

1 **DNA methylation profiles in urothelial bladder cancer tissues and children with**
2 **schistosomiasis from Eggua, Ogun State, Nigeria**

3 **Short title: DNA methylation in bladder cancer and childhood schistosomiasis**

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16 headteachers of the various schools we obtained samples from.

17 **Abstract:** Squamous cell carcinoma has been attributed to chronic schistosomiasis and is the
18 predominant type of bladder cancer in schistosomiasis endemic areas. The aim of this study
19 was to assess early promoter DNA methylation in selected genes implicated in schistosomiasis-
20 associated bladder cancer (SABC). A total of 161 urine samples were collected from school
21 aged children in Eggua Community of Ogun State and examined by microscopy for
22 *Schistosoma haematobium* eggs. From this sample, a subset of 34(21.1%) urine samples
23 positive for *S. haematobium* eggs and 22 formalin fixed paraffin-embedded bladder cancer

24 tissues obtained from the University College Hospital Ibadan, were subjected to DNA isolation
25 and bisulfite DNA conversion. Quantitative methylation specific PCR was used to determine
26 the methylation status of *APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* in the samples. Methylation in
27 *APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* was observed in 24(70.6%), 18(52.9%), 15(44.1%) and
28 8(23.5%) of the positive urine samples respectively and in 7(31.8%), 13(59.1%), 17(77.3%)
29 and 8(36.4%) of bladder cancer tissues respectively. *APC*, *RAR β 2* and *RASSF1A* were 5-fold,
30 2-fold and 27-fold downregulated respectively in positive urine samples and 9-fold, 3-fold and
31 15-fold downregulated respectively in the bladder cancer tissues. The odds of promoter
32 methylation in *RAR β 2* (OR: 1.133) were likely even with light infection. Gene promoter DNA
33 methylation in tumour suppressor genes was observed in schistosomiasis cases. Hence, DNA
34 methylation may occur during active *Schistosoma haematobium* in children. This result may
35 serve as an early non-invasive biomarker to detect and hint at the risk of developing SABC
36 later in life.

37

38 **Author summary:** *Schistosoma haematobium* can survive in the host for more than 20 years,
39 during which time it causes damage to the bladder tissues and sometimes with no symptoms.
40 Immune response to the parasite infection is inflammatory and leads to several morbidities
41 like anaemia, undernutrition, dysuria, and female genital sores and may result in malignant
42 transformation (schistosomiasis-associated bladder cancer) which presents in later years.
43 Children are more susceptible to schistosomiasis because of having a naive immune system,
44 making them targets for these morbidities, and including the possibility of developing bladder
45 cancer in later years. DNA methylation which is often the first step in malignant
46 transformation is known to be induced by inflammation during chronic schistosomiasis.
47 Hence, assessing DNA methylation can serve as a biomarker for predicting the risk of
48 developing bladder cancer later in life. In this study, we have established that DNA
49 methylation occurs during childhood schistosomiasis and represents the time when events
50 leading up to malignant transformation may begin. We suggest that once there is a
51 schistosomiasis infection, DNA methylation will occur and unless the disease is treated on
52 time, the individual is at risk of malignant transformation later in life.

53

54 **Introduction**

55 **Schistosomiasis**

56 Schistosomiasis is a neglected tropical disease (NTD) that is endemic in sub-Saharan Africa,
57 Middle East and Asia [1]. It is a water-borne disease caused by species of the genus
58 *Schistosoma*. The species that are endemic to Africa are *S. haematobium* and *S. mansoni*
59 which cause urogenital schistosomiasis and intestinal schistosomiasis respectively.
60 Individuals get infected through contact with water bodies that have been contaminated with
61 infective larval stage (cercaria) of the parasite. Data from the World Health Organization [2],
62 show that schistosomiasis is present in 78 countries, and it is estimated that at least 90% of
63 people requiring treatment for schistosomiasis reside in Africa. It has been estimated that
64 over 700 million people worldwide in endemic regions are at risk of infection, with over 200
65 000 deaths annually [3].

66 The host immune response to the various stages of the life cycle of *Schistosoma*
67 *haematobium* is inflammatory in nature. The consequence of the inflammatory response is
68 granulomatous formation around eggs lodged in the tissues of the bladder. The granulomata
69 usually conjugate, forming tubercles and nodules that often ulcerate [4]. In chronic
70 schistosomiasis, this leads to several morbidities such as anaemia, undernutrition, dysuria and
71 female genital sores [5]; and may result in malignant transformation (squamous cell
72 carcinoma) which usually presents at a late stage [6].

73 In addition, lesions due to schistosomiasis are assumed to play a part in intensifying the
74 exposure of the bladder epithelium to mutagenic substrates from tobacco or other known
75 toxic chemicals. Although the mechanisms underlying the link between schistosomiasis and
76 bladder cancer are still debatable, available data shows that schistosomiasis induces DNA
77 methylation via chronic inflammation. DNA methylation is known to be involved in
78 numerous cancer phenotypes.

79 **Schistosomiasis-induced DNA Methylation and Bladder Cancer**

80 DNA methylation is the most studied epigenetic modification and is the process in which a
81 methyl group forms a covalent bond with 5' position of a cytosine ring forming 5-
82 methylcytosine (5mC). This event usually occurs in CG rich regions called CpG islands.
83 These are regions that have more cytosines followed by guanines than other nucleotides. CpG
84 islands are upstream, and make the bulk of gene promoter regions, in addition to playing
85 crucial roles in gene expression. Methylated promoter regions recruit other methylation
86 enzymes, thereby making access by transcription factors more difficult. Naturally, the process
87 of DNA methylation is carried out by a group of DNA methyltransferase enzymes (DNMTs)
88 namely; DNMT3a and DNMT3b and DNMT1 [7]. The former group is responsible for *de*
89 *novo* DNA methylation during embryonic development, while DNMT1 maintains the
90 methylation in subsequent cell division using hemimethylated strands [8]. This allows for
91 normal gene regulation and expression.

92 In contrast, DNA methylation patterns can be altered directly or indirectly by disease causing
93 pathogens (bacteria, parasites and viruses) [9] or chemical agents like amines, tobacco and
94 arsenic. This has debilitating effects on gene expression and function; thus, impacting disease
95 progression including cancer and resistance to therapy. Aberrant DNA methylation (hyper-
96 and hypomethylation) has been associated with numerous diseases including cancer. Many
97 cancerous cells are characterized by different abnormal DNA methylation patterns, which are
98 usually distinct and can be used to discriminate between cancerous and normal cells.

99 Chronic schistosomiasis which synchronizes with chronic inflammation occurs during active
100 infection in children and peaks at late adolescence [10]. It has also been established that
101 chronic inflammation elicits aberrant DNA methylation, and that the latter is believed to
102 constitute the initiation phase in cancer development. Based on these observations, it can be
103 suggested that early events (DNA methylation) leading up to SABC may occur in children

104 with active schistosomiasis infection. Therefore, assessing DNA methylation patterns in
105 infected children may aid in the identification of individuals who may be at risk of
106 developing SABC later in life, and provide the basis for early intervention.

107 Schistosomiasis Associated Bladder Cancer (SABC) has not been documented in Eggua,
108 southwest Nigeria, but Onile *et al.* [11] reported that about 62% of bladder pathologies,
109 detected by ultrasonography were associated with chronic schistosomiasis, suggesting altered
110 DNA methylation patterns would have occurred. In addition there are reports of cancer-
111 specific DNA methylation alterations in pre-diagnostic blood collected more than 10 years
112 before diagnosis of chronic lymphocytic leukemia [12]. Based on these reports and the fact
113 that children are more susceptible to *Schistosoma haematobium* infection, it can be suggested
114 that epigenetic changes begin early in children during active infections. Thus, they are
115 hotspots for events leading up to disease progression, bladder pathologies and risk of
116 developing schistosomiasis associated bladder cancer later in life.

117 **DNA Methylation as biomarker for SABC**

118 The gold standard for treatment of bladder cancer is cystoscopy. It is invasive, painful and less
119 effective for SABC. DNA methylation biomarkers have been widely used for early diagnosis,
120 prognosis and prediction of diseases including cancer. These biomarkers are easily (not
121 invasive and not painful) obtainable from body fluids. Different DNA methylation
122 biomarkers have been assessed for detection, prognosis and treatment of SABC which
123 usually present late [6]. It is known that the best form of treatment is prevention, and that
124 DNA methylation events (which are reversible) can occur years before diagnosis of
125 neoplasm, hence it is pertinent to assess these events at its earliest onset. Therefore, the use of
126 non-invasive DNA methylation biomarkers to identify early events in childhood
127 schistosomiasis, which precede SABC later in life, may help speed up intervention measures
128 and treatments to children with chronic infections and at risk of malignant transformation.

129 This is the first attempt to evaluate DNA methylation induced my *S. haematobium* infection
130 in children. We also look to establish a possible link between *S. haematobium* infection
131 especially in children and SABC. This study will contribute additional knowledge to the
132 understanding of epigenetic changes occurring in schistosomiasis that may predispose the
133 infected individuals, especially during childhood to the risk of developing SABC. Evaluation
134 of the methylation status will help to determine which urine biomarkers can be used, and are
135 effective in hinting at the risk of developing SABC.

136 This study is aimed at evaluating promoter DNA methylation, as an early non-invasive
137 potential biomarker in children infected with *Schistosoma haematobium* in Eggua
138 Community, and how it can be used to hint on, and identify individuals at risk of developing
139 schistosomiasis-associated bladder cancer later in life. We have been able to establish that
140 during childhood schistosomiasis, DNA methylation is induced especially in tumour
141 suppressor genes. Therefore, once there is schistosomiasis infection and the disease is left
142 untreated, the individual is at risk of developing schistosomiasis-associated bladder cancer
143 later in life.

144

145 **Materials and Methods**

146 **Study design**

147 For this study, a cross sectional design was used to collect urine samples once from voluntary
148 participants who were all school aged children. A total of 161 participants between the ages
149 of 5 and 16 years were recruited from Eggua Community, using informed consent
150 procedures. A total of 22 Formalin fixed paraffin-embedded bladder cancer tissue blocks
151 (SABC and Non-SABC) were collected from the cancer registry of the University College
152 Hospital (UCH), University of Ibadan. The cancer tissue blocks were analysed by a
153 Histopathologist from the University College Hospital (UCH), University of Ibadan, to
154 ascertain they were bladder cancer tissues and histological type.

155 **Ethical Approval**

156 Ethical clearance was obtained from the UI/UCH Health Research Ethics Committee, College
157 of Medicine, University of Ibadan (IRB number: UI/UCH/22/0036). Using informed consent
158 procedures, the assent and consent of the children and their parents/guardians respectively
159 were obtained in writing before sampling was carried out.

160 **Study Area**

161 Eggua is a rural agricultural community (07°01.592 N; 002°55.083 E) in Yewa North Local
162 Government Area, Ogun State Nigeria. The main sources of water in the area are flowing
163 Rivers, especially River Yewa, which are used for domestic purposes, including drinking,
164 washing and cooking in addition to fishing and swimming. Schistosomiasis is known to be
165 prevalent in this community [13] and bladder pathologies associated with Schistosomiasis has
166 been reported as well [11].

167

168 **Study Population**

169 The study population was drawn from school aged children living in the study area. Urine
170 samples from participants positive for schistosoma eggs and the cancer tissue blocks were
171 used as cases while samples from participants without haematuria or schistosoma eggs
172 detected in urine samples were used as controls.

173 **Sample Size Determination**

174 This was determined according to Charan and Biswas, [14]; and calculated using the formula;

$$175 \text{ Sample size} = \frac{r + 1(p^*)(1 - p^*)(Z_{\beta} + Z_{\beta/2})^2}{(p_1 - p_2)^2}$$

176 Values for proportions were obtained based on the number of cases and control from a
177 previous study, [15]. Thus number of cases = 57, number of control = 13, $r = 0.23$, expected
178 proportion in cases (p_1) = 0.81, expected proportion in control (p_2) = 0.19, $Z_{\beta} = 1.28$, $Z_{\beta/2} =$
179 1.96, $p^* = 0.5$.

180 Therefore, samples from at least 37 participants were used in this study.

181 **Biological Sample collection and analysis**

182 20ml of voided urine were collected from each participant in reagent bottles. Urinalysis
183 reagent strips (Rapid Labs, UK) were used for rapid detection of blood and analytes,
184 including glucose, ketone, specific gravity, pH, proteinuria and leukocytes in the urine
185 samples, following the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were immediately centrifuged at
186 3000 g for 10 minutes and the sediments were carefully examined by microscopy for
187 presence of *Schistosoma* eggs. Urine samples were then stored at -30°C until DNA
188 extraction was carried out. Tissue blocks of formalin fixed paraffin-embedded specimens of
189 *Schistosoma*-associated bladder cancer and Urothelial bladder cancer were obtained from the

190 bladder cancer registry of UCH, University of Ibadan. Genomic DNA was extracted from
191 them.

192 **Gene Selection for Promoter Methylation**

193 Four genes (*APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3*) associated with schistosomiasis induced
194 bladder pathology and cancers were selected from literature for analysis of methylation
195 abnormalities. These genes have been shown to be highly sensitive as biomarkers for bladder
196 cancer. *RASSF1A*, *APC* and *RARβ2* are all tumour suppressor genes while *TIMP3* plays a key
197 role in activating apoptotic cascade.

198 **Primer Design for *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3***

199 The gene ID and organism of the target genes were obtained from the National Centre for
200 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) database. This was then used to search for the promoter
201 region of the gene in the Eukaryotic Promoter Database (EPD). The sequence of the promoter
202 region for each target gene was then retrieved from the database using the sequence retrieval
203 tool. A blast run for the promoter sequence was carried out using the NCBI blast tool in order
204 to determine specificity of the promoter sequence. Primer design specific for methylation
205 assay was then carried out using MethPrimer as previously reported [16].

206 **Genomic DNA Extraction from bladder cancer tissues and urine samples**

207 For genomic DNA extraction, four tissue sections ($\leq 20 \mu\text{m}$ thick) were obtained from each
208 bladder cancer tissue block, using a microtome and transferred to 1.5 ml microcentrifuge
209 tubes for deparaffinization.

210 **Deparaffinization of tissue sections and DNA extraction:** This was carried out using the
211 Zymo Research Quick-DNA FFPE kit, following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly,
212 400 μL of Deparaffinization solution was added to 1.5ml microcentrifuge tubes, incubated at
213 55°C for 1 minute and thereafter vortexed briefly. Deparaffinization solution was then

214 discarded. Deparaffinized tissue digested using Proteinase K, dH₂O and 2X digestion buffer.
215 This was incubated at 55°C overnight for 12-16 hours. DNA was purified and eluted with
216 70µL of DNA Elution Buffer. Purified DNA was then stored at ≤-20°C for further use.

217 **DNA Isolation from urine samples:** 34 urine samples positive for Schistosoma eggs were
218 used for DNA extraction. DNA was also extracted from 16 urine samples that were
219 microscopically negative for Schistosoma eggs and this served as control. This was done
220 using the Geneaid gDNA Microkit, following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 1ml of
221 urine was transferred to a 1.5ml microcentrifuge tube and centrifuged at 6000xg for 2
222 minutes and the supernatant discarded. This was resuspended using 500µL of elution buffer,
223 centrifuged at 600xg for 1 minute and the supernatant discarded. Cells were lysed with
224 200µL of S1 buffer and 20µL of Proteinase K and incubated at 60°C for 30 minutes. Further
225 lysis was done with 200µL of S2 buffer and incubated at 60°C for 20 minutes. DNA was
226 bound using 200µL of absolute ethanol, washed and eluted with 60µL of DNA elution buffer.
227 Eluted DNA was stored at ≤-20°C for further use.

228 **Bisulfite Treatment of Isolated DNA**

229 DNA extracted from urine samples and paraffinized tissue were subjected to bisulfite
230 treatment, which converts unmethylated cytosine residues to uracil residues, leaving the
231 methylated cytosines as previously reported [17]. Briefly, 50µL of genomic DNA from each
232 sample were denatured using 2µl of freshly prepared NaOH (final concentration, 3M) and
233 incubated 37°C for 10 minutes. The denatured DNA was then mixed with freshly prepared
234 sodium bisulfite solution (final concentration, 5M), covered with mineral oil and incubated in
235 the dark at 50°C for 16 hours. The heavy mineral oil was carefully separated from the
236 reaction solution and the bisulfite-modified DNA were purified using GenepHlow Gel/PCR
237 purification kit, following manufacturer's instructions. Modified DNA was then stored at –
238 80 °C.

239 **Real Time Quantitative Methylation Specific PCR (qMSP) for Bisulfite Converted DNA**

240 The qMSP were conducted for each bisulfite-modified DNA on Applied Systems Bio Rad
241 iQ5 Thermocycler. Amplification was carried out in a 25 μ l total reaction volume containing
242 4 μ l of master mix (5x HOT FIREPol EvaGreen qPCR Supermix), 0.4 μ l each of forward and
243 reverse primers for each gene (*APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3*), 18.2 μ l of nuclease free
244 water and 2 μ l of modified DNA. Amplification reaction conditions were as follows; hot start
245 at 95°C for 5 minutes, subsequent denaturation at 95°C for 15 minutes, annealing at 48 -
246 49°C for 15 minutes, extension at 72°C for 20 minutes final extension step at 55°C for 10
247 minutes. This was carried out for 40 cycles. Amplification was carried out for methylated and
248 unmethylated primers of each gene separately. Melt curves were also generated for each
249 reaction. No template control (NTC) was used as negative control. Level of CpG island
250 methylation for promoter region of each gene was obtained among three categories of
251 samples i.e. infection only (urogenital schistosomiasis alone), bladder cancer and controls (no
252 infection/urogenital schistosomiasis). Primer sequences, their parameters and qMSP
253 conditions are shown in supplementary data S1 Table.

254 **Interpretation and Data Analysis for qMSP**

255 Average melt temperature was used to ascertain actual amplified product for each primer.
256 Relative quantification normalized against unit mass (number of samples) was used to
257 determine fold change with the control sample as the calibrator. This was determined using;
258 $\text{Ratio}_{(\text{test/calibrator})} = 2^{\Delta\text{Ct}}$. Where $\Delta\text{Ct} = \text{Ct}(\text{calibrator}) - \text{Ct}(\text{test})$.

259 **Statistical Analysis**

260 All statistical analysis was done using SPSS version 20. Pearson's Chi Square test was used
261 to test association between promoter region methylation of each gene with age, gender and
262 cancer histological type. Odds ratio was used to predict the risk of promoter methylation in
263 relation to the intensity of infection. Receiver Operating Curve (ROC) analysis was used to

264 assess promoter region hypermethylation of the selected genes to distinguish between cases
265 and controls.

266

267 **Results**

268 A total of 161 school aged children participated in this study. Out of this, 78(48.5%) were
269 males while 83(51.5%) were females, with a mean age of 10.7 years (Table 1). A total of 34
270 urine samples were positive for *Schistosoma haematobium* (*Sh*) eggs after microscopic
271 examination for a prevalence of 21.1%. Of this, light infection (<50 eggs/10mL of urine)
272 occurred in 32(94.1%) samples, while heavy infection (\geq 50 eggs/10mL of urine) was seen in
273 2(5.9%) samples. Urinalysis showed that 33(20.5%) of the participants had haematuria, out of
274 which 11(33.3%) were positive for *S. haematobium* infection (Table 1). Equal number (17) of
275 males (21.8%) and females (20.5%) had *S. haematobium* infection (Table 1).

276 A total of 50 urine samples were then subjected to further analysis of DNA methylation; 34
277 were positive for *Schistosoma haematobium* (*Sh*) eggs and 16 negative for both *S.*
278 *haematobium* eggs and haematuria and thus, served as controls.

279 Archived FFPE bladder cancer tissues composed 12(54.6%) males while females were
280 5(22.7%) with an average age of 55.8 years. More males (54.6%) than females (22.7%) had
281 bladder cancer (Table 1). Urothelial carcinoma was the most common type of tumour,
282 constituting 59.1% of the samples (Table 1).

283

284 **Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants and Bladder Cancer Tissues**

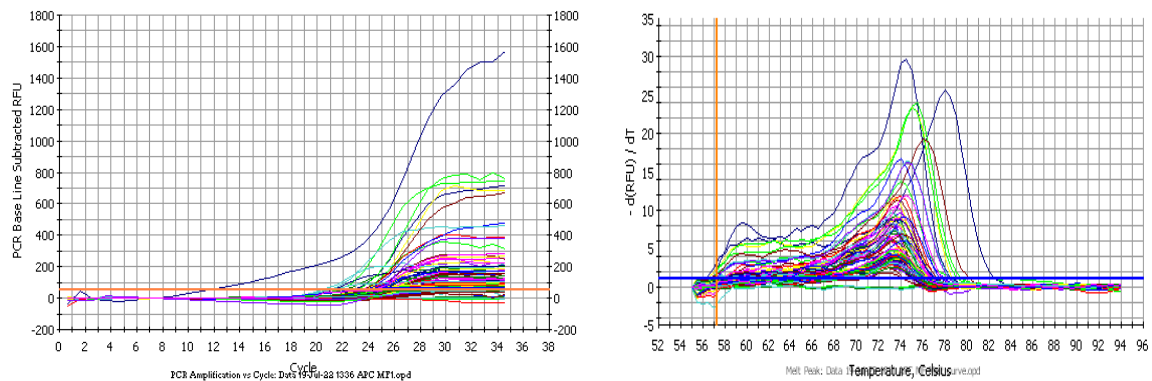
Parameters	Number		Total (%)
	Infected (%)	Uninfected(%)	
Participants			
Sex			
Male	17(21.8)	61(78.2)	78(48.5)
Female	17(20.5)	66(79.5)	83(51.5)
Total	34(21.1)	127(78.9)	161(100)
Age Group			
5 – 10	13(22.4)	45(77.6)	58(36.0)
11 – 16	21(20.8)	80(79.2)	101(62.7)
Missing data	0(0)	2(100)	2(1.2)
Total	34(21.1)	125(77.6)	161(98.7)
Haematuria			
Yes	11(33.3)	22(66.7)	33(20.5)
No	23(18.0)	105(82.0)	128(79.5)
Total	34(21.1)	127(78.9)	161(100)
Bladder Cancer Tissues			
Sex			
Male			12(54.6)
Female			5(22.7)
Missing data			5(22.7)
Total			22(100)
Age Group			
<55			7(31.8)
≥55			9(40.9)
Missing data			6(27.3)
Total			22(100)
Tumor Type			
UC			13(59.1)
Invasive UC			3(13.6)
Papillary UC			1(4.6)
Invasive Papillary UC			2(9.1)
Invasive SCC			2(9.1)
Invasive Adenocarcinoma			1(4.6)
Total			22(100)

321

322

323 Gene Promoter Methylation of the Target Genes in Schistosomiasis and Bladder Cancer

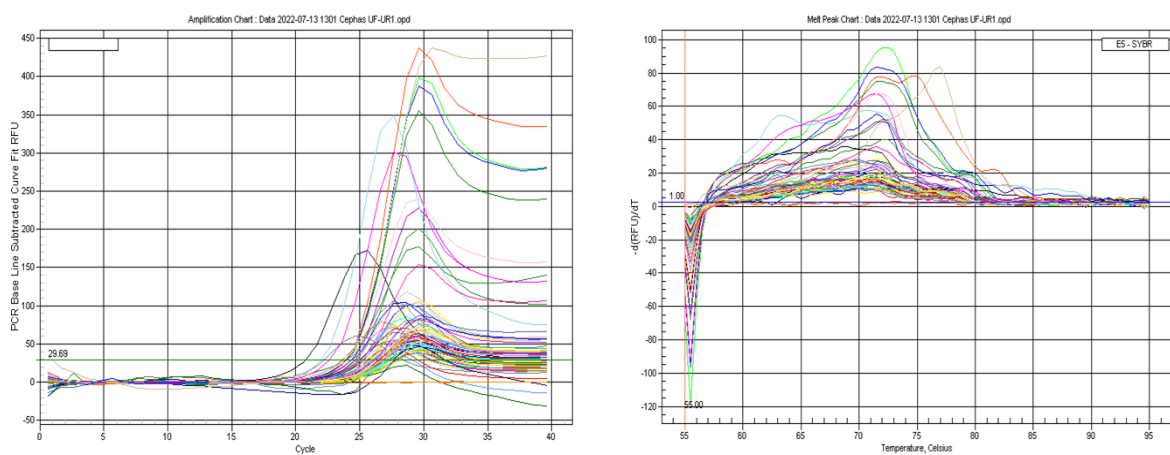
324 Gene promoter methylation of the target genes was assayed using a total 56 samples (34 *Sh*
325 positive urine and 22 bladder cancer tissues). Promoter methylation in the following genes,
326 *APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* were evaluated. *RASSF1A* was methylated in more
327 (32(57.1%) of all the samples, while *TIMP3* was the least methylated in 16(28.6%) of
328 samples (Table 2). Figure 1 shows the images of the qPCR amplification cycle and melting
329 temperatures for *APC* gene. The images of the qPCR amplification cycle and melting
330 temperatures for *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* are shown in appendix figures I, II, and III
331 respectively.



332

A

B



334

C

D

335 **Fig 1: qPCR amplification and melting temperatures for *APC*:** A) qPCR amplification cycle for
336 methylation reaction; B) Melting temperature for methylation reaction; C) qPCR amplification cycle
337 for unmethylation reaction; D) Melting temperature for unmethylation reaction
338

339 In comparing both bladder cancer tissues and positive urine samples, there were more
 340 promoter methylation in *APC* (24) and *RARβ2* (18) in UGS samples than cancer tissues: *APC*
 341 (7) and *RARβ2* (13); whereas promoter methylation was lower for *RASSF1A* (15) in UGS
 342 than for *RASSF1A* (17) in cancer tissue. The number of samples with promoter methylation
 343 for *TIMP3* was the same (8), for both UGS and cancer tissues (Table 2).

344 **Table 2: Promoter methylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* genes in schistosomiasis and**
 345 **cancer tissues**

GENE	SAMPLE		Total n(%)
	Cancer Tissue n(%)	<i>Schistosoma haematobium</i> Positive Urine n(%)	
<i>APC</i>			
Methylated	7(31.8)	24(70.6)	31(55.4)
Unmethylated	15(68.1)	10(29.4)	25(44.6)
<i>RARβ2</i>			
Methylated	13(59.1)	18(52.9)	31(55.4)
Unmethylated	9(40.9)	16(47.1)	25(44.6)
<i>RASSF1A</i>			
Methylated	17(77.3)	15(44.1)	32(57.1)
Unmethylated	5(22.7)	19(55.9)	24(42.9)
<i>TIMP3</i>			
Methylated	8(36.4)	8(23.5)	16(28.6)
Unmethylated	14(63.6)	26(76.5)	40(71.4)

346

347

348

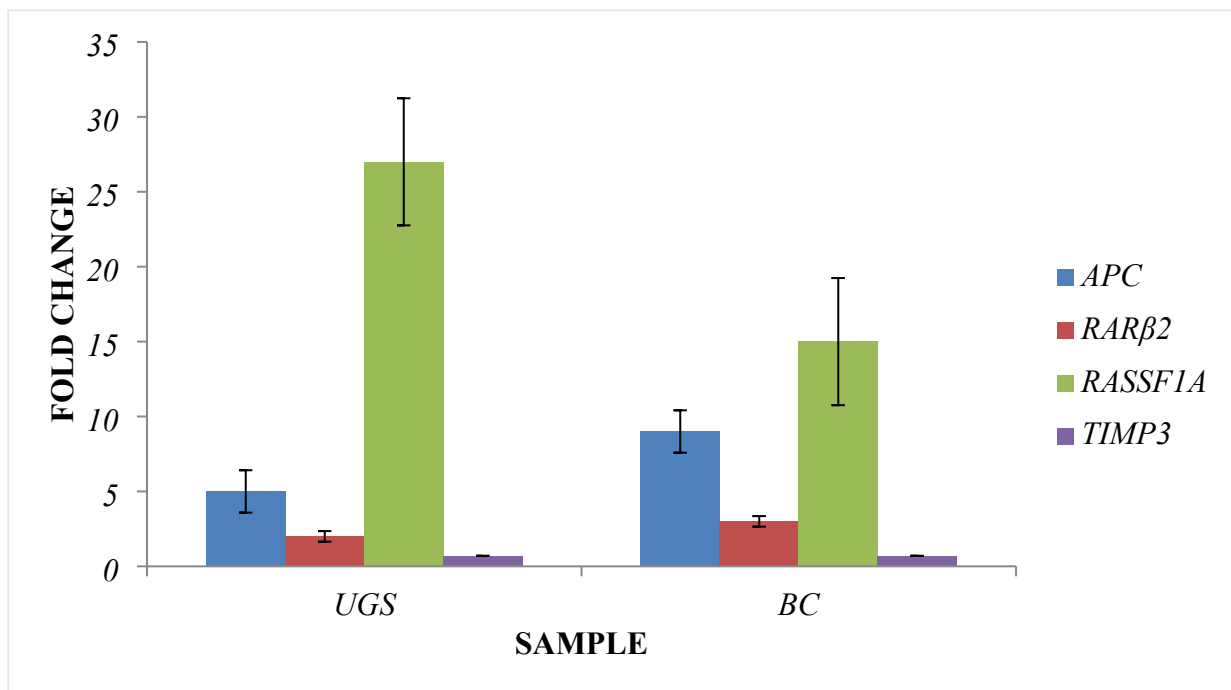
349

350

351

352 In the positive urine samples, *APC*, *RARβ2* and *RASSF1A* were 5-fold, 2-fold and 27-fold
353 hypermethylated respectively, whereas *TIMP3* had no significant fold change. When
354 compared to the cancer tissues, *APC* and *RARβ2* were more hypermethylated with a 9-fold
355 and 3-fold change respectively, *RASSF1A* showed lesser hypermethylation with a 15-fold
356 change, while *TIMP3* equally had no significant fold change (Figure 2).

357



358

359 **Fig 2:** Fold change in promoter methylation of tested genes was highest in *APC* and *RASSF1A*

360

Legend: UGS = urogenital schistosomiasis, BC = bladder cancer

361

362

363

364 Pearson's Chi-square test was used to test the association between the promoter methylation
 365 of the genes of interest and age group, gender, intensity of infection for schistosomiasis
 366 (Table 3) and age group, gender and histological type for bladder cancer (Table 4).

367 **Table 3: Association of promoter methylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* with urogenital schistosomiasis**

Gene	Parameters	Number Infected	Methylation(%)	<i>p</i> -value
<i>APC</i>	Age Group			0.555
	5 – 10	13	9(69.2)	
	11 – 16	21	15(71.4)	
	Total	34	24(70.6)	
	Sex			0.586
	Male	17	12(70.6)	
	Female	17	12(70.6)	
	Total	34	24(70.6)	
	Intensity of Infection			0.000*
	Light	32	22(68.8)	
	Heavy	2	2(100)	
Total	34	24(70.6)		
<i>RARβ2</i>	Age Group			0.449
	6 – 10	13	6(46.2)	
	11 – 16	21	12(57.1)	
	Total	34	18(52.9)	
	Sex			0.309
	Male	17	8(47.1)	
	Female	17	10(58.8)	
	Total	34	18(52.9)	
	Intensity of Infection			0.001*
	Light	32	17(53.1)	
	Heavy	2	1(50.0)	
Total	34	18(52.9)		
<i>RASSF1A</i>	Age Group			0.495
	6 – 10	13	5(38.5)	
	11 – 16	21	10(47.6)	
	Total	34	15(44.1)	
	Sex			0.542
	Male	17	7(41.2)	
	Female	17	8(47.1)	
	Total	34	15(44.1)	
	Intensity of Infection			0.010*
	Light	32	15(48.9)	
	Heavy	2	0	
Total	34	15(44.1)		
<i>TIMP3</i>	Age Group			0.256
	6 – 10	13	2(15.4)	
	11 – 16	21	6(28.6)	
	Total	34	8(23.5)	
	Sex			0.256
	Male	17	6(35.3)	
	Female	17	2(11.8)	
	Total	34	8(23.5)	
	Intensity of Infection			0.127
	Light	32	8(25.0)	
	Heavy	2	0	
Total	34	8(23.5)		

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$

432

433

434 **Table 4: Association between promoter methylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* and BC**

Gene	Parameters	Number Infected	Methylation(%)	<i>p</i> -value
435	<i>APC</i>			
436	Age Group			0.194
437	<55	7	2(28.6)	
438	≥55	9	2(22.2)	
439	Missing data	6	3(50.0)	
440	Total	22	7(31.8)	
441				
442	Sex			0.706
443	Male	12	3(25.0)	
444	Female	5	1(20.0)	
445	Missing data	5	3(60.0)	
446	Total	22	7(31.8)	
447				
448	Histological Type			
449	0.042*			
450	UC	13	5(38.5)	
451	Invasive UC	3	1(33.3)	
452	Papillary UC	1	1(100)	
453	Invasive Papillary UC	2	0	
454	Invasive SCC	2	0	
455	Invasive Adenocarcinoma	1	0	
456	Total	22	7(31.8)	
457	<i>RARβ2</i>			
458	Age Group			
459	0.012*			
460	<55	7	4(57.1)	
461	≥55	9	4(44.4)	
462	Missing data	6	5(83.3)	
463	Total	22	13(59.1)	
464				
465	Sex			1.000
466	Male	12	6(50.0)	
467	Female	5	3(60.0)	
468	Missing data	5	4(80.0)	
469	Total	22	13(59.1)	
470				
471	Histological Type			
472	0.000*			
473	UC	13	10(76.9)	
474	Invasive UC	3	0	
475	Papillary UC	1	0	
476	Invasive Papillary UC	2	2(100)	
477	Invasive SCC	2	1(50.0)	
478	Invasive Adenocarcinoma	1	0	
479	Total	22	13(59.1)	
480	<i>RASSF1A</i>			
481	Age Group			
482	0.000*			
483	<55	7	6(85.7)	
484	≥55	9	7(77.8)	
485	Missing data	6	4(66.7)	
486	Total	22	17(77.3)	
487				
488	Sex			0.801
489	Male	12	9(75.0)	
490	Female	5	4(80.0)	
491	Missing data	5	4(80.0)	
492	Total	22	17(77.3)	
493				
494	Histological Type			
495	0.000*			
496	UC	13	11(84.6)	
497	Invasive UC	3	2(66.7)	
498	Papillary UC	1	1(100)	
499	Invasive Papillary UC	2	1(50.0)	
500	Invasive SCC	2	1(50.0)	
501	Invasive Adenocarcinoma	1	1(100)	
502	Total	22	17(77.3)	

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$, UC = urothelial carcinoma, SCC = squamous cell carcinoma

503
504

505

506 **Table 4: Association between promoter methylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* and BC Cont.**

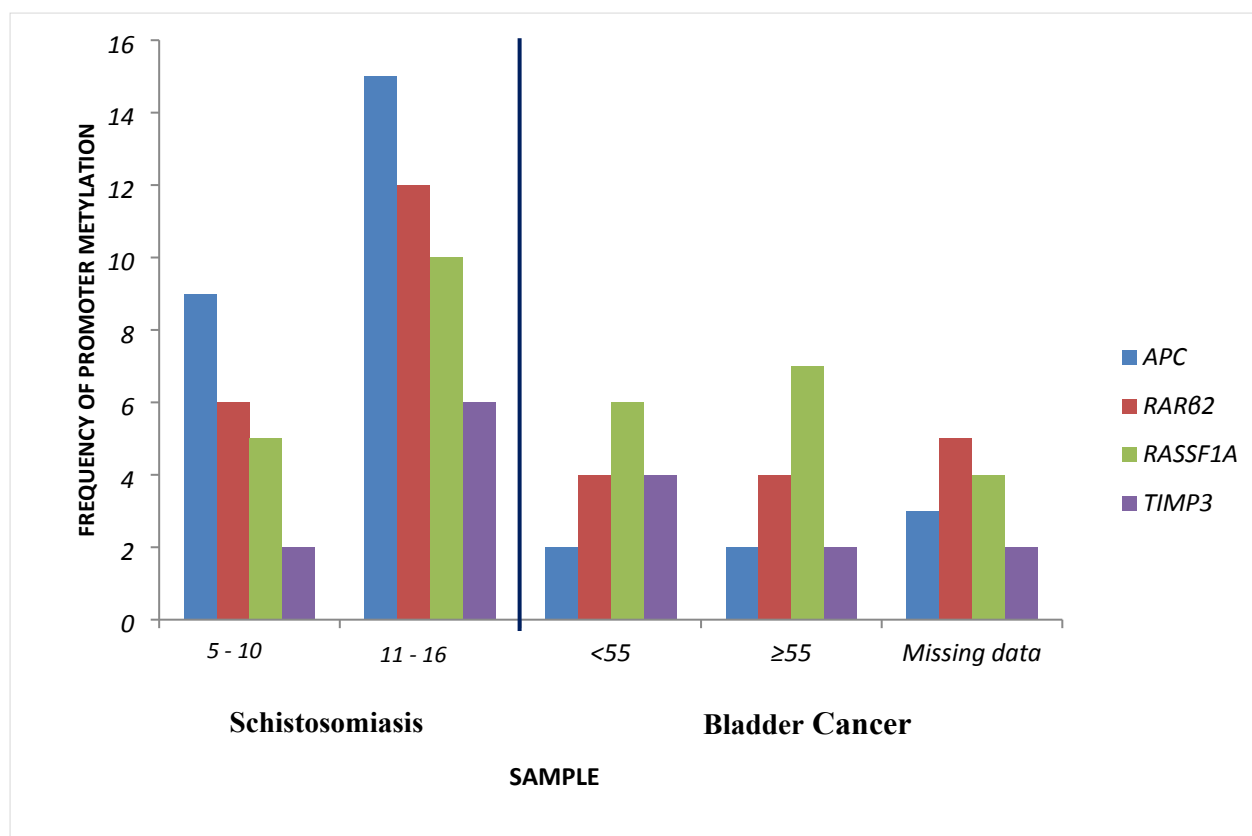
Gene	Parameters	Number Infected	Methylation(%)	<i>p-value</i>
507	<i>TIMP3</i>			
508	Age Group			
509	0.015*			
510	<55	7	4(57.1)	
511	≥55	9	2(22.2)	
512	Missing data	6	2(33.3)	
513	Total	22	8(36.4)	
514				
515	Sex			
516	1.000			
517	Male	12	4(33.3)	
518	Female	5	2(40.0)	
519	Missing data	5	2(40.0)	
520	Total	22	8(36.4)	
521				
522	Histological Type			
523	0.052*			
524	UC	13	5(38.5)	
525	Invasive UC	3	1(33.3)	
526	Papillary UC	1	1(100)	
527	Invasive Papillary UC	2	1(50.0)	
528	Invasive SCC	2	0	
529	Invasive Adenocarcinoma	1	0	
530	Total	22	8(36.4)	

*Significant at $p \leq 0.05$, UC = urothelial carcinoma, SCC = squamous cell carcinoma

531

532 As shown in Table 3 and Figure 3, majority of the participants with urogenital
 533 schistosomiasis belong to the age group 11 – 16 years and this group also accounted for the
 534 highest number of promoter methylation of the tested genes, but there was no association
 535 between age and promoter methylation ($p > 0.05$). Although majority of bladder cancer
 536 patients belonged to the age group ≥ 55 years, but the age group < 55 had highest frequency of
 537 promoter methylation of the tested genes. There was a significant association between age of
 538 bladder cancer patients and promoter methylation of tested genes except *APC* at $p < 0.05$
 539 (Table 4).

540



541

542 **Fig 3:** No association between promoter hypermethylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* and
 543 age

544

545 As shown in Table 1, equal numbers of male and female children were infected with
 546 *Schistosoma haematobium*. While females had the highest promoter hypermethylation for
 547 *RARβ2* and *RASSF1A*, males had highest promoter hypermethylation in *TIMP3* and both had
 548 equal number of promoter hypermethylation for *APC* (Table 3). There was no association
 549 between sex and promoter methylation in children with schistosomiasis ($p>0.05$). In the case
 550 of bladder cancer tissues used, more males than females had bladder cancer and males also
 551 had the highest number of promoter methylation for all tested genes, but there was
 552 association between sex and promoter methylation $p>0.05$ (Table 4).

553 Intensity of infection was associated with promoter methylation for only *APC*, *RARβ2* and
 554 *RASSF1A* at $p<0.05$ (Table 3). For bladder cancer, histological type was also associated with
 555 promoter methylation for all tested genes at $p\leq 0.05$ (Table 4).

556 Odds ratio was used to predict if intensity of infection was associated with gene promoter
557 hypermethylation. Our results showed that promoter hypermethylation was more likely even
558 at light infection for *RARβ2* (Table 5). Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve was
559 generated to assess the ability of the assay to predict promoter methylation. The ROC
560 analysis for *APC* had sensitivity, specificity and area under curve (AUC) of 55.4%, 75% and
561 0.908 respectively (Figure 4). The ROC analysis for *RARβ2*, *RASSF1A*, and *TIMP3* are
562 shown in appendix figures IV, V, and VI respectively. The ROC analysis for all tested genes
563 had a p-value of $p < 0.001$.

564 **Table 5 Association between intensity of infection and promoter methylation of *APC*, *RARβ2*,**
565 ***RASSF1A* and *TIMP3***

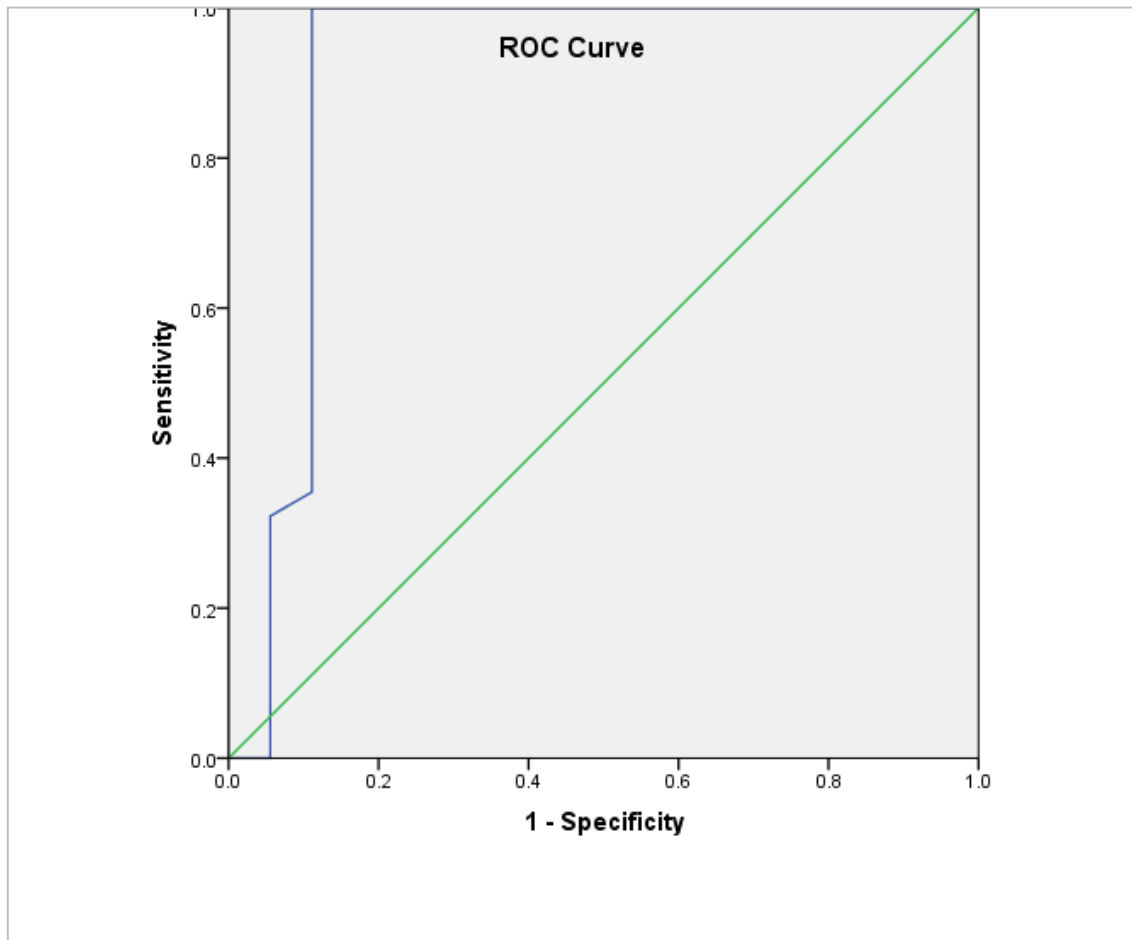
Parameter	Gene	OR	95%CI
Intensity of infection (Light/Heavy)	<i>APC</i>	.688	.544 - .868
	<i>RARβ2</i>	1.133	.065 – 19.74
	<i>RASSF1A</i>	.531	.384 - .736
	<i>TIMP3</i>	.750	.614 - .916

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Fig 4: AUC-ROC Curve for assessing promoter methylation of *APC* (sensitivity = 55.4%, specificity = 75%, $p < 0.001$, AUC = 0.908)

579 Discussion

580 Altered DNA methylation patterns can inform, (and have been used) in the diagnosis,

581 prognosis, treatment and management of different cancers and other diseases and disorders

582 [18]. *Schistosoma haematobium* the causative agent of schistosomiasis, a neglected tropical

583 disease, is a designated Class I carcinogen and implicated in SABC. Although its mechanism

584 of action is still debatable, it is believed that *S. haematobium* induces bladder cancer over

585 time via chronic inflammation. Schistosomiasis associated bladder cancer usually presents

586 late and has poor prognosis.

587 In this study, we proposed that since DNA methylation is elicited by chronic inflammation
588 which is believed to mark the initiation phase of cancers, assessing DNA methylation patterns
589 during active chronic infection in children may hint at the risk of developing SABC at a later
590 stage in life, and provide the basis for early intervention. In the present study, data are
591 presented which showed hypermethylation in the promoter region of tumour suppressor
592 genes. These may suggest that events leading up to SABC begins during active infection in
593 children. This can be used to distinguish between cases and non-cases, and identify
594 individuals at risk of developing SABC later in life.

595 **Epidemiology of Schistosomiasis in the Study Area**

596 The overall prevalence of urogenital schistosomiasis in this study was 21.1%. This is lower
597 than 30.8% reported for children in the same area by Oladele *et al.* [19]. Meanwhile,
598 Alexander *et al.* [5] reported a lower prevalence of 14% in children in other areas of Ogun
599 State. The low prevalence of urogenital schistosomiasis recorded in this study may be a result
600 of the ongoing mass drug administration in Ogun State. It is reported that at least once a year
601 since 2017, pupils in the state are treated with praziquantel depending on the availability of
602 the drugs [5].

603 Opara *et al.* [20] reported equal chances of males and females being infected with the
604 parasite. This corroborates the observations in the present study, with equal number (17) of
605 males (21.8%) and females (20.5%) infected with *S. haematobium*. This is however at
606 variance with other reports that observed high infection in males than females [3] and in
607 females than in males [5]. This has been attributed with the socio-cultural practices of the
608 study areas, as well as how frequent individuals get in contact with cercariae infested water
609 bodies.

610 Intensity of infection is usually associated with chronicity of disease, clinical manifestations,
611 morbidities, as well as bladder pathologies. Most of those who were schistosomiasis positive
612 had only light infection, as has consistently been seen in this area [11] and other parts of the
613 country [5, 20]. Conversely, reports from other parts of Nigeria [10] and Ghana [21] found
614 that majority of participants had heavy infection (≥ 50 eggs/10mL urine). Only two
615 participants had heavy infections in this study, which is similar to the report of Alexander *et*
616 *al.* [5].

617 **Hypermethylation of Gene Promoter Region in UGS during Childhood and UBC**

618 In the current study, the promoter region of *APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3* were
619 hypermethylated in 31(55.4%), 31(55.4%), 32(57.1%) and 16(28.6%) of all the samples
620 analyzed respectively. Of this, the promoter regions of *APC*, *RAR β 2*, *RASSF1A* and *TIMP3*
621 were hypermethylated in 24, 18, 15 and 8 respectively of the schistosomiasis positive
622 samples, whereas they were hypermethylated in 7, 13, 17 and 8 respectively of the bladder
623 cancer tissues. The observations of the current study shows that schistosomiasis in children
624 may induce DNA methylation in the target genes due to chronic inflammation. Egg
625 deposition in tissues usually corresponds with inflammatory response. With the observation
626 of eggs in urine of infected children in this study, it can be suggested that chronic
627 inflammation was taking place and may be the reason for the hypermethylation of the target
628 genes.

629 To ascertain that the target genes are markers for bladder cancer, we tested for promoter
630 region hypermethylation of the target genes in bladder cancer tissues. Our observations
631 showed marked promoter hypermethylation in the target genes, and supports our observation
632 of the same promoter hypermethylation in childhood schistosomiasis. This implies that these
633 genes are markers for bladder cancer. The reports that cancer-specific DNA methylation can
634 occur more than ten years before diagnosis of neoplasm [12] also supports the observation of

635 DNA methylation in children with schistosomiasis in the current study, and may imply that
636 events leading up to SABC at a later stage in life may begin years before diagnosis. This is in
637 addition to the fact that altered DNA methylation pattern is associated with the initiation
638 phase of cancer or precedes tumorigenesis [22].

639 Furthermore, there was a significant association between the histological type of the bladder
640 cancer tissues and promoter DNA methylation in *APC* ($p < 0.005$), *RARβ2* ($p < 0.001$),
641 *RASSF1A* ($p < 0.05$) and *TIMP3* ($p = 0.05$). This implies that DNA methylation of the
642 promoter region of tumour suppressor genes and other genes involved in cell cycle regulation
643 and apoptosis are pre-malignant events that may occur in bladder cancer. This is similar to
644 the report of Zaghloul *et al.* [1], which found DNA methylation of promoter region of these
645 genes and hence suggested their implications for bladder cancer.

646 **DNA methylation in Childhood Schistosomiasis**

647 In the current study, it was observed that *APC*, *RARβ2* and *RASSF1A* were 5 times, 2 times
648 and 27 times hypermethylated respectively in schistosomiasis positive samples. This was
649 similarly observed in the invasive bladder cancer tissues with a 9-fold, 3-fold and 15-fold
650 hypermethylation for *APC*, *RARβ2* and *RASSF1A* respectively. The presence of DNA
651 methylation in non-tumor urine cells in this study, validated by those in the invasive bladder
652 cancer tissues, may suggest the presence of an “epigenetic field defect”.

653 Kim and Kim, [22] reports that normal-appearing tissues taken at least 5cm away from
654 invasive tumours had 169 hypermethylated loci; out of which 142 loci were the same as those
655 seen in the invasive tumours. This they described as an “epigenetic field defect”, meaning
656 that methylation was already present before initiation of tumorigenesis. Furthermore, the
657 findings of the present study indicate that *S. haematobium* can effectively induce DNA
658 methylation in non-cancerous exfoliated cells. This is similar to the report of Nakajima *et al.*

659 [23], that *Helicobacter pylori* can effectively induce aberrant DNA methylation in non-
660 cancerous gastric mucosae.

661 The concept of “field of cancerization” was first reported when it was observed that
662 metachronous primary cancers developed further, even after curative resection in oral cavity
663 cancer [24]. The presence of “epigenetic field defect” may contribute to what is referred to as
664 an “epigenetic field of cancerization”. This implies that aberrant DNA methylation in non-
665 tumour cells may suggest the role of the former in the epigenetic field of cancerization [23].
666 Therefore, the observations of promoter hypermethylation of tumour suppressor genes in the
667 present study may hint that during schistosomiasis in children, DNA methylation alterations
668 occur, forming an epigenetic field of cancerization which may over time progress to SABC.

669 The observations of the current study show that the highest number of promoter methylation
670 of the tested genes occurred in children with schistosomiasis in the age group 11-16 years old
671 (Figure 2; Table 3). This may be due to the fact that schistosomiasis infection peaks at
672 adolescence [10], and synchronizes with time when chronic inflammation, restorative
673 hyperplasia, squamous cell metaplasia and DNA lesions may be high [21]. Although there
674 was no association between age and promoter region hypermethylation, these results suggests
675 that DNA methylation events and pre-cancerous lesions may begin during active
676 schistosomiasis infection in childhood.

677 In this study, there was no association between gender and promoter hypermethylation for
678 tested genes in schistosomiasis positive samples, implying that DNA methylation of promoter
679 region of the tested genes were independent of gender. On the other hand, more males than
680 females had DNA methylation of promoter region of the tested genes in the bladder cancer
681 tissues. This was significant and implied an association between gender and bladder cancer.
682 This may explain why more males than females have bladder cancer [25].

683 The intensity of infection in this study was significantly associated with promoter DNA
684 hypermethylation of *APC* ($p < 0.001$), *RARβ2* ($p = 0.001$) and *RASSF1A* ($p < 0.05$). There was
685 no association between intensity of infection and *TIMP3* ($p = 0.127$). This is similar to a
686 report of association between light intensity and bladder pathologies in adults [11]. Therefore,
687 even in light infections, chronic disease can still occur leading to epigenetic alterations like
688 DNA methylation which may be easily observed than mutations, and precede cytological
689 abnormalities, morbidities, bladder pathologies and the risk of malignant transformation later
690 in life.

691 Odds ratio was used to predict the risk of gene promoter hypermethylation in relation to the
692 intensity of infection. Our results showed that the gene promoter of *RARβ2* was more likely
693 to be hypermethylated even at light infection, whereas the gene promoter of *APC*, *RASSF1A*
694 and *TIMP3* were less likely to be methylated at light infection, but in heavy infections. Based
695 on these observations, it can be said that once infection with *S. haematobium* is established,
696 gene promoter methylation will occur. Therefore, it could be suggested that since DNA
697 methylation occurs before or marks the onset of future malignant transformation, childhood
698 schistosomiasis marks the beginning of events leading up to SABC.

699 The ROC-AUC analysis could be used for routine screening purposes, to ascertain DNA
700 methylation of promoter region of target genes in infected children and to discriminate
701 between cases and non-cases. It could be used to assess DNA methylation fingerprints in
702 individuals who may have had prior infection that have been treated or showing
703 symptoms/morbidity markers of bladder pathologies/cancer. This may help identify
704 individuals at risk of malignant transformation at a later stage in life.

705

706 **Possible link between childhood UGS and the risk of developing SABC at a later stage**
707 **in life**

708 It is known that children under the age of 18 years are the most susceptible group to
709 schistosomiasis infection, and this may be as result of children having a naïve immune
710 system [26]. Infection is highest in children from 5 years old and peaks in adolescents of age
711 between 15 and 18 years [3]. This may explain why there are usually less obvious events that
712 may indicate active infection after adolescence, giving rise to a “concomitant immunity” with
713 a balanced host-parasite inter-relationship that keeps both alive and establishing a reduced
714 parasite’s fertility, limited patient morbidity and resistance to re-infection [4].

715 Furthermore, it has been established that DNA methylation had occurred in pre-diagnostic
716 blood collected more than 10 years before diagnosis of chronic lymphocytic leukemia [12].
717 Moreover, the role of epigenetic alterations appears to not only be limited to cancers, and
718 there is even a greater possibility that “epigenetic field defect” may play a part in, and be
719 identified for various diseases [23].

720 Based on the above observations and the presence of an “epigenetic field defect” in the
721 current study; it can be suggested that DNA methylation (which marks the initiation phase of
722 cancers) begins during active schistosomiasis infection in children under the age of 18 years
723 old. According to Nakajima *et al.* [23], measuring disease risk at a time point using DNA
724 methylation marker will aid individuals change their lifestyles especially for close intensive
725 disease prevention. Therefore, the results of the current study suggest that the epigenetic
726 alterations occurring during childhood schistosomiasis may be the link to SABC at a later
727 stage in life.

728 These observations imply that early events of DNA methylation of promoter region of
729 tumour suppressor genes (*APC*, *RARβ2* and *RASSF1A*) and *TIMP3*; involved in apoptosis,

730 observed in this study may occur during active infections of *S. haematobium* in childhood.
731 These alterations if not repaired or incompletely repaired, may be replicated and passed on
732 from one generation of cells to another. This may lead to transformation of cells due to
733 inability of cells to repair damaged cells, as seen in urothelial hyperplasia and squamous cell
734 metaplasia in urine of children with active infection [21]. Urothelial hyperplasia and
735 squamous metaplasia, are themselves potential preneoplastic lesions of the bladder.
736 Subsequently, it may promote the propagation of cells harbouring genotoxic DNA damage
737 and with just a matter of time and further genotoxic damage, before a potential cancer occurs
738 [27].

739 Thus, hypermethylated genes during childhood infections may be maintained and carried
740 from one generation of cell to another, until infection peaks in late adolescence. At this point,
741 granulomas may have accumulated and gradually replaced by restorative hyperplasia. This
742 may explain why children with UGS have mild bladder pathologies such as thickness of
743 bladder wall and irregularities [28]. These are silent events that are almost not observable and
744 may serve as the link or bridge between chronic UGS in childhood and SABC in later age.

745 The occurrence of hypermethylation of tumour suppressor genes as seen in the present study
746 is not conclusive that there will be development of cancer. Rather, if disease is left untreated
747 in childhood, there is a higher risk of cancer development in later age. It is evident that
748 epigenetic changes are reversible, therefore DNA methylation induced by schistosomiasis
749 may be reversed if detected early, thus preventing progression or development of disease
750 and/or cancer. Tetteh-Quarcoo *et al.* [29], reports post-praziquantel treatment reversal of
751 cytological abnormalities such as the reversal of transitional metaplastic squamous cells to
752 normal cells after 3-8 weeks in children. Drugs such as DNA methylase inhibitor or histone
753 deacetylase inhibitors are known to restore the activity of suppressed genes.

754 Therefore, early detection and drugs targeted at reversal of epigenetic changes are areas of
755 research interest. More studies are needed to validate the observations from the present study,
756 especially to check if there is an association between DNA methylation and bladder
757 pathology not just in children with active infection, but adults who may have had
758 schistosomiasis as children or presenting with morbidity markers. Furthermore, this study is
759 limited by the small size. Hence, the need for a large sample size or cohort studies.

760 This is important because *S. haematobium* may leave behind fingerprints of DNA damage
761 like DNA methylation which may induce carcinogenesis later in life. Some carcinogenic
762 factors are known to leave their fingerprint such as specific DNA methylation patterns in the
763 tissues they damage even if they are no longer present or eradicated, for example *H. pylori*.
764 Moreover, DiNardo *et al.* [30] reports that schistosomiasis-induced CD4+ T cells DNA
765 methylation signature persisted at least 6 months after successful deworming for
766 schistosomiasis. This indicates the continued effect of schistosome infections even after
767 treatment, and is consistent with observations that the pathologies associated with
768 schistosomiasis persists beyond infection [31].

769 Although it is a schistosomiasis endemic area, it is noteworthy that SABC has not been
770 reported in Eggua community. Although this claim has not been fully verified, there might be
771 few explanations for it. First, as infected individuals grow, they acquire effective immunity to
772 the parasite insult, which may aid in adequate moderation of immune response to the
773 infection. Malignant transformation is usually a result of poorly regulated infection which
774 may lead to fibrosis and SABC. Secondly, during childhood, abnormal cells may have
775 resolved either by themselves or these individuals may have had treatment for the infection.
776 This can be explained by the fact that transitional squamous metaplastic cells are known to
777 resolve with time in children, especially post-praziquantel treatment [29].

778 Finally, schistosomiasis usually works together with other factors like environmental
779 carcinogens and mutagens to induce bladder cancer [32]. Therefore, these individuals may
780 not be at risk of persistent exposure to these genotoxins at levels high enough to elicit
781 malignant transformation. Nevertheless, further studies are needed to verify these assertions.

782 **CONCLUSION**

783 The present study has shown that gene promoter region DNA methylation of tumour
784 suppressor genes will occur once *Schistosoma haematobium* infection is established
785 especially in the most vulnerable group (children). The observation of an “epigenetic field of
786 cancerization” in this study could be used as a molecular biomarker to identify individuals at
787 risk of malignant transformation in later age. Based on the presence of an “epigenetic field of
788 cancerization”, it can be suggested that the journey to malignant transformation begins during
789 active infection in childhood, especially if disease is left untreated. Therefore individuals,
790 especially children living in schistosomiasis endemic areas should be given adequate public
791 health attention through adequate diagnosis, mass drug administration, routine follow-up and
792 means of avoiding contact with infested water bodies.

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876 **Supporting information**

- 877 S1 Table: Primer sequence and qMSP reaction conditions
- 878 S1 Fig. qPCR amplification and melting temperatures for *RARβ2*
- 879 S2 Fig. qPCR amplification and melting temperatures for *RASSF1A*
- 880 S3 Fig. qPCR amplification and melting temperatures for *TIMP3*
- 881 S4 Fig. AUC-ROC Curve for assessing promoter methylation of *RARβ2*
- 882 S5 Fig. AUC-ROC Curve for assessing promoter methylation of *RASSF1A*
- 883 S6 Fig. AUC-ROC Curve for assessing promoter methylation of *TIMP3*
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