Modular dynamics of DNA co-methylation networks exposes the functional organization of colon cancer cells' genome

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Summary

DNA methylation dynamics is intrinsically interconnected with processes underlying the malignant properties of cancer cells. By applying network-based approaches in two series of colorectal cancers we dissected the long-range co-methylation structure finding consistent patterns of compartmentalization in both normal and tumor tissues. Large transchromosomal modules showed unique regulatory signatures and coalesced into a structured network and allowing simple patient stratification. Normal-tumor comparison revealed substantial remodeling of specific modules and migration of subsets of co-methylating sites denoted by functional aggregates, pointing out potential sources of epigenetic and phenotypic variability. We conclude that DNA methylation dynamics architecture embodies interpretable information that can be used as a proxy of the drivers and the phenotypes of malignant transformation.

Significance

DNA methylation is a key epigenetic mark directly involved in genome organization and regulation. DNA methylation profiles are variable and are extensively altered in most cancers. We show that DNA methylation variability follows a transchromosomal modular dynamics in both normal and colon cancer cells. The reshaping of the DNA methylation variability network in tumorigenesis exposes genomic and functional associations and points out both the mechanisms and the phenotypes of individual tumors. This information may be used for patient stratification and identification of disrupted pathways and therapeutic targets.

Highlights

- DNA methylation variability displays a modular architecture in normal and cancer.
- Coordinated transchromosomal variations supersede regional DNA methylation dynamics.
- Co-methylation network modularity evinces functional and structural features.
- Epigenetic rewiring can be used as patient stratifier.

Keywords

DNA methylation, co-methylation, epigenetics, networks, colon, colorectal, cancer

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Introduction

Cancer cell functional reprogramming involves gene expression dysregulation driven by genetic and epigenetic changes. The contribution of epigenetic mechanisms to malignant phenotypes has been thoroughly studied and includes extensive DNA methylation alterations as prominent features of most cancers types (Feinberg et al., 2016; Portela and Esteller, 2010). DNA methylation mainly occurs in the cytosine of the CpG dinucleotide and is usually associated with a repressed chromatin state. Changes in DNA methylation have multiple effects in genome regulation and have been directly associated with gene overexpression and silencing, chromatin remodeling and chromosomal instability (Eden et al., 2003; Feinberg et al., 2016; Jones, 2012; Rodriguez et al., 2006; Schubeler, 2015). Direct comparison of the DNA methylation profiles in the tumor versus the paired normal tissue reveals both losses (hypomethylation) and gains (hypermethylation) of the epigenetic mark. The extent of the change may range from discrete sites and promoters to large regions (Feinberg et al., 2016; Frigola et al., 2006; Hansen et al., 2011; Jones, 2012; Portela and Esteller, 2010).

Neighboring CpGs have a higher chance of being similarly methylated (Barrera and Peinado, 2012; Eckhardt et al., 2006; Libertini et al., 2016; Shoemaker et al., 2010); nonetheless, the actual extent of this vicinity effect is disputed, with reports of complete to weak or very low decay of co-methylation as the genomic distance increases in different cell types and tissues (Akulenko and Helms, 2013; Fortin and Hansen, 2015; Li et al., 2010; Salhab et al., 2018). Most studies about the functional impact of DNA methylation changes have focused the analysis on local effects on neighboring genes (Jones, 2012; Schubeler, 2015). More recently, taking advantage of the availability of genome-scale DNA methylation data from large datasets, the study of DNA co-methylation profiles has been addressed from different points of view, including the analysis of long range correlations (Akulenko and Helms, 2013; Fortin and Hansen, 2015; Zhang and Huang, 2017), gene centered analyses (Gao and Teschendorff, 2017; Li et al., 2014) and modeling of DNA methylation variation (Jenkinson et al., 2017; Libertini et al., 2018; Rulands et al., 2018; Teschendorff and Relton, 2018).

We hypothesize that epigenetic phenotypes exposed by DNA methylation co-variation reveal the functional organization of human cancer cell's genome. To get insights into the structure, functional determinants and underlying mechanisms of DNA methylation dynamics, we examined the DNA methylomes of colon cancer patients by a novel network-based synthetic analysis. Recent leading studies have proposed network based elucidation of molecular determinants of disease (Creixell et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016). Our

rationale is that cells subjected to complex physiopathological processes (e.g. tumor initiation

and progression), albeit being highly heterogeneous, share common driver and passenger

events from which biologically relevant phenotypic traits arise. Concomitantly, the linkage

between the events and the emergence of relevant traits alters the epigenome. The

heterogeneity of the samples, which might be classified in a wide assortment of states and

transitions, challenges the final state-focused differential methylation analysis (the one

resulting in regional hyper-or hypomethylations), whilst favoring more process-oriented,

flexible co-variation analysis, which also unfolds variability. Here, we have scrutinized over

300,000 individual CpGs in two colon cancer datasets to extract and characterize the highly

connected co-methylation modules. The structural and functional insights of epigenomic

modules are dissected providing a framework to disentangle cancer cell's genome functional

reorganization.

Results and Discussion

Distant CpGs co-methylate in colon cancer samples

We retrieved DNA methylation data as measured by Infinium HumanMethylation450 Array β

values from 90 tumor and 90 adjacent normal tissues from the Colonomics cohort (Closa et

al., 2014; Cordero et al., 2014; Sanz-Pamplona et al., 2015; Sole et al., 2014) to feed the co-

methylation analysis (Figure 1). Quality check consisted in three steps (Table S1). First, we

excluded probes non uniquely mapping to a genomic location, being polymorphic or located

in sex chromosomes (Price et al., 2013). Second, probes with low variability (standard

deviation $s_\beta < 0.05$) were filtered out to get rid of correlations led by outliers or presumably

non significant. Finally, probes with missing data in any sample were eliminated (Table S1).

No detectable batch effects were found (Figure S1). Next we sequentially calculated the bulk

pairwise Spearman's correlations between any possible pair of probes adjusting for multiple

testing (Table S2).

Co-methylations were detectable even at long distances (Figure 2A) and did not depend on

local probe density (Figure S2A). Correlation coefficients ρ (a measure of association ranging

from -1 to 1, in which 0 means full independence) were bell-shape distributed, thus indicating

that the majority of correlations lied on the non-significant range, as expected (Figure 2),

independently of the CpG location in open or closed chromatin compartments (Figure S3).

The ρ distribution was not centered to 0 but shifted towards positive values, thus indicating a

trend towards co-methylation changes. That is, the detected changes in DNA methylation

correspond to either the increase or decrease of the scrutinized CpGs altogether, and not in

opposite directions (e.g. inverse associations). The trend to co-methylate was noticeably

increased in cis, being close CpGs' distribution negatively skewed: co-methylations were

enriched at short distances, whereas anti-methylations (negative correlations) were not (Figure

2A).

To underpin the biological relevance of the findings and rule out the co-methylation structure

arising due to technical noise, we evaluated five possible sources of artifacts: multiple testing,

batch effects, leading outliers, tumor purity and chip design (see Supplemental Methods) and

none of them appeared to have a significant effect on the results.

To account for the iterative nature of the analysis, consisting in exhaustively computing any

pairwise correlation between the Infinium probes with variable DNA methylation, we set an

astringent effect size cut-off of the Spearman's correlation coefficient $\rho \geq 0.8$, which is close

to the conservative Bonferroni p-adjustment for the datasets used (optimization against the

asymptotic p-values as calculated by the Fisher Z transform, Table S2) (Fisher, 1915;

Shakhbazov et al., 2016). The absence of notorious clustering of DNA methylation values

(Figure S1) indicates that batch effects are unlikely drivers of co-methylation (Leek et al.,

2010). To attenuate the leading effect of DNA methylation outliers we filtered in probes with

sufficient variation in DNA methylation (setting a standard deviation threshold). To reinforce

this, nonparametric Spearman correlations were run, which rely on DNA methylation ranks

rather than values and are therefore more resistant to outliers (Croux and Dehon, 2010). As

for the Infinium array design, neither the probes GC content (Figure S4) nor the dye channel

(Figure S5) drove the correlations structure; probes mapping to multiple locations or

overlapping to SNPs were filtered out (Price et al., 2013).

Anatomy of the co-methylating network in colorectal cancers

We selected the top-scoring correlations ($\rho \geq 0.8$) and assembled a network in which loci and

correlations are represented by nodes (vertex) and links (edges) (Figure 1B). For the sake of

simplicity, we only considered edges with positive correlations. The Colonomics tumor series

network resulted in 63,130 nodes and 26 million connections (Table S3). The distribution of

each CpG degree (amount of connectivity, number of co-methylating neighbors) showed a

heavy-tail shape with the vast majority of nodes being linked to few counterparts, whereas a

few nodes displayed a fairly abundant connectivity (Figure S6). The degree distribution did

not resemble power-law, lognormal nor exponential (goodness of fit, Kolmogorov Smirnov

tests, $p \geq 0.05$; Figure S7), as there was not linear dependency between the cumulative

frequencies and the connectivities, as in other biological quantities spanning several orders of

magnitude and heavily skewed to the right (Newman, 2005). This structure was unaffected by

loci features such as chromatin state (Figure S8) and genomic category (Figure S9); but lost

when filtering out trans interactions, as probes placed at any distance in cis showed power-law

compatible distributions (Figure S10). Interestingly, the 99th percentile of the most connected

trans-comethylators presented homogeneous intermediate DNA methylation levels in normal

samples (Figures S11 and S12), with an important enrichment of imprinted loci (n=53, 11%).

Interestingly, partially methylated domains (PMDs) have been reported as loci with

intermediate DNA methylation values and high variability (Lister et al., 2009), which is

consistent to the top connected co-methylated probes; however, we did not find an enrichment

in them: 27% (132 CpGs) of the rich probes overlapped PMDs, similarly to the 33% (21,065

CpGs) of the probes with at least a significant co-methylation and what is expected from the

background of the whole set of Infinium probes, with an overlap of the 31% (147,257 CpGs).

To test the reproducibility of the network, the analysis was repeated using an independent

dataset, the COAD cohort from TCGA, consisting of 256 primary colon adenocarcinomas. In

TCGA dataset, the DNA methylation β value calling procedure differs from Colonomics', and

therefore reduces the chance of covariation artifacts arising due to the data processing bias.

No batch effects were detected (Figure S1).

Near a quarter million probes fulfilled the variability criteria in TCGA colon tumors (Tables

S6 and S7). The overall correlations distribution and the co-methylation decay with distance

matched that of Colonomics' (Figure 2A and Figure S2B). Next we evaluated whether the

correlation value for each pair of probes was conserved, including the non-significant pairs.

To do so, we computed exhaustive pairwise correlations of CpGs located at the chromosome

10 against itself and plotted the Colonomics' ρ values of each CpG pair against TCGA's. The

linearity of both landscapes (Figure 2B) indicated a high concordance of the overall co-

methylation levels.

In a similar vein and to compare the structure of both networks, we checked whether the

correlating nodes present in both cohorts displayed the same connectivity to other nodes. The

influence score of each node (e.g. based in the number of links arising from it) was estimated

using the PageRank score (Page et al., 1999) in both datasets. Both Colonomics and TCGA

tumor co-methylation datasets showed a reproducible distribution of nodes' PageRanks

mostly composed by lowly influential CpGs (Figure S13).

Next, we modeled the results as a network keeping the ρ cut-off at 0.8 even though the

multiple testing adjusted significance cut-off at TCGA cohort admitted lowering it due to the

larger sample size (Table S2). The network comprised 37 thousand nodes and around eight

million edges (Table S3). As in the Colonomics cohort, the TCGA network degree

distribution showed a long tail, indicating vast differences in connectedness (Figures S6 and

S7).

Coalescent embedding of normal co-methylation networks in the tumor networks

We wondered whether some of the co-methylations found in cancers were already detectable

in adjacent normal colonic mucosa, and to which extent the co-methylome structure differed

from the tumor's one. The normal colon co-methylome network was built using 90 non-tumor

tissues from the Colonomics cohort. Given the equivalent sample sizes, we maintained the ρ

cutoff unaltered (Table S2). We found that both the number of probes fulfilling the variance

prerequisite (n=99,346) and the number of total correlations (7,430,741) decreased to 39%

and 22% of the tumor's ones, respectively. This result was consistent with the higher DNA

methylation variability in tumors. As expected, a predominance of positive correlations was

observed, being more intense for close probes (Figure 2A). Strikingly, negative correlations

(cut-off $\rho < -0.8$) showed a >1,000-fold reduction and dropped from 7.6 million in tumor to

less than 7 thousands in normal tissue (Table S7). In agreement with the associations found in

tumors, co-methylations were underrepresented in active promoters (Table S8, Figure S14)

and the co-methylation network' connectivities were not power-law distributed (Figures S6

and S7). Probes pairs correlation values showed partial agreement between the normal and

tumor datasets (Figure 2B), with differences being more conspicuous at the node influence

level, pointing to changes in network connectivity (Figure S13).

We repeated the analysis with TCGA normal colon samples. It should be noted that this

dataset only includes 38 normal samples (Table S2), and as the correlation significance

depends on the sample size (Fisher, 1915), keeping the same cut-offs is likely to boost the

number of false positives. On the other hand, increasing the ρ cut-off to an equivalent

detection threshold ($\rho = 0.96$, Table S2) produced a very small network whose properties

might be out of scale with the previous analysis. With this cautionary note in mind, keeping

the ρ = 0.8 cut-off the network confirmed the distinctive distribution of pairwise correlations

(Figure S4 and Table S9), whose differences are especially conspicuous at short ranges

(Figure 2A) and, importantly, in nodes connectivity.

Co-methylating networks display a modular structure in normal and tumor tissue

Colonomics tumor network had two noticeable giant components (Figure 3), that were not

present in the normal tissue, indicating a major restructuration of co-methylation architecture

associated with malignant transformation, as we will discuss below. TCGA tumor and normal

co-methylation networks replicated Colonomics overall networks structure (Figure 3).

In order to dig into the network preferential attachment, we explored whether the network had

highly connected subnetworks (also known as modules or communities). Modules consist of

clusters of nodes heavily interconnected as compared to the rest of the network (Fortunato,

2010; Newman and Girvan, 2004). Modularity is quantified as the fraction of edges

connecting nodes of the same type minus what it is expected in a randomly wired network.

Scores of 0 indicate no modularity and networks with modular structure typically range from

0.3 to 0.7 (Newman and Girvan, 2004). The tumor co-methylation network was found to be

modular (modularity = 0.47) (Table S3), and using the Clauset's fast greedy method (Clauset

et al., 2004) we partitioned it into 3,270 modules ranging from two to 18,727 nodes.

Interestingly, the normal tissue network exhibited a higher co-methylome modularity (0.62)

(Table S3) and network segmentation resulted in 1,265 modules ranging from two to 17,758

nodes. The co-methylation modules retained tight correlation structure after subtracting purity

effects (Zheng et al., 2017) (Figure S16).

The vast majority of the small modules were, in fact, composed by sets of probes located at

close distance from each other (e.g. at CpG islands), so we discarded them and focused in

transchromosomal modules, with at least 10 members and located at least 1 Mbp apart or

placed in different chromosomes. The number of transchromosomal modules was 32 (1%) in

the tumor cohort and 18 (1.4%) in the normal cohort (Tables S4 and S5).

In agreement with Colonomics's results, TCGA tumor co-methylation network was also

modular (modularity score 0.41) (Table S3) and segmentation produced 3,421 modules

ranging from two to 8,981 nodes. The application of size and co-location filters reduced the

number of transchromosomal modules to 35.

Next, we evaluated the degree of conservation of the whole network partitioning into modules

across the four datasets using the adjusted Rand statistic. In this test, the distance measure can

be interpreted as a probability, being zero when the congruence is expected by chance and one

when the matching is perfect. It should be noted that the Rand statistic renders negative values

when finding anti-associations (Hubert and Arabie, 1985). Networks clustering on adjusted

Rand's distance indicates that modules memberships separate tumor's from normal's

networks in both datasets (Figure S15A), in line with the similarities in nodes population

(Figure S15B), and their spatial co-methylation patterns (Figure S2B). Overall conservation

of co-methylomes structure and connectivity as well as the differences between normal and

tumor samples was noticeable by visual inspection (Figures 3, S17 and S18). It is worth

noting that the use of a correlation threshold (i.e. effect size $\rho \geq 0.8$) may underestimate

module co-methylation maintenance when the correlations distribution gets displaced towards

values below, but close to, the statistical significance cut-off (Appendix 1, Figure S18).

Module preservation across tissue types and cohorts was also evaluated by cross-tabulation of

the number of shared CpGs (Table S10). Twelve Colonomics tumor modules had one or more

counterparts in the normal tissue network, and a similar number in TCGA tumor cohort

(Fisher's exact test, p<0.0001) (Tables S10, S11). Strikingly, the five-top sized Colonomics

tumor modules partially matched to multiple TCGA's modules (Table S11). This result is in

concordance with the resolution limit of modularity-optimizing module detecting algorithms,

which tend to aggregate modules into few giant components, disregarding their inner

complexity (Fortunato and Barthelemy, 2007).

Co-methylating module membership evinces functional signatures

To test the hypothesis that co-methylation structures are directly related with functional

properties we investigated genomic and functional features of co-methylated CpGs. It should

be noted that a large subset of HumanMethylation450k probes are located in promoters and

promoter-related features. Thus, the specific design of the HumanMethylation450k array may

introduce biases as it oversamples TSS-related features, in which clusters of probes are

located, and disregards other genomic compartments (Bibikova et al., 2011; Sandoval et al.,

2011; Silva-Martinez et al., 2017). Moreover, coordinated co-methylation is expected among

neighboring CpGs within each one of these genomic elements (Barrera and Peinado, 2012;

Gaidatzis et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2008; Libertini et al., 2016; MacDonald et al., 2015; Wang

et al., 2016). Therefore, enrichment analysis for genomic features and compartments were

corrected according to the HumanMethylation450k array background.

The tumor modules displayed important differences in feature enrichment, including

chromatin states, genomic categories, CpG islands and association with known motifs (Figure

S19 and Appendix 1). In line with the weighted gene co-expression network analysis, in

which functional signatures can be told apart by mining gene co-expression (Horvath et al.,

2012), the module-specific co-regulation patterns denoted by distinctive abundance of

genomic and functional states (Figure S19; Appendix 1) of co-methylation modules pointed

out the existence of a latent structure. Among the multiple features analyzed, a striking global

enrichment of inactive promoters was observed in a large number of modules (Figure S20),

pointing out potential clusters of co-regulated genes.

Next, we explored the overlapping of the co-methylation modules with regions of DNA

methylation variability previously reported in colon cancer (Hansen et al., 2011).

Interestingly, seven out of 32 Colonomics tumor modules significantly overlie tumor

hypermethylated blocks (Figures S21 and S22 and Table S12). Regarding other types of DNA

methylation variability reported by Hansen, modules showed distinctive profiles, with

frequent enrichment in boundary shifts as well in loss of regulation; novel hypomethylation

blocks were enriched in three modules only. This complexity reinforces the individuality of

co-methylation modules, suggesting that they might reflect different mechanisms.

A comprehensive summary of structural and functional feature enrichment for each co-

methylation module is shown in Appendix 1 with the top associations listed in Table S13). To

name a few examples, multiple co-methylation modules were significantly enriched for

Polycomb-related marks (i.e. H3K27ME3, or SUZ12, EED and PRC2 targets; e.g. tumor

modules 1, 3, 5 and 598); for frequently mutated at COSMIC molecular signatures (i.e. tumor

modules 2, 4 and 8); and for gene expression (i.e. tumor module 8). Finally, we could also

confirm that co-methylation network associated features found in TCGA matched

Colonomics enrichment signatures, e.g., the underrepresentation of co-methylations within

active promoters (Figure S14).

To shed light into causal factors driving dynamic methylome modularity we searched for

enriched motifs (i.e. transcription factor binding sites) at the co-methylating loci

(Supplementary methods). We found that six out of the 32 Colonomics tumor modules

presented one or more significantly enriched motifs (Table S14). Enriched motifs included

ETS and RUNX families (modules 1, 3, 327), FOS family members (Fra1, Atf3, BATF,
Fosl2, AP-1, Jun-AP1; modules 2 and 4), FOXA1-related (FOXA1, HNF4a, FOXMA;
module 2), GC box (KLF5 and KLF4; module 2), C/EBP (module 3), PAX7 and MYF5
(module 5), homeobox (modules 5, 83), MADS (module 152), ASCL1 (module 598)
(Appendix 1).

In summary, the functional signatures of DNA co-methylation modular architecture evince
the putative mediators of epigenetic remodeling and signaling reprogramming in colorectal
cancer. We postulate that coordinated DNA methylation changes at interspersed sites (here
identified as belonging to the same module) regulate signaling pathways and biological
functions. This hypothesis is supported by recent studies demonstrating the DNA methylation
mediated binding of transcription factors to specific sites with a direct impact in gene
regulation (Kribelbauer et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2017).

Modeling of module's DNA methylation variation allows categorization and study of feature associations in new samples

As shown above, modules depict shared patterns of co-methylations (network edges) which
emerge from structured DNA methylation levels among loci (network nodes). To dissect the
latter, we applied a samples stratification procedure based on the DNA methylation status of
their CpGs (Supplemental methods) that results in the partition of each module into two to
three DNA methylation profiles (Figure S23). The putative effects of tumor purity to DNA
methylation levels were identified and subtracted (Figure S24).

This methodology provides with a powerful tool to explore potential correlates of DNA
methylation profiles with molecular and biological features, including clinical data, and
importantly, enabling the model to classify new samples and to make predictions without
computing new correlations. An in-depth exploitation of this approach is beyond the scope of
this paper, but as a proof of concept, we evaluated whether module cluster membership
conveyed gene expression signatures to tumor samples. The pairwise differential expression
between samples belonging to different module clusters was computed (adjusted $p < 0.1$ cut-
off, Figure S25) in both cohorts of colon tumors. TCGA cohort consistently exhibited a higher
number of differentially expressed genes. This result may be explained by the larger size of
this series and the use of RNA-Seq, that has more sensitivity than the microarrays (Zhao et
al., 2014) applied in the Colonomics. Nevertheless, the overall gene over- and down-
expression trends were maintained across cohorts (Figure S26). The top 50 significant

differentially expressed genes in both cohorts are listed in Appendix 2 for each one of the 32

Colonomics tumor modules.

Dynamics of co-methylation modules reveals epigenetic rewiring of defined genomic compartments in cancer

As noted above, the tumor co-methylation network displayed a striking disjoint structure

visualized as two giant compartments (Figure 3). The emerging large compartment, not

present in normal tissue, spanned multiple modules (Figure 3 and Figure S27) and was

funneled by DNA methylation negative correlations between modules (Figure 4A). The

coordinated inversion of DNA methylation variation affected hundreds or even thousands of

sites throughout the whole genome (Figure 4B). The pervasive nature of anticorrelations

overcame age, gender, tumor stage and anatomical site potential effects on modules' DNA

methylation variation (Figure S28A). Loci with copy number alterations also conveyed the

module-specific DNA methylation ranks mimicking the profiles along balanced regions

(Figure S28B).

To further dissect the co-methylation dynamics we analyzed the modules preservation

between normal and tumor. Significant equivalences were found for most modules (Figure

S29): normal modules N2 and N3 largely overlapped with tumor modules T1 and T2

respectively (Figure S29), which suggests the preservation of module's structure and co-

methylation links. A large overlap of associated genes among modules was also observed

(Figure S29C). At the functional level, the preserved modules showed specific enrichments.

For instance, normal module N2 intersection with tumor module T1 (N2∩T1) showed

enrichment for RNA transcription and metabolic processes and DNA binding functions

(Figure S30) and a high proportion of probes were located in CpG islands (77%) with a clear

trend towards tumor hypermethylation (Figure 5B, Figure S31).

Next we analyzed the dynamics of CpG sites between normal and tumor modules. For the

sake of simplicity only probes in the four largest modules in the Colonomics normal and

tumor series were considered for differential module membership. A particular case was the

scattering of normal module N1 probes into different tumor modules (Figure 5A), including

the hijacking of several hundreds of sites by modules with inverse correlations, e.g.: tumor

modules T1 and T2 (Figure S27). The subsets of probes flowing from the normal module N1

to each one of the tumor modules (intersections between normal module N1 and the tumor

modules T1 to T4) were associated to subsets of genes with limited overlap (Figure 5C) and

displayed distinctive genomic features in regard to gene regulation: N1∩T1 members were
enriched in CpG islands, while N1∩T2 were depleted and N1∩T3 were frequently near the
TSS (Figure 5D). The tumor-normal DNA methylation signatures were in concordance with
the preferential genomic location of probes: members of the intersection N1∩T1 were
characterized by the prevalence of hypermethylations in the tumor, while the rest showed a
clear trend towards hypomethylation (Figure 5E and Figure S31).

As a whole, our analysis points out an overall preservation of co-methylation modules in the
normal-tumor transformation concomitantly with an important dispersal of subsets of sites
with distinctive features into tumor modules. The tumor redefined modular landscape appears
to have biological insights: the subsets of sites flowing from one module to another (denoted
here as normal-tumor module intersections) display differential enrichments in functional and
biological processes involved in cancer transformation (Figure 5E and Appendix 2). Some of
the affected signaling pathways, including polycomb regulation, chromatin binding and genes
defining epithelial-mesenchymal transition appear as the usual suspects contributing to the
epigenetic reshaping of genomic compartments and the functional reprogramming of cancer
cells (Appendix 2).

Surfing the co-methylating networks pinpoints functional sites

Beyond the remarkable functional and structural features of co-methylation modules revealed
by this analysis, it has not escaped our attention that the stored data provide an excellent
resource to carry out an insightful tracing of individual correlations. A detailed analysis of the
data at this level is beyond the scope of this paper, but as a simple shortcut to navigate the co-
methylating network and their associated functional features we developed a web tool "*corre*"
(available at http://maplab.cat/corre). To illustrate the discovery potential of this tool we
queried the INHBB gene encoding activin B, a member of the TGF-beta family, with different
biological activities, including a role in cell proliferation and inflammation. Epigenetic
silencing of INHBB is frequent in colorectal cancer (Frigola et al., 2006) and has been
proposed as indicator of poor outcome (Mayor et al., 2009). The co-methylation landscape of
INHBB exposed by the *Corre* tool showed a large number of positive correlations 20kb
upstream and downstream of the gene in both normal and tumor samples (Figure 6). Negative
correlations were only present in tumors and were enriched in poised promoters, indicating
the potential remodeling of bivalent states and hypermethylation (McGarvey et al., 2008;
Ohm et al., 2007; Rodriguez et al., 2008). Compared with the normal samples, the tumors

displayed an increase in the number of links for most sites, although some chromosomes,
especially 8 (Figure 6E), but also 13, 14, 17 and 21, showed an opposite trend with a
depletion of co-methylations in the tumors as compared with the normal samples (Figure
S32). Another interesting result was in regard to cg03699182 probe (Figure 6D, arrowhead)
located in the CpG island of the INHBB promoter presented 42 co-methylations (ρ >0.8) in
the normal samples against only three in the tumors. Most of the cg03699182 co-methylations
affected were located in poised promoters of polycomb regulated genes (Figure S32). The
dynamics of the connections and the properties of the affected sites are consistent with the
participation of instructive mechanisms resulting in the DNA hypermethylation and long
range epigenetic silencing of multiple genes in colorectal cancer (Frigola et al., 2006; Keshet
et al., 2006; Michieletto et al., 2018).

Final considerations

Dissection of DNA methylation encoded information offers a far-reaching gamut of insights
into genome biology (Jones, 2012; Schubeler, 2015), including the inference of genome
architecture as demonstrated by recent studies (Fortin and Hansen, 2015; Jenkinson et al.,
2017; Jorda et al., 2017; Raineri et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017). As a new inquiry, here we
report a novel and robust analysis of coordinated DNA methylation dynamics in non-
contiguous CpGs in two cohorts of colon normal and cancer tissues. This application provides
a reproducible and synthetic network representation of cell's epigenome meta-structure and
unveils modules or genomic territories of highly connected loci. The co-methylation modules
comprise regions displaying common structural and functional features pointing out putative
drivers of variability. Despite wide overlapping between normal and tumor tissue networks,
striking differences in connectivity reveal specific patterns of functional rewiring and convey
gene expression signatures with a potential impact on cancer cell biology.

Our data present a remodeled epigenetic landscape of colon cancer cells outlined by
coordinated DNA methylation variations superseding the stochastic nature of DNA
methylation dynamics (Jenkinson et al., 2017; Landan et al., 2012; Pujadas and Feinberg,
2012). The model can be visualized by a scrambled Rubik's cube resulting from just of a few
flips (Figure S33A). In our case, cube's pieces correspond to the set of loci with coordinated
methylation, and the axes would be the mechanisms flipping one or more modules (Figure
S33B). This metaphor has two important corollaries with the corresponding epigenetic
representations:

•   Pieces linked by connectors move together, which implies that any specific scrambled

conformation is the result of specific flips. Moreover, not all the arrangements are

possible unless the cube is disassembled and reassembled. Similarly, cancer cell

methylome dynamics is determined by sequential activation/inactivation of a limited

number of mechanisms affecting genomic regulation. Interestingly, chromosomal

rearrangements would provide an additional level of reshuffling that would be

equivalent to reassembling Rubik's cube.

•   The scrambled cube may be solved by predictable flips that do not imply the reversal

of the flips that generated it. Currently we can only speculate, but this means that

knowing the mechanisms governing epigenetic programs, it would be possible to

design a strategy to reconstruct a "normal" epigenome by just turning on/off the

appropriate switches and in the right sequence.

Summing up, our approach aims to offer a contextual view of the cancer epigenetic landscape

to better define their nature and their eventual impact on the disease. The use of DNA co-

methylation architecture to portrait the complex genome regulation scenario aims to provide a

feasible surrogate marker that can be easily assessed in prospective clinical settings (e.g.

response to treatment).

Materials and methods

Two colon cancer datasets were used. Colonomics (http://www.colonomics.org) series

included 90 paired primary tumors (stage IIA and IIB) and their adjacent normal tissue. Of the

90 patients, 67 were males and 23 females, aged 43-86 years (mean: 70.37), and 20 developed

metastasis. All tumors were microsatellite-stable. Samples were evaluated for DNA

methylation (Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip Array), gene expression

(Affymetrix Human Genome U219), and somatic mutations (exome sequencing) (Closa et al.,

2014; Cordero et al., 2014; Sanz-Pamplona et al., 2015; Sole et al., 2014).

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) series was composed by 256 primary tumor and 38

adjacent non-tumor samples from the colon adenocarcinoma (COAD) cohort (Zhu et al.,

2014). Patients were aged 31 to 90 years at diagnosis (mean 65.61), and included 141 males,

144 females and one unassigned. Pathologic stages included Stage I (40), Stage II (97), Stage

III (75), Stage IV (32); 11 were not available or discrepant. Regarding microsatellite

instability, 10 were positive, 65 negative and 181 were either not tested or had an unknown

status. Samples readouts included DNA methylation by Illumina Infinium Array, gene

expression by RNA-Seq counts and somatic mutations by exome sequencing.

A scheme summarizing data processing and workflow is depicted in figure 1. Briefly, DNA

methylation beta values were subjected to serial pairwise correlation analysis for the

Colonomics tumor (primary dataset) and normal adjacent tissue, as well and both the TCGA

normal samples and tumors (external datasets). Strong associations (effect size Spearman's ρ

≥ 0.8) were stored. Co-methylation networks were built upon the correlations data using

previously described approaches (Clauset et al., 2009; Csardi and Nepusz, 2006; Cullen and

Frey, 1999; Delignette-Muller and Dutang, 2015; Gillespie, 2014; Saha et al., 2017; Zhang

and Horvath, 2005), from which highly connected modules according to the fast greedy

community detection algorithm were isolated (Clauset et al., 2004; Csardi and Nepusz, 2006).

Module members were further classified into major DNA methylation clusters using kNN

(Venables and Ripley, 2002) taking into account not only the co-methylation but the purity-

corrected DNA methylation status (Aran et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2017) of their members

(i.e. consistently lowly or highly methylated) (Chang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2007). Next,

modules and/or profiles were functionally annotated according to public datasets (Aryee et al.,

2014; Fortin and Hansen, 2015; Hansen et al., 2011; Lister et al., 2009), molecular features

databases (Heinz et al., 2010; Liberzon et al., 2011) and expression signatures (Gel et al.,

2016; Love et al., 2014; Quinlan and Hall, 2010; Smyth, 2005). Modules characterization,

including reproducibility assessment, consisted in mutual profiles comparison and differential

expression analysis among different cohorts (Akdemir and Chin, 2015; Hubert and Arabie,

1985; Krzywinski et al., 2009; Langfelder et al., 2011; Shannon et al., 2003).

A Web application "Corre" has been implemented to facilitate browsing the DNA co-

methylation events of investigator's favorite locus or gene in the both the Colonomics and

TCGA COAD datasets. The tool allows candidate queries either by gene symbol or Illumina

Infinium probename, providing the annotated co-methylations full list. Apart of downloadable

spreadsheets, Corre renders interactive plots to evaluate zonal (chromosome) and functional

(chromatin color) enrichments (Conway et al., 2016; Ernst et al., 2011; Gesmann and de

Castillo, 2011; Zhang et al., 2013). Source code is available at

https://bitbucket.org/imallona/corre under the GPL terms. Corre can be accessed freely and

without registration at http://www.maplab.cat/corre.

Extended methods are available in supplementary material.

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Declarations

Authors' contributions

IM, VM and MAP conceived the study. IM developed the method and wrote the software. IM, SA, ADV and VM analyzed data. IM and MAP wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Samples, Ethics approval and consent to participate

Colonomics samples were collected at the Bellvitge Hospital. The Clinical Research Ethics Committee (CEIC) of the Bellvitge Hospital approved the study protocol, and all individuals provided written informed consent to participate and for genetic analyses to be done on their samples. The approval number is PR178/11. Additional information about the study and patient samples can be found at http://www.colonomics.org. TCGA data were obtained at http://cancergenome.nih.gov/.

Availability of data and material

The code is available at: https://bitbucket.org/imallona/correlations under the GPL v3 terms. The *Corre* Web tool can be freely accessed at http://maplab.cat/corre; its source code is available at https://bitbucket.org/imallona/corre under the GPL v3 terms. Colomics data may be accessed at http://colonomics.org. TCGA data were obtained at http://cancergenome.nih.gov/.

Competing interests

MAP is cofounder and equity holder of Aniling, a biotech company with no interests in this paper. The rest of the authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Co-methylation analysis framework. **A**, CpGs co-methylation occurs at close (cis)

and long distances (trans). **B**, DNA co-methylation networks display a modular structure in

normal and tumor samples. **C**, Co-methylation modules display differential genomic and

functional signatures. **D**, Analysis of normal-tumor co-methylation dynamics points out

cancer pathways and mechanisms.

Figure 2. A, Correlation distribution in normal and tumor samples among probes located in

chromosome 10. The bell-shaped distribution and shifted towards positive values at the tumor

cohort (whole chromosome 10); the trend to co-methylate is noticeably increased in cis (chr10

probes located at less than 10 kbp). Red: negative correlations ($\rho < -0.5$); green: positive

correlations ($\rho \geq 0.5$). **B**, Correlations replication across cohorts. For each cohort, a pairwise

correlation analysis was conducted for any probe with $sd \geq 0.05$. The correlation coefficient

rho (X and Y axes) for each probe pair was plotted to check whether the co-methylation

landscape was reproduced. Analysis was restricted to chromosome 10 Infinium450K probes.

Figure 3. Modular structure of colorectal tumor and normal tissue co-methylation networks.

The networks were built independently for each dataset, but the nodes (CpGs) are colored

using the Colonomics Tumor module membership. Nodes with no cross-representation are

shown in black. Graphs are limited to a random sample of 5,000 nodes and solitary nodes are

not plotted; network layout was calculated by $1 - \rho$ (edges) weighted springs.

Figure 4. The two largest tumor modules show opposed DNA methylation dynamics. A,

Correlation of three randomly picked CpGs from modules 1 and 2 in 92 Colonomics tumor

samples. B, DNA methylation ranks of modules 1 and 2 in four Colonomics tumor samples.

Patients labeled with color codes as depicted in panel A.

Figure 5. **A**, Sankey diagram depicting balanced probes overlap between normal and tumor

modules in the Colonomics datasets. Only intersections with >300 probes are annotated, and

the number of associated genes is indicated. **B**, Distribution of probes according to the mean

DNA methylation values in normal tissue (Y-axis) against the tumor-normal delta value (X-

axis). Only probes overlapping in normal and tumor modules (intersections) are represented.

A decomposed version of this figure is shown in Figure S31. **C**, Circos representation of

modules associated genes overlap (purple connectors) and enriched terms sharing (blue

connectors). **D,** Genomic context enrichment of normal module 1 intersections with tumor

modules. **E**, Gene set functional enrichment of normal module 1 intersections with the four

largest tumor modules.

Figure 6: Illustrative example of the *Corre* web tool usage. This application queries a user

selected Infinium array probe (i.e.: cg25924274) or a set of gene associated probes (i.e.:

INHBB) and renders graphs displaying the feature distribution of the anchor (preselected site)

and correlating CpGs, including DNA methylation levels, genomic element category, HMM

chromatin states, etc. In addition, tables containing genetic and functional information on the

correlating sites may be downloaded for further analysis. **A**, UCSC genome browser

representation of the region encompassing the preselected *INHBB* gene. **B**, The tool renders

graphs showing relevant features (see legends) for each one of the gene associated probes

(anchor CpGs). **C**, Distribution of DNA methylation levels in anchor CpGs and the

correlating sites. **D**, Sum of correlating sites in normal and tumor tissues for each anchor CpG

represented by chromatin state frequency. Positive (+) and negative (-) correlating sites show

distinct chromatin state profiles in the tumors. **E**, Genomic distribution of cg11513884 co-

methylating CpGs located in chromosomes 2 (red), 7 and 8 (blue).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Colonomics tumor

Colonomics normal

TCGA COAD tumor

TCGA COAD normal

Colonomics tumor module color code

1 2 3 4 5 8 12 13 26 32 41 46 47 64 71 83 120 152 174 184 190 192 198 218 270 276 322 327 598 2352 2992 3237 not present/new recruit

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6