

**UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE UBERLÂNDIA
INSTITUTO DE BIOTECNOLOGIA
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**IDENTIFICATION OF MUTATIONS POTENTIALLY ASSOCIATED WITH
CHEMORADIOTHERAPY TREATMENT RESPONSE IN CERVICAL CANCER**

**PATOS DE MINAS-MG
JUNHO DE 2023**

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Artigo Científico apresentado ao Instituto de Biotecnologia da Universidade Federal de Uberlândia como requisito final para a obtenção do título de Bacharel em Biotecnologia.

Prof. Dr. Matheus de Souza Gomes

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DEDICATÓRIA

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“We can judge our progress by the courage of our questions and the depth of our answers, our willingness to embrace what is true rather than what feels good”.

- Carl Sagan

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1 **Identification of Mutations Potentially Associated with Chemoradiotherapy**
2 **Treatment Response in Cervical Cancer**

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 **Background**

15 Chemoradiotherapy resistance can significantly influence treatment outcomes in cervical
16 cancer patients. Somatic variants play a crucial role in tumor development and treatment
17 response. This study aimed to identify potentially clinically significant variants associated
18 with chemoradiotherapy response using RNA-seq data analysis.

19 **Methods**

20 RNA-seq data from 31 cervical cancer patients were subjected to variant calling and
21 subsequent analysis using a machine learning decision tree algorithm. Variants within
22 coding genes were selected based on their potential to segregate non-responder and

23 responder groups. The selected variants were further assessed using variant impact
24 prediction tools.

25 **Results**

26 We identified and investigated variants that exhibited potential for distinguishing
27 between non-responder and responder patients. Comprehensive analysis using variant
28 impact prediction tools indicated that these variants may have deleterious effects on
29 gene function. The genes harboring these variants were found to be involved in crucial
30 cellular processes associated with cancer progression, including cell cycle regulation,
31 proliferation, and notably, drug resistance.

32 **Conclusions**

33 Our findings suggest that specific variants, namely MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A,
34 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG, PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T,
35 and NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT, have the potential to serve as indicators
36 of poor chemoradiotherapy response in cervical cancer patients.

37 **Keywords**

38 Cervical Cancer, RNA-seq, Chemoradiotherapy, Somatic Mutations, MUC6, NAP1L1,
39 PABPC1, NLRP4.

40 **Background**

41 Cervical cancer (CC) continues to pose a significant global health burden, ranking as the
42 fourth most prevalent cancer among women worldwide [1]. Locally advanced CC is
43 typically treated with chemoradiotherapy (CRT), which is considered the standard
44 therapeutic approach [2, 3]. CRT has shown a 5-year survival rate of approximately 70%
45 and is associated with low rates of local and distant recurrences [4]. However, the efficacy

46 of CRT is closely intertwined with the development of radio-resistance and drug
47 resistance, both of which are influenced by multiple cellular mechanisms, including
48 proliferation, apoptosis, and cell cycle regulation [5].

49 Somatic mutations play a pivotal role in the development and progression of cancer by
50 disrupting the cell cycle, promoting tumor growth, and contributing to treatment
51 resistance [6]. Oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes are essential for maintaining
52 critical cellular processes, including DNA repair, apoptosis, and cell cycle control [7].
53 Mutations in these genes can directly impair these processes, thereby promoting tumor
54 formation. Additionally, somatic mutations can confer resistance to cancer treatments
55 through various mechanisms. Mutations that affect drug targets or the drug metabolism
56 pathway can render tumor cells resistant to chemotherapy, while the dysregulation of
57 DNA repair pathways can impede treatment strategies reliant on inducing DNA damage
58 [5].

59 The introduction of next-generation sequencing (NGS) has revolutionized cancer
60 research and clinical practice, particularly in the field of RNA sequencing (RNA-seq).
61 RNA-seq has emerged as a highly effective diagnostic tool, allowing for a comprehensive
62 analysis of the transcriptome. By profiling gene expression patterns, RNA-seq provides
63 valuable insights into the molecular landscape of cancer and aids in the identification of
64 genetic biomarkers [8].

65 In addition to RNA-seq, computational tools have significantly enhanced the
66 identification and analysis of genetic biomarkers associated with cancer. Machine
67 learning algorithms, for example, can be leveraged to construct predictive models for
68 classifying different cancer subtypes or predicting treatment response [9]. These

69 algorithms can integrate diverse genomic data, such as gene expression profiles, somatic
70 mutations, and clinical variables, to generate robust and accurate predictions. Such
71 approaches hold great promise in improving cancer diagnosis, treatment selection, and
72 personalized therapy [9].

73 The integration of NGS data and computational tools into clinical decision-making
74 processes offers significant potential. Genetic biomarkers identified through NGS can
75 provide valuable information for treatment selection, prognosis assessment, and the
76 development of personalized therapies [10]. By analyzing the genomic landscape of a
77 patient's tumor, including somatic mutations, gene expression patterns, and other genomic
78 alterations, NGS allows for a more precise and individualized approach to cancer
79 treatment. To facilitate the translation of NGS data into clinical practice, concerted efforts
80 are underway to establish standardized pipelines and databases. Initiatives like The
81 Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) and the International Genome Consortium (ICGC) aim to
82 compile comprehensive genomic data from various cancer types and make it accessible
83 to researchers and clinicians [11]. These resources provide a wealth of information for
84 analyzing and interpreting NGS data, enabling researchers and clinicians to make more
85 informed decisions in the context of cancer diagnosis and treatment. Overall, the
86 integration of NGS data and computational tools, along with the establishment of
87 standardized pipelines and databases, holds great promise for advancing precision
88 medicine and improving patient outcomes in cancer care.

89 The primary objective of this study was to gain deeper insights into the molecular
90 landscape of CC and identify somatic mutations that hold potential as genetic biomarkers
91 regarding CRT response. This was achieved through the analysis of RNA-seq data
92 obtained from CC patients who underwent CRT. The discovery and characterization of

93 these specific mutations have the capacity to significantly augment the clinical decision-
94 making process, facilitating the selection of personalized treatment strategies and
95 ultimately leading to improved patient outcomes.

96 **Materials and methods**

97 **Patients Recruitment and Samples Selection**

98 A total of 31 CC patients were enrolled in this study at the Mario Penna Institute in Belo
99 Horizonte, Brazil, between August 2017 and May 2019. The study protocol received
100 ethical approval from the local Institutional Review Board (Approval No. 1.583.784).
101 Inclusion criteria encompassed patients with no prior history of cancer or immune
102 diseases, a histopathological diagnosis of cervical adenocarcinoma or squamous cell
103 carcinoma, and a cervical cancer diagnosis classified as stage II or III according to the
104 FIGO classification. Written informed consent was obtained from all participants. After
105 diagnosis and biopsy, patients underwent CRT, and comprehensive clinical data were
106 collected and analyzed. Patient classification was based on two primary criteria: treatment
107 response (R) and non-response (NR). The determination of treatment response for each
108 patient involved clinical examinations, pathological analyses, and imaging evaluations.
109 Patients were categorized as R if no cervical neoplastic lesions were detected within 8
110 months post-chemoradiation. Conversely, patients were classified as NR if cervical
111 neoplastic lesions persisted, including cases of partial response, tumor progression, or
112 stable disease, up to 8 months after treatment.

113 **Fluorescence-Activated Cell Sorting (FACS) and RNA sequencing**

114 Tumor cell samples obtained from cervical biopsy underwent fluorescence-activated cell
115 sorting (FACS) in order to differentiate cervical cancer stem-like cells (CCSCs) and non-
116 stem cervical cancer cells (NSCCs) from a complex mixture of tumor cells based on their

117 light scatter and fluorescent staining profile. NSCCs were selected and processed using
118 the SMART-Seq v4 Ultra-low Input RNA Sequencing Kit (Takara Bio USA, CA)
119 following the manufacturer's instructions for cDNA synthesis. Subsequently, the RNA
120 sequencing library was prepared using the Nextera® XT Library Prep Kit (Illumina™)
121 along with the Nextera® XT Index Kit V2 Set A (Illumina™), as per the manufacturer's
122 instructions. Detailed descriptions of these procedures were previously provided by our
123 research group [12].

124 **Transcriptome analysis**

125 Our research group previously conducted the analysis of CCSCs [12]. For the analysis of
126 NSCCs, the quality of the sequencing data was assessed using the FastQC tool [13]. Reads
127 with low quality (Phred score ≤ 25) were filtered out, and adapters were trimmed using
128 the Cutadapt tool [14]. After trimming, the remaining sequences underwent another round
129 of quality assessment using FastQC to ensure the desired quality standards. Subsequently,
130 the sequences were mapped and aligned to the human genome (Homo sapiens GRCh38)
131 using the STAR software [15].

132 **Variant calling, somatic filtering and variant data analysis**

133 Variant calling was performed using BCFtools 1.16 [16]. In order to select high
134 confidence variants, filtering was performed by requiring a minimum Phred quality score
135 30 and a read depth of 100 at the position. In order to exclude potentially germline
136 variants, common population single nucleotide variations (SNVs) present in the dbSNP
137 database were removed from the pool of detected variants.

138 The remaining variants were annotated using Ensembl Variant Effect Predictor (VEP)
139 [17]. Vep includes population allele frequency from databases such as 1000 Genomes

140 Project and Aggregation Database (gnomAD). Variants with population frequencies of
 141 1% or higher were filtered out to further remove germline variants. Multiple impact
 142 prediction tools available on VEP were employed, including SIFT, PolyPhen-2, CADD
 143 and LOUEF. SIFT Indel [18] and SpliceAI-visual [19] were employed to assess the
 144 effects of indels and splice region variants respectively.

145 Vcf2maf [20] was used to generate MAF files from the final pool of variants for further
 146 analysis. Maftools and GenVisR R packages were used for data processing and
 147 visualization.

148 **Association of variants to treatment response**

149 Using the full training approach, decision tree analysis was conducted on somatic variants
 150 of coding genes. The analysis was performed using the WEKA software (Waikato
 151 Environment for Knowledge Analysis, version 3.6.11, University of Waikato, New
 152 Zealand) [21].

153 **Results**

154 **Cohort Clinical Description**

155 Samples from 31 women diagnosed with CC were subjected to NGS analysis. Patient
 156 clinical information and histopathological analysis are summarized in Table 1. Overall
 157 response was evaluated 8 months after ending treatment, 21 patients were classified as
 158 Responders (R) and 10 as Non-responders (NR).

159 Table 1: Clinicopathological characteristics and chemoradiotherapy response.

Patient characteristics		N	Value
Age	Years	31	52.3±16.8
Diagnostic	SCC	30	96.8
	ICA	1	3.2
	IIA	1	3.2

FIGO Stage	IIB	15	48.4
	IIIB	15	48.4
Histological grade	II	13	41.9
	III	13	41.9
	NA	5	16.1
Parametrial involvement	Free	1	3.2
	Unilaterally	7	22.6
	Bilaterally	22	71.0
	NA	1	3.2
Vaginal involvement	Yes	28	90.3
	No	1	3.2
	NA	2	6.5
Lymph node status	NX	8	25.8
	N0	9	29.0
	N1	14	45.2
Metastasis	MX	10	32.3
	M0	9	29.0
	M1	12	38.7
Tumor size (cm)	<4	1	3.2
	≥4	29	93.5
	NA	1	3.2
Overall response	R	21	67.7
	NR	10	32.3

160 The values represent the mean + standard error or %. SCC, Squamous Cell Carcinoma;
 161 ADC, Adenocarcinoma; NR, Non-Responders, R, Responders; NX, Regional lymph
 162 nodes cannot be assessed; N0, No regional lymph node metastasis; N1, Regional lymph
 163 node metastasis; MX, Distant metastasis cannot be assessed; M0, No distant metastasis;
 164 M1, Distant metastasis. NA, Not Available.
 165

166 Cohort Mutation Landscape

167 In total, 34,617 unique variants were found within the cohort, comprised of 30,851
 168 (89.12%) base substitutions and 3,766 (10.88%) indels. 24,432 (79.58%) variants were
 169 classified as novel, while 10,185 (29.42%) were previously annotated in variant
 170 databases. Only 522 (1.51%) variants were located in coding genes, the vast majority of
 171 the identified variants were located in non-coding transcripts of varying types, with long
 172 non-coding RNA being the most predominant. Only coding gene variants were selected
 173 for further analysis in this study, and a comprehensive statistical summary of this data is
 174 available in Supplementary Figure 1.

175 In the top 10 mutated genes, we observed the recurrence of genes MUC3A, MUC6, HLA-
176 DRB1 and GOLGA6L10 [22,23,24], which were previously reported in CC, and novel
177 genes SPATA22, FER1L5, SPDYE1, ACTR3B, ADAMTSL3 and TRIM45. Figure 1
178 displays an overview of the most mutated genes per patient, including the presence of
179 variants in non-coding regions.

180 **Variants associated to non-response**

181 A total of 522 coding gene variants were included in the decision tree analysis. The
182 decision tree successfully segregated responders and non-responder patients based on
183 four junction points, each corresponding to a different variant (Figure 2).

184 These variants were labeled as NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT
185 MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A, PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T, and
186 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064A>G. It is worth noting that although the decision tree
187 only reported one variant per gene, further investigation showed the co-occurrence of two
188 additional SNVs in the NAP1L1 gene. One was labeled as
189 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1062T>C, while the other was adjacent to
190 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064A>G, revealing them to be a deletion-insertion (delins)
191 which we labeled NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG. The additional
192 variants have been included in our analysis in order to provide a more comprehensive
193 overview of the genetic variations within that gene. A comprehensive summary report of
194 the variants, including known functions of affected genes, is available in Table 2. The
195 deleterious potential of missense variants was assessed using scores from different variant
196 impact prediction tools available on VEP (Table 3). Prediction tools SIFT Indel and
197 SpliceAI were employed on suitable variants.

Table 98 Summary of variants identified as potential indicators of poor CRT response

Variant	Consequence	Patients	Database IDs	Population frequency	Gene functions
MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A	Missense	17, 48, 123	rs756062369 COSV70132617 COSV70143795	0.00000798	Extracellular matrix structural constituent, maintenance of gastrointestinal epithelium, β -catenin degradation
NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG	Missense	63, 97	novel	Not found	Histone chaperone, nucleosome assembly, nucleotide excision repair, mitotic DNA double strand break repair, cell cycle progression
NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1062T>C	Synonymous & Splice region		novel	Not found	
PABPC1(ENST00000318607.10):c.1255C>T	Missense	17, 63	rs766099049	0.00428	mRNA Translation, mRNA Decay, miRNA-mediated repression, NMD, L1 Retrotransposition, mRNA localization, local translation
NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT	Frameshift insertion	103, 121	novel	Not found	Inflammatory response, Regulation of inflammatory response, NF- κ B inhibition

199

Table 99 Missense variants and respective assigned scores from variant impact prediction tools.

Variant	SIFT	PolyPhen-2	BLOSUM62	CADD	LOEUF	PhyloP100way
MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A	tolerated(0.12)	probably_damaging (0.912)	-1	8.197	0.97	-1.725
NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG	tolerated(0.11)	probably_damaging (0.999)	-1	#	#	8.517*
						5.574**
PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T	deleterious(0.03)	possibly_damaging (0.865)	-3	26.3	0.27	6.313

Values considered to deem each parameter as evidence of deleteriousness were: SIFT < 0.05; PolyPhen > 0.85; CADD \geq 20; LOEUF < 0.35; BLOSUM62 < 0; phyloP100way \geq 8.0. Conservation scores in NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG were calculated for each individual base affected at positions 1065* and 1064**.

205 **MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A**

206 MUC6 emerged as a highly mutated gene in multiple patients within the cohort

207 (Supplementary figure 2A). Six unique variants were identified in this gene. Apart from

208 the reported variant, patients 48 and 123 harbored two other missense variants in MUC6,

209 and patient 17 harbored three. The reported variant showed evidences of having

210 functional impact on the protein, but the consensus from multiple prediction tools and

211 conservation analyses would provide a more comprehensive assessment of its
212 significance.

213 **NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG** **and**

214 **NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1062T>C**

215 NAP1L1 was another highly mutated gene in our cohort (Supplementary Figure 2B),
216 displaying nine unique variants. On patient 63, the reported variants were the only ones
217 present in NAP1L1, while patient 97 exhibited seven other variants within the gene. The
218 delins variant was not evaluated with as much scrutiny as the others due to some
219 prediction tools not supporting delins data input, nonetheless, amino acid substitution and
220 conservation scores indicated it as potentially damaging to protein structure.
221 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1062T>C is a synonymous mutation located on the splice
222 region of an exon, however, results from SpliceAI indicate it has no effect on splicing
223 (Supplementary Figure 3).

224 **PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T**

225 PABPC1 exhibited a moderate level of mutation in a few samples within the cohort
226 (Supplementary Figure 2C). The reported variant achieved a consensus among most
227 prediction scores as potentially damaging to the protein product. Interestingly, patient 63
228 harbored a nonsense mutation (PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.874C>T) that also appeared
229 in patient 108, a responder. The presence of a nonsense mutation in PABPC1 suggests
230 potential disruption of protein function and highlights its possible involvement in
231 treatment response or disease progression.

232 **NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT**

233 In contrast to the other genes analyzed, NLRP4 did not exhibit any additional mutations
234 beyond the one reported by the decision tree (Supplementary Figure 2D). The identified
235 variant in NLRP4 is a frameshift insertion involving a single nucleotide. This variant has
236 been classified as deleterious by the SIFT Indel prediction tool with a confidence score
237 of 0.858. The frameshift insertion in NLRP4 has a significant impact on the protein
238 structure and function. It results in a disruption of almost half of the amino acid sequence,
239 which can lead to profound changes in protein folding, interaction with other molecules,
240 and overall protein function. Furthermore, according to SIFT Indel the variant is predicted
241 to trigger nonsense-mediated decay, a cellular mechanism that targets mRNA with
242 premature termination codons for degradation. These findings suggest that the frameshift
243 insertion in NLRP4 is likely to have significant functional consequences and may
244 contribute to poor CRT response or CC characteristics within the cohort.

245 **Discussion**

246 With the advancements in next-generation sequencing technologies, RNA-seq has
247 emerged as a popular and cost-effective tool for studying gene expression and providing
248 valuable insights into the phenotype. Despite its widespread use, accurately identifying
249 variants from RNA-seq data can be challenging due to its inherent limitations, such as
250 lower accuracy compared to DNA sequencing. However, several studies have
251 successfully employed rigorous filtering criteria and other strategies to obtain reliable
252 variant calling results from RNA-seq data [25, 26]. Considering these factors, in our
253 study, we performed variant calling, followed by stringent filtering and processing steps,
254 in order to map out the mutational landscape of the cohort. This analysis served two
255 primary purposes. Firstly, it aimed to provide a comprehensive overview of the
256 mutational profile of each patient within the cohort, shedding light on the specific genetic

257 alterations present in CC. Secondly, by comparing our findings to previously validated
258 CC variant data from other studies, we aimed to assess the accuracy and reliability of our
259 variant calling pipeline. This approach allowed us to gain valuable insights into the
260 mutational landscape of CC in our cohort and evaluate the robustness of our variant
261 calling methodology. By corroborating our findings with validated data from other
262 studies, we aimed to ensure the accuracy and reliability of our results, thus strengthening
263 the scientific foundation of our research and contributing to the growing body of
264 knowledge in the field of CC genomics.

265 In our cohort, we observed the presence of several genes that belong to families frequently
266 associated with CC development, including HLA genes and mucins. The HLA region
267 genes play a crucial role in the immune response against tumor antigens, highlighting
268 their significance in CC [27]. Specifically, HLA-A and HLA-B have been identified as
269 driver genes in CC [22], and mutations in HLA-DRB1 have been associated with the
270 development of this type of cancer [28]. Mucins, on the other hand, are known to
271 participate in inflammatory responses, and their dysregulation is often associated with
272 tumor progression. However, it is important to note that some mucins have been reported
273 to act as tumor suppressors in various cancers, such as MUC2 and MUC6 [29]. In our
274 cohort, we identified frequent mutations in MUC6 and MUC12, which have been
275 previously reported in cervical carcinomas [24]. Additionally, MUC3A has displayed
276 tumorigenesis potential in cervical adenocarcinoma [30]. Furthermore, we also detected
277 other genes commonly found to be associated with CC. These findings support the
278 involvement of these genes in CC development and emphasize their potential relevance
279 as therapeutic targets or biomarkers for this disease. By identifying these genes within
280 our cohort, we contribute to the growing understanding of the molecular landscape of CC

281 and provide valuable insights into the potential mechanisms driving its development and
282 progression. Further investigations are warranted to explore the functional implications
283 of these genetic alterations and their clinical significance in CC.

284 Through the implementation of a decision tree-based machine-learning algorithm, we
285 successfully identified specific variants that have the potential to impact response in CRT
286 treatment. To ascertain the significance of these variants, we conducted a comprehensive
287 analysis considering various factors. Firstly, we assessed the potential deleterious effects
288 of the variants by examining factors such as amino acid substitution, nucleotide
289 conservation, and population frequencies. These criteria allowed us to gauge the
290 likelihood of these variants causing functional alterations at the protein level and their
291 relative rarity within the population. Furthermore, we delved into the functional
292 characteristics of the affected genes to ascertain their involvement in cellular mechanisms
293 associated with CRT response. This evaluation provided insights into the potential
294 interactions between these genes and the relevant molecular pathways underlying
295 treatment outcomes. By integrating these analyses, we aimed to establish a
296 comprehensive understanding of the potential impact of the identified variants on CRT
297 response. This information is crucial for guiding further investigations and developing
298 personalized treatment approaches in order to enhance patient outcomes and optimize
299 therapy strategies for CC.

300 MUC6, although commonly used as an immunohistochemical marker to differentiate
301 subtypes of endocervical carcinomas [31], its specific role in CC remains relatively
302 unexplored. However, its tumor suppressor role has been well-documented in other
303 cancer types such as pancreatic cancer, renal cancer, gastric cancer, and colorectal cancer
304 [32-35]. Studies have shown that MUC6 acts as a tumor suppressor by inducing β -catenin

305 degradation through the autophagy pathway [33]. β -catenin plays a crucial role in
306 regulating cell growth and intracellular adhesion in epithelial cells. In CC therapy,
307 targeting β -catenin has gained considerable attention due to its involvement in cell
308 proliferation and its contribution to chemotherapy and radiotherapy resistance [36].
309 Understanding the functional significance of MUC6 in CC could provide valuable
310 insights into its potential role as a therapeutic target or prognostic marker. By elucidating
311 the molecular mechanisms by which MUC6 influences cellular processes and affects the
312 behavior of CC cells, we can potentially identify new avenues for personalized treatment
313 approaches and develop strategies to overcome therapeutic resistance.

314 NAP1L1, a nucleosome assembly protein, plays a crucial role in a diverse range of
315 cellular functions. It has been implicated in regulating DNA replication, chromatin
316 formation, cell cycle progression, and proliferation, among others [37]. Although its
317 association with CC has not yet been established, multiple studies have demonstrated its
318 involvement as a promoter of tumor cell proliferation in various cancer types [38-40].
319 Furthermore, there is evidence suggesting that NAP1L1 may contribute to chemotherapy
320 resistance [41]. Understanding the precise role of NAP1L1 in CC could shed light on its
321 potential as a therapeutic target and provide insights into mechanisms underlying tumor
322 progression and treatment response. Given the multifaceted nature of NAP1L1's cellular
323 functions, further investigation is warranted to elucidate its specific involvement in CC
324 development and progression. This knowledge could pave the way for the development
325 of targeted therapies aimed at modulating NAP1L1's activity and potentially overcoming
326 chemoresistance in CC treatment.

327 PABPC1, a highly conserved poly A-binding protein, is involved in regulating various
328 aspects of mRNA metabolism, thereby connecting it to a wide range of cellular processes

329 [42]. In the context of CC, PABPC1 has been found to play a role in the inhibition of the
330 Wnt/ β -catenin pathway. A study uncovered the involvement of the long non-coding RNA
331 (lncRNA) PDHB-AS as a tumor suppressor in CC. PDHB-AS was found to recruit
332 PABPC1, leading to the inhibition of nuclear import of β -catenin and subsequent
333 inactivation of the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway [43]. The same study revealed that PDHB-AS
334 is downregulated in CC, suggesting a potential role in disease progression. Additionally,
335 the overexpression of PDHB-AS was shown to reduce cisplatin resistance, indicating its
336 potential as a therapeutic target to enhance treatment response in CC [43]. The findings
337 highlight the significance of PABPC1 in modulating the Wnt/ β -catenin pathway and its
338 potential implication in CC development and treatment resistance.

339 NLRP4 is a gene involved in the regulation of inflammatory response and functions as a
340 negative regulator of pyroptosis, a form of programmed cell death triggered by pro-
341 inflammatory signals [44]. Pyroptosis, despite causing cell death, has a dual role in CC
342 progression due to its impact on the tumor microenvironment. In early stages of CC,
343 pyroptosis acts as a suppressor by eliminating tumor cells. However, in advanced stages,
344 tumor cells can exploit the tumor microenvironment, including the release of
345 inflammasomes and pro-inflammatory molecules associated with pyroptosis, to promote
346 invasion and metastasis [45, 46]. The intricate relationship between NLRP4, pyroptosis,
347 and CC suggests the potential involvement of inflammatory pathways in tumor
348 progression and metastasis.

349 The decision tree analysis conducted in our study identified specific variants that
350 demonstrated potential for distinguishing between non-responder and responder groups.
351 The genes where these variants are located have been extensively associated with various
352 types of cancer, and their mechanisms have been well-documented. Based on the

353 predictions of variant impact prediction tools, we found evidence that four out of these
354 mutations are likely to have deleterious effects on their associated genes:
355 MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A, NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG,
356 PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T and NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT.
357 These variants suggest a potential role in hindering CRT response. However, it is
358 important to note that further research is necessary to validate and confirm these findings.
359 Expanding the sample size and including a larger cohort of patients would enable us to
360 determine the exclusivity of these variants to non-responder patients. Such data could
361 then be utilized in the decision-making process for selecting appropriate treatment
362 strategies for CC patients. Conducting additional investigations and studies will enhance
363 our understanding of the clinical significance of these variants and their potential
364 implications for treatment outcomes in CC.

365 **Conclusions**

366 CC is one of the most common gynecological cancers and has a high lethality rate,
367 therefore, choice of treatment is a crucial decision in ensuring the health and well-being
368 of CC patients. Despite being the recommended form of treatment in locally advanced
369 CC, poor CRT response remains an obstacle to be overcome. Our data suggests that the
370 somatic variants MUC6(NM_005961.3):c.5992C>A,
371 NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1064_1065delinsGG, PABPC1(NM_002568.4):c.1255C>T
372 and NLRP4(NM_134444.5):c.1488_1489insT may be potential indicators of non-
373 response to CRT. Further research is required in order to validate these findings and to
374 explore their biological and clinical implications. Precise understanding of the
375 interactions between these variants and CC may contribute to guiding treatment selection
376 for CC patients.

377 List of abbreviations

378 CC: Cervical cancer

379 CRT: Chemoradiotherapy

380 NGS: Next generation sequencing

381 RNA-seq: RNA sequencing

382 R: Responder

383 NR: Non-responder

384 CCSC: Cervical cancer stem-like cells

385 NSCCs: Non-stem cervical cancer cells

386 VEP: Variant Effect Predictor

387 SNV: Single nucleotide variation

388 delins: Deletion-insertion

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559 **Declarations**

560 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

561 The studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by Mario Penna
562 Institutional Review Board #1.583.784. The patients/participants provided their written
563 informed consent to participate in this study.

564 **Consent for publication**

565 Not applicable.

566 **Availability of data and materials**

567 The data used in this article is available at the NCBI's BioProject site under the
568 accession number: PRJNA705088.

569 **Competing interests**

570 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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573 **Author's contributions**

574 ACFF accomplished the bioinformatic analyses and drafted the manuscript; TCA and
575 MSG participated in the study design and writing of the manuscript; ABMN contributed
576 to the bioinformatics analyses; LRA and PLLB contributed to data processing *via*
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Complete book, authored

Blenkinsopp A, Paxton P. *Symptoms in the pharmacy: a guide to the management of common illness*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Blackwell Science; 1998.

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Doe J. Title of subordinate document. In: *The dictionary of substances and their effects*. Royal Society of Chemistry. 1999. [http://www.rsc.org/dose/title of subordinate document](http://www.rsc.org/dose/title_of_subordinate_document). Accessed 15 Jan 1999.

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ISSN International Centre: The ISSN register. <http://www.issn.org> (2006). Accessed 20 Feb 2007.

Dataset with persistent identifier

Zheng L-Y, Guo X-S, He B, Sun L-J, Peng Y, Dong S-S, et al. Genome data from sweet and grain sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*). GigaScience Database. 2011. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5524/100012>.

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Anexos

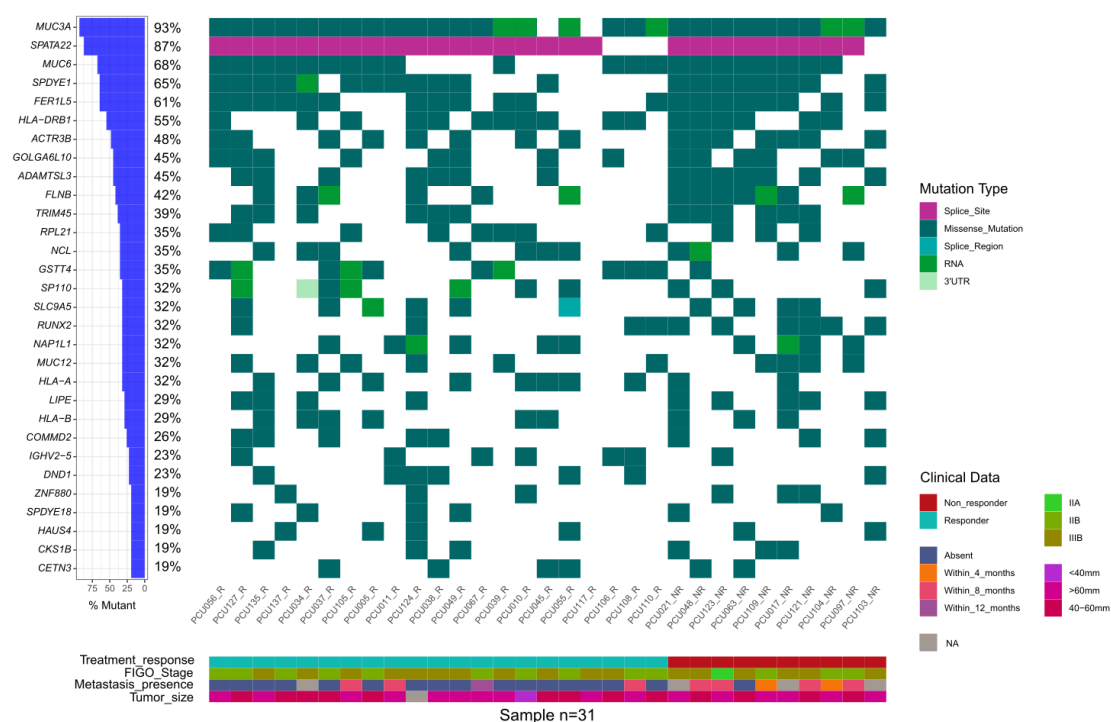


Figure 1: Distribution of frequently mutated genes in each patient. The bar plot on the left represents the percentage of patients harboring mutations in each gene. Patient clinical

data is displayed under their respective columns. RNA mutation type refers to variants located in non-coding transcripts from that gene. If multiple mutations were found in a gene in a single sample, only one is shown in the order as listed in the color legend from top to bottom.

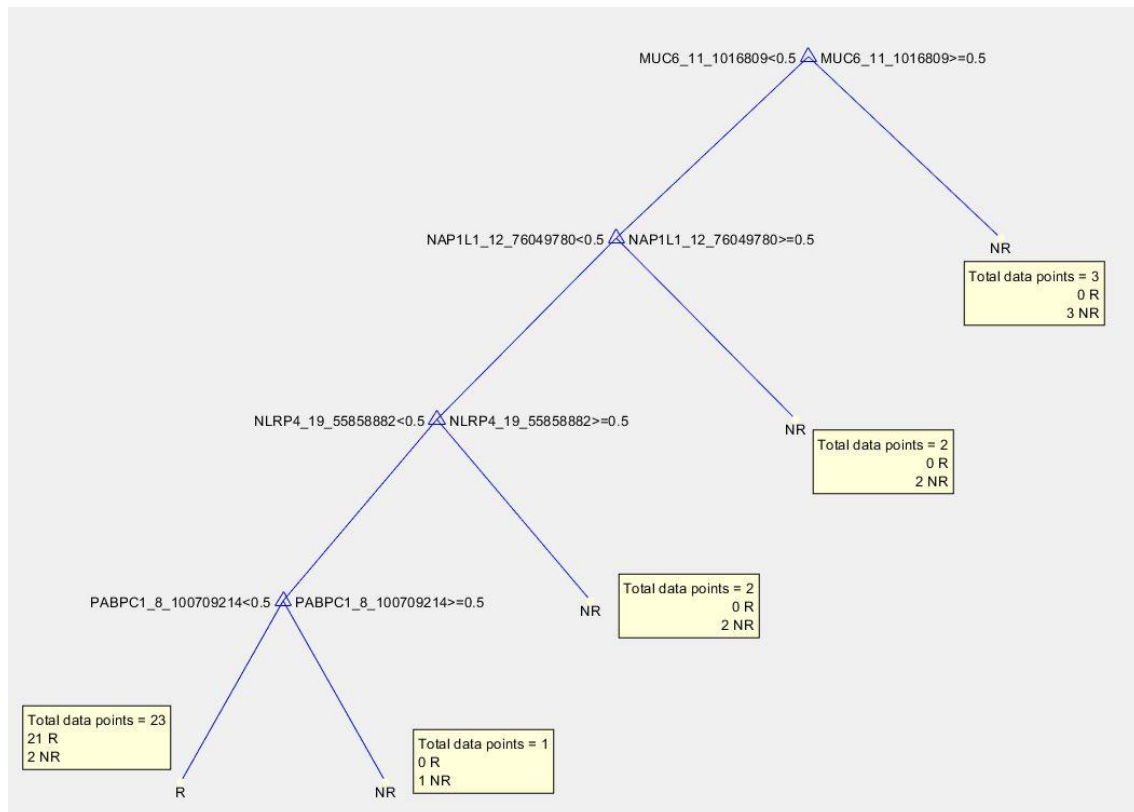
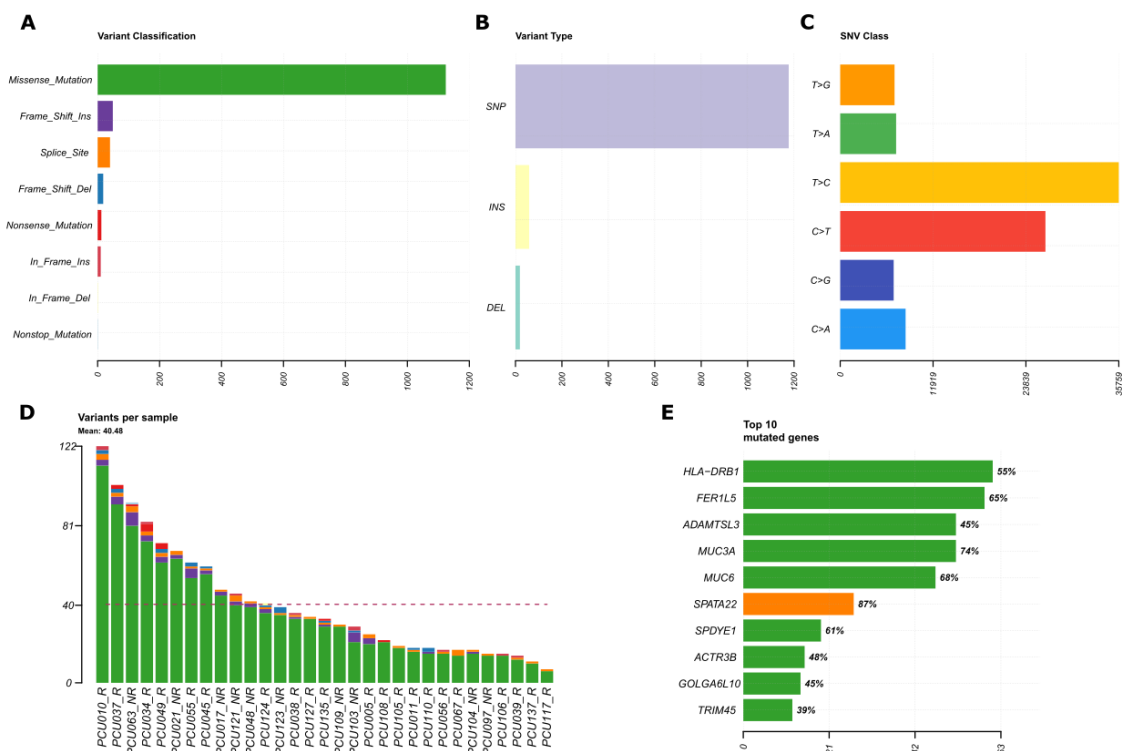
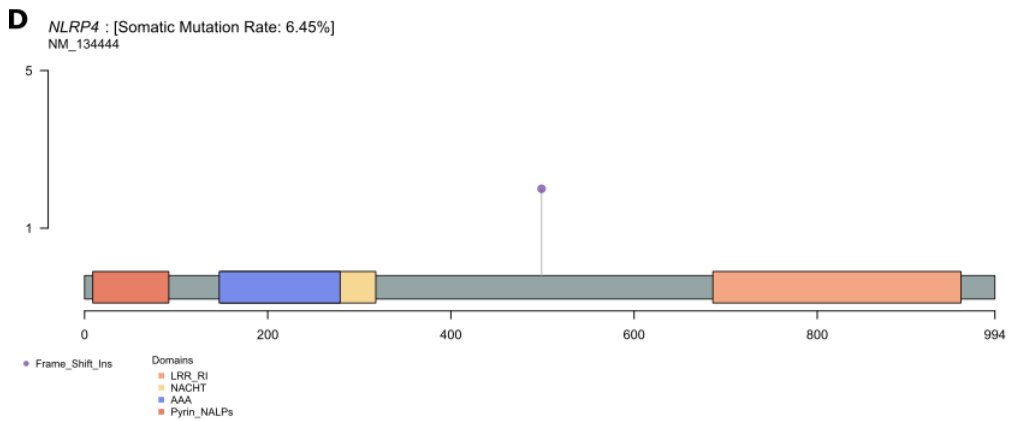
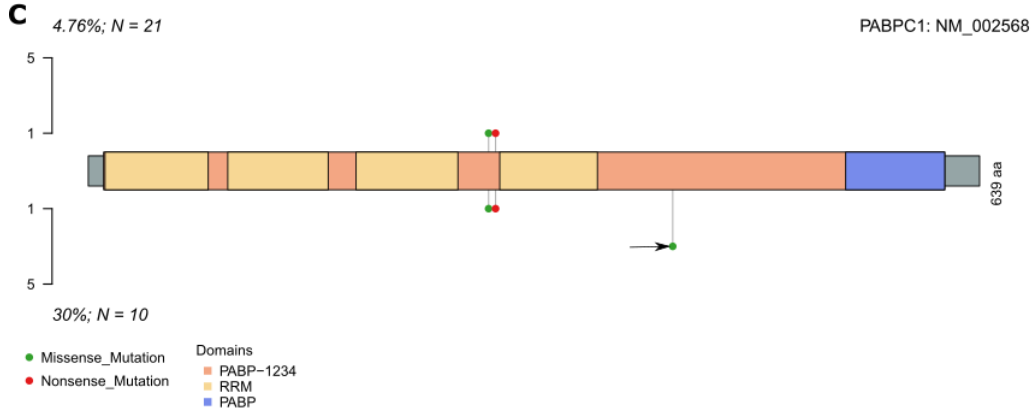
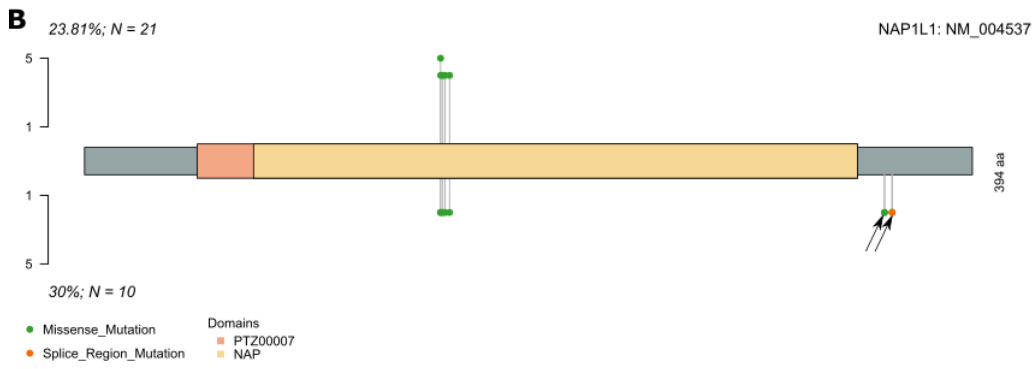
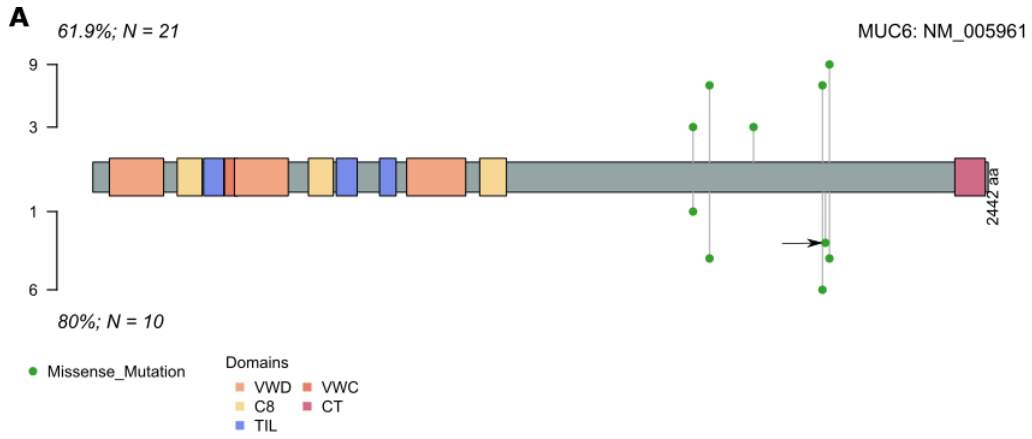


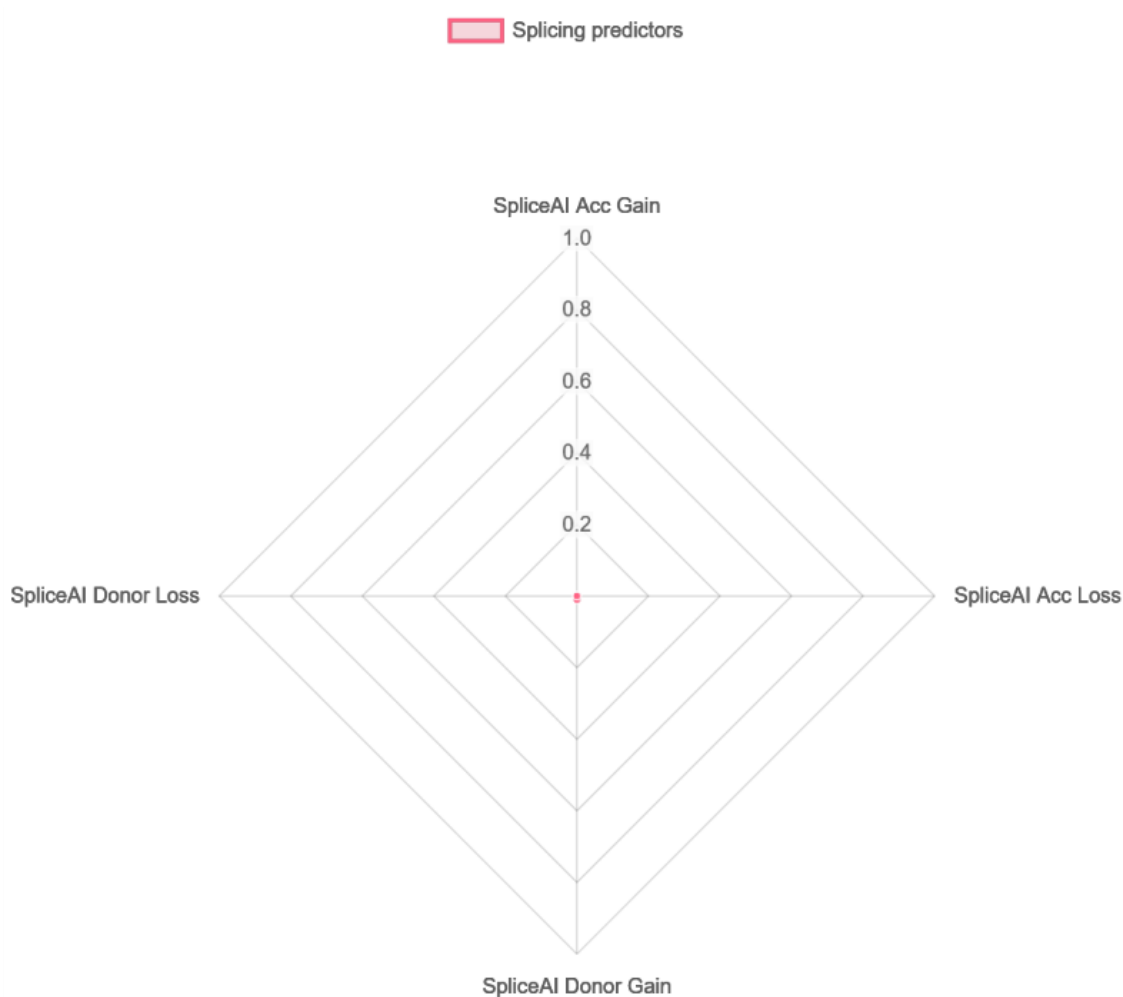
Figure 2: Decision Tree representation of the classification model using full training approach and variants related to non-response as attributes. The tree structure illustrates the hierarchical decision-making process based on key features, leading to the classification of variants into distinct categories.



Supplementary Figure 1: Summary of variant data from 31 patients. (A) Variant classification displaying total number of mutations identifies of each kind; (B) Number of SNPs, insertions and deletions identified; (C) Distribution of base substitutions among SNPs; (D) Number of coding gene variants per sample; (E) Top 10 mutated genes. D and E follow the same color scheme presented in A to differentiate variant classes.



Supplementary Figure 2: Mutations identified across the protein structures of MUC6(A), NAP1L1(B), PABPC1(C) and NLRP4(D) proteins. Arrows indicate the variants from **Table 1** when multiple variants are located on the same gene. Percentages relate to number of R (N = 21) and NR (N = 10) patients harboring mutations in the gene. In A, B and C, where both R and NR patients harbored mutations in those genes, the top side represents mutations in R patients, while the underside represents NR patients.



Supplementary Figure 3: Splicing radar displaying predicted impact from NAP1L1(NM_004537.7):c.1062T>C.