA degradation or translational repression. The recognition of the target mRNA is based on the complementarity of seven to eight nucleotides at the 5'-end of the miRNA (seed sequence) to the specific motif along the 3'-untranslated sequence of the target mRNA (*O'Brien et al., 2014*). Perfect, or nearly perfect, complementarity can induce degradation of the mRNA, while imperfect base pairing can result in translational inhibition (*O'Brien et al., 2014*).

Translational repression occurs more frequently and is mediated by blocking the initiation step therefore affecting mRNA stability (*Guo et al., 2010*). MiRNAs have also been described as having decoy abilities, which is a less studied mechanism. In a decoy state, the miRNA would interfere with the function of proteins by preventing interaction between coordinating mRNAs (*Eiring et al., 2010*).

miRNA and cancer:

The dysregulation of miRNAs in cancer was first reported in 2002, with the discovery of miR-15 and miR-16 being frequently

deleted in chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) (*Almeida et al., 2011*). Since this discovery was made there have been several studies showing differential miRNA expression profiles in tumor versus normal tissues (*Almeida et al., 2011*).

MiRNAs have even been implicated in the initiation and progression of many cancers, suggesting that they play a key role in cancer biology (*Croce, 2009*).

Several studies have also shown that the overexpression of a single miRNA is sufficient to initiate tumor development (*Medina et al., 2010*). Deregulated miRNAs can also influence tumorigenesis by decreasing or increasing the inhibition of their mRNA targets, which has led to the identification of oncogenic miRNAs and tumor suppressive miRNAs (*Reinhart et al., 2000*).

Oncogenic miRNAs are often upregulated in tumor tissues and target tumor suppressor genes, while tumor suppressive miRNAs are frequently downregulated in cancer and target oncogenes. However, subsequent studies have shown that miRNAs are more complex and may have dual functions depending on tumor type or stage in progression. While miRNAs are thought to act on downstream signaling, they are often involved in feedback loops, causing the expression of miRNA families to be regulated by transcription factors (*Syeda et al., 2020*).

MiRNA expression can also be regulated by epigenetic modifications, as demonstrated by miRNA expression changes after exposing cells to DNA methylation inhibitors and histone deacetylase inhibitors (*Chuang & Jones, 2007*).

While epigenetic modifications can control miRNAs, miRNAs have also been implicated in controlling epigenetic changes. In cancer, miRNAs have been shown to play an important role in controlling

metastasis, which is one of the primary causes of cancer-related deaths. There are multiple steps involved in the metastatic process, in which miRNAs can either promote or inhibit metastasis (*Nicoloso et al.*, 2009).

For example, miRNA-10b has been shown to positively regulate migration and invasion, and is capable of initiating metastasis in mice by targeting repressors of metastasis (*Ma et al.*, 2009).

However, more miRNAs have been implicated in metastasis suppression, including miR-338, miR-126, miR-206, and the miR-200 family, by targeting transcription factors involved in metastasis initiation (*Gregory et al.*, 2008).

➤ **MicroRNA-96**

MiR-96 belongs to the miR-183 family (*Yang & Liu*, 2020). The coding sequence of miR-96 is located in chromatin 17q25.3, between two protein-coding regions. miRNA-96 is one member of the miR-183-96-182 cluster (*Zhu et al.*, 2019). miR-96 has been found to be upregulated in various human cancers such as breast, lung, liver, colon, prostate, ovary, testis cancer and lymphoma, suggesting the expression of miR-96 was associated with the progression of tumor (*Yang et al.*, 2019). It promotes the proliferation of esophageal cancer (*Xia et al.*, 2018), functions as a tumor suppressor gene in pancreatic cancer (*Huang et al.*, 2014), and promotes cell proliferation in prostate cancer cells. These results implied that miR-96 is an onco-miRNA and might be a potential target of gene therapy of some human cancers (*Abd-Aziz et al.*, 2020).

The target genes of miR-96 include the tumor suppressor genes *FOXO1* and *FOXO3a* in breast cancer (*Li et al.*, 2019) and other validated targets of miR-96 include *RECK* in esophageal cancer (*Xia et*

al., 2019), *EphrinA* in Hepatocellular carcinoma (*Wang et al.*, 2017), *SAMD* in non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) (*Wu et al.*, 2017).

Transforming growth factor β (TGF β) receptor signaling pathway plays a significant role during various biological processes, including cell proliferation, apoptosis, phenotype modification, and formation of neoplasms (*Seoane & Gomis*, 2014). Previous study identified that miR-96 is a key factor in metastatic prostate cancer in response to TGF β signaling (*Siu et al.*, 2019).

Forkhead box O3 (FOXO3, also known as FOXO3a) functions as a trigger for apoptosis through the upregulation of genes necessary for cell death (*Anderson et al.*, 1994). miR-96 has recently been found to directly bind to the 3'-untranslated region (UTR) of FOXO3 messenger RNA, which subsequently inhibits its function (*Wu et al.*, 2017).

The FOXO subfamily of forkhead transcription factors, including FOXO1, FOXO3a, FOXO4, and FOXO6 contains evolutionarily conserved transcriptional activators that are characterized by a highly conserved forkhead domain with a DNA-binding motif (*Y. Wang et al.*, 2014).

FOXO proteins play a pivotal role in biological processes, such as apoptosis, cell cycle control, differentiation, stress response, DNA damage repair, and glucose metabolism (*Farhan et al.*, 2014). Inhibition of the transcriptional activity of FOXO3a protein in human breast cancer cells can promote cell transformation and tumor progression (*Y. Jiang et al.*, 2013).

Furthermore, miR-96 represses neural induction from human embryonic stem cells, suggesting that miR-96 may play a role in the maintenance of pluripotency or the self-renewal of embryonic stem cells (*Du et al.*, 2013).

➤ **MicroRNA-126**

MicroRNA-126 originates from the precursor molecule pre-miR-126. Unlike many miRNAs, passenger strand of miR 126-3p, miR 126-5p (also shown as miR-126*) is not degraded (*Meister & Schmidt, 2010*).

The host gene of miR 126, epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like domain V (*EGFLV*) is located on chromosome 9q34.3 in humans. Along with the two miRNAs mentioned before, it encodes *EGFLV* that is highly conserved in vertebrates. The 41 kDA angiogenic factor *EGFLV* is specific to endothelial cells. It acts solely on endothelial cells, binds to components of the extracellular matrix and regulates blood vessel development via Notch signaling (*Chistiakov et al., 2017*).

Although miR-126 upregulation was reported to be associated with oxidative stress, the mechanism miR-126 upregulation is not clear (*Matsuzaki & Ochiya, 2014*).

In this context, aberrant promoter methylation is one of the mechanisms that regulate gene expression (*Cui et al., 2017*). DNA methyl transferases (DNMT1, DNMT3A and DNMT3B) in combination with the ten-eleven translocation (TET) family of proteins that catalyze demethylation, have been reported to regulate stress-induced miR-126 expression (*Gaetani et al., 2020*).

MiR-126 is up-regulated in embryonic stem cell- derived endothelial progenitor cells during embryonic developmental stages. In the embryogenic stage, for generation of initial vascular plexus, VEGF is

needed, and VEGF-driven angiogenesis is modulated by miR-126. The VEGF signaling suppressor molecules, Sprouty-related protein SPRED1 and phosphoinositol-3 kinase regulatory subunit 2 (PIK3R2) are targeted by miR-126 (*Fish et al., 2004*).

The inhibition of *Pik3r2* results in an up-regulation in angiopoietin-1, which functions as a proangiogenic signaling factor with a role in stabilizing and maturation processes of the vessels, which is normally down-regulated by PI3K/Akt signaling (*Jiang et al., 2009*).

MiR-126-3p is highly expressed in vascularized tissues such as heart, liver and lungs. Expression studies demonstrated its specific expression in the endothelial cell lineage, hematopoietic progenitor cells and endothelial cell lines (*Meister and Schmidt, 2001*).

Deletion of MiR-126 in mice (without altering *Egfl3* expression) results in major defects in blood vessel development, such as delays in angiogenesis, hemorrhage and early embryonic lethality (*Kuhnert et al., 2004*).

The observation of similar defects when studies were performed with loss of VEGF signaling in mice and zebrafish suggests that miR-126 modulates VEGF signaling. In endothelial cells, decreased phosphorylation of AKT and ERK1/2 in response to VEGF treatment was observed in knockdown of miR-126. MiR-126 targets PIK3R2 and SPRED1, the negative regulators of VEGF pathway (*Wu et al., 2009*).

In adults, the roles of miR-126 are quite different (*Chistiakov et al., 2016*). MiR-126 induces angiogenesis, as well as vascular tissue remodeling in response to vascular injury. It has been demonstrated by *Voellenkle et al.* (2012), under hypoxic conditions, the levels of miR-126 increase.

The protein sequence of EGFL γ is composed of a putative amino-terminal signal peptide domain, an Emilin-like domain (EMI) and γ centrally located EGF-like domains; the centrally located one for Notch receptor-ligand interactions and the distal one for Ca γ ²⁺-binding as can be seen in Figure 1, 16. These protein motifs are often found in secreted and extracellular matrix-bound proteins. EGFL γ expression is highest during embryogenic development while after birth expression is down regulated in the vascular system. In adults, significant protein levels are maintained only in vascularized tissues such as the lung, heart, kidney, spleen and uterus. In cases of physiological and pathological angiogenesis, increase in expression levels is observed (*Nichol & Stuhlmann, 2012*).

The role of EGFL γ in sprouting angiogenesis has been demonstrated by studies conducted on EGFL γ knock-out mice, in which endothelial cells without EGFL γ had impaired migration and created clumps and over-sized sprouts instead of proper vessel sprouts. These findings suggested that EGFL γ created an environment where cells can be properly positioned to construct new vessels. A study conducted by *Bill et al. (2014)* has provided a link between Notch signaling and EGFL γ by showing the binding of EGFL γ to NOTCH receptors. EGFL γ is suggested to compete with NOTCH ligands and inhibit NOTCH receptor activation, therefore affect angiogenesis (*Nikolic et al., 2010*).

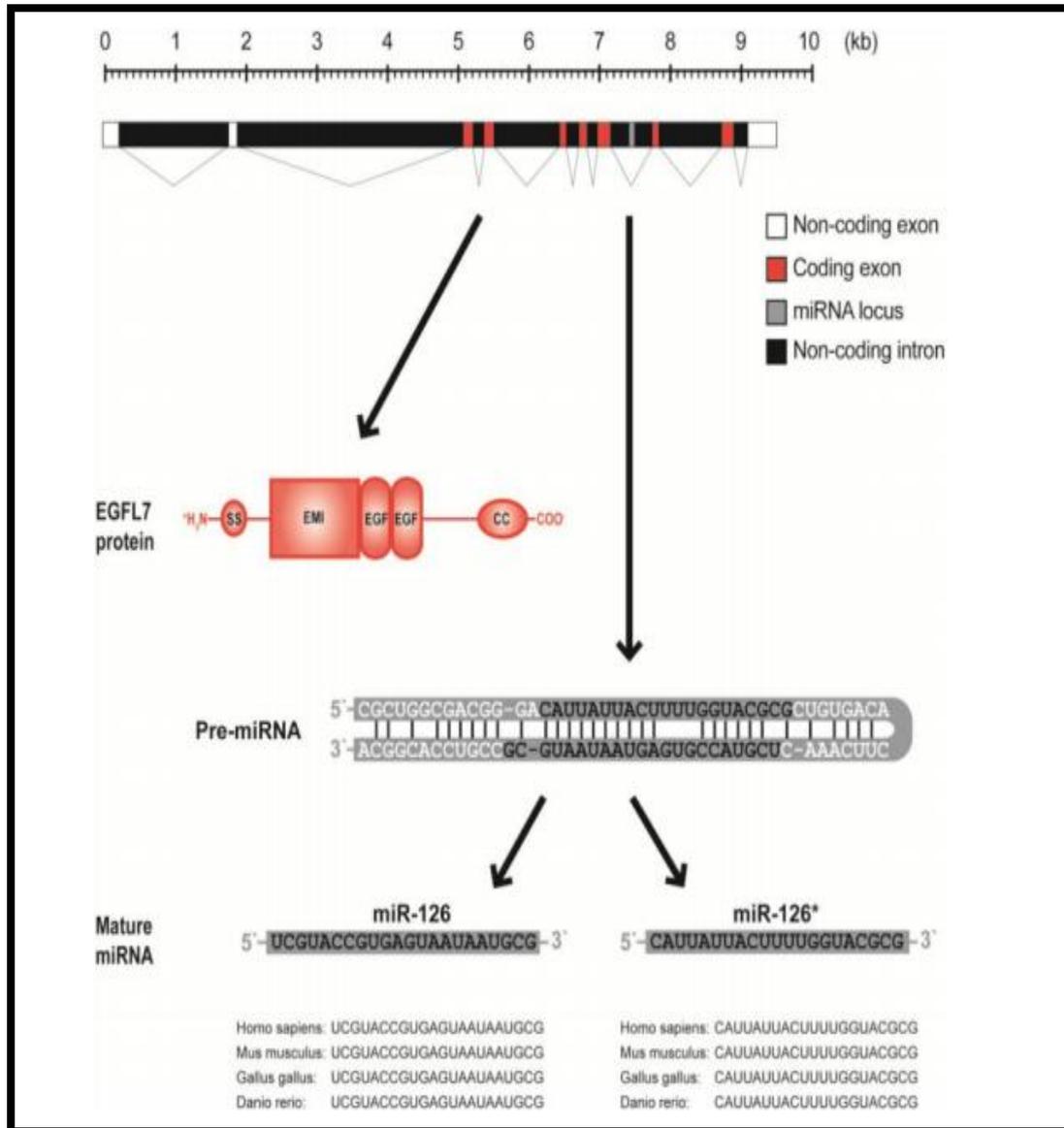


Figure (6): MiR-126, miR 126* and putative protein sequence of EGFL7
 (Meister and Schmidt, 2010)

Chapter (III):

Relationship between miR-96, miR-126 and bladder cancer

miRNAs and bladder cancer:

The first indication that miRNAs were deregulated in bladder cancer occurred in 2007, with the identification of 10 distinct miRNAs that were up-regulated in bladder cancer when compared to normal tissues (*Gottardo et al., 2007*). This study identified miR-223, miR-26b, miR-221, miR-103-1, miR-180, miR-23b, miR-203, miR-145-p, miR-23a, and miR-200 to be significantly overexpressed in bladder tumors (*Gottardo et al., 2007*).

Since this initial discovery, several large-scale experiments have identified differences in miRNA expression patterns across the different stages and grades of bladder cancer. Low grade bladder cancer have been shown to have downregulation of several miRNAs, while high-grade bladder cancer are often associated with upregulation of miRNAs (*Homami & Ghazi, 2016*).

Very few differences in miRNA expression were previously identified between high grade NMIBC and MIBC. While studies have identified differences in miRNA expression between NMIBC and MIBC, the reproducibility of these miRNA expression signatures has not been possible due to the heterogeneity of tumor specimens and research methods. The 90 majority of miRNA studies to date in bladder cancer consist of profiling experiments to compare miRNA expression profiles in normal bladder versus NMIBC or MIBC (*Guancial et al., 2014*).

miR-96 and bladder cancer

miR-96 is a conserved miRNA that may be involved in the occurrence and development of bladder cancer (*Wu et al., 2010*). Further research also demonstrated that miR-96 was highly expressed in bladder cancer tissue and the blood plasma obtained from patients with bladder cancer (*Kriebel et al., 2010*).

Yamada et al., 2011 confirmed that miR-96 expression in urine samples from bladder urothelial carcinoma was significantly increased compared with that from healthy subjects. Therefore, miR-96 is considered to be an important tumor diagnostic marker for bladder cancer. However, to the best of our knowledge, the influence of miR-96 on tumor cell biology and its mechanisms have not been reported previously.

It has been demonstrated that miR-96 was highly expressed in bladder cancer cell lines. miR-96 inhibition resulted in a number of anticancer effects on bladder cancer cells, including inhibition of proliferation and invasion, and promotion of apoptosis (*Xu et al., 2014*).

miR-126 and bladder cancer

The oncogenic roles of miR-126 have been well validated in bladder cancer, which could promote tumor growth and progression both *in vitro* (Xiao *et al.*, 2016) and *in vivo* experiments (Enokida *et al.*, 2016).

Previous studies demonstrated that aberrant miRNAs levels may be introduced as new biomarkers for early diagnosis and prognosis in bladder cancer (Yun *et al.*, 2017). MicroRNAs were frequently altered in most urologic cancers, playing significant roles as oncogenes or tumor suppressors, and miRs also target common pathways involved in the regulation of cell growth, proliferation, invasion, and apoptosis in bladder carcinogenesis (Mlcochova *et al.*, 2014).

The invasive potential of bladder cancer cells can be attenuated with increased miR-126 levels by mechanistically targeting disintegrin and metalloproteinase domain-containing protein (Jia *et al.*, 2014).

By synergistically targeting oncogenes (PI3KR2 and adaptor protein Crk) and tumor suppressors (*polo-like kinase 1*), miR-126 was shown to have an inhibitory effect on the growth of gastric cancer cell lines (Liu *et al.*, 2017). Mechanistically, silencing miR-126 may alter the activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway, suggesting an important regulatory role for miR-126 in PI3K/Akt pathway transduction, which is considered to play a major role in bladder carcinogenesis (Calderaro *et al.*, 2014).

However, most researchers detected the miRNAs level in tissue and blood samples (Mitash *et al.*, 2017). Considering that bladder cancer as a genitourinary tumor and the convenience of urine collections, we further examined whether urinary miRNAs detection can serve as a

diagnostic marker for bladder cancer, especially in patients with hematuria. findings on the detection of urine miR-126 level for predicting bladder cancer may provide new insights into the developing a new effective diagnostic and prognostic marker for bladder cancer, which can enlighten future researches and optimize the current management (*Mitash et al., 2014*).

Patients and methods

Patients:

This study was carried out between July 2018 and July 2020 after approval of the study scheme by the research ethical committee of Benha Faculty of Medicine and obtaining informed consent from the included subjects.

Sample size justification:

Using data of previous studies (*Wu et al, 2019*), setting the type-1 error (α) at 0.05, the power ($1-\beta$) at 0.8 and assuming a 5% dropout rate, the number of participants needed to produce a statistically acceptable figure is 50 participants.

Inclusion criteria:

The study included 50 subjects of both sex selected from Urology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University Hospital.

The subjects were categorized into 2 groups:

- A. **Bladder cancer group:** Included 30 patients, diagnosed as bladder cancer patients by clinical, radiological, cystoscopic and histopathological examinations.
- B. **Control group:** Included 20 persons, age and sex matched, with histopathologically normal urothelium.

Exclusion criteria:

Patients who had any cancer other than bladder cancer will be excluded from the study.

All patients were subjected to:

١. Full history taking with attention to:
 - a) Special habits including, tobacco smoking.
 - b) Urological symptoms including, dysuria, frequency and hematuria
٢. General and local urological examinations specially P/R.
٣. Investigations include:
 - Routine Laboratory investigations.
 - Radiological investigations:
 - Abdominopelvic plain X-ray.
 - Abdominopelvic ultrasonography to detect stone or mass in the urinary bladder.
 - Abdominopelvic CT for detection and staging of urinary bladder cancer.
٤. Diagnostic cystoscopy and biopsy for histopathology.
٥. Molecular biology investigations: Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) for detection of miRNAs expression levels (*Longo et al., ١٩٩٠*).

Methods:

❖ *Sampling:*

Random sample of morning voided urine (3–6 mL) samples were obtained from all individuals. Urine samples were collected using sterile urine collection cups, sealed immediately and placed on ice stored at -8°C and centrifuged at 2,000–4,000 xg for 10–20 min.

❖ *Estimation miRNAs expression levels according to the following steps:*

- I. Extraction of total RNA including miRNA from urine pellet samples:** Using the PureLink® RNA Mini Kit (Ambion, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions.

- II. cDNA synthesis:** Using RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions.

- III. qRT-PCR for detection of miR-96 and miR-126:** Using Maxima SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (2X) (Thermo Scientific, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions.

I. Extraction of miRNA from urine pellet samples: using the PureLink® RNA Mini Kit (Ambion, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions (Naccache et al., 2013).

Procedure:

1. Freshly prepared RNA Lysis Solution (300 µl) containing β-mercaptoethanol was added to urine pellet and was homogenized thoroughly with a syringe until no visible pellet can be seen.
2. 100% ethanol (300 µl) was added and the precipitate was dispersed completely by pipetting up and down >10 times.
3. The sample was transferred to the RNA Spin Cartridge.
4. Centrifugation was done at 12,000 xg for 30s at 20°C.
The flow-through was discarded.
5. Wash Buffer I (60 µl) was added to the cartridge. Centrifugation was done at 12,000 x g for 10s at 20°C.
The flow-through was discarded.
6. Repeat step 5. Additional washes were added if necessary, especially for bloody urine. The flow-through must be completely clear and colorless. More washes yield better RNA.
After the final wash, the flow-through and the tube were discarded.
The spin cartridge was placed into a clean 2 ml RNA wash tube.
7. Wash Buffer II (60 µl) was added to the cartridge. Centrifugation was done at 12,000 x g for 10s at 20°C.
The flow-through was discarded.
8. Step 7 was repeated three more times, for a total of four washes with Wash Buffer II.
9. Centrifugation of the cartridge was done for 1 min to dry the membrane.

1. The cartridge was removed from the wash tube and was placed into an RNA Recovery Tube. 30 µl of RNase-free Water was added to the cartridge membrane. Centrifugation was done at 12,000 x g for 2 min at 20° C. The cartridge was discarded.

II. cDNA synthesis:

Using RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific, USA) (*Wiame et al., 2004*) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Procedure:

1. Template RNA was left to thaw on ice and mixed by pipetting.
2. RNA quantity(µg/1 µl) was measured by NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA).
3. In different tubes the following were added (table 3):

Table (3): Volumes of miRNA and primers used for cDNA synthesis.

| MiR-96 | MiR-126 | GAPDH |
|--|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Total miRNA equivalent to 1 µg | Total miRNA equivalent to 1 µg | Total miRNA equivalent to 1 µg |
| miR-96 RT primer* 1 µl | miR-126 RT primer* 1 µl | GAPDH RT primer* 1 µl |
| Different volumes of nuclease free water were added to complete total volume 12 µl | | |

**Sequences of these primers are mentioned in (table 2).*

4. Gentle mixing and brief centrifugation were done.

- . The tubes were incubated at 37 °C for 10 min. then returned on ice.
7. Brief centrifugation was done (done at 12,000 xg for 30s at 37°C), then the tubes were returned on ice again.
8. The following components were added to the previous tubes in the indicated order as in (table 4) to complete final volume 20 µl.

Table (4): Reaction setup for reverse transcription master mix preparation.

| Component | Volume/reaction |
|--|-----------------|
| 1X Reaction Buffer | 10 µl |
| RiboLock RNase Inhibitor | 1 µl |
| 1.5 mM dNTP Mix | 2 µl |
| RevertAid M-MuLV Reverse Transcriptase | 1 µl |
| Total volume | 20 µl |

9. Centrifugation was done briefly.
9. The tubes were placed in G-Storm Thermal Cycler (Gene Technologies, UK) for cDNA synthesis according to the following program: Incubation at 42 °C for 10 min followed by incubation at 55 °C for 10 min.
10. The cDNA was immediately used for qRT-PCR.

iii. qRT-PCR for detection of mRNAs and mature miRNAs:

Using Maxima SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (1X) (*Longo et al., 1990*) (Thermo Scientific, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Procedure:

1. The PCR reaction mix was prepared in a total volume of 20 μ l / well (used in 96-well plate) as in (table 1).

Table (1): Reaction setup for real-time PCR.

| Component | Volume/reaction |
|--|-----------------|
| Maxima SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (2X) | 12,0 μ l |
| Forward Primer | 0,5* μ l |
| Reverse Primer | 0,5* μ l |
| ROX Solution | 0,1 μ l |
| Template DNA | 2,0 μ l |
| Water, nuclease-free | 6,1 μ l |
| Total volume | 20 μ l |

2. The plate was placed in the 7900HT Fast Real-Time PCR System, (Applied Biosystem, Singapore) and the run was started according to the following program:

- a) Initial activation step for 10 min. at 90°C.
- b) Cycling step (40 cycles): Denaturation at 90 °C for 10 seconds followed by annealing at 55 °C for 30 seconds then extension at 72 °C for 40 seconds.
- c) Final extensions step at 72 °C for 2 min.

Table (1): Primer sequence of target and endogenous control genes.

| Gene | Forward Primer | Reverse Primer | Reference |
|---------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| Mir 96 | 5'-TTTGGCACTAGCACAT-3' | 5'-GAGCAGGGTGGAGAA-3' | (Zhang et al., 2010) |
| Mir 126 | 5'-GCCGGCGCCCGAGCTCTGGCTC-3' | 5'-CATTATTACTTTTGGTACGCG-3' | (Xiao et al., 2017) |
| GAPDH | 5'-CCACTCCTCCACCTTTGACG-3' | 5'-CCACCACCCTGTTGCTGTAG-3' | (Zhang et al., 2010) |

❖ Data analysis

According to the RQ Manager Program ABI SDS Software (ABI 7900), the data are produced as sigmoid shaped amplification plots in which the number of cycle is plotted against fluorescence (when using linear scale).

The threshold cycle (CT) serves as a tool for calculation of the starting template amount in each sample. Because the samples of control group are used as calibrators, the expression levels are set to 1. But because the gene expression levels were plotted as log₁₀ values (log₁₀ of 1 is 0), the expression level of the calibrator samples appear as 0 in the graph (Alhusseini et al., 2010).

Because the relative quantities of the miRNA 96 and miRNA 126, they are normalized against the relative quantities of endogenous control (GAPDH). Fold expression changes are calculated using the equation $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ and expressed as relative units (RU) (Livak & Schmittgen, 2001).

❖ **Statistical analysis:**

The collected data were summarized in terms of mean \pm Standard Deviation (SD) and range for quantitative data; frequency and percentage for qualitative data. Comparisons between case and control groups were carried out using the student T- test, to compare quantitative data between two groups and Chi- squared (χ^2) test, to compare proportions of two or more groups. Pearson correlation was used to estimate the correlation between miRNA-96, miRNA-126 and age of the studied groups. The corresponding test statistics were calculated and the corresponding P-values were obtained. P-value $\leq 0,05$ was considered statistically significant, while P-value $> 0,05$ was considered statistically non-significant. The cut-off scores for the analysis were obtained by analyzing the receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) curve using MedCalc software (Med-Calc Software, Mariakerke, Belgium). All analysis except ROC is performed using the Statistics Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Office Excel is used for the data processing and data analysis (*Knapp and Miller, 1992*).

Results

Table (V): Comparison between the studied groups regarding age.

| Age(years) \ Group | Control group | Bladder cancer group | T- Test | P-value |
|--------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------|---------|
| Mean± SD | 57,4±6,40 | 61,0± 8,9 | 1,76 | 0,10 |
| Range | 32-77 | 34-84 | | |

SD: Standard deviation, $P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant

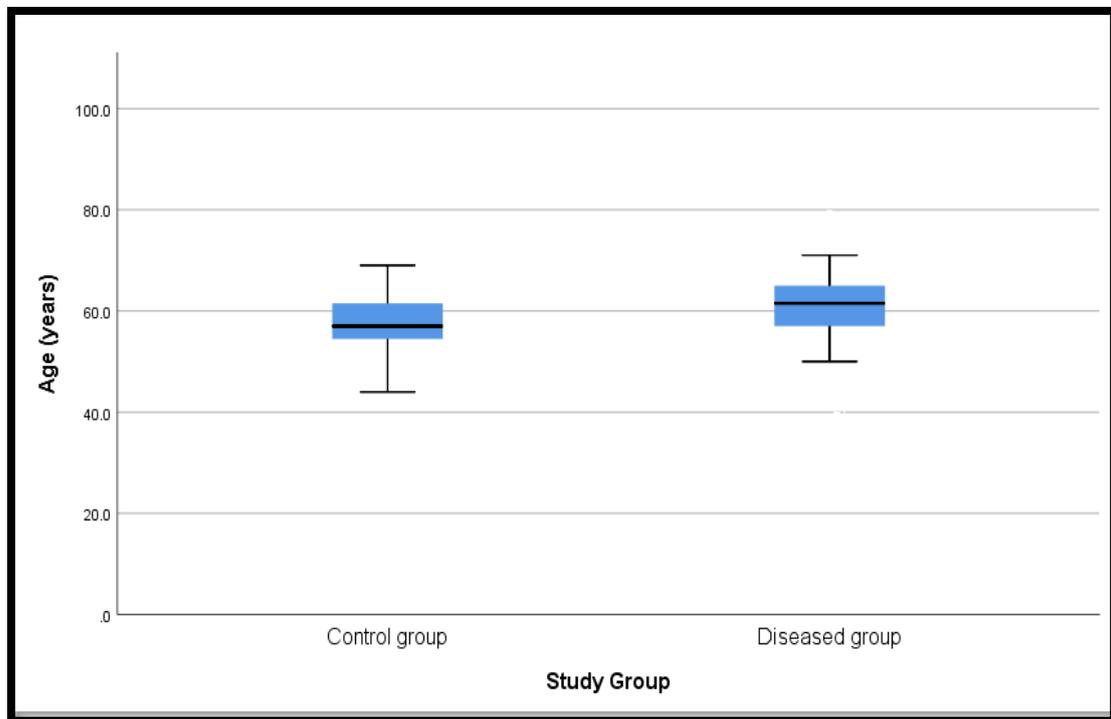


Figure (V): Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding age.

Table (V) and figure (V) show mean \pm SD and range among the studied groups with no statistically significant difference between the study groups regarding age.

Table (A): Gender distribution among the studied groups.

| Gender \ Group | Bladder cancer group | Control group | P-value |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------|---------|
| Male: No. Percent (%) | 44 88% | 17 85% | 0,730 |
| Female: No. Percent (%) | 6 12% | 3 15% | |

$p \leq 0,05$ is considered statistically significant, * Comparison between the study groups was done by Pearson Chi-Square Test.

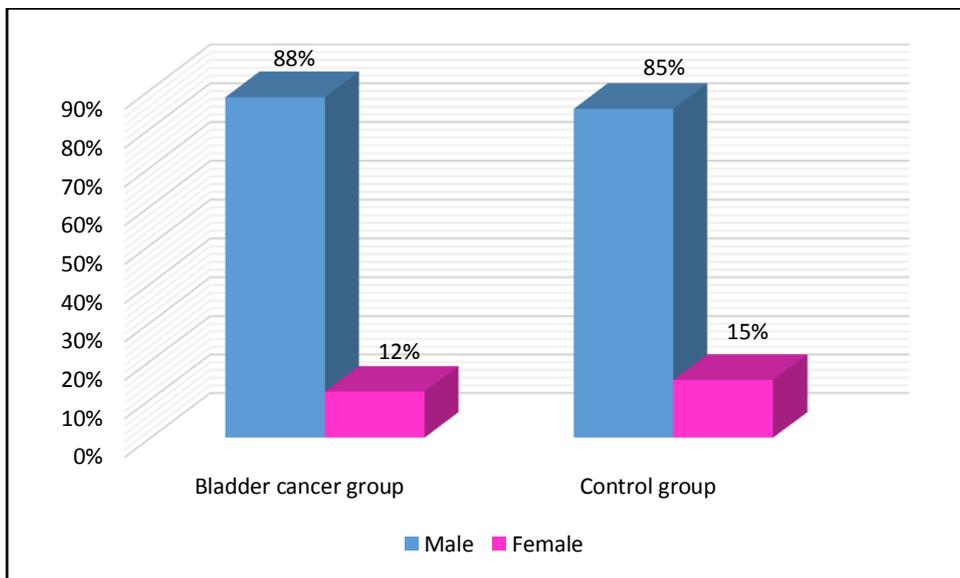


Figure (A): Gender distribution among the studied groups.

Table (A) and Figure (A): Show gender distribution in control group as well as bladder cancer group. There was no significant statistical difference between the two groups.

Table (٩): Comparison between bladder cancer group and control group regarding smoking.

| Study Group | | Bladder cancer group | Control group | Test | P-value |
|---------------|-----|----------------------|---------------|------------------|---------|
| Smoking habit | | | | | |
| Smokers | No. | ٣٨ | ١٥ | $\chi^2 = ٠,٠٠٨$ | ٠,٩٣ |
| | % | ٧٦,٠% | ٧٥,٠% | | |
| Non-Smokers | No. | ١٢ | ٥ | | |
| | % | ٢٤,٠% | ٢٥,٠% | | |

P < ٠,٠٥ significant, P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant, χ^2 : Chi-square test

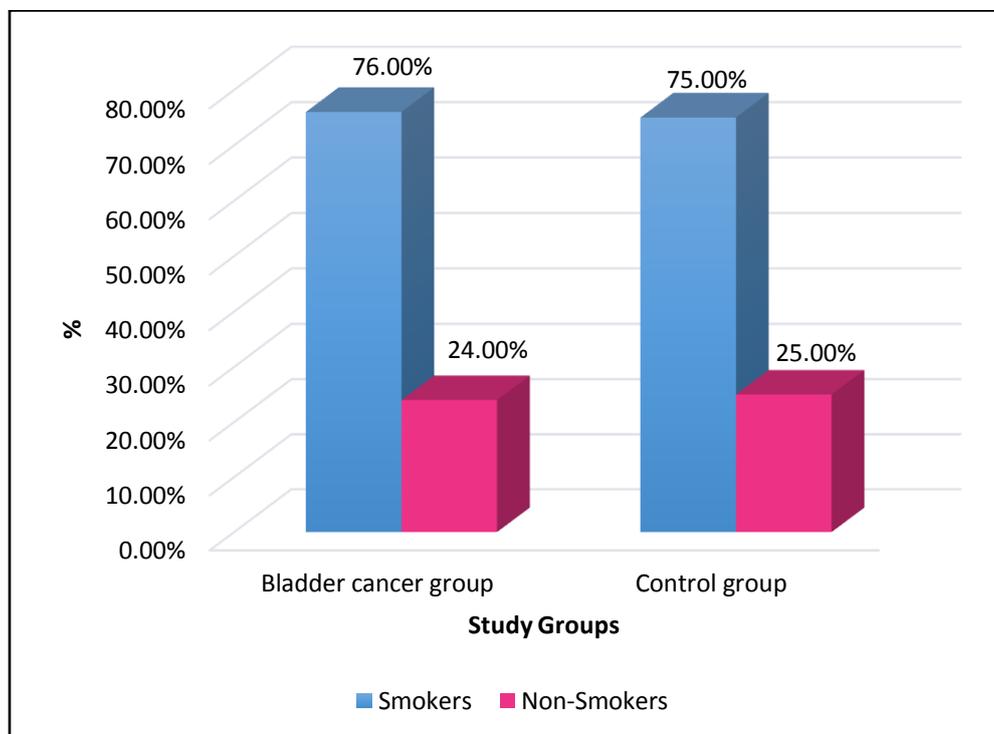


Figure (٩): Comparison between the studied groups regarding smoking.

Table (٩) and figure (٩): Show statistically non-significant difference regarding smoking habit distribution in bladder cancer group as compared to control group.

Table (11): Difference between bladder cancer group and control group regarding miR-96 relative expression.

| Study Group MiR-96 FRU (Log) | Control group | Bladder cancer group | T- Test | P-value |
|---------------------------------|----------------|----------------------|---------|---------|
| Mean ± SD | 4,10 ± 0,53 | 5,22 ± 0,87 | 7,20 | < 0,001 |

SD: Standard deviation, $P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant, analysis done by independent samples Student T test.

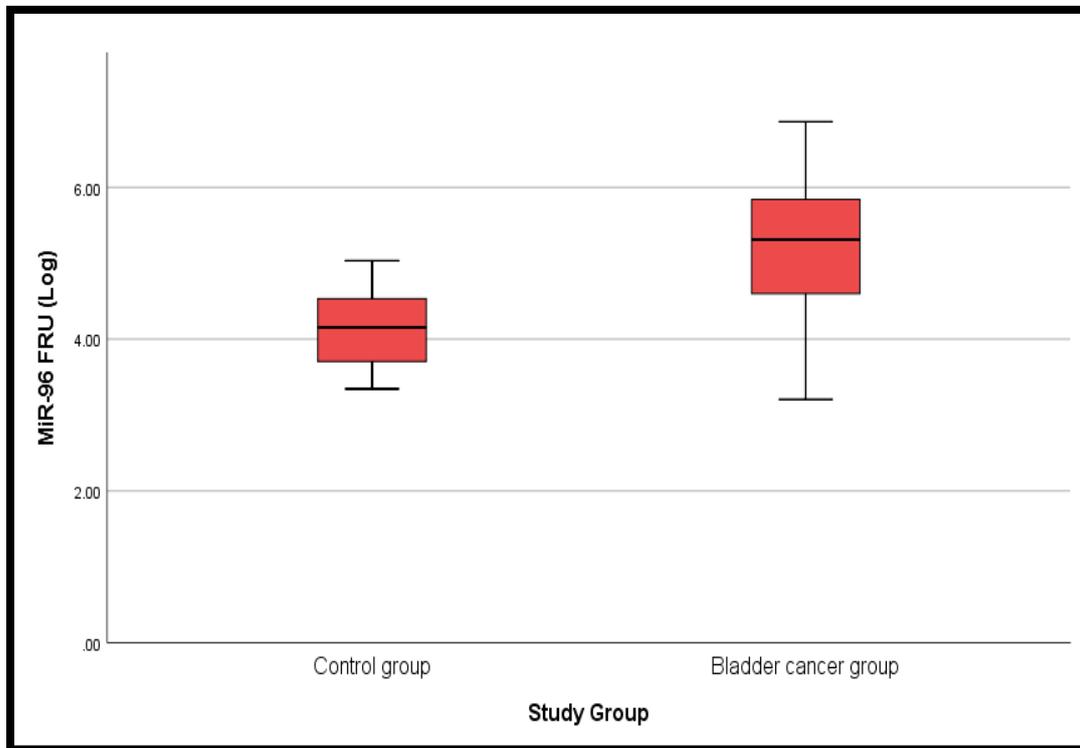


Figure (11): Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding miR-96 relative expression

Table (11) and Figure (11): Show statistically high significant increase of miRNA-96 relative expression in bladder cancer group compared to that of control group.

Table (١١): Difference between bladder cancer group and control group regarding miR-١٢٦ relative expression.

| Study Group | Control group | Bladder cancer group | T- Test | P-value |
|----------------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------|-------------|
| MiRNA-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | | | | |
| Mean | ٤,٠٤ | ٤,٨٢ | ٢,٥١ | .٠١٥ |
| ± SD | ±١,٠٥ | ±١,٢٣ | | |

SD: Standard deviation, P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant, P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant, analysis done by independent samples Student T test.

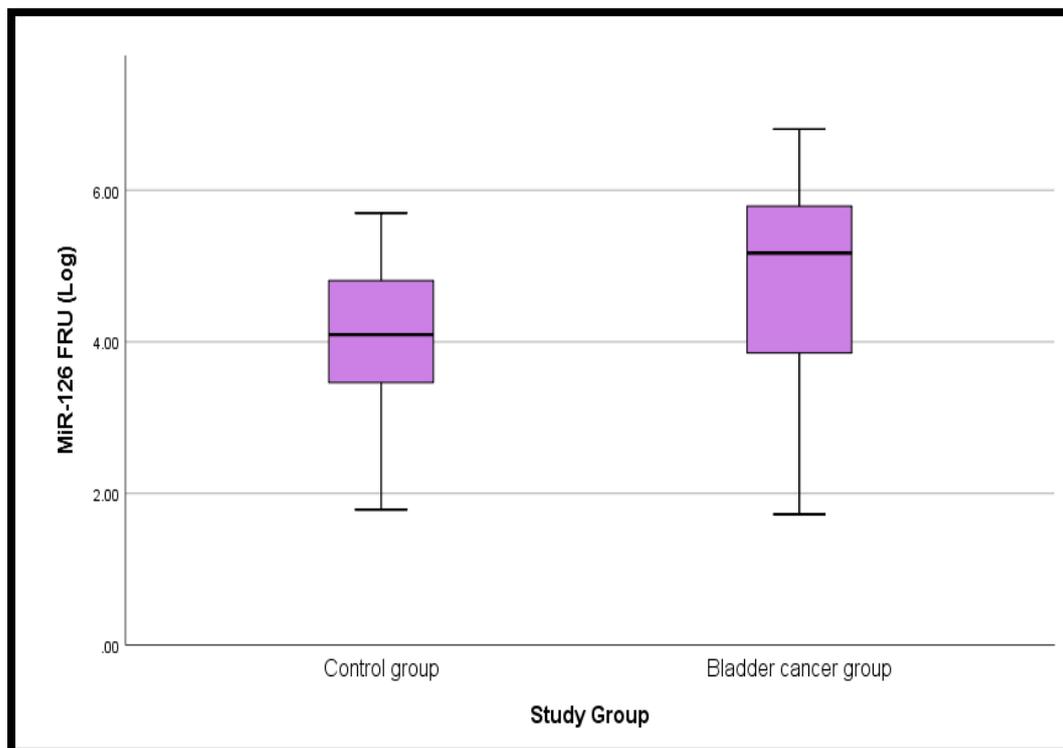


Figure (١١): Box-plot showing difference between the studied groups regarding miRNA-١٢٦ relative expression.

Table (١١) and figure (١١): Show statistically significant increase of miRNA-١٢٦ relative expression in bladder cancer group compared to that of control group.

Table (12): Correlation between miR-96 relative expression and the age in the studied groups.

| Variable | Age /years | | | |
|--------------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|---------|
| | Control group (n=20) | | Bladder cancer group (n=50) | |
| | Pearson correlation | P-value | Pearson correlation | P-value |
| miR-96 (FRU) | - 0,10 | 0,02 | 0,07 | 0,79 |

$P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant

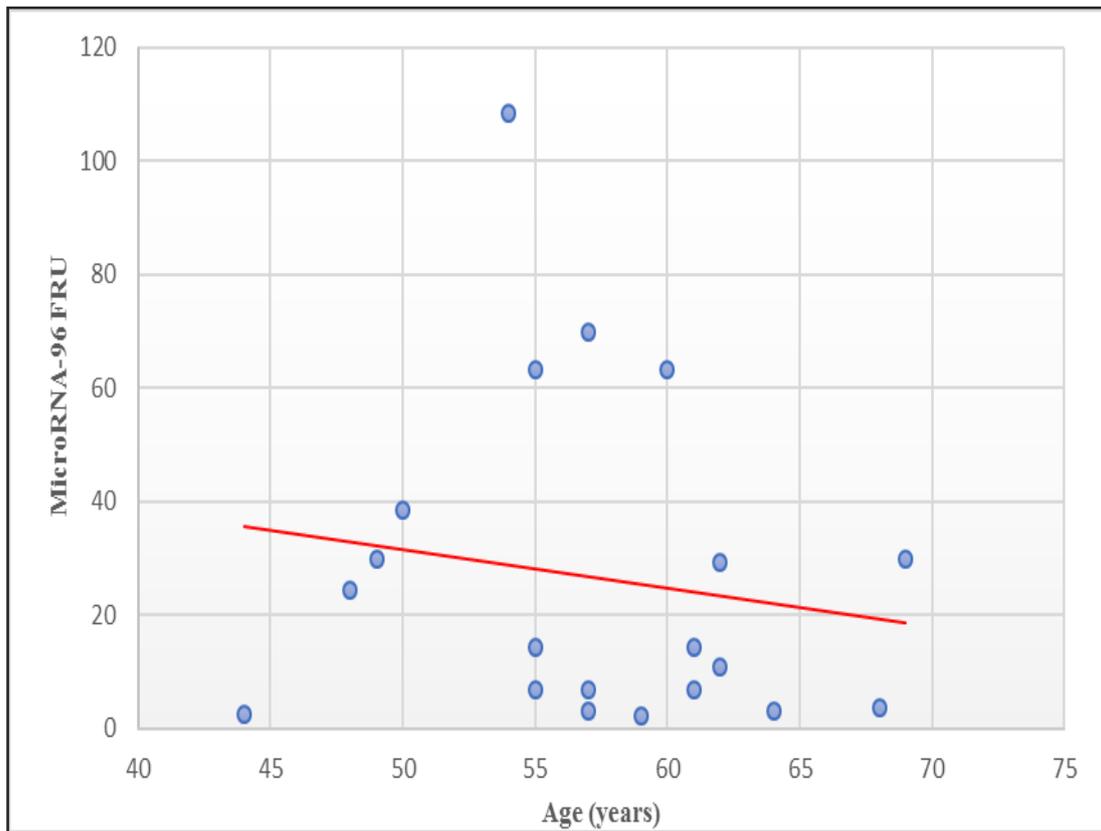


Figure (12): Correlation between miR-96 relative expression and the age of control group.

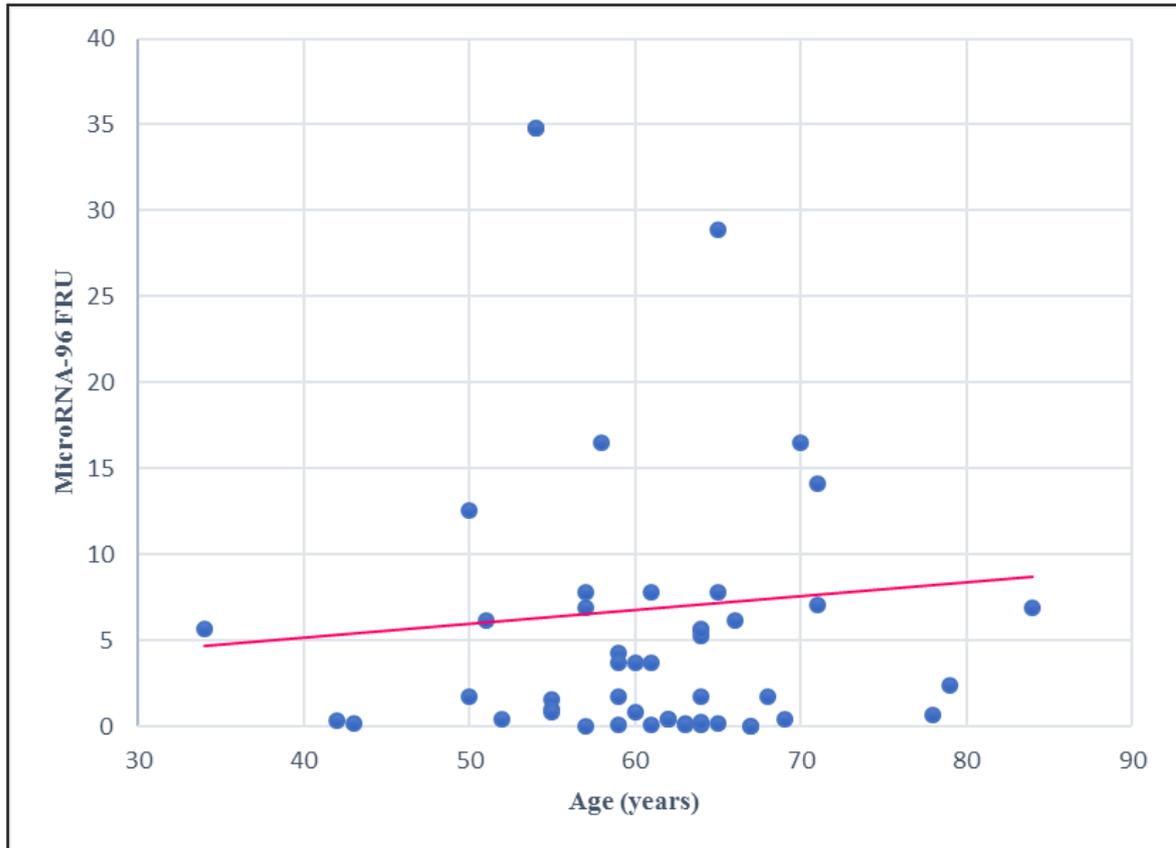


Figure (١٣): Non-significant correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group.

Table (١٢) and figure (١٢): Show statistically non-significant weak negative correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age of control group.

Table (١٢) and figure (١٣): Show statistically non-significant weak positive correlation between miR-٩٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group.

Table (13): Correlation between miR-126 relative expression and the age in the studied groups.

| Variable | Age /years | | | |
|---------------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------------|---------|
| | Control group (n=20) | | Bladder cancer group (n=50) | |
| | Pearson correlation | P-value | Pearson correlation | P-value |
| miR-126 (FRU) | 0,114 | 0,63 | - 0,188 | 0,19 |

P ≤ 0,001 significant, P > 0,001 non-significant

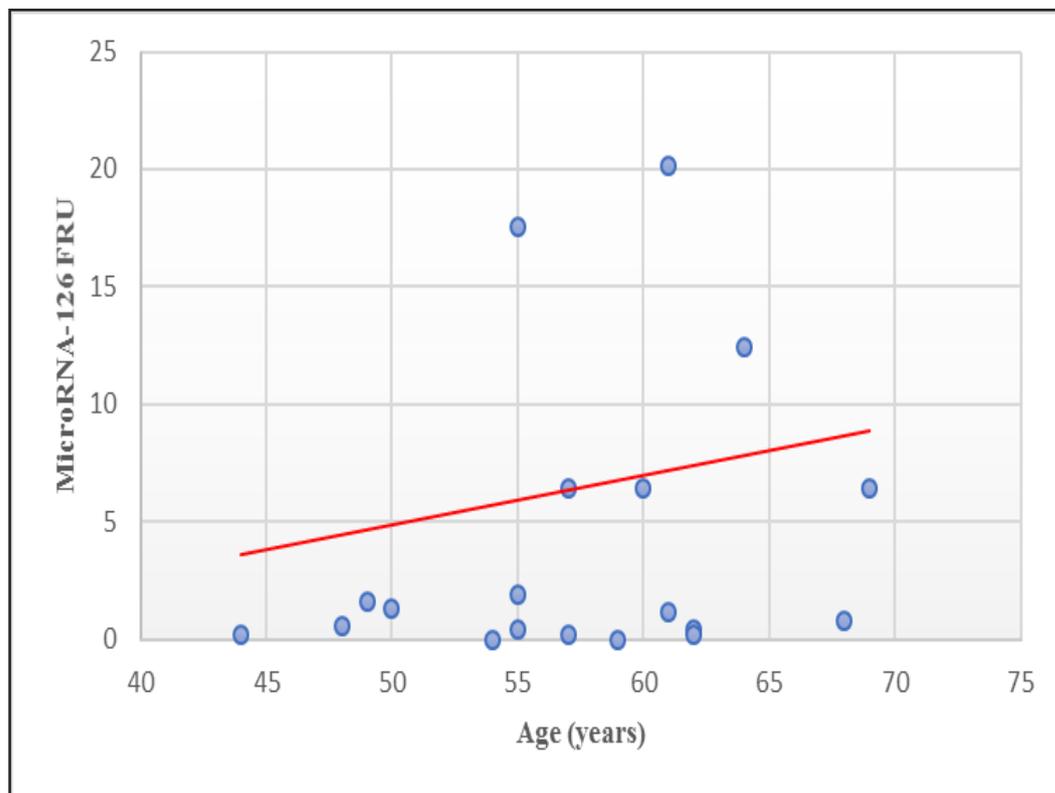


Figure (14): Correlation between miR-126 relative expression and the age of control group.

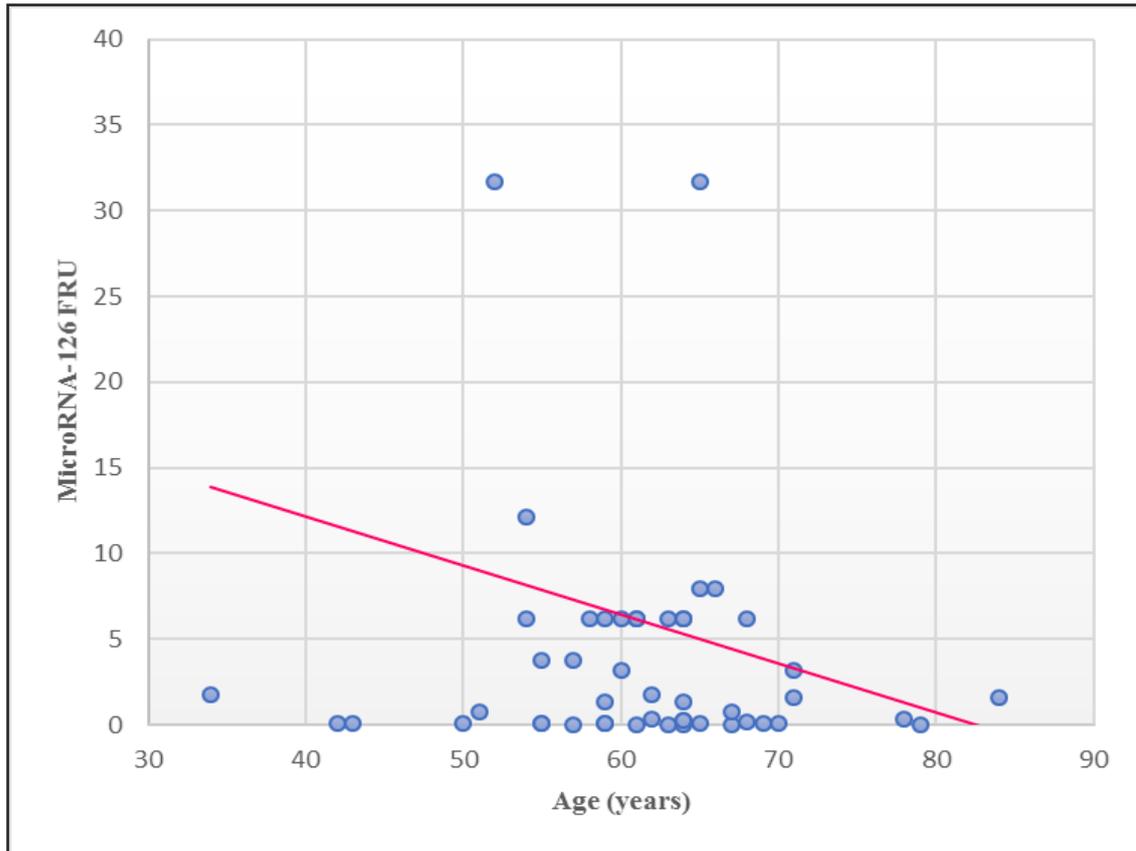


Figure (١٥): Correlation between miR- ١٢٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group.

Table (١٣) and Figure (١٤): Show statistically non-significant weak positive correlation between miR-١٢٦ relative expression and the age of control group.

Table (١٣) and Figure (١٥): Show statistically non-significant weak negative correlation between miR-١٢٦ relative expression and the age of bladder cancer group.

Table (١٤): Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group.

| Variable | | Gender in control group | | | |
|------------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------|--------|---------|
| | | Female | Male | T-Test | P-value |
| MiR-٩٦ | Mean | ٣,٩٩ | ٤,١٨ | ٠,٥٦ | ٠,٥٨ |
| FRU (Log) | ± SD | ± ٠,٧٤ | ± ٠,٥١ | | |

SD: Standard deviation, $P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant

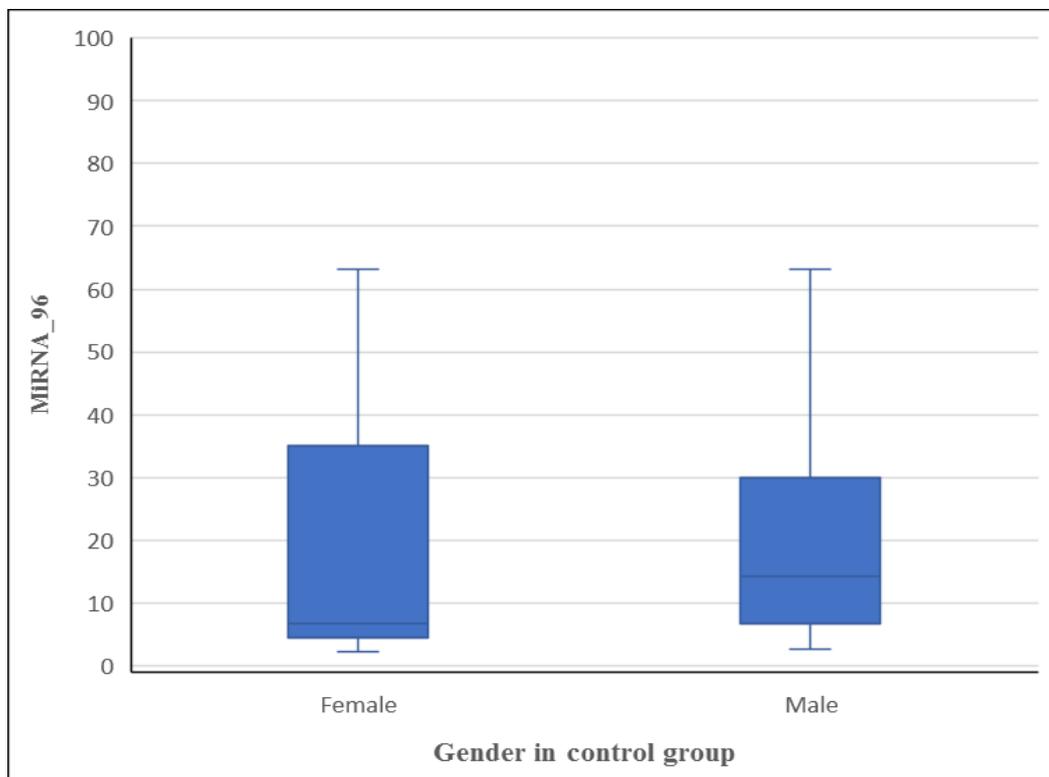


Figure (١٦): Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding gender in control group.

Table (١٤) and Figure (١٦): Show statistically non-significant statistical difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group.

Table (10): Difference in mean values of miR-96 relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group.

| Variable | | Gender in bladder cancer group | | | |
|---------------------|--------------|--------------------------------|----------------|---------|---------|
| | | Female | Male | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-96 FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | 4,72 ± 1,01 | 5,29 ± 0,84 | -1,02 | 0,14 |

SD: Standard deviation, $P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant

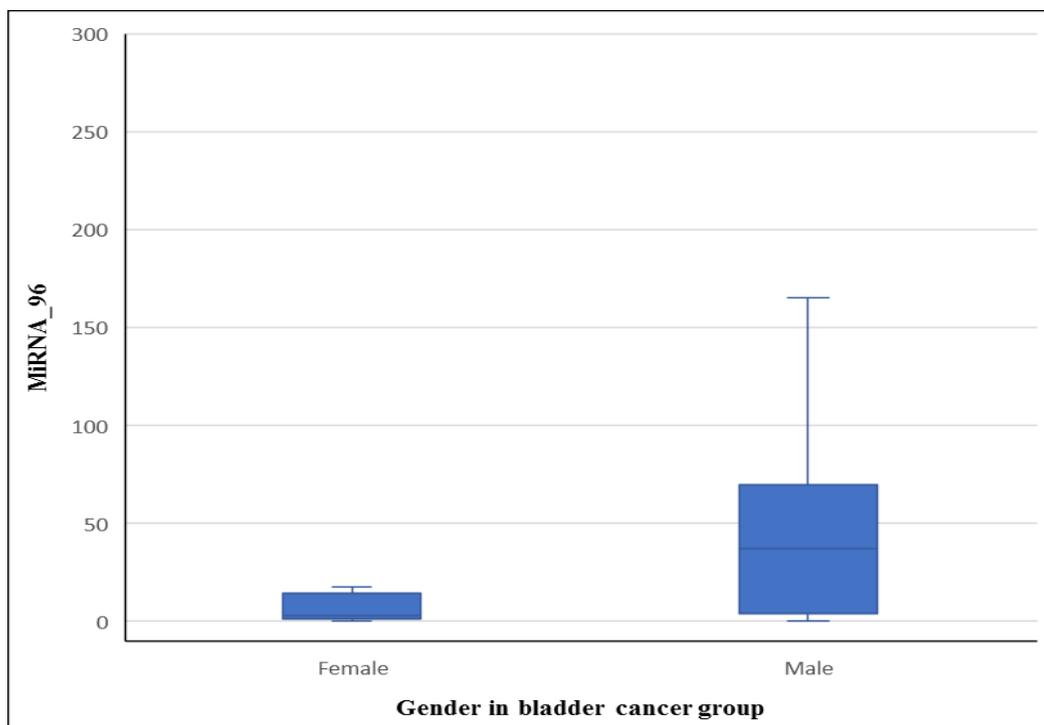


Figure (11): Difference in mean value of miR-96 expression regarding gender in bladder cancer group.

Table (10) and figure (11): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-96 relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group.

Table (١٦): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group.

| Variable | | Gender in control group | | | |
|------------------|-------------|-------------------------|--------|------|---------|
| | | Female | Male | Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ | Mean | ٣,٣٩ | ٤,١٥ | ١,١٥ | ٠,٢٧ |
| FRU (Log) | ± SD | ± ١,٥٢ | ± ٠,٩٧ | | |

SD: Standard deviation, P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant, P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

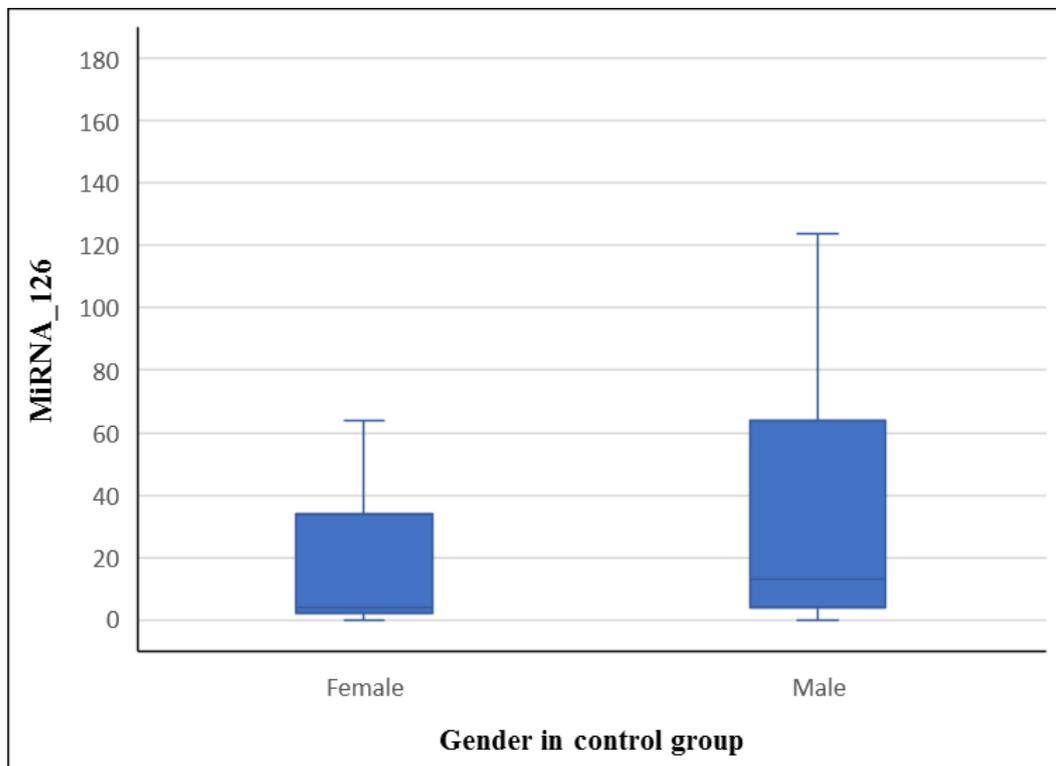


Figure (١٧): Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding gender in control group.

Table (١٦) and figure (١٧): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the control group.

Table (14): Difference in mean values of miR-126 relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group.

| Variable | | Gender in bladder cancer group | | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------|----------------|---------|---------|
| | | Female | Male | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-126 FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | 4,74 ± 1,96 | 4,83 ± 1,13 | 0,11 | 0,92 |

SD: Standard deviation, $P \leq 0,05$ significant, $P > 0,05$ non-significant

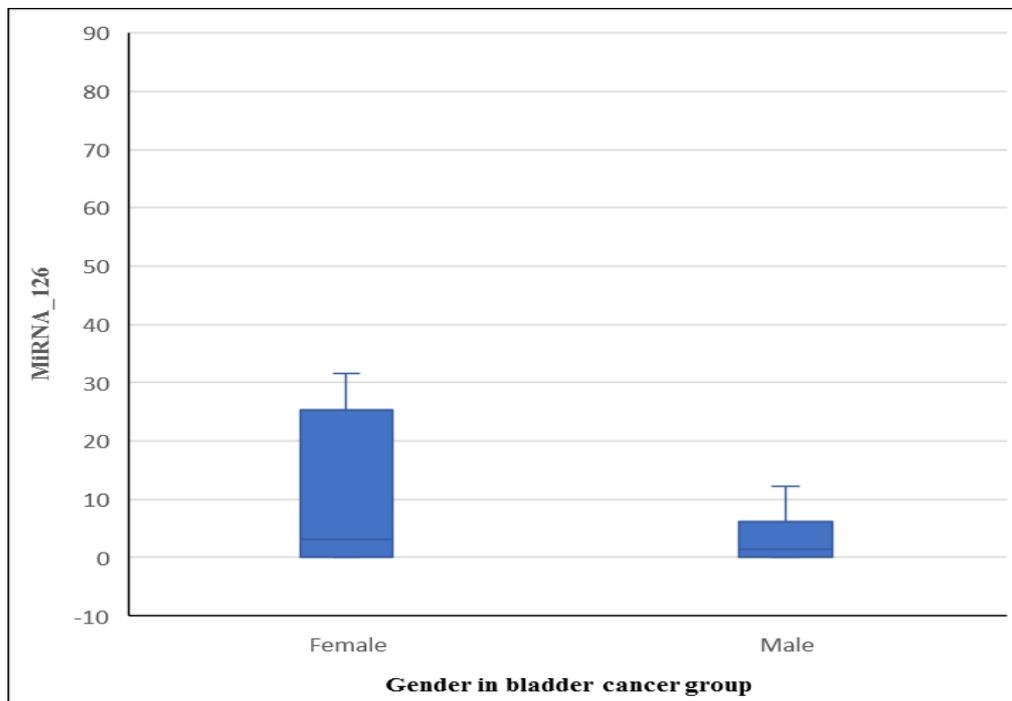


Figure (14): Difference in mean value of miR-126 expression regarding gender in bladder cancer group.

Table (14) and figure (14): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-126 relative expression in female as compared to male subjects in the bladder cancer group.

Table (18): Difference in mean values of miR-96 relative expression in smokers as compared to that of non-smokers subjects in control group.

| Variable | | Smoking in control group | | | |
|-----------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------|---------|---------|
| | | Smokers | Non-smokers | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-96 FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | 4,19 ± 0,03 | 4,04 ± 0,06 | 0,04 | 0,09 |

P ≤ 0,05 significant

P > 0,05 non-significant

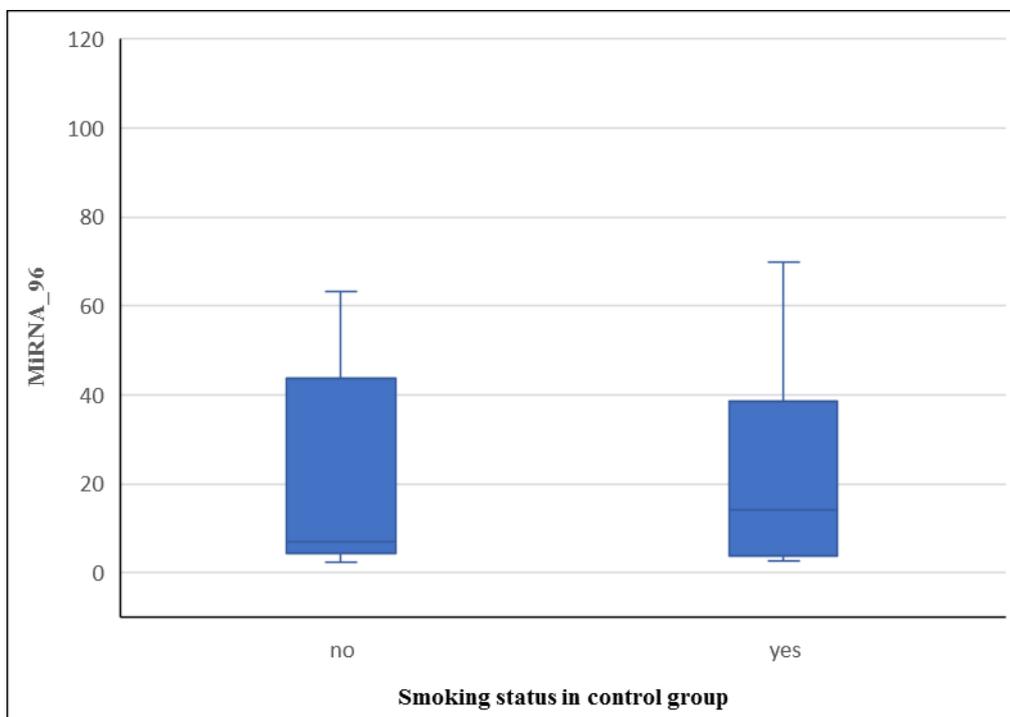


Figure (19): Difference in mean value of miR-96 expression regarding smoking in control group.

Table (18) and figure (19): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-96 relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in the control groups.

Table (١٩): Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to that of non-smokers in the bladder cancer group.

| Variable | | Smoking in bladder cancer group | | | |
|------------------|-------------|---------------------------------|-------------|---------|---------|
| | | Smokers | Non-smokers | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-٩٦ | Mean | ٥,١٦ | ٥,٤٢ | ٠,٩٢ | ٠,٣٦ |
| FRU (Log) | ± SD | ± ٠,٧٩ | ± ١,١٠ | | |

P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant

P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

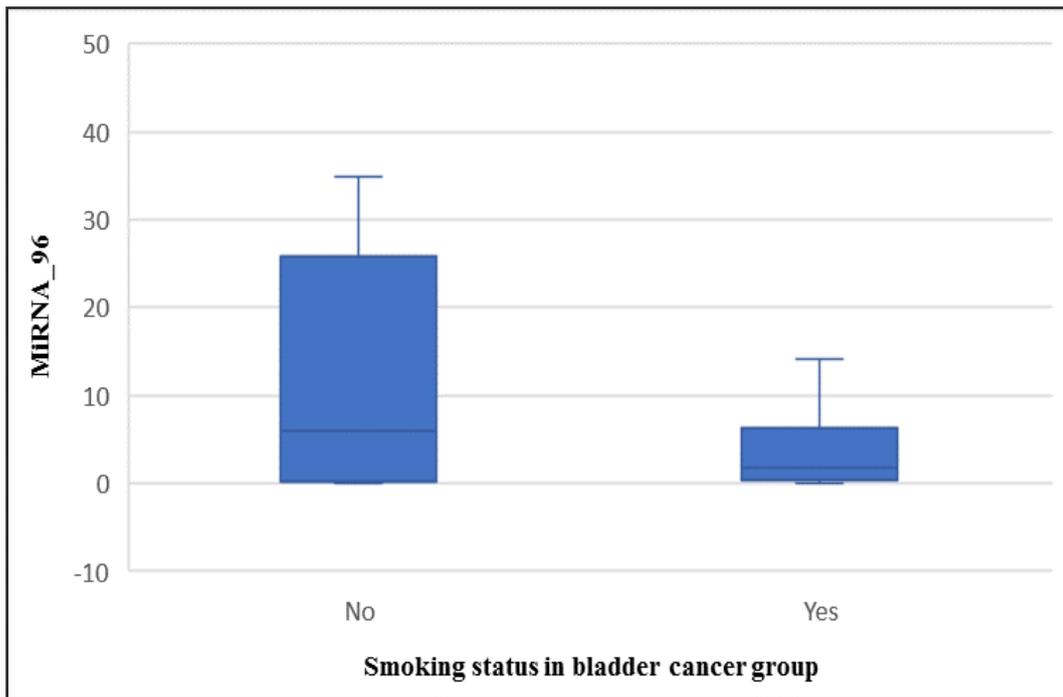


Figure (٢١): Difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ expression regarding smoking in bladder cancer group.

Table (١٩) and Figure (٢١): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in the bladder cancer group.

Table (٢٠): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in control group.

| Variable | | Smoking in control group | | | |
|------------------|-------------|--------------------------|------------|---------|---------|
| | | Smoker | Non-smoker | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ | Mean | ٤,٢٤ | ٣,٤٤ | ١,٥٣ | ٠,١٥ |
| FRU (Log) | ± SD | ± ٠,٩٩ | ± ١,٠٩ | | |

P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant

P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

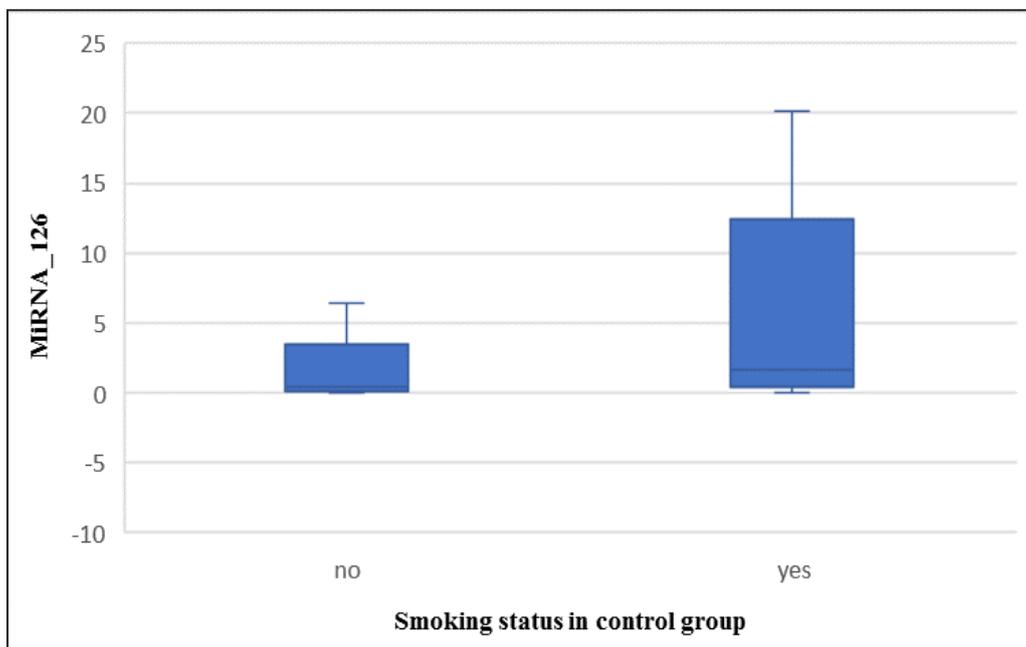


Figure (٢٢): Difference in mean value of miR- ١٢٦ expression regarding smoking in control group.

Table (٢٠) and figure (٢٢): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in the control groups.

Table (٢١): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in the bladder cancer group.

| Variable | | Smoking in bladder cancer group | | | |
|----------------------|------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|---------|---------|
| | | Smokers | Non-smokers | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | Mean \pm SD | ٤,٨٦ \pm ١,٢٩ | ٤,٦٨ \pm ١,٠٤ | ٠,٤٤ | ٠,٦٦ |

$P \leq ٠,٠٥$ significant

$P > ٠,٠٥$ non-significant

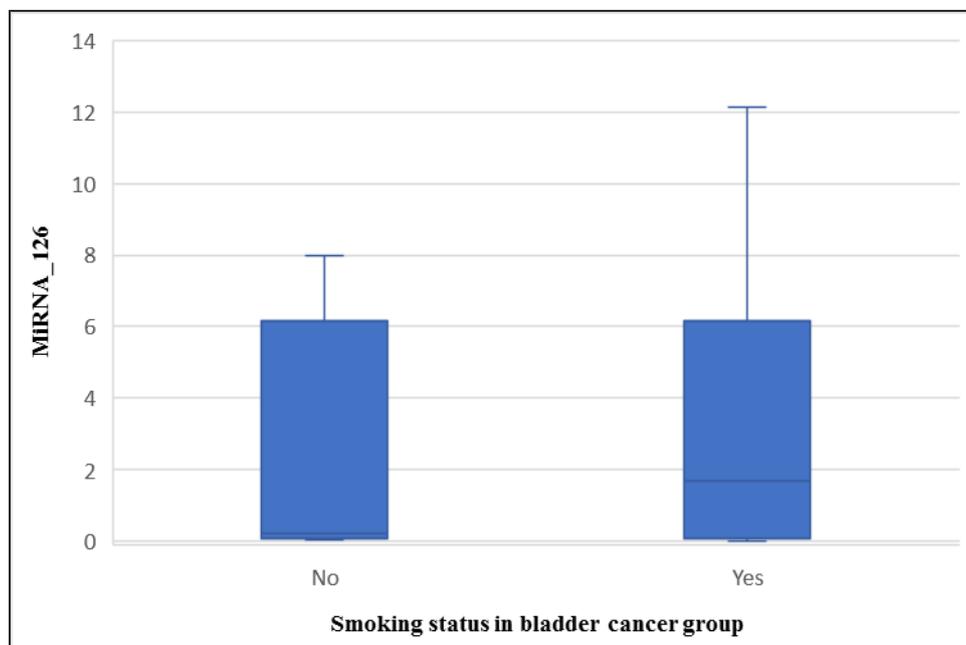


Figure (٢٣): Difference in mean value of miR- ١٢٦ expression regarding smoking in bladder cancer group.

Table (٢١) and figure (٢٣): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in smokers as compared to non-smokers in the bladder cancer group.

Table (٢٢): Pathological data of bladder cancer group.

| | Tumor Stage n=٥٠ | | Tumor grade n=٥٠ | | | Tumor type n=٥٠ | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|--|----------------------------------|
| | NMIBC* (Ta,CIS,T١) | MIBC* (T٢,T٣,T٤) | Grade (١) | Grade (٢) | Grade (٣) | Transitional cell carcinoma (TCC) | Small cell carcinoma (SCC) |
| Number (n) | ١٤ | ٣٦ | ٧ | ١٩ | ٢٤ | ٤٦ | ٤ |
| Percent % | ٢٨,٠% | ٧٢,٠% | ١٤,٠% | ٣٨,٠% | ٤٨,٠% | ٩٢,٠% | ٨,٠% |

*NMIBC: Non-muscle invasive bladder cancer

*MIBC: Muscle invasive bladder cancer

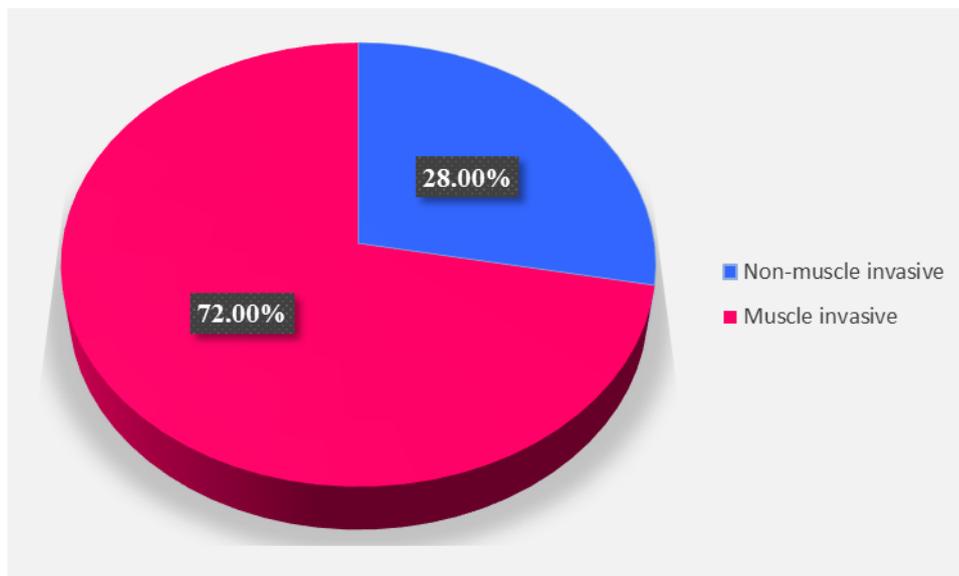


Figure (٢٤): Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor stage.

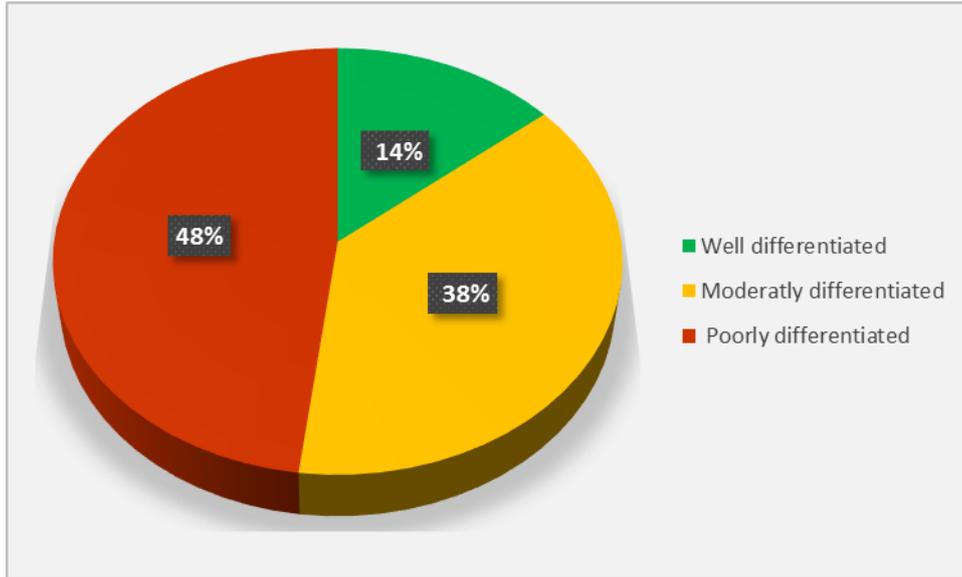


Figure (٢٥): Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade.

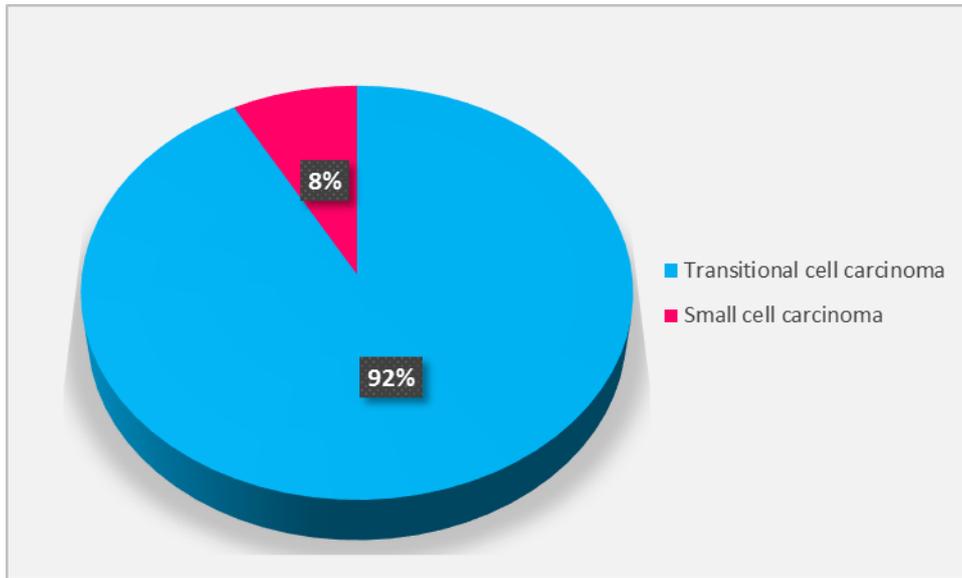


Figure (٢٦): Distribution of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor type.

Table (٢٣): Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to those with transitional cell carcinoma.

| Variable | | Tumor type | | | |
|------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|---------|---------|
| | | Transitional cell carcinoma (TCC) | Small cell carcinoma (SCC) | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-٩٦ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ٥,٢١ ± ٠,٨٩ | ٥,٣٩ ± ٠,٧٥ | ٠,٤٥ | ٠,٦٩ |

P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant

P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

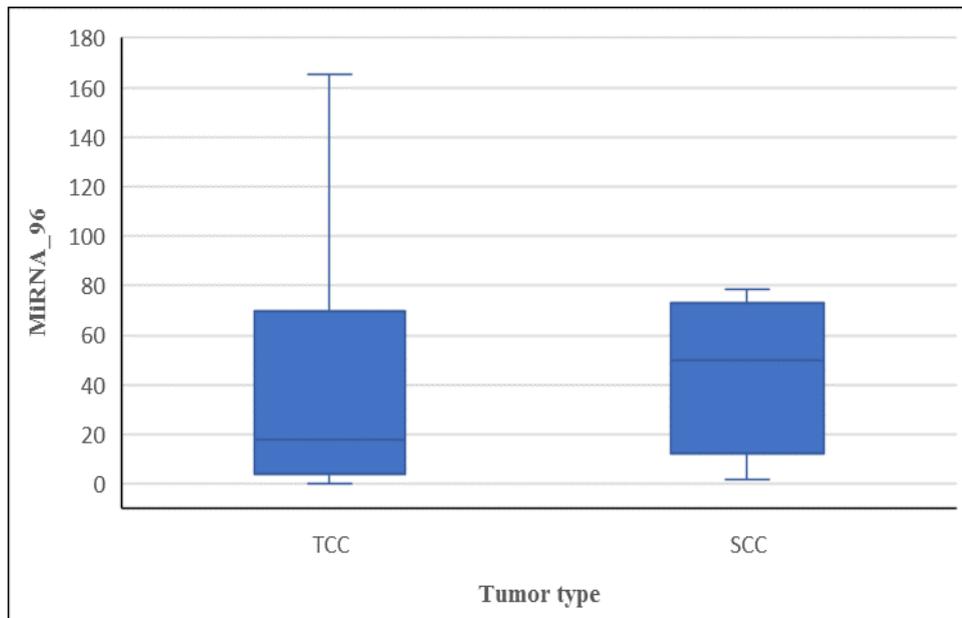


Figure (٢٤): Difference in mean value of miR- ٩٦ expression regarding tumor type.

Table (٢٣) and figure (٢٤): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to that of patients with transitional cell carcinoma.

Table (٢٤): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to those with transitional cell carcinoma.

| Variable | | Tumor type | | | |
|--------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|---------|---------|
| | | Transitional cell carcinoma (TCC) | Small cell carcinoma (SCC) | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ٤,٧٦ ± ١,٢٦ | ٥,٥٢ ± ٠,٣٩ | ٢,٨٣ | ٠,٠١٧ |

P ≤ ٠,٠٥ significant

P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

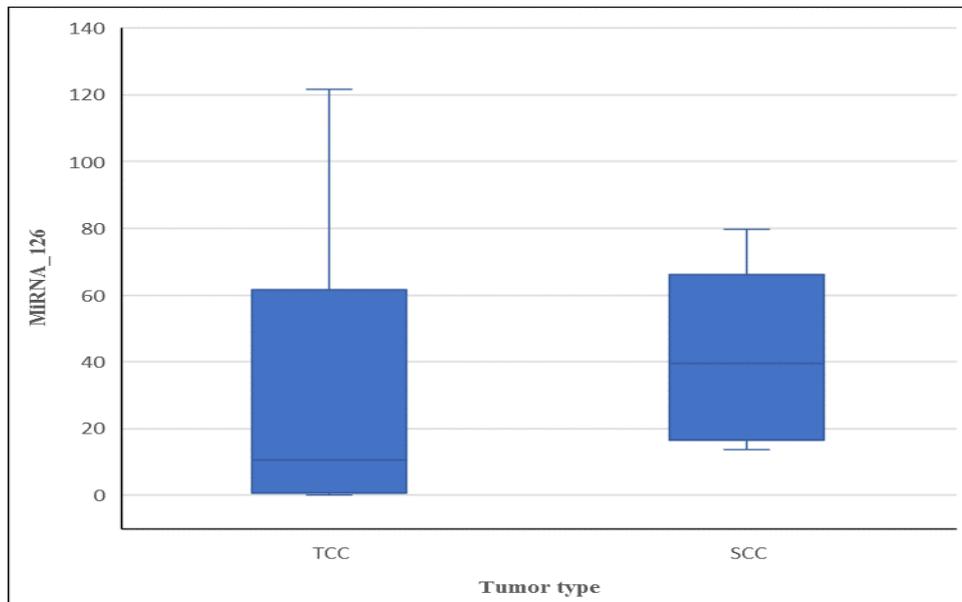


Figure (٢٨): Difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ expression regarding tumor type.

Table (٢٤) and Figure (٢٨): Show statistically significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with small cell carcinoma as compared to that of patients with transitional cell carcinoma.

Table (٢٥): Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to those with non-muscle invasive tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor Stage | | | |
|------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---------|---------|
| | | Non muscle invasive (Ta,CIS,T١) | Muscle invasive (T٢,T٣,T٤) | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-٩٦ FRU (Log) | Mean \pm SD | ٤,٤٨ \pm ٠,٨١ | ٥,٥١ \pm ٠,٧١ | ٤,٤٢ | < ٠,٠٠١ |

P ٠,٠٥ \leq significant

P > ٠,٠٥ non-significant

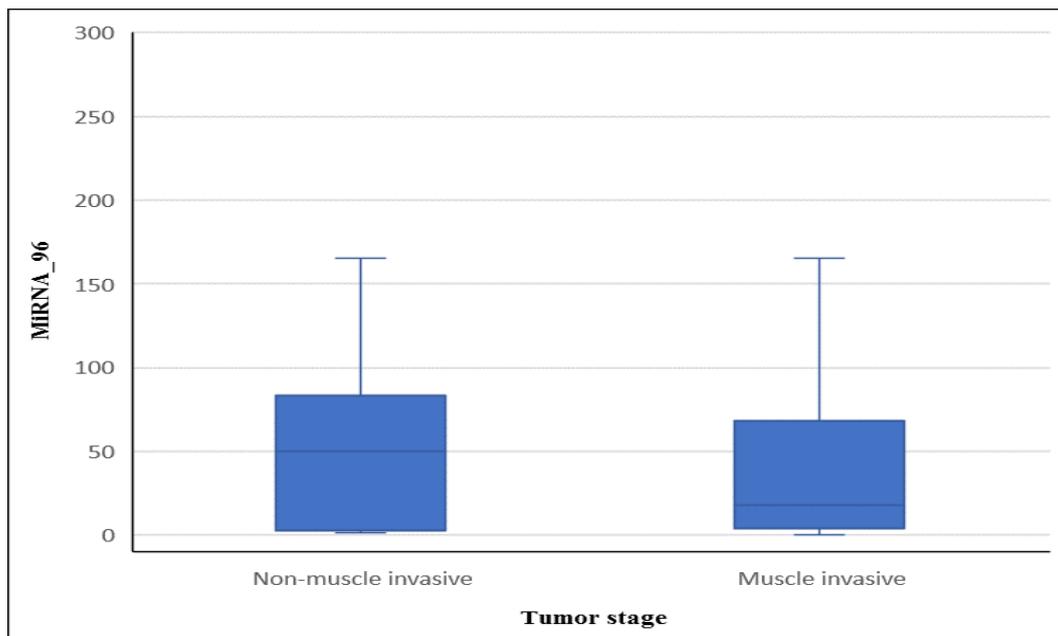


Figure (٢٩): Difference in mean values of miR-٩٦ expression of patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to that of patients with non-muscle invasive tumors.

Table (٢٥) and figure (٢٩): statistically significant increase in mean value of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to that of patients with non-muscle invasive tumors.

Table (٢٦): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to those with non-muscle invasive tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor stage | | | |
|-------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------|---------|---------|
| | | Non muscle invasive (Ta,CIS,T١) | Muscle invasive (T٢,T٣,T٤) | T- Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | Mean \pm SD | ٤,٩٠ \pm ١,١١ | ٤,٧٩ \pm ١,٢٩ | ٠,٢٨ | ٠,٧٨ |

P \leq ٠,٠٥ significant

P $>$ ٠,٠٥ non-significant

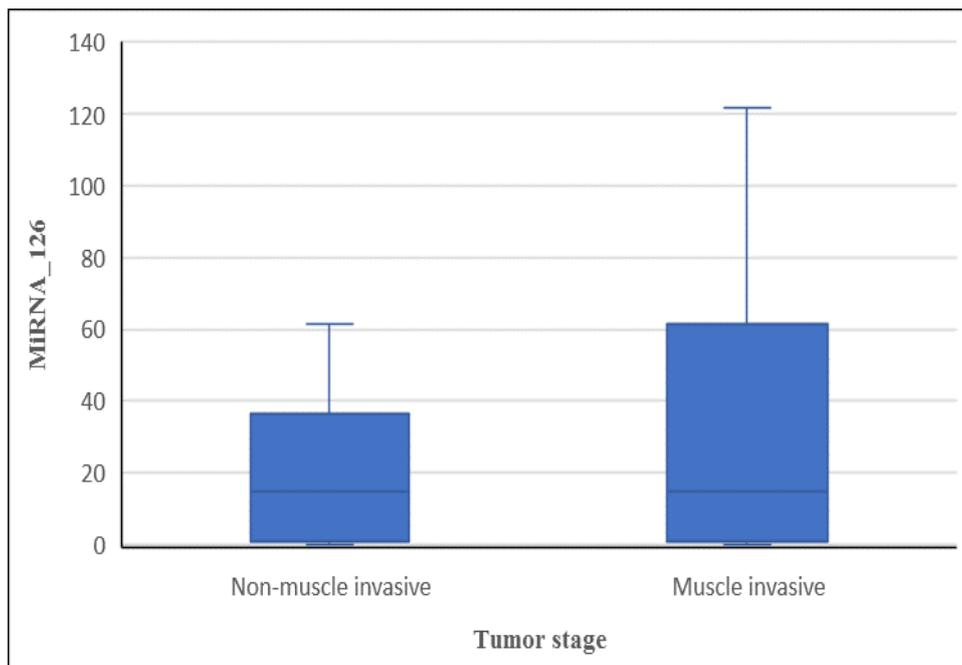


Figure (٣٠): Difference in mean value of miR- ١٢٦ expression regarding tumor stage.

Table (٢٦) and figure (٣٠): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with muscle invasive tumors as compared to that of patients with non-muscle invasive tumors.

Table (۲۷): Difference in mean values of miR-۹۶ relative expression in patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------|---------|
| | | Well differentiated Grade (۱) | Moderately Differentiated Grade (۲) | Test | P-value |
| MiR-۹۶ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ۳,۹۲ ± ۰,۴۳ | ۵,۰۱ ± ۰,۶۹ | ۴,۸۳ | ۰,۰۰۱ |

P ۰,۰۵ ≤ significant

P > ۰,۰۵ non-significant

Table (۲۷): Shows statistically significant increase in mean value of miR-۹۶ relative expression in patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to that of patients with well differentiated tumors.

Table (۲۸): The mean ± SD and test of significance of miR-۹۶ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|------|---------|
| | | Well differentiated Grade (۱) | Poorly differentiated Grade (۳) | Test | P-value |
| MiR-۹۶ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ۳,۹۲ ± ۰,۴۳ | ۵,۰۳ ± ۰,۵۸ | ۷,۸۶ | < ۰,۰۰۱ |

P ۰,۰۵ ≤ significant

P > ۰,۰۵ non-significant

Table (۲۸): Shows statistically significant increase in mean value of miR-۹۶ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

Table (٢٩): The mean \pm SD and test of significance of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with moderately differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|---------------------|------------------|--|------------------------------------|------|---------|
| | | Moderately differentiated Grade (٢) | Poorly differentiated Grade (٣) | Test | P-value |
| MiR-٩٦ FRU (Log) | Mean \pm SD | ٥,٠١ \pm ٠,٦٩ | ٥,٥٣ \pm ٠,٥٨ | ٣,٩٤ | ٠,٠٠١ |

$P \leq ٠,٠٥$ significant

$P > ٠,٠٥$ non-significant

Table (٢٩): Shows statistically significant increase in mean value of miR-٩٦ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with moderately differentiated tumors.

Table (30): Differences in mean values of miR-96 relative expression in bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grades.

| | Tumor Grade | | | ANOVA Test | P-value* |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|------------|----------|
| | Well differentiated Grade (1) (n=7) | Moderately differentiated Grade (2) (n=19) | Poorly differentiated Grade (3) (n=24) | | |
| | Mean ± Standard Deviation | Mean ± Standard Deviation | Mean ± Standard Deviation | | |
| MiR-96 FRU (Log) | 3,92 ± 0,43 | 0,01 ± 0,69 | 0,03 ± 0,08 | F= 27,14 | <0,001 |

* P-value between groups obtained using Bonferroni test, P-value is considered significant if < 0,001.

Table (30) and Figure (31): Show that miR-96 relative expression showed significant increase in moderately and poorly differentiated tumors as compared to well differentiated ones and also between each other.

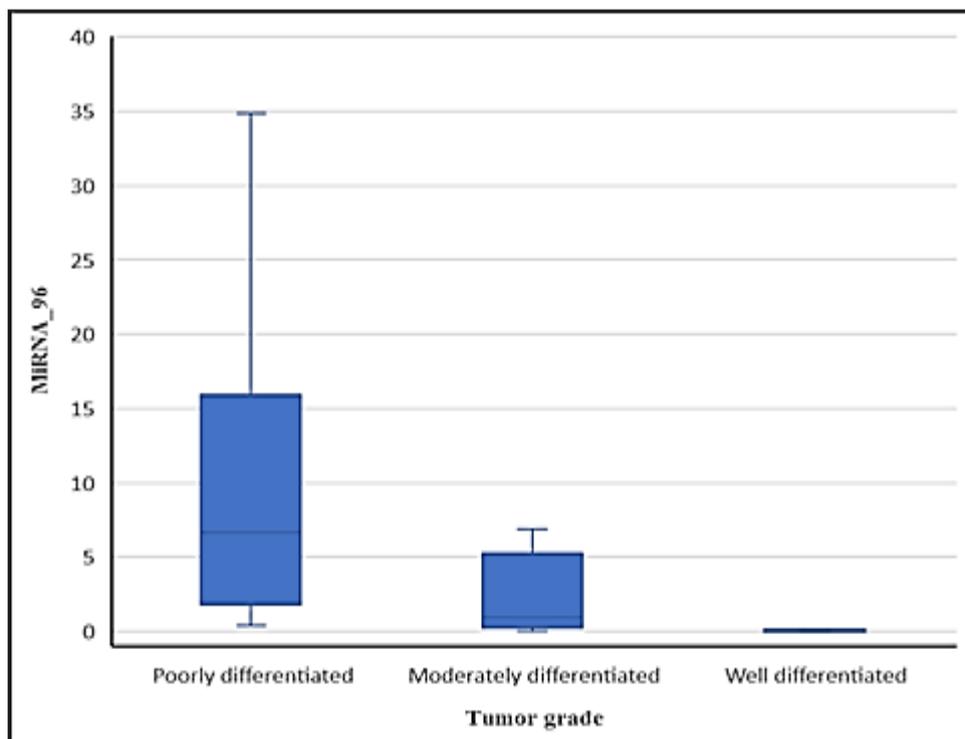


Figure (٣١): Differences in mean values of miR-٩٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade.

Table (٣١): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------|---------|
| | | Well differentiated Grade (١) | Moderately Differentiated Grade (٢) | T-Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ٥,٠٠ ± ١,٣٩ | ٤,٥٠ ± ١,٤٢ | ٠,٨١ | ٠,٤٣ |

$P \leq ٠,٠٥$ significant, $P > ٠,٠٥$ non-significant

Table (٣١): Shows statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression of patients with moderately differentiated tumors as compared to that of patients with well differentiated tumors.

Table (٣٢): Difference in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|---------|
| | | Well differentiated Grade (١) | Poorly differentiated Grade (٣) | T-Test | P-value |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ٥,٠٠ ± ١,٣٩ | ٥,٠٢ ± ١,٠١ | ٠,٠٤ | ٠,٩٧ |

$P \leq ٠,٠٥$ significant, $P > ٠,٠٥$ non-significant

Table (٣٢): Show statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with well differentiated tumors.

Table (۳۳): Difference in mean values of miR-۱۲۶ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with moderately differentiated tumors.

| Variable | | Tumor grade | | | |
|-------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------|---------|
| | | Moderately differentiated Grade (۲) | Poorly differentiated Grade (۳) | T-Test | P-value |
| MiR-۱۲۶ FRU (Log) | Mean ± SD | ۴,۰۰ ± ۱,۴۲ | ۵,۰۲ ± ۱,۰۱ | ۱,۴۲ | ۰,۱۷ |

P ≤ ۰,۰۵ significant, P > ۰,۰۵ non-significant

Table (۳۳): Shows statistically non-significant difference in mean value of miR-۱۲۶ relative expression in patients with poorly differentiated tumors as compared to those with moderately differentiated tumors.

Table (٣٤): Differences in mean values of miR-١٢٦ relative expression in bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grades.

| | Tumor Grade | | | | |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|----------------|----------|
| | Well differentiated Grade (١) (n=٧) | Moderately differentiated Grade (٢) (n=١٩) | Poorly differentiated Grade (٣) (n=٢٤) | ANOVA- Test | P-value* |
| | Mean ± Standard Deviation | Mean ± Standard Deviation | Mean ± Standard Deviation | | |
| MiR-١٢٦ FRU (Log) | ٥,١١ ± ١,٣٩ | ٤,٥٠ ± ١,٤٢ | ٥,٠٢ ± ١,٠١ | F= ١,٠٥ | ٠,٥٢ |

Table (٣٤) and Figure (٣٢): Show that miR-١٢٦ relative expression had statistically non-significant significant difference in moderately and poorly differentiated tumors as compared to well differentiated ones and also between each other.

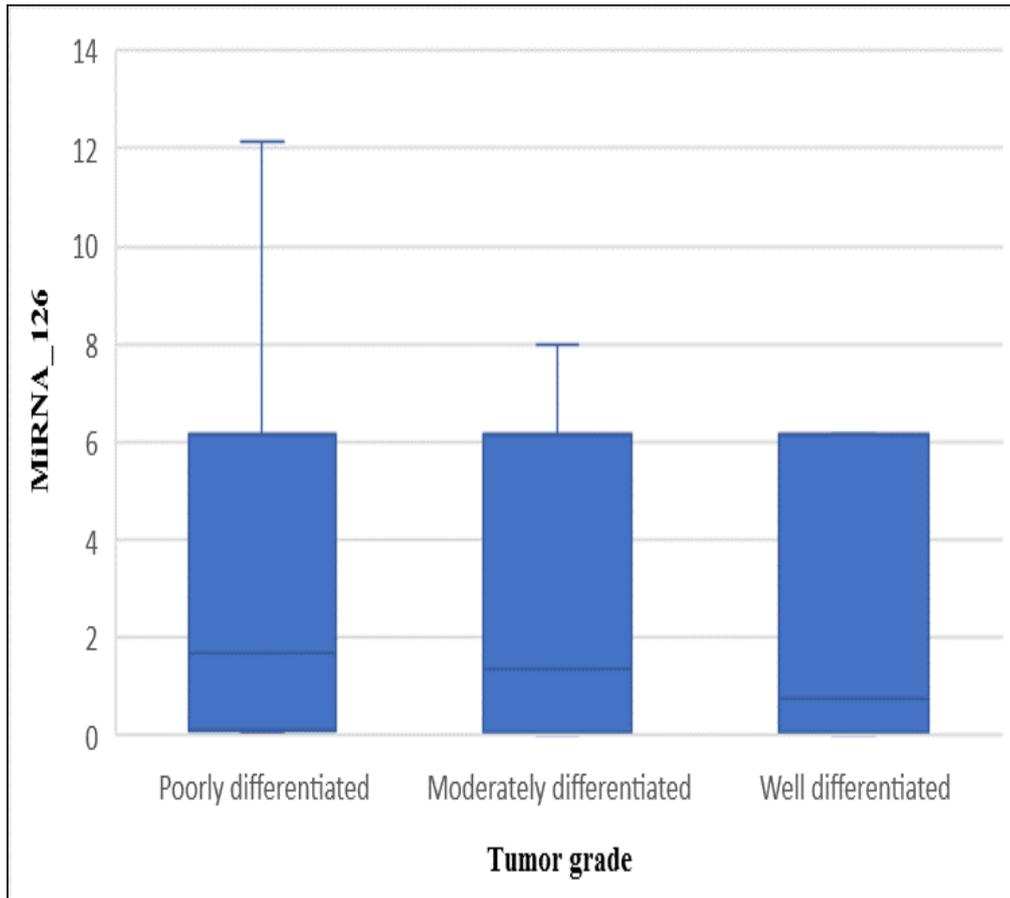


Figure (٢٢): Differences in mean values of miR- ١٢٦ relative expression of bladder cancer patients regarding tumor grade.

Table (۳۵): Pearson correlation between miR-۹۶ and miR-۱۲۶ relative expression in the studied samples (n=۷۰).

| Variable | MiR-۱۲۶ FRU (log.) | |
|----------|---------------------|---------|
| | Samples (n=۷۰) | |
| | Pearson correlation | P-value |
| MiR-۹۶ | ۰,۲۹ | .۰۱۵ |

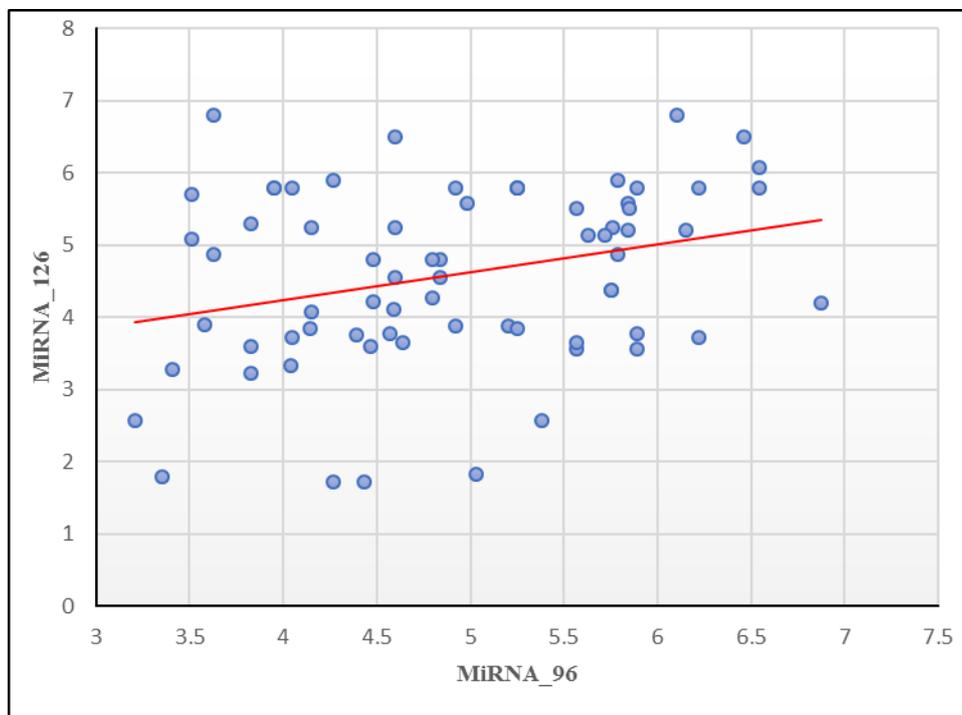


Figure (۳۳): Significant positive correlation between miR-۹۶ and miR-۱۲۶ relative expression in the studied samples (n=۷۰).

Table (۳۵) and figure (۳۳): Show a significant positive correlation between miR-۹۶ and miR-۱۲۶ relative expression in the studied samples.

Table (۳۶): Cutoff value, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of miR-۹۶.

| Marker | Cutoff value | Sensitivity | Specificity | PPV | NPV | Accuracy | AUC | P-value |
|---------------------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|------|------|----------|-------|---------|
| miR-۹۶ FRU (log) | >۴,۸۴ | ۶۸,۰۰% | ۹۰,۰۰% | ۹۷,۱ | ۵۴,۳ | ۸۴,۲% | ۰,۸۴۲ | <۰,۰۰۱ |

*AUC: Area under the curve.

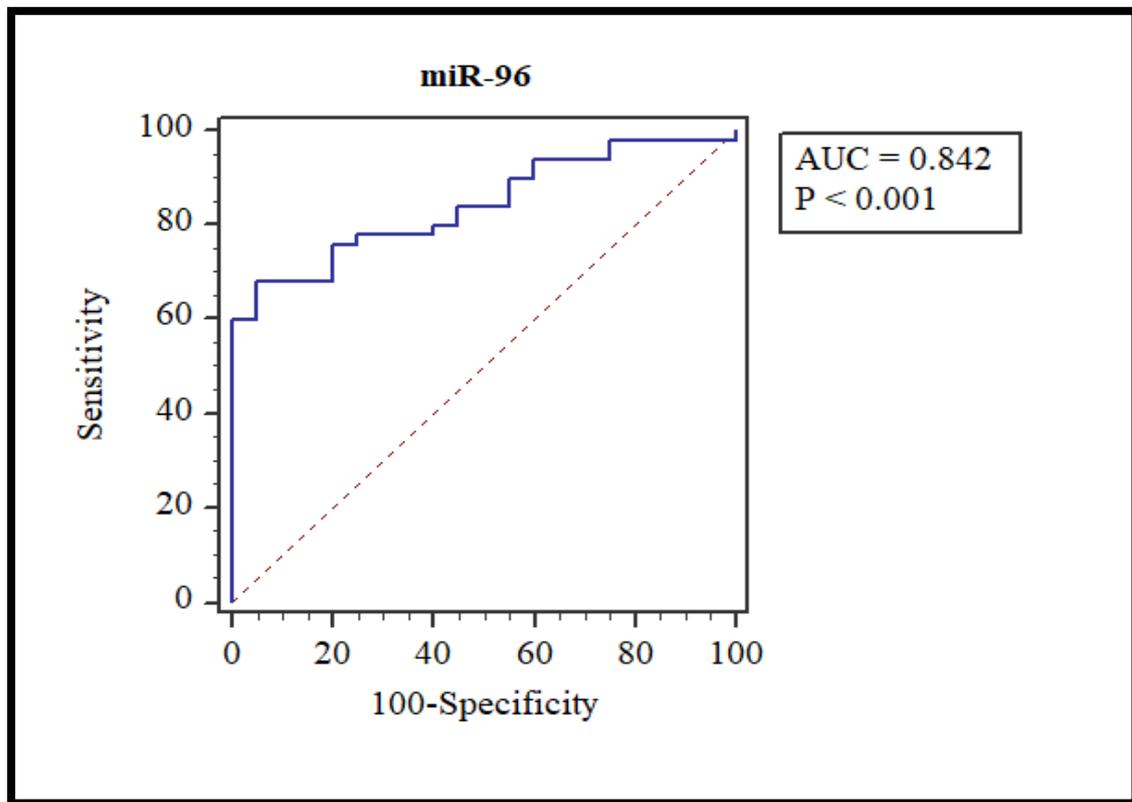


Figure (۳۴): ROC curve for Performance of miR- ۹۶ in early detection of BC.

Table (۳۶) & Figure (۳۴): Show that miR-۹۶ (the blue line) had high specificity (۹۰%) with sensitivity (۶۸%) in detection of early BC.

Table (37): Cutoff value, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of miR-126.

| Marker | Cutoff value | Sensitivity | Specificity | PPV | NPV | Accuracy | AUC | P-value |
|----------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-----|-----|----------|-----|---------|
| miR-126 FRU (log) | >0,09 | 04,00% | 80,00% | 90 | 42 | 70,4% | 0,7 | 0,001 |

*AUC: Area under the curve.

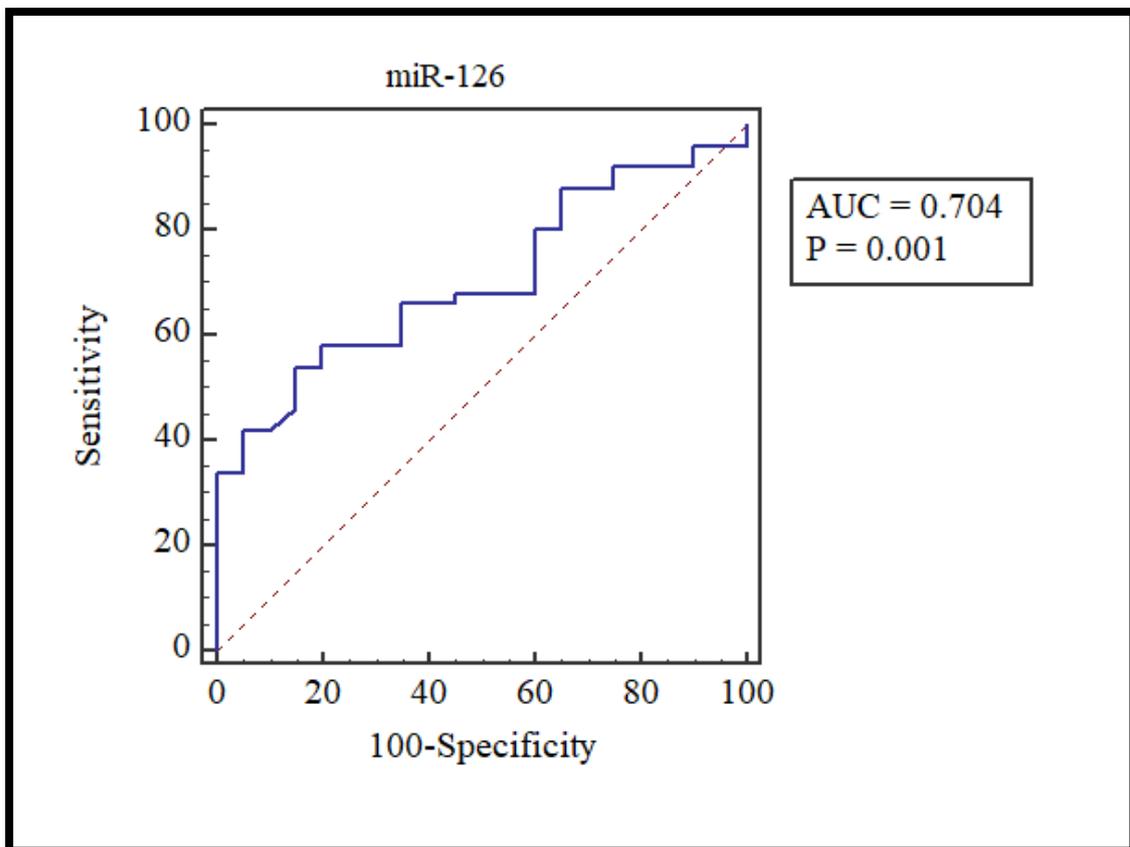


Figure (38): ROC curve for Performance of miR-126 in early detection of BC.

Figure (37) & Table (38): Show that miR-126 (the blue line) had high specificity (80%) with sensitivity (4%) in detection of early BC.

Table (38): Cutoff, sensitivity, specificity, positive predictive value, negative predictive value, accuracy and AUC of combined miR-96 and miR-126.

| Marker | Cutoff value | Sensitivity | Specificity | PPV | NPV | Accuracy | AUC | P-value |
|------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-----|------|----------|-------|---------|
| miR-96 + miR-126 | >7.146 | 76% | 100% | 100 | 62,0 | 88% | 0.882 | <0,001 |

*AUC: Area under the curve.

Table (38) & Figure (36 & 37): Show that miR-96 + miR-126 had higher specificity (100%) with sensitivity (76%) in detection of early BC.

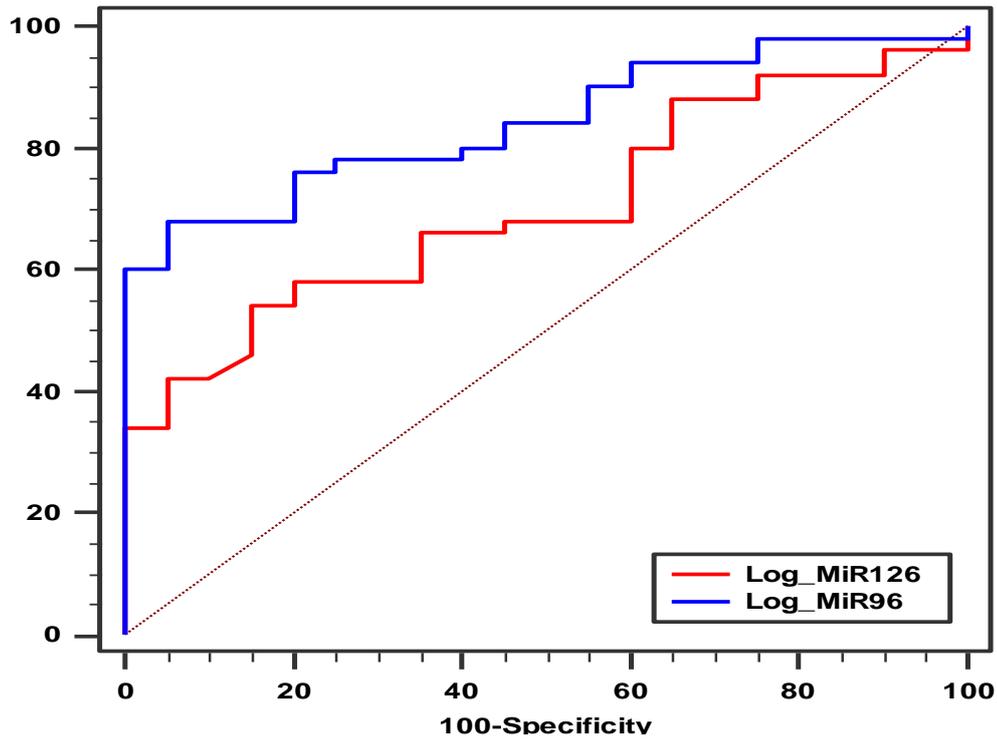


Figure (31): ROC curve for Performance of both miR-96 and miR-126 in early detection of BC.

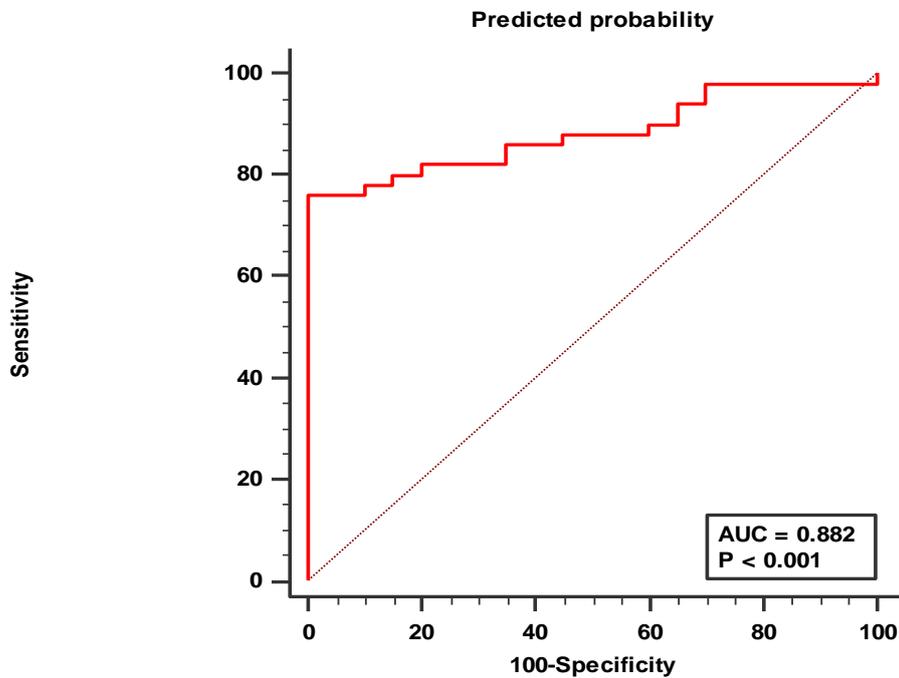


Figure (32): ROC curve for Performance of combined miR-96 and miR-126 in early detection of BC.

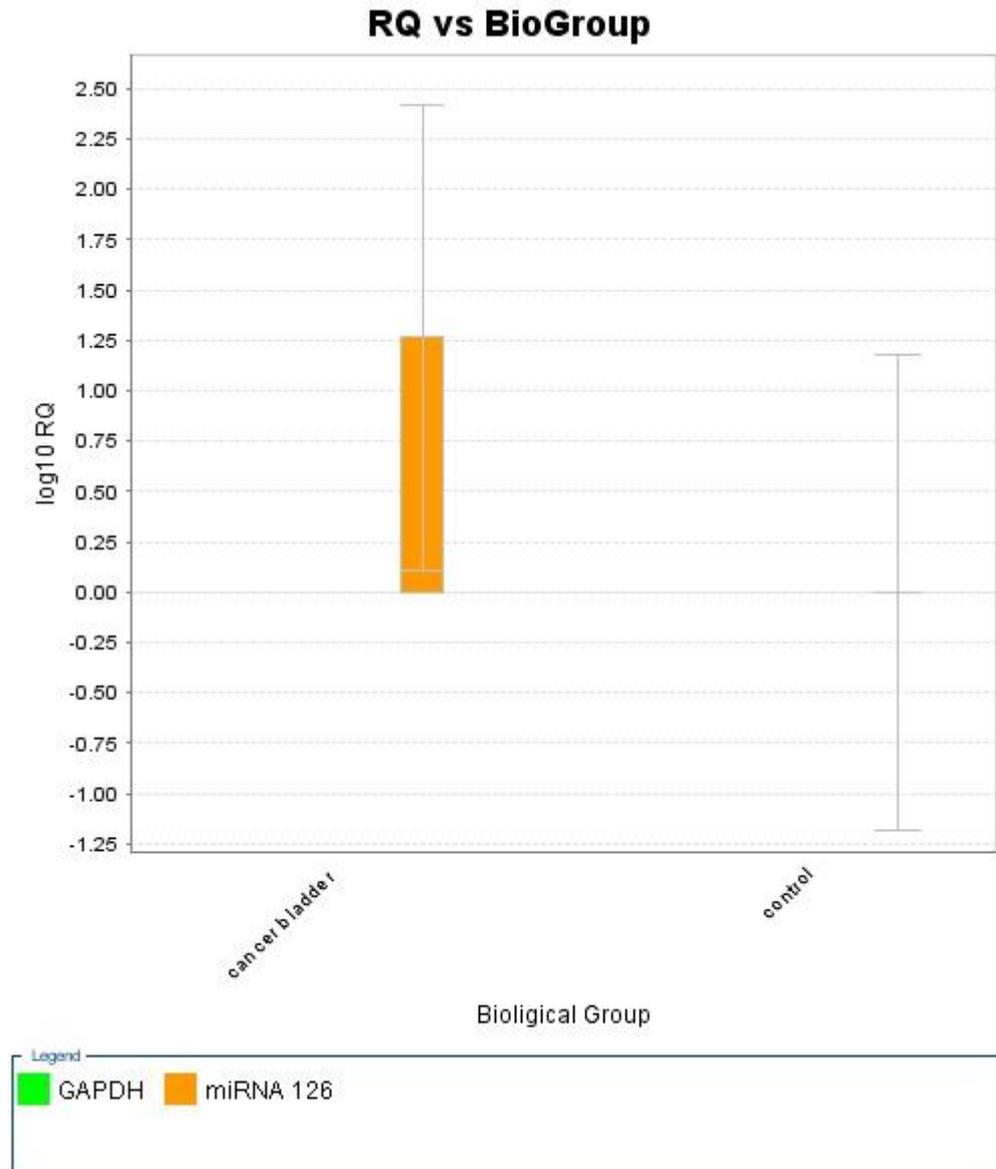


Figure (٢٨): Fold expression changes of the expression of miR-126

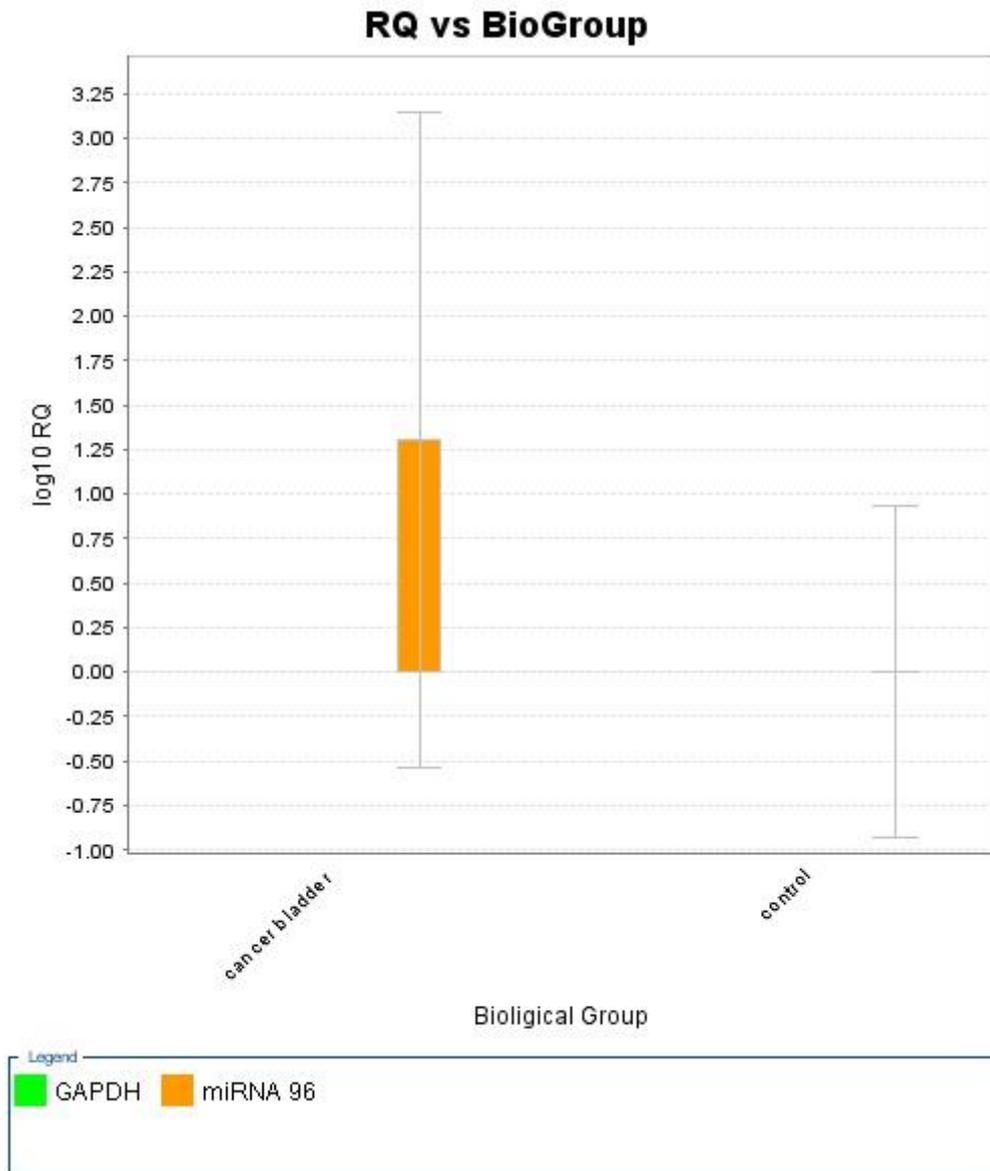


Figure (۳۹): Fold expression changes of the expression of the miR- ۹۷

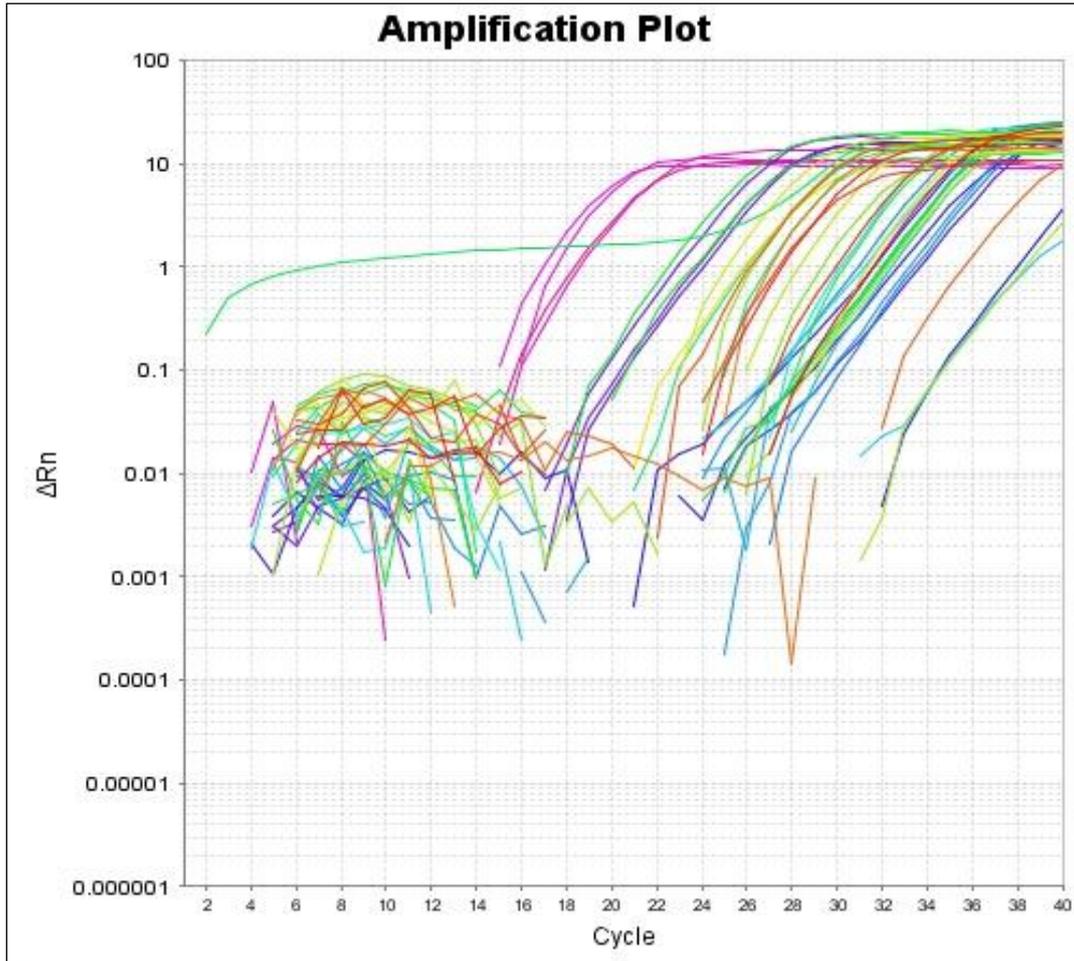


Figure (4.1): Typical amplification plot of miR 97 and GAPDH as reference gene.

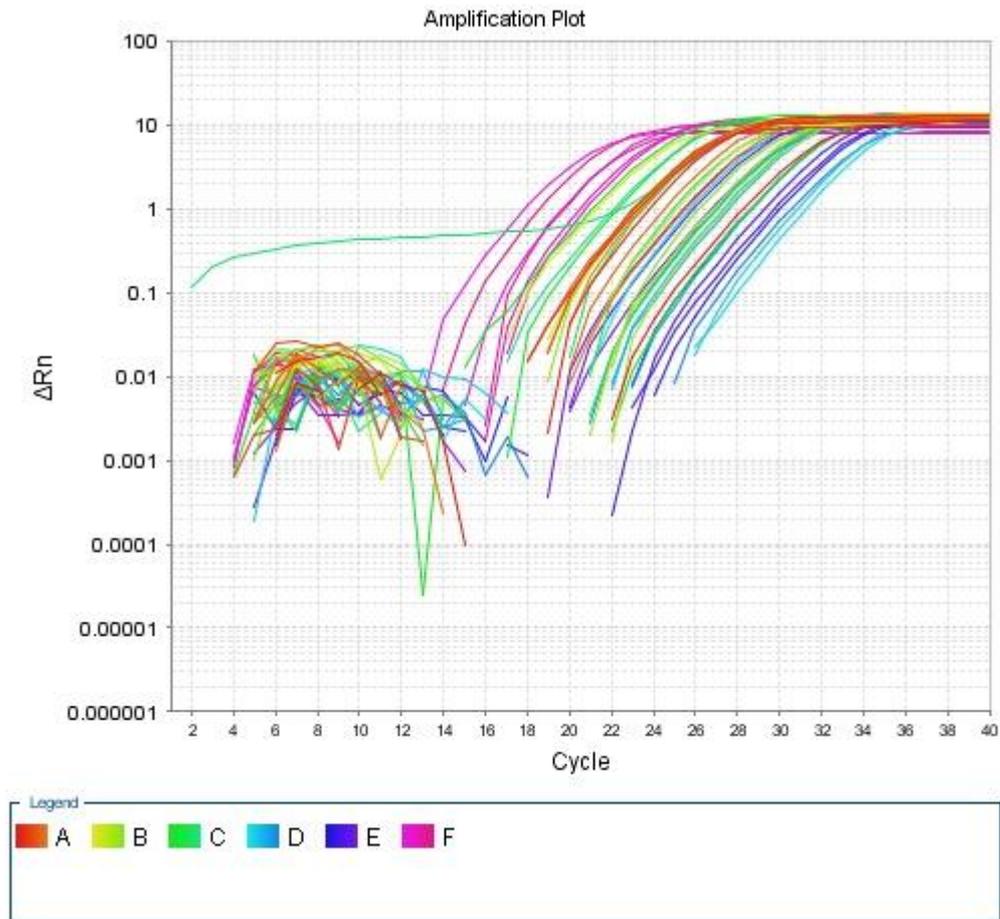


Figure (41): Typical amplification plot of miR- 127 and GAPDH as reference gene.

Discussion

Bladder cancer is still the most common malignant tumor among males in Egypt, some African and Middle East countries (*Khaled, 2013*). According to the National Cancer Institute in Cairo, Egypt, it constitutes 20,3% of all cancers (*Eissa et al., 2010*). The annual death rate from this disease is significant and every year there is an increase in its incidence globally (*Khochikar, 2011*).

Bladder cancer patients at an early stage could be treated by radical surgery, which may improve the patients' life quality and prognosis. However, those patients at advanced stage may only be treated by chemotherapy, radiotherapy and targeted therapy, and the clinical efficacy is quite different among different individuals. Thus, the early diagnosis of bladder cancer is closely correlated with the clinical outcome, indicating that the validation of effective biomarkers for early diagnosis of bladder cancer is vital to the clinical management of such patients (*Fendler et al., 2017*).

The pathogenesis of cancer is a complex process; various aspects affect its genesis and development. A commonly held view is that the imbalanced expression of oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes contributes to tumor cell proliferation, and invasion (*Zhou et al., 2014*).

The current methods of bladder cancer diagnosis are urine cytology and cystoscopy. Urine cytology is a procedure with 90% specificity but low sensitivity, especially in low-grade tumors. Cystoscopy is the current gold-standard method for bladder cancer detection, but it is an invasive and expensive procedure with low specificity and sensitivity in detecting flat CIS tumors (*Zhu et al., 2019*).

Therefore, there have been lot of efforts in the field to find sensitive, and specific molecular markers for bladder cancer (*Schmitz-Dräger et al., 2010*). It has been suggested that miRNAs are useful in this respect (*Dip et al., 2012*). In the past few years, accumulative research has shown the important roles of miRNAs in the development of BC (*Wang et al., 2020*).

miRNAs are a class of highly conserved small RNAs that bind the 3'-UTR region of its target gene and regulate the expression of target genes. The involvement of miRNAs in gene regulatory processes and their implication in several diseases, including cancer, makes them very attractive for diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment in clinical application (*Armstrong et al., 2014*). The increasing number of studies investigating miRNA expression profiles specific to bladder cancer indicate the growing interest in searching for specific miRNAs to function as diagnostic biomarkers (*Schmitz-Dräger et al., 2010*).

Recent studies showed that miR-96 was frequently increased in several human cancers. MiR-96 has been reported to exert an oncogenic effect in non-small cell lung cancer, esophageal cancer, hepatocellular carcinoma, breast cancer (*Yang et al., 2019*). The target genes of miR-96 include the tumor suppressor genes *FOXO 1* and *FOXO 3a* in breast cancer (*Gao & Wang, 2010*) and other validated targets of miR-96 include *RECK* in esophageal cancer (*Xia et al., 2010*), *EphrinA 2* in Hepatocellular carcinoma (*Wang et al., 2016*), *SAMD 9* in non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) (*Wu et al., 2016*).

On the other hand, miR-96 has been reported to function as a tumor suppressor in several cancers. For instance, miR-96 directly targeted the GTPase Kras (KRAS) oncogene in pancreatic cancer cells and ectopic expression of miR-96 through a synthetic miRNA precursor inhibited KRAS and triggered apoptosis in cells (*Feng et al.*, 2014).

To study the expression pattern of both miR-96 and miR-126 in bladder cancer, voided urine samples were collected from BC patients as well as normal volunteers.

Our study found that the expression level of miR-96 was significantly increased in BC urinary samples compared with that in control samples (BC vs. Control: 0.22 ± 0.87 vs. 4.10 ± 0.03 , $P < 0.001$), offering an initial evidence that miR-96 is a promising diagnostic biomarker for BC.

Our findings were in line with the previous genome-wide miRNA expression profile reported by *Yoshino et al.* (2013) and *Eissa et al.*, (2015) who identified miR-96 as one of upregulated miRNAs in clinical BC tissues compared to normal bladder tissues. *Kriebel et al.* (2015) reported that the expression of plasma miR-96 in patients with bladder cancer was significantly increased.

In addition, *Yamada et al.*, 2011 observed that miR-96 was significantly higher expressed in urine of 100 bladder cancer group than in healthy controls (miR-96, $P = 0.0009$) and significantly correlated with tumor grade and stage.

Also, *Liu et al.*, 2014 found that miR-183/96/182 cluster might play oncogenic roles in BC and *Wu et al.*, 2010 concluded that miR-96 may function as an onco-miRNA in BC.

While *Wang et al.*, 2012 reported that miR-96 was expressed at higher levels in human bladder urothelial carcinomas compared to normal tissues and found that miR-96 increased invasion and differentiation of human bladder T γ cells and promoted cell growth.

Scheffer et al. (2014) confirmed that the expression of 22 miRNAs in bladder cancer tissues was upregulated, including miR-96.

Xu et al., 2014 applied the gene expression microarray to validate that miR-96 expression was upregulated in bladder cancer tissue.

On the other hand, *Guo et al.*, 2010 identified that miR-96 was downregulated in transitional cell carcinoma tissues compared to normal bladder tissues, and regulated FOXO-mediated cancer cell apoptosis. In this study, urinary miR-96 was found to be higher in low grade BC patients in comparison to high grade tumors.

Upregulation of miR-96 in TCC tumorigenesis is one of the mechanisms of repression of transcription factors (FOXO) of Forkhead Box O subfamily, which is a tumor suppressor gene causing G γ cell cycle arrest and cell death (*Myatt et al.*, 2010). Another mechanism is that hsa-miR-96 by upregulating MAP γ K γ and insulin receptor substrate γ (IRS γ) levels may affect the growth of bladder cancer cells (*Wang et al.*, 2012).

Zhang et al. (2014) found that miR-96 that regulates the BC progression could be driven by transforming growth factor (TGF- β), which indicates that miR-96 is a key factor in BC in response to TGF- β signaling. *XU et al.*, 2014 demonstrated that miR-96 expression was upregulated in bladder cancer cell lines.

In addition, expression of this miRNA decreased significantly after radical surgery, suggesting that it can be used also as a prognostic molecular marker of cancer recurrence (*Yamada et al.*, 2011).

Moreover, miR-96 expression in the superficial bladder tumors was lower than in invasive tumors and significantly related to the clinical stages of bladder carcinoma and the pathological types. These results revealed that miR-96 maybe plays a role in the process of development, occurrence and infiltration of bladder carcinomas (*Wang et al.*, 2012).

As regards, miRNA-126, our study revealed overexpression of miR-126 in urine of bladder cancer patients compared of that in control (BC vs. Control: 4.82 ± 1.23 vs. 1.0 ± 1.0 , $P = 0.00$), indicating the feasibility and effectiveness of the urine detection of miR-126 level in the early diagnosis of bladder cancer.

This finding is in consistent with that obtained by *Xu et al.*, (2014) who reported increase in urine miR-126 expression level in bladder cancer patients compared to that in non-bladder cancer patients ($P=0.03$).

Also, *Hanke et al.* (2010) reported that miR-126 was clearly overrepresented in the urine of BC patients in comparison to control groups (healthy donors and patients with urinary tract infections) with a mean fold change of 18.1.

Xiao et al. (2016) reported that overexpression of miR-126 negatively regulated the target gene *phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase regulatory subunit beta* (*PIK3R2*) and further inhibited the phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K)-protein kinase B (Akt) (PI3K/Akt) signaling pathway, thereby inhibiting proliferation, migration, and

invasion and promoting apoptosis in human bladder transitional cell carcinoma cell line (BLS) cells.

Both in vitro and in vivo experiments have demonstrated that miR-126 could enhance tumor cell proliferation, invasion and migration, but suppress tumor cell apoptosis in bladder cancer, suggesting that miR-126 could play an oncogenic role in the development and progression of bladder cancer (*Liu et al.*, 2014).

Low miR-126 expression has been associated with an invasive phenotype in many tumors, such as ductal invasive tumors of the breast (*Tavazoie et al.*, 2008), pancreatic adenocarcinoma (*Hamada et al.*, 2012), and liver hepatocellular carcinoma (*Chen et al.*, 2013). In addition, low serum levels of miR-126 in a three-miRNA plasma signature served as a significant prognostic biomarker for tumor progression in lung adenocarcinoma (*Sanfiorenzo et al.*, 2013). Moreover, reduced miR-126 expression was a marker of tumor progression and nodal metastasis in oral squamous cell carcinoma (*Sasahira et al.*, 2012).

Jia et al. (2014) reported down regulation of miR-126 in BC tissue compared with that in normal tissue. *Tian et al.* (2016) assumed that low expression of miR-126 in transitional cell carcinoma of the bladder (BTCC) promoted the expression of VEGF and the microvascular formation in BTCC. It suggested that as a tumor suppressor factor, miR-126 might play an important role in the pathogenesis and progression and be a potential marker for the metastasis of BTCC.

On the other hand, *Snowdon et al.* (2013) revealed a moderate sensitivity of 80% and a high specificity of 100% for the diagnostic accuracy of miR-126b and miR-126.

Hanke et al., 2010 examined the specificity and sensitivity of miR-126: miR-152 and reported a moderate sensitivity of 72% and a high specificity of 82% for the diagnostic accuracy of miR-126b and miR-126.

Conclusions

It could be concluded that the significant increase in urinary miR-96 and miR-126 expression level in bladder cancer patients compared to the controls suggests their role as tumor diagnostic non-invasive markers. The results of this study revealed that miRNA-96 expression level in urine sample is a potentially useful urinary biomarker for early diagnosis of bladder cancer.

Recommendation

The followings are recommended:

- ✓ Further studies using wider scale with large study sample are needed.
- ✓ Using miR-96 in applicable way in assessment the prognosis of bladder cancer.
- ✓ The expression of miR-96 and miR-126 in bladder cancer are attractive as potential biomarkers and new targets for bladder cancer therapy
- ✓ Study of the expression level of miR-96 and miR-126 as biomarkers in the follow up of bladder cancer.

Summary

Bladder cancer is the tenth most common malignant disease and a common cause of cancer death worldwide in both developed and developing countries such as Egypt. It is known to affect men more than women and disease prevalence increases with age. The main type of bladder cancer is urothelial cell carcinoma with frequent recurrence and/or metastasis.

Cystoscopy, often in combination with cytology, is the gold standard for the diagnosis of bladder cancer. It is however an invasive, painful, operator dependent and costly procedure, which places a substantial burden on patients and healthcare resources.

In addition to cystoscopy and cytology many noninvasive urinary markers have been developed for detection of bladder cancer. However, up till now no urinary-based tumor markers have demonstrated sufficient sensitivity and specificity to replace cystoscopy in the detection of bladder cancer.

Numerous studies have addressed the potential role of microRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers based on their implication in various types of cancers as either oncogenes or tumor suppressors.

The current work aimed to study the role of miR-96 and miR-126 in bladder cancer by determining their expression in relation to various clinico-pathological parameters. Also to determine the relationship between the expression of miR-96 and miR-126.

٧٠ subjects of both sexes were selected from Urology Department, Faculty of Medicine, Benha University Hospital. Their ages ranged from ٣٤- ٨٤ years with mean value ٦١,٠± ٨,٩ years. The subjects were categorized into ٣ groups:

A. Malignant lesion group: Included ٥٠ patients, they were diagnosed as bladder cancer patients by clinical, radiological, cystoscopic and histopathological examinations.

B. Control group: Comprised ٧٠ persons, age and sex matched, with histopathologically normal urothelium.

All patients were subjected to:

١. Full history taking.
٢. General and local urological examinations.
٣. Routine preoperative laboratory investigations including: urine analysis, complete blood count (CBC), fasting blood sugar, liver function tests, kidney function tests and coagulation profile.
٤. Radiological investigations including: abdominopelvic plain X ray, ultrasonography and CT.
٥. ECG (if indicated for preoperative assessment).
٦. Diagnostic cystoscopy and biopsy for histopathology.
٧. Molecular biology investigations: Quantitative reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) for detection of miR-١٤٥ and Oct٤ gene expression levels.

Voided urine (30–60 mL) samples were obtained from all individuals. Urine samples were collected using sterile urine collection cups, sealed immediately and placed on ice stored at -80°C and centrifuged at $2,000\text{--}4,000 \times g$ for 10–20 min. The samples were used for estimation of miR-96 and miR-126 gene expression levels by qRT-PCR.

The results of the current study showed that miR-96 expression level significantly increased in bladder cancer group compared to the control group. Also, miR-126 showed significant increase in bladder cancer group compared to control group.

The results showed that the urine expression of miR-96 was related to tumor stage and tumor grade. The higher the tumor stage, the higher the expression of miR-96 in urine. The expression of miR-96 in urine of patients with tumor grade I was significantly lower than that of patients with tumor grade II ($P < .001$) that was significantly lower than that of patients with tumor grade III. However, the expression of miR-96 in urine of patients with bladder cancer was not related to age, sex, smoking and malignant type ($P > .05$). It is suggested that the expression of miR-96 in urinary sediment of patients with bladder cancer is related to the progression of tumor.

Regarding expression of miR-126 in urine, the results showed that the urine expression of miR-126 was related to tumor type ($P = .001$) as it was significantly higher in Small cell carcinoma (SCC) compared to Transitional cell carcinoma (TCC) but not related to age, sex, smoking, tumor stage and tumor grade.

REFERENCES

- Abd-Aziz, N., Kamaruzman, N. I., & Poh, C. L. (2020). Development of MicroRNAs as Potential Therapeutics against Cancer. In *Journal of Oncology* (Vol. 2020). Hindawi Limited. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/8029721>
- Alderson, M., Grivas, P., Milowsky, M. I., & Wobker, S. E. (2020). Histologic Variants of Urothelial Carcinoma: Morphology, Molecular Features and Clinical Implications. In *Bladder Cancer* (Vol. 6, Issue 2, pp. 107–122). IOS Press. <https://doi.org/10.3233/BLC-190207>
- Alhunaidi, O., & Zlotta, A. R. (2019). The use of intravesical BCG in urothelial carcinoma of the bladder. *Ecancermedicalscience*, 13. <https://doi.org/10.3232/ecancer.2019.900>
- Almeida, M. I., Reis, R. M., & Calin, G. A. (2011). MicroRNA history: Discovery, recent applications, and next frontiers. In *Mutation Research - Fundamental and Molecular Mechanisms of Mutagenesis* (Vol. 717, Issues 1–2, pp. 1–8). Mutat Res. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2011.03.009>
- Anastasiadis, A., & de Reijke, T. M. (2012). Best practice in the treatment of nonmuscle invasive bladder cancer. *Therapeutic Advances in Urology*, 4(1), 13–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1756287211431976>
- Anderson, M. J., Viars, C. S., Czekay, S., Cavenee, W. K., & Arden, K. C. (1998). Cloning and characterization of three human forkhead genes that comprise an FKHR-like gene subfamily. *Genomics*, 47(2), 187–199. <https://doi.org/10.1006/geno.1997.0122>

- Antoni, S., Ferlay, J., Soerjomataram, I., Znaor, A., Jemal, A., & Bray, F. (2017). Bladder Cancer Incidence and Mortality: A Global Overview and Recent Trends. In *European Urology* (Vol. 71, Issue 1, pp. 96–108). Elsevier B.V. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2016.06.011>
- Armstrong, D. A., Nymon, A. B., Ringelberg, C. S., Lesueur, C., Hazlett, H. F., Howard, L., Marsit, C. J., & Ashare, A. (2017). Pulmonary microRNA profiling: implications in upper lobe predominant lung disease. *Clinical Epigenetics*, 9(1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13148-017-0300-1>
- Bill, M., Pathmanathan, A., Karunasiri, M., Shen, C., Burke, M. H., Ranganathan, P., Papaioannou, D., Zitzer, N., Snyder, K., Larocco, A., Walker, A. E., Brannan, Z. J., Nalin, A. P., Freud, A. G., Dikov, M., Zhang, X., Bloomfield, C. D., Garzon, R., & Dorrance, A. M. (2019). *EGFLV Antagonizes NOTCH Signaling and Represents a Novel Therapeutic Target in Acute Myeloid Leukemia*. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-19-2479>
- Brase, J. C., Johannes, M., Schlomm, T., Haese, A., Steuber, T., Beissbarth, T., Kuner, R., & Sultmann, H. (2011). Circulating miRNAs are correlated with tumor progression in prostate cancer. *International Journal of Cancer*, 124(3), 608–616. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.20376>
- Bray, F., Ferlay, J., Soerjomataram, I., Siegel, R. L., Torre, L. A., & Jemal, A. (2018). Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 180 countries. *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, 74(6), 394–424. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21492>

- Brimo, F., Vollmer, R. T., Case, B., Aprikian, A., Kassouf, W., & Auger, M. (2009). Accuracy of Urine Cytology and the Significance of an Atypical Category. *American Journal of Clinical Pathology*, 132(6), 780–793. <https://doi.org/10.1309/AJCPZRZLG9KT9AXL>
- Brueckner, B., Stresemann, C., Kuner, R., Mund, C., Musch, T., Meister, M., Sultmann, H., & Lyko, F. (2007). The human let-7a-3 locus contains an epigenetically regulated microRNA gene with oncogenic function. *Cancer Research*, 67(18), 1419–1423. <https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-06-4074>
- Burger, M., Catto, J. W. F., Dalbagni, G., Grossman, H. B., Herr, H., Karakiewicz, P., Kassouf, W., Kiemeny, L. A., La Vecchia, C., Shariat, S., & Lotan, Y. (2013). Epidemiology and risk factors of urothelial bladder cancer. In *European Urology* (Vol. 63, Issue 2, pp. 234–241). Elsevier B.V. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2012.07.033>
- Calderaro, J., Rebouissou, S., De Koning, L., Masmoudi, A., Hérault, A., Dubois, T., Maille, P., Soyeux, P., Sibony, M., De La Taille, A., Vordos, D., Lebret, T., Radvanyi, F., & Allory, Y. (2014). PI3K/AKT pathway activation in bladder carcinogenesis. *International Journal of Cancer*, 134(8), 1776–1784. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.28018>
- Cauberg, E. C. C., Mamoulakis, C., de la Rosette, J. J. M. C. H., & de Reijke, T. M. (2011). Narrow band imaging-assisted transurethral resection for non-muscle invasive bladder cancer significantly reduces residual tumour rate. *World Journal of Urology*, 29(1), 003–009. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00345-011-1609-2>
- Cheung, G., Sahai, A., Billia, M., Dasgupta, P., & Khan, M. S. (2013a). Recent advances in the diagnosis and treatment of bladder cancer. In *BMC Medicine* (Vol. 11, Issue 1, p. 13). BioMed Central. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1745-170-11-13>
- Cheung, G., Sahai, A., Billia, M., Dasgupta, P., & Khan, M. S. (2013b).

- Recent advances in the diagnosis and treatment of bladder cancer. In *BMC Medicine* (Vol. 11, Issue 1, p. 13). BioMed Central. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1745-017-11-13>
- Chistiakov, D. A., Orekhov, A. N., & Bobryshev, Y. V. (2016). The role of miR-126 in embryonic angiogenesis, adult vascular homeostasis, and vascular repair and its alterations in atherosclerotic disease. In *Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology* (Vol. 97, pp. 47-55). Academic Press. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yjmcc.2016.05.007>
- Chuang, J. C., & Jones, P. A. (2007). Epigenetics and microRNAs. In *Pediatric Research* (Vol. 61, Issue 6 PART 2 SUPPL.). Pediatr Res. <https://doi.org/10.1203/pdr.0b013e31804e0768e>
- Comp erat, E., Varinot, J., Moroch, J., Eymerit-Morin, C., & Brimo, F. (2018). A practical guide to bladder cancer pathology. In *Nature Reviews Urology* (Vol. 14, Issue 3, pp. 143-154). Nature Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrurol.2018.2>
- Cui, H., Mu, Y., Yu, L., Xi, Y. guang, Matthiesen, R., Su, X., & Sun, W. (2016). Methylation of the miR-126 gene associated with glioma progression. *Familial Cancer*, 15(2), 317-324. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10689-015-9847-4>
- Cumberbatch, M. G. K., & Noon, A. P. (2019). Epidemiology, aetiology and screening of bladder cancer. In *Translational Andrology and Urology* (Vol. 8, Issue 1, pp. 5-11). AME Publishing Company. <https://doi.org/10.21037/tau.2018.09.11>
- Daneshmand, S., Bazargani, S. T., Bivalacqua, T. J., Holzbeierlein, J. M., Willard, B., Taylor, J. M., Liao, J. C., Pohar, K., Tierney, J., & Konety, B. (2018). Blue light cystoscopy for the diagnosis of bladder cancer: Results from the US prospective multicenter registry. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, 26(8),

361.e1-361.e6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2018.04.013>

Davis, K. D., Aghaeepour, N., Ahn, A. H., Angst, M. S., Borsook, D., Brenton, A., Burczynski, M. E., Crean, C., Edwards, R., Gaudilliere, B., Hergenroeder, G. W., Iadarola, M. J., Iyengar, S., Jiang, Y., Kong, J. T., Mackey, S., Saab, C. Y., Sang, C. N., Scholz, J., ... Pellemounter, M. A. (2020). Discovery and validation of biomarkers to aid the development of safe and effective pain therapeutics: challenges and opportunities. *Nature Reviews Neurology*, 16(7), 381–400. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41582-020-0362-2>

Dip, N., Reis, S. T., Timoszczuk, L. S., Viana, N. I., Piantino, C. B., Morais, D. R., Moura, C. M., Abe, D. K., Silva, I. A., Srougi, M., Dall'Oglio, M. F., & Leite, K. R. M. (2012). Stage, grade and behavior of bladder urothelial carcinoma defined by the microRNA expression profile. *Journal of Urology*, 188(5), 1901–1906. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2012.07.004>

Du, Z. W., Ma, L. X., Phillips, C., & Zhang, S. C. (2013). miR-200 and miR-96 families repress neural induction from human embryonic stem cells. *Development (Cambridge)*, 140(12), 2611–2618. <https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.092809>

Dyrskjöt, L., Ostensfeld, M. S., Bramsen, J. B., Silahdaroglu, A. N., Lamy, P., Ramanathan, R., Fristrup, N., Jensen, J. L., Andersen, C. L., Zieger, K., Kauppinen, S., Ulhøi, B. P., Kjems, J., Borre, M., & Ørntoft, T. F. (2009). Genomic profiling of microRNAs in bladder cancer: miR-129 is associated with poor outcome and promotes cell death in vitro. *Cancer Research*, 69(11), 4801–4810. <https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-08-4443>

- Eiring, A. M., Harb, J. G., Neviani, P., Garton, C., Oaks, J. J., Spizzo, R., Liu, S., Schwind, S., Santhanam, R., Hickey, C. J., Becker, H., Chandler, J. C., Andino, R., Cortes, J., Hokland, P., Huettner, C. S., Bhatia, R., Roy, D. C., Liebhaber, S. A., ... Perrotti, D. (2010). miR-328 Functions as an RNA Decoy to Modulate hnRNP E1 Regulation of mRNA Translation in Leukemic Blasts. *Cell*, 141(5), 652-660. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2010.01.007>
- Eissa, N., El-Ghiet, E. N. A., Shaheen, A. A., & Abbass, A. A. (2010). Characterization of pseudomonas species isolated from tilapia. *Undefined*.
- Elias, K., Svatek, R. S., Gupta, S., Ho, R., & Lotan, Y. (2010). High-risk patients with hematuria are not evaluated according to guideline recommendations. *Cancer*, 117(12), 2904-2909. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.20048>
- Enokida, H., Yoshino, H., Matsushita, R., & Nakagawa, M. (2016). The role of microRNAs in bladder cancer. In *Investigative and Clinical Urology* (Vol. 07, Issue Suppl 1, pp. S70-S76). Korean Urological Association. <https://doi.org/10.4111/icu.2016.07.S1.S70>
- Farhan, M., Wang, H., Gaur, U., Little, P. J., Xu, J., & Zheng, W. (2017). FOXO signaling pathways as therapeutic targets in cancer. In *International Journal of Biological Sciences* (Vol. 13, Issue 4, pp. 810-827). Ivyspring International Publisher. <https://doi.org/10.7150/ijbs.20002>
- Felix, A. S., Soliman, A. S., Khaled, H., Zaghloul, M. S., Banerjee, M., El-Baradie, M., El-Kalawy, M., Abd-Elsayed, A. A., Ismail, K., Hablas, A., Seifeldin, I. A., Ramadan, M., & Wilson, M. L. (2008).

- The changing patterns of bladder cancer in Egypt over the past ٢٦ years. *Cancer Causes and Control*, ١٩(٤), ٤٢١–٤٢٩. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-007-9104-7>
- Fendler, A., Stephan, C., Yousef, G. M., Kristiansen, G., & Jung, K. (٢٠١٦). The translational potential of microRNAs as biofluid markers of urological tumours. In *Nature Reviews Urology* (Vol. ١٣, Issue ١٢, pp. ٧٣٤–٧٥٢). Nature Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrurol.2016.193>
- Feng, Y., Kang, Y., He, Y., Liu, J., Liang, B., Yang, P., & Yu, Z. (٢٠١٤). MicroRNA-٩٩a acts as a tumor suppressor and is down-regulated in bladder cancer. *BMC Urology*, ١٤(١), ٥٠. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2490-14-50>
- Fish, J. E., Santoro, M. M., Morton, S. U., Yu, S., Yeh, R. F., Wythe, J. D., Ivey, K. N., Bruneau, B. G., Stainier, D. Y. R., & Srivastava, D. (٢٠٠٨). miR-١٢٦ Regulates Angiogenic Signaling and Vascular Integrity. *Developmental Cell*, ١٥(٢), ٢٧٢–٢٨٤. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2008.07.008>
- Gaetani, S., Monaco, F., Alessandrini, F., Tagliabracci, A., Sabbatini, A., Bracci, M., Valentino, M., Neuzil, J., Amati, M., Santarelli, L., & Tomasetti, M. (٢٠٢٠). Mechanism of miR-٢٢٢ and miR-١٢٦ regulation and its role in asbestos-induced malignancy. *International Journal of Biochemistry and Cell Biology*, ١٢١. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biocel.2020.105700>
- Gallaway, M. S., Huang, B., Chen, Q., Tucker, T. C., McDowell, J. K., Durbin, E., Stewart, S. L., & Tai, E. (٢٠١٩). Smoking and Smoking Cessation Among Persons with Tobacco- and Non-tobacco-

-
- Associated Cancers. *Journal of Community Health*, 44(3), 502–511.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10900-019-00622-z>
- Gandini, S., Botteri, E., Iodice, S., Boniol, M., Lowenfels, A. B., Maisonneuve, P., & Boyle, P. (2018). Tobacco smoking and cancer: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Cancer*, 122(1), 100–114.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.23033>
- Gao, F., & Wang, W. (2015). MicroRNA-96 promotes the proliferation of colorectal cancer cells and targets tumor protein p53 inducible nuclear protein 1, forkhead box protein O1 (FOXO1) and FOXO3a. *Molecular Medicine Reports*, 11(2), 120–126.
<https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2014.2804>
- García-Closas, M., Malats, N., Silverman, D., Dosemeci, M., Kogevinas, M., Hein, D. W., Tardón, A., Serra, C., Carrato, A., García-Closas, R., Lloreta, J., Castaño-Vinyals, G., Yeager, M., Welch, R., Chanock, S., Chatterjee, N., Wacholder, S., Samanic, C., Torà, M., ... Rothman, N. (2005). NAT2 slow acetylation, GSTM1 null genotype, and risk of bladder cancer: Results from the Spanish Bladder Cancer Study and meta-analyses. *Lancet*, 366(9486), 649–659.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(05\)67137-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(05)67137-1)
- Global Cancer Data: GLOBOCAN 2018 | UICC*. (n.d.). Retrieved February 20, 2021, from <https://www.uicc.org/news/global-cancer-data-globocan-2018>
- Gonzalez, P., Li, G., Qiu, J., Wu, J., & Luna, C. (2014). Role of MicroRNAs in the trabecular meshwork. In *Journal of Ocular Pharmacology and Therapeutics* (Vol. 30, Issues 2–3, pp. 128–137). Mary Ann Liebert Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jop.2013.0191>
-

- Gottardo, F., Liu, C. G., Ferracin, M., Calin, G. A., Fassan, M., Bassi, P., Seignani, C., Byrne, D., Negrini, M., Pagano, F., Gomella, L. G., Croce, C. M., & Baffa, R. (2007). Micro-RNA profiling in kidney and bladder cancers. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, 15(5), 387-392. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2007.01.019>
- Griffiths-Jones, S., Grocock, R. J., van Dongen, S., Bateman, A., & Enright, A. J. (2006). miRBase: microRNA sequences, targets and gene nomenclature. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 34(Database issue). <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkj112>
- Grossman, H. B., Natale, R. B., Tangen, C. M., Speights, V. O., Vogelzang, N. J., Trump, D. L., White, R. W. deVere, Sarosdy, M. F., Wood, D. P., Raghavan, D., & Crawford, E. D. (2003). Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy plus Cystectomy Compared with Cystectomy Alone for Locally Advanced Bladder Cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 349(9), 859-866. <https://doi.org/10.1056/nejmoa022148>
- Grotenhuis, A. J., Ebben, C. W., Aben, K. K., Witjes, J. A., Vrieling, A., Vermeulen, S. H., & Kiemeny, L. A. (2010). The effect of smoking and timing of smoking cessation on clinical outcome in non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, 18. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2010.06.002>
- Guancial, E. A., Bellmunt, J., Yeh, S., Rosenberg, J. E., & Berman, D. M. (2014). The evolving understanding of microRNA in bladder cancer. In *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations* (Vol. 22, Issue 1, pp. 1.e31-1.e40). Elsevier Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2013.04.014>

- Guo, H., Ingolia, N. T., Weissman, J. S., & Bartel, D. P. (۲۰۱۰). Mammalian microRNAs predominantly act to decrease target mRNA levels. *Nature*, ۴۶۶(۷۳۰۸), ۸۳۰–۸۳۴. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature09277>
- Ha, M., & Kim, V. N. (۲۰۱۴). Regulation of microRNA biogenesis. In *Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology* (Vol. ۱۵, Issue ۸, pp. ۵۰۹–۵۲۴). Nature Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm3838>
- Haber, G.-P., & Gill, I. S. (۲۰۰۷). Laparoscopic radical cystectomy for cancer: oncological outcomes at up to ۵ years. *BJU International*, ۱۰۰(۱), ۱۳۷–۱۴۲. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-410X.2007.06860.x>
- Hanke, M., Hoefig, K., Merz, H., Feller, A. C., Kausch, I., Jocham, D., Warnecke, J. M., & Sczakiel, G. (۲۰۱۰). A robust methodology to study urine microRNA as tumor marker: MicroRNA-۱۲۶ and microRNA-۱۸۲ are related to urinary bladder cancer. *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations*, ۲۸(۶), ۶۵۰–۶۶۱. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2009.01.027>
- Harling, M., Schablon, A., Schedlbauer, G., Dulon, M., & Nienhaus, A. (۲۰۱۰). Bladder cancer among hairdressers: A meta-analysis. In *Occupational and Environmental Medicine* (Vol. ۶۷, Issue ۵, pp. ۳۵۱–۳۵۸). BMJ Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.2009.050190>
- Homami, A., & Ghazi, F. (۲۰۱۶). *MicroRNAs as biomarkers associated with bladder cancer*. <http://mjiri.iums.ac.ir>
- Huang, J., Wu, J., Li, Y., Li, X., Yang, T., Yang, Q., & Jiang, Y. (۲۰۱۴). Deregulation of serum MicroRNA expression is associated with cigarette smoking and lung cancer. *BioMed Research International*, ۲۰۱۴. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/3764316>

- Huang, L., Luo, J., Cai, Q., Pan, Q., Zeng, H., Guo, Z., Dong, W., Huang, J., & Lin, T. (2011). MicroRNA-120b suppresses the development of bladder cancer by targeting E2F3. *International Journal of Cancer*, 124(8), 1708–1719. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.20009>
- Huang, Y. L., Chen, J., Yan, W., Zang, D., Qin, Q., & Deng, A. M. (2010). Diagnostic accuracy of cytokeratin-19 fragment (CYFRA 21–1) for bladder cancer: a systematic review and meta-analysis. In *Tumor Biology* (Vol. 36, Issue 9, pp. 3137–3140). Kluwer Academic Publishers. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13277-010-3302-z>
- Ibrahim, A. S., Khaled, H. M., Mikhail, N. N., Baraka, H., & Kamel, H. (2014). Cancer incidence in Egypt: Results of the national population-based cancer registry program. *Journal of Cancer Epidemiology*, 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/437971>
- Iorio, M. V., & Croce, C. M. (2012). MicroRNA dysregulation in cancer: Diagnostics, monitoring and therapeutics. A comprehensive review. In *EMBO Molecular Medicine* (Vol. 4, Issue 3, pp. 143–159). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1002/emmm.201100209>
- Ishida, K., & Hsieh, M. H. (2018). Understanding urogenital schistosomiasis-related bladder cancer: An update. In *Frontiers in Medicine* (Vol. 5, Issue AUG, p. 223). Frontiers Media S.A. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmed.2018.00223>
- Jacobs, B. L., Lee, C. T., & Montie, J. E. (2010). Bladder Cancer in 2010: How Far have We Come? *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, 70(4), 244–252. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.20077>
- Jia, A. Y., Castillo-Martin, M., Bonal, D. M., Sánchez-Carbayo, M., Silva, J. M., & Cordon-Cardo, C. (2014a). MicroRNA-126 inhibits

- invasion in bladder cancer via regulation of ADAM⁹. *British Journal of Cancer*, 110(12), 2940–2954. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.2014.240>
- Jia, A. Y., Castillo-Martin, M., Bonal, D. M., Sánchez-Carbayo, M., Silva, J. M., & Cordon-Cardo, C. (2013b). MicroRNA-126 inhibits invasion in bladder cancer via regulation of ADAM⁹. *British Journal of Cancer*, 110(12), 2940–2954. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bjc.2014.240>
- Jiang, N., Dai, Q., Su, X., Fu, J., Feng, X., & Peng, J. (2020). Role of PI³K/AKT pathway in cancer: the framework of malignant behavior. In *Molecular Biology Reports* (Vol. 57, Issue 6, pp. 4087–4129). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11033-020-0530-1>
- Jiang, Y., Zou, L., Lu, W. Q., Zhang, Y., & Shen, A. G. (2013). Foxo3a Expression Is a Prognostic Marker in Breast Cancer. *PLoS ONE*, 8(8). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0070466>
- Jiu, S., Zhu, X., Wang, J., Zhang, C., Mu, Q., Wang, C., & Fang, J. (2010). Genome- Wide Mapping and Analysis of Grapevine MicroRNAs and Their Potential Target Genes. *The Plant Genome*, 4(2), 1–12. [plantgenome2014.12.0091](https://doi.org/10.3832/plantgenome2014.12.0091). <https://doi.org/10.3832/plantgenome2014.12.0091>
- Khaled, H. (2013). Schistosomiasis and Cancer in Egypt: Review. In *Journal of Advanced Research* (Vol. 4, Issue 6, pp. 461–466). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jare.2013.06.007>
- Khochikar, M. V. (2011). Rationale for an early detection program for bladder cancer. *Indian Journal of Urology*, 27(2), 218–220. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0970-1091.82841>
- Kim, W.-J., & Bae, S.-C. (2008). Molecular biomarkers in urothelial

- bladder cancer. *Cancer Science*, 99(4), 646–652.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1349-7006.2008.01730.x>
- Kirkali, Z., Chan, T., Manoharan, M., Algaba, F., Busch, C., Cheng, L., Kiemeny, L., Kriegmair, M., Montironi, R., Murphy, W. M., Sesterhenn, I. A., Tachibana, M., & Weider, J. (2005). Bladder cancer: Epidemiology, staging and grading, and diagnosis. *Urology*, 77(7 SUPPL. 1), 4–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2005.07.072>
- Kriebel, S., Schmidt, D., Holdenrieder, S., Goltz, D., Kristiansen, G., Moritz, R., Fisang, C., Müller, S. C., & Ellinger, J. (2010). Analysis of Tissue and Serum MicroRNA Expression in Patients with Upper Urinary Tract Urothelial Cancer. *PLOS ONE*, 5(1), e0111284. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0111284>
- Kuhnert, F., Mancuso, M. R., Hampton, J., Stankunas, K., Asano, T., Chen, C. Z., & Kuo, C. J. (2008). Attribution of vascular phenotypes of the murine *Egf1 γ* locus to the microRNA miR-126. *Development*, 135(24), 3989–3993. <https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.029737>
- Lee, R. C., Feinbaum, R. L., & Ambros, V. (1993). The *C. elegans* heterochronic gene *lin-4* encodes small RNAs with antisense complementarity to *lin-14*. *Cell*, 72(5), 843–854. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674\(93\)9029-Y](https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-8674(93)9029-Y)
- Lehmann, U., Hasemeier, B., Christgen, M., Müller, M., Römermann, D., Länger, F., & Kreipe, H. (2008). Epigenetic inactivation of microRNA gene hsa-mir-9-1 in human breast cancer. *Journal of Pathology*, 214(1), 17–24. <https://doi.org/10.1002/path.2201>
- Li, C., Zhang, K., Chen, J., Chen, L., Wang, R., & Chu, X. (2017). MicroRNAs as regulators and mediators of forkhead box

- transcription factors function in human cancers. In *Oncotarget* (Vol. 8, Issue 3, pp. 12433–12450). Impact Journals LLC. <https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.14010>
- Liu, X., Liu, X., Wu, Y., Wu, Q., Wang, Q., Yang, Z., & Li, L. (2017). MicroRNAs in biofluids are novel tools for bladder cancer screening. In *Oncotarget* (Vol. 8, Issue 19, pp. 32370–32379). Impact Journals LLC. <https://doi.org/10.18632/oncotarget.16026>
- Livak, K. J., & Schmittgen, T. D. (2001). Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method. *Methods*, 25(4), 402–408. <https://doi.org/10.1006/meth.2001.1262>
- Lokeshwar, V. B., Habuchi, T., Grossman, H. B., Murphy, W. M., Hautmann, S. H., Hemstreet, G. P., Bono, A. V., Getzenberg, R. H., Goebell, P., Schmitz-Dräger, B. J., Schalken, J. A., Fradet, Y., Marberger, M., Messing, E., & Droller, M. J. (2005). Bladder tumor markers beyond cytology: International Consensus Panel on bladder tumor markers. *Urology*, 77(6 SUPPL. 1), 30–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2005.08.064>
- Longo, M. C., Berninger, M. S., & Hartley, J. L. (1990). Use of uracil DNA glycosylase to control carry-over contamination in polymerase chain reactions. *Gene*, 93(1), 120–128. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119\(90\)90140-H](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-1119(90)90140-H)
- Ma, L., Teruya-Feldstein, J., & Weinberg, R. A. (2007). Tumour invasion and metastasis initiated by microRNA-10b in breast cancer. *Nature*, 449(7163), 682–688. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature06141>
- MacFarlane, L.-A., & R. Murphy, P. (2010). MicroRNA: Biogenesis,

-
- Function and Role in Cancer. *Current Genomics*, 11(7), 537–561. <https://doi.org/10.2174/13892.21.793170890>
- Magers, M. J., Lopez-Beltran, A., Montironi, R., Williamson, S. R., Kaimakliotis, H. Z., & Cheng, L. (2019). Staging of bladder cancer. *Histopathology*, 74(1), 112–134. <https://doi.org/10.1111/his.13734>
- Martinez, V. G., Munera-Maravilla, E., Bernardini, A., Rubio, C., Suarez-Cabrera, C., Segovia, C., Lodewijk, I., Dueñas, M., Martínez-Fernández, M., & Paramio, J. M. (2019). Epigenetics of Bladder Cancer: Where Biomarkers and Therapeutic Targets Meet. In *Frontiers in Genetics* (Vol. 10, p. 1120). Frontiers Media S.A. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2019.01120>
- Matsuzaki, J., & Ochiya, T. (2018). Extracellular microRNAs and oxidative stress in liver injury: A systematic mini review. In *Journal of Clinical Biochemistry and Nutrition* (Vol. 73, Issue 1, pp. 6–11). The Society for Free Radical Research Japan. <https://doi.org/10.3164/jcbrn.17-123>
- Medina, P. P., Nolde, M., & Slack, F. J. (2010). OncomiR addiction in an in vivo model of microRNA-21-induced pre-B-cell lymphoma. *Nature*, 467(7311), 86–90. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature.09284>
- Meister, J., & Schmidt, M. H. H. (2010). miR-126 and miR-126*: New players in cancer. In *TheScientificWorldJournal* (Vol. 10, pp. 209–210). ScientificWorldJournal. <https://doi.org/10.1100/tsw.2010.198>
- Mitash, N., Tiwari, S., Agnihotri, S., & Mandhani, A. (2017). Bladder cancer: Micro RNAs as biomolecules for prognostication and surveillance. *Indian Journal of Urology*, 33(2), 127. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0970-1091.203412>
-

- Mlcochova, H., Hezova, R., Stanik, M., & Slaby, O. (2014). Urine microRNAs as potential noninvasive biomarkers in urologic cancers. In *Urologic Oncology: Seminars and Original Investigations* (Vol. 32, Issue 1, pp. e1-e9). Elsevier Inc. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urolonc.2013.04.011>
- Morales, A., Eiding, D., & Bruce, A. W. (1976). Intracavitary Bacillus Calmette Guerin in the treatment of superficial bladder tumors. *Journal of Urology*, 117(2), 180-182. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-0345\(17\)08737-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-0345(17)08737-6)
- Mostafid, H., Bryan, R. T., & Rees, J. (2010). Diagnosis and treatment of non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer. *Trends in Urology & Men's Health*, 7(2), 23-27. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tre.446>
- Moussa, O., Riker, J. M., Klein, J., Fraig, M., Halushka, P. V., & Watson, D. K. (2008). Inhibition of thromboxane synthase activity modulates bladder cancer cell responses to chemotherapeutic agents. *Oncogene*, 27, 55-62. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.onc.1210629>
- Myatt, S. S., Wang, J., Monteiro, L. J., Christian, M., Ho, K. K., Fusi, L., Dina, R. E., Brosens, J. J., Ghaem-Maghami, S., & Lam, E. W. F. (2010). Definition of microRNAs that repress expression of the tumor suppressor gene FOXO1 in endometrial cancer. *Cancer Research*, 70(1), 367-377. <https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-09-1891>
- Naccache, S. N., Greninger, A. L., Lee, D., Coffey, L. L., Phan, T., Rein-Weston, A., Aronsohn, A., Hackett, J., Delwart, E. L., & Chiu, C. Y. (2013). The Perils of Pathogen Discovery: Origin of a Novel Parvovirus-Like Hybrid Genome Traced to Nucleic Acid Extraction Spin Columns. *Journal of Virology*, 87(22), 11966-11977.

<https://doi.org/10.1128/jvi.02323-13>

Nepple, K. G., Lightfoot, A. J., Rosevear, H. M., O'Donnell, M. A., & Lamm, D. L. (2010). Bacillus Calmette-Guréin with or without interferon α -2b and megadose versus recommended daily allowance vitamins during induction and maintenance intravesical treatment of nonmuscle invasive bladder cancer. *Journal of Urology*, 182(5), 1910–1919. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2010.06.147>

Nichol, D., & Stuhlmann, H. (2012). EGFLV: A unique angiogenic signaling factor in vascular development and disease. In *Blood* (Vol. 119, Issue 6, pp. 1340–1352). The American Society of Hematology. <https://doi.org/10.1182/blood-2011-10-322446>

Nicoloso, M. S., Spizzo, R., Shimizu, M., Rossi, S., & Calin, G. A. (2009). MicroRNAs - The micro steering wheel of tumour metastases. In *Nature Reviews Cancer* (Vol. 9, Issue 4, pp. 293–302). Nat Rev Cancer. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrc2619>

Nikolic, I., Plate, K. H., & Schmidt, M. H. H. (2010). EGFLV meets miRNA-126: An angiogenesis alliance. In *Journal of Angiogenesis Research* (Vol. 2, Issue 1, p. 9). BioMed Central. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2040-2384-2-9>

Noguchi, S., Mori, T., Hoshino, Y., Maruo, K., Yamada, N., Kitade, Y., Naoe, T., & Akao, Y. (2011). MicroRNA-143 functions as a tumor suppressor in human bladder cancer T24 cells. *Cancer Letters*, 304(2), 211–220. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2011.04.000>

O'Brien, J., Hayder, H., Zayed, Y., & Peng, C. (2018). Overview of microRNA biogenesis, mechanisms of actions, and circulation. In *Frontiers in Endocrinology* (Vol. 9, Issue AUG, p. 402). Frontiers

-
- Media S.A. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fendo.2018.00402>
- Ohadian Moghadam, S., & Nowroozi, M. R. (2019). Toll-like receptors: The role in bladder cancer development, progression and immunotherapy. In *Scandinavian Journal of Immunology* (Vol. 90, Issue 6, p. e12818). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.1111/sji.12818>
- Olena, A. F., & Patton, J. G. (2010). Genomic organization of microRNAs. In *Journal of Cellular Physiology* (Vol. 222, Issue 3, pp. 040–045). J Cell Physiol. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jcp.21993>
- Özbir, S., Girgin, C., Kara, C., & Dinçel, Ç. (2014). Local and systemic recurrence patterns of urothelial cancer after radical cystectomy. *The Kaohsiung Journal of Medical Sciences*, 30(10), 040–049. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.kjms.2014.03.011>
- Ploeg, M., Aben, K. K. H., & Kiemeny, L. A. (2009). The present and future burden of urinary bladder cancer in the world. *World Journal of Urology*, 21(3), 289–293. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00340-009-0383-3>
- Ramirez, D., Gupta, A., Canter, D., Harrow, B., Dobbs, R. W., Kucherov, V., Mueller, E., Streeper, N., Uhlman, M. A., Svatek, R. S., Messing, E. M., & Lotan, Y. (2016). Microscopic haematuria at time of diagnosis is associated with lower disease stage in patients with newly diagnosed bladder cancer. *BJU International*, 117(5), 783–786. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bju.13340>
- Ramsden, D. B., Waring, R. H., Barlow, D. J., & Parsons, R. B. (2017). Nicotinamide N -Methyltransferase in Health and Cancer. *International Journal of Tryptophan Research*, 10, 1178646917691739. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1178646917691739>
-

- Redelman-Sidi, G., Glickman, M. S., & Bochner, B. H. (2014). The mechanism of action of BCG therapy for bladder cancer-A current perspective. In *Nature Reviews Urology* (Vol. 11, Issue 3, pp. 153–162). Nature Publishing Group. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrurol.2014.10>
- Reinhart, B. J., Slack, F. J., Basson, M., Pasquienelli, A. E., Bettlinger, J. C., Rougvie, A. E., Horvitz, H. R., & Ruvkun, G. (2000). The 21-nucleotide let-7 RNA regulates developmental timing in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature*, 403(6772), 901–906. <https://doi.org/10.1038/35002667>
- Saginala, K., Barsouk, A., Aluru, J. S., Rawla, P., & Padala, S. A. (2020). Epidemiology of bladder cancer. *Medical Sciences*, 4(1), 11–20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medsci401010>
- Saito, Y., Suzuki, H., Tsugawa, H., Nakagawa, I., Matsuzaki, J., Kanai, Y., & Hibi, T. (2009). Chromatin remodeling at Alu repeats by epigenetic treatment activates silenced microRNA-512-0p with downregulation of Mcl-1 in human gastric cancer cells. *Oncogene*, 28(30), 2738–2744. <https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2009.144>
- Salem, H. K., & Mahfouz, S. (2012). Changing patterns (age, incidence, and pathologic types) of Schistosoma-associated bladder cancer in Egypt in the past decade. *Urology*, 79(2), 379–383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.urology.2011.08.072>
- Scheffer, A. R., Holdenrieder, S., Kristiansen, G., von Ruecker, A., Müller, S. C., & Ellinger, J. (2014). Circulating microRNAs in serum: Novel biomarkers for patients with bladder cancer? *World Journal of Urology*, 32(2), 303–308. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00345-012-1101-2>
- Schmitz-Dräger, B. J., Droller, M., Lokeshwar, V. B., Lotan, Y., Hudson,

- M. A., Van Rhijn, B. W., Marberger, M. J., Fradet, Y., Hemstreet, G. P., Malmstrom, P. U., Ogawa, O., Karakiewicz, P. I., & Shariat, S. F. (2010). Molecular markers for bladder cancer screening, early diagnosis, and surveillance: The WHO/ICUD consensus. In *Urologia Internationalis* (Vol. 94, Issue 1, pp. 1–24). S. Karger AG. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000369307>
- Scott, G. K., Mattie, M. D., Berger, C. E., Benz, S. C., & Benz, C. C. (2006). Rapid alteration of microRNA levels by histone deacetylase inhibition. *Cancer Research*, 66(3), 1277–1281. <https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.CCR-05-3632>
- Seoane, J., & Gomis, R. R. (2017). TGF- β family signaling in tumor suppression and cancer progression. In *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology* (Vol. 9, Issue 12, pp. 22277–22278). Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press. <https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a022277>
- Shah, J. B., McConkey, D. J., & Dinney, C. P. N. (2011). New strategies in muscle-invasive bladder cancer: On the road to personalized medicine. In *Clinical Cancer Research* (Vol. 17, Issue 9, pp. 2608–2612). <https://doi.org/10.1158/1078-0432.CCR-10-2777>
- Shariat, S. F., Ashfaq, R., Karakiewicz, P. I., Saedi, O., Sagalowsky, A. I., & Lotan, Y. (2007). Survivin expression is associated with bladder cancer presence, stage, progression, and mortality. *Cancer*, 109(6), 1106–1113. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cncr.22021>
- Siegel, R. L., Miller, K. D., & Jemal, A. (2018). Cancer statistics, 2018. *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians*, 68(1), 7–30. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21442>

- Siu, M. K., Tsai, Y. C., Chang, Y. S., Yin, J. J., Suau, F., Chen, W. Y., & Liu, Y. N. (2010). Transforming growth factor- β promotes prostate bone metastasis through induction of microRNA-96 and activation of the mTOR pathway. *Oncogene*, 29(36), 4767–4776. <https://doi.org/10.1038/onc.2010.414>
- Snowdon, J., Boag, S., Feilotter, H., Izard, J., & Siemens, D. R. (2013). A pilot study of urinary microRNA as a biomarker for urothelial cancer. *Journal of the Canadian Urological Association*, 7(2), 28–32. <https://doi.org/10.5489/cuaj.11110>
- Soukup, V., Čapoun, O., Cohen, D., Hernández, V., Babjuk, M., Burger, M., Compérat, E., Gontero, P., Lam, T., MacLennan, S., Mostafid, A. H., Palou, J., van Rhijn, B. W. G., Rouprêt, M., Shariat, S. F., Sylvester, R., Yuan, Y., & Zigeuner, R. (2017). Prognostic Performance and Reproducibility of the 1993 and 2004/2016 World Health Organization Grading Classification Systems in Non-muscle-invasive Bladder Cancer: A European Association of Urology Non-muscle Invasive Bladder Cancer Guidelines Panel Systematic Review. *European Urology*, 72(5), 801–813. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2017.04.010>
- Spencer, B. A., McBride, R. B., Hershman, D. L., Buono, D., Herr, H. W., Benson, M. C., Gupta-Mohile, S., & Neugut, A. I. (2013). Adjuvant intravesical bacillus Calmette-Guérin therapy and survival among elderly patients with non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer. *Journal of Oncology Practice*, 9(2), 92–99. <https://doi.org/10.1200/JOP.2011.000480>
- Svatek, R. S., Hollenbeck, B. K., Holmäng, S., Lee, R., Kim, S. P., Stenzl, A., & Lotan, Y. (2014). The economics of bladder cancer:

- Costs and considerations of caring for this disease. In *European Urology* (Vol. 66, Issue 2, pp. 203–212). Elsevier B.V. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2014.01.006>
- Syeda, Z. A., Langden, S. S. S., Munkhzul, C., Lee, M., & Song, S. J. (2020). Regulatory mechanism of microRNA expression in cancer. In *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* (Vol. 21, Issue 0). MDPI AG. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21051723>
- Sylvester, R. J., Oosterlinck, W., Holmang, S., Sydes, M. R., Birtle, A., Gudjonsson, S., De Nunzio, C., Okamura, K., Kaasinen, E., Solsona, E., Ali-El-Dein, B., Tatar, C. A., Inman, B. A., N'Dow, J., Oddens, J. R., & Babjuk, M. (2016). Systematic Review and Individual Patient Data Meta-analysis of Randomized Trials Comparing a Single Immediate Instillation of Chemotherapy after Transurethral Resection with Transurethral Resection Alone in Patients with Stage pTa-pT1 Urothelial Carcinoma of the Bladder: Which Patients Benefit from the Instillation? *European Urology*, 79(2), 231–244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2015.05.000>
- TC Chang, D. Y. Y. L. E. W. D. A. K. W. (2008). Widespread microRNA repression by Myc contributes to tumorigenesis. *Nat Genet*, 40, 43–50. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ng.2007.30>
- Tétreault, N., & De Guire, V. (2012). MiRNAs: Their discovery, biogenesis and mechanism of action. In *Clinical Biochemistry* (Vol. 46, Issues 10–11, pp. 842–845). Clin Biochem. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clinbiochem.2013.02.009>
- Tian, D., Hu, H., & Wu, C. (2016). AB112. Expression of brain-specific angiogenesis inhibitor 1 and association with p53, microvessel

- density and vascular endothelial growth factor in the tissue of human bladder transitional cell carcinoma. *Translational Andrology and Urology*, 4(S1), AB112–AB112. <https://doi.org/10.21037/tau.2016.s112>
- Van Den Bosch, S., & Witjes, J. A. (2011). Long-term cancer-specific survival in patients with high-risk, non-muscle-invasive bladder cancer and tumour progression: A systematic review. In *European Urology* (Vol. 60, Issue 3, pp. 493–500). Eur Urol. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2011.05.040>
- van Osch, F. H. M., Jochems, S. H. J., Schooten, F. J. van, Bryan, R. T., & Zeegers, M. P. (2016). Quantified relations between exposure to tobacco smoking and bladder cancer risk: A meta-analysis of 89 observational studies. *International Journal of Epidemiology*, 45(3), 807–817. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ije/dyw044>
- Voellenkle, C., Van Rooij, J., Guffanti, A., Brini, E., Fasanaro, P., Isaia, E., Croft, L., David, M., Capogrossi, M. C., Moles, A., Felsani, A., & Martelli, F. (2012). Deep-sequencing of endothelial cells exposed to hypoxia reveals the complexity of known and novel microRNAs. *RNA*, 18(3), 472–484. <https://doi.org/10.1261/rna.027610.111>
- Vrooman, O. P. J., & Witjes, J. A. (2008). Urinary Markers in Bladder Cancer. In *European Urology* (Vol. 53, Issue 5, pp. 909–916). Eur Urol. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2007.12.006>
- Wang, G., Chan, E. S. Y., Kwan, B. C. H., Li, P. K. T., Yip, S. K. H., Szeto, C. C., & Ng, C. F. (2012). Expression of microRNAs in the urine of patients with bladder cancer. *Clinical Genitourinary Cancer*, 10(2), 106–113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clgc.2012.01.001>
- Wang, J., Chen, J., & Sen, S. (2016). MicroRNA as Biomarkers and

-
- Diagnostics. *Journal of Cellular Physiology*, 231(1), 20–30.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/jcp.20006>
- Wang, T. H., Yeh, C. T., Ho, J. Y., Ng, K. F., & Chen, T. C. (2016). OncomiR miR-96 and miR-182 promote cell proliferation and invasion through targeting ephrinA2 in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Molecular Carcinogenesis*, 48(4), 366–370.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/mc.22286>
- Wang, X., Zhou, Y., Gao, Q., Ping, D., Wang, Y., Wu, W., Lin, X., Fang, Y., Zhang, J., & Shao, A. (2020). The Role of Exosomal microRNAs and Oxidative Stress in Neurodegenerative Diseases. In *Oxidative medicine and cellular longevity* (Vol. 2020, p. 3232869). NLM (Medline). <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/3232869>
- Wang, Y., Zhou, Y., & Graves, D. T. (2014). FOXO transcription factors: Their clinical significance and regulation. In *BioMed Research International* (Vol. 2014). Hindawi Publishing Corporation.
<https://doi.org/10.1155/2014/92030>
- Weber, B., Stresemann, C., Brueckner, B., & Lyko, F. (2007). Methylation of human MicroRNA genes in normal and neoplastic cells. In *Cell Cycle* (Vol. 6, Issue 9, pp. 1001–1005). Taylor and Francis Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4161/cc.6.9.4209>
- Wiame, I., Remy, S., Swennen, R., & Sagi, L. (2000). Irreversible heat inactivation of DNase I without RNA degradation. *BioTechniques*, 29(2), 202–206. <https://doi.org/10.2144/00292bm11>
- Witjes, J. A., Bruins, H. M., Cathomas, R., Compérat, E. M., Cowan, N. C., Gakis, G., Hernández, V., Linares Espinós, E., Lorch, A., Neuzillet, Y., Rouanne, M., Thalmann, G. N., Veskimäe, E., Ribal,
-

- M. J., & van der Heijden, A. G. (2021). European Association of Urology Guidelines on Muscle-invasive and Metastatic Bladder Cancer: Summary of the 2020 Guidelines. In *European Urology* (Vol. 79, Issue 1, pp. 82–104). Elsevier B.V. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eururo.2020.03.000>
- Wu, L., Pu, X., Wang, Q., Cao, J., Xu, F., Xu, L., & Li, K. (2016). miR-96 induces cisplatin chemoresistance in non-small cell lung cancer cells by downregulating SAMD9. *Oncology Letters*, 11(2), 940–952. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2015.4000>
- Xia, T., Chen, S., Jiang, Z., Shao, Y., Jiang, X., Li, P., Xiao, B., & Guo, J. (2010). Long noncoding RNA FER1L4 suppresses cancer cell growth by acting as a competing endogenous RNA and regulating PTEN expression. *Scientific Reports*, 0. <https://doi.org/10.1038/srep13440>
- Xiao, D., Wang, Q., Yan, H., Qin, A., Lv, X., Zhao, Y., Zhang, M., Zhou, Z., Xu, J., Hu, Q., & Lu, M. (2017). Comparison of morphological and functional restoration between asymmetric bilayer chitosan and bladder acellular matrix graft for bladder augmentation in a rat model. *RSC Advances*, 7(67), 42079–42089. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c7ra07601k>
- Xiao, J., Lin, H. Y., Zhu, Y. Y., Zhu, Y. P., & Chen, L. W. (2016). MiR-126 regulates proliferation and invasion in the bladder cancer BLS cell line by targeting the PI3K/Ras-mediated PI3K/Akt signaling pathway. *OncoTargets and Therapy*, 9, 0181–0193. <https://doi.org/10.2147/OTT.S100198>
- Xu, T., Du, X. W., Hu, J. B., Zhu, Y. F., Wu, H. L., Dai, G. P., Shu, Y.

- M., & Ouyang, J. (2018). Anticancer effect of miR-96 inhibitor in bladder cancer cell lines. *Oncology Letters*, 16(3), 3814–3819. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2018.7740>
- Yamada, Y., Enokida, H., Kojima, S., Kawakami, K., Chiyoumaru, T., Tatarano, S., Yoshino, H., Kawahara, K., Nishiyama, K., Seki, N., & Nakagawa, M. (2011). MiR-96 and miR-183 detection in urine serve as potential tumor markers of urothelial carcinoma: Correlation with stage and grade, and comparison with urinary cytology. *Cancer Science*, 102(3), 522–529. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1349-7006.2010.01816.x>
- Yamamoto, Y., Suehiro, Y., Suzuki, A., Nawata, R., Kawai, Y., Inoue, R., Hirata, H., Matsumoto, H., Yamasaki, T., Sasaki, K., & Matsuyama, H. (2017). Germline DNA copy number variations as potential prognostic markers for non-muscle invasive bladder cancer progression. *Oncology Letters*, 14(1), 1193–1199. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2017.6233>
- Yang, X., Zhang, Q., Zhang, M., Su, W., Wang, Z., Li, Y., Zhang, J., Beer, D. G., Yang, S., & Chen, G. (2019). Serum microRNA signature is capable of early diagnosis for non-small cell lung cancer. *International Journal of Biological Sciences*, 12(8), 1712–1722. <https://doi.org/10.7150/ijbs.33986>
- Yang, Zhiguang, & Liu, Z. (2020). The Emerging Role of MicroRNAs in Breast Cancer. In *Journal of Oncology* (Vol. 2020). Hindawi Limited. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/916900>
- Yang, Zhongyi, Cheng, J., Pan, L., Hu, S., Xu, J., Zhang, Y., Wang, M., Zhang, J., Ye, D., & Zhang, Y. (2012). Is whole-body fluorine-18

- fluorodeoxyglucose PET/CT plus additional pelvic images (oral hydration-voiding-refilling) useful for detecting recurrent bladder cancer? *Annals of Nuclear Medicine*, 26(7), 571–577. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12149-012-0714-3>
- Yaxley, J. (2016). Urinary tract cancers: An overview for general practice. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care*, 4(3), 533. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2249-4873.197208>
- Yeung, C., Dinh, T., & Lee, J. (2014). The Health Economics of Bladder Cancer: An Updated Review of the Published Literature. In *Pharmacoeconomics* (Vol. 32, Issue 11, pp. 1093–1104). Springer International Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40273-014-0194-2>
- Yin, M., Joshi, M., Meijer, R. P., Glantz, M., Holder, S., Harvey, H. A., Kaag, M., Fransen van de Putte, E. E., Horenblas, S., & Drabick, J. J. (2016). Neoadjuvant Chemotherapy for Muscle- Invasive Bladder Cancer: A Systematic Review and Two- Step Meta- Analysis. *The Oncologist*, 21(6), 708–710. <https://doi.org/10.1634/theoncologist.2015-0440>
- Yoshino, H., Enokida, H., Itesako, T., Tatarano, S., Kinoshita, T., Fuse, M., Kojima, S., Nakagawa, M., & Seki, N. (2013). Epithelial-mesenchymal transition-related microRNA-200s regulate molecular targets and pathways in renal cell carcinoma. *Journal of Human Genetics*, 54(8), 508–516. <https://doi.org/10.1038/jhg.2013.21>
- Yun, S. J., Jeong, P., Kim, W. T., Kim, T. H., Lee, Y. S., Song, P. H., Choi, Y. H., Kim, I. Y., Moon, S. K., & Kim, W. J. (2012). Cell-free microRNAs in urine as diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers of bladder cancer. *International Journal of Oncology*, 41(5), 1871–1878.

<https://doi.org/10.3892/ijo.2012.1622>

Yutkin, V., Nisman, B., & Pode, D. (2010). Can urinary biomarkers replace cystoscopic examination in bladder cancer surveillance? *Expert Review of Anticancer Therapy*, 10(6), 787-790. <https://doi.org/10.1086/era.10.70>

Zaravinos, A., Radojicic, J., Lambrou, G. I., Volanis, D., Delakas, D., Stathopoulos, E. N., & Spandidos, D. A. (2012). Expression of miRNAs involved in angiogenesis, tumor cell proliferation, tumor suppressor inhibition, epithelial-mesenchymal transition and activation of metastasis in bladder cancer. *Journal of Urology*, 188(2), 610-623. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2012.03.122>

Zargar, H., Shah, J. B., van Rhijn, B. W., Daneshmand, S., Bivalacqua, T. J., Spiess, P. E., Black, P. C., Kassouf, W., Fransen van de Putte, E. E., Horenblas, S., Potvin, K. R., Winkler, E., Seah, J. A., Sridhar, S. S., Jacobsen, N. E., Zargar-Shoshtari, K., Holzbeierlein, J. M., Griffin, J., Dinney, C., ... Aining, J. (2018). Neoadjuvant Dose Dense MVAC versus Gemcitabine and Cisplatin in Patients with cT3-4N0M0 Bladder Cancer Treated with Radical Cystectomy. *Journal of Urology*, 199(6), 1402-1408. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.juro.2017.12.062>

Zhang, T., Wu, Y.-C., Mullane, P., Ong, S.-E., Leung, A. K. L., & Correspondence, J. W. (2018). FUS Regulates Activity of MicroRNA-Mediated Gene Silencing ALS-linked FUS R490X mutant impedes miRNA-mediated silencing Data Resources GSE78004. *Molecular Cell*, 79, 787-801.e8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2018.02.001>

- Zhang, W., Yu, Y., Hertwig, F., Thierry-Mieg, J., Zhang, W., Thierry-Mieg, D., Wang, J., Furlanello, C., Devanarayan, V., Cheng, J., Deng, Y., Hero, B., Hong, H., Jia, M., Li, L., Lin, S. M., Nikolsky, Y., Oberthuer, A., Qing, T., ... Fischer, M. (2010). Comparison of RNA-seq and microarray-based models for clinical endpoint prediction. *Genome Biology*, 11(1), 133. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-010-0794-1>
- Zhou, K., Liu, M., & Cao, Y. (2017). New Insight into microRNA Functions in Cancer: Oncogene–microRNA–Tumor Suppressor Gene Network. *Frontiers in Molecular Biosciences*, 4(JUL), 46. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmolb.2017.00046>
- Zhu, C. Z., Ting, H. N., Ng, K. H., & Ong, T. A. (2019). A review on the accuracy of bladder cancer detection methods. In *Journal of Cancer* (Vol. 10, Issue 17, pp. 4038–4044). Ivyspring International Publisher. <https://doi.org/10.7150/jca.28989>

المخلص العربي

سرطان المثانة هو عاشر أكثر الأمراض الخبيثة شيوعاً وسبب شائع للوفاة بالسرطان في جميع أنحاء العالم في كل من البلدان المتقدمة والنامية مثل مصر. ومن المعروف سرطان المثانة يعد شائعاً في الرجال أكثر من النساء ويزداد مع التقدم في السن.

تنظير المثانة، في كثير من الأحيان بالاشتراك مع علم الخلايا، هو المعيار الذهبي لتشخيص سرطان المثانة. ومع ذلك، فهي عملية جراحية ومؤلمة ومعتمدة على المشغل ومكلفة، مما يلقي بعبء كبير على المرضى وموارد الرعاية الصحية.

بالإضافة إلى تنظير المثانة وعلم الخلايا تم تطوير العديد من علامات البولية غير الباضعة للكشف عن سرطان المثانة. ومع ذلك، حتى الآن لم تظهر علامات الورم البولية الحساسية الكافية وخصوصية لاستبدال تنظير المثانة في الكشف عن سرطان المثانة.

وقد تناولت العديد من الدراسات الدور المحتمل للاحماض النووية الريبوزية متناهية الصغر كعلامات بيولوجية للتشخيص حيث اثبتت العديد من الدراسات تأثيرها في أنواع مختلفة من السرطانات كمثبط للسرطان وانواع اخرى ثبت ان هذه الاحماض النووية لها دور في زيادة خطورة الاصابة بالسرطان.

ويهدف العمل الحالي إلى دراسة دور الأحماض النووية الريبوزية المتناهية الصغر (٩٦ و ١٢٦) في تشخيص سرطان المثانة عن طريق تحديد تعبيرهما فيما يتعلق بمختلف العلامات المرضية السريرية. أيضاً لتحديد العلاقة بين التعبير الجيني لكل الأحماض النووية الريبوزية المتناهية الصغر (٩٦ و ١٢٦).

تم اختيار ٧٠ مادة من الجنسين من قسم المسالك البولية، كلية الطب، مستشفى جامعة بنها وتراوحت أعمارهم بين ٣٤ و ٨٤ سنة مع متوسط قيمة $81,0 \pm 8,9$ سنة. تم تصنيف الموضوعات إلى مجموعتين:

١. مجموعة مرضى سرطان المثانة: شملت ٥٠ مريضاً، تم تشخيصهم على أنهم مرضى سرطان المثانة عن طريق الفحوص السريرية والإشعاعية والمنظار الكيسي باثولوجيا الأنسجة.

٢. المجموعة الضابطة: تتألف من ٢٠ شخصا، متقاربين في السن والجنس مع مجموعة المرضى، وتم التكد من سلامة انسجة المثانة فيهم

وقد تم اخذ الآتى من جميع المرضى:

١. التاريخ المرضى للحالات
٢. فحوصات المسالك البولية العامة والمحلية
٣. اختبارات الدم الروتينية قبل الجراحة بما في ذلك: تحليل البول، تعداد الدم الكامل، قياس نسبة السكر في الدم، اختبارات وظائف الكبد، اختبارات وظائف الكلى وملف التخثر
٤. الأشعة التشخيصية بما في ذلك: الأشعة السينية، الموجات فوق الصوتية التشخيصية الأشعة المقطعية على البطن والحوض
٥. تخطيط كهربية القلب (تمت الإشارة إلى التقييم قبل الجراحة)
٦. منظار المثانة التشخيصي
٧. تفاعل البلمرة المتسلسل الكمي لكل من الحمض النووى الريبوى متناهى الصغر ٩٦ و ١٢٦.

أخذ العينات

بعد الحصول على الموافقة من المرضى، تم الحصول على عينات البول (٦٠-٣٠ مل) من جميع الأفراد. تم جمع عينات البول باستخدام أكواب جمع البول المعقمة، وعلى الفور وضعت فى الفريزر على درجة الحرارة °C ٨٠ - وتم وضع العينات فى جهتز الطرد المركزى لمدة ١٥-٢٠ دقيقة. واستخدمت العينات لتقدير مستويات التعبير الجيني لكل من الحمض النووى الريبوى متناهى الصغر ٩٦ و ١٢٦ بواسطة تفاعل البلمرة المتسلسل الكمي.

وأظهرت نتائج الدراسة الحالية أن مستوى التعبير الحمض النووى الريبوى متناهى الصغر ٩٦ زاد بشكل ملحوظ في مجموعة سرطان المثانة مقارنة مع المجموعة الضابطة. أيضا، الحمض النووى الريبوى متناهى الصغر ١٢٦ أظهر زيادة كبيرة في مجموعة سرطان المثانة مقارنة مع مجموعة الضابطة.

الخلاصة

نستخلص من هذه الدراسة أن الزيادة الكبيرة في مستوى التعبير الجيني لكل من الحمض النووى الريبوى متناهى الصغر ٩٦ و ١٢٦ في مرضى سرطان المثانة مقارنة مع الضوابط تشير إلى دورها

كعلامات تشخيص الورم. وكشفت نتائج هذه الدراسة أن مستوى التعبير ميرنا-96 في عينة البول هو علامة حيوية بولية مفيدة للتشخيص المبكر لسرطان المثانة.



دور الأحماض النووية الريبوزية المتناهية الصغر (٩٦ و ١٢٦)
الموجودة بالبول كدلالات حيوية تشخيصية للكشف عن سرطان المثانة

توطئة للحصول على درجة الدكتوراة
فى الكيمياء الحيوية الطبية والبيولوجيا الجزيئية

والمقدمة من

الطبيبة/ هبة الله إمام محمد أحمد

ماجستير الكيمياء الحيوية الطبية والبيولوجيا الجزيئية
جامعة بنها

تحت اشراف

ا.د. أحمد هشام عطية

استاذ بقسم الكيمياء الحيوية الطبية والبيولوجيا الجزيئية
كلية الطب البشرى
جامعة بنها

ا.د.م. أمنية السعيد عبدالله

استاذ مساعد بقسم الكيمياء الحيوية الطبية والبيولوجيا الجزيئية
كلية الطب البشرى
جامعة بنها

د. محمد عبد العظيم حساتين

مدرس بقسم جراحة المسالك البولية
كلية الطب البشرى
جامعة بنها

د. سنية خيرى عليوة

مدرس بقسم الكيمياء الحيوية الطبية والبيولوجيا الجزيئية
كلية الطب البشرى
جامعة بنها

٢٠٢١