

# Bioinformatic analysis and experimental validation of six cuproptosis-associated genes as a prognostic signature of breast cancer (#89553)

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# Bioinformatic analysis and experimental validation of six cuproptosis-associated genes as a prognostic signature of breast cancer

Xiang Chen<sup>Equal first author, 1</sup>, Hening Sun<sup>Equal first author, 1</sup>, Changcheng Yang<sup>2</sup>, Wei Wang<sup>1</sup>, Wenzhi Lyu<sup>1</sup>, Kejian Zou<sup>1</sup>, Fan Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Zhijun Dai<sup>3</sup>, Xionghui He<sup>Corresp., 1</sup>, Huaying Dong<sup>Corresp. 1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Hainan General Hospital, Hainan Medical College, Haikou City, Hainan Province, China

<sup>2</sup> Department of The First Affiliated Hospital, Hainan Medical College, Haikou City, Hainan Province, China

<sup>3</sup> Department of The First Affiliated Hospital, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou City, Zhejiang Province, China

Corresponding Authors: Xionghui He, Huaying Dong  
Email address: hxh7582@163.com, dr\_dhy@163.com

**Background:** Breast carcinoma (BRCA) is a life-threatening malignancy in women and shows a poor prognosis. Cuproptosis is a novel mode of cell death but its relationship with BRCA is unclear. This study attempted to develop a cuproptosis-relevant prognostic gene signature for BRCA. **Methods:** Cuproptosis-relevant subtypes of BRCA were obtained by consensus clustering. Differential expression analysis was implemented using the ‘limma’ package. Univariate Cox and multivariate Cox analyses were performed to determine a cuproptosis-relevant prognostic gene signature. The signature was constructed and validated in distinct datasets. Gene set variation analysis (GSVA) and Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) were also conducted using the prognostic signature to uncover the underlying molecular mechanisms. ESTIMATE and CIBERSORT algorithms were applied to probe the linkage between the gene signature and tumor microenvironment (TME). Immunotherapy responsiveness was assessed using the Tumor Immune Dysfunction and Exclusion (TIDE) web tool. Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed to detect the expressions of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes in breast cancer cell lines. **Results:** Thirty-eight cuproptosis-associated differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in BRCA were mined by consensus clustering and differential expression analysis. Based on univariate Cox and multivariate Cox analyses, six cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes, namely SAA1, KRT17, VAV3, IGHG1, TFF1, and CLEC3A, were mined to establish a corresponding signature. The signature was validated using external validation sets. GSVA and GSEA showed that multiple cell cycle-linked and immune-related pathways along with biological processes were associated with the signature. The results ESTIMATE and CIBERSORT analyses revealed significantly different TMEs between the two Cusig score subgroups. Finally, RT-qPCR analysis of cell lines further confirmed the expressional trends

of SAA1, KRT17, IGHG1, and CLEC3A. **Conclusion:** Taken together, we constructed a signature for projecting the overall survival of BRCA patients and our findings authenticated the cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes, which are expected to provide a basis for developing prognostic molecular biomarkers and an in-depth understanding of the relationship between cuproptosis and BRCA.

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1. Department of General Surgery, Hainan General Hospital, Hainan Affiliated Hospital of Hainan Medical University, 570311, Haikou, China.

2. Department of Medical Oncology, The First Affiliated Hospital of Hainan Medical University, 570102, Haikou, China.

3. Department of Breast Surgery, The First Affiliated Hospital, School of Medicine, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, 310003, China.

\* Correspondence: dr\_dhy@163.com; hxx7582@163.com.

† These authors contributed equally: Xiang Chen and Hening Sun.

## Abstract

**Background:** Breast carcinoma (BRCA) is a life-threatening malignancy in women and shows a poor prognosis. Cuproptosis is a novel mode of cell death but its relationship with BRCA is unclear. This study attempted to develop a cuproptosis-relevant prognostic gene signature for BRCA.

**Methods:** Cuproptosis-relevant subtypes of BRCA were obtained by consensus clustering. Differential expression analysis was implemented using the ‘limma’ package. Univariate Cox and multivariate Cox analyses were performed to determine a cuproptosis-relevant prognostic

gene signature. The signature was constructed and validated in distinct datasets. Gene set variation analysis (GSVA) and Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) were also conducted using the prognostic signature to uncover the underlying molecular mechanisms. ESTIMATE and CIBERSORT algorithms were applied to probe the linkage between the gene signature and tumor microenvironment (TME). Immunotherapy responsiveness was assessed using the Tumor Immune Dysfunction and Exclusion (TIDE) web tool. Real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was performed to detect the expressions of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes in breast cancer cell lines.

**Results:** Thirty-eight cuproptosis-associated differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in BRCA were mined by consensus clustering and differential expression analysis. Based on univariate Cox and multivariate Cox analyses, six cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes, namely SAA1, KRT17, VAV3, IGHG1, TFF1, and CLEC3A, were mined to establish a corresponding signature. The signature was validated using external validation sets. GSVA and GSEA showed that multiple cell cycle-linked and immune-related pathways along with biological processes were associated with the signature. The results ESTIMATE and CIBERSORT analyses revealed significantly different TMEs between the two Cusig score subgroups. Finally, RT-qPCR analysis of cell lines further confirmed the expressional trends of SAA1, KRT17, IGHG1, and CLEC3A.

**Conclusion:** Taken together, we constructed a signature for projecting the overall survival of BRCA patients and our findings authenticated the cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes, which are expected to provide a basis for developing prognostic molecular biomarkers and an in-depth understanding of the relationship between cuproptosis and BRCA.

**Keyword:** breast carcinoma; cuproptosis; prognostic signature; tumor microenvironment

# Introduction

Breast carcinoma (BRCA) is the most common malignancy and the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths among women (1). In most Asian countries, BRCA is a malignancy that threatens women's lives (2), and its incidence is increasing more rapidly compared to Western countries (2,3). Based on the expression of hormone and cell membrane receptors, BRCA can be divided into four subtypes, namely luminal A-like, luminal B-like, HER2 positive, and triple-negative breast cancer (TNBC) (4). TNBC lacks expression of all three receptors and is an aggressive malignancy with a poor prognosis, accounting for 10–20% of all BRCA cases (5). Clinically, some BRCA treatments, like mastectomy, chemotherapy, and radiotherapy, have serious side effects (6). Chemotherapy is more effective than mastectomy and radiotherapy for metastatic cancer (7); however, conventional chemotherapeutic drugs are associated with serious side effects such as neutropenia, stomatitis, and mucositis (8). Nanoparticle-based cancer vaccines are currently being developed and are in the early stages (9). Therefore, although the prognosis of many BRCA patients has improved with the existing medical technology, due to individual differences, the clinical markers of tumor grade, tumor size, and TNM stage alone are far from satisfactory for personalised diagnosis and treatment. Moreover, many BRCA patients are still at risk of recurrence and death (10,11). There is therefore a need to develop new molecular prognostic markers and related therapeutic agents to achieve more precise treatment.

A recent study found that various copper ion carrier drugs such as elesclomol (ES), disulfiram, and NSC319726 can cause cell death. This copper-induced cell death or cuproptosis



is a novel form that differs from other programmed cell death types (e.g. apoptosis, pyroptosis, necrosis, and ferroptosis) (12). Copper ions are necessary for all living things, including bacteria, animals, and humans. These also play a crucial role in biological processes as cofactors for key enzymes. While under normal physiological conditions, copper ions are kept at low concentrations in a state of dynamic equilibrium in living things, their excessive buildup may result in copper toxicity, which in turn can cause cell death. Further investigation into the potential cause of cuproptosis has revealed that copper ions can bind to thioctylated proteins in the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, contributing to abnormal oligomerization of thioctylated proteins and reduced Fe-S cluster protein levels, both of which cause a proteotoxic stress response that ultimately results in cell death. In addition, previous studies have shown that copper-chelating drugs can significantly increase the number of infiltrating CT8<sup>+</sup> T and natural killer cells in tumor cells while reducing the growth rate of tumor cells (13). Recent studies have shown that cuproptosis-related genes are involved in numerous immune-related pathways in BRCA, whereby there is a heavy infiltration of CD4<sup>+</sup>, activated NK cells, memory T cells, macrophages, and CD8 T cells (14-16).

However, reports on cuproptosis in BRCA are relatively rare. In this study, we identified cuproptosis-relevant genes and their prognostic value in BRCA by bioinformatics and assessed the relationship between cuproptosis-relevant prognostic features and tumor microenvironment and immune cell infiltration. The findings are expected to facilitate the development of new treatment strategies for BRCA.

# **Material and methods**

## **Data sources**

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA)-BRCA cohort comprising sequencing data and clinical information of 1091 BRCA samples and 113 normal samples, was acquired from TCGA database (<https://xenabrowser.net>). Of these, 1069 BRCA samples with survival information (after filtering out samples without details of age, M, N, T, and stage) were incorporated into the survival analysis. GSE42568 and GSE20711 cohorts were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE42568>) and employed as external validation sets for assessing the cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature. GSE42568 and GSE20711 cohorts included 104 and 88 BRCA samples with corresponding survival information and data, respectively. The RNA-seq FPKM data of TCGA-BRCA cohort and GSE42568 dataset were normalized with log2 (FPKM+1) values. Ten cuproptosis-relevant genes (FDX1, LIAS, LIPT1, DLD, DLAT, PDHA1, PDHB, MTF1, GLS, and CDKN2A) were extracted from a previous study (12).

## **Functional enrichment analysis**

The online website DAVID (<https://david.ncifcrf.gov/>) (17,18) and the R package ‘clusterProfiler’ (19) were employed for Gene Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analyses (20). GO terms were annotated as cellular component (CC), molecular function (MF), and biological process (BP).

## **Identifying BRCA-related subtypes**

BRCA cases in TCGA-BRCA cohort were classified based on the expression of corresponding

genes by consensus clustering using the ‘ConsensusClusterPlus’ package (21). The consensus matrix and consensus CDF curve were generated for selecting the optimal typing. Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) maximized the retention of features of the original data while reducing the feature dimensionality and was used to conduct dimensional reduction analysis on different subtypes.

### **Differential expression analysis**

Depending on  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$  and  $|\log_2\text{FoldChange(FC)}| > 0.5$ , we obtained differentially expressed genes (DEGs) using the ‘limma’ package (22).

### **Tumor microenvironment (TME) analysis**

The ‘estimate’ package in R was utilized to compute the immune, stromal, and ESTIMATE scores, along with tumor purity for each BRCA sample (23). Using the ssGSEA (24) and CIBERSORT algorithms (25), immune gene sets and the fraction of immune infiltrating cells were calculated for each BRCA sample.

### **Establishing cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature in BRCA**

First, we acquired genes that were significantly associated with OS of BRCA patients by univariate Cox analysis. Subsequently, we calculated the two principal components, PC1 and PC2, for each sample. The PC1 and PC2 values were subjected to multivariate Cox regression analysis to obtain corresponding coefficients; according to the formula,  $\text{Cusig score} = \sum (\text{PC1}_i + \text{PC2}_i)$ , where  $i$  represents the expression of genes, we calculated the Cusig score of each BRCA sample. The surv cutpoint function of the ‘survminer’ package was used to obtain the optimal cutoff value to classify BRCA patients into the high-CuSig score and low-CuSig score

127 groups.


# 128 **Enrichment analysis of pre-defined gene sets based on the prognostic signature**

129 Gene set variation analysis (GSVA) was implemented through the ‘gsva’ package in R (24,26)  
 130 and ‘c2.cp.kegg.v7.2.symbols.gmt’ and ‘h.all.v7.5.1.symbols.gmt’ were the reference gene sets.  
 131 Differential HALLMARK/KEGG entries were then obtained using the ‘limma’ package, and the  
 132 filtering criteria were  $|\log_2FC| > 0.1$  and  $p\text{-value} < 0.05$ . Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)  
 133 was also conducted by setting the GO gene set as the reference. The threshold values for  
 134 significant entries were  $SIZE > 20$  and  $NOM\ p\text{-value} < 0.05$ .

# 135 **Immunotherapy efficacy analysis based on the prognostic signature**

136 The sensitivity of the two Cusig score subgroups to immune checkpoint blockade (ICB) therapy  
 137 was inferred and assessed on the Tumor Immune Dysfunction and Exclusion (TIDE) website  
 138 (27). The calculated TIDE value was used for evaluating the efficacy of immunotherapy.

# 139 **Assessing mRNA expressions of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes in cell lines**

140 The RT-qPCR validation was performed and reported according MIQE guidelines (28). A  
 141 human epithelial cell line from the mammary gland, MCF-10A (normal group), and three breast  
 142 cancer cell lines, HCC1937, MCF-7, and MDA-MB-231 (BRCA group), were acquired from  
 143 iCell Bioscience Inc (Shanghai, China) , of which MCF-10A, MCF7 and MDA-MV-231 cells  
 144 were cultured in  plate, and HCC1937 cells were cultured in three plates. MCF-10A cells  
 145 were cultured in MEGM Kit medium (Lonza/Clonetics, CC-3150). HCC1937 cells were cultured  
 146 in RPMI-1640 medium (iCell-0002) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco)  
 147 and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. MCF-7 cells were cultured in MEM basic medium (iCell-0012)

148 supplemented with 0.01 mg/mL of bovine insulin, 10% FBS, and 1% penicillin/streptomycin.

149 MDA-MB-231 cells were cultured in L15 medium (iCell-0009) supplemented with 10% FBS

150 (Gibco) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. The cells were incubated at 37°C in an atmosphere with

151 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Total RNA from the four cell lines in the logarithmic phase was extracted using the

152 TRIzol Reagent following the manufacturer's instructions (Ambion, USA). Chloroform

153 (Chengdu Guerda rubber industry Co., LTD, Chengdu, China) was used to remove proteins and

154 fat-soluble magazines, ice isopropanol (Chengdu Guerda rubber industry Co., LTD, Chengdu,

155 China) was used to precipitate RNA, and 75% ethanol (Chengdu Colon Chemical Co., LTD,

156 Chengdu, China) was used to further remove impurities. Subsequently, 20-50 µL of RNase-free

157 water (Servicebio, Guangzhou, China) was added to the obtained RNA precipitate to solubilize

158 the RNA and the RNA concentration was detected with NanoPhotometer N50. Next, total RNA

159 was reverse transcribed into cDNA using the SweScript-First-strand-cDNA-synthesis-kit

160 (Servicebio, Guangzhou, China) and the reaction system was made up of 4 µL of 5xReaction

161 Buffer, 1µL of primer, 1µL of SweScript RT I Enzyme Mix, 0.1ng-5µg of total RNA, and

162 nuclease-free water replenished to 20 µL. Afterthat, the qPCR was performed using the

163 2xUniversal Blue SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix following the manufacturer's direction

164 (Servicebio, Guangzhou, China) with the reaction system of 3 µL cDNA, 5 µL 2xUniversal Blue

165 SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix and 1 µL each upstream and downstream primers. Finally, the

166 reactions were performed on a CFX96 real-time quantitative fluorescence PCR instrument. The

167 amplification reactions were programmed with pre-denaturation at 95 °C for 1 min, followed by

168 40 cycles, each cycle consisting of 95 °C for 20 s, 55 °C for 20 s, and 72 °C for 30 s. The relative

expression of genes was calculated by the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  method using GADPH as the internal reference gene. P-value was calculated by Graphpad Prism 5, and p less than 0.05 was considered to have statistical difference. The sequences of the primers used in this study are presented in **Table 1**, and the concentration of primer was 10  $\mu$ M. The amplicon size was 80-350 bp.

## Statistical analysis

Kaplan-Meier (KM) curves were generated using the ‘survminer’ package (prognostic model survival analysis) and the ‘survival’ package. The somatic mutation analysis and visualization were using the ‘maftools’ package in R. All bioinformatics analyses were undertaken in R language. The Wilcoxon test (comparison between two groups), Kruskal-Wallis test (comparison between three or more groups), and chi-square test (correlation analysis between cuproptosis-relevant subtypes and clinical factors) were employed to compare the data from different groups. Unless specified, a p-value  $< 0.05$  was considered statistically significant.

## Results

### Expression of ten cuproptosis-relevant genes in BRCA

First, we conducted the functional enrichment analysis of 10 cuproptosis genes (FDX1, LIAS, LIPT1, DLD, DLAT, PDHA1, PDHB, MTF1, GLS, and CDKN2A) using the DAVID web tool. As shown in **Figs.1A-B**, 11 GO entries (5 BP, 4 CC, and 2 MF) and 8 KEGG pathways were enriched. These genes were involved in ‘acetyl-CoA biosynthetic process from pyruvate’, ‘mitochondrial acetyl-CoA biosynthetic process from pyruvate’, ‘tricarboxylic acid cycle’, ‘glucose metabolic process’, ‘protein lipoylation’, ‘pyruvate metabolism’,

190 ‘glycolysis/gluconeogenesis’, ‘carbon metabolism’, ‘metabolic pathways’, ‘central carbon  
191 metabolism in cancer’, ‘lipoic acid metabolism’ and ‘biosynthesis of cofactors’. The locations of  
192 these 10 cuproptosis genes on the chromosomes are exhibited in the circle diagram  
193 (**Supplementary Figure 1**). Somatic mutation analysis of 986 samples with somatic mutation  
194 information from TCGA-BRCA cohort revealed a very low mutation rate of the 10 cuproptosis  
195 genes in BRCA (**Fig.1C**). Further analysis of transcriptomic data from TCGA-BRCA cohort  
196 revealed that the expressions of CDKN2A and PDHB were significantly elevated, and those of  
197 DLAT, DLD, FDX1, GLS, LIAS, LIPT1, MTF1, and PDHA1 was significantly lowered in  
198 BRCA samples compared to normal samples (**Fig.1D**).

### 199 Identification of cuproptosis-associated subtypes of BRCA

200 Consensus clustering was implemented to identify BRCA-related subtypes, and 1091 BRCA  
201 patients in TCGA-BRCA cohort were categorized into cuproptosis-associated subtypes based on  
202 the expression of 10 cuproptosis genes. Optimal clustering stability was confirmed at  $K = 3$   
203 (**Supplementary Figure 2A-C**). Clusters 1, 2, and 3 included 473, 296, and 322 samples,  
204 respectively. UMAP reduced dimensional analysis demonstrated that the samples of cluster 1  
205 and cluster 2 were distributed separately and could be well distinguished (**Fig.2A**). Survival  
206 analysis revealed significantly higher OS for patients in cluster 1 than in cluster 2 ( $P = 0.03688$ )  
207 (**Fig.2B**). By chi-square tests, we examined the correlation between three cuproptosis-associated  
208 subtypes and clinical factors. The results showed that the three subtypes were significantly  
209 associated with age, race, and N stage but not with T stage, M stage, and stage (**Figs.2C-H**). To  
210 further explore the discrepancies in the TMEs of the three cuproptosis-associated subtypes, we

first calculated and compared the immune scores, stromal scores, estimate scores, and tumor purity across the three subtypes. As shown in **Figs.3A-D**, the stromal scores of all three subtypes were significantly different. The immune score, stromal score, and estimate score of cluster 1 and cluster 2 were significantly higher than those of cluster 3, and the tumor purity of cluster 1 and cluster 2 was significantly lower than that of cluster 3. Using the ssGSEA algorithm and Kruskal-Wallis test, we calculated and compared 28 immune gene sets across the three subtypes to further assess their differential immune activities. As shown in **Figs.3E-F**, all 28 immune gene sets differed significantly among the three subtypes. To further compare the differences in fractions of immune cell infiltrates among the three subtypes, we employed the CIBERSORT algorithm and performed the Kruskal-Wallis test. The infiltration levels of a total of 14 immune cell types differed significantly among the three subtypes, including naïve B cells, memory B cells, activated dendritic cells, macrophages M1, macrophages M2, resting mast cells, neutrophils, activated NK cells, resting NK cells, resting CD4 memory T cells, activated CD4 memory T cells, CD8 T cells, follicular helper T cells, and regulatory T cells (Tregs) (**Fig.3G**).

### **Cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA**

To authenticate the cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA, we first identified the DEGs between BRCA and normal samples, between cluster 1 and cluster 2, between cluster 2 and cluster 3, and between cluster 1 and cluster 3. A total of 4878 DEGs (2441 up-regulated and 2437 down-regulated genes) between BRCA and normal samples, 581 DEGs (270 up-regulated and 311 down-regulated genes) between cluster 1 and cluster 2, 705 DEGs (433 up-regulated and 272 down-regulated genes) between cluster 2 and cluster 3, and 1221 DEGs (598 up-regulated



and 623 down-regulated genes) between cluster 1 and cluster 3 were identified. By taking the intersection of the above four groups of DEGs using a Venn diagram, 38 common genes were defined as cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA (**Fig.4A, Supplementary Table 1**). The results of Pearson correlation analysis between the 38 intersecting genes and 10 cuproptosis genes are shown in Figure 4B. To further probe the function of these 38 genes in BRCA, a functional enrichment analysis was conducted. As shown in **Supplementary Table 2**, 18 GO terms (13 BP, 2 CC, and 3 MF) and 1 KEGG pathway were significantly enriched. The top10 items under each classification are shown in a bar diagram (**Fig.4C**). The abovementioned genes were mainly linked to ‘response to iron ion’, ‘response to estradiol’, ‘response to estrogen’, ‘response to xenobiotic stimulus’, ‘neutrophil chemotaxis’, ‘response to drug’, ‘hormone metabolic process’, ‘mammary gland alveolus development’, and ‘estrogen signaling pathway’. We categorized the 1091 BRCA patients in TCGA-BRCA cohort into five subtypes based on the expression of 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA and consensus clustering (**Supplementary Figure 3A-C**). **Clusters 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5** consisted of 225, 178, 210, 320, and 158 samples, respectively. The distribution of clinical features of the five subtypes and the expression of 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs are shown as a heatmap (**Fig.4D**). Survival analysis revealed no significant survival discrepancies among the five subtypes (Chisq = 6, df = 4, p = 0.2) (**Fig.4E**).

### Cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature for BRCA

To establish a cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature, we first identified six genes significantly associated with OS in BRCA patients among the 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs in

BRCA using univariate Cox analysis, namely SAA1, KRT17, VAV3, IGHG1, TFF1, and CLEC3A (**Fig.5A**). Next, we performed a principal component analysis for the above six genes and calculated the PC1 and PC2 values for each BRCA sample (**Supplementary Table 3**). The coefficients of PC1 and PC2 values were obtained by multivariate Cox regression analysis. According to the formula, Cusig score =  $0.087984 \times \text{PC1 value} + 0.226539 \times \text{PC2 value}$ , we calculated the Cusig score for each BRCA sample and subsequently categorized the BRCA patients into the high-Cusig score group (552 cases) and low-CuSig score group (517 cases) according to the optimal cut-off value (0.9889137). The KM curve suggested that the survival of the patients in the high-Cusig score group was significantly worse than that of the low-Cusig score group (**Fig.5B**). The Sankey diagram exhibited the correlation between the different subtypes and high- and low-Cusig scores (**Fig.5C**). The Cusig scores were also significantly different between the five BRCA subtypes based on 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA (**Fig.5D**). Cluster 2, which had a better prognosis, had a lower Cusig score, compared to the other clusters (**Figs.4E, 5D**). We further validated the Cusig score model in external datasets, GSE42568 and GSE20711, and similarly, the high-Cusig score group showed a significantly worse prognosis than the low-Cusig score group, consistent with the results of TCGA-BRCA cohort (**Figs.5E-F**).

## Uncovering the molecular mechanisms of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature underlying BRCA

In order to uncover potential mechanisms underlying the differential prognoses between the two Cusig score subgroups, GSVA was conducted to analyze the enrichment differences in the terms

of KEGG and hallmark pathways between different Cusig score groups. As shown in **Supplementary Table 4** and **Figs.6A-B**, 22 hallmark pathways and 73 KEGG pathways were enriched. ‘E2F targets’, ‘G2M checkpoint’, ‘protein secretion’, ‘unfolded protein response’, ‘MTORC1 signaling’, ‘MYC targets V1’, and ‘DNA repair’ were enriched in the high-Cusig score group (**Fig.6A**). ‘Citrate cycle’, ‘TCA cycle’, ‘RNA degradation’, ‘cell cycle’ and ‘DNA replication’ were also enriched in the high-Cusig score group (**Fig.6B**). Immune-related hallmark pathways, like ‘IL2-STAT5 signaling’, ‘inflammatory response’, ‘IL6-JAK-STAT3 signaling’, ‘TNFA signaling via NFKB’, and KEGG pathways, including ‘chemokine signaling pathway’, ‘NOD-like receptor signaling pathway’, ‘TGF- $\beta$  signaling pathway’, ‘complement and coagulation cascades’, ‘natural killer cell-mediated cytotoxicity’, ‘cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction’, and ‘B cell receptor signaling pathway’ were enriched in low-Cusig score group (**Figs.6A-B**). Next, we screened DEGs of the Cusig score subgroups and conducted GO functional enrichment analysis. As shown in **Supplementary Table 5**, 1289 GO entries (1152 BP, 67 CC, and 70 MF) were derived based on 590 DEGs between the high- and low-Cusig score groups. The top 10 GO-BP terms are shown in **Fig.6C**. Immune-related and cell adhesion-related BPs were associated with these DEGs. The results of GSEA indicated that 484 and 1686 GO entries ( $NES > 0$  and  $NES < 0$ , respectively) were enriched in the high-Cusig and low-Cusig score groups, respectively (**Supplementary Table 6**). The top 5 enriched entries of the two Cusig score subgroups are shown in **Fig.6D**. Notably, mitosis-related and DNA replication-related BPs were closely associated with the high-Cusig score group, and multiple immune-related BPs were closely associated with the low-Cusig score group.

# **Association of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature with TME**

Since immune-related pathways and BPs were found to be associated with the low-Cusig score group, we next analyzed the relationship between the Cusig score and TME and immune cell infiltration. The ESTIMATE algorithm demonstrated that patients with low Cusig scores had higher immune scores, stromal scores, estimate scores, and lower tumor purity (**Figs.7A-D**). The results of the CIBERSORT algorithm showed that the fractions of naïve B cells, plasma cells, CD8 T cells, monocytes, resting dendritic cells, eosinophils, and neutrophils were elevated in the patients with lower Cusig scores, while the fractions of macrophages M0 and macrophages M2 were high in the patients with high Cusig scores (**Fig.7E**). Moreover, PD-L1 expression and immunophenoscore (IPS) of the low-Cusig score group were higher than those of the high-Cusig score group (**Figs.7F-G**). However, the results of the TIDE analysis showed that the high-Cusig score group had a lower TIDE score than the low-Cusig score group and these patients may be more sensitive to ICB therapy (**Fig.7H**).

# **The mutational landscape of high- and low-Cusig score samples**

To further assess the mutation frequency of genes in high- and low-Cusig score samples, we performed somatic mutation analysis. The most frequently mutated genes in the high-Cusig score and low-Cusig score samples were TP53 and PIK3CA, respectively (**Figs.8A-B**). The top 20 mutated genes were not identical between the two Cusig score subgroups, indicating different somatic mutation patterns (**Fig.8A-B**). We then analyzed the copy number variation (CNV) in genes of the two Cusig score subgroups and found that the CNV of genes in the low-Cusig score samples was significantly higher than that in the high-Cusig score samples (**Fig.8C**).


# Expression of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes in BRCA

As shown in **Supplementary Figure 4**, CLEC3A, IGHG1, TFF1, and VAV3 were up-regulated, while KRT17 and SAA1 were down-regulated in BRCA tissues compared to normal tissues in TCGA-BRCA cohort. We then checked the expression of prognostic genes at the mRNA level in the human epithelial cell line from the mammary gland, MCF-10A, and three breast cancer cell lines HCC1937, MCF7, and MDA-MB-231. Consistent with the trend of results from public databases, levels of CLEC3A and IGHG1 were up-regulated, while those of KRT17 and SAA1 were down-regulated in breast cancer cell lines (**Fig.9**). The amplification and dissolution curves of prognostic genes were displayed in **Supplementary Table 7**. However, inconsistent with the results from the tissue samples, TFF1 and VAV3 were down-regulated in breast cancer cell lines (**Fig.9, Supplementary Table 7**). The amplification and dissolution curves of prognostic genes were displayed in **Supplementary Table 8**. However, inconsistent with the results from the tissue samples, TFF1 and VAV3 were down-regulated in breast cancer cell lines (**Fig.9**), probably due to the complexity of the tumor tissue.

## Discussion

Much progress has been made in research on BRCA but it remains one of the most common cancers seriously affecting women's health. The incidence and mortality of BRCA will continue to increase in the coming years (29). Cuproptosis gained traction as a novel form of cell death, and the dysregulation of copper, an indispensable trace element in human homeostasis, may trigger cytotoxicity (30). Copper levels are significantly elevated in cancer patients compared to normal controls, and altered copper levels in cells can influence the development of cancer

(31,32). In this context, we investigated the prognostic value of cuproptosis-related genes in BRCA as this is expected to facilitate the improvement of BRCA diagnosis and treatment.

In this study, we first performed a functional enrichment analysis of 10 cuproptosis genes in BRCA. We found that most of these genes were involved in BPs ‘acetyl-CoA biosynthetic process from pyruvate’, ‘mitochondrial acetyl-CoA biosynthetic process from pyruvate’, and ‘tricarboxylic acid cycle’, which are all closely linked to the development of BRCA (33). Among the 10 cuproptosis genes, the expressions of CDKN2A and PDHB were dramatically increased in BRCA samples compared to normal samples but those of the other genes decreased significantly. The role of CDKN2A across tumor types appears to differ. CDKN2A regulates transcriptional elongation to promote the progression of non-small cell lung cancer (34). CDKN2A promotes proliferation and invasion in glioblastoma (35). CDKN2A is highly expressed in precancerous lesions of the stomach while poorly expressed in gastric cancer (36). In BRCA, CDKN2A is defined as a tumor suppressor gene, and our review of the literature suggests that this gene has a low mutation rate in BRCA but a single mutation may significantly impact protein function (37). A recent study showed similar results; interestingly, CDKN2A was overexpressed in BRCA (38), however, its exact mechanism of action remains unknown. The trend of expression of this gene in BRCA is consistent with our findings.  PDHB has been poorly studied in BRCA, and we can only speculate on its functional role in BRCA based on its role in other cancers. Previously, on the one hand, PDHB activity in pancreatic cancer cells was enhanced and accelerated the growth of tumor cells (39). In retinoblastoma, overexpression of PDHB enhances tumor cell angiogenesis and the inflammatory response, thereby promoting tumor development (40). On the

other hand, PDHB overexpression induces endoplasmic reticulum stress, which in turn inhibits the proliferation and invasion of colorectal cancer cells, and in lung and gastric cancers (40,41). We speculate that the expressional profile of PDHB at the transcriptional and protein levels may be different across cancer types. In the present study, PDHB expression was high in BRCA samples, and we speculate that it may function as an oncogene in breast cancer but the exact mechanism of action needs further investigation. DLD is lowly expressed in a variety of human cancer cells and is strongly associated with poor survival outcomes (42). FDX1 plays an important role in protein esterification, and its low expression is associated with poor prognosis in hepatocellular carcinoma (43). The specific mechanism of FDX1 action in BRCA needs to be explored further. GLS catabolizes glutamine to glutamate, which is detrimental because glutamine is rapidly absorbed and promotes the tumor growth of malignant tumors (44). Interestingly, GLS expression is typically high in breast tumor tissues and is linked to a poor prognosis (45). LIAS is primarily involved in the production of enzymes for mitochondria-related metabolism, and high expression of LIAS promotes immune cell infiltration and is linked to improved survival in BRCA (46,47). Although LIPT1 has a major role in TCA-related metabolism (48), its exact mode of action in BRCA is unknown. According to recent research, LIPT1 prevents cell migration in bladder cancer (49). In melanoma, it may prevent tumor growth by interfering with the mitochondrial TCA and causing copper dystrophy (50). Combined with our findings, this supports the possibility that LIPT1 may operate as a protective factor in breast cancer. MTF1 is a metal-regulated transcription factor that normally binds to zinc to activate its DNA-binding region to bind designated target genes (51). Down-regulation of the upstream gene,

MTF1 in BRCA may reduce the activity of downstream genes, resulting in decreased cellular activity (52). PDHA1 is involved in the regulation of glucose metabolic reprogramming in BRCA cells and low expression of PDHA1 is detrimental to the prognosis of these patients (53,54).

Next, we divided the patients into three subgroups based on the expression of the 10 cuproptosis genes in BRCA. These three subgroups showed significant differences in their TMEs, with cluster 1 showing the highest levels of immune cell infiltration and cluster 3 showing the opposite pattern. The role of TME and immune cell infiltration in the development of cancer is well established (55). Significant immune cell infiltration occurs early in the development of the tumor or before invasion occurs (56,57). In the late stage, low levels of immune cell infiltration in TME often lead to a poorer prognosis (58), and this holds true in BRCA (59). In our study, OS was significantly higher in cluster 1 than in cluster 3, suggesting a possible correlation between immune cell infiltration and tumor stage in BRCA. Furthermore, the analysis of the level of immune cell infiltration in the three subtypes showed that cluster 1 had significant infiltration of memory B cells, CD8 T cells, follicular helper T cells, and activated NK cells. Cluster 3 showed significant infiltration of immune cells such as resting mast cells, plasma cells, and macrophages M2. Previous studies supported our finding that immune infiltrating cells in cluster 1 were associated with a better survival prognosis in breast cancer, while the latter occurred more often in advanced BRCA cases (60-62). Through the functional enrichment analysis of cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA, 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs were found to be mainly associated with 'response to iron ion', 'response to estradiol', 'response to estrogen', 'response to



xenobiotic stimulus', 'neutrophil chemotaxis', 'response to drug', 'hormone metabolic process', 'mammary gland alveolus development', and 'estrogen signaling pathway'. A few studies have shown that these BPs are involved in the development of BRCA (63-69).

Subsequently, we established a cuproptosis-associated prognostic signature based on cuproptosis-associated DEGs linked to the prognosis of BRCA (SAA1, KRT17, VAV3, IGHG1, TFF1, and CLEC3A). In BRCA, SAA1 knockdown induces cellular stress and fails to activate the relevant molecular mechanisms involved in DNA as well as underlying BPs, which may be more favorable for cancer cell survival (70). SAA1 overexpression in BRCA may be associated with longer disease-free survival (71). KRT17 can promote carcinogenesis in several cancers (72-74). The expression of KRT17 affects the phenotype of TNBC and can regulate tumor differentiation through specific regulatory axes (75). In addition, KRT17 is a member of the skeleton protein family, and when it is highly expressed, it can increase cell adhesion, thus making the cell structure more stable and less prone to migration (76). The expression of KRT17 is higher in primary melanoma than in metastatic melanoma (77). Therefore, patients with high KRT17 expression may have a better prognosis. VAV3 is an oncogenic gene that is overexpressed in human BRCA and can promote its development by activating specific signaling pathways and related genes. Silencing VAV3 impairs the growth of estrogen-stimulated and non-dependent BRCA cells (78,79). Although BRCA samples have a high level of IGHG1 expression (80), its precise mode of action is unknown. In other cancers, IGHG1 is linked to immunoglobulins made by the cancer cells and plays a key role in helping cancer cells grow and divide (81,82). TFF1 is an estrogen-regulatory gene because of the typical estrogen response

element in its promoter (83). However, there is controversy regarding its mechanism of action in BRCA. TFF1 is an informative marker of metastatic BRCA and its overexpression is associated with poor prognosis (84). However, another study showed that high TFF1 levels were associated with better clinical outcomes, especially in early BRCA (85). Similarly, TFF1 not only has pro-tumor properties but also exerts anti-tumor effects (86). Further studies are needed to assess its role in tumor biology. CLEC3A is a risk gene among the cuproptosis-related prognostic genes screened. Previous studies support our finding that CLEC3A is mainly involved in cellular invasion and metastatic spread of BRCA. Silencing CLEC3A downregulates the activity of cell survival factors and P13K/AKT, which reduces the proliferation, migration, and invasion of BRCA cells (87,88). In conclusion, the genes screened herein may become new potential therapeutic targets for BRCA.

Next, we created a Cusig score model by Cox regression analysis based on six cuproptosis-associated prognostic genes, and as expected, the low Cusig score group was always associated with a better prognosis as well as a higher survival rate, while the high Cusig score group showed the opposite trend. To assess the causes more precisely, we performed GSVA and GSEA to determine the potential underlying molecular mechanisms. Several immune-related BPs were enriched in the low Cusig score group, while the high Cusig score group was significantly enriched in pathways unrelated to the immune pathway. Previous cancer-related studies have shown that KRAS signaling is associated with the progression of several cancers, such as non-small cell lung cancer and pancreatic cancer (89,90). Our study showed that high KRAS signaling was enriched in the low Cusig score group, which is consistent with previous results

442 showing that BRCA samples with high KRAS signaling tend to have higher infiltration of  
 443 immune cells such as CD8 cells and B cells; in other words, BRCA with high KRAS signaling  
 444 has a good tumor immune microenvironment and is associated with a better prognosis (91).  
 445 Angiogenesis is involved in the proliferation and metastasis of breast cancer and has even been  
 446 defined as a promising therapeutic target (92,93). In our study, angiogenesis was significantly  
 447 upregulated in the low Cusig score group, which seems contrary intuitively. We propose the  
 448 following hypothesis: most of the blood vessels on which more advanced BRCA cells depend for  
 449 growth are actually formed at an early stage and advanced BRCA cells do not require the  
 450 excessive formation of neovascularization for oxygen supply because the tumor cells themselves  
 451 have a low rate of oxygen consumption (94). This hypothesis has been reflected in previous  
 452 studies showing that tumors in advanced stages show less angiogenesis compared to early-stage  
 453 BRCA and that the dependence of tumor growth on neovascularization may be limited to early  
 454 stages (95). Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) showed a trend toward upregulation in  
 455 the low Cusig score group. EMT has been widely recognized as a critical driver of BRCA  
 456 (96,97). Notably, this pathway is localized at the level of primary tumor invasion, and as it  
 457 establishes secondary tumors at a distant site, it rapidly performs the reverse mesenchymal-  
 458 epithelial transition (MET) to rid itself of its mesenchymal attributes (98). This may explain our  
 459 results. A review of previous studies revealed that in breast cancer, the G2M checkpoint pathway  
 460 is significantly associated with tumor cell proliferation, similar to MYC targets v1 and E2F  
 461 targets and that tumors with high enrichment of the G2M checkpoint are more aggressive (99);  
 462 other studies have shown that the G2M checkpoint may be a promising therapeutic target for

improving the prognosis of BRCA patients (100). In conclusion, the above results are consistent with our findings.

Finally, we analyzed the association between TME and the high and low Cusig score groups in BRCA. B-cell subpopulations (including naïve B cells) were significantly increased in non-metastatic BRCA and tumor metastasis may alter the function and phenotype of some of the B-cell subpopulations, leading to their reduced proportions in advanced BRCA (101). Furthermore, the role of eosinophils in tumors has been demonstrated, and there is an association between higher eosinophil counts and a better prognosis (102). Indeed, the mechanism underlying its role in BRCA remains unclear but in terms of expressional trends, this is consistent with our study. Similarly, macrophages M0 and macrophages M2 are strongly associated with poor prognosis in BRCA and may functionally mediate chemoresistance in BRCA (103). Immune checkpoint inhibitors are a research hotspot. In BRCA, PD-L1 overexpression can inhibit the tumor-killing effect of the autoimmune system. Clinically, drugs targeting the PD-1/PD-L1 axis have also been used initially (104,105). In our study, PD-L1 expression was higher in the low Cusig score group, which may be because the low Cusig score group possesses more immune-related mechanisms.

Previous studies have also created models that show good predictions (106) but we have further validated our results using qPCR experiments, which demonstrates the reliability of our findings. Additionally, as our analysis in this study was mostly bioinformatics-based, care should be taken when interpreting the findings. We could only provide relationships in which functional pathways play a role in TME processes and influence the prognosis of BRCA patients but we

have very limited evidence for a specific potential causal relationship, and this is the focus of our future work.

## **Conclusion**

In summary, herein, we constructed a signature for projecting the overall survival of BRCA patients and our findings authenticated the cuproptosis-relevant prognostic genes, which are expected to provide a basis for developing prognostic molecular biomarkers and an in-depth understanding of the relationship between cuproptosis and BRCA.

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## **Authors' contributions**

Huaying Dong, Xionghui He, and Zhijun Dai designed this work. Xiang Chen, Hening Sun, and Changcheng Yang integrated and analyzed the data. Xiang Chen wrote this manuscript. Wei Wang, Wenzhi Lyu, Kejian Zou, and Fan Zhang edited and revised the manuscript. All authors approved this manuscript.

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## **Availability of data and materials**

All data used in this work can be acquired from the Gene-Expression Omnibus (GEO, GSE42568, GSE20711; <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>) and the GDC portal (<https://>

portal.gdc.cancer.gov/).

# **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

Not applicable.

# **Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

# **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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# Figure legends

**FIGURE 1 | The expression of ten cuproptosis genes in BRCA. (A-B)** The GO and KEGG functional enrichment analysis of 10 cuproptosis genes. **(C)** Somatic mutational analysis of 10 cuproptosis genes in BRCA samples. **(D)** The expression trends of 10 cuproptosis genes in BRCA. \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$ .

**FIGURE 2 | Recognition of cuproptosis-associated subtypes of BRCA. (A)** UMAP reduced dimensional analysis for three cuproptosis-related subtypes. **(B)** Kaplan-Meier curves of three cuproptosis-related subtypes. **(C-H)** Correlation analysis of three cuproptosis-related subtypes with clinical factors.

**FIGURE 3 | TME analysis of cuproptosis-associated subtypes of BRCA. (A-D)** Immune score, stromal score, ESTIMATE score, and tumor purity differences in three cuproptosis-related subtypes. **(E-F)** The fraction of 28 immune gene sets for three cuproptosis-associated subtypes. **(G)** Differential infiltration levels of 22 immune cell types in three cuproptosis-associated subtypes. ns: not significant, \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$ .

**FIGURE 4 | The cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA.** (A) The Venn diagram to gain the cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA. (B) Heatmap of the correlations between 38 intersecting genes and 10 cuproptosis-related genes. \*\* represents  $P < 0.01$ . (C) The results of functional enrichment analysis of 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs in BRCA. (D) Distribution of clinical characteristics of five clustered subtypes and expression of 38 DEGs associated with cuproptosis. (E) Survival analysis among the five subtypes.

**FIGURE 5 | The cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature in BRCA.** (A) The forest plot of 6 cuproptosis-associated genes significantly linked to OS in BRCA. (B) Survival rate comparison between high- and low-Cusig score groups. (C) The correlation between different subtypes and high- and low-Cusig scores. (D) Differences in Cusig scores between the five BRCA subtypes based on 38 cuproptosis-associated DEGs. (E) Prognostic validation of high- and low-Cusig score groups in GSE42568 dataset. (F) Prognostic validation of high- and low-Cusig score groups in GSE20711 dataset.

**FIGURE 6 | The functional enrichment analysis between high- and low-Cusig score samples.** (A-B) The GSVA analysis of high- and low-Cusig score groups based on Hallmark and KEGG gene sets. (C) The top 10 GO- BP entries enriched by DEGs between high- and low-Cusig score groups. (D) The top 5 enriched entries in the high- and low-Cusig score group.

**FIGURE 7 | Association of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature with TME. (A-D)**

Trends in immune score, stromal score, estimated score and tumour purity for high- and low-Cusig score groups. **(E)** The fraction of different immune cell infiltrations in high- and low-Cusig score groups. **(F-G)** The comparison of PD-L1 and immunophenotype scores in high- and low-Cusig score groups. **(H)** The TIDE value of high and low Cusig score groups.

**FIGURE 8 | The mutation landscape analysis. (A)** The somatic mutations in high-Cusig score samples. **(B)** The somatic mutations in low-Cusig score samples. **(C)** The analysis of copy number variation in groups with high- and low-Cusig scores.

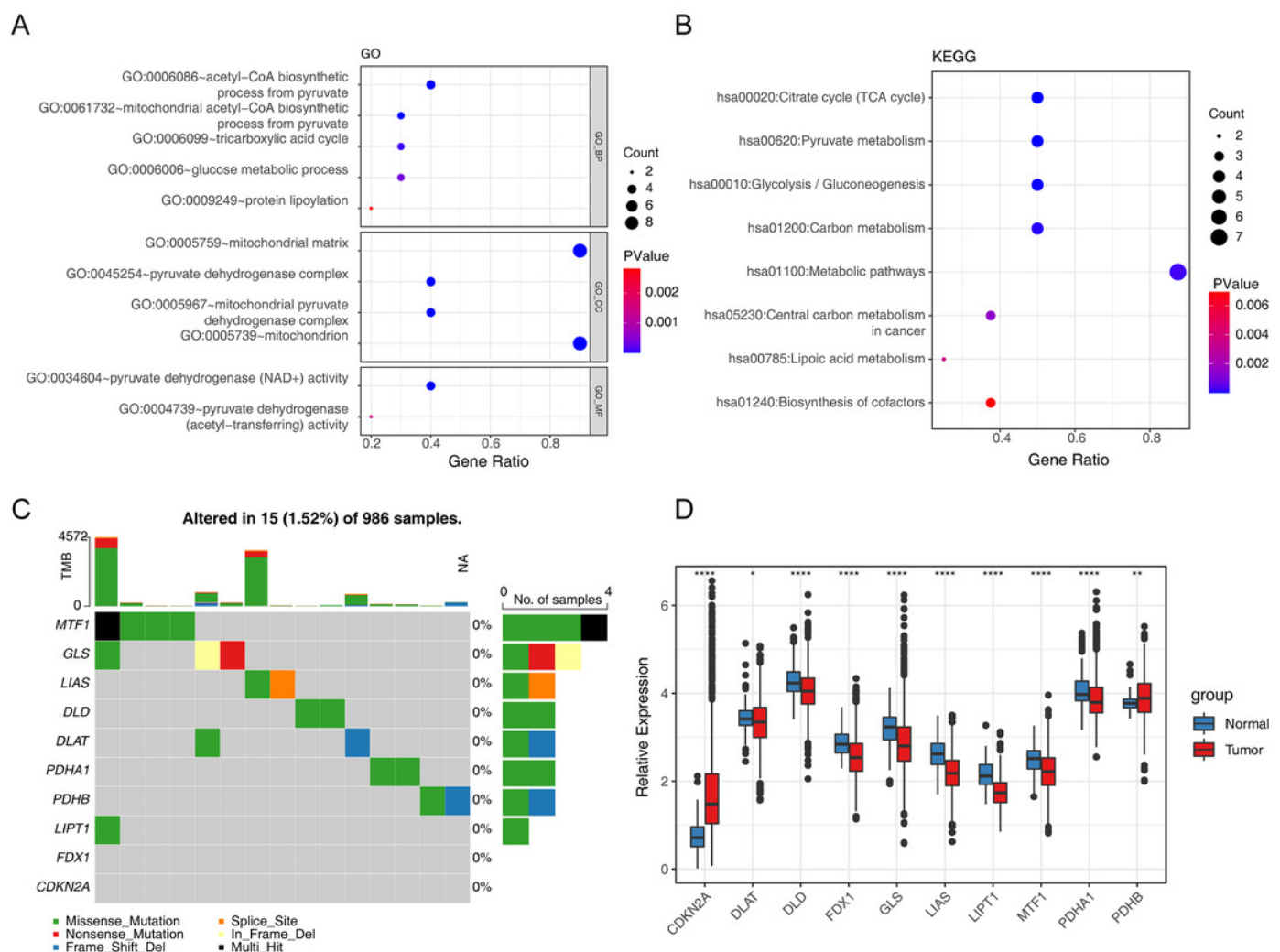
**FIGURE 9 | The expression of prognostic genes in cell lines detected by RT-qPCR. (A)**

CLEC3A **(B)** KRT17 **(C)** SAA1 **(D)** TFF1 **(E)** IGHG1 **(F)** VAV3 \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$ .

# Figure 1

The expression of ten cuproptosis genes in BRCA.

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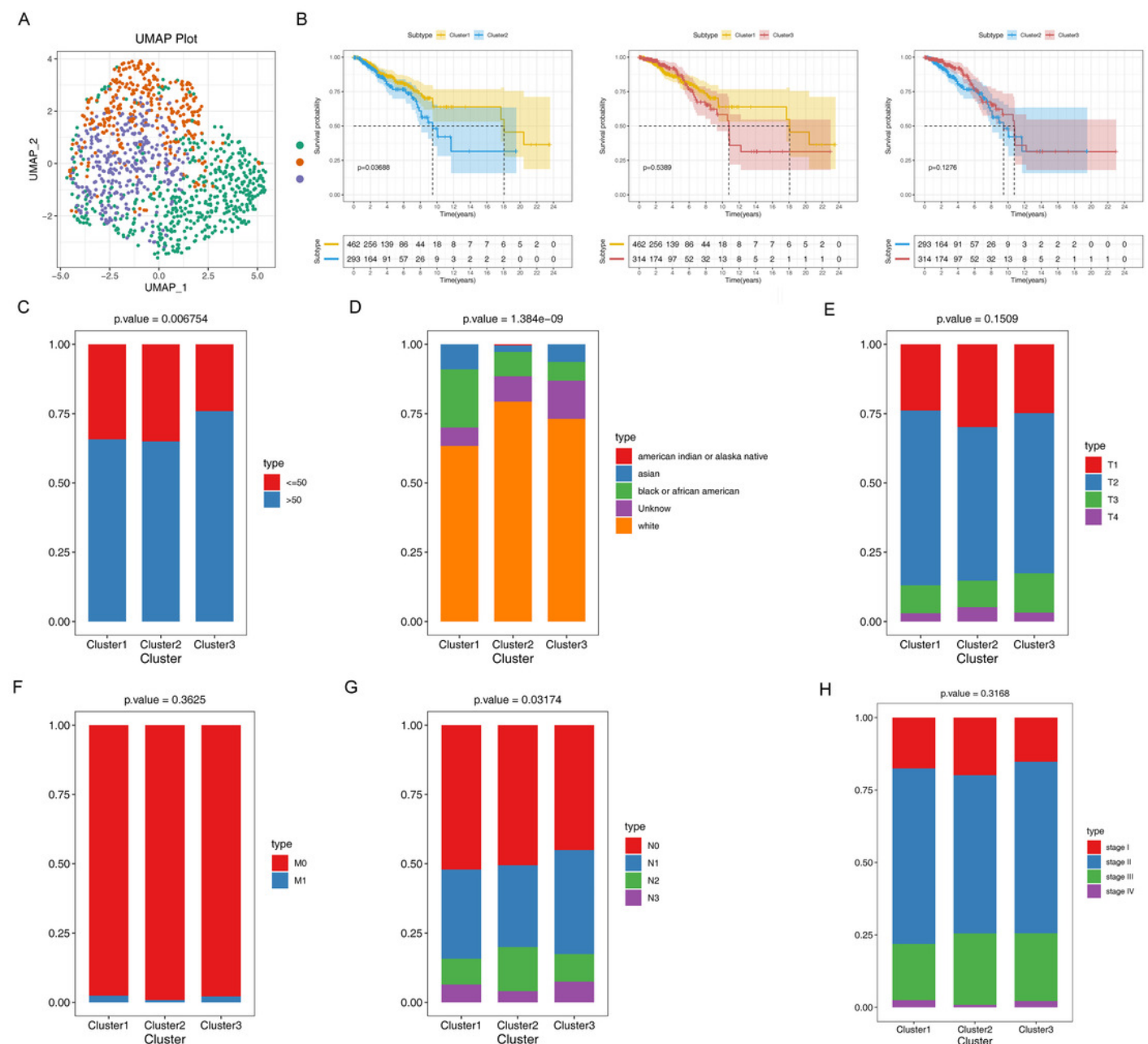




# Figure 2

Recognition of cuproptosis-associated subtypes of BRCA.

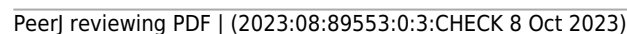
**(A)** UMAP reduced dimensional analysis for three cuproptosis-related subtypes. **(B)** Kaplan-Meier curves of three cuproptosis-related subtypes. **(C-H)** Correlation analysis of three cuproptosis-related subtypes with clinical factors.



# Figure 3

TME analysis of cuproptosis-associated subtypes of BRCA.

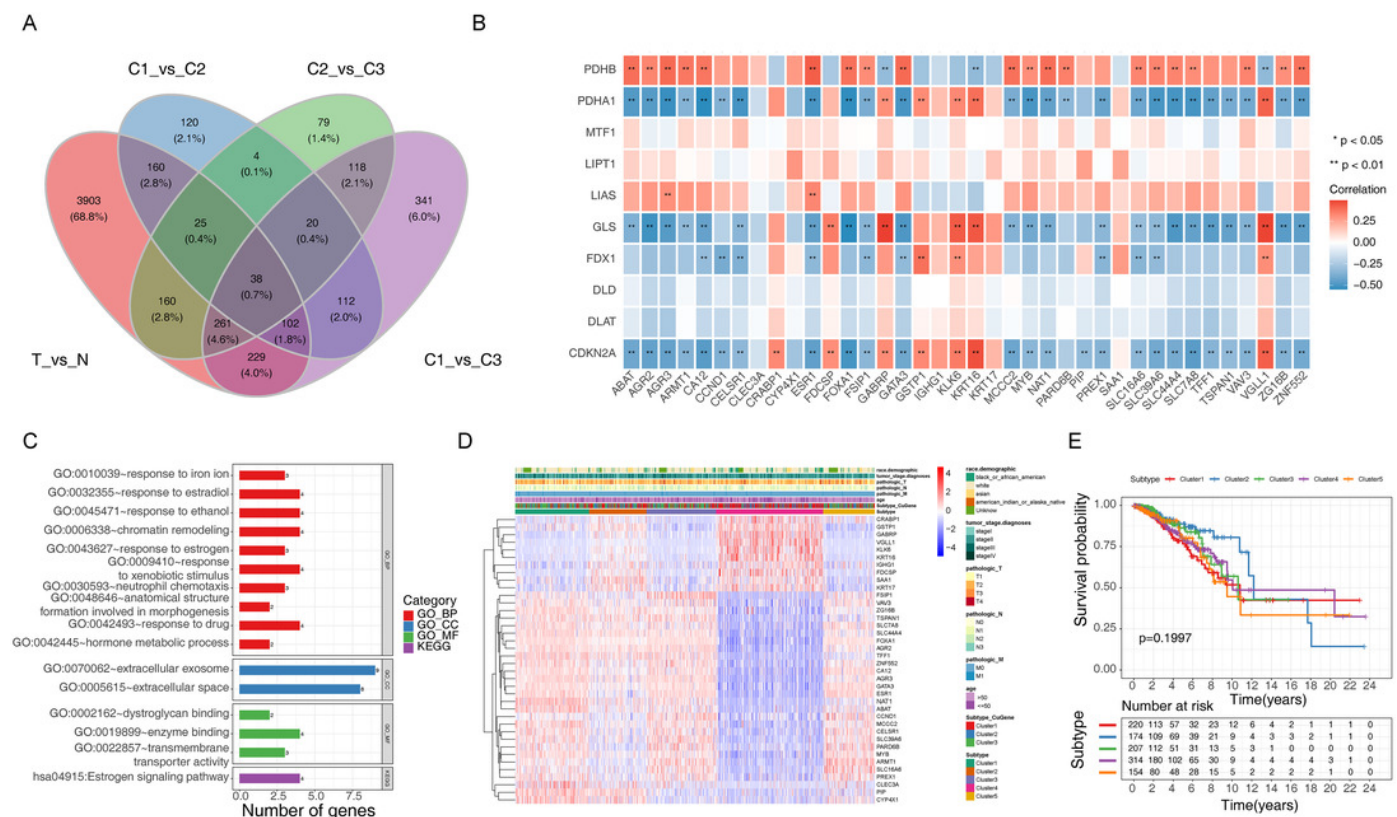
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# Figure 5

The cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature in BRCA.

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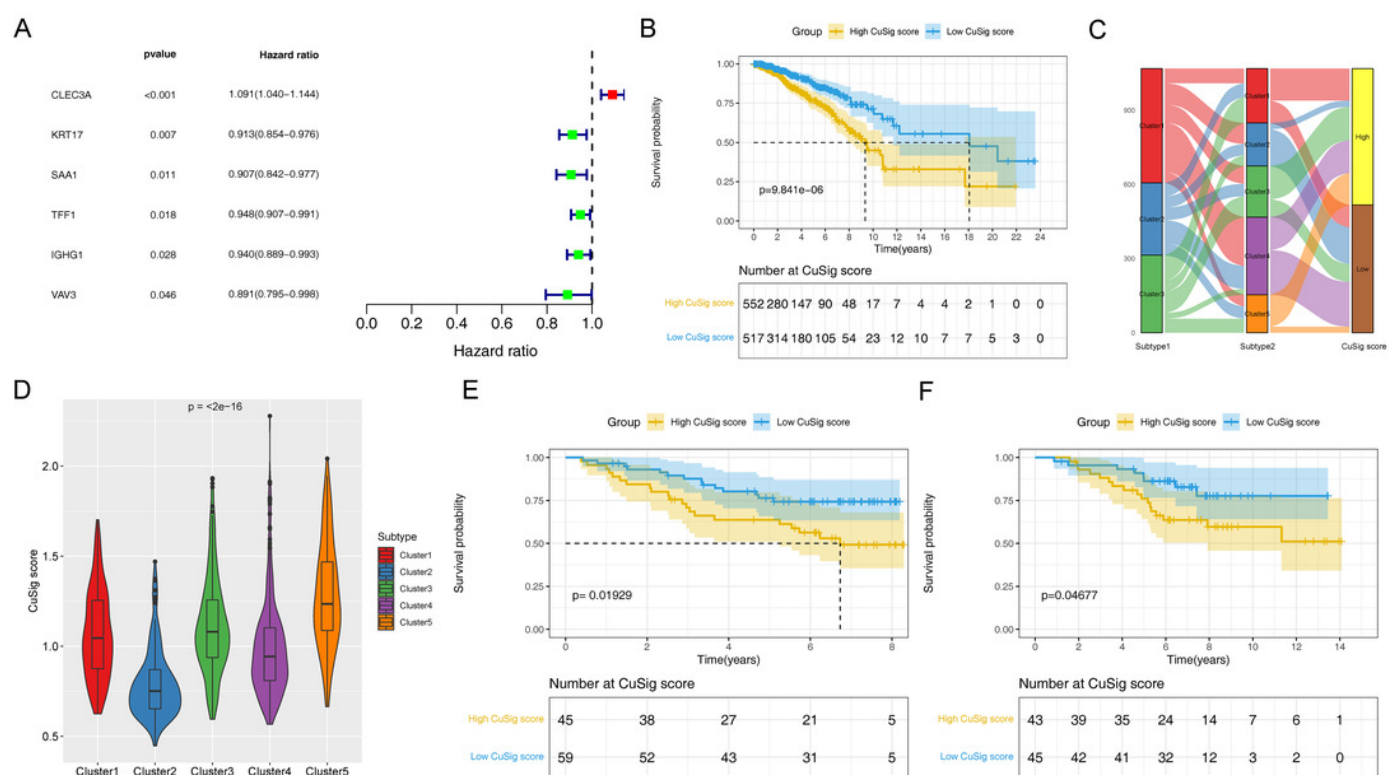
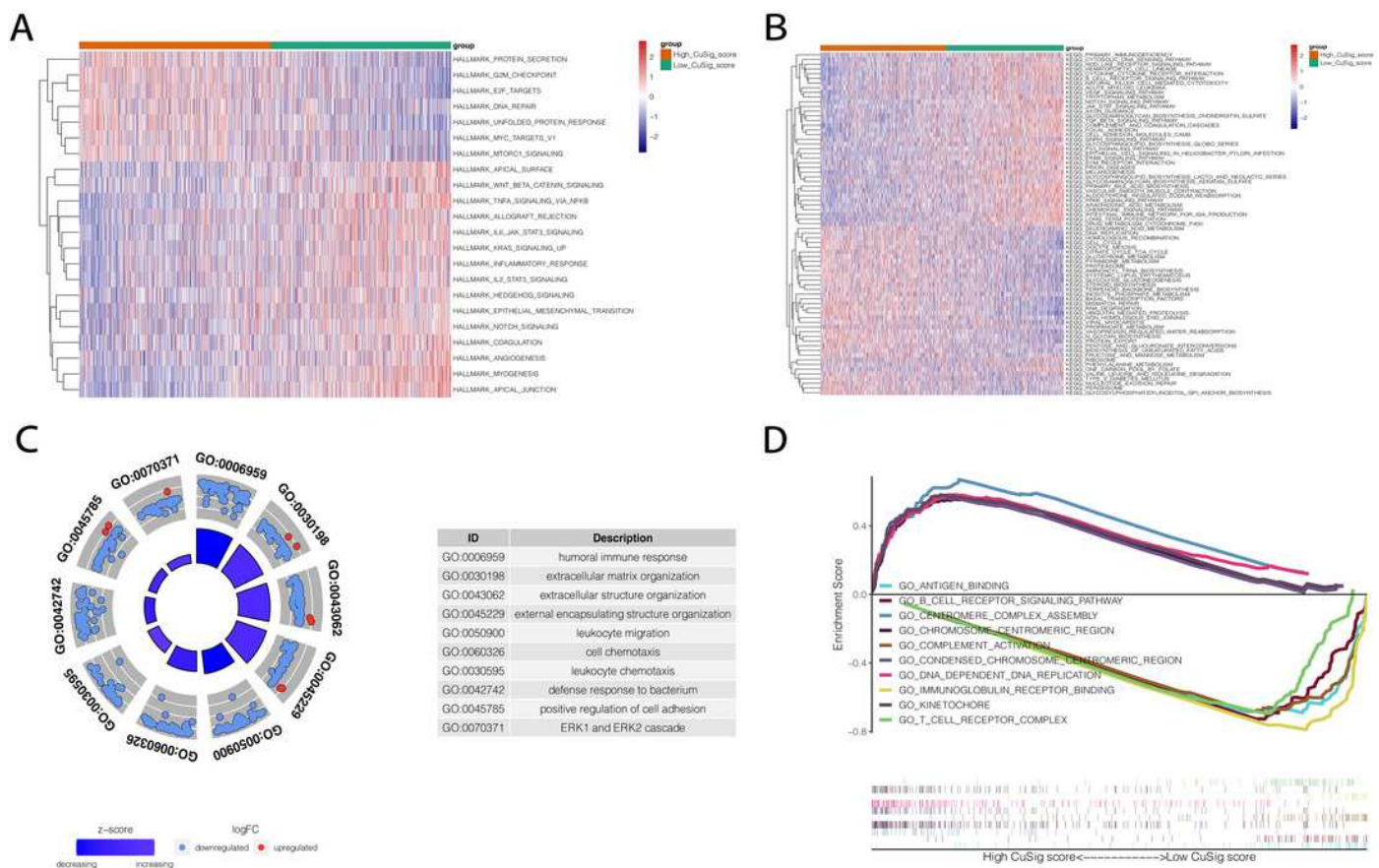




Figure 6

The functional enrichment analysis between high- and low-Cusig score samples.

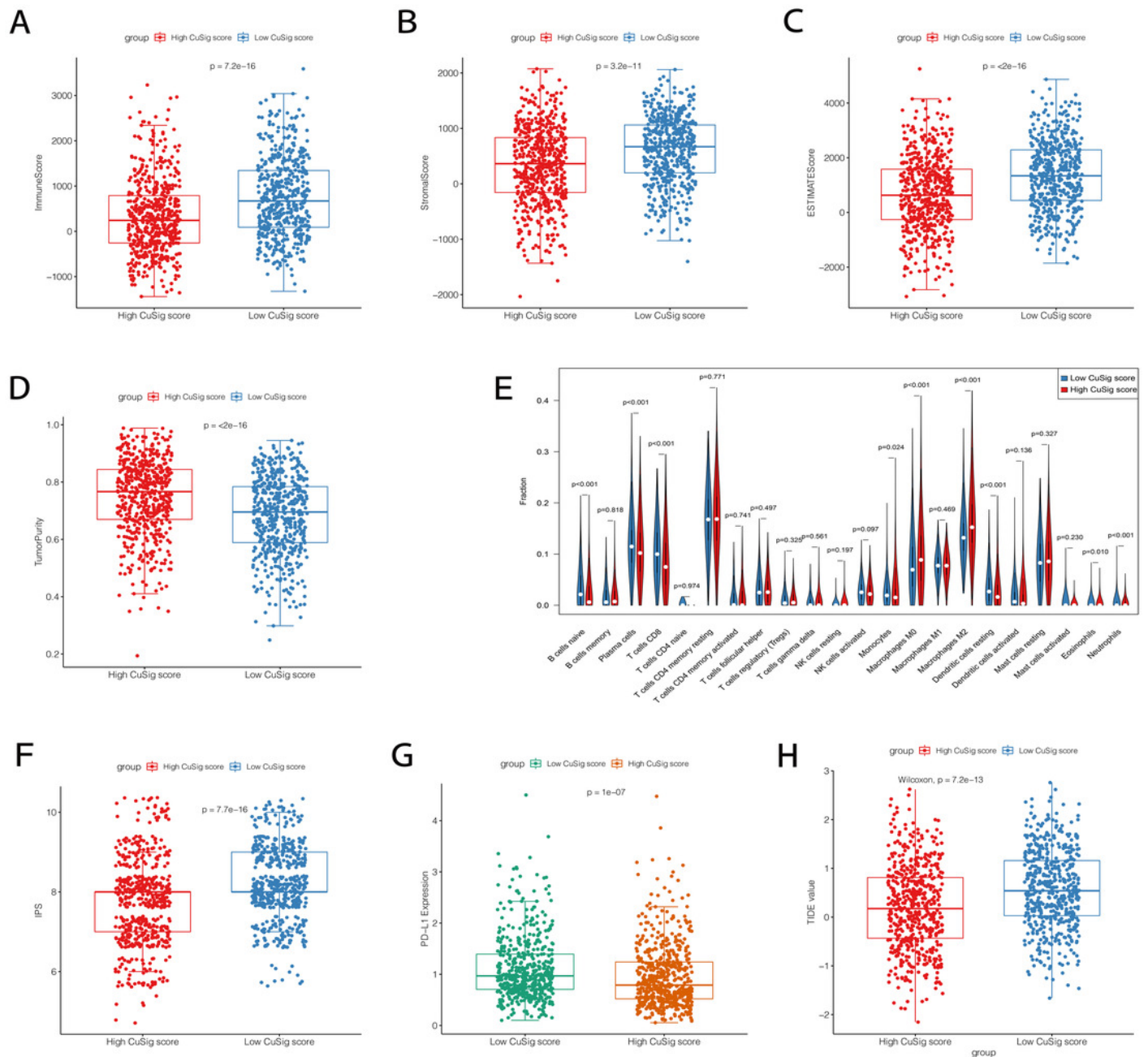
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# Figure 7

Association of cuproptosis-relevant prognostic signature with TME.

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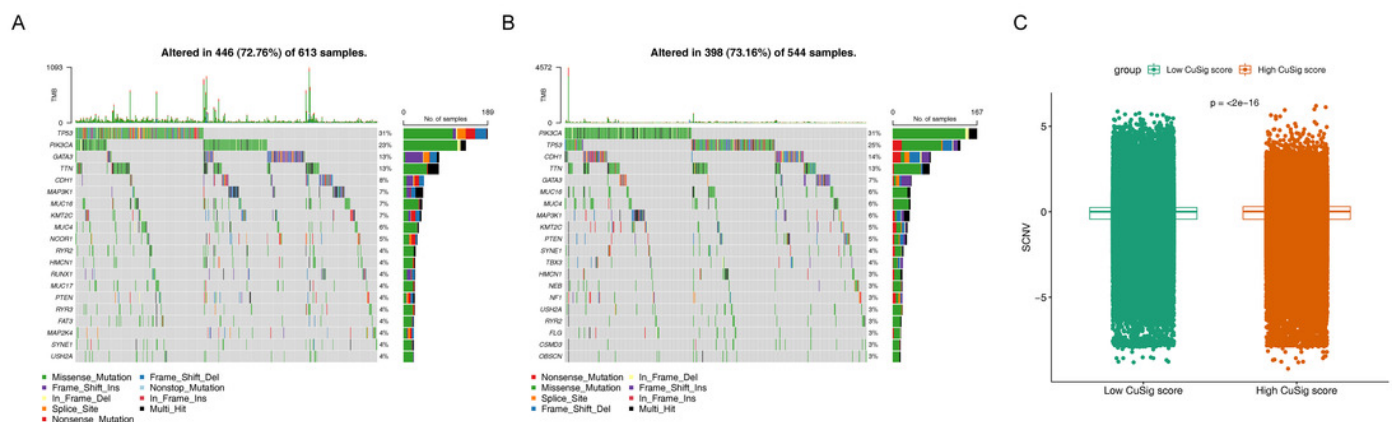




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The mutation landscape analysis.

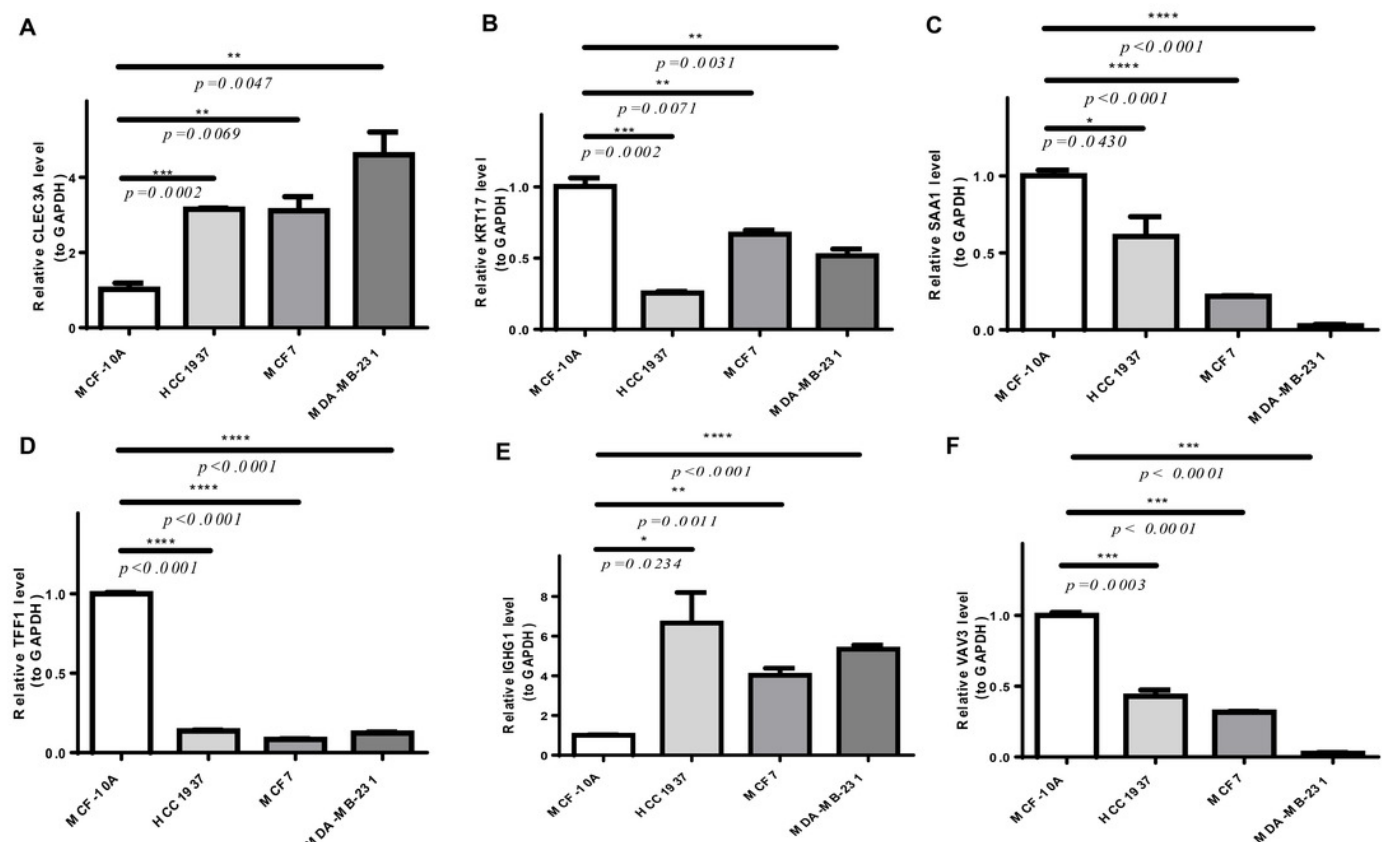
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# Figure 9

The expression of prognostic genes in cell lines detected by RT-qPCR.

**(A) CLEC3A (B) KRT17 (C) SAA1 (D) TFF1 (E) IGHG1 (F) VAV3** \*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p < 0.0001$ .



**Table 1** (on next page)

The sequences of the primers for qPCR.

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1    **Table 1 The primer sequences for qPCR**

primer	sequences
CLEC3A For	GGACTTGTAATTTGCATCCTGG
CLEC3A Rev	CTTGTGAACTTTAGTGCCTCGG
KRT17 For	GATGCCGAGGATTGGTTCTT
KRT17 Rev	TCTCTGTCTCCGCCAGGTTG
SAA1 For	GGTTTTCTGCTCCTTGGTCCT
SAA1 Rev	AGCCGATGTAATTGGCTTCTC
TFF1 For	CCCTCCCAGTGTGCAAATAAG
TFF1 Rev	GAACGGTGTCGTCGAAACAG
IGHG1 For	CTGGCTGAATGGCAAGGAGTA
IGHG1 Rev	GCGATGTCGCTGGGATAGAAG
VAV3 For	ACATTCTTTTCAGAACAAGGGAC
VAV3 Rev	GAATAATCTACTGGTTTGGGCAC
GAPDH For	CCCATCACCATCTTCCAGG
GAPDH Rev	CATCACGCCACAGTTTCCC

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