

MiR-33a and statins collaboratively reduce the proliferative capacity of prostate cancer cells

Ömer Faruk Karataş^{1,2}, Michael Ittmann¹

¹Department of Pathology & Immunology, Michael E. DeBakey Dept. of Veterans Affairs Medical Center, Houston, TX, United States

²Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Erzurum Technical University, Erzurum, Turkey

DOI: 10.18621/eurj.380619

ABSTRACT

Objective: Prostate cancer (PCa) is one of the leading causes of cancer deaths among men in the developed countries. Accumulating data suggests a high-cholesterol Western diet as an important risk factor for PCa. Besides, significant evidences associate increased serum cholesterol levels with PCa development and progression. In this study, we aimed at investigating the collaborative roles of cholesterol analogs, cholesterol-lowering drugs, and miR-33a, which is an important microRNA involved in regulation of cholesterol metabolism, on the cellular phenotypes associated with PCa progression.

Methods: We evaluated the effects of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, 25-hydroxycholesterol (25-HC), mevastatin and simvastatin on their own and together with miR-33a on the proliferation, invasion and anchorage independent growth capacity of PCa cells using Cell Counting Kit-8, Matrigel invasion, and soft agar assays, respectively.

Results: We show that cholesterol analogs significantly promoted proliferative, invasive, and clonogenic potential of PCa cells, while cholesterol lowering statins demonstrated opposite effects. Moreover, LDL and 25-HC reversed the tumor suppressive potential of miR-33a and statin treatment promoted the proliferation inhibitory effect of miR-33a on PCa cells.

Conclusions: We demonstrated that statins inhibited the cellular phenotypes associated with PCa progression and miR-33a treatment strengthens the impacts of statins on cellular proliferation. These findings suggest that statins alone and together with miR-33a might be a useful tool for effective and successful eradication of PCa cells.

Keywords: Prostate cancer, microRNA, miR-33a, cholesterol, statins

Received: January 18, 2018; Accepted: March 14, 2018; Published Online: March 20, 2018

Prostate cancer (PCa) is one of the most frequently diagnosed malignancies in men in the developed countries [1]. Hormone ablation therapy, radical prostatectomy, and radiotherapy are considered as the first line treatment options for clinically localized PCa, however, they do not necessarily provide improved survival rates and almost one third of the patients develop clinical recurrence [2, 3]. For

advanced tumors, chemotherapy, the only therapeutic alternative, is not curative [4]. Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of the molecular contributors to the prostate carcinogenesis is necessary to develop novel therapeutic modalities.

Accumulating data suggest a high-cholesterol Western diet as a critical risk factor for many solid tumors including PCa [5]. Although conflicting



Address for correspondence: Ömer Faruk Karataş, PhD., Assistant Professor, Erzurum Technical University, Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Ömer Nasuhi Bilmen Mah. Havaalani Yolu Cad. No:53 Yakutiye, Erzurum, Turkey
E-mail: faruk.karatas@erzurum.edu.tr; Tel: +90 444 5 388 - 2390, Fax: +90 442 230 00 39

e-ISSN: 2149-3189

Copyright © 2018 by The Association of Health Research & Strategy
Available at <http://dergipark.gov.tr/eurj>

findings are present in terms of association of serum cholesterol levels with PCa risk, significant evidences support an important role for high-density lipoprotein (HDL), low-density lipoprotein (LDL), and total cholesterol in PCa development and progression [6-9]. Prostate tumor cells might acquire castration-resistance through activating intrinsic androgen biosynthesis pathway, which might be via acquisition of capability to synthesize androgens from its precursors including cholesterol [10]. Statins, as cholesterol-lowering drugs, might be considered as effective adjuvant therapeutic agents against PCa [5]. Interestingly, several epidemiological studies reported a significant association between statin use and overall reduced cancer risk and mortality, including PCa [11-13].

Furthermore, an intronic microRNA, miR-33a, together with its host sterol-response-element-binding protein gene (*SREBF2*), play important roles in the control of lipid and cholesterol metabolism [14]. It has been reported to be predominantly coexpressed with its host gene both in human and mouse tissues [15] and has been recently demonstrated to act as a tumor suppressor in PCa along with several other tumor types [16-23]. MiR-33a is involved in regulation of cholesterol metabolism through targeting 3' untranslated regions of genes like *ABCA1*, *CPT1A* and *HADHB* [24].

In this study, we aimed at investigating the roles of LDL, 25-hydroxycholesterol (25-HC), mevastatin, and simvastatin on the cellular phenotypes associated with PCa progression, and evaluating their collaborative actions with increased miR-33a expression on the proliferative potential of PCa cells. We found that cholesterol analogs significantly promoted proliferative, invasive, and clonogenic potential of PCa cells, while statins inhibited those features. Besides, LDL and 25-HC reversed the tumor inhibitory potential of miR-33a and statin treatment increased the inhibitory effects of miR-33a on PCa cells. These findings suggest that miR-33a and statins might be useful tools for effective and successful eradication of PCa cells.

METHODS

Chemicals and Reagents

Fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, Gaithersburg,

MD, USA), penicillin/streptomycin (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA), RPMI-1640 medium (GenDepot, Barker, TX, USA), Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA), and lipoprotein deficient serum (LPDS, Kalen Biomedical, Germantown, MD, USA) was used for cell culture experiments. LDL, 25-HC, and simvastatin were purchased from Sigma and Mevastatin was purchased from MedChemExpress.

Cell Culture

LNCaP and VCaP cells with miR-33a expression reduced by more than 50% compared to immortalized benign prostate epithelial cell line PNT1a were utilized in this study [16]. Cell lines were acquired from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) and their authentication was performed with STR analysis at MD Anderson Cancer Center Characterized Cell Line Core Facility. LNCaP cells were grown within RPMI-1640 medium containing 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. VCaP cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Cells treated with cholesterol analogs and statins were grown in medium supplemented with 10% LPDS. Cells were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified 5% CO₂ incubator.

MicroRNA Transfection

Transfection of miR-33a and non-targeting control microRNA (Invitrogen) was performed with Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, appropriate number of LNCaP or VCaP cells were seeded in 96 well plates to be 60-80% confluent at the time of transfection. Lipofectamine[®] RNAiMAX Reagent (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) and 60 pmol miR-33a mimic were diluted in Opti-MEM[®] Medium (Gibco, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). Diluted miR-33a mimic and Lipofectamine[®] RNAiMAX Reagent were mixed in 1:1 ratio and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. Then, microRNA-lipid complex was added to the medium of cells.

RNA Isolation, cDNA Synthesis and Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Total RNA from reagent treated and/or

microRNA-transfected samples were isolated using TRIzol (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) reagent. The concentrations and purities of RNA samples were evaluated spectrophotometrically with NanoDrop ND-2000c (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA).

MicroRNA first strand DNA (cDNA) synthesis from equal amounts of total RNA was carried out with microRNA specific primers (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and “TaqMan MicroRNA reverse transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) following the manufacturer’s instructions. TaqMan Fast Advanced Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and microRNA probes (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) were used for microRNA expression analysis. Each experiment was performed in triplicates and microRNA expression data were normalized to RNU43.

For gene expression analysis, equal amounts of total RNA samples were reverse transcribed using “amfiRivert cDNA Synthesis Platinum Master Mix” (GenDepot, Barker, TX, USA) following the manufacturers’ protocol. SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) was used for quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR). Each experiment was performed in triplicates and normalization of gene expression was done comparing β -actin expression.

Primer sequences used to evaluate gene expressions are listed in Table 1. qRT-PCR was performed in a StepOnePlus™ real-time thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) with standard parameters. $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method was utilized to calculate the alterations in expression levels.

Cell Proliferation Test

The proliferation capacities of LNCaP and VCaP

cells in the presence of the reagents alone (LDL in 50 μ g/ml [25], 25-HC in 1 μ g/ml [25], Mevastatin in 10 μ M [26], and Simvastatin in 10 μ M [26] final concentration) or in combination with miR-33a mimic (60 pmol final concentration) were evaluated as follows. Cells were seeded in 96 well plates and after 24 hours, cells were transfected with miR-33a mimic or non-targeting control. Then 3 hours later, cells were treated with reagents to assess their effects on cell proliferation alone or in combination with miR-33a.

Proliferation capacities were evaluated at the end of each day for 4 days with the Cell Counting Kit-8 (Dojindo, Rockville, MD, USA) according the manufacturer’s protocol and the absorbances were measured with a VERSAmax Tunable microplate reader (Conquer Scientific, San Diego, CA, USA).

Matrigel Invasion Test

Invasion capacities of cells were evaluated with BD BioCoat Matrigel invasion chambers (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). After treated with reagents alone (LDL in 50 μ g/ml, 25-HC in 1 μ g/ml, Mevastatin in 10 μ M, and Simvastatin in 10 μ M final concentration) or in combination with overexpression of miR-33a mimic or non-targeting control (60 pmol final concentration) for 48 hours, LNCaP cells were harvested and plated into invasion chambers in triplicates. After 24 hours, cells on the upper surface of the chamber were removed and the cells on the lower side of the filter were initially fixed in methanol and stained with 0.3% crystal violet and 2% ethanol containing solution for 20 min. Then, relative invasion ratios were calculated through counting cells.

Soft Agar Colony Formation Test

LNCaP cells were suspended in 0.3% agar diluted in RPMI at a density of 3×10^3 cells/ml and seeded on a 0.6% base agar in 6-well culture plates in triplicates. Then cells were cultured in the presence or absence of reagents (LDL in 50 μ g/ml, 25-HC in 1 μ g/ml, Mevastatin in 10 μ M, and Simvastatin in 10 μ M final concentration) at 37°C incubator for 2 to 3 weeks.

Cells were fixed and stained with 0.01% crystal violet and 10% ethanol containing solution. Relative colony numbers were calculated through counting colonies with a dissecting microscope.

Table 1. qRT-PCR primer sequences

| Gene | Sequence |
|--------------|------------------------------|
| Beta-actin-F | 5'-GCCTCGCCTTGCCGATC-3' |
| Beta-actin-R | 5'-CCCACGATGGAGGGGAAG-3' |
| CPT1A-F | 5'-GGCAAGTTTTGCCTCACATACG-3' |
| CPT1A-R | 5'-GAACAACCTCAGCCTCTGTTCC-3' |
| HADHB-F | 5'-AAACCAAGGTTGGATTGCCTC-3' |
| HADHB-R | 5'-CACTATCATAGCATGGCCCTG-3' |

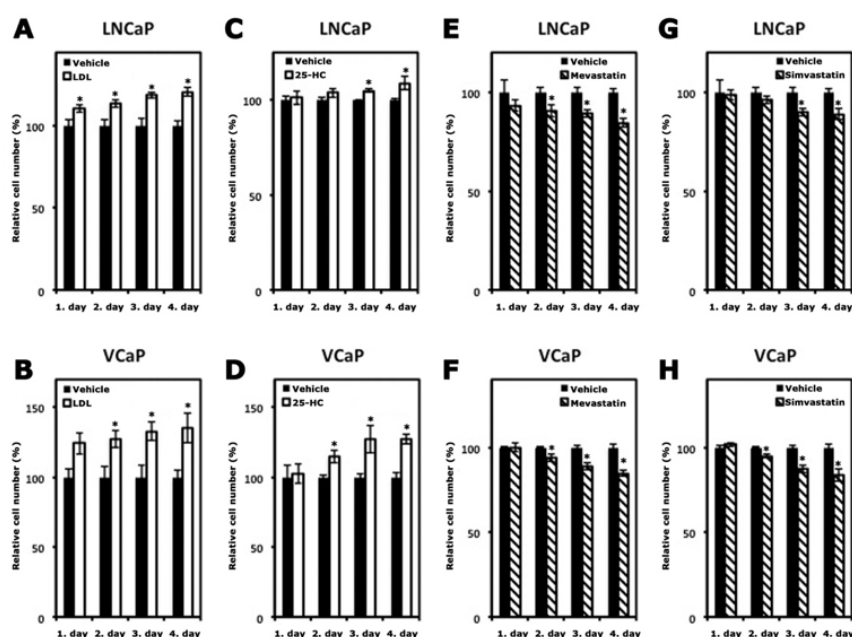


Figure 1. Impacts of cholesterol analogs and statins on the proliferative potential of PCa cells. Proliferation of LNCaP cells treated with LDL (a), 25-HC (c), Mevastatin (e), Simvastatin (g). Proliferation of VCaP cells treated with LDL (b), 25-HC (d), Mevastatin (f), Simvastatin (h). Mean \pm SEM is shown * $p < 0.05$; t-test

Statistical Analysis

Data were plotted as \pm mean standard error of mean (SEM) and the statistical significances were tested using Student's t test. A p value of 0.05 or below was accepted as statistically significant.

RESULTS

LDL and 25-HC promoted and Statins inhibited the proliferation, invasion, and clonogenic capacity of PCa cells

To explore the biological relevance of cholesterol analogs and statins in PCa, we initially evaluated their effects on the proliferative capacity of PCa cells. Treatment of LNCaP and VCaP cells with LDL significantly promoted proliferation by up to 20% (Figure 1a) and 35% (Figure 1b), respectively. 25-HC treatment also resulted in increased proliferation in both cell lines (Figures 1c and 1d). On the contrary, cholesterol-lowering drugs, Mevastatin and Simvastatin, reduced proliferation by up to 16% (Figure 1e) and 12% (Figure 1g) in LNCaP cells, respectively. Similarly, statin treatment caused significant decrease in proliferation of VCaP cells (Figures 1f and 1h).

Moreover, LDL significantly increased the invasive and clonogenic potential of LNCaP cells, while statins demonstrated opposite effects (Figures 2a and 2b). 25-HC treatment also resulted in enhanced invasive potential (Figure 2b), however, it did not result in a significant change in colony formation ability of LNCaP cells (Figure 2b). This might be due to accumulation of 25-HC within the cells during soft agar assays, which could make the concentration of 25-HC reach the toxic levels for LNCaP cells. These overall findings point the potential of statins to inhibit cellular phenotypes associated with PCa progression.

MiR-33a reverses the effects of cholesterol analogs and strengthens the impacts of statins on cellular proliferation

To evaluate the collaborative action of miR-33a with cholesterol analogs and statins on the proliferative potential of PCa cells, we treated cells that are overexpressing miR-33a with LDL, 25-HC, mevastatin, and simvastatin and evaluated their dual impact on the proliferation of both LNCaP and VCaP cells. We initially investigated the efficiency of miR-33a transfection in cells, which showed that miR-33a was overexpressed up to ~ 40 and ~ 130 fold in LNCaP and VCaP cells, respectively, relative to cells

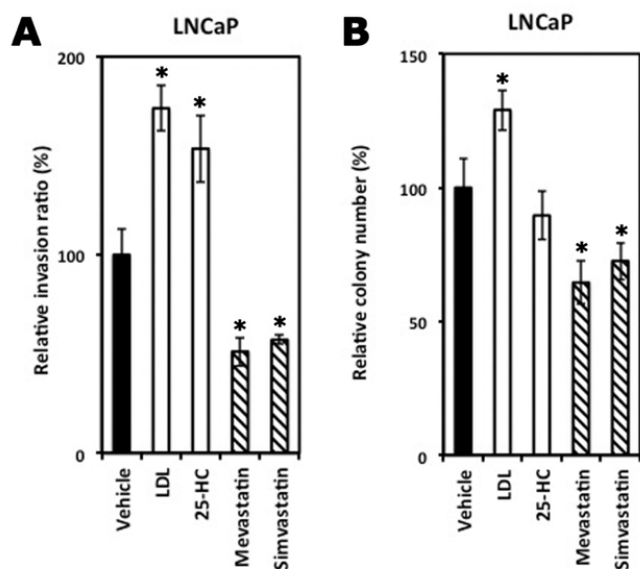


Figure 2. Impacts of cholesterol analogs and statins on the invasive and clonogenic potential of PCa cells. Invasion (a) and anchorage independent growth (b) of LNCaP cells treated with LDL, 25-HC, Mevastatin, Simvastatin. Mean +/- SEM is shown **p* < 0.05; t-test

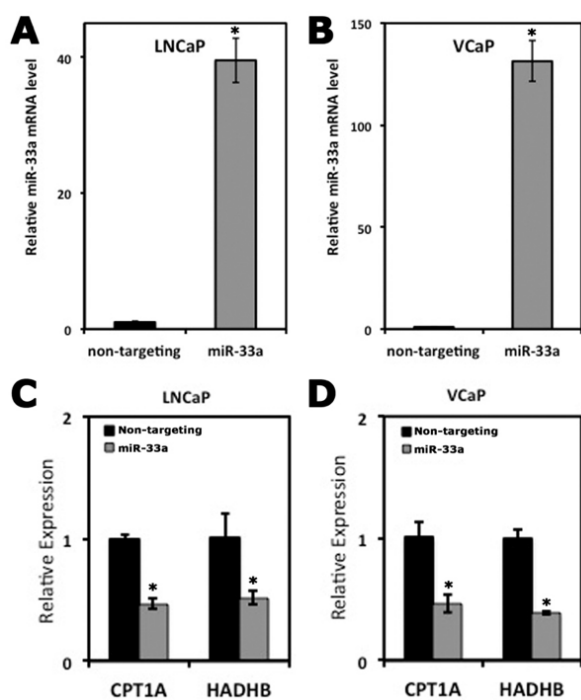


Figure 3. Overexpression of miR-33a. Relative miR-33a level in miR-33a transfected LNCaP (a) and VCaP (b) cells. qRT-PCR validation of CPT1A and HADHB as direct targets of miR-33a involved in cholesterol metabolism in miR-33a transfected LNCaP (c) and VCaP (d) cells. MiRNA levels are demonstrated as fold change and were normalized to RNU43, mRNA levels are demonstrated as fold change and were normalized to β -actin. Mean +/- SEM is shown **p* < 0.05; t-test

overexpressing non-targeting controls (Figures 3a and 3b).

We then validated the downregulation of CPT1A and HADHB, which are direct targets of miR-33a as implicated in cholesterol metabolism, at the mRNA level upon ectopic miR-33a overexpression (Figures 3c and 3d), and confirmed the inhibitory role of miR-33a on the proliferative capacity of both LNCaP and VCaP cells (Figure 4).

Furthermore, treatment of LNCaP and VCaP cells ectopically overexpressing miR-33a with LDL and 25-HC reversed the inhibitory potential of miR-33a and resulted in increased proliferation (Figures 4a, 4b, 4c and 4d). To explore the collaborative action of miR-33a and statins on PCa cell inhibition, we also treated PCa cells ectopically overexpressing miR-33a with statins and demonstrated that treatment of cells with either Mevastatin or Simvastatin along with miR-33a overexpression significantly enhanced the proliferation inhibitory potential of miR-33a. This points the power of utilization of miR-33a and statins together as a tool for effective and successful eradication of PCa cells.

DISCUSSION

High cholesterol, also known as hypercholesterolemia, is a worldwide problem with a global prevalence of about 39% among adults [27]. Adults with high cholesterol are considered as at higher risk for cardiovascular diseases as well as several cancers, and recent data suggest that hypercholesterolemia might be implicated with the risk of PCa development [7, 8, 28, 29].

3-Hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitors, commonly referred as statins, are effective lipid-lowering drugs, which are generally administered in Western countries [27]. Accumulating evidences like (i) significant reduction of PSA levels, in PCa-free men after starting a statin [30], (ii) profound inhibition of cellular growth upon combinatorial therapy with atorvastatin and celecoxib, but not upon their individual use, in PCa xenograft models [31, 32], and (iii) associations between statin use and a decline in the advanced PCa incidence and recurrence risk after treatment compared to controls

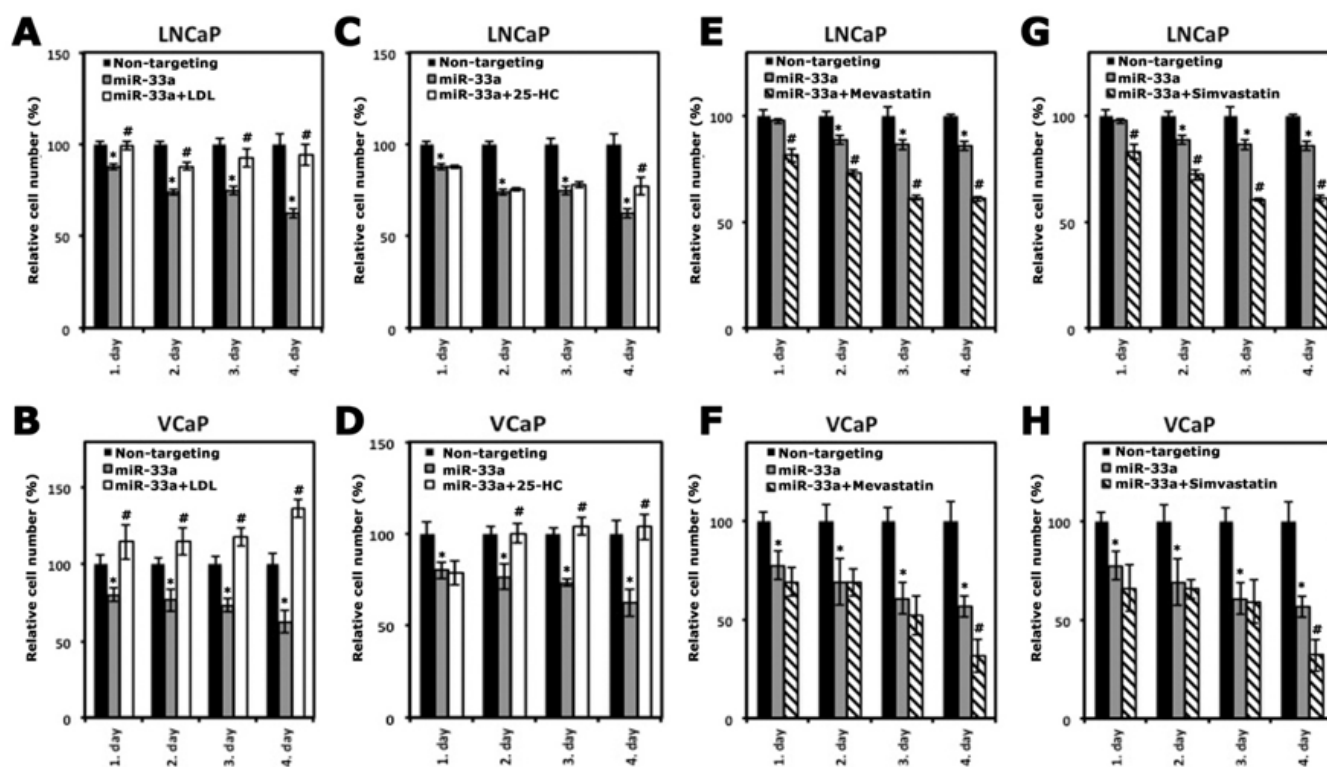


Figure 4. Collaborative effects of miR-33a with cholesterol analogs and statins on cellular proliferation. Proliferation of LNCaP cells overexpressing miR-33a treated with LDL (a), 25-HC (b), Mevastatin (c), Simvastatin (d). Proliferation of VCaP cells overexpressing miR-33a treated with LDL (e), 25-HC (f), Mevastatin (g), Simvastatin (h). Mean +/- SEM is shown **p* < 0.05; t-test

[27], suggest that development of cholesterol-dependent therapeutic approaches may be key to enhance the fight against PCa.

Our results demonstrated that introduction of cholesterol analogs significantly promoted proliferation, invasion, and clonogenic capacity of PCa cells, whereas, statins inhibited their proliferation, invasion, and anchorage independent growth, which is in line with previous findings [25, 33]. Interestingly, in those studies, both Mevastatin and Simvastatin have been shown to display toxic effects to RWPE-1 to some extent, however, they were found to have selective inhibition against PCa cells and reduced potency against benign epithelial RWPE-1 cells compared to PCa cells [26, 34].

Statins are thought to eradicate PCa cells through (i) regulation of cholesterol levels required for signal transduction, and (ii) modulation of signaling pathways associated with several cellular phenotypes independent of cholesterol lowering, like cell proliferation, invasion, and migration [30, 35-37]. Moreover, statins inhibit proliferation via regulation

of androgen receptor expression and activity [26,38]. Androgens are implicated in PCa progression and androgen deprivation therapies have been an effective means of treatment for disseminated PCa [39]. However, cancer cells are able to endure the androgen-depleted environment and develop castration resistant tumors through several androgen receptor related adaptive mechanisms like reactivation of androgen receptor and *de novo* intratumoral production of androgens [34, 40]. Considering the synthesis of cholesterol, use of statins might be useful for treating castration resistant PCa patients [41]. Besides, Simvastatin, as an FDA approved cholesterol-lowering drug, display well tolerated side-effect profiles, which proposes statins as an ideal combinatorial therapy option with chemotherapeutic agents with minimal additional risk to the patients [34, 42]. However, further studies are needed to determine the class and optimal *in vivo* doses of statins with minimum toxic effects to normal cells.

In this study, we also investigated the potential

collaborative inhibitory function of miR-33a and statins on the proliferative potential of PCa cells. In normal tissues, miR-33a, along with its host gene *SREBF2*, modulate regulation of cholesterol levels [43]. Downregulation of miR-33a allows upregulation of oncogenic genes such as PIM1 and causes increase of β -oxidation of fatty acids through upregulation of genes like HADHB and CPT1A [16, 24]. Such elevated β -oxidation might contribute to providing of energy to PCa cells. Another potential association of miR-33a to cholesterol metabolism is its targets that are involved in cholesterol transport such as *ABCA1*, *ABCG1*, and *NPC1* [24].

Several studies demonstrated that overexpression of miR-33a *in vitro* profoundly suppressed cholesterol export in various cell culture models [15, 44-46]. Further *in vivo* studies also demonstrated significant elevation in serum HDL cholesterol in miR-33a *-/-* mice [45].

Until now, there are numerous microRNAs that are proposed as putative therapeutic agents against PCa. Unraveling the mechanism of actions, finding their true targets, and determining accurate expression data are required to develop effective and practical therapies. For example, recently overexpression of the lethal-7 (*let-7*) was suggested as a therapeutic tool for PCa through utilization of either lenti- or adenoviruses to inhibit the survival and proliferation of tumor cells [47, 48]. In another study, a natural product, 3,3'-diindolylmethane (DIM), was given to patients prior to radical prostatectomy to evaluate its therapeutic role. The phase II clinical trial demonstrated that DIM intervention lead to increased levels of *let-7* and reduced expression of its target, *EZH2*, in PCa cells, which resulted low self-renewal and clonogenic capacity [49]. This findings point the potential of treatment options targeting deregulated microRNAs in PCa.

The Limitations of the Study

Certain limitations should be considered when interpreting the results of our study. Analysis of the impacts of cholesterol analogs and statins along with miR-33a overexpression were performed only with two PCa cell lines, which does not effectively reflect the heterogeneity of the PCa. Moreover, utilization of

only cancer cells but not a healthy prostate epithelial cell line restricts to foresee potential side effects of miR-33a overexpression and statin treatment. Lack of *in vivo* experiments prevents drawing a clear conclusion about the collaborative function of miR-33a and statins against PCa. Lastly, not utilization of control cell lines that are not associated with cholesterol would effect the specificity of the proposed mechanism. Therefore, further detailed *in vitro* research should be performed to reveal the possible mechanisms of differential expression of miR-33a and the role of deregulated cholesterol homeostasis in PCa as well as to show the importance of targeting these deregulations to eradicate PCa cells. Also, further *in vivo* and clinical researches are needed to clarify the potential of miR-33a and statins against PCa.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we demonstrated that LDL and 25-HC promoted and statins decreased the proliferation, invasion, and clonogenic features of PCa cells and miR-33a reverses the effects of cholesterol analogs and strengthens the affects of statins on the phenotypes related to PCa progression, which suggests that miR-33a and statins might be useful tools for effective and successful eradication of PCa cells. However, more evidences on the curative or preventive impacts of statins against PCa both *in vitro* and *in vivo* still needs to be provided.

Conflict of interest

The authors disclosed no conflict of interest during the preparation or publication of this manuscript.

Acknowledgements

The research conducted in this study was partially supported by grants from the Prostate Cancer Foundation (MI), the Dept. of Veterans Affairs Merit Review program (MI) and partially by the National Cancer Institute to the Dan L. Duncan Cancer (P30 CA125123) supporting the Human Tissue Acquisition and Pathology Shared Resource and experiments were carried out using the facilities of the Michael E. DeBakey VAMC.

REFERENCES

- [1] Yang B, Liao GQ, Wen XF, Chen WH, Cheng S, Stolzenburg JU, et al. Nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy as a new approach for improvement of early diagnosis and risk stratification of prostate cancer. *J Zhejiang Univ Sci B* 2017;18:921-33.
- [2] Brookman-Amissah N, Nariculam J, Freeman A, Williamson M, Kirby RS, Masters JR, et al. Allelic imbalance at 13q14.2 approximately q14.3 in localized prostate cancer is associated with early biochemical relapse. *Cancer Genet Cytogenet* 2007;179:118-26.
- [3] Barron N, Keenan J, Gammell P, Martinez VG, Freeman A, Masters JR, et al. Biochemical relapse following radical prostatectomy and miR-200a levels in prostate cancer. *Prostate* 2012;72:1193-9.
- [4] Bhatnagar N, Li X, Padi SK, Zhang Q, Tang MS, Guo B. Downregulation of miR-205 and miR-31 confers resistance to chemotherapy-induced apoptosis in prostate cancer cells. *Cell Death Dis* 2010;1:e105.
- [5] Masko EM, Alfaqih MA, Solomon KR, Barry WT, Newgard CB, Muehlbauer MJ, et al. Evidence for feedback regulation following cholesterol lowering therapy in a prostate cancer xenograft model. *Prostate* 2017;77:446-57.
- [6] Van Hemelrijck M, Walldius G, Jungner I, Hammar N, Garmo H, Binda E, et al. Low levels of apolipoprotein A-I and HDL are associated with risk of prostate cancer in the Swedish AMORIS study. *Cancer Causes Control* 2011;22:1011-9.
- [7] Farwell WR, D'Avolio LW, Scranton RE, Lawler EV, Gaziano JM. Statins and prostate cancer diagnosis and grade in a veterans population. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2011;103:885-92.
- [8] Mondul A, Weinstein S, Virtamo J, Albanes D. Serum total and HDL cholesterol and risk of prostate cancer. *Cancer Causes Control* 2011;22:1545-52.
- [9] Allott EH, Howard LE, Cooperberg MR, Kane CJ, Aronson WJ, Terris MK, et al. Postoperative statin use and risk of biochemical recurrence following radical prostatectomy: results from the Shared Equal Access Regional Cancer Hospital (SEARCH) database. *BJU Int* 2014;114:661-6.
- [10] Dillard PR, Lin MF, Khan SA. Androgen-independent prostate cancer cells acquire the complete steroidogenic potential of synthesizing testosterone from cholesterol. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 2008;295:115-20.
- [11] Murtola TJ, Tammela TL, Lahtela J, Auvinen A. Cholesterol-lowering drugs and prostate cancer risk: a population-based case-control study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2007;16:2226-32.
- [12] Graaf MR, Beiderbeck AB, Egberts AC, Richel DJ, Guchelaar HJ. The risk of cancer in users of statins. *J Clin Oncol* 2004;22:2388-94.
- [13] Platz EA, Leitzmann MF, Visvanathan K, Rimm EB, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC, et al. Statin drugs and risk of advanced prostate cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2006;98:1819-25.
- [14] Ono K. Functions of microRNA-33a/b and microRNA therapeutics. *J Cardiol* 2016;67:28-33.
- [15] Najafi-Shoushtari SH, Kristo F, Li Y, Shioda T, Cohen DE, Gerszten RE, et al. MicroRNA-33 and the SREBP host genes cooperate to control cholesterol homeostasis. *Science* 2010;328:1566-9.
- [16] Karatas O, Wang J, Shao L, Ozen M, Zhang Y, Creighton C, Ittmann M. miR-33a is a tumor suppressor microRNA that is decreased in prostate cancer. *Oncotarget* 2017;8:60243-56.
- [17] Kuo PL, Liao SH, Hung JY, Huang MS, Hsu YL. MicroRNA-33a functions as a bone metastasis suppressor in lung cancer by targeting parathyroid hormone related protein. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2013;1830:3756-66.
- [18] Zhang C, Zhang Y, Ding W, Lin Y, Huang Z, Luo Q. MiR-33a suppresses breast cancer cell proliferation and metastasis by targeting ADAM9 and ROS1. *Protein Cell* 2015;6:881-9.
- [19] Liang C, Yu XJ, Guo XZ, Sun MH, Wang Z, Song Y, et al. MicroRNA-33a-mediated downregulation of Pim-3 kinase expression renders human pancreatic cancer cells sensitivity to gemcitabine. *Oncotarget* 2015;6:14440-55.
- [20] Zhang J, Wang D, Xiong J, Chen L, Huang J. MicroRNA-33a-5p suppresses growth of osteosarcoma cells and is downregulated in human osteosarcoma. *Oncol Lett* 2015;10:2135-41.
- [21] Zhou J, Xu D, Xie H, Tang J, Liu R, Li J, et al. miR-33a functions as a tumor suppressor in melanoma by targeting HIF-1 α . *Cancer Biol Ther* 2015;16:846-55.
- [22] Kang J, Kim W, Lee S, Kwon D, Chun J, Son B, et al. TFAP2C promotes lung tumorigenesis and aggressiveness through miR-183- and miR-33a-mediated cell cycle regulation. *Oncogene* 2017;36:1585-96.
- [23] Yang L, Yang J, Li J, Shen X, Le Y, Zhou C, et al. MircoRNA-33a inhibits epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and metastasis and could be a prognostic marker in non-small cell lung cancer. *Sci Rep* 2015;5:13677.
- [24] Bommer GT, MacDougald OA. Regulation of lipid homeostasis by the bifunctional SREBF2-miR33a locus. *Cell Metab* 2011;13:241-7.
- [25] Krycer JR, Kristiana I, Brown AJ. Cholesterol homeostasis in two commonly used human prostate cancer cell-lines, LNCaP and PC-3. *PLoS One* 2009;4:e8496.
- [26] Yokomizo A, Shiota M, Kashiwagi E, Kuroiwa K, Tatsugami K, Inokuchi J, et al. Statins reduce the androgen sensitivity and cell proliferation by decreasing the androgen receptor protein in prostate cancer cells. *Prostate* 2011;71:298-304.
- [27] Schnoeller TJ, Jentzmik F, Schrader AJ, Steinestel J. Influence of serum cholesterol level and statin treatment on prostate cancer aggressiveness. *Oncotarget* 2017;8:47110-20.
- [28] Almutairi F, Peterson TC, Molinari M, Walsh MJ, Alwayn I, Peltekian KM. Safety and effectiveness of ezetimibe in liver transplant recipients with hypercholesterolemia. *Liver Transpl* 2009;15:504-8.
- [29] Kitahara CM, Berrington de González A, Freedman ND, Huxley R, Mok Y, Jee SH, et al. Total cholesterol and cancer risk in a large prospective study in Korea. *J Clin Oncol* 2011;29:1592-8.
- [30] Hamilton RJ, Goldberg KC, Platz EA, Freedland SJ. The influence of statin medications on prostate-specific antigen levels. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 2008;100:1511-8.
- [31] Zheng X, Cui XX, Avila GE, Huang MT, Liu Y, Patel J, et al. Atorvastatin and celecoxib inhibit prostate PC-3 tumors in immunodeficient mice. *Clin Cancer Res* 2007;13(18 Pt 1):5480-7.
- [32] Zheng X, Cui XX, Gao Z, Zhao Y, Lin Y, Shih WJ, et al. Atorvastatin and celecoxib in combination inhibits the progression of androgen-dependent LNCaP xenograft prostate tumors to androgen independence. *Cancer Prev Res (Phila)* 2010;3:114-24.
- [33] Murtola TJ, Syväälä H, Pennanen P, Bläuer M, Solakivi T, Ylikomi T, et al. The importance of LDL and cholesterol metabolism for prostate epithelial cell growth. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e39445.
- [34] Ingersoll MA, Miller DR, Martinez O, Wakefield CB, Hsieh KC, et al. Statin derivatives as therapeutic agents for castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Cancer Lett* 2016;383:94-105.
- [35] Gonçalves I, Cherfan P, Söderberg I, Nordin Fredrikson G, Jonasson L. Effects of simvastatin on circulating autoantibodies to oxidized LDL antigens: relation with immune stimulation markers. *Autoimmunity* 2009;42:203-8.
- [36] Kusama T, Mukai M, Iwasaki T, Tatsuta M, Matsumoto Y, Akedo H, et al. Inhibition of epidermal growth factor-induced RhoA translocation and invasion of human pancreatic cancer cells by 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme a reductase inhibitors. *Cancer Res* 2001;61:4885-91.
- [37] Nübel T, Dippold W, Kleinert H, Kaina B, Fritz G. Lovastatin inhibits Rho-regulated expression of E-selectin by TNF α and attenuates tumor cell adhesion. *FASEB J* 2004;18:140-2.
- [38] Yang L, Egger M, Plattner R, Klocker H, Eder IE. Lovastatin causes diminished PSA secretion by inhibiting AR expression and function in

LNCaP prostate cancer cells. *Urology* 2011;77:1508.e1501-1507.

- [39] Wong YN, Ferraldeschi R, Attard G, de Bono J. Evolution of androgen receptor targeted therapy for advanced prostate cancer. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 2014;11:365-76.
- [40] Gordon JA, Midha A, Szeitz A, Ghaffari M, Adomat HH, Guo Y, et al. Oral simvastatin administration delays castration-resistant progression and reduces intratumoral steroidogenesis of LNCaP prostate cancer xenografts. *Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis* 2016;19:21-7.
- [41] Locke JA, Guns ES, Lubik AA, Adomat HH, Hendy SC, Wood CA, et al. Androgen levels increase by intratumoral de novo steroidogenesis during progression of castration-resistant prostate cancer. *Cancer Res* 2008;68:6407-15.
- [42] Baigent C, Blackwell L, Emberson J, Holland LE, Reith C, Bhala N, et al.; Collaboration CTTC. Efficacy and safety of more intensive lowering of LDL cholesterol: a meta-analysis of data from 170,000 participants in 26 randomised trials. *Lancet* 2010;376:1670-81.
- [43] Najafi-Shoushtari SH, Kristo F, Li Y, Shioda T, Cohen DE, Gerszten RE, et al. MicroRNA-33 and the SREBP host genes cooperate to control cholesterol homeostasis. *Science* 2010;328:1566-9.
- [44] Gerin I, Clerbaux LA, Haumont O, Lanthier N, Das AK, Burant CF, et al. Expression of miR-33 from an SREBP2 intron inhibits cholesterol export and fatty acid oxidation. *J Biol Chem* 2010;285:33652-61.
- [45] Horie T, Ono K, Horiguchi M, Nishi H, Nakamura T, Nagao K, et al. MicroRNA-33 encoded by an intron of sterol regulatory element-binding protein 2 (Srebp2) regulates HDL in vivo. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107:17321-6.
- [46] Marquart TJ, Allen RM, Ory DS, Baldán A. miR-33 links SREBP-2 induction to repression of sterol transporters. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010;107:12228-32.
- [47] Nadiminty N, Tummala R, Lou W, Zhu Y, Shi XB, Zou JX, et al. MicroRNA let-7c is downregulated in prostate cancer and suppresses prostate cancer growth. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e32832.
- [48] Barh D, Malhotra R, Ravi B, Sindhurani P. MicroRNA let-7: an emerging next-generation cancer therapeutic. *Curr Oncol* 2010;17:70-80.
- [49] Kong D, Heath E, Chen W, Cher ML, Powell I, Heilbrun L, et al. Loss of let-7 up-regulates EZH2 in prostate cancer consistent with the acquisition of cancer stem cell signatures that are attenuated by BR-DIM. *PLoS One* 2012;7:e33729.



This is an open access article distributed under the terms of Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 International License.