### **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**

Iran J Allergy Asthma Immunol In press.

## Molecular Mechanisms of Pulmonary Fibrosis: The Interaction of Epithelialmesenchymal Transition and AMPK Pathways in a Bleomycin-induced Model

Omid Sadatpour<sup>1,2</sup>, Hoda kavosi<sup>2,3</sup>, Mahdi Mahmoudi<sup>2,3</sup>, Mehdi Mohammadi<sup>1</sup>, Hiva saffar<sup>4</sup>, Elham Farhadi<sup>2,3</sup>, and Mohammad Vodigani<sup>1</sup>

Department of Immunology, School of Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 Rheumatology Research Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 Research Center for Chronic Inflammatory Diseases, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
 Department of Pathology, Shariati Hospital, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran

Received: 14 May 2025; Received in revised form: 28 May 2025; Accepted: 29 June 2025

## ABSTRACT

Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) is a progressive lung disease marked by excessive extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition, largely mediated by activated fibroblasts. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), regulated by transcription factors such as *TGF-β*, *Twist1*, and *Snail*, is a critical mechanism in fibrosis progression. AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) has been implicated in modulating fibrotic pathways, but its role in EMT remains unclear. This study aimed to explore the interaction between EMT and AMPK signaling in pulmonary fibrosis.

A bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis mouse model was used. Histological analysis assessed fibrosis and inflammation, while gene expression ( $TGF-\beta$ , Twist1, Snail) was measured by qPCR. Protein levels of E-cadherin,  $\alpha$ -SMA, and phosphorylated AMPK were analyzed using Western blotting to evaluate EMT and AMPK activity.

Bleomycin-treated mice showed significant lung inflammation and fibrosis, particularly in the lower region of the left lung. Gene expression analysis revealed elevated TGF- $\beta$ , Twist1, and Snail in fibrotic areas. Protein analysis demonstrated increased  $\alpha$ -SMA and decreased E-cadherin, confirming EMT induction. Notably, AMPK phosphorylation was significantly reduced in fibrotic regions, occurring concurrently with EMT activation.

These findings indicate an inverse relationship between AMPK signaling and EMT in pulmonary fibrosis. EMT may serve as a direct therapeutic target, either by inhibiting transcription factors such as *Snail* and *Twist1* or by modulating upstream metabolic regulators including AMPK.

**Keywords:** AMP-activated protein kinases; Bleomycin; Epithelial-mesenchymal transition; Fibrosis; Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis

Corresponding Authors: Mohammad Vodjgani, PhD; Department of Immunology, School of Medicine, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. Tel: (+98 21) 2387 2545, Fax: (+98 860) 2243 9970, Email: vojganim@sina.tums.ac.ir

Elham Farhadi, PhD; Rheumatology Research Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran. Tel: (+98 918) 385 8107, Fax: (+98 21) 2243 9970, Email: Farhadie@tums.ac.ir

## INTRODUCTION

The classification of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF) underwent a transformation in the 21st century, prompted by the ineffectiveness of anti-inflammatory therapies that were associated with increased mortality rates.<sup>1,2</sup> Current understanding emphasizes the role of genetic and environmental risk factors, with recurrent micro-injuries to the aging alveolar epithelium leading to abnormal interactions between epithelial cells and fibroblasts. It is currently classified as a pulmonary and inflammatory disorder characterized by the excessive synthesis of extracellular matrix (ECM) components by activated fibroblasts within lung connective tissue. This pathological process contributes to the exacerbation of respiratory complications and the development of pneumonitis.<sup>3-5</sup> The disease has a higher prevalence in males and is rarely diagnosed in individuals under 50, with a median diagnosis age of approximately 65 years.<sup>6</sup> Genetic factors, such single-nucleotide as polymorphisms (SNPs) that increase the risk of lung fibrosis, combined with chronic turnover of epithelial cells throughout life, lead to telomere shortening that, alongside exposure to environmental factors, increases the risk for developing IPF. 1,7-10 The initial stimuli activate fibroblasts and vascular endothelial cells, causing vascular injury. This results in endothelial dysfunction, reduced blood flow, and hypoxia in affected tissues, setting the stage for fibrosis. Inflammatory cells, platelets, and surrounding components release mediators, such as interleukins (IL-1, IL-6), interferon-γ (IFN-γ), tumor necrosis factoralpha (TNF-α), and transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-β), a key factor in fibrosis. 11-13 The non-canonical  $TGF-\beta$  pathway promotes the differentiation of myofibroblasts from fibroblasts and facilitates endothelial-mesenchymal (EndMT) and epithelialmesenchymal (EMT) transitions via SMAD signaling. TGF-\beta also stimulates endothelial cells to produce endothelin-1 (ET-1), a vasoconstrictor involved in fibrotic responses and smooth muscle cell proliferation. Elevated ET-1 levels, combined with reduced caveolina protein that modulates  $TGF-\beta$  signaling, link vasculopathy to fibrosis. Additionally, pericytes differentiate into myofibroblasts when exposed to TGF- $\beta$  and growth factors, such as PDGF and CTGF. <sup>14,15</sup>

EMT is a complex process involving molecular signaling pathways and transcription factors. This phenomenon is distinguished by the downregulation of

epithelial markers, including E-cadherin and tight junction proteins, alongside the upregulation of mesenchymal markers, such as vimentin, N-cadherin, fibronectin, and alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA). This transition promotes cellular migration and invasion. EMT plays key roles in tissue development, repair, and in diseases like fibrosis and cancer metastasis. <sup>16,17</sup> EMT is regulated by various signaling pathways, including *TGF-β*, Wnt/β-catenin, *Notch*, *HIF*, *PI3K/Akt/mTOR*, Rho GTPases, and *MAPK/ERK*. These pathways control key transcription factors, such as *Snail*, *Twist*, and *ZEB1*, which in turn regulate the expression of epithelial and mesenchymal markers. <sup>18–20</sup>

Snail (SNAII) is a key transcription factor in EMT, primarily by downregulating E-cadherin, reducing cell adhesion, and enhancing cell motility. It also promotes mesenchymal traits by upregulating vimentin and N-cadherin. <sup>21,22</sup>

*Twist1*, a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factor, regulates EMT by downregulating E-cadherin. It is crucial for developmental processes and tissue remodeling and contributes to cancer cell migration and fibrosis by promoting a mesenchymal phenotype. <sup>23–25</sup>

Bleomycin, a chemotherapeutic drug, is frequently employed to induce lung fibrosis in experimental models owing to its capacity to provoke oxidative stress, DNA damage, and inflammatory responses, ultimately leading to the activation of fibroblasts and the accumulation of ECM. TGF- $\beta$  isoforms and their receptors play a central role, as they are upregulated in bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis, contributing to fibrotic progression by activating fibroblasts and altering cellular localization patterns. Both Twist1 and Snai1 are induced by TGF- $\beta$ , and additionally, TGF- $\beta$  signaling is amplified by these transcription factors, promoting EMT and collagen production—key features of tissue fibrosis. A significant mechanism through which bleomycin induces fibrosis is the activation of EMT.  $^{23,26,27}$ 

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) serves as a critical energy sensor that plays a vital role in the regulation of cellular energy homeostasis. It is activated in response to low ATP levels, increasing AMP concentrations. AMPK has a complex relationship with EMT, influencing metabolic processes and cellular responses to stress, exercise, and nutrient scarcity. <sup>28–32</sup> AMPK plays a protective role in lung fibrosis by inhibiting key fibrotic pathways. Its activation reduces ECM deposition and myofibroblast activation, both

crucial in fibrosis. AMPK achieves this by suppressing TGF-β signaling and promoting autophagy to clear damaged cells, preventing fibrosis development. However, AMPK activity is often reduced in fibrotic conditions, leading to metabolic dysregulation, inflammation, and worsened fibrosis.33,34 AMPK is predominantly known as a negative regulator of fibrotic signaling, primarily through its inhibition of the TGFβ/Smad3 pathways and its facilitation of autophagy. However, its involvement in EMT remains a subject of debate and is influenced by contextual factors. Numerous studies have indicated that AMPK activation can suppress EMT by downregulating key transcription factors, such as Snail and Twist1, thereby maintaining epithelial integrity and diminishing mesenchymal transition, particularly in models of lung fibrosis. In contrast, other research—particularly frameworks—suggested that oncological **AMPK** activation may facilitate EMT, potentially via metabolic reprogramming or the indirect activation of EMTrelated transcription factors like Twist1. conflicting results imply that AMPK may have either pro- or anti-EMT effects contingent upon the specific cell type, signaling environment, or pathological condition. This inconsistency highlights the necessity for a more comprehensive understanding of AMPK's role in the regulation of EMT, especially in the context of fibrotic lung disease, which is the primary focus of the current study. 28,35,36 Therefore, we aimed to assess EMT-involved genes Twist1, Snail, and TGF-β and their relation with AMPK status in fibrotic lung areas in the bleomycin model of pulmonary fibrosis (PF) and decipher the relationship between EMT-related genes and AMPK.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

### **Animal Model**

C57BL/6 male mice, aged 8 to 10 weeks, were procured from the center for experimental studies at the Pasteur Institute of Iran, located in Tehran. All methodologies and experimental protocols were approved by the Tehran University of Medical Sciences (TUMS) ethics committee with the corresponding ethics code provided (IR.TUMS.AEC.1403.047). Eight mice were randomly assigned to 2 groups: a control group (n=4) and a bleomycin (BLM) group (n=4). The BLM group received an administration of 8 mg/kg of bleomycin (Chemex Company, Argentina), which was

dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and surgically instilled into the trachea. Conversely, the control group was administered PBS via the same route. Both groups were euthanized on day 28 posttreatment, at which point the lungs were excised, and the lobes were subsequently sectioned for further analysis. Only male mice were used, consistent with previous studies showing that male C57BL/6 mice exhibit a more robust fibrotic response to bleomycin than females, thereby improving model consistency and reproducibility.<sup>37</sup> However, future studies should consider potential sexbased differences in fibrotic signaling pathways, including AMPK and EMT.

### **Micro-CT Scanning**

In this study, at day 28 post-bleomycin treatment, we utilized an in vivo X-ray micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) scanner (LOTUS-inVivo, Behin Negareh Co., Tehran, Iran)<sup>38</sup> at the preclinical core facility (TPCF) of Tehran University of Medical Sciences. The LOTUS-inVivo system is equipped with a cone beam micro-focus X-ray source and a flat panel detector. To optimize image quality, the X-ray tube voltage and current were calibrated to 50 kV and 150 µA, respectively, with a frame exposure time of 0.25 seconds at 2 magnifications. The total duration of the scan was 18 minutes, and the slice thickness of the reconstructed images was set to 25 µm. All protocol parameters were managed using the LOTUS-inVivo-ACQ software. The acquired three-dimensional data was reconstructed employing the LOTUS inVivo-REC software utilizing a standard Feldkamp, Davis, Kress (FDK) algorithm.

## Hematoxylin & Eosin (H&E) and Masson-trichrome Staining

Tissue specimens were obtained and subsequently prepared for histological analysis following established protocols. For standard examination, the tissues were fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin for a duration of 24 hours, after which they were embedded in paraffin. Sections were then sliced to a thickness of 5  $\mu$ m and affixed to glass slides for the purpose of staining. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Masson trichrome staining were applied to evaluate the inflammation and collagen depositions, respectively.

## RNA Extraction, cDNA Synthesis, and SYBR Green Real-time PCR

Lung specimens preserved in Trizol (Yektatajhiz, Iran)

solution were initially minced and subsequently lysed using a homogenizer, following the manufacturer's protocol. RNA isolation was performed utilizing YTzol pure RNA reagent (Yektatajhiz, Iran) following the manufacturer's instructions. The quality and quantity of the isolated RNA were evaluated through a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher, USA). Following this, the RNA samples underwent reverse transcription using the cDNA synthesis kit (Yektatajhiz, Iran), according to the manufacturer's guidelines. The expression levels of the genes Twist1, Snail, and TGF-β were subsequently analyzed using specific primers and the Applied Biosystems StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Foster City, CA, USA). Mouse  $\beta$ -actin-specific primers served as the reference gene for data normalization. The gene expression data were analyzed employing the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta C(T)}$  method.<sup>39</sup> All of the experiments were carried out in triplicate.

#### **Total Protein Isolation and Western Blot**

Western blot analyses were performed as previously described, with some modifications. 40 Lung tissues were first mechanically homogenized using a tissue homogenizer to physically disrupt the tissue structure. The homogenized samples were then lysed in RIPA buffer supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors to extract total proteins. The lysates were removed by centrifugation at 14 000 rpm for 20 minutes at 4 °C. Protein concentration was determined by the protein quantification kit Bradford (DB0017, DNAbioTech, Iran) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The tissue lysates were mixed with an equal volume of 2× Laemmli sample buffer. Lysates (20 μg) were then subjected to SDS-PAGE after a 5-minute boiling and subsequently transferred to a 0.2 µm immune-Blot<sup>TM</sup> polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA). The membranes were then blocked with 5% BSA (Sigma Aldrich, MO, USA) in 0.1% Tween 20 for 1 hour. Then, the membranes were incubated with Anti-E-cadherin (ab308347, Abcam), Anti-Alpha SMA (ab7817, Abcam), Anti-p-AMPK (2531S, Cell Signaling), Anti-AMPK (ab32047, Abcam), and anti-GAPDH control antibodies (1:2500, ab8245, Abcam, UK) as a loading control overnight at 4 °C. Subsequently, membranes were washed 3 times with TBST and incubated with goat anti-rabbit IgG H&L (HRP) (1:10 000, ab6721; Abcam) secondary antibody for 1 hour. The membranes were then incubated with enhanced chemiluminescence

(ECL) reagent (Clarity Western ECL Substrate, Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA). After detection of the target proteins, membranes were stripped using Western Blot Stripping Buffer (ab270550, Abcam, UK) following the manufacturer's instructions. Following stripping, the membranes were re-blocked and incubated with the GAPDH antibody for normalization purposes. Densitometry of protein bands was performed using the gel analyzer Version 2010a software (NIH, USA), such that the percentage area under the curve of each band was divided by the percentage area under the curve of its corresponding GAPDH band, and then the calculated values were compared between groups as we described previously.<sup>41</sup>

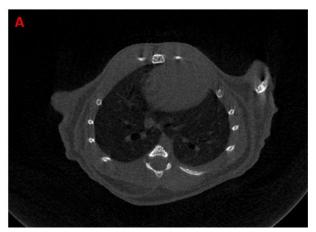
### **Statistical Analyses**

All statistical analyses were conducted utilizing GraphPad Prism ver 10.4.1 software. A Mann-Whitney test was applied to compare the data. A p value of  $\leq$ 0.05 was considered statistically significant. All experiments were performed with sample sizes indicated in the figure legends (n=4 mice per group unless otherwise specified).

#### **RESULTS**

# Micro-CT Scanning Images Show Acute Fibrosis in the Bleomycin Group

The results of micro-CT at day 28 present visible progressive changes in the lung architecture consistent with acute fibrosis. As shown in Figure 1, the lower part of the left lung was most affected by fibrosis compared to other parts of the lung. Based on intensity thresholds and Hounsfield unit (HU) analysis, the fibrotic region in the lower lobe of the left lung displayed an approximately 43% increase in density compared to non-fibrotic regions. This semi-quantitative analysis supports the rationale for selecting this area for downstream molecular and histological assessments. Therefore, the aforementioned part of the lung was used for the rest of the experiments to see changes in fibrosis areas.



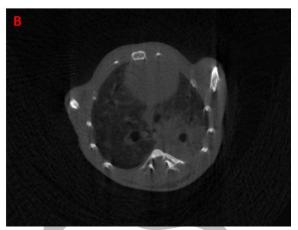


Figure 1. Representative micro-CT images of control lung (A) and bleomycin-treated lung (B). The findings demonstrate distinctly observable progressive alterations in lung architecture that align with fibrosis.

# **Increased Fibrosis and Inflammation in the Lung Tissues of the Bleomycin Group**

H&E-stained lung sections showed infiltration of mononuclear inflammatory cells (lymphocytes and macrophages) in more than 70% of the lung alveoli, with a severe degree of inflammation in the BLM group, which is significantly higher than the control (Figure 2A-B). Emphysema-like alterations were identified by the presence of enlarged alveolar spaces and the degradation of alveolar walls, resulting in a reduction in alveolar density and a general increase in the size of airspaces. These structural modifications indicate alveolar damage that aligns with emphysematous remodeling. This observation is consistent with the fibrosis and inflammation noted, suggesting that bleomycin not only induces fibrotic changes but also contributes to emphysematous injury within the lung parenchyma. Damage and degeneration are also present in the mucous layers of the bronchioles. Fibrinous deposits in the vascular wall are also positive, indicating endothelial reactions in response to the damaging agent. A moderate to high degree of fibrosis is seen in Masson trichrome staining, with remarkably increased collagen depositions identified by blue color and dense alveolar spaces in the BLM group compared to controls (Figure 3A-B).

## **Increased Expression of Key Genes Involved in the EMT Process**

The present investigation aimed to assess the expression levels of key genes associated with EMT. Specifically, Twist1, Snail, and  $TGF-\beta$  are recognized as critical contributors to the EMT process, the primary

mechanism underlying the pathogenesis of fibrotic disease, IPF. Upon analyzing the gene expression data, it was found that the expression levels of  $TGF-\beta$ , Twist1, and Snail were significantly elevated in the bleomycin (BLM) group compared to the control group ( $TGF-\beta$  (p=0.02), Twist1 (p=0.02), Snail (p=0.02) (Figure 4).

## Decreased E-cadherin and Increased α-SMA Proteins Show Induction of the EMT Process in the Bleomycin Group

To assess the EMT process more deeply, we investigated two important epithelial and mesenchymal markers. As expected, we saw higher protein levels of  $\alpha$ -SMA and lower protein levels of E-cadherin ( $\alpha$ -SMA (p=0.002), E-cadherin (p=0.002)) (Figure 5), which is demonstrative of the EMT process happening inside the affected areas of the lung.

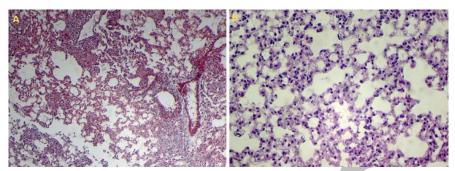


Figure 2. Hematoxylin and eosin staining of lung specimens. A. In the bleomycin (BLM) group, notable airway remodeling and heightened inflammation were observed, characterized by reduced alveolar spaces and increased immune cell infiltration. B. The control group shows normal lung architecture.

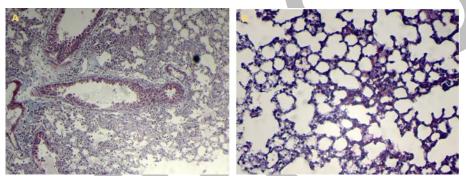


Figure 3. Masson trichrome staining of lung specimens. A. In the bleomycin-treated group, notable airway remodeling and fibrotic alterations are observed, indicated by reduced alveolar spaces and increased collagen deposition (blue). B. The control group shows minimal collagen.

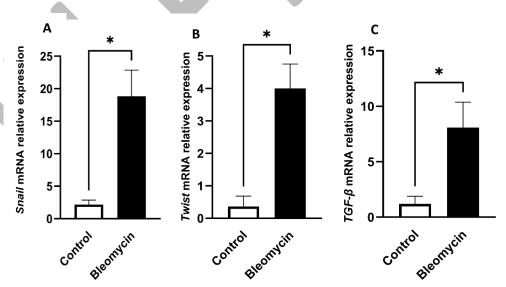


Figure 4. Relative gene expression of EMT-related genes. A. Relative expression of *Twist1* was significantly increased in the bleomycin (BLM) group compared with the control group. B. Relative expression of *Snail* was significantly increased in the BLM group compared to the control group. C. Relative expression of *TGF-\beta* was significantly increased in the BLM group. Relative expression of the \beta-actin gene was used as the reference gene for data normalization. \* $p \le 0.05$ .

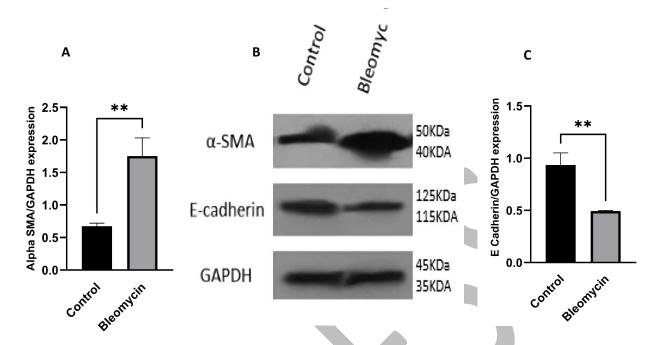


Figure 5. Protein levels of E-cadherin and  $\alpha$ -SMA in fibrosed areas of the lung. A–C. Bleomycin-affected lung shows higher  $\alpha$ -SMA and lower E-cadherin protein levels. \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 (n=3 in each group).

Decreased Phosphorylation of AMPK in the Bleomycin Group

Mice receiving bleomycin and undergoing lung

fibrosis showed a diminished ratio of phosphorylated AMPK to total AMPK compared to the control group (p=0.003) (Figure 6).

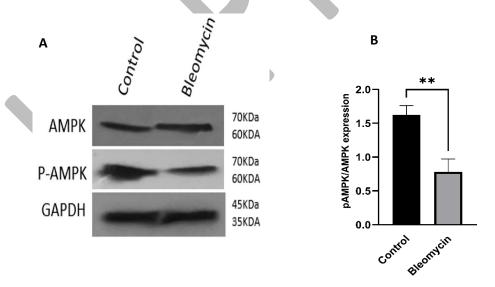


Figure 6. Protein levels of AMPK and p-AMPK in fibrosed areas of the lung. A–B. Bleomycin-affected lung shows a lower phosphorylation level of AMPK. \*p<0.05, \*\*p<0.01 (n=3 in each group).

### **DISCUSSION**

Pulmonary fibrosis (PF) is a progressive lung disorder characterized by excessive ECM, EMT, and the deterioration of normal lung architecture. A critical component in the pathogenesis of PF is the conversion of epithelial cells into myofibroblasts, a process referred to as EMT. This transformation is essential for the fibrotic response and significantly contributes to the development of PF. Various molecular factors, such as Twist, Snail, and  $TGF-\beta$ , regulate EMT. Furthermore, AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) signaling has been identified as a vital pathway in fibrosis, functioning as a metabolic sensor and influencing multiple fibrotic processes.<sup>5,42,43</sup> Bleomycin, which is used in this study to induce pulmonary fibrosis, also causes EMT, which plays a critical role in the pathogenesis of pulmonary fibrosis, as it triggers the transformation of epithelial cells into mesenchymal-like cells. This transition is associated with increased collagen deposition and tissue scarring, which contributes to the fibrotic response in the lungs. Research indicates that bleomycin, chemotherapeutic agent, induces EMT signaling pathways involving TGF-β, Smad proteins, and other regulatory factors, leading to altered cell-cell junctions and the acquisition of migratory properties in epithelial cells.44-46 In this study, we examined the interactions among Twist, Snail, TGF-B, EMT, and AMPK signaling, thereby elucidating their collective roles in the progression of PF.

Micro-CT imaging conducted on day demonstrated notable alterations in lung architecture, indicative of acute fibrosis, with the most significant changes observed in the lower region of the left lung. Histological examination corroborated observations, revealing considerable inflammation characterized by mononuclear cell infiltration in over 70% of alveoli, which aligns with findings from previous studies on bleomycin-induced fibrosis. Furthermore, damage to the bronchiolar mucosa and the presence of fibrin deposits within vascular walls suggested acute injury, consistent with earlier research. Masson trichrome staining revealed substantial collagen deposition, a critical marker of fibrosis, which was more pronounced in the bleomycin (BLM) group compared to control subjects. 46-48

Twist1, a basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor, is integral to the pathogenesis of PF, particularly through its role in EMT. Increased expression of Twist1 has been

documented in various models of lung fibrosis, including those induced by viral infections and bleomycin, as well as in tissues from patients with IPF. <sup>24,49</sup> Overexpression of *Twist1* in lung epithelial cells is correlated with the expression of mesenchymal markers, such as N-cadherin and fibronectin, which are indicative of EMT.<sup>24</sup> Conversely, the knockdown of Twist1 was found to maintain the epithelial phenotype, thereby underscoring its essential role in EMT during the progression of fibrosis. Similarly, in models of bleomycin-induced fibrosis, the overexpression of Twist1 in collagen-producing fibroblasts led to an increase in collagen synthesis and the upregulation of genes associated with fibrotic processes, further emphasizing its involvement in fibrosis. 50 Regarding the relationship between  $TGF-\beta$  and Twist1, it should be noted that  $TGF-\beta$  activates Twist1 expression through a Smad3-dependent mechanism, and once Twist1 is upregulated by  $TGF-\beta$ , it does not just act as a passive transcription factor. Instead, Twist1 amplifies the TGF- $\beta$  signaling pathway and binds to the promoter regions of collagen genes, thus enhancing collagen production. This feedback loop leads to the activation of fibroblasts and further fibrosis in tissues. 23,26,40 Collectively, these findings highlight the significant role of Twist1 in the initiation and progression of PF through its regulation of EMT. We have also shown increased expression of Twist1 in the fibrotic part of the lung in the bleomycin model of lung fibrosis.

Snail is a zinc-finger transcription factor that is integral to the process of EMT, which is associated with the pathogenesis of PF. In the context of PF, Snail facilitates the transformation of epithelial cells into mesenchymal-like fibroblasts, thereby contributing to the excessive deposition of extracellular matrix and subsequent tissue scarring. Recent investigations have shed light on the regulatory mechanisms that control Snail expression and its functional consequences in PF. In models of bleomycin-induced PF, Snail expression is notably upregulated in lung tissues, particularly within epithelial cells undergoing EMT. This finding has been corroborated in regions of the lung affected by fibrosis in our study. Snail promotes EMT by repressing the expression of E-cadherin, a crucial epithelial marker, which was confirmed in our study, while simultaneously enhancing the expression of mesenchymal markers, such as  $\alpha$ -SMA and vimentin.<sup>51</sup> We have analyzed the  $\alpha$ -SMA protein level in affected areas and indicated enhanced levels of  $\alpha$ -SMA. TGF- $\beta$ , which is also increased in fibrotic regions of the lung, can induce *Snail* expression via the *MAPK* signaling pathway, a non-Smad pathway, in epithelial cells. *Snail* then facilitates fibrosis and EMT.<sup>52</sup> In models of radiation-induced PF, the knockdown of *Snail* restores E-cadherin expression and suppresses mesenchymal markers, indicating that *Snail* serves as a central mediator of EMT in PF. Therefore, targeting *Snail* expression may represent a promising therapeutic approach for PF.<sup>51,53</sup> In summary, *Snail* is a vital transcription factor in the pathogenesis of PF, primarily through its role in facilitating EMT.

The activation of AMPK has been associated with the inhibition of  $TGF-\beta$  signaling, indicating that AMPK may act as a protective mechanism against excessive fibrotic responses. In fact, AMPK has the capacity to directly and indirectly influence TGF-β signaling pathways. Under normal physiological conditions, TGF- $\beta$  activation results in the phosphorylation of Smad proteins, which promotes the expression of fibrotic genes. However, in the context of AMPK activation, there is a reduction in *Smad3* phosphorylation, leading to a diminished fibrotic response. This observation suggests that AMPK functions as a negative regulator of the TGF-β/Smad signaling pathway. 54,55 Furthermore, bleomycin-induced fibrosis has been associated with heightened oxidative stress, which in turn activates the  $TGF-\beta$  signaling pathway. The activation of AMPK in response to oxidative stress plays a crucial role in preserving cellular energy homeostasis and may diminish the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). This reduction in ROS production can indirectly inhibit TGF-β activation and the ensuing fibrotic process. Consequently, the interplay between AMPK, TGF-β, and bleomycin-induced fibrosis highlights a complex relationship between metabolic regulation and fibrotic signaling that ultimately favors the more powerful stimuli.56,57 Our findings demonstrate a decrease in AMPK phosphorylation in fibrotic regions of the lung, which aligns with previous research linking reduced AMPK activity to fibrotic progression. However, the relationship between AMPK and EMTrelated genes remains controversial. While some studies have reported concurrent upregulation of AMPK and Twist1, others have observed an inverse association. 28,58 In the present study, we observed that the expression of Twist1 and Snail was elevated in fibrotic lung areas, whereas AMPK phosphorylation was downregulated. This inverse pattern suggests a possible inhibitory mechanism, where Snail transcription factors may

suppress AMPK phosphorylation by binding to regulatory gene promoters, thereby limiting AMPK activation.<sup>59</sup> Snail and Twist1 may exert inhibitory effects on AMPK activity through both transcriptional repression and post-translational mechanisms. For instance, Snail has been shown to repress LKB1, which is a critical upstream kinase responsible for the activation of AMPK, resulting in diminished phosphorylation of AMPK. Furthermore, AMPK phosphorylates Snail, thereby modulating its stability, which suggests the existence of a feedback loop that regulates the progression of EMT. Additionally, Twist1 engages with metabolic pathways that affect AMPK activity, thereby further establishing a connection between EMT factors and the regulation of AMPK. These pathways offer a plausible molecular framework for the observed inverse relationship between the expression levels of Snail/Twist1 and AMPK activation in the context of fibrosis. 59-61 In such a scenario, AMPK's potential promotive effect on Twist1, as suggested in some cancer models, would be mitigated. The divergent roles of AMPK and Twist1 in different pathological contexts could also explain these findings. In cancer, AMPK activation has been shown to promote EMT and metastasis via Twist1 upregulation. In contrast, in pulmonary fibrosis, AMPK activation appears to suppress  $TGF-\beta$ -induced EMT, which includes inhibition of both Twist1 and Snail expression. Under energy stress conditions, AMPK can regulate Snail by phosphorylating it and, as a result, decreasing its stability and inhibiting its oncogenic functions.<sup>62</sup> Notably, once Snail is activated and downstream EMT processes are initiated, it may further inhibit AMPK activation, reinforcing this regulatory loop. It was shown previously, too, that Snail is a factor that can be activated independently of AMPK. Like in the case of tumor metastasis progression via EMT occurrence, which is enhanced through Snail upregulation that is AMPK independent.<sup>63</sup> While our results indicate a reduction in AMPK phosphorylation within fibrotic lung tissue, we did not directly assess downstream targets, including SMAD3 phosphorylation, reactive oxygen species (ROS) production, or autophagy-related pathways, all of which are recognized to be influenced by AMPK. Subsequent research will be necessary to clarify the impact of AMPK activation or inhibition on these interrelated signaling pathways in the context of pulmonary fibrosis.64 Despite the complexity of the process, EMT continues to represent a more

straightforward and actionable therapeutic target in the context of fibrotic diseases. Numerous pharmacological agents have been examined for their potential to activate AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and produce anti-fibrotic effects in the context of pulmonary fibrosis. Metformin, a widely recognized AMPK activator, has been demonstrated to inhibit transforming growth factor-beta (TGF-β)-induced EMT and collagen deposition in both in vitro and in vivo models of lung fibrosis. 65 Likewise, 5-aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide ribonucleotide (AICAR), another AMPK agonist, has shown efficacy in reducing fibrotic responses by mitigating fibroblast activation and ECM production.<sup>66</sup> More recently, salicylate derivatives and direct AMPK activators, such as PF-06409577, have been investigated for their ability to modulate AMPK signaling with enhanced specificity and potency. These agents not only inhibit TGF-β/Smad3 signaling but may also influence oxidative stress and autophagy, thereby addressing multiple pathways implicated in fibrosis.<sup>67</sup> Although these findings are encouraging, additional preclinical and clinical studies are necessary to evaluate the safety, dosage, and long-term efficacy of AMPK-targeted therapies in patients with pulmonary fibrosis. Therapeutic interventions designed to inhibit EMT transcription factors, such as Snail and Twist1, or their upstream regulators, including  $TGF-\beta$ , may effectively mitigate fibrosis by preventing the transformation of epithelial cells into mesenchymal cells that produce ECM. By concentrating on the inhibition of EMT-either directly or through the application of metabolic modulators like AMPK-therapeutic strategies may slow the progression of fibrosis in the lungs and potentially in other organs affected by fibrotic conditions.

### Limitations

One of the limitations of this study is the small sample size (n=4 per group), which may reduce statistical power and limit the applicability of the results. However, we observed persistent molecular, histological, and imaging outcomes across replicates, providing support for the validity of our conclusions. Nonetheless, future studies with larger animal numbers are necessary to confirm these findings and to account for potential biological variability in the fibrotic response. Another limitation of this study is the absence of dual-marker immunofluorescence imaging to directly demonstrate co-localization of epithelial mesenchymal markers (e.g., E-cadherin and  $\alpha$ -SMA).

Although our molecular and histological data support the occurrence of EMT, future studies using co-staining, confocal microscopy, or spatial transcriptomics will be valuable to confirm EMT transitions at the cellular level within fibrotic lung regions. Another notable limitation of this study is the use of the bleomycin-induced fibrosis model, which primarily represents an acute and partially reversible lung injury, unlike the chronic and progressive nature of human idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis (IPF). Consequently, molecular mechanisms identified here, including Snail/Twist1 regulation of AMPK signaling, may differ in timing or magnitude in human disease. Additionally, species-specific differences and the artificial nature of bleomycin injury may limit direct translation of findings. Future studies employing chronic fibrosis models and human tissue validation are warranted to better understand the clinical relevance.

This study investigates the roles of Twist, Snail,  $TGF-\beta$ , and AMPK signaling in the progression of PF, with particular emphasis on their interactions during EMT. Twist and Snail are identified as pivotal transcription factors in EMT, facilitating the transformation of epithelial cells into myofibroblasts and thereby advancing the fibrotic process. Furthermore, AMPK, recognized as a crucial metabolic regulator, appears to function as a protective mechanism against fibrosis by inhibiting  $TGF-\beta$  signaling pathways. Our findings showed that bleomycin can induce fibrosis and EMT by inducing TGF, Twist1, and Snail expression. In the BLM group, AMPK activation is inhibited, which indicates that induction of Twist and Snail is AMPKindependent inside fibrotic areas. These results imply that EMT represents a viable and direct therapeutic target for mitigating fibrosis, either through the inhibition of core transcription factors (Snail, Twist1) or via metabolic modulation of pathways such as AMPK that intersect with EMT regulation.

#### STATEMENT OF ETHICS

This study was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards of the Tehran University of Medical Sciences Ethics Committee. Ethical approval was obtained under the code IR.TUMS.AEC.1403.047.

### **FUNDING**

This study was financially supported by the Tehran University of Medical Sciences (Grant number:

### AMPK and EMT Crosstalk in Fibrotic Lungs

9921125003). The funding entities did not participate in the design of the study, the analysis of the data, or the preparation of the manuscript. Furthermore, the funders did not provide any financial resources for the publication fee of the article.

## **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

#### ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We highly appreciate the cooperation of the Rheumatology Research Center (RRC) and the Tehran University of Medical Sciences (TUMS) for providing animal care facilities.

#### **DATA AVAILABILITY**

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

### AI ASSISTANCE DISCLOSURE

No generative AI tools were used in the preparation, writing, or editing of this article. All content was developed solely by the authors.

## REFERENCES

- Wilson MS, Wynn TA. Pulmonary fibrosis: pathogenesis, etiology, and regulation. Mucosal Immunol. 2009;2(2):103-21.
- Wolters PJ, Collard HR, Jones KD. Pathogenesis of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Annu Rev Pathol. 2014;9:157-79.
- Moss BJ, Ryter SW, Rosas IO. Pathogenic Mechanisms Underlying Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis. Annu Rev Pathol. 2022;17:515-46.
- Richeldi L, Collard HR, Jones MG. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Lancet. 2017;389(10082):1941-52.
- Spagnolo P, Kropski JA, Jones MG, Lee JS, Rossi G, Karampitsakos T, et al. Idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: Disease mechanisms and drug development. Pharmacol Ther. 2021;222:107798.
- 6. Podolanczuk AJ, Thomson CC, Remy-Jardin M, Richeldi L, Martinez FJ, Kolb M, et al. Idiopathic pulmonary

- fibrosis: state of the art for 2023. Eur Respir J. 2023;61(4).
- Adegunsoye A, Kropski JA, Behr J, Blackwell TS, Corte TJ, Cottin V, et al. Genetics and Genomics of Pulmonary Fibrosis: Charting the Molecular Landscape and Shaping Precision Medicine. Am J Respir Crit Care Med. 2024;210(4):401-23.
- 8. Ishida Y, Kuninaka Y, Mukaida N, Kondo T. Immune Mechanisms of Pulmonary Fibrosis with Bleomycin. Int J Mol Sci. 2023;24(4).
- Mota PC, Soares ML, Vasconcelos CD, Ferreira AC, Lima BA, Manduchi E, et al. Predictive value of common genetic variants in idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis survival. J Mol Med (Berl). 2022;100(9):1341-53.
- Rosenbloom J, Macarak E, Piera-Velazquez S, Jimenez
  SA. Human Fibrotic Diseases: Current Challenges in Fibrosis Research. Methods Mol Biol. 2017;1627:1-23.
- 11. Wynn TA. Cellular and molecular mechanisms of fibrosis. J Pathol. 2008;214(2):199-210.
- Jia Q, Lei Y, Chen S, Liu S, Wang T, Cheng Y. Circulating inflammatory cytokines and risk of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis: a Mendelian randomization study. BMC Pulm Med. 2023;23(1):369.
- Phan THG, Paliogiannis P, Nasrallah GK, Giordo R, Eid AH, Fois AG, et al. Emerging cellular and molecular determinants of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. Cell Mol Life Sci. 2021;78(5):2031-57.
- 14. Bohdziewicz A, Pawlik KK, Maciejewska M, Sikora M, Alda-Malicka R, Czuwara J, et al. Future Treatment Options in Systemic Sclerosis-Potential Targets and Ongoing Clinical Trials. J Clin Med. 2022;11(5).
- 15. Rokni M, Sadeghi Shaker M, Kavosi H, Shokoofi S, Mahmoudi M, Farhadi E. The role of endothelin and RAS/ERK signaling in immunopathogenesis-related fibrosis in patients with systemic sclerosis: an updated review with therapeutic implications. Arthritis Res Ther. 2022;24(1):108.
- 16. Manfioletti G, Fedele M. Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition (EMT). Int J Mol Sci. 2023;24(14).
- Lamouille S, Xu J, Derynck R. Molecular mechanisms of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2014;15(3):178-96.
- 18. Kalluri R, Weinberg RA. The basics of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. J Clin Invest. 2009;119(6):1420-8.
- 19. Debnath P, Huirem RS, Dutta P, Palchaudhuri S. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition and its transcription factors. Biosci Rep. 2022;42(1).
- 20. Gonzalez DM, Medici D. Signaling mechanisms of

- the epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Sci Signal. 2014;7(344):re8.
- Serrano-Gomez SJ, Maziveyi M, Alahari SK. Regulation of epithelial-mesenchymal transition through epigenetic and post-translational modifications. Mol Cancer. 2016;15:18.
- 22. Wang Y, Li S, Zhao J, Li Q, Xu C, Wu H, et al. Snail-mediated partial epithelial-mesenchymal transition augments the differentiation of local lung myofibroblast. Chemosphere. 2021;267:128870.
- Palumbo-Zerr K, Liebl A, Zerr P, Distler A, Beyer C, Distler O, et al. OP0237 Twist1 Amplifies Canonical TGF-β Signaling in Ssc. Annals of the Rheumatic Diseases. 2014;73:152.
- Pozharskaya V, Torres-González E, Rojas M, Gal A, Amin M, Dollard S, et al. Twist: a regulator of epithelialmesenchymal transition in lung fibrosis. PLoS One. 2009;4(10):e7559.
- 25. Chen Y, Zhao X, Sun J, Su W, Zhang L, Li Y, et al. YAP1/Twist promotes fibroblast activation and lung fibrosis, that conferred by miR-15a loss in IPF. Cell Death Differ. 2019;26(9):1832-44.
- Zhang K, Flanders KC, Phan SH. Cellular localization of transforming growth factor-beta expression in bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis. Am J Pathol. 1995;147(2):352-61.
- Santana A, Saxena B, Noble NA, Gold LI, Marshall BC. Increased expression of transforming growth factor beta isoforms (beta 1, beta 2, beta 3) in bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis. Am J Respir Cell Mol Biol. 1995;13(1):34-44.
- Saxena M, Balaji SA, Deshpande N, Ranganathan S, Pillai DM, Hindupur SK, et al. AMP-activated protein kinase promotes epithelial-mesenchymal transition in cancer cells through Twist1 upregulation. J Cell Sci. 2018;131(14).
- 29. Kim J, Yang G, Kim Y, Kim J, Ha J. AMPK activators: mechanisms of action and physiological activities. Exp Mol Med. 2016;48(4):e224.
- 30. Carling D. AMPK signalling in health and disease. Curr Opin Cell Biol. 2017;45:31-7.
- 31. Trefts E, Shaw RJ. AMPK: restoring metabolic homeostasis over space and time. Mol Cell. 2021;81(18):3677-90.
- 32. Lin SC, Hardie DG. AMPK: Sensing Glucose as well as Cellular Energy Status. Cell Metab. 2018;27(2):299-313.
- 33. Gu X, Han YY, Yang CY, Ji HM, Lan YJ, Bi YQ, et al. Activated AMPK by metformin protects against

- fibroblast proliferation during pulmonary fibrosis by suppressing FOXM1. Pharmacol Res. 2021;173:105844.
- 34. Shihan MH, Sharma S, Cable C, Prathigudupu V, Chen A, Mattis AN, et al. AMPK stimulation inhibits YAP/TAZ signaling to ameliorate hepatic fibrosis. Sci Rep. 2024;14(1):5205.
- 35. Chou CC, Lee KH, Lai IL, Wang D, Mo X, Kulp SK, et al. AMPK reverses the mesenchymal phenotype of cancer cells by targeting the Akt-MDM2-Foxo3a signaling axis. Cancer Res. 2014;74(17):4783-95.
- Lee JH, Kim JH, Kim JS, Chang JW, Kim SB, Park JS, et al. AMP-activated protein kinase inhibits TGF-β-, angiotensin II-, aldosterone-, high glucose-, and albumininduced epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2013;304(6):F686-97.
- Redente EF, Jacobsen KM, Solomon JJ, Lara AR, Faubel S, Keith RC, et al. Age and sex dimorphisms contribute to the severity of bleomycin-induced lung injury and fibrosis. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol. 2011;301(4):L510-8.
- 38. Mami-Zadeh H, Solgi R, Carrier J-F, Ghadiri H. Material classification based on Dual-Energy Micro-CT images by the Gaussian mixture model. Journal of Instrumentation. 2022;17(02):P02001.
- 39. Livak KJ, Schmittgen TD. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) Method. Methods. 2001;25(4):402-8.
- Babaei H, Alibabrdel M, Asadian S, Siavashi V, Jabarpour M, Nassiri SM. Increased circulation mobilization of endothelial progenitor cells in preterm infants with retinopathy of prematurity. J Cell Biochem. 2018;119(8):6575-83.
- Asadian S, Alibabrdel M, Daei N, Cheraghi H, Maedeh Jafari S, Noshadirad E, et al. Improved angiogenic activity of endothelial progenitor cells in diabetic patients treated with insulin plus metformin. J Cell Biochem. 2019;120(5):7115-24.
- 42. Guo F, Xu F, Li S, Zhang Y, Lv D, Zheng L, et al. Amifostine ameliorates bleomycin-induced murine pulmonary fibrosis via NAD(+)/SIRT1/AMPK pathway-mediated effects on mitochondrial function and cellular metabolism. Eur J Med Res. 2024;29(1):68.
- Inui N, Sakai S, Kitagawa M. Molecular Pathogenesis of Pulmonary Fibrosis, with Focus on Pathways Related to TGF-β and the Ubiquitin-Proteasome Pathway. Int J Mol Sci. 2021;22(11).
- 44. Weng CM, Li Q, Chen KJ, Xu CX, Deng MS, Li T, et al. Bleomycin induces epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition

### AMPK and EMT Crosstalk in Fibrotic Lungs

- via bFGF/PI3K/ESRP1 signaling in pulmonary fibrosis. Biosci Rep. 2020;40(1).
- 45. Wynn TA, Ramalingam TR. Mechanisms of fibrosis: therapeutic translation for fibrotic disease. Nat Med. 2012;18(7):1028-40.
- 46. Zeisberg M, Kalluri R. The role of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition in renal fibrosis. J Mol Med (Berl). 2004;82(3):175-81.
- 47. Glassberg MK. Overview of idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis, evidence-based guidelines, and recent developments in the treatment landscape. Am J Manag Care. 2019;25(11 Suppl):S195-s203.
- 48. Chow VA, Gopal AK. Where does transplant fit in the age of targeted therapies? Hematology Am Soc Hematol Educ Program. 2019;2019(1):287-93.
- Ning X, Zhang K, Wu Q, Liu M, Sun S. Emerging role of Twist1 in fibrotic diseases. J Cell Mol Med. 2018;22(3):1383-91.
- Valenzi E, Bahudhanapati H, Tan J, Tabib T, Sullivan DI, Nouraie M, et al. Single-Nucleus Chromatin Accessibility Identifies a Critical Role for TWIST1 in IPF Myofibroblast Activity. European Respiratory Journal. 2023:2200474.
- 51. Yan Z, Ao X, Liang X, Chen Z, Liu Y, Wang P, et al. Transcriptional inhibition of miR-486-3p by BCL6 upregulates Snail and induces epithelial-mesenchymal transition during radiation-induced pulmonary fibrosis. Respir Res. 2022;23(1):104.
- Peinado H, Quintanilla M, Cano A. Transforming growth factor beta-1 induces snail transcription factor in epithelial cell lines: mechanisms for epithelialmesenchymal transitions. J Biol Chem. 2003;278(23):21113-23.
- 53. Zhou W, Mo X, Cui W, Zhang Z, Li D, Li L, et al. Nrf2 inhibits epithelial-mesenchymal transition by suppressing Snail expression during pulmonary fibrosis. Sci Rep. 2016;6:38646.
- 54. Jurado-Aguilar J, Barroso E, Bernard M, Zhang M, Peyman M, Rada P, et al. GDF15 activates AMPK and inhibits gluconeogenesis and fibrosis in the liver by attenuating the TGF-β1/SMAD3 pathway. Metabolism. 2024;152:155772.
- 55. Gao J, Ye J, Ying Y, Lin H, Luo Z. Negative regulation of TGF-β by AMPK and implications in the treatment of associated disorders. Acta Biochim Biophys Sin (Shanghai). 2018;50(6):523-31.
- 56. Ding Y, Wang L, Liu B, Ren G, Okubo R, Yu J, et al. Bryodulcosigenin attenuates bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis via inhibiting AMPK-mediated

- mesenchymal-epithelial transition and oxidative stress. Phytother Res. 2022;36(10):3911-23.
- Rangarajan S, Bone NB, Zmijewska AA, Jiang S, Park DW, Bernard K, et al. Metformin reverses established lung fibrosis in a bleomycin model. Nat Med. 2018;24(8):1121-7.
- 58. Jin H, Hong S, Woo S, Lee J, Choe T, Kim E, et al. Silencing of Twist1 sensitizes NSCLC cells to cisplatin via AMPK-activated mTOR inhibition. Cell death & disease. 2012;3(6):e319-e.
- Liang M, Li JW, Luo H, Lulu S, Calbay O, Shenoy A, et al. Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition Suppresses AMPK and Sensitizes Cancer Cells to Pyroptosis under Energy Stress. Cells. 2022;11(14).
- 60. Qiu B, Lawan A, Xirouchaki CE, Yi JS, Robert M, Zhang L, et al. MKP1 promotes nonalcoholic steatohepatitis by suppressing AMPK activity through LKB1 nuclear retention. Nat Commun. 2023;14(1):5405.
- 61. Liang S, Yadav M, Vogel KS, Habib SL. A novel role of snail in regulating tuberin/AMPK pathways to promote renal fibrosis in the new mouse model of type II diabetes. FASEB Bioadv. 2021;3(9):730-43.
- 62. Li M, Zhang L, Guan T, Huang L, Zhu Y, Wen Y, et al. Energy stress-activated AMPK phosphorylates Snail1 and suppresses its stability and oncogenic function. Cancer Lett. 2024;595:216987.
- 63. Goodwin JM, Svensson RU, Lou HJ, Winslow MM, Turk BE, Shaw RJ. An AMPK-independent signaling pathway downstream of the LKB1 tumor suppressor controls Snail1 and metastatic potential. Mol Cell. 2014;55(3):436-50.
- 64. Lin H, Li N, He H, Ying Y, Sunkara S, Luo L, et al. AMPK Inhibits the Stimulatory Effects of TGF-β on Smad2/3 Activity, Cell Migration, and Epithelial-to-Mesenchymal Transition. Mol Pharmacol. 2015;88(6):1062-71.
- 65. Wu X, Xiao X, Chen X, Yang M, Hu Z, Shuai S, et al. Effectiveness and mechanism of metformin in animal models of pulmonary fibrosis: A preclinical systematic review and meta-analysis. Front Pharmacol. 2022;13:948101.
- Cieslik KA, Trial J, Entman ML. Aicar treatment reduces interstitial fibrosis in aging mice: Suppression of the inflammatory fibroblast. J Mol Cell Cardiol. 2017;111:81-5.
- Zhu YR, Zhang XY, Wu QP, Yu CJ, Liu YY, Zhang YQ.
  PF-06409577 Activates AMPK Signaling and Inhibits
  Osteosarcoma Cell Growth. Front Oncol. 2021;11:659181.