

## Role of Metformin in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer Obese Patients

Tasnia Jannat<sup>1\*</sup> and Dominic Kwesi Quainoo<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Physics, Pabna University of Science and Technology, Pabna, Bangladesh

<sup>2</sup>Department of Biotechnology, University for Development Studies, Tamale, Ghana

\*Corresponding author: Tasnia Jannat, Department of Physics, Pabna University of Science and Technology, Pabna, Bangladesh; E-mail: tas.pust120730@gmail.com

Received date: October 11, 2021; Accepted date: October 25, 2021; Published date: November 01, 2021

Citation: Jannat T, Quainoo DK (2021) Role of Metformin in Triple-Negative Breast Cancer Obese Patients. Arch Can Res Vol.9 No. S7: 001.

### Abstract

Triple Negative Breast Cancer (TNBC) is the most aggressive type of breast cancer. It is a heterogeneous disease that is based on immune histochemistry analyses [1]. It is negative for estrogen receptor, progesterone receptor and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2. TNBC is significantly observed in young African American women and Hispanic women who carry a mutation in the BRCA gene. Obesity has an increased risk for developing TNBC, especially for premenopausal and post-menopausal women. The relation between obesity and TNBC remains difficult to understand. Many studies hypothesized that increased adipose cytokine, Adipokine, mainly Apelin levels due to obesity could be a major factor contributing to both tumor growth and metastasis in TNBC obese patients. Poor prognosis and poor response to treatment are the major characteristics of TNBC. The anti-type II diabetes drug metformin can reduce risk of breast cancer, improve survival of breast cancer patients. It helps to inhibit specific molecular subtypes. Also, Metformin inhibits cell proliferation, colony formation, GM1 lipid rafts in TNBC. It activates intrinsic and extrinsic metformin signaling pathways only in TNBC cell lines. These breast cancer cells are extremely dependent on glucose and lipids which are metabolized for the production of energy and proliferation of TNBC cells. So, metformin can induce lipid metabolisms, especially targeting fatty acid synthase, cholesterol biosynthesis. Many researchers demonstrated that Metformin can stop several strong enzymes going into glucose metabolism. It has a significant role on inhibiting carbohydrate metabolism and lipid metabolism. By increasing key metabolic defect of carbohydrate and lipid metabolism this drug can reduce obesity for TNBC patients. The actual aim of this paper is to highlight the partial role of metformin in cellular building blocks and in decreasing a high rate of TNBC cells proliferation, especially against highly aggressive malignant cancer cells for TNBC obese patients.

**Keywords:** Triple Negative Breast Cancer (TNBC); Malignant cancer; Obesity; Epidemiological studies

linkage with cancer. Many researchers utter that in 2018 2,66,000 and 64,000 patients are diagnosed for new invasive and in situ breast cancer respectively. This led to a study which was conducted in 2008 to examine generally 620 white women and the results showed that out of the 620 white women that were examined, 117 of them had TNBC and that fraction had a strong relation with obesity [1]. The study also revealed that 50% of the patients with TNBC were obese compared to 36% of obese patients with no TNBC [2]. Obesity has a linkage with risk factors for cancer. Nonetheless, Body Mass Index (BMI) is not only measured for adiposity where WHR or Waist – to – Hip ratio has specific measures of central or abdominal obesity. The high risk of breast cancer has been associated with a common corollary of metabolic syndrome and type 2DM. Meta-analysis studies conducted in 2007 for twenty (20) patients estimated a 20% increased risk of breast cancer for women with type 2DM (RR=1.20; 95%CI, 1.12-1.8) [3].

In the instance where comparison is done between lean patients and breast cancer patients who are also obese, the obese breast cancer patients have more risk of recurrence and a worse prognosis. The outcome of a study where samples of 495,477 US women were taken indicated that increasing Body Mass Index (BMI) was significantly associated with increased death rates for breast cancer patients [4]. As compared to the lowest BMI group (18.5-24.9), there was an increased risk of 34% for BMI of 250-299 (RR=1.70; 95%CI, 1.33-2.21) and for BMI > 40.0 (RR=2.12; 95%CI, 1.41 – 3.19) for dying breast cancer patients. Physical activities and weight loss are inversely associated with breast cancer dangers and recurrence as suggested by several epidemiological studies [5]. Patients with BMI >25 kg/m<sup>2</sup> had significant benefits through post diagnosis exercise. Interestingly, physical activity after diagnosis played a vital role in the reduction of breast cancer deaths by 50% (RR=0.50; 95% CI, 0.34-74) for tumors with no significant effect on patients with ER- tumors [6-11]. There are lots of recent studies which highly indicated that abdominal obesity improves breast cancer development and outcomes through other mechanism as well and also system shifts in Carbohydrate and fat metabolism up regulation of pro-carcinogenic factors such as cytokines and growth factors (like insulin and insulin like growth factors, modulation of the immune system and macrophage activation have significant effect on obesity and breast cancer as well. Comparatively, breast cancer patients who are obese have more usual recurrence and worse prognosis than lean patients.

### Introduction

Triple Negative Breast cancer is aggressive comparatively other type breast cancer. Obesity is known to have a strong

Improvement in insulin resistance or blood glucose may also mediate this effect. According to the Women's Intervention Nutrition Study (WINS), 2437 women were examined with breast cancer [12]. This was a randomized study that engages a dietary intervention group intending to lower the percentage of calories from fat to 15% without impairing the nutrition of these group of people. Another factor that seems to moderate the recurrence and mortality of breast cancer survivors is alcohol consumption. Recent studies conducted on 1,897 individuals revealed that three to four times of alcohol consumption per week was related to 35% (HR=1.35; 95%, 1.00- 1.83) High risk of breast cancer recurrence and 51% (HR=1.5; 95%CI, 1.00-2.29) increased risk of death as a result of breast cancer [13,14]. A study demonstrated that for all women with both obesity type II diabetes, the risk of breast cancer increases by as much as 20% [15]. Some studies showed that Gestational diabetes, pre-diabetes or family history of diabetes also enhances risk for breast cancer for women [15,16].

Metformin hydrochloride is a diabetes medicine. It is generally used for managing type II diabetes. Because Metformin does not cause weight gain and may help with weight loss, it is generally prescribed for overweight people with type II diabetes. Triple negative breast cancer is one kind of breast cancer whose tumors do not express estrogen receptor, progesterone receptor and HER2 receptor. Approximately 15%-20% among other breast cancer patients are suffering from TNBC. Only chemotherapy can be used for treatment of triple negative breast cancer. Novel targeted therapies would be best for TNBC survives [17-19]. A study of 2012 demonstrated that inhibition of over expression of Fatty acid synthase induces apoptosis of breast cancer cell lines [20]. Another research proved that Metformin decreases fatty acid synthase, cholesterol biosynthesis and GM1 lipid rafts in Triple Negative Breast Cancer cells. There are so many studies which indicate that both obesity and type II highly increase risk of hormone receptor positive breast cancer and also anticipate that obesity plays a vital role to increase breast cancer in young African women (pre-menopausal) and most of the time these type women are diagnosed with Triple Negative Breast cancer. In general, targeted therapeutics would be effective for TNBC [21-26].

## Insulin and TNBC and Role of Metformin

Insulin stimulates glucose transport by translocation of GLUT4 proteins from an intracellular vesicular compartment to plasma membrane. Once GLUT4 recruitment occurs. The transpote inserts into plasma membrane allowing uptake of glucose into cell. When cells in our muscles, fat and liver cannot response properly to insulin and abdicate glucose from our blood, insulin resistance occurs. There are significant relationship between obesity and type 2 diabetes. Reducing of insulin stimulated glucose transport, metabolism in adipocytes and skeletal muscle are main cause of insulin resistance for obesity and type 2 diabetic. Insulin is known for its linkage between obesity and breast cancers. Up regulation of insulin has been hypothesized to directly increase the proliferation of breast cancer cells and breast tissue.

Hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia are associated with poor prognosis as suggested by data [27]. Functional imbalance also creates the down regulation of the major insulin-responsive glucose transported GLUT4 [28]. In 2007, a case- control study was conducted to examine blood samples in generally premenopausal individuals. The results indicated that high insulin levels and C- peptide were not risks associated with breast cancer. Generally insulin binding IRS-1 and IRS-2 receptor for both muscle and adipocytes. IRS-1 plays a vital role in increasing insulin action, including binding and activation of Phosphotyrosinase (PI)-3 Kinase and glucose transport [28]. Obese, type 2 diabetic patients' skeletal has normal IRS-1 And IRS-2 protein levels but P13 activity with these [29].

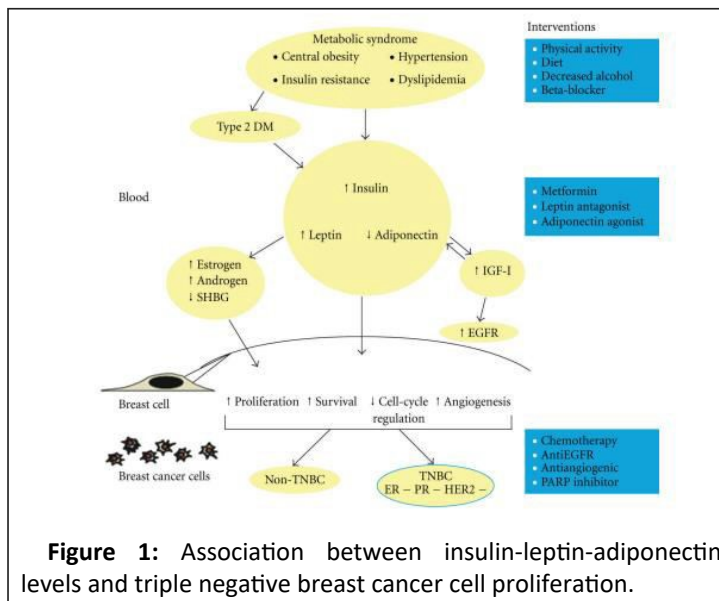
Epidemiologic studies demonstrated that the risk of diabetes and presumably insulin resistance increases according to body fat content (measured by BMI) increases from the very lean to the very obese and body fat has intrinsic roles in insulin resistance [30]. The relationship between insulin resistance and obesity is measured by adiposity and BMI. Only central obesity has significant linkage with insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease [31]. On the other hand for some biochemical structure of intra-abdominal adipocytes may have direct source with insulin sensitivity. A leading hypothesis regarding intra-abdominal reported that adipocytes are active lipolytically for average receptors. It may cause for excessive intraportal FFA level and flux which promotes insulin resistance. So many studies has been investigated the molecular mechanism of TNBC and for the better understanding of these mechanism will help to design novel therapy for TNBC.

Excessive amount of C-peptide/ Insulin increases breast cancer risk factor [32]. IGF1-1 plays a vital role to induce apoptotic activity and to control cell and body size [33]. Many researchers proved that the increased activity and level of compared to normal breast has significant relation with breast cancer risk [34-39]. Our main focus is about TNBC. So we found lots of studies which reported that in TNBC cell lines high IGF-1R receptors has been shown and it helps to develop TNBC and this IGF-1R has strong association with obesity [40,41]. BRCA1 and P53 suppressor gene mutation reduces the activity to resist the increasing level of IGF-1R gene expression [42]. Many studies demonstrated that IGFBP-3 has positive association with BMI and TNBC. This IGFBP-3 has six proteins and they are highly related with poor prognosis for ER, PR negativity, S-phase fraction and tumor size. This IGBP-3 has association with TNBC developing which has bonding with high expression of epidermal growth factor. It also promotes to increase TNBC cells by inducing Sphk-1 mediated EGFR signaling [43-48].

Insulin like growth factor has three ligands, they are IGF-1, IGF-2 and insulin which stimulates signal by paralogous receptor proteins and they are located in plasma membrane. IGF-1, IGF-2 have high relation with type-I receptor and where insulin has high affection for insulin receptor.

The ligands collaborate extracellular domains of receptors which promote the phosphorylation of intracellular adaptor receptors. Increased cell survival, proliferation and migration are promoting by Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase (MAPK) and AKT by leading of signaling cascades.

Metformin is a biguanide drug is used as a treatment for weight loss, type 2 diabetes, especially in the presence of insulin resistance [49]. By activating of AMP-activated protein kinase, is shown in fig 2 it helps to improve hyperglycemia through concealment of hepatic gluconeogenesis and these biological functions of Metformin plays a significant role in insulin signaling [49]. In contrast Metformin leads AMPK activity which is known as the cause of GLUT4, this GLUT4 develops plasma membrane and as a result it occurs insulin independent glucose uptake. In addition Metformin raises insulin sensitivity, promotes peripheral glucose uptake and fatty acid oxidation [50] (Figure 1).



**Figure 1:** Association between insulin-leptin-adiponectin levels and triple negative breast cancer cell proliferation.

## Mechanism of Metformin to Reduce Adiponectin in TNBC

A protein exclusively secreted by the adipose tissue and improves the insulin – sensitivity levels of the entire body is known as adiponectin. Insulin sensitivity levels of adiponectin are inversely correlated with obesity. In a study where 527 patients were sampled and diagnosed with stage I- III breast cancer. They showed adiponectin levels above 15.5  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ . This level justifies improved breast cancer survival rate (HR=0.39; 95%CI, 0.15-0.95) [51,52]. The role of the adiponectin pathway in Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNPs) was demonstrated in breast cancer. This was observed through a case-control study on 763 breast cancer patients. The study revealed that two functional polymorphisms of ADIPOQ and one functional polymorphism which has exhibited the ability to change mRNA levels in ADIPOR1 had significant relation with a high risk of breast cancer. The development of obesity mainly depends on the balance between white adipose tissue and brown adipose tissues. White adipose tissue works for reserving energy and brown tissue works for energy expenditure [53]. Otherwise, brown tissue can affect body metabolism and it can change insulin sensitivity which is responsible to induce obesity [54-56]. Because of obesity not only insulin resistance is increased but also adipose tissue cannot work for energy leading to the reservation of secretory endocrine organs of cytokines,

hormones, and proteins that regulate the function of cells and tissues all over the body [57]. Obesity creates a collection of lipids in adipocytes, producing cellular stress and activation of JNK and NF-kB pathways [58,59].

Phosphorylation of proteins, different transcriptional events which help to induce pro- inflammatory molecules, TNF-alpha, IL-6, leptin, resistin, chemokines are promoted by these proliferated signaling pathways and they are significantly responsible for producing monocytes and other inflammatory cells to the adipose tissues. Many cytokines and chemokines are expressed more by the induced inflammatory signal from macrophages which is differentiated from monocyte [60]. In obese patients, T-cell works for producing and promoting pro-inflammatory cytokines and macrophages to the adipose tissue [61]. Adipose tissue can make a connection with each adipocyte, by inflammation signal of inflammatory fat and cells and adipose tissue can keep association with multiple vascular capillaries [62]. Inducing fat microcirculation could promote adipose tissue inflammation.

As our main focus is on TNBC, the question regarding the association between adipocyte and TNBC cannot be left unanswered. High adipogenesis plays a role for worst survival in TNBC is shown in fig 1. High adipogenesis has a strong association with metabolism gene sets; oxidative phosphorylation, fatty acid metabolism, peroxisome, and reactive oxygen species pathway. High adipogenesis TNBC suppresses PDL-1 and PDL-2 and immune checkpoint molecules index, also it is responsible for HRD [63]. As reported by other studies, adiponectin prevents the activities of aromatase and estrogen receptors, a phenomenon that would act on ER tumors [64]. The overexpression of adiponectin lowers mammary tumor size both locally and systemically as shown in studies relating to animals [65]. A study regarding this topic declared that adipocyte has a great impact on cancer progression by raising highly complex cancer cells [66]. Intra-tumoral adipocytes with genes that have an association with inflammation and metastasis, rather than cell proliferation-related gene sets [67]. In addition, intra-tumoral causes inflammation, hypoxia, and angiogenesis [68-70]. Another study revealed the reason behind having strong cell density in proliferated cancer cells where adipocytes cannot move easily in the tumor microenvironment. Also, that study demonstrated that the connection between adipocytes and adipogenesis is not strong in breast cancer and specially adipogenesis in TNBC. High adipocytes, immune and proliferated pathways, because high adipogenesis TNBC has a significant relation with metabolic-related gene sets, due to this function it is one of the reasons of worst survival. In contrast, TNBC with high adipogenesis and metabolic activity has the worst survival for infiltration of immune cells rather than high cell proliferation. Several studies indicate that adipogenesis is amplified in fat-related pathways rather than the abundance of adipocytes. There is a strong marker for cancer and that is the ratio of leptin to adiponectin in serum [71,72].

With the help of osteogenesis and activation of AMPK in adipocytes, Metformin decreases adipocytes and this is shown in several studies [73]. Another study explained that metformin has poor resistance to adipogenesis in murine C3H10T1/2 MSCs

[74]. For all cell types, different specific effects of Metformin can inhibit adipogenesis by AMPK activation. So many researchers have reported that Metformin has a linkage with differentiated cell lines such as pre-osteoblasts, pre-adipocytes, myoblasts, and neuronal mouse cell lines [75-78], instead of more primitive cell progenitors. For cell differentiation, there is a different time for specific signaling pathways. Early-stage differentiation is regulated by the late stage of the Akt/mTOR signaling pathway's activation. With AMPK assays there is fixed activity of Metformin for the adipogenesis process. Metformin can activate the reduction of PPAR-gamma-Runx2 ratio and mTOR thus, inhibit adipogenesis. The differentiation of MSCs into osteoblasts and adipocytes is regulated by Metformin and it can reduce the mTOR signaling pathways at the early stage. This study also reported that aggressive MEFS is observed to gather lipid and induces the expression of C/EBP- beta to an adipogenic cocktail of IID plus PIO. So, Metformin has a strong ability to inhibit adipogenesis by the activation of AMPK in different cell lines.

## Role of Metformin to Control in dysregulation of Carbohydrate and Lipid Metabolism in TNBC

When energy is stored as a triglycerides and obesity is one of criterion which is developed by diet, age, genes, physical activities [79,80]. Then what is the effect of obesity on metabolic change? Adipose tissue which produce adipokines like leptin, adiponectin, apelin etc., which regulate metabolic process in the body [81]. The main mechanism of insulin is to keep glucose level lower in blood from concealment of hepatic glucose production and the increased glucose uptake into muscle and adipose tissue via GLUT4. Adipose tissue express lower glucose level into body and by this lower disposal muscle insulin stimulates glucose uptake in higher level *in vivo*. Various studies have promoted that in systemic glucose homeostasis glucose uptake transform into fat. For obesity GLUT4 become over expressed which causes insulin sensitivity and glucose tolerance [82]. In contrast for obesity this down regulation of GLUT4 occurs and for this case insulin stimulates glucose transport which is decreased in adipocytes [83].

Obesity has significant effect on lipid metabolism and it is well known that obesity has strong connection with increased basal lipolysis in adipose tissue and promotes circulating FFAS [84]. Several functions play key role to induce basal lipolysis such as acute phase Serum Amyloid A (SAA), alipholytic adipokine in humans. Lipolysis helps to increase SAA production from long adipocytes into circulation which also promotes insulin resistance. Function of SAA circulated through CLA-1 and extra cellular signal regulated kinase signaling pathway and it raises lipolysis directly [85]. Several studies demonstrated that plasma triglyceride concentration is also metabolic variable and for obesity it's affected. Glucose uptake is activated by insulin which promotes Very Low Density Lipoprotein (VLDL), TG production rate and it regulated to endogenous hypertrigly ceridemia [86-88]. Because of obesity lipoprotein lipase is started to decrease and it activates lipolysis of chylomicon-TG and inactive inhibition of hormone sensitive lipase mediated lipolysis in

adipose tissue [89]. For obesity excess fatty acid increases expression in the prandial period, in normal which is suppressed by insulin and it helps to impact on glucose uptake by as much as 50% [90]. SAA has also significant association with cholesterol metabolism and High Density Lipoprotein (HDL) [91]. Excess obesity regulates SAA in obesity which may be connected between obesity and low HDL.

For the systemic dysregulation of lipid and carbohydrate metabolism causes metabolic syndrome and type II diabetes. These type II diabetes and metabolic syndrome are known as risk factor of breast cancer [92-94]. With these disorder the increased level of insulin resistance and insulin like growth factor are responsible for breast cancer and worst prognosis. A study highlighted that metabolic dysregulation plays a vital role in serum glucose and other energy precursors such as fructose and glucosomine which can be metabolized to adenosine triphosphate which helps to proliferate cancer cell and tumor growth in hypoxic environment [95]. Carbohydrate metabolism dysregulation is used as aerobic glycolysis is well known as hallmark of cancer [96].

A study used a carcinogen-induced rodent model of tumorigenesis and showed that overfed obese animals which is similar to metabolic syndrome which increased 50% glucose uptake by mammary tumor cells and it has strong relation with cancer cell proliferation and it was noticed in human breast cancer cells *in vitro* [97]. Also that rotent model reported that Metformin has anti cancer effect and this study's epidemiological data showed that patients who are suffering from metabolic syndrome or type II diabetics were able to reduce cancer incidence and improves survival by consuming Metformin [98-100]. Metformin has strong potent against triple negative breast cancer because TNBC is dependent on glucose and glutamine and Metformin inhibits significantly mitochondrial respiration in TNBC cancer cells [101].

## Activity of Metformin to inhibit FASN in TNBC

Adipose tissue is now known to play an important role and activate the endocrine organ. It is very well established that adipocytes aids in the storage and release of energy throughout the human body. Adipose tissue may play an important role in Fatty Acid (FA) FLUX and it changes to energize the body in the fasting state. Generally, adipose tissue releases FAs but in the fed state, adipocyte absorbs FAs from circulating triglycerides [102]. When the function will be inversely proportional then obesity, insulin resistance, dyslipemia inflammation, atherosclerosis, hypertension occurs [103,104]. PPAR-gamma or PPARG (Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor Gamma) is known as the glitazone receptor NR1C3 (nuclear receptor subfamily.1 groupc, members) is type II nuclear receptor that is encoded by the PPARG gene PPAR-gamma and plays a significant role in metabolism by regulating many genes [105] and they are involved in fatty acid synthesis. Exogenously derived and endogenously synthesized FA maintains substrates for energy metabolism. The two key enzymes of lipogenesis which are Fatty Acid Synthase and Acetyl- CoA-Carboxylase play an important

role for weight of abdominal adipose tissue [106]. In addition, FASN as a multifunctional enzymatic complex performs a role in the regulation of body weight and increases obesity [106-108]. High intake of carbohydrate diet helps FASN to accelerate endogenous FA biosynthesis in liver and adipose tissue [109]. So many studies have shown higher gene expression of obese vs lean separately [110-112]. In contrast a study has demonstrated the role of FASN in obesity by using BMI and metabolic parameters and so many studies have explained association of FASN activity and its expression with obesity, insulin resistance and adipocytokine serum profile.

TNBC has poor prognosis and there is no targeted therapy available for triple negative breast cancer. A study has shown that FASN expression has association with increasing TNBC in clinico-histopathological means [113]. This study proved this using 100 primary TNBC tumors and it is assessed by immunohistochemistry of FASN, EGFR and C15/6 vimentin expression. One of lipogenic enzyme fatty acid synthase are generally responsible for increasing neoplastic disease and its overexpression are seen in activities of inducing neoplastic disease [113]. The protein acylation, biological membrane, synthesis, DNA synthesis and cell cycle proliferation of cancer cells are promoted by long chain of fatty acid de novo synthesis. Several studies have demonstrated that FASN's over expression could serve as potential biomarkers and therapeutic targets for so many carcinomas. This could be used for breast cancer also. So many studies have shown that reducing FASN increases apoptosis in couple of cancer cells and decreases the growth of human xenografts [114-127]. A study experimented by 29 core – biopsies of TNBC patients and preclinical studies showed that FASN reduction could re-sensitize doxorubicin resistant cell lines. Also, another study which was done using 100 primary TNBC women and were diagnosed between 1990 and 2012 at Hospital Universitari by Dr. Josep Trueta (Girona, Spain). The study showed that FASN expression was positive in almost all TNBC samples (92%). High FASN expression was observed in 45% of TNBC samples. Among the same patients, 22% were observed to have lower FASN expression in non-tumoral tissues. A cohort study analyzed that FASN was positive in 92% of tumor tissue samples and 45% have high FASN levels and this study also reported that FASN expression has relation with positive nod involvement.

Some studies previously showed that identification of tumor cells in lymph nodes will be helpful to predict patient's outcome. So many researches demonstrated that overexpression of FASN is detected as poor prognosis marker in several cancers such as lung, ovarian, gastric or in early breast cancer carcinomas patients. Some preclinical studies reported that FASN expression plays a vital role in drug resistant [128-130].

Metformin kills stem cells, triple negative breast cancer cell lines as FASN has complexity with de novo fatty synthesis and it is essential for TNBC survival. Metformin induces FASN expression and helps to induce apoptosis in TNBC cell lines [131]. According to TNBC structure, the cells of TNBC are sensitive to metformin action. Significantly, cancer stem cells have over expression and dependent on lipogenic enzymes and FASN as well [132-135]. If CSCs are more dependent on FASN,

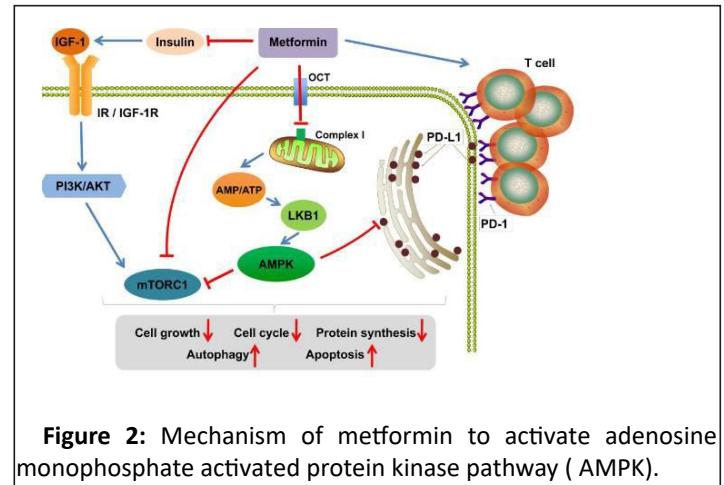
then TNBC are proportionally sensitive to Metformin. This idea has proved why TNBC is sensitive to metformin [136,137]. In Luminal Estrogen Receptor Positive Breast Cancer Cells, FASN is strongly controlled by estrogen and progesterone receptors [138-147]. On FASN and lipogenesis, several kinds of cancer's metastasis, invasion, chemoresistance are dependent [148-150]. These characteristics are also significant in TNBC and that confirms that metformin can be activated to reduce FASN in TNBC. A study experimented and reported that 10 mM metformin effectively reduce FASN in TNBC cells. This study also proved that ten top genes of fatty acid and cholesterol biosynthesis pathways are decreased by metformin. Many studies have shown that several mRNA have been defined as targeting FASN directly or indirectly. Another study promoted that by increasing up regulation of miR- 193b, metformin can reduce apoptosis, reduce FASN and memosphere formation of TNBC [151-173].

## THE STAT 3 SIGNALING PATHWAY IN TNBC

More recently, many efforts have been made to identify targetable molecules for treating TNBC through genomic profiling and numerous critical changes have been found, including the overexpression and aberrant activation of Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription 3 (STAT3) [174,175]. The emerging data suggest that STAT3 may be a potential molecular target and biomarker for TNBC. The STAT family of transcription factors is comprised of seven members with high structural and functional similarity, including STAT1, STAT2, STAT3, STAT4, STAT5a, STAT5b, and STAT6 [176,177]. All STAT proteins consist of an amino acid domain (NH<sub>2</sub>), a Coiled-Coil Domain (CCD) for binding with interactive proteins, a DNA Binding Domain (DBD), a linker domain, a SRC Homology 2 (SH2) domain for phosphorylation and dimerization, and a C-terminal Transactivation Domain (TAD) [177]. Most of these domains are highly conserved among STAT proteins and only TAD is divergent and mainly contributes to their structure diversity [178]. STAT3 was initially discovered to bind to DNA in response to interleukin-6 (IL-6) and Epidermal Growth Factor (EGF) in 1994 [179,180]. Over the past decades, STAT3 has become one of the most investigated oncogenic transcription factors and is highly associated with cancer initiation, progression, metastasis, chemoresistance, and immune evasion [181,182]. The recent evidence from both preclinical and clinical studies have demonstrated that STAT3 plays a critical role in TNBC and STAT3 inhibitors have shown efficacy in inhibiting TNBC tumor growth and metastasis. Considering that there is an unmet medical need for TNBC treatment and innovative therapeutic agents are urgently required, an in-depth understanding of the roles of STAT3 in TNBC will facilitate the development of STAT3 targeted therapeutics and pave the way for a novel TNBC treatment approach.

The oncogenic prospects of Stat3 have been noticed generally through its engagement in modulating the expression of genes associated with proliferation of cancer cells, self-renewal of stem cells and maintenance and autophagy [183,184]. Most especially, the overexpression of Stat 3 and activation in TNBC which is most often related to the initiation of TNBC,

progression, metastasis and resistance to chemotherapy and abysmal survival results. Stat 3 does not only play a role of eliciting the expression of cancer related genes, but have contact interaction and functionally ally with other oncogenic transcription factors. Example of which is the GLUT1 which enhances the aggressiveness of TNBC. A recently conducted study has also realized a reduction of the Gene related to the Retinoic – Interferon- Induced Mortality 19 (GRIM-19) an integral inhibitor of Stat 3 transcription escorted by the overexpression of Stat 3 in TNBC. TCPTP plus two splice variants TC45 and TC48 have shown down- regulation in the cells of TNBC in vivo and in vitro which also plays a role in the stat 3 signaling activation [185]. A recent study revealed that acetylated Stat 3 is heightened in TNBC, leading to the methylation and inactivation of tumor- suppressor gene promoters [186]. Indeed, STAT3 has also been found to localize in the mitochondria, where it is termed mitoSTAT3 and regulates the mitochondrial functions, including electron transport chain, ATP synthesis, calcium homeostasis, and Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) accumulation [187,188]. Moreover, mitoSTAT3 has been shown to promote breast cancer cell growth, in which the phosphorylation of Serine 727 plays a critical role [189]. Of note, several approved drugs have shown potent inhibitory effects on pSTAT3 and may be repositioned as anticancer drugs. Niclosamide, an FDA-approved anthelmintic drug was identified as a potent STAT3 inhibitor. A recent study demonstrated that niclosamide not only inhibits TNBC cell viability but also sensitizes TNBC cells to Ionizing Irradiation (IR) by blocking IR-induced STAT3 phosphorylation and activation [190]. Flubendazole, another widely used anthelmintic agent and disulfiram, a clinical drug for treating chronic alcoholism were found to eradicate TNBC stem cells-like cells that express high levels of pSTAT3 [191,192]. Further studies showed that both drugs were able to cause TNBC cell growth arrest and apoptosis in vitro and suppress TNBC tumor growth, angiogenesis, and metastasis in vivo by inhibiting STAT3 [191,192]. Moreover, salinomycin, an antibacterial and coccidiostat ionophore therapeutic drug and metformin, an antidiabetic drug has exhibited potent inhibitory effects on STAT3 phosphorylation and TNBC cell growth in vitro [193,194]. However, further evaluation of their anti-TNBC efficacy in in vivo models is critically needed. Recent studies have disclosed that targeting STAT3 acetylation may be a potential therapeutic approach for treating cancer. SH-I-14, a newly synthesized carbazole was shown to inhibit STAT3 phosphorylation through increasing SHP-1 expression [195]. A follow-up study reported that SH-I-14 also inhibited STAT3 acetylation and disrupted DNMT1-STAT3 interaction, resulting in DNA demethylation and re-expression of tumor suppressor genes [196]. It's in vitro and in vivo activity has also been demonstrated in TNBC model, suggesting the effectiveness of inhibiting STAT3 acetylation in TNBC therapy (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Mechanism of metformin to activate adenosine monophosphate activated protein kinase pathway (AMPK).

## METFORMIN as inhibitor of STAT3 signaling pathway in TNBC

Metformin (1,1-dimethylbiguanide hydrochloride), the most frequently used first-line drug for type 2 diabetes worldwide, has recently been appreciated to have anticancer properties. It is widely reported to act through up regulation of Adenosine Monophosphate-activated Protein Kinase (AMPK) [197,198] the mammalian Target of Rapamycin (mTOR), the ribosomal protein S6 kinase and the eIF4E-binding protein 1.22 Metformin has been shown to decrease breast cancer risk [199-202] and improve survival in patients with breast cancer [203-206]. A retrospective, non-randomized study has recently shown that the addition of metformin to neoadjuvant chemotherapy results in a significantly higher rate of pathologic complete response [206]. Metformin has been shown to inhibit mammary carcinogenesis, growth, migration and invasion in vivo and in vitro in animal and cell line model systems [207]. On the basis of these data, several randomized trials of metformin (typically in combination with other agents) have been initiated in breast cancer patients. We have shown that metformin preferentially affects TN breast cancer cells, inducing partial S-phase arrest and apoptosis. In contrast, in other breast cancer subtypes (luminal A, B and HER2-expressing cells), it induces a partial G1 cell cycle arrest without apoptosis induction. Others have reported that metformin may selectively target breast cancer stem cells, weaken TGFβ-induced EMT and modulate cancer-associated inflammation and an immune response [207]. Given the known overexpression and activation of Stat3 in TNBC, we conducted studies to determine whether metformin might have a previously unrecognized role in down regulating Stat3 expression and/or activity in this subtype of breast cancer.

In a study conducted by Deng was revealed that metformin inhibits growth and cell signaling where they initially studied metformin's anti-proliferation /anti-survival activity against six basal breast cancers cell lines MDA-MB-468, HCC70, HCC1806, MDA231, BT20 and HCC1937 and established IC50s for each line. The result revealed that Metformin induced growth inhibition in each of the six TN cell lines with MDA 468 and HCC70 showing the greatest sensitivity.

Further studies were conducted using four representative lines treated with metformin at corresponding IC50s. Western

Blot was employed to analyze for signaling changes and it showed that Metformin impressively lowered both tyrosine and serine phosphorylation of STAT3 (P Stat 3 at tyr705 or Ser727) with modest to limited changes in Stat 3 protein expression.

## Conclusion

Triple negative breast cancer has few potent targeted therapeutic options, because of its aggressive phenotype feature and its molecularly diversity. It also has strong chemo resistance. Usually, TNBC patients have worst survival rate and cancer cells have two types of effects for carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, these are “Warburg effect” and “Lipid switch”, respectively. When women are suffering from metabolic dysregulation, often they are connected significantly with cancer, especially breast cancer and TNBC. In this paper we have demonstrated that anti type II diabetic drug metformin has potent feature to reduce triple negative breast cancer risk factor, especially for TNBC patients who are obese. Usually metformin works with two main functions. One is insulin-dependent and another is insulin independent. We also mentioned so many researches where it was proved that metformin induces biological responses and it plays a vital role to reduce TNBC. Other studies demonstrated that it’s mechanism to induce biological and molecular responses are responsible for reducing breast cancer as well. For inhibiting TNBC, metformin plays so many functions such as targets STAT3 signaling pathway, FASN, decreases lipid and carbohydrate dysregulation, which have significant association with breast cancer and TNBC which are highlighted in our study. Another recent study reported that metformin attenuates over twenty genes and enzymes that are responsible for cholesterol biosynthesis in TNBC. An important matter we want to highlight is that triple negative tumors are more expressive in younger and in black women. There are several studies that anticipated that African American women are affected more by TNBC. Their data demonstrated about a 27% diagnosed breast cancer patients and they were premenopausal African American. Among them, 27% were African and 25% were younger black British women. Undoubtedly, obesity has significant relation with breast cancer, but obese African American women are affected more rather than others. There are recent studies which have done clinical experiment with metformin for non-diabetic breast cancer patients. A review study reported that metformin not only works for diabetic breast cancer patients but also works for non-diabetic lung cancer, prostate cancer, endometroid endometrial cancer. A study experimented with obese non-diabetic breast cancer patients. In that experiment, 1000 mg/day metformin was more effective than placebo 500 mg/day metformin. Other randomized control clinical trial showed by giving 50 mg/day metformin for six months reduced the number of metastatic cases of hormonal therapy. For all of these studies, we are proposing that maybe metformin could be effective therapeutic drug for non-diabetic African American triple negative obese breast cancer patients.

## Acknowledgement

Denise Stewart, Cancer researcher, Imperial College, London.

## References

1. Davis AA, Kaklamani VG (2012) Metabolic syndrome and triple negative breast cancer: a new paradigm. *Int J Breast Cancer* 2012: ID:809291.
2. Davis LV, Rose DP, Hazard H, McNatt MH, Adkins F, et al. (2008) Triple-negative breast cancer and obesity in a rural appalachian population. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev* 17(12): 3319-24.
3. Larsson SC, Mantzoros CS, Wolk A (2007) Diabetes mellitus and risk of breast cancer: a meta-Analysis. *Int J Cancer* 121(4): 856-62.
4. Calle EE, Rodriguez C, Thurmond KW, Thun MJ. (2003) Overweight, obesity, and mortality from cancer in a prospectively studied cohort of U.S. Adults. *N Engl J Med* 348(17): 1625-38.
5. Pierce JP, Stefanick ML, Flatt SW, Natarajan, Sternfeld B, et al. (2007) Greater survival after breast cancer in physically active women with high vegetable-fruit intake regardless of obesity. *J Clin Oncol* 25(17): 2345-2351
6. Holmes MD, Chen WY, Feskanich D, Kroenke CH, Colditz GA (2005) Physical activity and survival after breast cancer diagnosis. *JAMA* 293(20): 2479-86.
7. Abrahamson PE, Gammon MD, Lund MJ, Britton JA, Marshall SW, et al. (2006) Recreational physical activity and survival among young women with breast cancer. *Cancer* 107(8): 1777-85.
8. Holick CN, Newcomb PA, Dietz AT, Ernstoff LT, Bersch AJ, et al. (2008) Physical activity and survival after diagnosis of invasive breast cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 17(2): 379-86.
9. Irwin ML, Smith AW, McTiernan A, Barbash RB, Cronin K, et al. ( 2008) Influence of pre- and postdiagnosis physical activity on mortality in breast cancer survivors: the health, eating, activity, and lifestyle study. *J Clin Oncol* 26(24): 3958-64.
10. Enger SM, Bernstein L (2004) Exercise activity, body size and premenopausal breast cancer survival. *Br J Cancer* 90(11): 2138-41.
11. Sternfeld B, Weltzien E, Quesenberry CP Jr, Castillo AL, Kwan M, et al. (2009) Physical activity and risk of recurrence and mortality in breast cancer survivors: findings from the LACE study. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 18(1): 87-95.
12. Chlebowski RT, Blackburn GL, Thomson CA, Nixon DW, Shapiro A, et al. ( 2006) Dietary fat reduction and breast cancer outcome: interim efficacy results from the Women’s Intervention Nutrition Study. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 98(24): 1767-76.
13. Kwan ML, Kushi LH, Weltzien E, Tam EK, Castillo A, et al. (2010) Alcohol consumption and breast cancer recurrence and survival among women with early-stage breast cancer: the life after cancer epidemiology study. *J Clin Oncol* 28(29): 4410-6.
14. Wahdan-Alaswad RS, Edgerton SM, Salem HS, Thor AD (2018) Metformin Targets Glucose Metabolism in Triple Negative Breast Cancer. *J Oncol Transl Res* 4(1): 129.
15. Wolf I, Sadetzki S, Catane R, Karasik A, Kaufman B (2005) Diabetes mellitus and breast cancer. *Lancet Oncol* 6(2): 103-11.
16. Shaw RJ (2006) Glucose metabolism and cancer. *Curr Opin Cell Biol* 18(6): 598–608.
17. Becker S, Dossus L, Kaaks R (2009) Obesity related hyperinsulinaemia and hyperglycaemia and cancer development. *Arch Physiol Biochem* 115(2): 86–96.

18. Xue F, Michels KB (2007) Diabetes, metabolic syndrome, and breast cancer: a review of the current evidence. *Am J Clin Nutr* 86(3): s823-35.
19. Cufí S, Vazquez-Martin A, Oliveras-Ferreros C, Martin-Castillo B, Joven J, et al. (2010) Metformin against TGF $\beta$ -induced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT): from cancer stem cells to aging-associated fibrosis. *Cell Cycle* 9(22): 4461-8.
20. Davison Z, de Blacquièrre GE, Westley BR, May FE (2011) Insulin-like growth factor-dependent proliferation and survival of triple-negative breast cancer cells: implications for therapy. *Neoplasia* 13(6): 504-15.
21. Alaswad RSW, Cochrane DR, Spoelstra NS, Howe EN, Edgerton SM, et al. (2014) Metformin-induced killing of triple-negative breast cancer cells is mediated by reduction in fatty acid synthase via miRNA-193b. *Horm Cancer* 5(6): 374-89.
22. WARBURG O (1956) On respiratory impairment in cancer cells. *Science* 124(3215): 269-70.
23. Gandini S, et al. Metformin and breast cancer risk. *J Clin Oncol* 2013;31(7):973-4.
24. Knowles LM, Yang C, Osterman A, Smith JW (2008) Inhibition of fatty-acid synthase induces caspase-8-mediated tumor cell apoptosis by up-regulating DDIT4. *J Biol Chem* 283(46): 31378-84.
25. Pizer ES, Wood FD, Pasternack GR, Kuhajda FP (1996) Fatty acid synthase (FAS): a target for cytotoxic antimetabolites in HL60 promyelocytic leukemia cells. *Cancer Res* 56(4): 745-51.
26. Samudio I, Harmancey R, Fiegl M, Kantarjian H, Konopleva M, et al. (2010) Pharmacologic inhibition of fatty acid oxidation sensitizes human leukemia cells to apoptosis induction. *J Clin Invest* 120(1): 142-56.
27. Irwin ML, Duggan C, Wang CY, Smith AW, McTiernan A, et al. (2011) Fasting C-peptide levels and death resulting from all causes and breast cancer: the health, eating, activity, and lifestyle study. *J Clin Oncol* 29(1): 47-53.
28. Kahn B.B and Flier JS (2000) Obesity and insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest* 106(4): 473-481.
29. Kim YB, Nikoulina SE, Ciaraldi TP, Henry RR, Kahn BB (1999) Normal insulin-dependent activation of Akt/protein kinase B, with diminished activation of phosphoinositide 3-kinase, in muscle in type 2 diabetes. *J Clin Invest* 104(6):733-41.
30. Colditz GA, Willett WC, Stampfer MJ, Manson JE, Hennekens CH, et al. (1990) Weight as a risk factor for clinical diabetes in women. *Am J Epidemiol* 132(3): 501-13.
31. Kissebah AH, Krakower GR (1994) Regional adiposity and morbidity. *Physiol Rev.* 74(4):761-811.
32. Sun H, Zou J, Chen L, Zu X, Wen G, et al. (2017) Triple-negative breast cancer and its association with obesity. *Mol Clin Oncol* 7(6): 935-942.
33. Baserga R, Peruzzi F, Reiss K (2003) The IGF-1 receptor in cancer biology. *Int J Cancer* 107(6): 873-7.
34. Resnik JL, Reichart DB, Huey K, Webster NJ, Seely BL (1998) Elevated insulin-like growth factor I receptor autophosphorylation and kinase activity in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 58(6): 1159-64.
35. Carboni JM, Lee AV, Hadsell DL, Rowley BR, Lee FY, et al. (2005) Tumor development by transgenic expression of a constitutively active insulin-like growth factor I receptor. *Cancer Res* 65(9): 3781-7.
36. Jones RA, Campbell CI, Gunther EJ, Chodosh LA, Petrik JJ, et al. (2007) Transgenic overexpression of IGF-IR disrupts mammary ductal morphogenesis and induces tumor formation. *Oncogene* 26(11): 1636-44.
37. Irie HY, Pearline RV, Grueneberg D, Hsia M, Ravichandran P, et al. (2005) Distinct roles of Akt1 and Akt2 in regulating cell migration and epithelial-mesenchymal transition. *J Cell Biol* 171(6): 1023-34.
38. Kim HJ, Litzemberger BC, Cui X, Delgado DA, Grabiner BC, et al. (2007) Constitutively active type I insulin-like growth factor receptor causes transformation and xenograft growth of immortalized mammary epithelial cells and is accompanied by an epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition mediated by NF-kappaB and snail. *Mol Cell Biol* 27(8): 3165-75.
39. Yanochko GM, Eckhart W (2006) Type I insulin-like growth factor receptor over-expression induces proliferation and anti-apoptotic signaling in a three-dimensional culture model of breast epithelial cells. *Breast Cancer Res* 8(2): R18.
40. Litzemberger BC, Creighton CJ, Tsimelzon A, Chan BT, Hilsenbeck SG, et al. (2011) High IGF-IR activity in triple-negative breast cancer cell lines and tumorgrafts correlates with sensitivity to anti-IGF-IR therapy. *Clin Cancer Res* 17(8): 2314-27.
41. Sarfstein R, Maor S, Reizner N, Abramovitch S, Werner H (2006) Transcriptional regulation of the insulin-like growth factor-I receptor gene in breast cancer. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 252(1-2): 241-6.
42. Yu H, Levesque MA, Khosravi MJ, Papanastasiou-Diamandi A, Clark GM, et al. (1996) Associations between insulin-like growth factors and their binding proteins and other prognostic indicators in breast cancer. *Br J Cancer* 74(8): 1242-7.
43. Rocha RL, Hilsenbeck SG, Jackson JG, Lee AV, Figueroa JA, et al. (1996) Correlation of insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-3 messenger RNA with protein expression in primary breast cancer tissues: detection of higher levels in tumors with poor prognostic features. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 88(9): 601-6.
44. Probst-Hensch NM, Steiner JH, Schraml P, Varga Z, Zürrer-Härdi U, et al. (2010) IGFBP2 and IGFBP3 protein expressions in human breast cancer: association with hormonal factors and obesity. *Clin Cancer Res* 16(3): 1025-32.
45. Neve RM, Chin K, Fridlyand J, Yeh J, Baehner FL, et al. (2006) A collection of breast cancer cell lines for the study of functionally distinct cancer subtypes. *Cancer Cell* 10(6): 515-27.
46. Martin JL, Baxter RC (2007) Expression of insulin-like growth factor binding protein-2 by MCF-7 breast cancer cells is regulated through the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/AKT/mammalian target of rapamycin pathway. *Endocrinology* 148(5): 2532-41.
47. Martin JL, de Silva HC, Lin MZ, Scott CD, Baxter RC (2014) Inhibition of insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-3 signaling through sphingosine kinase-1 sensitizes triple-negative breast cancer cells to EGF receptor blockade. *Mol Cancer Ther* 13(2): 316-28.
48. Mathur R (2011) Insulin resistance and the use of metformin: effects on body weight. *Bariatric times* 8(1): 10-12.
49. Correia S, Carvalho C, Santos MS, Seica R, Oliveira CR, et al. (2008) Mechanisms of action of metformin in type 2 diabetes and associated complications: an overview. *Mini Rev Med Chem* 8(13): 1343-1354.
50. Zoe D, Gail E.de Blacquièrre, Bruce R Westley, Felicity EB (2011) Insulin like growth factor- dependent proliferation and survival of



- triple negative breast cancer cells: Implications for therapy. *Neoplasia* 13(6): 504-515.
51. Duggan C, Irwin ML, Xiao L (2011) Associations of insulin resistance and adiponectin with mortality in women with breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 29(1): 32–39.
  52. Almudena Gomez-Hernand, Nuria Beneit (2016) Differential role of adipose tissues in obesity and related metabolic and vascular complications. *J Endocrinol* 2016: 1216783.
  53. Lowell BB, Susulic VS, Hamann A (1993) Development of obesity in transgenic mice after genetic ablation of brown adipose tissue. *Nature* 366(6457): 740–742.
  54. Yang X, Enerback S, Smith U (2003) Reduced expression of FOXC2 and brown adipogenic genes in human subjects with insulin resistance. *Obes Res* 11 (10): 1182–1191.
  55. Almind K, Manieri M, Sivitz WI, Cinti S, Kahn CR (2007) Ectopic brown adipose tissue in muscle provides a mechanism for differences in risk of metabolic syndrome in mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 104(7): 2366–2371.
  56. Mathieu P, Lemieux I, Despres JP (2010) Obesity, inflammation, and cardiovascular risk. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 87(4): 407–416.
  57. Gil A, Aguilera CM, Gil-Campos M (2007) Altered signalling and gene expression associated with the immune system and the inflammatory response in obesity. *Br J Nutr* 98(1): S121–S126.
  58. Baker RG, Hayden MS, Ghosh S (2011) NF- $\kappa$ B, inflammation, and metabolic disease. *Cell Metab* 13(1): 11–22.
  59. Chawla A, Nguyen KD, Goh YPS (2011) Macrophage mediated inflammation in metabolic disease. *Nat Rev Immunol* 11(11): 738–749.
  60. Nishimura S, Manabe I, Nagasaki M (2009) CD8+ effector T cells contribute to macrophage recruitment and adipose tissue inflammation in obesity. *Nat Med* 15(8): 914–920.
  61. Crandall DL, Hausman GJ, Kral JG (1997) A review of the microcirculation of adipose tissue: anatomic, metabolic, and angiogenic perspectives. *Microcirculation* 4(2): 211-232.
  62. Masanori O, Yoshihisa TM, Fernando AA (2021) Adipogenesis in triple-negative breast cancer is associated with unfavourable tumor immune microenvironment and with worse survival. *Scientific reports* 11: 12541.
  63. Jarde T, Perrier S, Vasson MP (2011) Molecular mechanisms of leptin and adiponectin in breast cancer. *Eur J Cancer* 47(1): 33–43.
  64. Wang Y, Lam JB, Lam KSL (2006) Adiponectin modulates the glycogen synthase kinase-3 $\beta$ / $\beta$ -catenin signaling pathway and attenuates mammary tumorigenesis of MDA-MB-231 cells in nude mice. *Cancer Res* 66(23): 11462–11470.
  65. Dirat B (2011) Cancer-associated adipocytes exhibit an activated phenotype and contribute to breast cancer invasion. *Cancer Res* 71(7): 2455–2465.
  66. Tokumaru Y (2020) Intratumoral adipocyte-high breast cancer enrich for metastatic and inflammation-related pathways but associated with less cancer cell proliferation. *Int J Mol Sci* 21(16): 5744.
  67. Wu Q (2019) Cancer-associated adipocytes: Key players in breast cancer progression. *J Hematol Oncol* 12(1): 95.
  68. Leibovich-Rivkin T, Liubomirski Y, Bernstein B, Meshel T, Ben-Baruch A (2013) Inflammatory factors of the tumor microenvironment induce plasticity in nontransformed breast epithelial cells: EMT, invasion, and collapse of normally organized breast textures. *Neoplasia* 15(12): 1330–1346.
  69. Yu H, Lee H, Herrmann A, Buettner R, Jove R (2014) Revisiting STAT3 signalling in cancer: New and unexpected biological functions. *Nat Rev Cancer* 14(11): 736–746.
  70. Rogozina OP, Bonorden MJ, Seppanen CN, Grande JP, Cleary MP (2011) Effect of chronic and intermittent calorie restriction on serum adiponectin and leptin and mammary tumorigenesis. *Cancer Prev Res (Phila)* 4(4): 568–581.
  71. Sundaram S, Johnson AR, Makowski L (2013) Obesity, metabolism and the microenvironment: Links to cancer. *J Carcinog* 12: 19.
  72. Suet Ching Chen, Rebecca Brooks, Jessica House Keeper (2017) Metformin suppress adipogenesis through both AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK)-dependent and AMPK-independent mechanisms. *Mol Cell Endocrinol* 440: 57-68.
  73. Kim EI (2012) Human mesenchymal stem cell differentiation to the osteogenic or adipogenic lineage is regulated by AMP-activated protein kinase. *J Cell Physiol* 227: 1680-1687.
  74. Kobashigawa LC (2014) Metformin protects cardiomyocyte from doxorubicin induced cytotoxicity through an AMP-activated protein kinase dependent signaling pathway: an in vitro study. *PLoS One* 9(8): 104888.
  75. Foretz M (2010) Metformin inhibits hepatic gluconeogenesis in mice independently of the LKB1/AMPK pathway via a decrease in hepatic energy state. *J Clin Invest* 120(7): 2355-2369.
  76. Jang WG (2011) Metformin induces osteoblast differentiation via orphan nuclear receptor SHP-mediated transactivation of Run x2. *Bone* 48(4): 885-893.
  77. Moeno-Navarrete (2011) OCT1 expression in adipocytes could contribute to increased metformin action in obese subjects. *Diabetes* 60(1): 168-176.
  78. Longnus SL (2005) Insulin signaling downstream of protein kinase B is potentiated by 5' AMPK-activated protein in rat heart in vivo. *Diabetologia* 48(12): 2591-2601.
  79. Parul S (2010) Metabolic effects of obesity: A review. *World J Diabetes* 1(3): 76-88.
  80. Bray GA (2004) Medical consequences of obesity. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 89: 2583-2589.
  81. Kopelman PG (2000) Obesity as a medical problem. *Nature* 404(6778): 635-643.
  82. Shepherd PR, Kahn BB (1999) Glucose transporters and insulin action--implications for insulin resistance and diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med* 341(4): 248-257.
  83. Shepherd PR, Gnudi L, Tozzo E, Yang H, Leach F et al. (1993) Adipose cell hyperplasia and enhanced glucose disposal in transgenic mice overexpressing GLUT4 selectively in adipose tissue. *J Biol Chem* 268(30): 22243-22246.
  84. Van Hall G, Steensberg A, Sacchetti M, Fischer C, Keller C et al. (2003) Interleukin-6 stimulates lipolysis and fat oxidation in humans. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 88(7): 3005-3010.
  85. Souza SC, Palmer HJ, Kang YH, Yamamoto MT, Muliro KV et al. (2003) TNF-alpha induction of lipolysis is mediated through activation of the extracellular signal related kinase pathway in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. *J Cell Biochem* 89(6): 1077-1086.
  86. Reaven GM, Lerner RL, Stern MP, Farquhar JW (1967) Role of insulin in endogenous hypertriglyceridemia. *J Clin Invest* 46(11): 1756-1767.

87. Barter PJ, Nestel PJ (1973) Precursors of plasma triglyceride fatty acids in obesity. *Metabolism* 22(6): 779-783.
88. Kissebah AH, Alfarsi S, Adams PW, Wynn V (1976) The metabolic fate of plasma lipoproteins in normal subjects and in patients with insulin resistance and endogenous hypertriglyceridaemia. *Diabetologia* 12(5): 501-509.
89. Lewis GF, Uffelman KD, Szeto LW, Steiner G (1993) Effects of acute hyperinsulinemia on VLDL triglyceride and VLDL apoB production in normal weight and obese individuals. *Diabetes* 42(6): 833-842.
90. Yu KC, Cooper AD (2001) Postprandial lipoproteins and atherosclerosis. *Front Biosci* 6: D332-D354.
91. Van Lenten BJ, Hama SY, de Beer FC, Stafforini DM, McIntyre TM et al. (1995) Anti-inflammatory HDL becomes pro-inflammatory during the acute phase response. Loss of protective effect of HDL against LDL oxidation in aortic wall cell cocultures. *J Clin Invest* 96: 2758-2767.
92. Esposito K, Gentile S, Candido R, De Micheli A, Gallo M, et al. (2013) Management of hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes: evidence and uncertainty. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 12: 81.
93. Osaki Y, Taniguchi S, Tahara A, Okamoto M, Kishimoto T (2012) Metabolic syndrome and incidence of liver and breast cancers in Japan. *Cancer Epidemiol* 36: 141-147.
94. Rosato V, Bosetti C, Talamini R, Levi F, Montella M, et al. (2011) Metabolic syndrome and the risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *Ann Oncol* 22: 2687-2692.
95. Gezen G, Roach EC, Kizilarlanoglu MC, Petekkaya I, Altundag K (2012) Metabolic syndrome and breast cancer: An overview. *J Buon* 17: 223-229.
96. Warburg O, Wind F, Negelein E (1927) The Metabolism of Tumors in the Body. *J Gen Physiol* 8: 519-530.
97. Giles ED, Wellberg EA, Astling DP, Anderson SM, Thor AD, et al. (2012) Obesity and overfeeding affecting both tumor and systemic metabolism activates the progesterone receptor to contribute to postmenopausal breast cancer. *Cancer Res* 72(24): 6490-6501.
98. Lanning NJ, Castle JP, Singh SJ, Leon AN, Tovar EA, et al. (2017) Metabolic profiling of triple-negative breast cancer cells reveals metabolic vulnerabilities. *Cancer Metab* 5: 6.
99. Goodwin PJ, Pritchard KI, Ennis M, Clemons M, Graham M, et al. (2008) Insulin-lowering effects of metformin in women with early breast cancer. *Clin Breast Cancer* 8: 501-505.
100. Goodwin PJ, Stambolic V (2011) Obesity and insulin resistance in breast cancer-chemoprevention strategies with a focus on metformin. *Breast* 20: 31-35.
101. Goodwin PJ, Thompson AM, Stambolic V (2012) Diabetes, metformin, and breast cancer: lilac time? *J Clin Oncol* 30(23): 2812-4.
102. Mayas MD, Ortega FJ, Macías-González M, Bernal R, Gómez-Huelgas R, et al. (2010) Inverse relation between FASN expression in human adipose tissue and the insulin resistance level. *Nutr Metab (Lond)* 7: 3.
103. Scott CL (2003) Diagnosis, prevention, and intervention for the metabolic syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 92(1A): 35i-42i.
104. Ginsberg HN (2003) Treatment for patients with the metabolic syndrome. *Am J Cardiol* 91: 29E-39E.
105. Fajas L, Debril MB, Auwerx J (2001) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma: from adipogenesis to carcinogenesis. *J Mol Endocrinol* 27(1): 1-9.
106. Mobbs CV, Makimura H (2002) Block the FAS, lose the fat. *Nat Med* 8(4): 335-6.
107. Loftus TM, Jaworsky DE, Frehywot GL, Townsend CA, Ronnett GV, et al. (2000) Reduced food intake and body weight in mice treated with fatty acid synthase inhibitors. *Science*. 288(5475): 2379-81.
108. Diraison F, Dusserre E, Vidal H, Sothier M, Beylot M (2002) Increased hepatic lipogenesis but decreased expression of lipogenic gene in adipose tissue in human obesity. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 282(1): E46-51.
109. Wakil SJ (1989) Fatty acid synthase, a proficient multifunctional enzyme. *Biochemistry* 28(11): 4523-30.
110. Berndt J, Kovacs P, Ruschke K, Klötting N, Fasshauer M, et al. (2007) Fatty acid synthase gene expression in human adipose tissue: association with obesity and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetologia* 50(7): 1472-80.
111. Blüher M, Michael MD, Peroni OD, Ueki K, Carter N, et al. (2002) Adipose tissue selective insulin receptor knockout protects against obesity and obesity-related glucose intolerance. *Dev Cell* 3(1): 25-38.
112. Blüher M, Patti ME, Gesta S, Kahn BB, Kahn CR (2004) Intrinsic heterogeneity in adipose tissue of fat-specific insulin receptor knock-out mice is associated with differences in patterns of gene expression. *J Biol Chem* 279(31): 891-31901.
113. Giró-Perafita A, Sarrats A, Pérez-Bueno F, Oliveras G, Buxó M, et al. (2017) Fatty acid synthase and its association with clinic and histopathological features in TNBC. *Oncotarget Fatty* 8(43): 74391-74405.
114. Orita H, Coulter J, Lemmon C, Tully E, Vadlamudi A et al. (2007) Selective inhibition of fatty acid synthase for lung cancer treatment. *Clin Cancer Res* 13(23): 7139-45.
115. Alò PL, Visca P, Trombetta G, Mangoni A, Lenti L, et al. (1999) Fatty acid synthase (FAS) predictive strength in poorly differentiated early breast carcinomas. *Tumori* 85: 35-40.
116. Gansler TS, Hardman W, Hunt DA, Schaffel S, Hennigar RA (1997) Increased expression of fatty acid synthase (OA-519), *Oncotarget* 74404 in ovarian neoplasms predicts shorter survival *Hum Pathol*. 28(6): 86-92.
117. Notarnicola M, Tutino V, Calvani M, Lorusso D, Guerra V, et al. (2012) Serum levels of fatty acid synthase in colorectal cancer patients are associated with tumor stage. *J Gastrointest Cancer* 43(3): 508-11.
118. Veigel D, Wagner R, Stübiger G, Wuczkowski M, Filipits M, et al. (2015) Fatty acid synthase is a metabolic marker of cell proliferation rather than malignancy in ovarian cancer and its precursor cells. *Int J Cancer* 136(9): 2078-90.
119. Kim S, Lee Y, Koo JS (2015) Differential expression of lipid metabolism-related proteins in different breast cancer subtypes. *PLoS One* 10(3): e0119473.
120. Piyathilake CJ, Frost AR, Manne U, Bell WC, Weiss H, et al. (2000) The expression of fatty acid synthase (FASN) is an early event in the development and progression of squamous cell carcinoma of the lung. *Hum Pathol* 31(9): 1068-73.
121. Ventura R, Mordec K, Waszczuk J, Wang Z, Lai J, et al. (2015) Inhibition of de novo palmitate synthesis by fatty acid synthase induces apoptosis in tumor cells by remodeling cell membranes, inhibiting signaling pathways, and reprogramming gene expression. *EBioMedicine* 2(8): 806-22.

122. Giró-Perafita A, Palomeras S, Lum D, Blancafort A, Viñas G, et al. (2016) Preclinical evaluation of fatty acid synthase and EGFR inhibition in triple negative breast cancer. *Clin Cancer Res* 22(18): 4687-97.
123. Blancafort A, Giró-Perafita A, Oliveras G, Palomeras S, Turrado C, et al. (2015) Dual fatty acid synthase and HER2 signaling blockade shows marked antitumor activity against breast cancer models resistant to anti-HER2 drugs. *PLoS One* 10(6): e0131241.
124. Puig T, Turrado C, Benhamu B, Aguilar H, Relat J, et al. (2009) Novel inhibitors of fatty acid synthase with anticancer activity. *Clin Cancer Res* 15(24): 7608-15.
125. Puig T, Vázquez-Martín A, Relat J, Pétriz J, Menéndez JA, et al. (2008) Fatty acid metabolism in breast cancer cells: differential inhibitory effects of epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG) and C75. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 109: 471-9.
126. Puig T, Aguilar H, Cufí S, Oliveras G, Turrado C, et al. (2011) A novel inhibitor of fatty acid synthase shows activity against HER2+ breast cancer xenografts and is active in anti HER2 drug-resistant cell lines. *Breast Cancer Res* 13(6): R131.
127. Harris JR, Lippman ME, Morrow M, Osborne CK. *Diseases of the Breast: Fifth Edition*. 2014. Wolters Kluwer Health Adis (ESP) ISBN: 9781451186277.
128. Visca P, Sebastiani V, Botti C, Diodoro MG, Lasagni RP, et al. (2004) Fatty acid synthase (FAS) is a marker of increased risk of recurrence in lung carcinoma. *Anticancer Res* 4:169-73.
129. Duan J, Sun L, Huang H, Wu Z, Wang L, et al. (2016) Overexpression of fatty acid synthase predicts a poor prognosis for human gastric cancer. *Mol Med Rep* 13(4): 3027-35.
130. Vazquez-Martin A, Corominas-Faja B, Cufi S, Vellon L, Oliveras-Ferraro C, et al. (2013) The mitochondrial H(+)-ATP synthase and the lipogenic switch: new core components of metabolic reprogramming in induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells. *Cell Cycle* 12(2): 207-218.
131. Vazquez-Martin A, Cufi S, Lopez-Bonet E, Corominas-Faja B, Oliveras-Ferraro C, et al. (2012) Metformin limits the tumorigenicity of iPS cells without affecting their pluripotency. *Sci Rep* 2: 964.
132. Knobloch M, Braun SMG, Zurkirchen L, Schoultz CV, Zamboni N, et al. (2013) Metabolic control of adult neural stem cell activity by Fasn-dependent lipogenesis. *Nature* 493(7431): 226-230.
133. Wang X, Sun Y, Wong J, Conklin DS (2013) PPARgamma maintains ERBB2-positive breast cancer stem cells. *Oncogene* 32(49): 5512-5521.
134. Liu B, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Deng XS, Alimova IN, et al. (2009) Metformin induces unique biological and molecular responses in triple negative breast cancer cells. *Cell Cycle* 8(13): 2031-2040.
135. Wahdan-Alaswad R, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Liu B, Deng XS, et al. (2013) Glucose promotes breast cancer aggression and reduces metformin efficacy. *Cell Cycle* 12(24): 3759-3769.
136. Esslimani-Sahla M, Thezenas S, Simony-Lafontaine J, Kramar A, Lavail R, et al. (2007) Increased expression of fatty acid synthase and progesterone receptor in early steps of human mammary carcinogenesis. *Int J Cancer* 120(2): 224-229.
137. Chalbos D, Joyeux C, Galtier F, Rochefort H (1992) Progesterone-induced fatty acid synthetase in human mammary tumors: from molecular to clinical studies. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 43(1-3): 223-228.
138. Oyeux C, Chalbos D, Rochefort H (1990) Effects of progestins and menstrual cycle on fatty acid synthetase and progesterone receptor in human mammary glands. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 70(5): 1438-1444.
139. Chalbos D, Escot C, Joyeux C, Tissot-Carayon MJ, Pages A, et al. (1990) Expression of the progesterone-induced fatty acid synthetase in benign mastopathies and breast cancer as measured by RNA in situ hybridization. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 82(7): 602-606.
140. Chalbos D, Joyeux C, Galtier F, Escot C, Chambon M, et al. (1990) Regulation of fatty acid synthetase by progesterone in normal and tumoral human mammary glands. *Rev Esp Fisiol* 46(1): 43-46.
141. Chambon M, Rochefort H, Vial HJ, Chalbos D (1989) Progesterone and androgens stimulate lipid accumulation in T47D breast cancer cells via their own receptors. *J Steroid Biochem* 33(5): 915-922.
142. Oyeux C, Rochefort H, Chalbos D (1989) Progesterone increases gene transcription and messenger ribonucleic acid stability of fatty acid synthetase in breast cancer cells. *Mol Endocrinol* 3(4): 681-686.
143. Chalbos D, Chambon M, Ailhaud G, Rochefort H (1987) Fatty acid synthetase and its mRNA are induced by progestins in breast cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* 262(21): 9923-9926.
144. Martel PM, Bingham CM, McGraw CJ, Baker CL, Morganelli PM, et al (2006) S14 protein in breast cancer cells: direct evidence of regulation by SREBP-1c, superinduction with progesterone, effects on cell growth. *Exp Cell Res* 312(3): 278-288.
145. Menendez JA, Lupu R, Colomer R (2005) Obesity, fatty acid synthase, and cancer: serendipity or forgotten causal linkage? *Mol Genet Metab* 84(3): 293-295.
146. Menendez JA, Mehmi I, Atlas E, Colomer R, Lupu R, et al. (2004) Novel signaling molecules implicated in tumor-associated fatty acid synthase-dependent breast cancer cell proliferation and survival: role of exogenous dietary fatty p53-p21WAF1/CIP1, ERK1/2 MAPK, p27KIP1, BRCA1, and NF-kappaB. *Int J Oncol* 24(3): 591-608.
147. Seguin F, Carvalho MA, Bastos DC, Agostini M, Zecchin KG, et al. (2012) The fatty acid synthase inhibitor orlistat reduces experimental metastases and angiogenesis in B16-F10 melanomas. *Br J Cancer* 107(6): 977-987.
148. Zaytseva YY, Rychahou PG, Gulhati P, Elliott VA, Mustain WC, et al. (2012) Inhibition of fatty acid synthase attenuates CD44-associated signaling and reduces metastasis in colorectal cancer. *Cancer Res* 72(6): 1504-1517.
149. Mao JH, Zhou RP, Peng AF, Liu ZL, Huang SH, et al. (2012) microRNA-195 suppresses osteosarcoma cell invasion and migration in vitro by targeting FASN. *Oncol Lett* 4(5): 1125-1129.
150. Park JH, Ahn J, Kim S, Kwon DY, Ha TY (2011) Murine hepatic miRNAs expression and regulation of gene expression in diet-induced obese mice. *Mol Cells* 31(1): 33-38.
151. Shirasaki T, Honda M, Shimakami T, Horii R, Yamashita T, et al. (2013) MicroRNA-27a regulates lipid metabolism and inhibits hepatitis C virus replication in human hepatoma cells. *J Virol* 87(9): 5270-5286.
152. Zhong D, Zhang Y, Zeng YJ, Gao M, Wu GZ, et al. (2013) MicroRNA-613 represses lipogenesis in HepG2 cells by down regulating LXRα. *Lipids Health Dis* 12: 32.
153. Reema S W-A, Susan M E, Hiba SS, Thor (2018) Metformin Targets Cholesterol Biosynthesis Pathway, GM1 Lipid Raft Stabilization, EGFR Signaling and Proliferation in Triple Negative Breast Cancers. *Canc Therapy & Oncol Int J* 9(3): ID:555765.

154. Camacho L, Dasgupta A, Jiralerspong S (2015) Metformin in breast cancer - an evolving mystery. *Breast Cancer Res* 17: 88.
155. Morales DR, Morris AD (2015) Metformin in cancer treatment and prevention. *Annu Rev Med* 66: 17-29.
156. Liu B, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Deng XS, Alimova IN, et al. (2009) Metformin induces unique biological and molecular responses in triple negative breast cancer cells. *Cell Cycle* 8(13): 2031-40.
157. Rice S, Pellat L, Ahmetaga A, Bano G, Mason HD, et al. (2015) Dual effect of metformin on growth inhibition and oestradiol production in breast cancer cells. *Int J Mol Med* 35(4): 1088-94.
158. Apontes P, Leontieva OV, Demidenko ZN, Li F, Blagosklonny MV (2011) Exploring long-term protection of normal human fibroblasts and epithelial cells from chemotherapy in cell culture. *Oncotarget* 2(3): 222-33.
159. Deng XS, Wang S, Deng A, Liu B, Edgerton SM, et al. (2012) Metformin targets Stat3 to inhibit cell growth and induce apoptosis in triple-negative breast cancers. *Cell Cycle* 11(2): 367-76.
160. Liu B, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Yang X, Lind SE, et al. (2011) Potent anti-proliferative effects of metformin on trastuzumab-resistant breast cancer cells via inhibition of erbB2/IGF-1 receptor interactions. *Cell Cycle* 10(17): 2959-66.
161. Wahdan-Alaswad R, Harrell JC, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Liu B, et al. (2016) Metformin attenuates transforming growth factor beta (TGF- $\beta$ ) mediated oncogenesis in mesenchymal stem-like/claudin-low triple negative breast cancer. *Cell Cycle* 15(8): 1046-59.
162. Blucher C, Stadler SC (2017) Obesity and Breast Cancer: Current Insights on the Role of Fatty Acids and Lipid Metabolism in Promoting Breast Cancer Growth and Progression. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)* 8: 293.
163. Bauer KR, Brown M, Cress RD, Parise CA, Caggiano V (2007) Descriptive analysis of estrogen receptor (ER)-negative, progesterone receptor (PR)-negative, and HER2-negative invasive breast cancer, the so-called triple-negative phenotype: a population-based study from the California Cancer Registry. *Cancer* 109(9): 1721-1728.
164. Stead LA, Lash TL, Sobieraj JE, Chi DD, Westrup JL, et al. (2009) Triple negative breast cancers. Are increased in black women regardless of age or body mass index. *Breast Cancer Res* 11(2): R18.
165. Bowen RL, Duffy SW, Ryan DA, Hart IR, Jones JL (2008) Early onset of breast cancer in a group of British black women. *Br J Cancer* 98: 277-281.
166. Minn AJ, Gupta GP, Siegel PM, Bos PD, Shu W, et al. (2005) Genes that mediate breast cancer metastasis to lung. *Nature* 436: 518-524.
167. Chen K, Li Y, Guo Z, Zeng Y, Zhang W, et al. (2020) Metformin: current clinical applications in nondiabetic patients with cancer. *Aging (Albany NY)* 12(4): 3993-4009.
168. Ko KP, Ma SH, Yang JJ, Hwang Y, Ahn C, et al. (2015) Metformin intervention in obese non-diabetic patients with breast cancer: phase II randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 153: 361-70.
169. El-Haggar SM, El-Shitany NA, Mostafa MF, El-Bassiouny NA (2016) Metformin may protect nondiabetic breast cancer women from metastasis. *Clin Exp Metastasis* 33: 339-57.
170. Sirkisoon SR, Carpenter RL, Rimkus T, Anderson A, Harrison A, et al. (2018) Interaction between STAT3 and GLI1/tGLI1 oncogenic transcription factors promotes the aggressiveness of triple-negative breast cancers and HER2-enriched breast cancer. *Oncogene* 37(19): 2502-14.
171. Gupta I, Sareyeldin RM, Al-Hashimi I, Al-Thawadi HA, Al Farsi H, et al. (2019) Triple Negative Breast Cancer Profile, from Gene to microRNA, in Relation to Ethnicity. *Cancers (Basel)* 11(3): 363.
172. Bousoik E, Montazeri Aliabadi H (2018) "Do we know Jack" about JAK? A closer look at JAK/STAT signaling pathway. *Front Oncol* 8: 287.
173. Furtek SL, Backos DS, Matheson CJ, Reigan P (2016) Strategies and approaches of targeting STAT3 for Cancer treatment. *ACS Chem Biol* 11(2): 308-18.
174. Zhuang S (2013) Regulation of STAT signaling by acetylation. *Cell Signal* 25(9): 1924-31.
175. Akira S, Nishio Y, Inoue M, Wang XJ, Wei S, et al. (1994) Molecular cloning of APRF, a novel IFN-stimulated gene factor 3 p91-related transcription factor involved in the gp130-mediated signaling pathway. *Cell* 77(1): 63-71.
176. Zhong Z, Wen Z, Darnell JE (1994) Stat3: a STAT family member activated by tyrosine phosphorylation in response to epidermal growth factor and interleukin-6. *Science* 264(5155): 95-8.
177. Huynh J, Chand A, Gough D, Ernst M (2019) Therapeutically exploiting STAT3 activity in cancer - using tissue repair as a road map. *Nat Rev Cancer* 19(2): 82-96.
178. Johnson DE, O'Keefe RA, Grandis JR (2018) Targeting the IL-6/JAK/STAT3 signalling axis in cancer. *Nat Rev Clin Oncol* 15(4): 234-48.
179. Guanizo AC, Fernando CD, Garama DJ, Gough DJ (2018) STAT3: a multifaceted oncoprotein. *Growth Factors* 36(1-2): 1-14.
180. Shields BJ, Wiede F, Gurzov EN, Wee K, Hauser C, et al. (2013) TCPTP regulates SFK and STAT3 signaling and is lost in triple-negative breast cancers. *Mol Cell Biol* 33(3): 557-70.
181. Yang R, Rincon M (2016) Mitochondrial Stat3, the need for design thinking. *Int J Biol Sci* 12(5): 532-44.
182. Wegrzyn J, Potla R, Chwae YJ, Sepuri NB, Zhang Q, et al. (2009) Function of mitochondrial Stat3 in cellular respiration. *Science* 323(5915): 793-7.
183. Zhang Q, Raje V, Yakovlev VA, Yacoub A, Szczepanek K, et al. (2013) Mitochondrial localized Stat3 promotes breast cancer growth via phosphorylation of serine 727. *J Biol Chem* 288(43): 31280-8
184. Lee H, Zhang P, Herrmann A, Yang C, Xin H, et al. (2012) Acetylated STAT3 is crucial for methylation of tumor-suppressor gene promoters and inhibition by resveratrol results in demethylation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109(20): 7765-9
185. Lu L, Dong J, Wang L, Xia Q, Zhang D, et al. (2018) Activation of STAT3 and Bcl-2 and reduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) promote radioresistance in breast cancer and overcome of radioresistance with niclosamide. *Oncogene* 37(39): 5292-304.
186. Oh E, Kim YJ, An H, Sung D, Cho TM, et al. (2018) Flubendazole elicits anti-metastatic effects in triple-negative breast cancer via STAT3 inhibition. *Int J Cancer* 143(8): 1978-93.
187. Kim YJ, Kim JY, Lee N, Oh E, Sung D, et al. (2017) Disulfiram suppresses cancer stem-like properties and STAT3 signaling in triple-negative breast cancer cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 486(4): 1069-76.
188. An H, Kim JY, Oh E, Lee N, Cho Y, et al. (2015) Salinomycin promotes Anoikis and decreases the CD44+/CD24- stem-like

- population via inhibition of STAT3 activation in MDA-MB-231 cells. *PLoS One* 10(11): e0141919.
189. Hou S, Yi YW, Kang HJ, Zhang L, Kim HJ, et al. (2014) Novel carbazole inhibits phospho- STAT3 through induction of protein-tyrosine phosphatase PTPN6. *J Med Chem* 57(15): 6342-53.
190. Kang HJ, Yi YW, Hou SJ, Kim HJ, Kong Y, et al. (2017) Disruption of STAT3- DNMT1 interaction by SH-I-14 induces re-expression of tumor suppressor genes and inhibits growth of triple-negative breast tumor. *Oncotarget* 8(48): 83457-68.
191. Hardie DG (2007) AMP-activated protein kinase as a drug target. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 47: 185-210.
192. Zhou G, Myers R, Li Y, Chen Y, Shen X, et al. (2001) Role of AMP-activated protein kinase in mechanism of metformin action. *J Clin Invest* 108(8): 1167-74.
193. Dowling RJ, Zakikhani M, Fantus IG, Pollak M, Sonenberg N (2007) Metformin inhibits mammalian target of rapamycin-dependent translation initiation in breast cancer cells. *Cancer Res* 67(22): 10804-12.
194. Bodmer M, Meier C, Krahenbuhl S, Jick SS, Meier CR (2010) Long-term metformin use is associated with decreased risk of breast cancer. *Diabetes Care* 33(6): 1304-8.
195. Evans JM, Donnelly LA, Emslie-Smith AM, Alessi DR, Morris AD (2005) Metformin and reduced risk of cancer in diabetic patients. *BMJ* 330(7503): 13045.
196. Libby G, Donnelly LA, Donnan PT, Alessi DR, Morris AD, et al. (2009) New users of metformin are at low risk of incident cancer: a cohort study among people with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 32(9): 1620-5.
197. Ben Sahra I, Le Marchand-Brustel Y, Tanti JF, Bost F (2010) Metformin in cancer therapy: a new perspective for an old antidiabetic drug? *Mol Cancer Ther* 9: 1092-9.
198. Goodwin PJ, Stambolic V, Lemieux J, Chen BE, Parulekar WR, et al. (2011) Evaluation of metformin in early breast cancer: a modification of the traditional paradigm for clinical testing of anticancer agents. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 126: 215-20.
199. Wysocki PJ, Wierusz-Wysocka B (2010) Obesity, hyperinsulinemia and breast cancer: novel targets and a novel role for metformin. *Expert Rev Mol Diagn* 10(4): 509-19.
200. Jiralerspong S, Palla SL, Giordano SH, Meric-Bernstam F, Liedtke C, et al. (2009) Metformin and pathologic complete responses to neoadjuvant chemotherapy in diabetic patients with breast cancer. *J Clin Oncol* 27: 3297-302.
201. Alimova IN, Liu B, Fan Z, Edgerton SM, Dillon T, et al. (2009) Metformin inhibits breast cancer cell growth, colony formation and induces cell cycle arrest in vitro. *Cell Cycle* 8(6): 909-15.
202. Bojkova B, Orendas P, Garajova M, Kassayova M, Kutna V, et al. (2009) Metformin in chemically-induced mammary carcinogenesis in rats. *Neoplasma* 56(3): 269-74.
203. Hwang YP, Jeong HG (2010) Metformin blocks migration and invasion of tumour cells by inhibition of matrix metalloproteinase-9 activation through a calcium and protein kinase Calpha-dependent pathway: phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate-induced/extracellular signal-regulated kinase/activator protein-1. *Br J Pharmacol* 160(5): 1195-211.
204. Peibin Yue, James Turkson (2009) Targeting STAT3 in cancer: how successful are we? *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 18(1): 45-56.
205. Nelson EA, Sharma SV, Settleman J, Frank DA (2011) A chemical biology approach to developing STAT inhibitors: molecular strategies for accelerating clinical translation. *Oncotarget* 2(6): 518-24.
206. Zhuang Y, Miskimins WK (2008) Cell cycle arrest in Metformin treated breast cancer cells involves activation of AMPK, downregulation of cyclin D1, and requires p27Kip1 or p21Cip1. *J Mol Signal* 3:18.
207. Hirsch HA, Iliopoulos D, Tsihchlis PN, Struhl K (2009) Metformin selectively targets cancer stem cells, and acts together with chemotherapy to block tumor growth and prolong remission. *Cancer Res* 69: 7507-11.