Biological Significance of DNA Methylation on Testicular Tumorigenesis

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Abstract

Change of DNA methylation is a hallmark of cancer. It is frequently associated with cancer progression. Testicular germ cell tumor (TGCT) is the most common malignant tumor in young males. Currently, only a limited number of genes are known to be epigenetically changed in TGCT. Genome-wide analysis of differential methylation in a previously established testicular cell line is documented here. A total of 35,208 differentially methylated regions (DMR) were identified. However, only a small number of DMRs mapped to gene promoters. Genome-wide analysis of gene expression revealed a group of differentially expressed genes that were regulated by DNA methylation. Several candidate genes *(APOLD1, PCDH10* arid *RGAG1)* were found to be dysregulated in TGCT patients. Surprisingly, *APOLD1* was mapped to the TGCT susceptibility locus at 12pl3.1, suggesting that it may be important in TGCT pathogenesis.

The majority of DMRs are located in introns or intergenic regions, but their functions are not well understood. Some of these DMRs were found to regulate non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs). In this study, differential methylation of 3 small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNA) and 3 microRNAs (miRNA) were identified. One of the miRNAs, miR-199a, is embedded in a conserved region in intron-14 of dynamin 3 at lq24.3. Hypermethylation of miR-199a correlated with testicular cancer progression, and silencing of miR-199a. Re-expression of miR-199a in testicular cancer cells suppressed cell growth, cancer migration, invasion, and metastasis. miR-199a-5p, one of two mature miRNA species derived from miR-199a, is associated with cancer progression. An embryonal carcinoma antigen, podocalyxin-like protein 1 (PODXL), was identified to be a target of miR-199a-5p. PODXL is an anti-adhesive protein overexpressed in aggressive testicular cancer. Knockdown of PODXL suppressed cancer invasion. The inverse relationship between PODXL and miR-199a-5p expression suggests that PODXL is one of the downstream effectors mediating cancer invasion and metastasis. This study links DNA methylation, miR-199a dysregulation, and PODXL expression as a mechanism to explain testicular cancer progression.

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摘要

DNA甲基化的轉變是癌症的一個標誌。它經常與癌化有關係。睾九生殖細 胞瘤(簡稱睾九癌或TGCT)是年輕男性中常見的惡性腫瘤。目前,我們對於睾 丸癌的表觀遺傳基因認識有限。使用已建立的睾丸癌細胞株,我分析了全基因 組的甲基化差異,從而發現了共 35208 個甲基化差異區域 (DMR)。然而,只有 少數DMR位於基因的啟動子。全基因組基因表達分析顯示,有一組差異表達 的基因是受 DNA 甲基化調控。在睾丸癌的病人中,有幾個基因(APOLD1, PCDH10 和*RGAG1*)的表逹調節失控。令人驚訝的是,*APOLD1*正好位於睾九癌易感區域 12p13.1 內,這表明它可能是睾丸癌發病機制的重要因素。

大多數的 DMR 位於內含子或基因間隔區內,但他們的功能不祥。我發現 其中一些 DMR 調節非編碼核糖核酸 (ncRNA)。在這項研究中,我證實了 3個 snoRNA 和 3 個 microRNA (miRNA)的甲基化差異。其中一個 miRNA (miR-199a) 的位置在 1q24.3 內 dynamin 之第 14 個內含子中。我發現, miR-199a 的甲基化 與睾丸癌癌化相關聯,並抑制 miR-199a 的表達。miR-199a 在睾丸癌細胞中重新 表達可以抑制癌細胞生長、癌細胞轉移、侵襲和惡化。miR-199a-5p 是 miR-199a 的其中一個成熟 miRNA,它與癌症的發展有關聯。Podocalyxin-like (PODXL) 是 一個胚胎癌抗原蛋白。它被證實是 miR-199a-5p 的一個標靶。 PODXL 是一種抗 黏蛋白,高度表達於惡性睾九癌。抑制P0DXL基因可以減低癌細胞的入侵。P0DXL 與miR-199a-5p的表逹相反。其相反關係暗示P0DXL可能是控制癌細胞入侵和 轉移的下游因子。本研究將 DNA 甲基化、miR-199a 調節失控、PODXL 過度表達 等現象相聯繫,作為解釋睾九癌症發展的其中一個機制。

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- 3. Cheung HH. Davis AJ, Lee TL, Pang AL; Nagrani *S,* Rennert OM, Chan WY. Methylation of an intronic region regulates testicular cancer invasiveness via miR-199a. Manuscript submitted.

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- 2. Lee TL, Li Y, Cheung HH, Claus J, Singh S, Sastry C, Rennert OM, Lau YF, Chan WY. GonadSAGE: a comprehensive SAGE database for transcript discovery on male embryonic gonad development. *Bioinformatics.* 2010 Feb 15; 26(4):585-6.

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 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$

Chapter 1

Introduction and a Review on DNA Methylation of Cancer Genome

 $\mathbf 1$

1.1 Introduction

When normal cells are transformed into cancer cells, a series of genetic lesions and/or epigenetic disruptions that favor the uncontrolled growth of cells occur. Mutation of tumor suppressor genes, such as p53, leads to loss of function of the protein that is normally required for non-transformed cells. Epigenetic changes including global DNA hypomethylation and hypermethylation of tumor suppressor genes are frequently observed in cancer cells. Such changes cause genomic instability that increases mitotic recombination or silencing of tumor suppressor genes which play critical roles in the control of cell proliferation and transformation. In this chapter, I discuss the role of DNA methylation in cancer cells and summarize recent advancements of techniques that facilitate genome-wide study of the cancer epigenome.

1.1.1 DNA methylation as an important epigenetic modification of the genome

Methylation is the only known epigenetic modification of DNA. Other epigenetic marks of chromatins include different types of post-transiational modifications of histones, which are highly diverse and some are closely correlated with DNA methylation (refer to the review by Kouzarides on histone modification and their function) (Kouzarides, 2007). DNA methylation is important as it is a well-known crucial regulator in dif-

ferent biological processes such as embryonic development, transcription, chromatin structure, X chromosome inactivation, genomic imprinting, genomic instability and carcinogenesis. Methylation of DNA occurs exclusively in 5-cytosine. In mammals, the majority of cytosine methylation is observed in CpG dinucleotides. Non-CpG methylation is rare and likely restricted to embryonic stem cells (Ramsahoye *et al,* 2000). Since transcriptionally active regions of the genome are usually CpG rich, methylation of CpG sites is one of the critical factors that affect gene transcription. Many regions of the genome contain an especially high frequency of CpG sites. These regions are called CpG islands and they represent approximately 70% of human promoters (Saxonov *et al,* 2006). In normal somatic cells, most of the CpG islands are unmethylated. Aberrant hypermethylation of some tumor suppressor genes is acquired during tumorigenesis. The reason of aberrant methylation is largely unknown. It might be caused by dysregulation of the methyltransferases of DNA or other chromatin binding proteins.

1.1.2 Molecular basis of DNA Methylation

The pattern of DNA methylation is dynamic during development but becomes relatively static in differentiated cells. This unique epigenetic code is heritable and thus, a mechanism for regulation of the methylome is required. Currently three DNA methyl-

transferases have been identified, namely, DNMT1, DNMT3A, DNMT3B, respectively. These developmentally regulated genes play critical roles in the establishment and maintenance of DNA methylation.

DNMT1 is responsible for the maintenance of cytosine methylation. The epigenetic "code" is heritable. Methylation of cytosine is passed from parental cells to daughter cells if epigenetic marks have been stably established. As DNA replicates, DNMT1 methylates the newly synthesized, hemimethylated DNA in cooperation with MECP2. MECP2 is a methyl-CpG-binding protein that recognizes methylated CpG sites and, when associated with DNMT1, forms a complex to copy the parental DNA methylation to the daughter DNA strands during cell division (Kimura & Shiota, 2003). The function of DNMT1 is far more complicated than just methylation maintenance. DNMT1 interacts with a variety of proteins such as transcription factors (p53, STAT3 and HP1), histone modifiers (HDAC1, HDAC2) and ligands (DAXX) to specifically repress targeted genes (Esteve *et al,* 2005; Muromoto *et al,* 2004; Robertson *et al,* 2000; Rountree *et al,* 2000; Smallwood *et al,* 2007; Zhang *et al,* 2005a). Furthermore, DNA methyltransferases (DNMT1, DNMT3A and DNMT3B) interact with polycomb group (PcG) protein EZH2 to methylate EZH2-binding promoters, suggesting that the two major epigenetic repression systems are closely connected (Vire *et al,* 2006). Mutation of

Dnmtl in murine embryonic stem (ES) cells causes reduction of two third of cytosine methylation in the genome and demethylation of endogenous retroviral DNA. Germline mutation of *Dnmtl* causes abnormal development and embryonic lethality (Li *et al,* 1992).

DNA methyltransferase-3 proteins are implicated in *de novo* methylation of CpG islands. DNMT3A is involved in parental imprinting. Imprinted genes are exclusively methylated in either parental allele and are therefore monoallelically expressed. Knockout of *Dnmt3a* or *Dnmt3b* in mice blocks *de novo* methylation and leads to lethality (Okano *et al,* 1999). However, conditional knockout of *Dnmt3a* in male germ cells causes impaired spermatogenesis and loss of paternal imprinting. Offsprings of *Dnmt3a* conditional mutant females die *in utero* due to the lack of maternal imprinting on *Peg3* and *Snrpn.* But *Dnmt3b* conditional mutants and their offspring show no apparent phenotype (Kaneda et al, 2004).

Unlike DNMT3A and DNMT3B, DNMT3L does not show any methyltransferation activity. It is a cofactor that enhances the *de novo* methylation activity of DNMT3A (Chedin *et al,* 2002). Disruption of *Dnmt3L* in mouse results in the failure of establish-

ment of maternal methylation imprints, indicating that this cofactor is as important as Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b in the acquisition of methylation imprinting (Bourc'his et al, 2001).

1.1.3 DNA Methylation as a repressive epigenetic mark

DNA methylation is an important regulator in many biological processes. In mammals, DNA methylation is essential for normal development. Defect in methylation causes diseases.

The mechanism of gene regulation in eukaryotic cells is more complicated than that in prokaryotic cells. Histone proteins provide an additional layer of gene regulation through epigenetic marks on histones or DNA. Double-stranded DNA wraps histone proteins to form chromatin. The state of chromatin can be either "active" or "silent", depending on the interaction between transcriptional factors and the cis-acting elements (promoters or enhancers) of the genes. It is well known that hypermethylated promoters are usually associated with gene repression. Inhibition of *de novo* methylation with methyltransferase inhibitors such as 5-azacytidine and 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine can restore the expression of methylation silenced genes (del Senno et al, 1986). The mechanism by which the gain of methyl groups in CpG sites shuts down gene expression is not clear. The first proposed model for this mechanism is that methyl groups in

promoters provide a physical barrier to accessibility by transcription factors. Many transcription factors such as AP-2, c-myc, CREB/ATF, E2F; MLTF/USF and NF-kB are known to bind promoters with unmethylated CpG dinucleotides, but fail to bind methylated CpG sequences. However, transcription factor like CTF and Spl are insensitive to methyl-CpG, suggesting that DNA methylation only affects the transcription of a subset of methylated genes (Tate & Bird, 1993). The second model of methylation mediated gene repression involves a family of methyl-binding proteins. Complexes of methyl-CpG-binding protein-1 (MECP1) and protein-2 (MECP2) preferentially bind to methylated CpG sites and inhibit transcription (Boyes & Bird, 1991; Nan *et al,* 1993). These complexes contain several methyl-CpG-binding domain (MBD) proteins (MBD1, MBD2, MBD3, MBD4 and Kaiso) that bind to methylated CpG sites to suppress transcription initiation. Binding of MECP complexes to methylated promoters either prohibits access of transcription factors, or recruits histone deacetylase, another repressive epigenetic modification enzyme, to achieve gene silencing (Ng *et al,* 1999).

Another mode of transcription regulation involves the binding of the CTCF protein to Imprint Control Regions (ICR) of imprinted genes. The role of CTCF protein in the regulation of monoallelic expression of *H19/lgf2* locus has been well studied. In this model, the ICR is located between the *Igf2* and *H19* genes. The paternally methylated

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ICR prevents binding of CTCF protein to the insulator sequence thereby permits the downstream enhancer to activate *Igf2* expression but suppress the expression of *H19* (Bell & Felsenfeld, 2000; Hark *et al,* 2000). The binding of CTCF protein is controlled by the methylation of the ICR. This is another illustration of DNA methylation mediated gene regulation.

1.1.4 Genome-wide demethylation and establishment of methylation during devleopment

The pattern of DNA methylation in somatic cells changes during embryonic development until they fully differentiate and gain tissue-specific methylation. In germ cells, differential methylation between the male and female genome occurs at different stages of development.

In mammals, there are two waves of global demethylation during development. Soon after fertilization, the highly methylated gametes are actively demethylated, a process called reprogramming. However, demethylation is not synchronized between the male and female genomes. In the zygote, the highly methylated male genome is rapidly demethylated only hours after fertilization before the first round of DNA replication commences (Mayer *et al,* 2000; Oswald *et al,* 2000). Reprogramming of the male

genome is believed to be an active process that involves the demethylation of DNA and remodeling of sperm chromatin where the sperm-specific protamines are replaced by acetylated histones. Demethylation of the maternal genome is thought to be a passive process in which DNA replication dilutes the methylome in the absence of nuclear Dnmtl. Both parental genomes gain methylation during implantation, possibly with the participation of Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b. It should be noted that imprinted genes are protected from the first wave of global demethylation. The protection of imprinted genes from demethylation in the zygote ensures proper monoallelic expression of imprinted genes, many of which are important in the early stage of embryogenesis. The second wave of global demethylation occurs in primordial germ cells (PGC) prior to gametogenesis. Between 10.5 and 11.5 days post coitum (dpc), murine PGCs migrate to the genital ridge where they differentiate into gonocytes. A rapid and active erasure of DNA methylation of regions within imprinted loci commences between 10.5 and 13.5 dpc in both male and female embryos (Hajkova *et al,* 2002). During this period imprinted genes such as *H19* are demethylated in their differential methylated region (DMR) (Hajkova et *al,* 2002; Sato *et al,* 2003). Methylation in imprinted regions is acquired before birth on 13.5 dpc and continues after birth. The timing of re-establishment of different imprinted genes in the two sexes is different.

Although several methyltransferases have been found to be responsible for maintenance (Dnmtl) and establishment (Dnmt3a; Dnmt3b and Dnmt3L) of methylation, rapid demethylation of the zygote after fertilization and erasure of the methylated imprinted regions in PGCs suggest that there exists a temporally controlled demethylase for this active process. However, the existence of DNA demethylases is still controversial, although MBD2 is proposed to be a demethylase in addition to methyl-CpGbinding protein {Detich *et al,* 2002; Ng *et al,* 1999).

1.2 Aberrant methylation in cancers

The genome is subjected to a series of genetic and/or epigenetic alterations when normal cells are transformed to neoplasm. This can be caused by prolonged exposure to carcinogens, viral infection, imbalance of hormones, spontaneous mutation of tumor suppressor genes, or any disruption in the epigenome that favors the growth of tumor cells. Tumor cells gain survival advantage as their proliferation rate overcomes apoptosis. These cells become malignant cancer if they acquire the capability to invade adjacent tissues or further migrate to distant organs. Studies of cancer genomes reveal different molecular mechanisms that lead to tumorigenesis. These include the gain or loss of genetic materials (copy number variation), mutation of genes, or disruption of the epigenome that alters gene activity without changing the DNA sequence. Usually, cancers are formed as a consequence of multiple effects. Many cancers are found to be associated with changes in the epigenome that dysregulate normal transcriptome. Aberrant DNA methylation is frequently observed and considered to be a hallmark of cancers. Disruption of methylation can be global or localized. Global hypomethylation in repetitive DNA sequences destabilizes the chromosomes and increases the rate of genomic rearrangement. Alternatively, hypermethylation in CpG islands of tumor suppressor genes prevents these genes from inhibiting tumorigenesis.

1.2.1 Hypermethylation of tumor suppressor genes in cancers

Hypermethylation is more frequently reported than hypomethylation in cancers. CpG islands play an important role in the regulation of gene transcription. In normal somatic cells, most CpG islands are unmethylated. However, acquisition of methylation in particular CpG islands is observed in almost all types of primary tumors as compared to their normal counterparts. The mechanism of cancer hypermethylation is not fully understood. Several studies have shown that this might involve the interaction of the *de novo* methyltransferase DNMT1 and other DNA binding proteins. For example, DNMT1 forms complex with Rb, E2F1 and HDAC1 to repress transcription from promoters containing E2F-binding sites in cancer cells (Robertson *et al,* 2000). Moreover, DNMT1 interacts with p53 to repress p53 responsive genes *Survivin* and *Cdc25C* (Esteve *et al,* 2005). Since DNMT1 shows low sequence specificity, targeted methylation is possibly achieved through interaction between DNA binding proteins (which binds to DNA with a particular consensus sequence) and DNMT1, and probably other histone modifiers such as HDAC.

Numerous reports show that DNA hypermethylation can occur in many genes involved in different biochemical pathways that are related to tumor development or

progression. **Table 1.1** summarizes the most frequently reported genes that are silenced by DNA methylation; many of them demonstrate hypermethylation in CpG islands. These genes regulate a number of cellular processes including cell cycle *[CDKN2A/P16-INK4, CDKN2B/pl5-INK4B, CCND2, RBI),* DNA repair *(M6MT, BRCA1, MLH1),* apoptosis *{DAPK, TMS1, TP73),* metastasis *{CDHI, CDH13, PCDH10),* detoxification *(GSTP1),* hormone response *{ESR1, ESR2),* Ras signaling *[RASSF1),* and Wnt signaling *[APC, DKK1).* Hypermethyation of some genes such as *CDKN2A/pl6-INK4, RA5SF1,* and *MGMT* is observed in many types of cancer while hypermethylation of others appears to be limited to a particular cancer type. These genes include *BEX1* and *BEX2* in glioma (Foltz *et al,* 2006), *PPP1R13B* in acute leukemia (Roman-Gomez *et al,* 2005b), and *PRSS21* in testicular germ cell tumors (Kempkensteffen *et al,* 2006). Certain cancer types appear to be more vulnerable to epigenetic disruptions. According to the cancer methylation database PubMeth, the most often reported cancers associated with DNA hypermethylation are lung, gastric, colorectal, leukemia, brain, liver, breast, and prostate cancers (Ongenaert *et al,* 2008). However, the prevalence of reports on hypermethylation in these major cancers does not indicate the infrequency of methylation disruption in other cancer types. Rare malignant tumors such as testicular germ cell tu-

mors have been known to be epigenetically changed as other major tumors, although

many of the disrupted genes reflect the origin of the tumors (Lind *et al,* 2007).

Table 1.1 Most frequently reported genes that are hypermethylated in human

cancers

Defect of cell cycle control is one of the characteristics of cancer cells. This explains why suppression of genes involved in cell cycle control is so common. *RASSF1* is a tumor suppressor gene known to inhibit cell proliferation by negatively regulating cell cycle progression at Gl/S phase transition through inhibiting accumulation of cyclin D1 (Shivakumar *et al,* 2002). Hypermethylation of *RASSF1* is prevalent in a wide variety of cancers, probably reflecting the intrinsic factors common to tumorigenesis (Yu *et al,* 2003). Aberrant methylation is also found in genes of signaling pathways. Hypermethylation of *SOCS-1,* for example, leads to the activation of the STAT3 pathways in head and neck squamous cell carcinomas (Lee *et al,* 2006b).

Cancer cells usually acquire aberrant methylation of multiple tumor-related genes that cooperate to confer survival advantage of neoplastic cells (Lee *et al,* 2002; Leung *et al,* 2001). Clinical studies must include a statistically significant sample size to reveal the frequency of aberrant methylation. A considerable variation of the frequency for a certain tumor suppressor gene is observed in different types of cancers, probably due to the different grades of cancers and different sample sizes.

1.2.2 Epigenetic reactivation of oncogenes by hypomethylation

The human cancer genome was first found to be hypomethylated in 1983 (Feinberg & Vogelstein, 1983). Global hypomethylation and the resulting genomic instability are regarded as hallmarks of cancers today. It is generally thought that global hypomethylation occurs early in tumorigenesis and predisposes cells to genomic instability and further genetic changes. Gene specific demethylation appears at a later stage. This allows tumor cells to adapt to their local environment and promote metastasis (Robertson, 2005). Hypomethylation has also been found to be correlated with tumor progression and cancer metastasis (Widschwendter *et al,* 2004a).

In contrast to hypermethylation that leads to gene silencing, hypomethylation of genes is usually accompanied with reactivation of transcription. In cancers, hypomethylation is often associated with oncogenes. *c-Myc,* a transcription factor that acts as an oncogene, is one of the widely reported hypomethylated genes in cancers. Hypomethylation of *c-Myc* was first found in cultured cell lines in 1984 {Cheah *et al,* 1984), and subsequently identified in other cancers such as hepatocellular carcinoma (Kaneko *et al,* 1985; Nambu et *al,* 1987), leukemia (Tsukamoto *et al,* 1992), and gastric carcinoma (Fang *et al,* 1996). Its methylation is also known to be associated with bladder and colo-

rectal cancer progression (Del Senno *et al,* 1989; Sharrard *et al,* 1992). The cancer-testis gene *MAGE {melanoma antigen)* is normally expressed in germ cells only, but reactivated in various tumor types. Reactivation by demethylation was observed during gastric cancer progression (Honda *et al,* 2004). Promoter hypomethylation and reactivation of *MAGE-A1* and *MAGE-A3* was also observed in colorectal cancer cell lines and cancer tissues (Kim *et al,* 2006). Moreover, hypomethylation of *P-cadherin (CDH3)* was found in colorectal carcinogenesis (Milicic *et al,* 2008) as well as in invasive breast carcinomas (Paredes *et al,* 2005). *c-Ha-Ras* is another hypomethylated oncogene involved in signal transduction by activating several cascades of kinases which lead to growth, differentiation, apoptosis or senescence. Hypomethylation of *c-Ha-Ras* was reported in gastric carcinoma (Fang *et al,* 1996). DNA hypomethylation of the oncogene *synuclein gamma (SNCG)* causes it to be over-expressed in breast and ovarian cancers (Gupta *et al,* 2003), gastric cancer (Yanagawa *et al,* 2004), and liver cancer (Zhao *et al,* 2006).

In addition, many other genes were found to be hypomethylated and reactivated in cancers, although their role in oncogenesis needs to be confirmed. These include *PSG* in testicular germ cell cancer (Cheung et al., unpublished observations), *WNT5A, CRIP1* and *SIOOP* in prostate cancer (Wang *et al,* 2007), *LI cell adhesion mole-*

cule [L1CAM) in colorectal cancer (Kato *et al,* 2009), and the cancer/testis antigen gene *XAGE-1* in gastric cancers (Lim *et al,* 2005).

1.2.3 Global hypomethylation in repetitive sequence and their role in genomic instability

Although global hypomethylation was found in a wide variety of tumors, the role of hypomethylation is not fully understood. It raises the question that whether hypomethylation is the consequence of tumor transformation or the cause of tumorigenesis. The question could possibly be answered by genetic deletion of Dnmt1, the only known methyltransferase for methylation maintenance. However, since homozygous Dnmtl knockout mice are lethal during gestation (Lei *et al, 1996),* a modified animal model is essential for studying hypomethylation *in vivo.* In a study, a hypomorphic allele of *Dnmtl* was combined with a null allele to generate the heterozygous mice in which the endogenous Dnmt1 level was reduced to 10%. Cells of the heterozygotes displayed genome-wide hypomethylation in all tissues. The mice developed T cell lymphomas and had a high frequency of chromosome 15 trisomy (Gaudet *et al,* 2003). These experiments suggest that DNA hypomethylation plays a crucial role in tumor development by promoting chromosomal instability.
Pericentromeric heterochromatin contains tightly packed repetitive DNA sequences *(LINE, SINE, IAP,* and *Alu* elements). In normal cells heterochromatin is highly methylated and epigenetically silenced to reduce transcriptional noise. In cancers, global demethylation is commonly observed. Methylation of *LINE-1* (long interspersed nucleotide elements) helps to maintain genomic stability and integrity. Loss of methylation increases genomic instability and results in a higher chance of mitotic recombination, both of which are frequently observed in tumor development.

Global hypomethylation of *LINE-1* is widely reported in different cancer types, including colorectal cancer (Estecio *et ol,* 2007; Ogino *et ol,* 2008), urothelial carcinoma (Jurgens *et al,* 1996), malignant germ cell tumors (Alves *et al,* 1996), ovarian cancer (Pattamadilok *et al,* 2008), cervical cancer (Shuangshoti *et al,* 2007), neuroendocrine tumors (Choi *et al,* 2007), prostate cancer (Cho *et al,* 2007), and chronic myeloid leukemia (Roman-Gomez *et al,* 2005a). In a study using pyrosequencing to determine the methylation status of *LINE-1* and *Alu* sequences in 48 primary non-small cell carcinomas, hypomethylation of the retrotransposable elements was found to correlate with genomic instability (Daskalos *et al,* 2009). It was therefore proposed as a surrogate marker for cancer-linked genome demethylation (Ogino *et al,* 2008).

1.2.4 Aberrant methylation in non-coding regions

Genome-wide methylation profiling reveals a large number of differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in cancer cells. However, a small proportion of DMRs are mapped to gene promoters (Cheung et al., 2010; Chapter 2). The majority of DMRs are located in intergenic regions or introns. It is yet a puzzle why the cancer genome displays differential methylation in these "non-regulatory" regions. One of the possible functions of intergenic and intronic DMRs is to regulate the expression of non-coding RNAs (ncRNA). Many ncRNAs such as miRNAs and snoRNAs are located in intergenic or intronic regions. Some are expressed through the action of independent promoters while others might be the splicing products of the host mRNAs (for intronic ncRNAs). It is estimated that half of the miRNAs are associated with CpG islands (Weber *et al,* 2007a). Several studies attempt to reveal the role of DNA methylation on regulation of miRNAs (Datta *et al,* 2008; Lujambio *et al,* 2008; Saito *et al,* 2006). Demethylation of cancer cell lines by 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine restored expression of these miRNAs, indicating that like many tumor suppressor genes, miRNA is another class of ncRNAs that is epigenetically disrupted. In Chapter *2,*1 report that miR-199a and miR-184 were reactivated by 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine treatment of embryonal carcinoma cells. Both miRNAs are hypermethylated in intronic and intergenic regions respectively. In another study,

miR-148a, miR-34b/c and miR-9 were found to be silenced by DNA methylation. These epigenetically regulated miRNAs act as tumor suppressors that contribute to suppression of cancer development and metastasis (Lujambio *et al,* 2008). Other hypermethylated miRNAs in cancers include miR-127 as a negative regulator of proto-oncogene *BCL6* (Saito *et al, 2006),* miR-124 as a negative regulator of *CDK6* (Lujambio *et al, 2007),* and miR-1 in hepatocellular carcinogenesis (Datta *et al,* 2008). It is anticipated that more DNA methylation regulated miRNAs will be identified by genome-wide analysis of cancer methylomes.

1.3 Genome-wide studies of cancer methylome

1.3.1 Introduction

The majority of current evidence linking DNA methylation, transcriptional regulation, and disease are derived from cancer research. Significant changes in global DNA methylation have been observed in cultured cancer cells and primary human tumor tissues. These changes include global DNA hypomethylation of centromeric repeats, repetitive sequences, and gene-specific hypermethylation of CpG islands (Lister & Ecker, 2009). Over the last decade the number of studies on the role of DNA methylation in cancer development has grown dramatically and "cancer epigenetics" is now the focus of many exciting and significant advances in cancer research. Diagnosis, prognosis and therapeutic regimes relating to DNA methylation are on the horizon. However, the understanding of the biological significance of aberrant DNA methylation in the cancer genome remains limited. This is largely due to the lack of high-throughput technologies and relevant genome information. In the past, DNA methylation analysis was usually performed on a single gene using qualitative or quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based methods. Common ones include methylation specific PCR (MSP) (Licchesi & Herman, 2009), combined bisulfite restriction analysis (COBRA) (Xiong & Laird, 1997),

methylation sensitive single nucleotide primer extension (Ms-SNuPE) (Gonzalgo & Jones, 2002), small scale bisulfite sequencing (Frommer *et al,* 1992), and quantitative methylation-specific PCR (QMSP, also known as Methylight) (Jeronimo *et al,* 2001). Each method has its advantages and disadvantages **(Table** 1.2). It was costly and ineffective to survey whole-genome DNA methylation using these methods. In fact, only about 0.1% of the reported studies examined detailed DNA methylation in the genome (Schumacher *et al,* 2006).

With the completion of various genome projects and recent developments in high-throughput and whole-genome profiling techniques, large scale DNA methylation analysis has become feasible. Unlike whole genome transcriptome assays that are based on unified RNA sequence annotation, the design of whole genome methylome assays are more complicated due to the elusive and dynamic pattern of cytosine methylation in the genome. Such DNA modification, usually referred to as the "fifth base" (Bird, 1986), was not included in the original genome projects. There is no universal reference available for designing probes or assays to differentiate the "fifth base" from the unmethylated cytosine. Therefore, despite the wide availability of whole genome expression assays, identification of sites of DNA methylation throughout a genome has not been possible until recently. The full extent of the effect of global DNA methylation

on gene expression and chromatin structure remains largely unknown. The challenge has been overcome by recent availability of highly specific antibodies, high density microarrays, and massive parallel sequencing technologies. These technologies enable global mapping of this epigenetic modification at a very high or even single base resolution, providing new insights into the regulation and dynamics of DNA methylation in genomes. A number of global methylation methods are available. The differences are the resolution, features of DNA surveyed, and the qualitative or quantitative nature of the method.

Table 1.2 Methylation assays

The procedure of whole genome DNA methylation profiling can be divided into two steps: the first step is to identify and enrich methylcytosines in the DNA sample **(Figure** 1**.1).** Common methods include: 1) restriction enzyme-based method; 2) chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP); and 3) bisulfite conversion. The second step involves capturing the enriched or chemically modified DNA by high-throughput and high resolution whole genome assays that use high density tiling microarrays or massive parallel sequencing.

Figure 1.1 Methods of methylome analysis

1.3.2 First step in global methylome mapping

1. Restriction enzyme-based method

Digestion with methylation-sensitive restriction enzyme followed by Southern blot analysis was employed to examine the overall methylation status of CpG islands (Reilly *et al,* 1982). However, this approach does not provide information of methylcytosine in a specific sequence context. This approach is further hampered by the efficiency of restriction enzyme digestion and the amount of input DNA ($>$ 5 μ g) required. Replacing Southern blot analysis with PCR in subsequent modifications (e.g. COBRA) allows the application in small scale DNA methylation analysis. Restriction enzymebased method can also be combined with other experimental approaches to gain global methylation information, including restriction landmark genomic scanning (RLGS) (Akama *et al,* 1997), array-based differential methylation hybridization (DMH)/Array-PRIMES (Huang *et al,* 1999) and Hpall tiny fragment enrichment by ligation-mediated PCR (HELP) (Khulan *et al,* 2006).

Restriction landmark genomic scanning (RLGS)

RLGS is a two-dimensional gel electrophoresis approach based on the use of methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes (e.g. *Not\).* Up to 2,000 end-labeled landmark

sites can be displayed in a single RLGS experiment. The labeling of the sites is based on incorporation of radionucleotides into the restriction site by DNA polymerase. Methylated sites are not digested and are not labeled; thus do not contribute to the twodimensional pattern of RLGS fragments. Spots present in a normal profile, but absent in a tumor profile represent methylation of the landmark site. It allows quantitative global DNA methylation analysis in the context of CpG islands. This approach provides a platform for the simultaneous assessment of over 2000 CpG islands (Hatada *et al,* 1991; Okazaki *et al,* 1995).

The main strength of RLGS resides in its unbiased approach towards the analysis of CpG islands irrespective of their association with known genes, thus providing a unique tool for the discovery of novel hypermethylated sequences in mammalian genomes. In addition, it can be applied to any genome without prior knowledge of DNA sequence. RLGS has been used in the identification of novel imprinted genes and genes frequently hypermethylated (Blanchard *et al,* 2003; Costello *et al,* 2000; Dai *et al,* 2003; Fruhwald *et al,* 2001; Kuromitsu *et al,* 1995; Motiwala *et al,* 2003; Smiraglia *et al,* 2003; Song *et al,* 2005; Wang *et al,* 2008; Yamagata *et al,* 2009), and genomic hypomethylation (Konishi *et al,* 1996; Morey *et al,* 2006; Nagai *et al,* 1999) and methylation of 3'untranslated regions (Smith *et al,* 2007) in several types of cancers.

Despite its power in the systematic detection of epigenetic alterations due to DNA methylation, the identification of polymorphic spots is difficult with RLGS because the resulting spots contain very little target DNA and many non-labeled DNA fragments. Another major limitation of RLGS is that methylation can only be assessed in CpG islands which contain the sequence for the methylation-sensitive enzyme used in the assay. Sequence polymorphisms in any of the enzyme recognition sequences needed for RLGS or genomic deletions result in the effective loss of signal, which could be incorrectly interpreted as DNA methylation. Finally, the assay requires relatively large amounts of high molecular weight genomic DNA $(> 1 \mu g)$, which makes this approach unsuitable for the analysis of samples when the amount of DNA available is low or when the DNA is highly fragmented.

Differential methylation hybridization (DMH)

Studies on global changes of DNA methylation at the CpG island level can also be achieved by the combination of restriction enzyme digestion and CpG island microarrays. DMH is the first successful attempt to build an array-based DNA methylation assay. It uses a methylation-insensitive restriction enzyme (Msel) to digest genomic DNA followed by ligation with DNA linkers. The ligation product is then digested with

methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes Hpall and BstUI. The product of the second round of enzyme digestion is amplified by PCR using primers complementary to the linker sequence. The PCR products are then labeled with fluorescent dyes (Cy3 or Cy5) and then hybridized to a CpG island microarray. Similar to other restriction enzymebased methods, the specificity of DMH depends on the efficient digestion of genomic DNA by methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes. Incomplete digestion could lead to the generation of false-positive results. The technique had been used to successfully identify epigenetic alterations in cancers including breast (Fan *et al,* 2006; Huang *et al,* 1999; Yan *et al,* 2000; Yan *et al,* 2006), ovary (Balch *et al,* 2005), colon (Paz *et al,* 2003), and brain cancers (Felsberg *et al,* 2006; Vladimirova *etal,* 2009; Waha *et al,* 2007).

Hpall tiny fragment enrichment by ligation-mediated PCR (HELP)

HELP assay interrogates cytosine methylation status on a genomic scale (Khulan *et al,* 2006; Oda & Greally, 2009). In this assay; two restriction enzymes (Hpall and Mspl) are used. Hpall only cleaves sites where the cytosine in the CpG is not methylated. Resulting DNA fragments after digestion with each of these enzymes are separately amplified by PCR and labeled with different fluorescent dyes. The particular PCR process used in the HELP assay will produce DNA fragments with a size of 200 bp to 2000 bp

known as HTFs (Hpall tiny fragments). Comparison of the quantity of HTFs derived from Mspl and Hpall treatment will reveal the methylation state of the different genomic sites. The relative amounts of Mspl and Hpall fragments are compared by hybridizing to tiling microarray. Beside CpG island methylation, it will also provide insights into the distribution of cytosine methylation in other genomic regions.

2. *Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChlP)-based methods*

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) allows one to investigate interactions between proteins and DNA. It was first applied to study the regulation of *Hsp70* genes in Drosophila (Solomon *et al,* 1988). The technique has also been applied extensively in cancer research (Neff & Armstrong, 2009; Ren & Dynlacht, 2004; Wang, 2005). The procedure involves cross-linking of chromatin proteins-DNA complex by formaldehyde and the generation of short random fragments of the chromatin by sonication. Using antibodies directed against the protein of interest, cross-linked chromatin fragments are immunoprecipitated. The isolated antibody-chromatin-complexes and the input or non-immunoprecipitated materials are treated to remove the crosslink and the DNA is purified. Both control and immunoprecipitated samples are amplified by quantitative PCR using primers specific for the genomic region of interest. With different antibody

combination, ChIP allows for profiling chromatin-associated factors, histone modifications, histone variants as well as local nucleosome density. When ChIP is combined with DNA microarray technology (ChlP-chip), it can be applied in the identification of DNA binding sites for transcriptional factors (Jiang & Pugh, 2009; Rodriguez & Huang, 2005; Wu *et al,* 2006). Combining ChIP with genomic tiling array hybridization or massive-parallel sequencing (ChlP-seq) allows whole genome studies, including global methylome analysis.

Ch_{IP-Chip}

Although RLGS has been proven useful in identifying differential methylated regions in a variety of tumors, it is limited to detecting methyl groups at defined restriction sites and the data obtained are limited by the frequency of the restriction enzyme recognition sequence {Smiraglia & Plass, 2002). ChlP-Chip provides an alternative solution to RLGS. Methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (MeDIP or mDIP) (Keshet *et al,* 2006; Mohn *et al,* 2009; Sorensen & Collas, 2009; Thu *et al,* 2009; Weber *et al,* 2005) is a ChlP-chip based method that uses antibody against 5-methylcytosine to capture methylated DNA fragments. Enriched fragments are then detected by hybridizing to genomic tiling microarrays. It is suitable for unbiased interrogation of whole genome me-

thylation to uncover non-CpG island methylation regions. Using MeDIP approach, Weber *et al* showed that only a small set of promoters was methylated differentially, suggesting that aberrant methylation of CpG island promoters in malignancy might be less frequent than previously speculated (Weber *et al,* 2005). Follow-up study also demonstrated CG-depleted regions to be strikingly hypomethylated, manifesting a degree of change greater than those at the CpG tested islands in the same experiment (Weber *et al,* 2007b).

ChlP-seq

ChlP-seq is an alternative method for reading ChIP results by using highthroughput sequencing technologies (Barski & Zhao, 2009; Hoffman & Jones, 2009; Neff & Armstrong, 2009). Similar to MeDIP/mDIP procedure, the methylated DNA is immunoprecipitated with antibody against 5-methylcytosine. The 5' ends of the enriched DNA fragments are sequenced in parallel. Depending on the technology, the sequences are read in short or long fragments known as tags. The tags are assembled and mapped to the reference genome using alignment algorithms (Pettersson *et al,* 2009). The ChlP-seq data provides single base resolution information on methylation and the digital nature of sequencing data allows comparison between different ChlP-

seq experiments directly. The drawbacks of the ChlP-seq approach include high cost, long experiment time, and extensive sequencing required. Significant amount of nonrelevant methylation signals from repetitive DNA elements are also included in the dataset.

3. *Bisulfite conversion method*

Genomic DNA is treated with bisulfite to convert unmethylated cytosine to uracil. Methylated cytosine is not affected by this treatment. This procedure is sensitive and is independent of the presence or absence of restriction enzyme recognition sequence. Similar to ChIP, the chemically modified DNA can be detected by microarrays containing bisulfite-modified targets (Zhou *et al,* 2006) or direct sequencing (Cokus *et al,* 2008; Lister *et al,* 2008; Meissner *et al,* 2008), Unlike classic whole genome sequencing, the Watson and Crick strands of bisulfite-treated sequences are not complementary to each other because bisulfite conversion occurs on cytosine only. As a result, there will be four distinct strands after PCR amplification: BSW (bisulfite Watson), BSWR (reverse complement of BSW), BSC (bisulfite Crick), and BSCR (reverse complement of BSC). This increases the amount of work in the alignment step. It also requires an effective

method in asymmetric C/T matching. Mapping of millions of bisulfite reads to the reference genome remains a computational challenge.

1.3.3 Second step in global methylome mapping

1. Microarray technology

A microarray is a solid support on which DNA of known sequence is deposited. The DNA may take the form of oligonucleotides, cDNA or clones and act as probes to detect sequences present in the sample through hybridization. Depending on resolution, a whole genome human microarray chip could contain more than two millions probes. DNA microarrays were originally developed for high-throughput gene expression analysis. The fast, comprehensive and flexible nature makes it an indispensable tool in the post-genomic era.

Tiling microarrays are high-resolution microarrays made of probes ranging from 5 bp to 60 bp. In contrast to classic microarray design where probes are biased to the annotated gene regions; the probe sequences in tiling microarrays tile along the genome without considering sequence features. The design allows unbiased interrogation of the whole genome. The use of tiling arrays has unveiled that large portion of the human genome is transcribed (Johnson *et al,* 2005; Witlingham & Gingeras, 2006). They

are useful in splice variant analysis and the detailed examination of gene structure (Finocchiaro *et al,* 2007). This research so far has challenged our notion on gene definition.

2. *Massive parallel sequencing technology (the next-gen sequencing)*

The capillary sequencer was the main workhorse of the Human Genome Project. It does not require radiation and polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis as initially invented by Frederick Sanger in the 1970s {Sanger *et al,* 1977; Sanger *et al,* 1992). However, it is still cumbersome and slow, with relatively high cost to run (\$0.10 per 1000 bases). This situation was changed in 2005 with the introduction of the 454 sequencer and later the other new players such as lllumina and SOLiD. These sequencing technologies are referred to as "next-gen" sequencing **(Table** 1.3) (Morozova & Marra, 2008).

Table 1.3 The evolution of sequencers

Source: Wellcome Trust (hup: [www.wellcome.ac.](http://www.wellcome.ac) uk/News 2009 Features/ WTX056032.htm)

Founded by Jonathan Rothberg, the technology of 454 sequencing ([http://www.4B4.com\)](http://www.4B4.com) was developed by 454 Life Sciences, a Roche company. The method relies on tiny resin bead to anchor the DNA fragments, which are amplified and denatured to single stranded form. The beads are then put into wells on a plate along with enzyme beads. The polymerase and primer attach to the DNA fragment to initiate the sequencing reaction. As the nucleotides are incorporated into the DNA strand, light is given off. Light intensity is proportional to the number of *A's,* T's, C's or G's incorporated. The latest 454 machine is able to read one gigabase of DNA sequence within days, at a cost of \$0.02 per 1000 bases.

Illumia

In 2006, Solexa debuted a new sequencing technology. Instead of using beads for DNA fragment capture, DNA fragments are amplified in dense clusters on a slide to provide stronger fluorescence signals. Fluorescence signals specific to A, *T, C* and G are read as the bases are incorporated into the DNA fragment template in each cluster. The platform made its mark delivering the first African, Asian and cancer patient genomes. It was acquired by Illumia ([http://www.illumina.com\)](http://www.illumina.com) in 2006.

454

SOLID

Applied Biosystems rolled out the SOLiD (Sequencing by oligonucleotide ligation and detection) sequencing technology in 2007. Unlike 454 and lllumia platforms that rely on DNA polymerase for replicating new DNA strand a base at a time (sequencing through synthesis), SOLiD sequences by ligation, hybridizing a range of probes to the DNA template. The advantage of this sequencing method is that each base is read twice. This increases the confidence level in genome-wide SNP analysis.

Compared to 454; both SOLiD and lllumina sequence DNA around 20 times cheaper, at about \$0,001 per 1000 bases and take just half a day to read one gigabase. They also have the advantage of being able to handle more samples simultaneously.

1.3.4 Conclusion and future **direction**

Epigenetic changes have been recognized as one of the most important molecular signatures of human tumors in recent years. Aberrant promoter hypermethylation is now considered to be a *bona-fide* mechanism for transcriptional inactivation. Promoter hypermethylation at the CpG islands of certain tumor suppressor genes could lead to the disruption of multiple pathways. Increasing number of hypermethylated genes are implicated to correlate with malignant potential and prognosis in cancer.

The development of DNA methylation markers for early cancer detection holds the promise of being accurate, sensitive, and cost-effective for risk assessment, early diagnosis and prognosis. DNAs from body fluids, blood, serum or tissue samples can be readily obtained by noninvasive or minimally invasive techniques (Cairns, 2007; Chan *et al,* 2002; Lee *et al,* 2002). A panel of markers can be applied to increase the sensitivity and provide a potentially powerful system of biomarkers for developing molecular detection strategies for virtually every form of human cancer. This non-invasive approach will promote epigenetics into one of the most exciting areas in cancer management and translational cancer research.

What makes DNA methylation even more exciting than traditional genetics is that this inheritable change is reversible. Unlike genetic alterations, which are almost impossible to revert, DNA methylation is a reversible event. The epigenetic effect due to DNA hypermethylation can be reversed by using demethylating agents such as DNA methyltransferase (DNMT) inhibitors 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine. DNA demethylating agents could be potentially developed into standard regiments for cancer therapy. Drugs such as decitabine have shown promising results in clinical trials in solid and liquid tumors (Jabbour *et al,* 2008). 5-azacytidine and 5-aza-2'-deoxyazacytidine have recently been approved for clinical use in the treatment of myelodysplastic syndrome

(MDS) of all types and chronic myelomonocytic leukemia (CMML) (Griffiths & Gore, 2008). In addition, over-expression of both HDAC and DNMT has been demonstrated to be associated with epigenetic inactivation of tumor suppressor genes, as well as cell cycle and apoptosis regulators. The HDAC and DNMT inhibitors possess direct cytotoxic properties, and can sensitize tumor cells to conventional radiotherapy and chemotherapy (Fandy, 2009; Miremadi *et al,* 2007). Preliminary clinical studies have found the combined effects of DNMT and HDAC inhibitors led to complete or partial responses in patients with hematological malignancies (Fabre *et al,* 2008; Griffiths & Gore, 2008; Schneider-Stock & Ocker, 2007). However, due to the non-specific nature of nucleotide analogs, it is critical to monitor the effects in both tumor and normal tissues to ensure that no long-term damage is inflicted. Nevertheless, the use of these inhibitors will open up new and promising possibilities for cancer patient management and treatment.

Despite increasing number of candidate genes affected by DNA methylation in cancer being identified, there are still numerous targets waiting to be discovered. Our understanding of the peculiarities of DNA methylation and its biological effects in the human cancer genome is yet very limited. With the completion of the human genome sequence and the application of high-throughput techniques, various cancer methylomes can be expected to be unmasked in the near future. Emerging evidences from

various methylome studies are striking. They suggest the majority of DMRs are either located outside the CpG islands, or genomic regions without annotations and gene evidence (Keshet *et ol,* 2006; Ordway *et al,* 2007; Smith *et al,* 2007; Weber *et al,* 2005; Weber *et al,* 2007b). These observations implicate that non-promoter non-CpG island methylation could play an active role in epigenetic alteration. It is not clear whether DNA methylation changes in these intergenic regions have functional consequences in terms of gene expression or other outcomes. Nevertheless, the data will further provide clues in elucidating the molecular mechanisms of DNA methylation in cancer during neoplastic transformation.

1.4 Hypothesis and project design

As methylation change is common in cancers, I aim at revealing these alterations in human testicular cancer, and studying the biological consequence of such changes. I hypothesize that, like other forms of cancer, the methylation signature of testicular cancer genome can help us understand the epigenetic defects for the disease, providing data for the the elucidation of the molecular mechanism of testicular cancer tumorigenesis.

With the evolution of techniques for global methylation analysis and the emergence of high resolution tiling microarrays; genome-wide profiling of DNA methylation is possible. This project adopted the recently developed MeDIP technique (Weber *et al,* 2005), combined with whole genome microarray hybridization, as a tool to unmask the methylation changes in human testicular cancer. The data obtained are informative and guide us to understand the epigenetic changes in testicular cancer.

In Chapter *2,* I document the use of MeDIP with tiling microarray to reveal the global DNA methylation changes in testicular cancer. A large number of DMRs were identified. Many genes and non-coding RNAs (ncRNA) were found to be differentially

methylated. In particular, some genes or ncRNAs are novel and for the first time known to be dysregulated in testicular tumorigenesis.

In Chapter 3, I document the role of miR-199a, one of the ncRNAs identified, in testicular cancer progression. In-depth investigation on miR-199a found that it is a microRNA (miRNA) associated with cancer progression. It regulates cancer invasiveness and metastasis. DNA hypermethylation is a mechanism for dysregulation of this miRNA. A target known as *podocalyxin {PODXL)* is regulated by miR-199a. *PODXL* correlates with cancer progression and therefore, is likely a downstream target of miR-199a for testicular cancer metastasis.

In Chapter *4,* I summarize all the results and the conclusion of the project, and outline potential future studies.

Chapter 2

Identification of Novel Epigenetically Regulated Genes and Non-coding RNAs in Human Testicular Cancer

2.1 Introduction

Testicular germ cell tumor (TGCT) is an invasive germ cell neoplasm histologically classified as seminoma and non-seminoma. Non-seminoma can be further subclassified into embryonal carcinoma, teratoma, choriocarcinoma, and yolk-sac cardnoma. Most non-seminomatous tumors include multiple cell types. Embryonal carcinoma is the most frequent non-seminomatous tumors. It represents about 87% of nonseminoma (Bosl & Motzer, 1997). Few seminomatous cell lines have been identified to date; several embryonal carcinoma cell lines have been established and shown to be useful for pathobiological and clinical studies (Andrews *et al,* 2005). Ntera2 (NT2) is one of the established pluripotent human testicular embryonal carcinoma cell lines. This cell line has been extensively used in research on TGCT (Burger *et al,* 1998; Koch *et al,* 2003; Skotheim *et al,* 2005). In this study, I used NT2 as a cell model to study differential methylation in embryonal carcinoma.

Unlike many cancers which peak during old age, TGCT is common in young males. Risk factors, including cryptorchidism, prenatal exposure to diethylstilbestrol and genetic factors at locus Xq27, increase susceptibility to develop TGCT (Horwich et *al,* 2006; Rapley *et al,* 2000). DNA mutation may be one cause of TGCT; however, accumulating information suggests a more prominent role for epigenetic alteration as a

factor in tumorigenesis including TGCT (Esteller, 2007; Feiriberg et *al,* 2006). Previous reports on aberrant methylation of tumor suppressor genes/oncogenes provided information for an epigenetic role in tumor development. Many studies focused on individual target genes. The first genome-wide study of DNA methylation in TGCT used the technique of restriction landmark genome scanning (RLGS) (Smiraglia *et al,* 2002). However, no report of global high-resolution analysis of methylation changes in TGCT has been published. Tiling array technology permits elucidation of differentially methylated regions (DMR) of the whole genome (Cokus *et al,* 2008; Weber *et al, 2005;* Zhang *et al,* 2006} by the ChlP-Chip approach. A popular ChlP-Chip based method employed is methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (MeDIP), where methylated DNA is enriched by use of antibodies directed against 5-methylcytidine and hybridized to custom arrays such as promoter arrays or CpG island microarrays (Irizarry et *al,* 2008; Jacinto et *al,* 2007; Yan *et al,* 2002) . These whole genome approaches are powerful tools for identification of differentially methylated genes that may be important in tumorigenesis.

In this Chapter I utilized MeDIP in combination with human tiling microarrays (MeDIP-chip) covering the entire human genome, to elucidate DMRs. This approach allows identification of not only differentially methylated promoters and geneassociated CpG islands, but also differentially methylated non-coding RNAs (ncRNA)

such as microRNAs (miRNA). Increasing number of reports suggest miRNAs may play pivotal roles in tumor progression and development including the regulation of neoplastic transformation and metastasis (Huang *et al,* 2008; Ma *et al,* 2007; Varambally *et al,* 2008). Some miRNAs are epigenetically silenced in cancer cells as a result of cancerspecific hypermethylation (Han *et al,* 2007; Lujambio *et al,* 2008; Toyota *et al,* 2008). Since most miRNAs are located in intergenic or intronic regions, they were not identified in previous studies using promoter or CpG island arrays. To validate the clinical utility of this approach i documented methylation and expression changes of 3 novel genes and a miRNA in normal and tumorous testicular tissue. Our genome-wide approach demonstrates the use of MeDIP-Chip integrated with expression profiling as a tool for discovery of methylation-regulated genes and ncRNAs that might be important in diseases.

2.2 Materials and methods

Primary tumor specimens, cell cultures and drug treatment

Genomic DNA (17 cases) and RNA (18 cases) samples of TGCT patients were purchased from Oncomatrix (San Marcos, CA, USA). Normal testicular DNA (6 cases) and RNA (8 cases) were purchased from Biochain (Hayward, CA, USA) and Zyagen (San Diego, CA, USA). RNAs of tumor and normal adjacent tissues of other tumor types were purchased from Ambion (Austin, TX, USA). Each RNA sample was isolated from a single individual. Cell culture system Ntera2 (NT2, ATCC#: CRL-1973), Tera-1 and normal human testis cell line CRL-7002 (HT) were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) and cultured in DMEM (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS and incubated in 37° C humidified incubator supplied with 5% CO₂. For demethylation analysis, 1×10^5 NT2 cells were seeded for 24 hours and treated with 1-5 µM of 5-aza-2-deoxycytidine (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) for 72 hours.

MeDIP and microarray hybridization

Methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (MeDIP) was performed as previously described {Weber *et al,* 2005). Briefly, genomic DNA was sheared by sonication on ice to generate random fragments of 100-500 bp. Five ug of sonicated DNA were used for immunoprecipitation (IP). Heat denatured DNA was incubated with 10 μ l of mouse anti-5-

methylcytidine monoclonal antibody (Eurogenetec, San Diego, CA, USA) in IX IP buffer (lOmM Na-Phosphate pH7.0,140mM NaCI and 0.05% Triton X-100) with periodic shaking for 2 hours at 4°C. Sheep anti-mouse IgG conjugated Dynabeads (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA; USA) were added to the IP and incubated for additional 2 hours. The beads were washed 3 times with 700 μ I 1X IP buffer and then resuspended in 250 μ I digestion buffer (50mM Tris, pH8.0, lOmM EDTA, 0.5% SOS). The antibodies were digested with 80 µg of proteinase K for 3 hours at 50° C. DNA was extracted with phenol/chloroform and precipitated with ethanol. Precipitated DNA was resuspended in water and used for real-time qPCR (for validation of IP efficiency) or microarray hybridization. Several positive and negative control loci were used for confirmation of IP efficiency before hybridizing to microarrays **(Figure 2.1A).** The immunoprecipitated DNA was amplified, labeled, and hybridized to Human Tiling Array 2.0R Chips (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA) sequentially, as suggested by Affymetrix ChlP-chip protocol. Triplicate sets of hybridization were performed from 3 independent MeDIP experiments for each cell line. Both tiling and expression arrays were washed and stained on the Affymetrix Fluidic Station 450 and Chips were scanned on GeneChip Scanner GCS3000 (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA).

Tiling array data analysis

The raw CEL data files from tiling array experiments were analyzed by Tiling Analysis Software (TAS) (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Arrays from each group (cancer versus normal) were quantile-normalized and differential methylation between groups of cancer and normal was compared by choosing the "two-sample comparison analysis" option in TAS. A two-sided test was performed to evaluate both hypermethylation and hypomethylation. A bandwidth was set at 275 such that the sliding window (2*bandwidth+l) of the analysis is 551. Transfrags (or DMRs) were generated by Interval Analysis with a *P* value cutoff at 20 *[P <* 0.01), maximum gap to be 250 and minimum run to be 50. Transfrags generated by *P* value cutoff with a positive signal difference were defined as hypermethylation while those of negative difference were defined as hypomethylation. Genomic bisulfite sequencing was performed to confirm the sensitivity of the observed DMRs **(Figure 2.1C).** Mapping of DMRs to Refseq, CpG island, promoter, miRNA and snoRNA was performed by using the Table Browser function embedded in UCSC Genome Bioinformatics (Santa Cruz, CA, USA; http://genome.ucsc.edu/cgi-[bin/hgTables?command=start\)](http://genome.ucsc.edu/cg%e5%8d%9cbin/hgTables?command=start) or by our customized webbased tool TileMapper ([http://tilemapper.nichd.nih.gov/tilemapper\)](http://tilemapper.nichd.nih.gov/tilemapper) designed specifically for transfrag mapping. Promoter annotation was retrieved from Genomatix (San Jose, CA, USA; [http://www.genomatix.de\)](http://www.genomatix.de) and the coordination of each promoter was

stored in BED files. Annotation of Refseq, CpG island, miRNA and snoRNA were retrieved from the UCSC Genome Browser. All analysis was based on human genome Build 35.1.

Expression array hybridization and data analysis

Total RNA was extracted from NT2 and HT cells with Trizol Reagent and analyzed by Bioanalyzer (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). 3 µg of DNasel treated RNA were amplified and the resulting cRNA was biotin-labeled and hybridized to Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0 Arrays (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Triplicate sets of hybridization were performed for each cell line and the raw data were normalized by robust multiarray average (RMA) algorithm and analyzed in Partek Genomics Suite Software (Partek, St Louis, MO, USA). Differential gene expression was evaluated using one-way ANOVA. Expression fold change of differentially methylated genes was represented by the probe of most significant P-value. Differentially expressed genes were confirmed by real time PCR **(Table** 2.1).

Genomic bisulfite sequencing and methylation-specific PCR (MSP)

400 ng of genomic DNA was treated with sodium bisulfite using the EZ DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, *CA,* USA). 80 - 100 ng of bisulfite-treated DNA was used for PCR amplification. For bisulfite sequencing, the PCR product was TOPO-

cloned into the pCR4 vector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 5-10 positive clones were sequenced. Graphics of CpG methylation were generated by CpGviewer (Carr *et al,* 2007). For MSP, methylated and unmethylated specific primers were designed in the same genomic region as in bisulfite sequencing. MSP products were resolved in 2.5% agarose gel.

Quantitative real-time RT-PCR

1 µg of total RNA was primed by random hexamers and converted into cDNA by Super-Script III (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). SYBR green based real-time PCR was performed in an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast Real Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, *CA,* USA) and the level of gene expression was normalized by 18S rRNA. For real-time quantification of miRNAs, total RNA was extracted with mirVana miRNA Isolation Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA). cDNA was synthesized from 1 µg of total RNA using miRNA-specific primers with TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and normalized by hsa-mir-191. All PCR primers are listed on **Supplementary Table** 2.3.

Statistical analysis

The *P* value of tiling array analysis was computed by TAS, which uses a Hodges-Lehmann estimator associated with the Wilcoxon rank-sum test to compute the fold
enrichment between treatment (cancer) and control (normal) groups. *P* value less than 0.01 is considered to be statistically significant. The *P* value of expression microarray analysis was determined by one-way ANOVA by comparing triplicate sets of normalized normal and cancer cells. Differential expression of *APOLD1, PCDH10, RGAG1* and hsamir-199a-2 in TGCT patients as determined by qPCR was analyzed by two-tailed Student's t-test. *P <* 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Validation of microarray data

To validate the efficiency of MeDIP, relative real-time qPCR was used to determine the fold of enrichment for positively methylated loci *{RASSF1* and *NPY)* and a negative locus *{ACTB)* in the cancer geome. The results showed that MeDIP enriched loci of *RASSF1* and /VP/by 80-100 fold as compared to *ACTB* **(Figure 2.1A).** The MeDIP product was subsequently amplified by PCR method to generate sufficient amount of DNA for microarray hybridization. To show that the PCR does not create any bias on the DNA content, MeDIP product after amplification was examined for enrichment with those control loci. The result showed a consistent pattern of methylation enrichment for *RASSF1* and *NPY* **(Figure 2.1A).** These experiments demonstrate that MeDIP is efficient in capturing methylated loci.

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used to determine whether the cancer and normal methylomes are different. The distinct distribution between the two groups indicates that global methylation is different **(Figure 2.1B).**

The microarray hybridization generated a large number of differentially methylated regions (DMR). To experimentally validate these DMRs, eight loci were randomly picked for bisulfite sequencing. These loci include *EBNA1BP2, PQLC2, HOXCIO, HOXA7,*

0SR1, GAD1, ZSWIM2 and an intergenic region from different chromosomes. The results of bisulfite sequencing confirmed tiling array data and documented it to be a sensitive and reliable tool to detect DMRs with a *P* value cutoff at 0.01 **(Figure 2.1C).**

Besides tiling arrays for methylation profiling, expression microarrays were used for expression profiling. The relative fold change of genes determined in expression microarray was confirmed by real-time **RT-qPCR (Table 2.1).** Results of qPCR were consistent with microarray data with fold change greater than 2. Variation of fold change was observed between the two methods if the fold change from microarray is between -2 and 2. Such variation may reflect the false negative result from microarray experiments. Thus, only those genes with fold change greater than 2 were further analyzed.

Figure 2.1 Validation of MeDIP-Chip result and confirmation of DMRs by bisulfite sequencing. (A) Validation **of** MeDIP. Real-time **qPCR** analysis **of** *ACTB, RASSF1* **and** *NPY* on immunoprecipitated DNA (IP) and immunoprecipitated DNA with PCR amplification (IPM). Input DNA serves as background control. *RASSF1* and *NPY* are two positive methylation controls while *ACTB* is a methylation negative control. Error bars indicate s.e.m. of triplicate experiments. (B) Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of triplicate sets of array hybridization of the normal (red) and cancer (blue) cell lines. The distinct distribution between the two groups indicated that global methylation was different. (C) Different loci (shaded regions) from different chromosomes *(EBNA1BP2* and *PQLC2* on chromosome 1, *HOXCIO* on chromosome 12, *HOXA7* on chromosome *1, OSR1, GAD1,* and *ZSWIM2* on chromosome *2,* and an intergenic region on chromosome 1) as printed in different tiling array chips were selected and differential methylation was confirmed by bisulfite sequencing.

Hypermethylated genes			
Gene	Array P-value (ANOVA)	Array fold change	qPCR fold change
PCDH10	0.000000825	-53	-1340
RBMS3	0.000000271	-8.6	-11.9
MAN2B2	0.0000122	-4.9	-5.8
H ₂ AFJ	0.0000226	-3	-1.4
APOLD1	0.00469257	-1.4	-11.9
ZSWIM2	0.0109417	-1.3	-4.1
XAGE1D	0.104124	-1.3	$1.5\,$
NLRP3	0.188484	-1.3	-1.8
CDX4	0.0242089	-1.2	5.7
C20orf85	0.903475	-1	-1.2
TMEM29	0.22711	1.1	1.6
NPY	0.28104	1.1	-2.8
MNS1	0.00118783	1.7	-1.7
TIAM1	0.0000229	10.2	23.6
EOMES	0.000320088	33.2	66.4

Table 2.1 Validation of microarray expression data by real-time qPCR

Hypomethylated genes

2.3.2 Identification of differentially methylated regions in NT2 cells

The pattern of DNA methylation changes substantially when cells become cancerous. To better understand the global change of DNA methylation and its effect on transcription, genome-wide methylation and expression were examined in an *in vitro* pluripotent cell model NT2, which is an embryonal carcinoma derived from a testicular cancer patient, and normal testis cells (HT) (Andrews, 1998). Methylated DNA fragments in the genome of each sample were enriched by MeDIP, followed by whole genome interrogation by hybridizing to tiling microarrays that cover the entire nonrepetitive human genome.

To highlight the aberrant methylated regions in the NT2 cells and allow downstream processing and analyses, DMRs were compiled based on the *P* value cutoff *(P <* 0.01). As a result, 22,452 hypermethylated and 12,756 hypomethylated DMRs in the cancer genome were identified.

Next, global distribution of DMRs were analyzed. The chromosomal distribution of hypermethylation and hypomethylation, as represented by the percentage of the total length of DMRs per 500 kb interval, was plotted against the genome. As anticipated, DMRs were not evenly distributed in the genome. Some chromosomal regions were preferentially methylated or demethylated. For example, chromosomes lp34.3,

lq43-4, 7q36.2-3, 16pl3.2; and 21q22.2-3 were intensively hypermethylated, whereas chromosomes 5ql3.2, 18qll.2-12.1 and 19ql3.31 were more hypomethylated. Some chromosomes, such as chromosome 3, 10,13, 14, and Y, exhibited fewer DMRs (Figure **2.2).**

Aberrant promoter methylation is usually linked to transcriptional gene silencing. To determine whether DMRs preferentially occurred in promoters, genome-wide mapping of DMRs was performed. Intriguingly, most of the DMRs (92.9% of the hypermethylated and 88.2% of the hypomethylated DMRs) were mapped to genomic regions without any gene annotation (intergenic). Only 5.2% of hypermethylated and 9.5% of hypomethylated DMRs were mapped to annotated Refseq including exons and introns. A low percentage of DMRs (1.9% of hypermethylated and 2.3% of hypomethylated DMRs) were mapped to promoter regions of known genes **(Figure** 2.3A and Supplementary Table 2.1). Thus, various epigenetic hotspots were found in gene bodies, promoters, CpG islands and intergenic regions. The consequence of these DMRs will be discussed below.

Figure 2.2 Distribution of hypermethylation (blue peaks) and hypomethylation (red peaks) in all chromosomes. Differential methylation is represented as percentage of the total length of hypermethylated or hypomethylated DMRs in a 500 kb interval and plotted across the genome.

2.3.3 Differentially methylated CpG islands and promoters

While the effect of DNA methylation in intergenic regions is less clear, aberrant methylation in promoter regions is frequently linked to altered transcriptional activity. About half of the known human gene promoters are associated with CpG islands (Larsen *et al,* 1992). These CpG islands are protected from *de novo* methylation in normal tissues, but often acquire methylation in cancer cells that leads to gene silencing. Among the 35,208 DMRs identified in my study, 410 (295 hypermethylated DMRs and 115 hypomethylated DMRs) overlapped with CpG islands (Supplementary Table 2.2). However, only 79 (~27%) hypermethylated CpG islands and 13 (~13%) hypomethylated CpG islands were coupled with gene promoters (Figure 2.3B). The other differentially methylated CpG islands resided either inside genes or in non-genic regions. For the promoter-associated CpG islands, a number of them, including those of *NTF3, FGF, OSR1, HOXA6,* A/P/and *WT1* have previously been reported as differentially methylated in other cancer types (Bibikova et al, 2006; Houshdaran et al, 2007; Illingworth et al, 2008; Mares *et al,* 2001; Oka *et al,* 2006). This study also identified many CpG islands that were not previously shown to be differentially methylated, such as *CXCL5, EID1* and *TRHDE;* expression of these genes were downregulated in NT2 cells.

Previous studies suggested that many genes, such as Oct-4 and II2, lacked CpG islands in their promoters but were regulated by CpG methylation (Bruniquel & Schwartz, 2003; Hattori *et al,* 2004). I undertook a more comprehensive DMR mapping strategy including all promoters, not limited to the presence of CpG islands. A total of 693 genes (414 are hypermethylated and 279 are hypomethyalted) were differentially methylated in **promoters (Figure 2.3C** and **Supplementary Table 1).** Compared to the result restricted to CpG islands, more genes exhibited differential methylation in promoters, although some were not coupled with CpG islands. Aberrant promoter methylation is, thus, not restricted to CpG islands.

Figure 2.3 Genome-wide analysis of DMRs. (A) Distribution of DMRs. Most of the identified DMRs (88-93%) are mapped to intergenic regions. Promoter DMRs only represent 2% of total. **(B)** Number of differentially methylated CpG islands that are associated with or without genes. **(C)** Number of differentially methylated promoters.

2.3.4 Variability in the expression of differentially methylated genes

To assess the effect of methylation on transcriptional activity in cancer cells, a genome-wide analysis of gene expression by microarray was performed. The expression data were then compared to the DMR data. Based on the relative expression level, genes with differentially methylated promoters could be divided into three groups **(Figure 2.4A).** Group A, 19% of hypermethylated genes showed more than a 2-fold downregulation in gene epression while 20% of hypomethylated genes showed more than 2-fold upregulation. Group B, 25% of hypermethylated genes were upregulated more than 2-fold, while 22% of hypomethylated genes were downregulated by more than 2 fold. Group C, which accounts for 56% of hypermethylated and 58% of hypomethylated genes, the change of expression was marginal (fold change ranges from -2 to 2). The expression of genes in this group appeared to be independent of promoter methylation.

To confirm the effect of CpG methylation on gene expression, I randomly selected 8 genes from group A and 9 genes from group B, and assessed whether treatment with the demethylating agent 5-aza-2-deoxycytidine (5-aza) would restore transcription. For group A genes, 5-aza treatment restored expression of 8 of 9 selected genes **(Figure 2.4B).** For group B, expression of only 2 of the 8 selected genes was res-

tored by 5-aza treatment (Figure 2.4C). Transcription of most of the genes in Group *A,* but not Group B, suggests a potential functional role for DNA methylation. The effect of demethylation by 5-aza on gene expression appeared to be independent of the presence of CpG islands.

Figure 2.4 Gene expression of differentially methylated genes. (A) Expression of hypermethylated and hypomethylated genes. Genes are divided into 3 groups based on their expression. Group A: hypermethylated genes (19%) are downregulated (fold change >2) whereas hypomethylated genes (20%) are upregulated (fold change < -2). Group B: hypermethylated genes (25%) are upregulated whereas hypomethylated genes (22%) are downregulated. Group C: expression fold change of the differentially

methylated genes is marginal (fold change between -2 and 2). 9 genes of group A and 8 genes of group B are randomly selected and the effect of demethylation is examined, as shown in (B) and (C). (B) Effect of 5-aza treatment on the expression of 9 Group A genes. NT2 cancer cells are treated with $1-5 \mu$ M 5-aza for 72 hours. (C) Effect of 5-aza treatment on the expression of 8 Group B genes. "+" indicates the association of promoters with CpG islands. "-" indicates the absence of CpG islands in the promoters. Error bars indicate s.e.m. of triplicate experiments.

2,3.5 Identification of novel aberrantly methylated genes in primary TGCT

The testicular embryonal carcinoma NT2 cell is one of the well studied testicular germ cell neoplasms (Andrews, 1998). Based on the DMR data I identified several novel hypermethylated candidate genes that might be important for tumorigenesis of TGCT. Candidate genes were selected based on the following criteria: first, genes with hypermethylated promoters (Figure 2.5A); second, expression of genes that are downregulated and demethylation by 5-aza restored gene expression (Figure 2.4B); third, a biological role in testicular cancer was not previously described. The candidate genes were validated in normal testis biopsies and primary TGCT samples. Based on these criteria, three candidate genes were identified, namely, *APOLD1, PCDH10* and *RGAG1* for further investigation in primary TGCT tissue. Promoters of *APOLD1* and *PCDH10* were associated with CpG islands. In contrast, *RGAG1* lacks any CpG island in its promoter region. Hypermethylation of the promoters of these three genes in NT2 cells was confirmed by bisulfite sequencing (Figure **2.5A).** Additionally I examined the methylation status of these genes in another testicular embryonal carcinoma Tera-1. Analogous to NT2 cells, hypermethylation of the 3 genes in Tera-1 cells was observed (Figure 2.6). In addition, the methylation status of the genes in cultured normal testicular cells was similar to that of normal testis tissue, indicating that methylation of these loci was not

changed throughout cell culture **(Figure 2.5A** and **Figure 2.6).** We explored whether gene expression was altered in primary TGCT tissue. The expression of these three genes, similar to the results observed in cell culture, was significantly downregulated in both seminoma (n = 8; *APOLD1:* P<0.005; *PCDH10:* P<0.05; *RGAG1: P<0.001* by 2 tailed Student's t-test) and embryonal carcinoma (n = 9; *APOLD1:* P<0.005; *PCDH10:* P<0.05; RGAG1: P<0.0005 by 2-tailed Student's t-test) and a case of yolk sac tumor (n = 1) as compared to normal testicular tissue (n = 8) **(Figure 2.5B).**

Among the candidate genes, hypermethylation of *PCDH10* had been implicated in other cancers such as nasopharyngeal, esophageal, breat, colorectal, cervical, lung and hepatocellular carcinomas (Ying *et ol,* 2007; Yu *et al,* 2009). The present result supports the role of this putative tumor suppressor gene in testicular cancer. *APOLD1* is an uncharacterized gene and its biological function is currently unknown. To examine whether aberrant hypermethylation of *APOLD1* is also observed in primary TGCT, the methylation status of the promoter of *APOLD1* was measured by methylation-specific PCR (MSP) **(Figure 2.5C,** upper panel). Hypermethylation of the *APOLD1* promoter was confirmed in 71% (n = 17) of TGCT specimens. The *APOLD1* promoter was unmethylated in all cases of normal testicular tissue ($n = 6$). To validate the result of MSP, a pair of tumor and normal tissues was selected and analyzed by bisulfite sequencing **(Figure**

2.5C, lower panel). Consistent with the MSP result, bisulfite sequencing showed that this gene was almost unmethylated in normal testicular tissues, but exhibited partial methylation in primary tumors. The observations of hypermethylation and downregulation of *APOLD1* in primary TGCT tissues suggest DNA methylation plays a crucial role in silencing this gene. In a preliminary screen of various primary tumors, the expression of *APOLD1* was downregulated in tumors of not only testis; but also those of ovary, lymphoma, kidney, bladder and cervix **(Figure 2.5D).** The RNA samples of each tumor type and the corresponding normal adjacent tissue were collected from a single individual; therefore, the role of *APOLD1* as a tumor suppressor gene awaits further confirmation with examples of more tumor specimens.

Figure 2.5 Validation of three hypermethylated candidate genes in primary TGCT samples. (A) Hypermethylation of the promoters of *APOLD1, PCDH10* and *RGAG1* in NT2 cells. Hypermethylation of these genes is confirmed by genomic bisulfite sequencing. (B) Downregulated expression of *APOLD, PCDH10* and *RGAG1* in primary TGCT. NT: normal testis (n = 8); EC: embryonal carcinoma (n = 9); SE: seminoma (n = 8); YST (n = 1): yolk sac tumor. Mean value of each group is represented by the horizontal bar. *P<0.005; **P<0.05; ****P<0.001* by 2-tailed Student's t-test. (C) Promoter hypermethylation of *APOLD1* in primary TGCT. MSP is performed to compare the relative methylation of each patient. 71% of TGCT patients are partially methylated (n = 17) while none of normal testis ($n = 6$) is methylated. One case from the tumor group (1289) and normal group (A419) are selected and confirmed by bisulfite sequencing. U: unmethylated; M: methylated. (D) Expression of *APOLD1* in other tumors. RNA samples of each tumor and normal adjacent tissue were isolated from a single individual. Error bars indicate s.e.m. of triplicate experiments.

Figure 2.6 Bisulfite sequencing of the 3 candidate genes (APOLD1, PCDH10 and RGAG1) in normal testis tissue and another human testicular embryonal carcinoma cell line Tera-1.

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2.3.6 Differentially methylated non-coding RNAs and their dysregulation in cancer

The fact that the majority of DMRs occur in non-repetitive intergenic and intronic regions raises the question of their potential regulatory function. I proposed that intergenic and intronic methylation may play a role in regulating ncRNAs. There are several groups of ncRNAs regulating diverse cellular processes. miRNA is a class of short ncRNA that has been known to destabilize or repress translation of mRNA at a posttranscriptional level. To explore the role of intergenic or intronic DMRs, I mapped the identified DMRs to the miRBase Registry, a database for miRNA. The loci of three miR-NAs, namely, hsa-mir-199a-2, hsa-mir-124a-2/ and hsa-mir-184, were found overlapping with the hypermethylated DMRs **(Figure 2.7A).** Hypermethylation of these 3 miR-NAs in MT2 cells was confirmed by genomic bisulfite sequencing. To examine the effect of hypermethylation on the expression of the miRNA, the level of the mature miRNAs in cancer and normal cells was measured by real-time qPCR. Among the three miRNAs, only hsa-mir-199a-2 was downregulated in cancer cells (741-fold downregulation); while hsa-mir-124a-2 and hsa-mir-184 showed 19 562 and 37 fold upregulation, respectively **(Figure 2.7B).** Treatment of NT2 cancer cells with 5-aza up-regulated the expression of hsa-mir-199a-2 by 42 fold, indicating that the expression of this miRNA was suppressed by methylation **(Figure** 2.7C). 5-aza treatment also up-regulated the ex-

pression of hsa-mir-184 by 25 fold but had no effect on the expression of hsa-mir-124a-2.

hsa-mir-199a-2 may be a candidate gene that is epigenetically regulated in TGCT. I thus studied its expression in primary TGCT tissue. By real-time qPCR, the expression level of hsa-mir-199a-2, after normalized with that of hsa-mir-191, was downregulated in embryonal carcinomas ($n = 9$; P<0.05 by 2-tailed Student's t-test) and more significantly in seminomas (n = 8; P<0.00005 by 2-tailed Student's t-test) **(Figure 2.7D).** In Chapter 3, I surveyed the expression profile of hsa-mir-199a-2 with a larger sample size, which would give a more statistically significant value.

In addition to miRNA, we also mapped the DMRs to snoRNA-LBME-db, a database of for small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNA). Three snoRNAs, namely, HBII-240, ACA33, and ACA8 were hypomethylated **(Figure** 2.8A). Quantitation of expression by real-time qPCR analysis of these snoRNAs in cancer and normal cell lines revealed HBII-240 and ACA33 were upregulated by approximately 3-fold **(Figure 2.8B).** In a proportion of primary TGCT tumors, we found these 3 snoRNAs were also upregulated as compared with normal testis tissue **(Figure** 2.9). However, the upregulation varied case by case, resulting in stastically insignificant (ACA33: *P* = 0.322; ACA8: *P* = 0.204; HBII-240: *P =*

0.947; 2-tailed Student's t-test). The specific role of these snoRNAs in testicular germ

cell tumorigenesis remains to be elucidated.

Figure 2.7 Hypermethylation and differential expression of miRNAs. (A) Hypermethylated DMRs at the loci of hsa-mir-199a-2 (Chr.1q4.3), hsa-mir-124a-2 (Chr.12q12.3) and hsa-mir-184 (Chr.15q25.1). hsa-mir-199a-2 embeds in the intron of DNM3 while hsamir-124a-2 and hsa-mir-184 reside in intergenic regions. Hypermethylation of these DMRs in NT2 cells is confirmed by bisulfite sequencing. (B) Expression of the 3 hyper-

methylated miRNAs as determined by real-time qPCR. hsa-mir-191 is included as an internal control. Error bars indicate s.e.m. of triplicate experiments. **(C)** Effect of 5-aza treatment on expression of the 3 hypermethylated miRNAs. (D) Dysreguiation of hsamir-199a-2 in primary TGCT. Mean value of each group is represented by the horizontal bar. NT: normal testis (n = 8); EC: embryonal carcinoma (n = 9); SE: seminoma (n = 8); YST (n = 1). *P<0.05; **P<0.00005 by 2-tailed Student's t-test.

Figure 2.8 Hypomethylation of snoRNAs. (A) Three conserved snoRNAs, HBII-240, ACA33 and ACA8, are hypomethylated. HBII-240 and ACA33 reside in the introns of RPL37 and RPS12 respectively, while ACA8 is found in intergenic region. (B) Real time qPCR analysis on the expression of the 3 snoRNAs. Both ACA33 and HBII-240 are upregulated by 3-fold in NT2 cancer cells. Error bars indicate s.e.m. of triplicate experiments.

Figure 2.9 Real time qPCR analysis on the expression of the 3 snoRNAs in primary TGCT. (A) HBII-240. (B) ACA33. (C) ACA8. NS: non-seminoma; S: seminoma; YST: yolk sac tumor; N: normal testis. ACA33: P = 0.322; ACA8: P = 0.204; HBII-240: P = 0.947; 2tailed Student's t-test.

2.4 Discussion

Aberrant DNA methylation is common in cancer cells. This Chapter demonstrates a genome-wide approach for identification of differentially methylated genes and ncRNAs using MeDIP-Chip for methylation analysis and expression microarray array *for* expression analysis.

CpG island hypermethylation results in changes of chromatin structure and appears to repress gene transcription. In this study although many genes were differentially methylated, only ~20% of genes showed an association between hypermethylation and gene repression. The role of DNA methylation on repression of these genes was validated by treatment with *5-aza,* which inhibited DNA methylation and restored expression of the genes. I also demonstrated another group of genes that, although hypermethylated in their promoters, were insensitive to demethylation. The existence of methylation insensitive genes highlights the need to experimentally link epigenetic changes to altered transcriptional activity. Moreover, a group of genes (Group C) showed differential promoter methylation but the change of expression was marginal (fold change ranges from *-2* to 2). The expression of this group of genes appears to be methylation independent. However, there is a possibility that false positive results

were generated from microarray experiments. Thus, only significantly differentially expressed genes (fold change > 2 or < -2) were selected for further analysis.

Whole genome tiling hybridization allowed us to observe widespread methylation changes. Only a small proportion of DMRs were found in promoters of known genes. A substantial number of DMRs were located in intronic or intergenic regions. Methylation changes in intronic or intergenic regions previously reported have largely been ignored because of a failure to investigate transcriptional consequences. The role of intergenic DMRs remains an enigma. They may be a consequence of inappropriate epigenetic change during transformation. They may play a role in maintenance of genomic stability or chromatin condensation (Ahuja *et al,* 1997; Ballestar & Esteller, 2002). Another possible function of intronic and intergenic DMRs is the regulation of genetic elements not identified by conventional algorithms. Many non-coding RNAs are located in intronic and intergenic regions and their regulation is unknown. In this study DMRs were mapped to miRNA and snoRNA databases to explore whether methylation changes occur in regions of ncRNAs. This allowed identification of 3 hypermethylated miRNAs and 3 hypomethylated snoRNAs.

Though the three miRNAs were hypermethylated, expression and 5-aza treatment experiments indicated that only hsa-mir-199a-2 was suppressed by hypermethy-

lation. The unexpected behavior of hsa-mirl24a-2 and hsa-mir-184 could probably be explained by the location of the partially methylated regions near the 3'-end of the transcribed locus while the DMR of hsa-mir-199a-2 covers the 5' upstream and transcribed locus. Studies of cancers report that miRNA dysregulation is often associated with tumor progression or metastasis, probably a consequence of post-transcriptional silencing of target oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes (Mendeil, 2005; Zhang *et al,* 2007). The present study implicates methylation as one of the causes.

snoRNAs are another group of ncRNAs that guide modification of rRNAs or spliceosomal RNAs. These conserved small RNA regulators modify alternative splicing of many transcripts (Bachellerie *et al,* 2002). The identification in the present study of hypomethylation and enhanced expression of the three snoRNAs suggests a potential relationship of cancer and dysregulation of snoRNAs.

An *in vitro* cell culture system was exploited in this study because of the ease of its manipulation. It is recognized that methylation changes in cultured cells may not reflect *in vivo* changes. Despite this I found a number of differentially methylated genes in the culture system that were concordant with those of primary tissue samples. Three hypermethylated genes, *PCDH10, APOLD1,* and *RGAG1* were investigated as examples. These genes were silenced in primary TGCTs and their expression was restored upon

demethylation. *PCDH10* encodes a membrane protein for cell adhesion. It has been implicated to be a tumor suppressor gene in studies of nasopharyngeal, esophageal, breast, colorectal, cervical, lung and hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines. Expression of *PCDH10* in these cell lines was suppressed by DNA hypermethylation (Ying *et al,* 2006). Interestingly it has also been identified as one of the deleted loci in patients with autism (Morrow *et al,* 2008). *RGAG1* and *APOLD1,* prior to this study, were not known to be epigenetically silenced in cancers. *RGAG1* (also known as *MART9)* is an X-linked retrotransposon-derived neogene of unknown function (Brandt *et al,* 2005). Expressed sequence tags (EST) of *RGAG1* were found predominantly in testis, suggesting that this retrogene might be important in germ cell development. *APOLD1* is another uncharacterized gene identified in this study. Its open reading frame encodes an apolipoprotein-L domain-containing protein whose function is unknown. Remarkably, *APOLD1* is located in 12pl3.1, a TGCT susceptibility locus previously identified by genetic linkage analysis (Crockford *et al,* 2006). While genetic susceptibility loci in this gene have not been identified, the coincidence of an epigenetically silenced gene in this locus may provide new insight into interactions between genetic and epigenetic factors. The functions of these three candidate genes need to be further investigated.

In summary, this study provides comprehensive data for identification of both protein-coding genes and non-coding RNAs that are epigentically regulated by DNA methylation. Methylation occurs in promoters and CpG islands, as well as in intragenic and intergenic regions. Only a subset of hypermethylated genes are directly regulated by DNA methylation. I also demonstrated dysregulation of the selected candidate genes and ncRNAs in primary TGCT. Two of the genes, *APOLD1* and *RGAG1* are novel genes whose biological function needs further investigation. hsa-mir-199a-2 is another developmeritally regulated miRNA that is implicated in cancer invasion (Migliore *et al,* 2008). The function of hsa-mir-199a-2 is discussed in Chapter 3. For simplicity, hsa-mir-199a-2 is denoted as conventional symbol "miR-199a" in the following chapters.

Chapter 3

Methylation of an Intronic Region Regulates Testicular Cancer Invasiveness via miR-199a

3.1 Introduction

DNA methylation is a fundamental epigenetic modification that regulates many different biological processes. It has a functional role in cellular differentiation, genomic imprinting, gene silencing, and probably aging, allowing cells of different tissues to stably maintain diverse characteristics despite the same genetic makeup (Jones & Takai, 2001; Liu *et al,* 2009). In cancer cells, hypermethylation of tumor suppressor genes, and/or hypomethylation of oncogenes or heterochromatin results in aberrant expression of genes leading to suppression of tumorigenesis or promotion of cell proliferation (Cheung *et al,* 2009). Recent reports have suggested methylation may play a role in the regulation of cancer progression (Aleman *et al,* 2008; Li *et al,* 2001; Watts *et al,* 2008).

Testicular cancer is one of several aggressive tumors in young males. Testicular cancer invasiveness is defined by the extent to which the primary tumor has spread to tissues adjacent to the testes, regional lymph nodes, distant organs and demonstration of increased serum levels of tumor marker proteins (Krege *et al,* 2008). Metastasis of testicular cancer includes several steps. Initially, noninvasive neoplastic cells (carcinoma *in situ)* are formed in the tubules, probably derived from primordial germ cells (Tis). Subsequently, the tumor may invade and grow through the inner layer surrounding the testis (tunica albuginea), but not involving the outer layer covering the testicle (tunica
vaginalis) (Tl). Further invasion is defined by hematogenous or lymphatic spread near the tumor or tunica vaginalis (T2). It may invade the spermatic cord (T3), and eventually the skin surrounding the testicles (scrotum) (T4) (Albers *et al,* 2005). Cancer invasion is a critical step in the initiation of metastasis; however, the basis for this phenomenon is not well understood.

I hypothesize that aberrant DNA methylation is a factor that contributes to testicular cancer progression. In Chapter *2,*1 reported the use of a malignant testicular cancer cell line NT2 for the identification of differential methylation in this cancer. Using methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (MeDIP) and tiling array hybridization, I identified 35208 differentially methylated regions (DMR). The majority of DMRs did not associate with promoters of protein-coding genes. Instead, they were largely found in introns or intergenic regions. Mapping of these DMRs pinpointed 3 microRNAs (miRNA) and 3 small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNA) that were differentially methylated. One miRNA, miR-199a, was previously implicated in the progression and prognosis of gastric and ovarian cancers (Nam *et al,* 2008; Ueda *et al,* 2009). In this Chapter I document that miR-199a was generally hypermethylated in malignant testicular cancer; this hypermethylation correlated with its downregulation during cancer progression. Expression of miR-199a in these cancer cells suppressed their cancer invasive phenotype. I identified

podocalyxin-like protein 1 (PODXL) as a target of miR-199a-5p. PODXL is an antiadhesive protein which was aberrantly upregulated in malignant testicular cancer, and negatively correlated with miR-199a-5p expression. Its expression correlated with cancer progression. Knockdown of this protein suppressed cancer invasion. The data suggest a mechanism for this phenomenon; acquired methylation in an intronic region is one of the factors linked to testicular cancer progression. Altered methylation suppresses miR-199a expression, leading to increased levels of PODXL and progression of testicular cancer.

3.2 Materials and methods

Normal and tumor tissues

Testicular normal and tumor tissues were purchased from Oncomatrix (San Marcos, CA, USA). The testis disease spectrum tissue arrays (T231 & TE2081) for testicular cancer progression were purchased from US Biomax (Rockville, MD, USA). Clinical stage of all tumor tissues was TNM graded and the pathology of patients were available from the vendors' websites ([http://www.oncomatrix.com/products/Cancer/default.asp a](http://www.oncomatrix.com/products/Cancer/default.asp)nd [http://www.biomax.us/tissue-arrays/Testis/\)](http://www.biomax.us/tissue-arrays/Testis/).

Cell lines and cell culture

NT2, Tera-1, Tera-2, NCCIT and HT cell lines were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA). 833K was kindly provided by Dr. Y.F. Lau. HT, NT2 and its sublines (NT2-GFP, NT2-199a, NT2-VC and NT2-P0DXU) were cultured in DMEM medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, *CA,* USA) supplemented with 10% FBS. NCCIT and 833K were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% FBS. Tera-1 and Tera-2 cells were cultured in McCoy's 5a Medium Modified (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) supplemented with 15% FBS. All cells were maintained in a humidified incubator at 37 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ with 5% CO₂.

Isolation of RNA and DNA from archived tissues and cultured cells

RNA was isolated from formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissues using the Recover All™ Total Nucleic Acid Isolation Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA). RNA was isolated from cultured cells using mirVana miRNA Isolation Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA) for miRNA expression analysis, or using Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) for mRNA expression analysis. Genomic DNA was isolated from FFPE tissues using the EZ DNA Methylation-Direct™ Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, *CA,* USA), followed directly by bisulfite treatment. For cultured cells; genomic DNA was isolated using the Gentra Puregene Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, *CA,* USA). All procedures were performed according to the manufacturers' instruction.

Genomic bisulfite sequencing and Methylight qPCR

Genomic DNA was treated with sodium bisulfite using the EZ DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, *CA,* USA). Bisulfite-treated DNA was purified and used for PCR amplification. For bisulfite sequencing, the PCR product was TOPO-cloned into pCR4 vector (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 6 positive clones were sequenced. For Methylight qPCR, bisulfite-converted DNA was used for real-time PCR using a pair of custom-made TaqMan probes (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) specific for either

methylated (M) or unmethylated (U) region of the promoter of miR-199a. Sequences of the probes are: M: 6FAM-TGC GTT GTG TCG TTG GAG AGA TC6-MGBNFQ; U: VIC-TGT GTT GTG TTG TTG GAG AGA TTG TTA G-MGBNFQ. Methylation of miR-199a was calculated by: C_{meth} = 100/[1+2^{(Ct}cG^{-CT}TG⁾]%, where Ct_{CG} and Ct_{TG} are the threshold cycles of M (FAM channel) and U (VIC channel) detectors respectively (Eads *et al,* 2000).

Reverse transcription and real-time PCR of miRNA and mRNA

Reverse transcription and real-time PCR of mRNA was performed as previously described (Cheung et al). For miRNA expression analysis, total RNA was converted to cDNA using the TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, *OA,* USA). Real-time PCR was performed using the TaqMan MicroRNA Assays, according to the manufacturer's instruction (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). miR-191 was used as a normalization control (Peltier & Latham, 2008).

miRNA transfection and establishment of stable cell lines

miR-199a-5p mimics, miRNA scramble control and miR-199a inhibitors were purchased from Ambion. Cells were transfected with indicated amount of miRNA molecules using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Cells were harvested for RNA or protein extraction 72 hours after transfection. For establishment of stable cell lines

NT2-GFP and NT2-199a, NT2 parent cells were infected with lentiviral particles carrying an expression vector of miR-199a (NT2-199a) or vector alone (NT2-GFP) (System Biosciences, Mountain View, CA, USA). Seventy two hours after infection, positive infected cells, as indicated by co-expression of GFP protein, were sorted by FACSAria Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, California, USA). For establishment of stable PODXL knockdown cell lines NT2-VC and NT2-PODXLi, NT2 parent cells were transfected with vectors expressing shRNAs against PODXL or GFP (vector control) (Origene, Rockville, MD, USA). Stable RNAi sublines were selected by Puromycin. Four different shRNA sequences were tested and the vector with highest RNAi efficiency was employed in subsequent experiments.

Wound healing migration assay

Cells were grown to confluence on 12-well plates. Monolayer was scratched to generate the "wounds" using a P10 pipette tip. Wells were gently washed with PBS to remove cell debris and then replaced with fresh complete medium. Cells were incubated at 37°C for 17-24 hours. Images were captured with a microscope at 10X (Carl Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, USA). Distance between the edges was measured by software AxioVi-

son (Carl Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, USA). Three independent experiments, each with 6 replicates, were performed.

Cell invasion assay

In vitro cell invasion assay was performed using Growth Factor Reduced Matrigel Invasion Chambers with 8 um pore size (BD Biosciences, San Jose, California, USA). Subconfluent cells (70-80%) were resuspended in serum-free DMEM medium. 5 x 10^4 cells (0.5 $\,$ ml) and were added to matrigel-coated inserts and placed in the wells, containing 0.6 ml of complete medium supplemented with 10% FBS as chemoattractant. After 6 and 18 hours of incubation at 37° C, cells that had not invaded the matrigel were removed from the interior sides of the inserts by cotton swabs. Invaded cells on the exterior sides were stained with crystal violet and counted with a microscope (Carl Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, USA). Three independent experiments, each with 3 replicates, were performed.

Soft agar colony formation assay

Soft agar assay was performed as previously described (Tsang *et al,* 2007). Each well of 6-well plates contained a bottom layer of 0.6% Noble agar (USB, Cleveland, Ohio, USA) in serum-free DMEM. 2 x 10^3 NT2-GFP or NT2-199a cells were resuspended in 0.3%

Noble agar in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. The plates were incubated at 37°C and the medium was changed every 3 days. After 8 weeks, cells were stained with 0.05% crystal violet and visualized with a microscope.

Cloning of 3'-UTR and luciferase reporter assay

The flanking sequences containing the predicted miRNA binding sites were amplified by PCR and TOPO-cloned to pCR4 vectors (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The fragments were restricted by Xbal and sub-cloned to the *Firefly* luciferase reporter vector pGL4.13 (Promega, Madison, Wl; USA). The mutant plasmids were generated by PCR method using the Phusion Site-directed Mutagenesis Kit (Finnzymes, Woburn, Massachusetts, USA). The seed sequence in the mutant constructs was mutated to its complementary base. Luciferase reporter assay was performed as previously described (Pang *et al,* 2009). 100 ng of pGL4.13-UTR were co-transfected with 33 nM miR-199a-5p mimics or scramble control, and 2 ng *Renillo* luciferase vector pGL4.73 (normalization control), into NT2 cells (12-well format in triplicate) with Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). 48 hours after transfection, luciferase activity was measured by Luminometer (Turner Biosystems, Madison, Wl, USA) using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System Kit (Promega, Madison, Wl, USA).

Western blot analysis

Western blot analysis was performed as previously described (Pang *et al,* 2009). Primary antibodies used were: PODXL (clone 3D3, 3 µg/ml, Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA, USA); GAPDH (1:8000, Genway, San Diego, CA, USA). Secondary antibodies (1:10000) were purchased from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA, USA).

•mmunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described (Li *et al,* 2007). Briefly, FFPE tissue arrays were deparafinized in xylenes and hydrated in a gradual series of ethanol. Antigen retrieval was done by heating the slides in citrate buffer at 100°C. The slides were probed with anti-PODXL antibody (1:200, Atlas Antibodies, Stockholm, Sweden) overnight at room temperature. Signal was developed using DAB Histochemistry Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Cells were counter-stained with hematoxylin. Expression of PODXL was scored as 0 (negative), 1 (weak), 2 (moderate) and 3 (strong). Triplicate experiments were performed.

Animal studies of tumor growth and metastasis

For *in vivo* tumor growth study, 5-week-old male athymic nude mice (Charles River, Boston, MA USA) were injected subcutaneously with 1 x 10⁷ NT2-GFP or NT2-199a (n = 10 for each group) in each flank of each mouse. Mouse weight and tumor size were measured every Monday and Thursday. Tumor volume was calculated as: length x width² x 1/2. All mice were killed 60 days after implantation. The mean tumor volume \pm s.e.m. of each group was calculated. For metastasis study, 5-week-old male athymic nude mice were injected intravenously with 1 x 10^6 of NT2-GFP or NT2-199a cells (n = 11 for each group) via tail vein. Three mice from each group were sacrificed 49 and 64 days after implantation. The remaining mice were sacrificed 82 days after implantation. Metastasis was examined in major organs including brain, liver, kidney, lung and testis by necropsy and histochemistry.

Cell adhesion assay

Primary human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) were seeded on 12-well plates for 48 hours to form monolayer. 3 x 10^5 resuspended NT2-GFP or NT2-199a cells were added to the HUVEC cells and incubated at 37°C for 45, 90 and 150 minutes. Non-adherent cells were washed by PBS 4 times. Adherent cells

were visualized with a fluorescent microscrope at 10X (Carl Zeiss, Thornwood, NY, USA). Triplicate experiments were performed.

Statistical analysis

The differences in miR-199a-5p and miR-199a-3p expressions between normal, benign and malignant groups were analyzed by Wilcoxon Two Sample Test. The differences for wound healing assay, invasion assay, tumor growth and luciferase assay were analyzed by two-tailed Student's t-test, assuming equal variance. Results were represented as mean \pm s.e.m. The correlations between miR-199a expression and methylation, miR-199a expression and PODXL level, tumor progression and PODXL level, were analyzed by Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. *P <* 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 Identification of a hypermethylated intronic region in testicular cancer

To understand methylation changes in testicular cancer, I previously profiled the DNA methylome of a malignant cancer cell line NT2. The majority of identified DMRs were mapped to intronic or intergenic regions (Chapter 2). I postulated these DMRs might link to non-coding RNAs which could act as riboregulators. Conseqeuntiy I identified hypermethylation of 3 miRNAs. miR-199a was one of the downregulated miRNAs. It is embedded in intron-14 of *dynamin 3 {DNM3)* at lq24.3. A conserved hypermethylated region of ~700 bp spanning miR-199a and its upstream promoter was identified (Figure 3.1A). I examined several testicular cancer cell lines (NT2, Tera-1, Tera-2, NCCIT and 833K) and a non-cancerous fetal testicular cell line (HT) with genomic bisulfite sequencing. The miRNA-199a loci in all cancer lines were highly or partially methylated, whereas in the non-cancerous testis cell line it was unmethylated **{Figure** 3.1B).

3.3.2 Aberrant methylation of miR-199a is associated with testicular cancer progression

To investigate whether aberrant methylation of miR-199a is related to cancer progression, I obtained biopsies from testicular cancer patients with different stages of

metastasis, together with 3 normal individuals as controls. Bisulfite sequencing analysis revealed an acquired methylation pattern as cancer cells start to invade the surrounding tissues (Tl) and metastasize blood or lymph vessels near the tumor (T2) **(Figure 3.1C).** To confirm the methylation change with cancer progression, I used a high-throughput methylation assay (Methylight) to analyze genomic DNAs extracted from tissue arrays (n =105). The results indicated that the neoplastic invasiveness increased with methylation. In contrast, the 'non-invasive' (normal or benign) case was inversely related to methylation **(Figure 3.1D).** These data suggest that methylation of miR-199a is associated with testicular cancer progression.

Figure 3.1 Methylation of miR-199a is associated with testicular cancer progression. (A) Genomic representation of differential methylation from chrl:168,830,456 - 168,850,846 (hg 17). A hypermethylated DMR embedded in intron of DNM3 was identified by MeDIP-chip and mapped to miR-199a and its upstreaming promoter. (B) Genomic bisulfite sequencing of miR-199a in different cultured testicular cancer cell lines (NT2,

Tera-1, Tera-2, NCCIT & 833K) and a non-cancerous fetal testicular cell line (HT). (C) Genomic bisulfite sequencing of miR-199a in patients with testicular cancer at different stages. Normal testicular tissues were included as normal control. T1: the tumor has not spread beyond the testicle and epididymis; T2: the tumor has spread to blood or lymph vessels near the tumor or tunica vaginalis; MO: no distant metastasis; Ml: distant metastasis is present. **(D)** Proportion of cancer samples in different extent of miR-199a methylation. Methylation of miR-199a was divided into 3 groups: low, intermediate and high. Different tumor grade (normal, benign and malignant) was represented as percentage in each group.

3.3.3 Expression of miR-199a-5p is associated with testicular cancer progression

miR-199a refers to two mature miRNA species, namely miR-199a-5p and miR-199a-3p, both are processed from the same precursor RNA **(Figure 3.2A).** However, they have different seed sequences that regulate different targets. To determine whether the expression of these miRNAs is related to testicular cancer progression, I employed quantitative real-time RT-PCR. Comparison of the normal and malignant groups showed that miR-199a-5p was significantly downregulated in malignant cancers *(P* = 0.00017). The difference between normal and benign tumors, however, was insignificant *[P* = 0.463). Although processed from the same precursor RNA, miR-199a-3p was not significantly changed as contrasted to miR-199a-5p in malignancy ($P = 0.0233$). I also observed a significant upregulation of miR-199a-3p in benign tumors *[P =* 0.0044). These results indicate that miR-199a-5p, but not miR-199a-3p, is involved in testicular cancer progression **(Figure 3.2B).**

3.3.4 Reciprocal relationship between methylation and expression

Increased methylation in promoters is one mechanism for transcriptional silencing. The relationship between methylation and expression was demonstrated by correlation analysis of the genomic DNA and RNA isolated from the same individuals. We uti-

lized Spearman's rank correlation coefficient to assess the trend. Negative correlations were observed for both miR-199a-5p (correlation = -0.370, *P* = 0.0001) and miR-199a-3p (correlation = -0.298, *P =* 0.0024), suggesting that methylation is a negative regulator of miR-199a **(Figure 3.2C).** The role of methylation as a transcription inhibitor was investigated by treating cultured NT2 cells with the demethylation agent 5-aza-2' deoxycytidine (5-aza). 5-aza inhibits *de novo* methyltransferase to reverse the acquired methylation lesion. As anticipated, 5-aza treatment restored miR-199a expression by more than 40 fold **(Figure 3.7B).** Taken together, these data show that methylation plays a critical role in the regulation of miR-199a expression.

3.3.5 Expression of miR-199a suppresses cancer migration, invasion and cell growth

To study the function of miR-199a, miR-199a was constitutively expressed in cancer cells by integrating the genomic sequence of miR-199a linked to a CMV promoter. Lentivirus carrying a vector containing miR-199a and a GFP reporter was used to infect NT2 cells. Positive cells were sorted by flow cytometry. These cells (NT2-199a) expressed more than 500 fold of miR-199a-5p and 200-fold of miR-199a-3p when compared to the vector infected control cells (NT2-GFP) (Figure 3.3A). Change of cell motility is one of the characteristics of metastasis (Sahai, 2005). Using the wound-healing assay, I found that NT2-199a migrated more slowly than NT2-GFP *(P <* 0.005) **(Figure** 3.BB). Another feature of metastasis is its ability to invade extracellular matrix (Sahai, 2005). I used the Matrigel invasion assay to measure cancer cell invasion. Expression of miR-199a significantly suppressed the ability of NT2 cells to invade the Matrigel basement *(P* < 0.005) (Figure 3.3C). Moreover, I assessed the ability of cells to form colonies in an anchor-independent condition using a soft agar assay. I did not observe any difference in colony formation (Figure 3.4). However, a difference was observed when these cells were grown *in vivo.* Two months after subcutaneous implantation of transfected cells in athymic nude mice, the average size of the tumors in the NT2-199a group was ~33% smaller than that in the control group (P = 0.145) (Figure 3.3D). In addition, reduced cell

growth was confirmed by direct counting of *in vitro* cultured cells grown on fibronectincoated plates **(Figure 3.5).** These results suggest that miR-199a suppresses cancer cell migration, invasion and growth, and probably has an anti-metastatic function.

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in through it is visible. **Figure 3.3 miR-199a suppresses cancer cell migration and invasion, and decreases cancer growth. (A)** Ectopic expression of miR-199a in a metastatic testicular cancer cell line NT2. NT2 cells were infected by pseudo lentiviruses carrying either miR-199a (NT2- 199a) or an empty vector (NT2-GFP). Stable cells which express GFP were sorted by flow cytometry and the level of miR-199a-5p and miR-199a-3p was determined by realtime PCR. **(B)** Wound healing assay for assessment of cancer cell migration. Same number of NT2-GFP & -199a cells was seeded on plates overnight to form monolayer and the width of the gap was measured after 17 and 24 hrs. The difference between two groups is significant *(*P <* 0.005, 2-tailed Student's t-test). Error bar: s.e.m. of triplicates. **(C)** Matrigel invasion assay for assessment of cancer invasion. Same number of NT2-GFP and NT2-199a cells was suspended in serum-free medium and allowed to invade through the matrigel coated on the membrane of the insert. Invaded cells were stained with crystal violet and counted. The difference is significant *{*P* < 0.005, 2-tailed Student's t-test) **(D)** Growth of NT2-GFP and NT2-199a cells in athymic nude mice. Cancer cells were injected subcutaneously into 2 groups of nude mice ($n = 10$ for NT2-GFP; $n =$ 9 for NT2-199a) and the tumor size was monitored at different time points. Mean size of the tumors per animal was plotted (* $P = 0.145$, 2-tailed Student's t-test). Error bar: s.e.m.

Figure 3.4 Growth of NT2-GFP and NT2-199a cells by soft-agar colony formation assay

Figure 3.5 Growth of NT2-GFP and NT2-199a cells *in vitro.* Same number of cells was plated on fibronectin-coated wells. The number of cells was counted at different time points. Result represents mean \pm s.e.m. of triplicate experiments.

3.3.6 miR-199a suppresses cancer metastasis in mouse xenograft model

To further confirm the anti-metastasis property of miR-199a, I used a xenograft animal model to study its function *in vivo.* To do this, equal numbers of NT2-GFP arid NT2-199a cells were injected intravenously in athymic nude mice via tail vein (n = 11 for each group). Mice were sacrificed at day-49, -64 and -82 after injection. At day-49 and - 64, 3 mice out of 6 from the control group (NT2-GFP) developed pulmonary metastasis. No metastases were found in the NT2-199a group. At day-82, all the remaining mice (5 from each group) were sacrificed. Four mice (80%) from the control group developed metastasis, compared to three mice (60%) from the NT2-199a group **(Figure** 3.6A). Metastasis developed in organs such as lung and liver, which are the common metastatic organs of human testicular cancer **(Figure 3.6B).** Histologic analysis indicated invasion of xenografted cancer cells (NT2-GFP) surrounding liver and lung, but none of the cancer cells expressed miR-199a (NT2-199a) **(Figure 3.6C).** Although at later stage (day-82) miR-199a appeared to be less effective in suppressing metastasis, it inhibited metastasis at day-49 and -64. These data suggest that miR-199a is an early suppressor of metastasis.

Figure 3.6 miR-199a suppresses cancer metatstasis in mouse xenograft model. (A) Number of mice developed metastasis. Same number of NT2-GFP & -199a cells were injected intravenously in athymic nude mice tail vein (n = 11). Animals were sacrificed and necropsied for metastasis at days 49, 64 and 82 post-injection. (B) Gross view of cancer metastasis in lungs and livers. No metastasis was observed in NT2-199a group at days 49 and 64. (C) H&E stained sections of lungs and livers in NT2-GFP and NT2-199a groups. Metastasis is indicated. Magnification: 10X. Bar: 100 um.

3.3.7 Identification of PODXL as the target of miR-199a-5p

miRNAs are non-coding riboregulators that regulate mRNA stability or translation (He & Hannon, 2004). Since only miR-199a-5p was related to tumor progression I sought to identify the targets of miR-199a-5p to account for its activity (Figure **3.2B).** I presumed that the targets would be significantly downregulated in the malignant NT2 cells. Therefore, coupling the previous microarray expression data of this line with multiple miRNA target prediction algorithms (TargetScan and PicTar), I generated a list of downregulated predicted target genes (Table 3.1). Notably, PODXL was one of the significantly downregulated target genes. It is an anti-adhesive transmembrane sialoglycoprotein normally expressed in kidney podocytes (Kerjaschki *et al,* 1984). However, it is also implicated in the development of aggressive forms of cancers such as malignant astrocytic tumor, breast cancer, prostate cancer, small cell lung carcinoma as well as malignant testicular embryonal carcinoma (Casey *et al,* 2006; Hayatsu *et al,* 2008; Koch *et al,* 2008; Schopperle *et al,* 2003). Western blot analysis confirmed overexpression of this protein in NT2 cells, and a reciprocal relationship with the miR-199a-5p level (Figure 3.7A). Furthermore, demethylation of NT2 cells by 5-aza restored the miR-199a-5p level and suppressed PODXL expression, suggesting a link between methylation, miR-199a-5p expression and PODXL level (Figure **3.7B).** To demonstrate the effect of the

miRNA on PODXL level, I transfected NT2 cells with different concentrations of miR-199a-5p mimics. Seventy-two hours after transfection, PODXL protein was significantly decreased. The same effect was observed when NT2 cells stably expressed miR-199a (NT2-199a) **(Figure 3.7C).** As the NT2-199a cells were transfected with miR-199a-5p inhibitor (5pi), the PODXL level was restored. Surprisingly, miR-199a-3p inhibitors (3pi) also restored PODXL, probably because both inhibitors target the same primary miRNA precursor molecules (Figure 3.7D). Regulation of PODXL by miR-199a-5p is most likely through binding of miRNA at its 3'-UTR. To validate this speculation, I cloned the two predicted binding sites in PODXL 3'-UTR linked to *firefly* luciferase vectors. When these luciferase vectors were co-transfected with miR-199a-5p mimics in NT2 cells, luciferase activity of the vector carrying the conserved binding site was significantly suppressed. However, miR-199a-5p did not suppress the vector carrying a poorly conserved binding site. To show that the suppression of luciferase activity is due to binding of the miRNA to the seed sequence, I generated the mutant constructs by mutating the seed sequence. As expected, miR-199a-5p had little effect on the mutant constructs (Figure 3.7E). These data show that miR-199a-5p regulates PODXL through a conserved binding site in its 3'-UTR.

Figure 3.7 identification of PODXL as the target of miR-199a-5p. (A) Reciprocal expression of miR-199a-5p and PODXL in normal (HT) and cancerous (NT2) cell lines. The miR-NA level of miR-199a was determined by real-time PCR while PODXL protein level was determined by Western blot analysis. (B) Expression of miR-199a-5p and PODXL of NT2 cells treated with or without 5-aza-2'-deoxycytidine (5-aza). Both 5' and 3' end primers for PODXL mRNA were shown. (C) PODXL level of NT2 cells transiently transfected with miR-199a-5p mimics (199a-5p) or stably express miR-199a-5p (NT2-199a). GAPDH was used as a loading control. SRC: scramble miRNA control. (D) PODXL level of NT2-199a cells transiently transfected with miR-199a-5p (5pi) or miR-199a-3p (3pi) inhibitors. **(E)** Luciferase report assay of PODXL 3'-UTR. Two miR-199a-5p targeting sites (P: poorly conserved site; C: conserved site) were cloned to the 3'-end of Firefly luciferase (pGL-P and pGL-C). The mutant constructs (pGL-mC and pGL-mP) were generated by changing the binding sites to complementary sequences. The plasmids were co-transfected with miR-199a-5p mimics (199a-5p) or scramble miRNA control (SRC), together with a *Renilla* luciferase plasmid as a normalization control. Luciferase activity were measured 48 hrs post-transfection (*P < 0.001; [#]P = 0.806, 2-tailed Student's t-test). Error bar: s.e.m. of triplicates.

3.3.8 PODXL is highly expressed in malignant testicular cancer

Although PODXL was identified to be a target of miR-199a-5p, its role in testicular cancer progression remains unclear. Using the same tissue arrays, I analyzed the level of PODXL protein in tumors of different grades by immunohistochemistry (IHC). I found high levels of PODXL in malignant cancers including seminoma, nonseminomatous embryonal carcinoma and yolk sac tumor, but not in normal or benign tissues **(Figure 3.8A).** Although not all cases of aggressive testicular cancer expressed PODXL, I observed a trend of an increased proportion of malignant tumors with the level of PODXL **(Figure 3.8B).** Spearman's rank correlation test showed a positive correlation between testicular cancer progression and PODXL level (correlation = 0.261, *P =* 0.0049). PODXL was previously reported to be a predictor of other cancer types (Casey *et al,* 2006; Hayatsu *et al,* 2008; Somasiri *et al,* 2004). Here, my finding supports the role of PODXL in testicular cancer progression.

3.3.9 Reciprocal relationship between miR-199a-5p and PODXL

A reciprocal relationship between miR-199a-5p and PODXL was observed in cultured cells (Figure 3.7A-D). This relationship was further confirmed in tissues ($n = 110$). PODXL level was divided into 4 groups, based on the IHC staining intensity. A scatter

plot of miR-199a-5p or miR-199a-3p against PODXL level was created. The mean value of both miRNA species decreased with increasing level of PODXL. Spearman's rank correlation test indicated a negative correlation for miR-199a-5p only (correlation = -0.187, *P =* 0.05). Correlation of miR-199a-3p with PODXL was not strong or significant (correlation = -0.058, $P = 0.55$) (Figure 3.8D). The difference of the correlation coefficient agrees with the finding that PODXL is a target of miR-199a-5p, but not miR-199a-3p.

3.3.10 PODXL knockdown suppresses cancer invasion *in vitro*

As a target of miR-199a-5p, PODXL might participate in the anti-metastatic function of this miRNA. To validate this hypothesis, we stably knocked down PODXL in NT2 cells with RNAi. The stable knockdown cells (NT2-PODXLi) displayed slower migration as revealed by the wound healing assay (Figure 3.9). Moreover, the Matrigel invasion assay showed that NT2-PODXLi was less invasive than the vector control cells (NT2-VC) (Figure 3.8C). The invasion property of NT2-PODXLi cells was similar to that of NT2- 199a cells. However, in NT2-PODXU cells the level of miR-199a was relatively invariable (Figure 3.10). Thus, we demonstrated that knockdown of PODXL alone without changing the level of its riboregulator miR-199a-5p would suppress cancer invasion similar to the effect of over-expression of miR-199a, implying that PODXL is a downstream target

of miR-199a-5p

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Figure 3.8 PODXL protein is highly expressed in malignant testicular cancers and negatively correlated with mIR-199a-5p level. (A) Immunohistochemistry of PODXL in normal, benign and malignant testicular cancer sections. Images were captured at 10X magnification. Bar: 100 μ m. (B) Proportion of patients expressing different levels of PODXL protein in testicular specimens. Samples were divided into 3 groups based on the PODXL level (negative, weak, moderate or strong) and proportion of different grades of tumors were counted. (C) Knockdown of PODXL suppresses cell invasion *in vitro.* PODXL was stably knocked down by RNAi in NT2 cells (NT2-PODXLi). The property of cancer cell invasion was assessed by Matrigel invasion assay as contrasted to the vector control cells (NT2-VC). Number of invaded cells per field was counted (mean \pm SD). **(D)** Scatter plots of miR-199a-5p and miR-199a-3p expression against PODXL level. Expression of miR-199a-5p, but not 3p, correlates negatively with PODXL level (miR-199a-5p: Spearman correlation = -0.187, *P=* 0.05; miR-199a-3p: Spearman correlation = -0.058 , $P = 0.55$).

Figure 3.9 Wound healing assay of NT2 cells after PODXL knockdown. NT2-VC: NT2 cells transfected with vector control plasmid; NT2-PODXU: NT2 cells transfected with PODXL shRNA plasmid.

Figure 3.10 Expression of miR-199a in NT2-VC and NT2-PODXLi cells. The relative expression level of miR-199a-5p and miR-199a-3p was determined by real-time RT-qPCR. Error bar: s.e.m. of triplicates.

3.4 Discussion

Primary tumors must be able to invade their surrounding tissues to develop metastasis (Hirohashi & Kanai, 2003). Therefore, cancer invasion is a critical step in metastasis. The molecular basis of invasion could be dysregulation of cell-cell adhesion molecules such as cadherins, integrins and selectins (Hirohashi & Kanai, 2003; Makrilia *et al,* 2009). Genetic (germline mutation), epigenetic (DNA methylation or histone modification) or genomic (loss of heterozygosity or copy number variation) alterations can all contribute to gene dysregulation. Despite the efforts invested in tracking the genes for the disease by linkage analysis, no specific testicular cancer genes have been identified (Krausz & Looijenga, 2008; Rapley, 2007). Testicular germ cell tumor initially develops in the seminiferous tubules where germ cells differentiate. Aggressive tumor invades the tunica albuginea, a thin layer of tissue surrounding the tubules. Further invasion occurs when tumor cells invade the tunica vaginalis, lymph or blood vessels next to the tumor. The mechanism of testicular cancer invasion is not clear. It might share features common to other cancer types, for instance, expression of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) for digestion of extracellular matrix (Nabeshima *et al,* 2000). In this Chapter, I described an epigenetically linked dysregulation of a conserved miRNA 199a, This is caused by aberrant methylation in an intronic region of *DNM3* at lq24.3. Intronic methylation has

been largely ignored in previous genome-wide profiling, due to its unclear role in gene regulation. Here I found that hypermethylation in the *DNM3* intron leads to miR-199a silencing. Both miR-199a methylation and expression are correlated with tumor progression. I demonstrated the anti-invasiveness and anti-metastasis properties of miR-199a. Subsequently I identified an embryonal carcinoma tumor antigen, PODXL, as the target of miR-199a-5p. PODXL is an anti-adhesive protein that is upregulated in many aggressive tumors (Casey *et al,* 2006; Hayatsu *et al,* 2008; Somasiri *et al,* 2004), but the mechanism of this event is unknown. We showed that miR-199a-5p is a negative regulator of PODXL. Based on the data I propose that epigenetic alteration in an intron of DNM3 leading to dysregulation of miR-199a and PODXL is one of the causes for testicular cancer invasion.

miRNA is recognized as an important class of riboregulator. They regulate a variety of processes such as cell differentiation, development, tumorigenesis and cancer progression (Bartel, 2004). miRNA can be oncogenic or tumor suppressive (Esquela-Kerscher & Slack, 2006). Specifically, some miRNA such as miR-122, miR-148a, miR-34b/c, miR-21, miR-373 and miR-520 (Huang *et al,* 2008; Lujambio *et al,* 2008; Tsai *et al,* 2009; Zhu *et al,* 2008) have been shown to be important in cancer metastasis. However, few miRNAs for testicular cancer metastasis/invasion are known. miR-199a was initially
identified to be an evolutionarily conserved small RNA essential for development (Chakrabarty *et al,* 2007; Friedman *et al,* 2009; Lee *et al,* 2009; Lin *et al,* 2009). Recently it is also reported to be linked to other aggressive tumor types, such as gastric cancer (Ueda *et al,* 2009), bladder cancer (Ichimi *et al,* 2009), uveal melanoma (Worley *et al,* 2008) and ovarian cancer (Chen et al, 2008; lorio et al, 2007; Nam et al, 2008). The antiinvasion/metastasis property of miR-199a demonstrated in this study further supports the tumor suppressor role of this miRNA.

PODXL is another frequently upregulated protein in malignant tumors (Casey *et al,* 2006; Hayatsu *et al,* 2008; Somasiri *et al,* 2004). It is an anti-adhesion transmembrane protein that inhibits cell-cell interaction through the charge-repulsive effects of its extensively sialoglycosylated extracellular domain (Takeda *et al,* 2000). Disruption of cell-cell interaction at primary sites is a crucial step in developing an invasive phenotype. For the first time, in my study, the link between PODXL and miR-199a-5p was established. In another independent study, forced expression of PODXL in MCF-7 breast carcinoma cells perturbed cell-cell interaction (Somasiri *et al,* 2004). In my study, forced expression of miR-199a (as associated with suppression of PODXL) in testicular cancer cells enhanced cell-cell interaction with endothelial cells (Figure 3.11). These data indicate that miR-199a regulates cell-cell interaction, consistent with that of PODXL How-

ever, I cannot rule out targets other than PODXL that modulate cell-cell interactions. The increase in adhesion to HUVEC cells might also promote metastasis in blood vessels. Animal study is needed to prove this potential.

In summary, I reported an epigenomic approach for screening disease-related "hotspots" in testicular cancer; it revealed that miR-199a was regulated by DNA methylation. My data support the role of miR-199a as an anti-invasive/metastatic miRNA, in part through its target protein PODXL

Figure 3.11 Adhesion of NT2-GFP and NT2-199a cells to HUVEC cells. Cells adhered to HUVEC cells were observed at 45, 90 and 150 minutes. The number of cells was indicated by the green fluorescent signal.

Chapter 4

General Discussion and Conclusion

4.1 Overview of the project

The present research is focused on the epigenetic changes that are related to human diseases. Epigenetic change, in contrast to genetic mutation, refers to the alteration of several types of chromatin modifications other than the sequence of DNA. In this regard, DNA methylation plays a critical role in various molecular events such as X inactivation, genomic imprinting, reprogramming. Defect in these processes accounts for a number of inherited diseases. The aberrant methylation changes that occur in cancer raise particular concerns.

Testicular cancer is a common reproductive malignancy in young men. Since most testicular cancers originate from germ cells, they represent a special class of cancers that share some properties of cancer stem cells, such as expression of embryonic stem cell markers. Embryonal carcinoma, one of the testicular cancers, is undifferentiated cancer cell that can form teratoma in nude mice. It is also capable of differentiating into neural cells upon treatment of retinoic acid.

My research began with the genome-wide profiling of DNA methylation in embryonal carcinoma. Interesting features unique in embryonal carcinoma were found. In particular, genes that are affected by DNA methylation only represent a small propor-

tion (~20%) of all differentially methylated genes. For those genes controlled by methylation, the presence of CpG island is irrelevant. Some genes, such as *RGAG1* and miR-199a, lack CpG island but the presence of less dense CpG dinucleotides is able to suppress gene transcription.

In subsequent analysis to link methylation changes to testicular cancer, I found some previously uncharacterized genes and ncRNAs that seem to be important in testicular tumorigenesis. It is known that the expression profiles during testicular germ cell tumorigenesis resemble early embryogenesis (Skotheim *et al,* 2005). Some genes, in addition to their presumable role in cancer biology, may also play some unknown functions in spermatogenesis, an important developmental process in human reproduction. This is perhaps demonstrated by the finding of a developmentally regulated transcript that is silenced in testicular cancer by DNA methylation. The gene, named *ZSWIM2,* is a male germ cell specific gene whose function is currently unclear. It might participate in the ubiquintination pathway by act as an E3 ubiquitin ligase. Interestingly, I found a developmentally regulated expression pattern of murine *Zswim2* in spermatogenesis. Its prominent expression in round spermatids suggests a role in late spermatogenesis. The generation of transgenic knockout mice would help us understand the role of this gene on spermatogenesis and perhaps germ cell tumorigenesis.

My ultimate goal is to explain the observed epigenetic changes in testicular cancers that are relevant to tumorigenesis or spermatogenesis. The present study reveals the complexity of gene regulation that involves different layers of regulation. As demonstrated in this thesis, methylation of DNA directs silencing of both protein-coding genes and ncRNAs. DNA methylation suppresses miRNAs that in turn disturb the equilibrium of oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes by post-transcriptional regulation. For example, I demonstrated that miR-199a appeared to regulate testicular cancers progression by targeting PODXL to mediate cancer metastasis and invasiveness. These observations suggest that DNA methylation can contribute to tumorigenesis by different mechanisms, other than our previous knowledge on germline mutation.

4.2 Summary and conclusion

To summarize, DNA methylation profiling revealed a large number of DMRs in testicular cancer. Some of the DMRs were coupled with transcriptional regulation of genes and ncRNAs. Three genes were validated and confirmed in primary tissue; these include *APOLD1, PCDH10* and *RGAG1.* Moreover, 3 snoRNAs (HBII-240, ACA33 and ACA8) and 3 miRNAs (hsa-mir-199a-2, hsa-mir-124a-2, and hsa-mir-184) were also differentially methylated. miR-199a was selected for in-depth studies. Analysis of 105 primary testicular tissue samples revealed a correlation of miR-199a methylation with tumor progression. An inverse relationship between methylation and expression was also observed. Expression of miR-199a in cancer cell line suppressed cancer invasive and metastatic phenotypes, as well as changed tumor growth and cell adhesion properties. Genome-wide screening and bioinformatic prediction identified PODXL to be a target of miR-199a-5p. PODXL was confirmed as a target by various assays in *in vitro* cultured cell system. The reciprocal relationship between PODXL and miR-199a level was also demonstrated in primary tissue *in vivo.* Significantly, PODXL level was also correlated with testicular cancer progression. Knockdown of PODXL resulted in anti-invasive property similar to overexpression of miR-199a, suggesting PODXL is a downstream target of miR-199a for cancer invasiveness or metastasis.

To conclude, MeDIP-Chip is a useful genome-wide approach for identification of epigenetic "hotspot" in cancers. Coupling with expression microarray array and pharmacological approcah, those differentially expressed genes that are governed by DNA methylation can be surveyed. In addition, miR-199a is related to testicular cancer progression through targeting PODXL, both of which are important in testicular cancer invasion and metastasis.

4.3 Future work

Many genes and ncRNAs were identified in this project. Importantly, several of them have not been characterized and the function in tumorigenesis remains elusive. It is worthwhile to study the biological function of every dysregulated genes. For instance, *APOLD1* is frequently methylated in testicular cancer patients. It is downregulated in different cancer types in addition to testicular cancer. The function of *APOLD1* is unknown. It might act as a tumor suppressor gene. Future study can focus on the role of this protein in tumorigenesis.

Genes that are silenced in testicular tumorigenesis might play an important role in normal development, as discussed above {Chapter 4.1 Overview of the project). *ZSWIM2* is one of the genes discovered that may regulate spermatogenesis. Currently, a transgenic animal model of *Zswim2* knockout is being produced at the Laboratory of Clinical Genomics, *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health and Human Development. With this animal model available, I hope we can begin to understand the physiological function of this gene in both normal germ cell development and testicular cancer tumorigenesis.

Supplementary Materials

Supplementary Table 2.1 Differentially methylated promoters with expression data of the corresponding genes.

chr6	50893755	50894665	TFAP2B	215686_x_at	0.0942509	-1.20238
chr1	116365693	116366519	C1orf161	1553333 at	0.0493875	-1.20123
chr6	160982383	160982983	LPA	207584_at	0.032047	-1.20101
chr2	26481162	26481762	GPR113	1553016_at	0.103831	-1.19855
chr3	194755298	194756576	ATP13A4	233535_at	0.0753081	-1.19272
chr3	148606518	148607118	ZIC4	236711_at	0.0868127	-1.18609
chr12	4894418	4895018	KCNA1	208479_at	0.102082	-1.18339
chr3	89610858	89611458	EPHA3	206071 s at	0.0762291	-1.17713
	chr16 3193748	3194348	OR1F1	221402_at	0.0583272	-1.17705
chr7	42924938	42925598	HECW1	215584 at	0.0111289	-1.17246
chr16	24173876	24175257	CACNG3	206384_at	0.17346	-1.16784
chr12	108208745	108209345	FOXN4	1564713_a_at	0.00024563	-1.16783
chr3	127388514	127389114	ALDH1L1	215798_at	0.10218	-1.16763
chr7	142088146	142088746	TRPV6	1559405_a_at	0.00716174	-1.16761
	chr12 3652851	3653451	EFCAB4B	223955 at	0.00477607	-1.16601
chrX	56473761	56474361	UBQLN2	215884_s_at	0.079516	-1.1652
chr19	7736143	7736743	CLEC4M	207995 s at	0.227735	-1.16476
chrX	47810947	47811547	SSX5	208528 x at	0.271405	-1.16343
	chr16 7322252	7322852	A2BP1	1566866 at	0.00207135	-1.16161
	chr12 11402017	11402617	PRB1, PRB2	211531 x at	0.0193021	-1.16075
	chr12 8893571	8894171	A2ML1	1564307_a_at	0.0609421	-1.15824
chr5	155685835	155686873	SGCD	230730_at	0.0139655	-1.158
chr3	125181917	125182517	ROPN1	231535_x_at	0.121168	-1.15739
chr4	82748923	82749523	RASGEF1B	1554999_at	0.180739	-1.15573
	chr15 72209141	72210576	ISLR ₂	232208_at	0.0354864	-1.15112
	chr11 56949652	56950944	SLC43A3	213113 _{_5_at}	0.0301199	-1.14763
	chr12 12994484	12995366	GPRC5D	221297_at	0.112942	-1.14378
chr1	158374935	158375535	FCGR2B	210889_s_at	0.246578	-1.14007
chr1	167958221	167958978	FMO1	205666_at	0.440535	-1.13667
	chr10 53129249	53129861	CSTF2T	212905_at	0.0783426	-1.1354
chr4	15616113	15616740	FGFBP1	205014_at	0.21066	-1.13308
chr5	180347952	180348607	BTNL3	217207_s_at	0.119826	-1.1185
	chr12 242163	242763	SLC6A13	237058_x_at	0.0104643	-1.11739
	chr16 20609978	20610579	ACSM1	215432 at	0.348934	-1.11645
	chr12 8650776	8651378	AICDA	219841_at	0.196712	-1.1118
chr5	151284254	151285406	GLRA1	207972_at	0.283962	-1.11044
chr5	169611174	169611774	LCP2	244578_at	0.047782	-1.10833
chrX	2977714	2978315	ARSF	214490_at	0.20856	-1.10287
chr7	149611688	149612288	GIMAP8	235306_at	0.278888	-1.09975
chr7	116556893	116557794	WNT2	205648_at	0.26502	-1.0955
chr7	94670204	94670838	PON3	213695_at	0.516715	-1.09542

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chr1	85885409	85886666	C1orf181	218932_at	0.0124928	1.26001
chr8	42130840	42131440	AP3M2	203410_at	0.0001554	1.29418
	chr11 63204987	63205902	RTN3	219549 _{_S_} at	0.00200115	1.29733
chr7	112319802	112320402	GPR85	234303_s_at	0.0948381	1.3016
chr12	46643758	46644359	TMEM106C	201764_at	0.0303604	1.3042
chr1	225785366	225785966	C1orf96	225904_at	0.00099866	1.32085
chr2	201551112	201551712	CLK1	214683_s_at	0.119179	1.34423
chr5	176218905	176219505	UNC5A	236448_at	0.00361638	1.35215
chr1	233206698	233207300	ACTN2	203862_s_at	0.0254998	1.35627
chr1	201946789	201947389	TMCC2	213096_at	0.0190622	1.36063
chr10	1045907	1046507	GTPBP4	218238_at	0.00884736	1.36165
	chr21 33022048	33023035	SYNJ1	207594_s_at	0.0253655	1.37773
chr9	14858874	14859741	FREM1	228233_at	0.00623219	1.37941
	chr12 119471197	119471797	RNF10	237062 at	0.0189225	1.381
chr8	30132855	30133541	DCTN ₆	203261 at	0.00059002	1.39256
chr5	6766598	6767837	POLS	202466_at	0.00059247	1.39842
chrX	102739353	102739953	MORF4L2	243857_at	0.0164831	1.40709
chr2	79450987	79451587	CTNNA2	205373_at	0.025292	1.43323
chr1	47403213	47404130	TAL1	206283 s at	0.00506776	1.43986
chr1	75305637	75306240	LHX8	1569469_a_at	0.0187018	1.44224
chrX	103022850	103023452	MGC39900	1570039_at	0.104848	1.45199
chr1	238938699	238939437	PLD5	1563933_a_at	0.0684384	1.47065
chr1	119244120	119244721	TBX15	230438_at	0.0163359	1.47072
	chr20 35043346	35043946	SAMHD1	1559883_s_at	0.030225	1.48121
	chr12 101846990	101847590	PAH	205719 s at	0.012325	1.49702
chr1	201008325	201008925	PLEKHA6	229245_at	0.0317765	1.50144
chr1	152103260	152103910	RUSC1	206949_s_at	6.94E-05	1.5359
chr3	112743047	112743887	CD96	1555120_at	0.068633	1.53839
chr1	150753069	150753771	SLC39A1	217778_at	0.0056635	1.55775
chr4	57388291	57388993	HOP	211597 s_at	0.0025591	1.55828
chr1	114408335	114409082	SYT6	240267_at	1.34E-05	1.61037
	chr14 88144019	88144619	ZC3H14	213063_at	0.00021084	1.63237
	chr21 40160614	40161331	PCP4	205549_at	0.0423096	1.64365
chr8	57521584	57522348	PENK	213791 at	0.0548262	1.67257
chr5	140509523	140510123	PCDHB6	221317_x_at	0.00130838	1.68852
	chr12 27823213	27824647	KLHDC5	225963_at	0.00014326	1.68879
	chr15 54543619	54544219	MNS1	219703_at	0.00118783	1.69351
			SI-			
	chr11 400184	400784	GIRR, TMEM16 J	52940_at	5.89E-06	1.701
chr1	24488290	24488890	C1orf201	227694_at	0.00132508	1.72569

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Hypomethylated promoters

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$. In the $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{A})$

Supplementary Table 2.2 Differentially methylated CpG islands associated with genes and expression data of the corresponding genes.

Hypermethylation

Remark: 79 DMRs are mapped to 70 CGIs that are gene-associated because some CGIs are very long and overlap with several DMRs

Hy pe r methylation

Remark: 13 DMRs are mapped to 11 CGIs that are gene-associated because some CGIs are very long and overlap with several DMRs

Supplementary Table 2.3 Primer sequences used in this study

Methylation control genes for MeDIP

qPCR primers for Hyper-genes

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qPCR primers for Hypo-genes

Bisulfite sequencing primers

MSP primers

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s no RNA qPCR primers

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