Background.

Prostate cancer

Prostate cancer currently rates worldwide as the second most diagnosed cancer in males, with its progression resulting in poor survival(Torre *et al.* 2015). Despite only attributing to 6% of total cancer deaths, advanced prostate cancers begin to exhibit additional morbidities that limit survival further. These advanced staged tumours present with androgen independence, uncontrolled proliferation, increased angiogenesis and general metastasis to adjacent bone and lymph nodes (Compagno *et al.* 2014; Pond *et al.* 2014; Robinson *et al.* 2015). While treating the primary tumour is highly successful through prostectomy, radiation, chemo- and androgen deprivation therapies, the metastatic form faces limited treatment options. Furthermore, undergoing those treatments despite presenting with an advanced form only prolongs life by a year. This implicates the need for new therapeutic targets for advanced cancers. Abnormal expression of proteins related to caveolae and exosome formation in prostate cancers, including mechanisms hypothesised to be involved with cargo sorting, had been implicated in the progression and metastatic potential of prostate cancer, and thus may provide as a direction for therapies (Inder *et al.* 2012; Moon *et al.* 2014). This occurrence also reveals gaps in knowledge regarding caveolae, caveolae-associated proteins and their molecular consequence. Understanding this mechanism benefits cancer research and furthers the current knowledge regarding exosome cargo export.

Exosomes and microvesicles: Extracellular vesicles implicated in prostate cancer.

Exosomes are defined as 40-100nm diameter extracellular vesicles formed by exocytosis of multivesicular bodies(Gu *et al.* 2014). Whilst similar in size and biochemical markers, microvesicles differ from exosomes by being released directly from budding off the plasma membrane(Minciacchi *et al.* 2015). Despite being two different vesicle subtypes, their similarities make these difficult to distinguish experimentally. Multivesicular body biogenesis require membrane budding proceeding the formation of small invaginations of the membrane. As exosome membrane composition contains a high density of cholesterol rich lipid raft-like domains, it was considered that this process may require cholesterol dependent mechanisms to form this structure, such as caveolae formation(Hailstones *et al.* 1998; Tan *et al.* 2013). Caveolae are 50-100nm diameter invaginations formed by recruiting the caveolin family proteins to mediate structural changes(Parton *et al.* 2006). Additionally, cytoplasmic coat proteins, from the recently discovered Cavin family, regulate the caveolae formation and morphology(Nabi 2009). Furthermore, recent studies investigating this interaction had revealed a significant change in the exosomal contents depending on the cavin presence in caveolin containing cells(Inder *et al.* 2014). This may indicate a cargo sorting role for this system. Cargo consists of cytoplasmic material with selectively exported ribonucleic acids (RNA), proteins and lipids due loading mechanisms with integral surface proteins. As such, this secretion facilitates long range intercellular communication, benefiting from homing mechanisms by surface proteins and enhanced stability of the contents due to being membrane bound. Secretion and reabsorption of the extracellular vesicles has been attributed to a range of biological processes. This includes the secretion of selectively exported cytokines in immunological responses and establishing a pre-metastatic niche in cancer progression by sequestering growth factors to exosomes(De Toro *et al.* 2015). Hereby, understanding the cargo loading mechanisms in metastatic cancers can reveal how certain processes are being mediated and exploited to aid in progression.

Caveolin

The caveolin protein family are integral membrane proteins that dictate the formation of caveolae by facilitating structural change of membrane curvature(Ariotti *et al.* 2015). The three isoforms of caveolin, named CAV1-3, are typically expressed in different types of tissues. CAV1 and 2 are expressed in epithelial, endothelial and smooth muscle cells, whereas CAV3 is predominately expressed in cytoskeletal muscle cells. These proteins oligomerise and bind to cholesterol when in proximity within the lipid raft domain. Here, they promote a variety of signalling activities, including the mediation of growth, secretion and adhesion. Lack of CAV1 and 3, through genetic ablation, yields a loss of caveolae formation, unlike loss of CAV2(Drab *et al.* 2001; Galbiati *et al.* 2001; Razani *et al.* 2001). Furthermore, *de novo* caveolae formation in lymphocytes occur following ectopic expression of CAV1(Fra *et al.* 1995). This exemplifies the necessity for CAV1 production in caveolae formation, involved in exosome production. However, it should be noted that these knockdown/over-expression studies were performed in a cell model that still contains other associated proteins required to facilitate the formation of caveolae. As such, the findings that non-caveolar caveolae exists demonstrates that, while caveolin is present, it is not sufficient for caveolae production on its own(Hill *et al.* 2008). Additionally, non-caveolar caveolae has been implicated in additional pathways and pathologies(Bosch *et al.* 2011). Need more sources for that statement

Caveolin in tumour activity.

Caveolin 1 expression has been associated with aggressive late stage prostate cancer. This was unveiled by observing its abnormal expression in prostate epithelial cells, where CAV-1 expression does not occur in previously healthy cells. This formation of non-caveolar caveolin was shown to facilitate anchorage-independent growth and metastasis. Additionally, the absence of CAV-1 in a prostate cancer model had resulted in hindered progression into a highly invasive and metastatic form. Hence, this demonstrates the role of CAV1 in prostate cancer as a tumour promotor. Similarly, metastatic oesophageal, renal, brain and lung cancers had also revealed CAV1 to correlate with angiogenesis, cancer recurrence and elevated metastasis, solidifying its tumour promotor function and introducing its potential as a biomarker for aggressive cancer types(Ho *et al.* 2002; Itoh *et al.* 2002; Joo *et al.* 2004; Barresi *et al.* 2006). The mechanism in which this occurs is said to be due to the CAV1 direct interaction with G-proteins involved with cellular replication, invasion and metastasis. In contrast, breast and pancreatic cancers revealed a potential tumour suppressor function where CAV1 deficiency promotes MAPK and PI3K signalling to induce growth(Han *et al.* 2009; Feng *et al.* 2010). Hereby, the function of CAV1 in cancers appears to be tissue or case specific.

Cavins.

In addition to CAV1, cavins are required in caveolae production by acting as caveolar coat proteins that stabilise caveolin interaction. The cavin family consists of 4 cavins, named cavin 1-4 or PTRF, SDPR, SRBC and MURC respectively. These proteins are co-expressed and co-distributed with caveolin and interact with each other as oligomeric cavin complexes in healthy cells. Interaction with caveolin initiates caveolae formation, morphology and other properties.

Cavin roles in caveolae formation and function.

Cavin-1 plays a major role in the formation of caveolae. Expression of cavin-1 in cells with functional caveolin dramatically increases the caveolae density. In contrast, cavin-1 knockdown in mice yielded a significant decrease in caveolae formation. Hereby, cavin-1 must be required for formation of caveloae with the presence of CAV1. Co-immunoprecipitation studies with the cavin members and CAV1 reveal that cavin form distinct complexes. These complexes require the presence of cavin-1 and either cavin-2 or cavin-3 to form and initiate its function, however these cavins have additional functions without being involved in the complexes. Once associated to CAV1, caveolae formation initiates. While cavin-2 presence is not mandatory, its addition to these cells play roles in size and tabulation of caveolae. PUT IN EVIDENCE. This may indicate that cavin-2 recruit differential signalling compared to cavin-1 homomeric complexes due to this change in morphology. Additionally, cavin-3 has been associated with internalisation and trafficking by further knockdown and ectopic expression studies. Again, due to the secondary function of cavin-3 in cavin complexes, it is likely that its activity facilitates a currently uncharacterised pathway. Cavin-4 is only present in cardiac and skeletal muscle, where its specific action in this system had not been as extensively studied.

Use PLOS ONE paper with Mhill in it for localisation data and migration data.

Cavins in cancer: 282w

As cavins are typically co-expressed with caveolin, the unusual lack of this complete system in cancer has been researched as a potential target for therapy. It was found that in some cancers, cavin expression had been reduced by hypermethylation, allowing for the establishment a caveolin-positive/cavin-negative cell type, thus permitting for the aforementioned phenotype. It was found that the addition of cavin to non-caveolar caveolin re-establishes the normal system and truncates the tumour promoting role of the caveolin. Reestablishment of functional cavin-1 reinstates the caveolae formation in these cells and limits the aggressive behaviour of the caveolin. Similarly, cavin-2 expression in PC3 cells (caveolin expressive) had reduced the aggressive behaviour despite not producing caveolae. Cavin-3 overexpression, too, limited tumorigenesis. Several hypotheses are proposed to explain this occurrence. One suggests that the presence of the cavins truncate the secondary tumour promoting function of the caveolin by physically hindering the interaction by trapping caveolin in caveolae. While studies had confirmed that cavin-1 does indeed sequester caveolin, this hypothesis is no longer supported when considering cavin-2 and 3 do not exhibit this function. Another hypothesis implicates that protein export by selective sequestering into extracellular vesicles are mediated by the cavin presence to change phenotypic response. EVIDENCE (look for rob patons paper). Earlier work from our lab revealed that, while proteomic changes were true, additional selective transport of microRNAs had been observed following the cavin/caveolin interaction. This change in microRNA, although linked to cavin presence, did not appear to be the direct mechanism of sorting due to some reason. Hereby, prior evidence strongly implements that cavin/caveolin interaction is having an impact on exosomal cargo export by selecting for particular protein and, as recently suggested, microRNAs, though not being in direct contact.

^^1452w currently.

microRNAs in Cancer: at least 200wds long

The importance of microRNAs (miRNAs) had only been recently suggested as a functional member in biological processes. These short non-coding RNAs, usually ranging between 20-24 nucleotides in length, form complementary base paring to the 3’ untranslated region of a transcribed gene (messenger RNA) then recruit complexes to either degrade the transcript or inhibit its translation. This RNA induced silencing complex (RISC) and associated proteins perform the degradation depending on the guide miRNA. As a single miRNA can target hundreds of target mRNAs for this function, any abnormal miRNA regulation is likely to disrupt many pathways. To exemplify this, overexpression and knockdown studies on multiple miRNAs reveals this detriment on cell function. In particular, the miRNAs that dictate differentiation, replication and adhesion had been implicated in cancer-like properties. Evidence that it facilitates cancer progression.

Cavins and miRNAs: 200w

Include evidence that miRNA148a supports this and that it is selectively exported. That cavins may be recruit or taking part in selection of exported material. add unpublished info about the pellet changes, and that cavins are strongly linked to this flux. Follow up with info about why we study the exosomes in respects to mirnas and cavins. (eg. Hereby this may indicate that Cavins may play a role in selectivity of miRNA export.)

INCLUDE CRITICAL REVIEW OF RELAVNT LITERATURE (60% of the report so ~2400words) ^^ so far: 1643wds no references.

Hypothesis:

This project will assess the hypothesis that miRNAs are selectively exported via exosomes, and that cavin family members are somewhat responsible for this in a PC3 model. As the cavins don’t directly mediate the export of miRNAs, it is hypothesed that any found miRNA ESCRT proteins will also be differentially regulated in response to the cavins, similar to the miRNAs exported.

Aims:

1. Establish which miRNAs are selectively exported by exosomes and whether this relationship is robust across cell types (HEK293 and PC3 cells).
2. Identify potential interaction partners involved with miRNA sorting.
3. Observe the candidate miRNA escort proteins by observation of localisation with Cavins and exosomes.

Methods:

Cell type: 200wds, Explain basic set up, why we use PC3 cells and HEK. And expected outcoes.

Aim 1: 300wds, Which miRNAs are selectively exported? Mention that this is completely bioinformatics. Go through set up for miRNA-seq data. Which packages will be using and what they do and what youre hoping to get out of it. Validation of resuts by rt-qpcr.

Aim 2: 300wds, bioinformatics again. Using pickle prediction file to make lists of interaction partners incding rationale. Run that with expression data collected to find if predcted values are there. Suggest candidates bsed on criteria (membrane associated or integrated, rna binding or poly-a tail binding) Analyse the validity with rtqpcr.

Aim 3: 400wds. laboratory based. Expain rationale behind co-ip study and that process. Microscopy ocationation study

Timeable of events.

PC3, advanced cancer cell line.

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