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Epigenetics of pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma

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1 **Epigenetics of Pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma**

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**26 Abstract**

27 Pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas (PPGLs) are neuroendocrine tumors arising in  
28 the medullae of the adrenal glands or in paraganglia. The knowledge of the tumor  
29 biology of these lesions has increased dramatically during the past two decades and  
30 more than a dozen recurrently mutated genes have been identified. Different clusters  
31 have been described that share epigenetic signatures. Mutations in the succinate  
32 dehydrogenase complex subunit genes play a pivotal role in reprogramming the  
33 epigenetic state of these tumors by inhibiting epigenetic regulators such as TET  
34 enzymes and histone demethylases. Another subgroup of tumors carries  
35 hypomethylated genomes, and overexpression of several micro-RNAs has been  
36 described. While much remains to be investigated regarding the epigenetics of PPGLs, it  
37 is clear that it plays an important role in PPGL biology.

38

39 Keywords: Pheochromocytoma, Paraganglioma, Epigenetics, Adrenal, Methylation

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**41 Highlights**

- 42 • Pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas carry epigenetic aberrations
- 43 • Succinate dehydrogenase mutations cause epigenetic dysregulation
- 44 • Several genes involved in epigenetic modulation have been described mutated in  
45 pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas

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52 **1. Introduction**

53 The adrenal medullae are neuroendocrine tissues that secrete catecholamines during  
54 activation of the sympathetic nervous system. They are related to the sympathetic  
55 paraganglia, which are neuroendocrine tissues located in close proximity to sympathetic  
56 ganglia. The parasympathetic paraganglia, in contrast, are non-chromaffin and include  
57 the chemoreceptor organ in the carotid body. Pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas  
58 (PPGLs) are rare neuroendocrine tumors (incidence 2-8/1000000/year) that arise in  
59 these three tissues[1,2] with pheochromocytomas being those that occur in the adrenal  
60 glands and paragangliomas being those that develop at other sites. Most PPGLs are  
61 benign and can be cured by surgical resection. Ten to twenty percent of the afflicted  
62 patients develop metastases in organs normally devoid of chromaffin cells and are  
63 considered to have malignant PPGL. Due to the rarity of malignant PPGL, there is little  
64 evidence supporting any specific treatment regimen. Nevertheless, CVD  
65 (cyclophosphamide, vincristine and dacarbazine)[3,4], temozolomide[5] and  
66 sunitinib[6,7] have all been reported to have some anti-tumoral effects in small case  
67 series, and a phase II trial supports the use of MIBG in selected patients with metastatic  
68 disease[8].

69 Up to 40% of pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas are thought to be  
70 caused by germline mutations in at least 12 different well-characterized genes[2].  
71 Mutations in *RET* cause Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia type 2[9,10] of which  
72 pheochromocytomas are a component. Von Hippel-Lindau's disease caused by  
73 inactivating mutations in *VHL* may also involve pheochromocytomas or  
74 paragangliomas[11], as may rare cases of Neurofibromatosis type 1[12] caused by  
75 mutations in the tumor suppressor *NF1*[13]. Additionally there are specific

76 paraganglioma syndromes caused by mutations in genes encoding Krebs' cycle enzymes  
77 (succinate dehydrogenase subunits: *SDHA* [14], *SDHB* [15], *SDHC* [16], *SDHD* [17],  
78 *SDHAF2* [18] and fumarase: *FH* [19]). These tumors may also be caused by mutations in  
79 *TMEM127* (encoding an endosomal protein with an apparent role in regulating mTOR  
80 signaling) [20,21], *MAX* (Myc-Associated Factor X)[22] and by mosaic mutations in  
81 *EPAS1* (which encodes the Hypoxia Inducible Factor 2 $\alpha$ ) [23]. Recurrent somatic  
82 mutations have been reported in several genes including proto-oncogene *HRAS* [24],  
83 *NF1* [25,26], chromatin-remodeler *ATRX* [27] and *CSDE1* (which encodes an RNA  
84 binding protein)[28]. Fusion genes involving *MAML3* (encoding Mastermind Like  
85 protein 3) have recently been reported to occur in 5% of cases, and to occur in tumors  
86 that lack mutations in other known driver mutations [28].

87           In 1942 Conrad Waddington coined the term epigenetics, describing the  
88 phenotype resulted by interaction between environment and genotype[29].  
89 Effect of environmental changes on inherited phenotype alterations in offspring,  
90 including (but not restricted to) maternal nutrition during pregnancy[30], general  
91 famine[31], early prenatal stress[32] and smoking[33,34] have been described.  
92 Albeit several definitions prevail and a common consensus is yet not achieved,  
93 epigenetics is commonly referred to inheritable functional changes not encoded by the  
94 linear DNA sequence, such as chemical modification of the DNA molecule, including  
95 methylation of cytosine residues [35], methylation of adenosine residues [36] as well as  
96 covalent modifications of the proteins that associate with DNA in chromatin:  
97 histones[37].

98           The established dogma of these modifications are that increased  
99 methylation of gene promoters lead to decreased expression of the associated gene[35],  
100 as does trimethylation of the Lys27 residue of histone H4 (H3K27me3)[38] while

101 decreased methylation of gene promoters[39], trimethylation of the Lys4 residue  
102 (H3K4me3) and acetylation of the histone[40], are associated with transcription. DNA  
103 methylation in non-promoter segments of the "high level" transcribed genes are  
104 generally associated regulation of splicing variants[41] and is associated with H3K36  
105 methylation to inhibit activation of cryptic start sites[42].

106 In addition alterations caused by long non-coding RNA (lncRNA)[43] and  
107 and microRNAs (miRNAs)[44] as well as methylation of RNA[45] are considered as  
108 epigenetic traits.

109

## 110 **2. DNA methylation in pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas**

111 Several studies have investigated the existence and role of DNA methylation aberrations  
112 in PPGL. Early studies investigated the promoter methylation levels of selected  
113 candidate genes[46,47,48]. One such study provided the first evidence of more profound  
114 and wide-spread epigenomic dysregulation in PPGL; a CpG-island methylator phenotype  
115 (CIMP) was discovered and found associated with earlier onset of disease and  
116 aggressive disease with distant metastases[46]. Of note, all *SDHB*-mutated tumors in the  
117 cohort exhibited this phenotype. Several years later this result was corroborated when  
118 Letouzé et al. used an array-based approach to identify the same CIMP phenotype in  
119 *SDHx*-mutated tumors[49]. Letouzé et al. identified two additional methylation  
120 phenotypes in PPGL: a hypomethylated phenotype and a group of tumors with  
121 intermediate methylation levels. The hypomethylated tumors predominantly harbored  
122 mutations in genes involved in protein kinase signaling, whereas the intermediate group  
123 was enriched in *VHL*-mutated tumors. The hypomethylated and the intermediate groups  
124 have been validated in an independent study[50]. Hypomethylation has been  
125 experimentally linked to chromosomal instability[51], and the hypomethylated cluster

126 of PPGLs has been reported to carry a greater number of somatic copy number  
127 alterations[50].

128 DNA methylation is regulated by a number of enzymes including the DNA  
129 methyltransferases that establish DNA methylation, and the TET (ten-eleven  
130 translocation) family of enzymes which oxidize 5-methylcytosine to 5-  
131 hydroxymethylcytosine and further to 5-formylcytosine and 5-carboxycytosine, which  
132 can be removed and replaced by base excision repair in an active demethylation  
133 pathway [52]. Succinate and fumarate, which accumulate in succinate dehydrogenase  
134 deficient cells and fumarase deficient cells, respectively, have been demonstrated to  
135 inhibit the TET enzymes by binding to the iron-sulfur binding site[53]. This prevents the  
136 iterative oxidation of 5- methylcytosine, and thus inhibits the active demethylation  
137 pathway and leads to global hypermethylation. The same mechanism has been  
138 demonstrated to establish the CIMP-phenotype in *IDH1*-mutated glioblastoma tumors,  
139 in which 2-hydroxyglutarate accumulates and inhibits TET enzymes[54]. In *SDHB*  
140 deficient cells succinate accumulation and hypoxia inhibit  $\alpha$ -KG-dependent  
141 dioxygenases, resulting in hypermethylation of DNA and histones [55].

142 Hypermethylation of certain genes in *SDHB*-mutated PPGLs has been  
143 proposed to play a role in their propensity for malignant behavior by activating  
144 epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) pathways[49,56]. Tumors with these  
145 mutations are known to exhibit gene expression patterns associated with EMT including  
146 overexpression of TWIST and matrix-metalloproteases (MMPs), and underexpression of  
147 CDH2 (Neural Cadherin, which plays a role in cell adhesion) and KRT19 (cytokeratin 19,  
148 a component of the cytoskeleton) [56]. *KRT19/Krt19* has been shown to be  
149 hypermethylated and down-regulated both in *SDHB*-mutated human PPGLs and in an  
150 *Sdhb*-null immortalized murine chromaffin cell line [56]. The *Sdhb*-null cell line also

151 displays an EMT-like phenotype with a migrating behavior, which is decreased upon  
152 infection with a lentivirus carrying Krt19 cDNA[56]. This suggests that aberrant DNA  
153 methylation may play an important role in establishing the aggressive phenotype often  
154 observed in *SDHB*-mutated tumors.

155           The methylation level of specific CpG residues has been suggested as a  
156 marker of malignant disease[57]. High methylation-levels of the promoter for *NELFE*  
157 (which is also known as *RDBP* and encodes the Negative Elongation Factor Complex  
158 Member E) in particular was suggested to predict malignant behavior regardless of  
159 genotype. This was not confirmed in a smaller cohort without tumors with the CIMP  
160 phenotype[50]. Further studies are needed to clarify the potential role of DNA  
161 methylation analyses in a clinical context.

162           Furthermore, DNA methylation has been linked to therapeutic response in  
163 metastatic PPGL. O6-methylguanine-DNA methyltransferase (encoded by the *MGMT*)  
164 gene is involved in removing alkyl groups from modified guanine residues in DNA.  
165 Consequently it plays a role in repairing the damage to DNA caused by alkylating  
166 chemotherapeutic agents. Epigenetic inactivation by hypermethylation of the *MGMT*  
167 promoter is related to good response to temozolomide in malignant primary brain  
168 tumors and is used by clinicians to guide therapy[58]. A study investigating the efficacy  
169 of temozolomide in patients with metastatic PPGL found partial response only in  
170 patients with *SDHB*-mutations[5]. *SDHB*-mutations were associated with  
171 hypermethylation of the *MGMT*-promoter and low expression of the MGMT protein,  
172 which at least partially explains this finding.

173

174 **3. Epigenetic driver mutations**

175 In addition to the more peripheral and disease modifying role presumably played by  
176 alterations in DNA methylation, there is some evidence that epigenetic alterations and  
177 alterations in epigenetic regulators may drive the development of pheochromocytoma  
178 and paraganglioma. A recent case report described epigenetic inactivation of *SDHC* by  
179 promoter hypermethylation in a patient with multiple paragangliomas[59]. RNA-level  
180 expression of *SDHC* was abolished, as was the protein-level expression of both *SDHB*  
181 and *SDHC*. The same mechanism of disease has been described in patients with  
182 Gastrointestinal Stromal Tumors and the Carney triad[60]. Whether this mechanism of  
183 succinate dehydrogenase inactivation is prevalent in PPGLs has not been systematically  
184 investigated.

#### 185 **4. Imprinting**

186 Two of the hereditary paraganglioma syndromes, PGL1 and PGL2, caused by mutations  
187 in *SDHD* and *SDHAF2* are typically inherited in a parent of origin specific manner:  
188 mutations inherited from the father but not from the mother are typically disease  
189 causing. The *SDHD*-gene was initially hypothesized to be maternally imprinted which  
190 would explain bi-allelic inactivation when the paternal copy is mutated, but this has  
191 been shown not to be the case[61]. Nevertheless, maternal imprinting has been  
192 demonstrated at an alternative promoter of a lncRNA downstream of the *SDHD* locus  
193 and it has been suggested that methylation at this locus causes changes in the chromatin  
194 conformation that in turn lead to reduced transcriptional activity at the flanking *SDHD*  
195 locus[62]. The maternally derived copy of chromosome 11 (where *SDHD* is located) is  
196 preferentially lost in these tumors and an alternative hypothesis is that one or several  
197 paternally imprinted genes on this chromosome may explain the parent-of-origin  
198 effect[63]. Potential candidates include *CDKN1C* and *H19*.

#### 199 **5. Mutations in epigenetic regulators**

200 In 2015, Fishbein et al. used exome sequencing to identify *ATRX*-mutations in  
201 pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas[27]. In their cohort of 103 PPGLs 12.6%  
202 carried inactivating mutations. An association with *SDHB*-mutations was reported.  
203 These results were validated in the TCGA cohort where 5% of samples were found to  
204 carry the mutations, again in association with *SDHB*-mutations [28]. An association with  
205 aggressive disease is found in both studies. The gene product of *ATRX* dimerises with  
206 that of *DAXX* to form a chromatin remodeling complex[64] involved in the deposition of  
207 histone H3.3 proteins at the telomeres [65]. Mutations in these genes have also been  
208 described in several other tumor types including gliomas[66] and pancreatic  
209 neuroendocrine tumors[67] and are associated with poor outcome [68] in the latter. A  
210 possible effect of *ATRX*-mutations on the survival of PPGL patients has not yet been  
211 demonstrated. Inactivation of *ATRX* and *DAXX* leads to activation of an alternative  
212 lengthening of telomeres (ALT) pathway[69]. Fishbein et al. demonstrated ALT activity  
213 through telomere FISH in four out of six investigated *ATRX*-mutated tumors and two out  
214 of sixteen *ATRX*-wildtype tumors. As ALT was not detected in all cases, it is likely not the  
215 principal pathway affected by *ATRX*-inactivation in PPGLs. Notably, *ATRX*-mutations in  
216 gliomas often co-occur with mutations in the isocitrate dehydrogenase genes suggesting  
217 a possible synergistic effect of Krebs cycle disruption and *ATRX* inactivation[70].

218 Another histone modifier, *KMT2D*, has also been found recurrently mutated  
219 in pheochromocytomas[71], but not in abdominal paragangliomas[72]. The presence of  
220 *KMT2D*-mutations was related to larger tumor size. While the gene was not found  
221 mutated in the large TCGA cohort of 179 cases, a single missense mutation was detected  
222 by whole-exome sequencing in one of 31 tumors by Castro-Vega et al[73]. Thus the  
223 prevalence and functional relevance of the mutations remains to be elucidated in future  
224 studies. The tumor suppressor and histone methyl-transferase *SETD2* has been

225 described mutated in 2% of PPGLs in the TCGA cohort and is related to aggressive  
226 disease[28].

227           A third study using a combination of exome sequencing and RNA  
228 sequencing detected mutations in nine different chromatin modeling genes in tumors  
229 from eight individuals (*H3F3A*, *ATRX*, *EZH2*, *HIST1H1T*, *HIST4H4*, *JMJD1C*, *KDM2B*,  
230 *KMT2B* and *SETD2*, the latter nine of which were found mutated in a single individual) .  
231 Notably a postzygotic mutation in *H3F3A* (encoding histone H3.3) was detected in three  
232 tumors from a patient who had earlier been affected by giant cell tumor of bone. The  
233 same mutation was detected in another patient afflicted with the same dyad of tumors,  
234 thus characterizing a novel paraganglioma syndrome[74].

235

## 236 **6. Histone modifications and chromatin**

237 The focus of research into the epigenetics of PPGL so far has been on DNA methylation.  
238 The chromatin landscape of these tumors has not been well studied. This is likely due to  
239 the relative inaccessibility and high cost of methods that can be used to study the global  
240 chromatin structure. Nevertheless, some studies have been performed. Sandgren et al.  
241 used chromatin immunoprecipitation and chip technology to investigate H3K4me3 and  
242 H3K27me3 in a single malignant pheochromocytoma and related this to gene  
243 expression and copy number[75]. This enabled identification of epigenetically regulated  
244 genes that may contribute to tumor development.

245           In addition to inhibiting TET enzymes and prolyl hydroxylases, succinate  
246 and fumarate inhibit enzymes that regulate histone modifications such as JmjC-domain  
247 containing histone demethylases[53]. It has been demonstrated that accumulation of  
248 succinate or fumarate, as well as knock-down of *SDHB* or *SDHD* leads to increased  
249 methylation of histone H3 in several cell lines[53,76]. Increased levels of H3K9me3 have

250 been demonstrated in the chief cells of *SDHx*-mutated PPGLs[77]. While not yet  
251 investigated this has the potential to alter gene expression.

252 An interesting point for future studies is the effect of mutations in *SDHx* and  
253 *FH* on chromatin configuration. A pioneering study in gliomas demonstrated that *IDH*-  
254 mutations with resulting hypermethylation lead to disruption of the normal chromatin  
255 configuration[78]. This was shown to lead to insulator dysfunction and overexpression  
256 of the oncogene *PDGFRA*.

### 257 **7. Micro RNA (miRNA)**

258 There are very few published studies analyzing miRNA in PPGLs, most of them aiming to  
259 uncover differentially expressed miRNAs in malignant versus benign tumors. In a pivotal  
260 study utilizing miRNA microarray analysis, Meyer et al reported over-expression of miR-  
261 438-5p (located in intronic region of *IGF2* gene) and decreased expression of miR-15a  
262 and miR-16 in malignant compared to benign pheochromocytomas [79]. Tömböl et al  
263 used the same TaqMan Human MicroRNA Cards and identified miR-1225-3p as a  
264 possible marker for recurring tumors [80]. While Patterson et al identified miR-483-5p,  
265 miR-101, and miR-183 being overexpressed in malignant tumors associated with *SDHB*  
266 mutation[81]. Differential expression of miR-210 was identified by Tsang et al. [82].  
267 Differential expression of miR-210 and miR-183 were validated in another independent  
268 study [83]. Zong et al have shown miR-101 to be overexpressed in malignant tumors  
269 associate with *SDHD* mutation [84]. In general miRNA expression can collate PPGLs in  
270 distinct clusters in the same way that DNA methylation and mRNA expression can [73].

### 271 **8. Conclusion**

272 Pheochromocytomas and paragangliomas often carry epigenetic alterations. Aberrant  
273 DNA methylation has been best characterized at this point and may be important for  
274 establishing the malignant phenotype of *SDHB*-mutated tumors by altering the  
275 expression of genes involved in the regulation of the epithelial-mesenchymal transition.

276 Several epigenetic regulators are mutated in PPGL tumors, including *ATRX* which  
277 appears to be associated with aggressive disease. Mutations in *SDHx* and *FH* have been  
278 demonstrated to cause altered histone modifications. The functional roles of these  
279 alterations have been incompletely characterized and further work is needed to  
280 establish alterations of diagnostic and therapeutic relevance in these tumors.

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285

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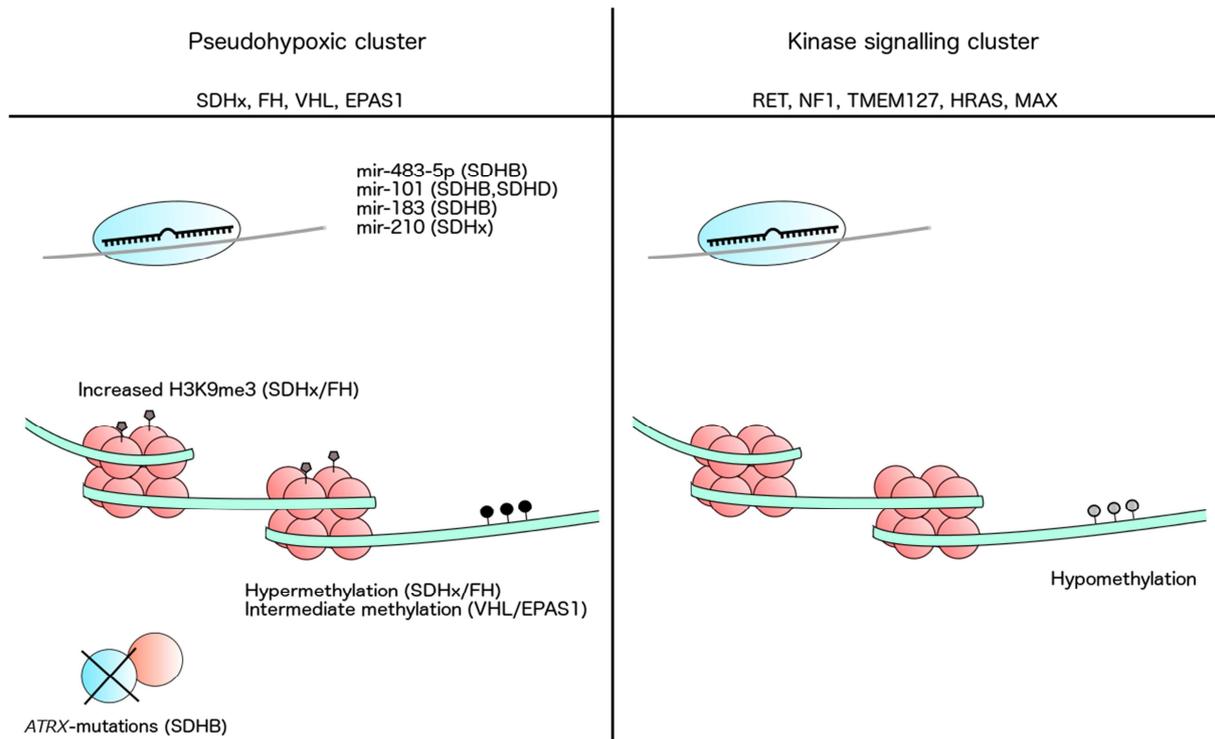
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### 530 **Figure legends**

531 Figure 1. Schematic overview of the main epigenetic alterations in the pseudohypoxia  
532 associated cluster and the kinase signaling cluster.



ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT