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Multi-omics prognostic analysis of lysine acetylation regulators in glioma

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Abstract

Background: Lysine acetylation is a crucial kind of protein modification and is related to the malignant development of various cancers. But their roles in glioma are still unclear and needed concluded comprehensively.

Methods: In this study, we comprehensively analyzed the expression levels of 33 lysine acetylation regulators (LARs) and prognostic roles by using public data, including the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA) and The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA). The prognostic roles of LARs were judged by univariate Cox regression. Consensus clustering was applied to result in three stratified glioma subtypes (LA1, 2, and 3) with different clinical outcomes. We also constructed a risk signature for predicting the overall survival of glioma patients by using least absolute shrinkage and selection operator regression (LASSO regression). Besides, copy number variations (CNVs) and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) of LARs were also analyzed in our study.

Results: We found the mRNA expression levels of most of LARs were dysregulated in gliomas and associated with the prognosis of glioma patients. The risk signature constructed by 14 LARs presented an independent prognostic role in both the CGGA (HR:1.96, 95%CI:1.33-2.90) and TCGA (HR:1.48, 95%CI:1.08-2.03) datasets and robust predictive effects in the ROC curves with all of area under curves more than 0.800. Moreover, the copy number variations of LARs were also significantly related to the prognosis of glioma patients, in which *HDAC1*(1p) was one of the oncogenes lost in 1p/19q codeletion events, while *SIRT2*(19q) and *EP300*(22q) may act as tumor suppressors in gliomas with 19q or 22q deletions, respectively.

35 **Conclusion:** LARs are potential biomarkers for the malignant progression of gliomas, and our results
36 could be useful for predicting the OS of glioma patients and provide some clues in searching the
37 functions of LARs in glioma progression.

38 **Keywords:** glioma, lysine acetylation regulator, epigenetic, prognostic signature, biomarker.

39 **Background**

40 Glioma, the most common and fatal intracranial primary tumor in adults, is known for its rapid
41 progression, high infiltration rate, and relative resistance to chemoradiotherapy [1, 2]. Although
42 comprehensive integrated treatment programs are currently available, the clinical outcomes for glioma
43 patients remain poor [1-3]. According to the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA), patients with
44 malignant glioma have a dissatisfactory prognosis with median overall survival (OS) of 78.1 months
45 for low-grade gliomas (LGGs; WHO grade II), 37.6 months for anaplastic gliomas, and 14.4 months
46 for glioblastomas (GBMs) [1]. In recent years, numerous glioma neuropathological biomarkers and
47 molecular stratification of glioma patients have been identified based on the rapid development of
48 biomedical and bioinformatics technology. However, the identification of new and efficient prognostic
49 and therapeutic biomarkers and targets remains a priority for glioma-tailored treatment.

50 Epigenetic regulation is essential for cellular homeostasis and its dysregulation is associated with a
51 variety of cancers [4-6]. Post-translational modifications (PTMs) are key elements of epigenetic
52 regulation and function as signaling markers within oncocytes [7, 8]. Lysine acetylation is a dynamic,
53 reversible PTM that has been widely investigated in recent years due to its ubiquity as a mechanism
54 for cellular protein modification that regulates numerous cellular biological processes, including
55 transcription, cell cycle, cell division, DNA damage repair, cellular signaling transduction, protein
56 folding and aggregation, cytoskeleton organization, RNA processing and stability [9, 10]. Both histone
57 and non-histone proteins, such as p53, STAT proteins, NF- κ B, FoxO proteins, and tubulins, are
58 targeted by lysine acetylation regulators (LARs), and several are the products of oncogenes or tumor-
59 suppressor genes and are directly involved in tumorigenesis, tumor progression, and metastasis [9, 11].

60 Lysine acetylation is dynamically regulated by “writers” (acetyltransferases) and “erasers”
61 (deacetylases). The main LARs comprise of acetyltransferase families, including the GCN5 family
62 (KAT2A and KAT2B), p300 family (KAT3A [CREBBP] and KAT3B [EP300]), MYST family (KAT5,
63 KAT6A, KAT6B, KAT7, and KAT8), and others, such as the SLC16A10, KAT1 (HAT1), ESCO1,
64 and ESCO2; and deacetylase families, including the histone deacetylase family (HDAC1–11), Sirtuin
65 deacetylase family (SIRT1–7), and others, such as the TCF1 (HNF1A) and LEF1[9]. Increasing
66 evidence supports that LARs directly or indirectly participate in cancer initiation and progression,
67 which led us to explore the roles of acetylation in glioma in greater detail. Although numerous studies
68 have investigated the acetylation-related molecular regulatory mechanisms in gliomas, the role of
69 lysine acetylation in glioma is still poorly understood, and clarifying the effects of impaired regulation
70 of lysine acetylation could pave the way for new therapeutic approaches to treat patients with these
71 diseases.

72 In this study, we utilized RNA-seq data for 905 gliomas from the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas
73 (CGGA) ($n = 307$) and The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) ($n = 598$) datasets, and matched copy
74 number variation (CNV; $n = 598$) and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP; $n = 583$) data from the
75 TCGA dataset. Based on bioinformatic and statistical analyses of these open-source datasets, several
76 LARs were found to be involved in malignant progression and prognosis of glioma, and a predictive
77 independent risk signature involving 14 screened LARs was developed to predict the prognosis of

78 glioma patients. The results showed that several LARs were included in the frequent chromosome
79 alterations observed in gliomas and show prognostic values. Tumor mutation burden (TMB) was also
80 calculated for samples with mutation data in the TCGA dataset and we found TMB showed a positive
81 correlation with our risk score, which may mean that DNA repair system is highly impaired in gliomas
82 with higher risk score and dysregulation of lysine acetylation may lead to malignant progression in
83 glioma.

84 **Methods**

85 **Data Acquisition**

86 The RNA-seq data and corresponding clinicopathological information for the CGGA training set were
87 downloaded from the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA) (<http://www.cgga.org.cn/>). The RNA-
88 seq data, CNV data, and clinicopathological data for the validation set in TCGA were downloaded
89 from the University of California, Santa Cruz Xena browser (UCSC Xena;
90 <https://xenabrowser.net/datapages/>). The mRNA expression levels in the two databases were detected
91 in clinical tumor samples rather than detached glioma cells, which means the RNA-seq data represent
92 the mRNA levels in glioma microenvironment. SNP data in the TCGA dataset were downloaded from
93 the Genomic Data Commons Data Portal (GDC; <https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/>). The RNA-seq
94 transcriptome data for the CGGA and TCGA samples were normalized by $\log_2(n+1)$ transformation.
95 The GISTIC2 method was applied to generate gene-level copy number estimates. GISTIC2 further
96 thresholded the estimated values to -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, representing homozygous deletion, single copy
97 deletion, diploid normal copy, low-level copy number amplification, or high-level copy number
98 amplification, respectively. Immunohistochemistry images of LARs were obtained from the website
99 of The Human Protein Atlas (HPA: <https://www.proteinatlas.org/>) The clinicopathological information
100 for the CGGA and TCGA datasets is summarized in Supplementary Table S1. Copy number variation
101 information of the 33 LARs is summarized in Supplementary Table S2.

102 **Selection of LARs**

103 A list of LARs was compiled from the published literature and subsequently restricted to genes for
104 which RNA expression data was available in both the CGGA and TCGA datasets. We obtained a final
105 list of 33 LARs consisting of 13 lysine acetyltransferases and 20 lysine deacetylases. The extracted
106 mRNA expression matrix of these 33 genes was used for the subsequent bioinformatics analysis.

107 **Bioinformatic Analysis**

108 Consensus clustering and screening of molecular subtypes based on the expression profiles of the LARs
109 were performed using the R package “ConsensusClusterPlus” [12]. The Euclidean distance was
110 utilized to compute the similarity distance between samples, and the k-means method was used for
111 clustering based on 50 iterations, with each iteration containing 80% of samples. Then principal
112 component analysis (PCA) was performed to evaluate different expression patterns among glioma
113 subgroups using the R programming language (<https://www.r-project.org/>). Differential gene
114 expression analysis between the LA3 and LA1/2 subgroups was performed using the R package “limma”
115 [13], and the differentially expressed genes were input into the Database for Annotation, Visualization,
116 and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) (<https://david.ncifcrf.gov/>) for GO and KEGG pathway enrichment
117 analyses. GSEA software (<http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/index.jsp>) was used to investigate the
118 enriched tumor hallmarks in the LA3 subgroup compared with those in the LA1/2 subgroups.
119 Interactions among LARs were evaluated using the STRING database (<https://string-db.org/>), and the
120 “Cytoscape” software was used to perform the protein-protein interaction network analysis[14]. The

121 tumor mutation burden (TMB) was calculated using Perl scripts (<https://www.perl.org/>), and the
122 algorithm to calculate the TMB included nonsynonymous mutation counts per tumor, with germline
123 mutations filtered out.

124 Based on the expression of 33 LARs in the CGGA dataset, univariate Cox regression analyses were
125 first used to judge their prognostic power. We screened 23 genes associated with OS ($p < 0.05$) and
126 used the LASSO Cox regression algorithm to develop a potential risk signature. Finally, 14 genes with
127 their coefficients were determined according to minimum criteria, which involved selecting the best
128 penalty parameter λ associated with the smallest 10-fold cross-validation within the training dataset.
129 The risk score for the signature was calculated using the following formula:

130
$$\text{Risk score} = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Coef}_i * x_i$$

131 in which Coef_i is the coefficient, and x_i is the $\log_2(n+1)$ -transformed relative expression value for
132 each screened gene. The formula was used to compute a risk score for each patient in both the CGGA
133 and TCGA datasets.

134 **Statistical Analyses**

135 Differential LAR expression levels among WHO grades and between different 1p/19q codeletion status
136 and different IDH mutation status were compared by the Wilcox test. Chi-square tests were used to
137 compare the distribution of gender, age, WHO grade, IDH mutation status, and 1p/19q codeletion status
138 among the three subgroups (clustered by consensus expression of LARs) and between low- and high-
139 risk subgroups (partitioned by the median of risk scores) in gliomas.

140 The prognostic abilities of the risk score and other clinicopathological characteristics were evaluated
141 by univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses. The prediction efficiency of our risk signature,
142 age, and WHO grade for 1/3/5-year survival was assessed by receiver operating characteristic (ROC)
143 curves. Kaplan–Meier curves used to compare the OS for patients in different groups were tested by
144 the log-rank test. Spearman correlation test was performed to analyze the correlation between TMB
145 and risk score. All statistical analyses were performed using R v.3.6.1 (<https://www.r-project.org/>) and
146 SPSS Statistics 25 (<https://www.ibm.com/products/software>).

147 **Results**

148 **Correlation between mRNA Expressions and Clinicopathological Features**

149 Given the crucial biological roles of each LAR, we systematically analyzed the correlation between
150 LAR mRNA expression levels and clinicopathological characteristics (including WHO grades, IDH
151 mutation status, and 1p/19q codeletion status) in gliomas. The heatmaps (Fig. 1A, B) show the
152 expression levels of each LAR in diverse WHO grades, and indicate that most of the LARs were
153 aberrantly expressed in different WHO grades in the CGGA dataset; these differential expression levels
154 were validated in the TCGA dataset (Fig. S1A, B). We found that the mRNA expression of 11 lysine
155 acetyltransferases and 15 lysine deacetylases were significantly correlated with WHO grades in the
156 CGGA dataset (Fig. S2A, B). For acetyltransferases, the mRNA expression levels of most KATs
157 (except *KAT5* and *KAT8*) decreased significantly with increasing WHO grade. In contrast, the mRNA
158 expression of the other four acetyltransferases (*SLC16A10*, *KAT1*, *ESCO1*, and *ESCO2*) showed
159 marked increases. For deacetylases, the mRNA expression of *SIRT1/2/3/5*, and that of *HDAC4/5/11*
160 decreased with increasing WHO grade, while the mRNA expressions of *HDAC1/2/3/7/8*, and that of

161 *SIRT6/7* and *LEF1*, showed an increase. Among these LARs that showed increased expression with
162 increasing WHO grade in both the CGGA and TCGA datasets, *HDAC1* is the best-studied LAR in
163 glioma, whereas the potential functions of *ESCO2*, *KAT1*, *LEF1*, and *SLC16A10* are unreported in this
164 cancer (Fig. 1C, D).

165 The differential expression levels of LARs according to IDH mutation status were investigated in
166 LGGs and GBMs (Fig. 1E, F). Our results showed that HDACs (except *HDAC8* and *10*), KATs (except
167 *KAT1*), *SIRT1*, *SIRT2*, and *LEF1* were all significantly associated with IDH mutation status in LGGs.
168 The expression levels of *HDAC1/2/3/4/5/6/7/10/11*, as well as those of KATs (except *KAT1* and *KAT8*),
169 *SIRT1/2/3/4*, *ESCO2*, *SLC16A10*, and *LEF1*, were significantly correlated with IDH mutation status in
170 GBMs. We also evaluated the mRNA expression of the 33 LARs according to 1p/19q codeletion status
171 in LGGs with mutated IDH. We found that *HDAC1/2/3/4/5/6/10/11*, as well as *KAT1/2A/2B/7*,
172 *SIRT2/3/4/5/7*, *LEF1*, *TCF1*, *ESCO1/2* were closely associated with 1p/19q codeletion status in LGGs
173 with mutated IDH (Fig. 1G).

174 For further investigating the functional status of LARs in gliomas, we downloaded
175 immunohistochemistry images of several LARs from the Human Protein Atlas database (Fig. S3). Most
176 of investigated LARs (including *HDAC1/2/3/5/8*, *SIRT5/7*, *KAT2A/2B* and *LEF1*) were differential
177 expressed between LGG and GBM, and have similar expression tendency with mRNA expression.

178 These results suggested that aberrant LAR expression was highly correlated with clinicopathological
179 characteristics of glioma and may be involved in its malignant progression. Therefore, we concluded
180 that it would be worthwhile investigating the correlation between LARs and glioma malignancy in
181 greater detail.

182 Identification of Subgroups by Consensus Clustering

183 The mRNA expression of the 33 LARs was analyzed to determine the glioma subtypes in the CGGA
184 dataset. A total of 307 samples were divided into k ($k = 2$ to 9) subtypes using the R package
185 “Consensus Cluster Plus”. We elected $k = 3$ (Fig. 2A-C) as our subtype-dividing value for further study
186 due to the similar number of samples in each cluster and distinct clinical prognoses among the
187 subgroups when we divided gliomas into three subgroups. To investigate the differences among the
188 three subgroups in more detail, we performed PCA to compare the mRNA expression profiles among
189 the three subgroups and the analysis showed that significant differences existed among the three
190 subgroups (Fig. 2D). Furthermore, survival analysis was conducted and results showed that the LA3
191 subgroup had the poorest OS time and rate while the LA1 subgroup showed the longest OS time among
192 the three groups (Fig. 2E). Subsequently, we evaluated the differences in clinicopathological features
193 and expression levels among the three clusters (LA1, LA2, and LA3) (Fig. 2F), and found that,
194 compared with the other two groups, LA3 was significantly related to increased age at diagnosis ($p <$
195 0.001), higher WHO grade ($p < 0.001$), fewer IDH mutations ($p < 0.001$), and fewer 1p/19q codeletions
196 ($p < 0.001$) (Table S3). In contrast, the other two subgroups correlated with younger age at diagnosis,
197 lower WHO grade, more IDH mutations, and more 1p/19q codeletions.

198 Gene Ontology and Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

199 The above findings implied that clustering was closely related to glioma malignancy. As the LA3
200 subgroup had the poorest prognosis, we identified genes that were significantly upregulated ($\log(\text{fold}$
201 $\text{change}) \geq 1$ and $p < 0.05$) in the LA3 subgroup compared with the LA1 and LA2 subgroups, and
202 annotated their functions by gene ontology (GO) pathway analysis for biological processes (BPs) and
203 Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) analysis. The GO-BP results showed that the

204 upregulated genes were enriched in malignancy-related biological processes, such as positive
205 regulation of the ERK1 and ERK2 cascade, angiogenesis, cell proliferation, tumor necrosis factor-
206 mediated signaling pathway, immune response, and negative regulation of apoptotic process (Fig. 3A).
207 Similar results, such as JAK–STAT signaling pathway, cell adhesion molecules (CAMs), and
208 extracellular matrix (ECM)-receptor interaction, were also significantly enriched in the LA3 subgroup
209 based on KEGG pathway analysis (Fig. 3B). We also performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)
210 between the LA3 and LA1/2 subgroups. The results revealed that malignant hallmarks of tumors,
211 including IL2/STAT5 signaling, epithelial–mesenchymal transition, apoptosis, p53 pathway,
212 IL6/JAK/STAT3 signaling, angiogenesis, TNF signaling via NF- κ B, and KRAS signaling, were
213 enriched in the LA3 subgroup (Fig. 3C). These results indicated that the three categories were highly
214 associated with glioma malignancy, and that LA3 was the most malignant of the subgroups.

215 **Correlations and Interactions among LARs**

216 To better understand the correlations among the LARs, we performed correlative and protein-protein
217 interaction (PPI) network analyses. We found that genes within the same functional class showed
218 significantly correlated expression patterns and that a high correlation existed between
219 acetyltransferases and deacetylases (Fig. 4A). In the correlation analysis, five acetyltransferases
220 (*KAT6A*, *KAT6B*, *KAT7*, *EP300*, and *CREBBP*) presented a strong co-expression relationship, they
221 were also positively associated with the expression of *HDAC4*, *HDAC5*, *HDAC6*, and *SIRT1* and
222 negatively associated with *SLC16A10*, *KAT1*, *HDAC1*, *HDAC3*, and *LEF1* expression. The HDAC
223 family seems to be the hub family in lysine regulation, as it showed strong co-expression not only
224 among the family members, but also with that of KATs and SIRTs. In contrast, few SIRTs (except
225 *SIRT1*) showed strong correlations with the other LARs.

226 Analysis of PPI networks also showed that these LARs frequently interacted (Fig. 4B), and that
227 HDAC1, HDAC2, and CREBBP presented the greatest number of links to other LARs. In the PPI
228 networks, we concluded that HDACs had an especially high number of interactions with other LARs,
229 indicating that members of the histone deacetylase family have crucial functions in the regulation of
230 lysine acetylation. Taken together, these findings revealed that several co-expression patterns existed
231 among the LARs, and HDACs are the hub family. The results further indicate that cross-talk among
232 LARs might play critical roles in the malignant progression of glioma.

233 **Building a Risk Signature by LASSO Cox Regression**

234 To investigate the prognostic value of LARs, univariate Cox regression analysis was performed on the
235 mRNA expression of the 33 LARs in the CGGA training dataset. We found that 26 of the 33 genes
236 were correlated with OS ($p < 0.05$) of glioma patients (Fig. 4C). Among the 26 genes, *SLC16A10*,
237 *ESCO1*, *ESCO2*, *KAT1*, *HDAC1*, *HDAC2*, *HDAC3*, *HDAC7*, *HDAC8*, *SIRT6*, *SIRT7*, and *LEF1* were
238 found to be risk factors in glioma, with hazard ratios >1 , whereas *KAT2A*, *KAT2B*, *KAT5*, *KAT6A*,
239 *KAT6B*, *KAT7*, *CREBBP*, *EP300*, *HDAC11*, *HDAC4*, *HDAC5*, *SIRT1*, *SIRT3*, and *SIRT5* were
240 protective factors, with hazard ratios <1 . The 26 LARs identified as having prognostic value were
241 selected for use with the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) Cox regression
242 algorithm in the CGGA training dataset. Based on the minimum criteria, we determined a 14-gene risk
243 signature (Fig. 4D), and the coefficients (Fig. 4E) obtained by the LASSO algorithm were used to
244 compute the risk score for each sample in the CGGA and TCGA datasets for further study. Besides,
245 prognostic value of each LARs in LGG and GBM with different IDH mutant status and 1p/19q
246 codeletion status were concluded in Supplementary Table S5 and Table S6.

247 **Testing and Validating the Risk Signature**

248 We performed chi-square test and generated heatmaps to evaluate whether the risk score reflected the
249 different distributions of clinicopathological features among gliomas in the CGGA dataset (Fig. 5A)
250 and the TCGA dataset (Fig. S4A). Significant differences in clinicopathological features were observed
251 between the low- and high-risk subgroups (Table S7). The high-risk subgroup was highly associated
252 with older age ($p = 0.014$), higher WHO grade ($p < 0.001$), wild-type IDH ($p < 0.001$), and non-
253 codeletion of 1p/19q ($p < 0.001$), and overall survival time decreased with the risk score increasing.
254 Based on the ROC curves, we concluded that the risk score could perfectly predict 1/3/5-year survival
255 rates in glioma patients with AUC = 0.812/0.866/0.881, respectively (Fig. 5B–D), and was more
256 efficient than WHO grade and age in predicting 1/3/5-year survival rates. ROC curves of the TCGA
257 validation set proved that the risk signature had a stable and robust predictive ability (Fig. S4B–D).

258 Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses were then performed to determine whether the
259 risk signature was an independent prognostic indicator. We included age, risk score, 1p/19q codeletion
260 status, WHO grade, IDH mutation status, gender, chemotherapy and radiotherapy in the univariate Cox
261 regression analysis and the results of the univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis showed
262 that risk score, WHO grade, age and 1p/19q status were independent predictors for glioma patients
263 (Fig. 5E,F).

264 Here, we confirmed that the risk score had prognostic value for different WHO grades. The Kaplan–
265 Meier survival curves indicated that low-risk patients had longer OS time and a higher OS rate than
266 high-risk patients in each and all WHO grades in the CGGA dataset (Fig. 6A), and the prognostic
267 ability of the risk score was further validated in the TCGA dataset (Fig. 6B).

268 **Mutation Analysis of LARs**

269 To study the mutation status of the 33 LARs and the relationship between the risk signature and gene
270 mutations, 583 samples with matched SNP data were divided into low- ($n = 303$) and high-risk ($n =$
271 280) groups. A waterfall plot was generated depicting the mutation frequency of the 33 LARs and the
272 percentage at which they occurred in gliomas (Fig. 6C). We found that 36 (6.17%) of the 583 samples
273 contained mutations in genes coding for the LARs, in which *KAT6B* (8/583) and *CREBBP* (5/583)
274 were the most frequently mutated genes. Within the eight mutations found in *KAT6B*, six were present
275 in oligodendrogliomas and six of the samples were in the low-risk subgroup. All the mutations in
276 *CREBBP* were in samples from high-risk patients, and comprised two glioblastomas and three
277 astrocytomas.

278 In the waterfall plot depicting the 30 most frequently mutated genes in gliomas (Fig. S5A), we noticed
279 that glioma patients with a high-risk score often carried a higher frequency of gene mutations. This
280 indicated that DNA repair system is highly damaged in patients with higher risk score. Therefore, we
281 calculated the TMB for each sample with SNP data in the TCGA dataset. We found that high-risk
282 patients had higher TMB values (Fig. 6D), and Spearman's correlation analysis confirmed the positive
283 correlation between our risk signature and TMB ($R = 0.52$, $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 6E). This result implied
284 that impaired regulation of lysine acetylation may affect glioma malignancy through the modulation
285 of factors involved in DNA replication or repair.

286 **CNV Analysis of LARs**

287 In the heatmap depicting the CNV of the 33 LARs, the high-risk section of the heatmap showed more
288 CNV events than the low-risk section (Fig. S5B). We selected 7 LARs for which the CNV was highly

289 associated with the risk score for further analyses (Fig. 7A). These genes are located on chromosome
290 arms 1p, 7p, 10q, 19q, and 22q which are characteristically altered in gliomas [15].

291 *HDAC1* and *SIRT2* are located on chromosome arms 1p and 19q, respectively. Codeletion of these
292 genes is frequently observed in oligodendrogliomas, and is highly associated with improved responses
293 to radiochemotherapy and longer survival than diffuse gliomas without these alterations [2]. Although
294 Kaplan–Meier curves revealed that copy number deletions of *HDAC1* and *SIRT2* are related to a better
295 prognosis, we could not determine whether 1p/19q codeletions resulted in differential OS. Therefore,
296 to exclude the potential influences of 1p/19q codeletion, we compared the mRNA expression levels of
297 *HDAC1* and *SIRT2* according to CNV status, as well as the OS rates between low and high levels of
298 *HDAC1* and *SIRT2* mRNA expression in gliomas without *HDAC1* or *SIRT2* CNVs (Fig. 7B, C). We
299 found that, for both genes, copy number deletions were associated with lower mRNA expression, and
300 in gliomas without *HDAC1* or *SIRT2* copy number variations, patients with lower *HDAC1* expression
301 or higher *SIRT2* expression showed better clinical prognosis. These results indicated that *HDAC1* may
302 be one of the oncogenes lost in gliomas with 1p deletion, while *SIRT2*, as a protective factor, is lost
303 with 19q codeletions in glioma patients.

304 The *EP300* gene is located on chromosome 22q, and deletion of this gene is also common in gliomas.
305 Although *EP300* copy number deletion was associated with a worse prognosis when compared with
306 the diploid state, we could not exclude that loss of other genes located in 22q may also influence
307 prognosis. Therefore, we compared *EP300* mRNA expression levels according to CNV status, as well
308 as the OS rates between high and low levels of *EP300* expression in gliomas without *EP300* CNVs.
309 We found that copy number deletions of *EP300* were associated with lower *EP300* mRNA expression
310 levels, and reduced expression of *EP300* in gliomas without *EP300* CNVs was related to a worse
311 clinical prognosis (Fig. 7D). This indicates that *EP300* may play a tumor suppressor role in glioma and
312 *EP300(22q)* may be one of the tumor suppressor genes lost in the 22q– event [16].

313 The CNVs for the other 4 LARs – *KAT6B(10q)*, *SIRT1(10q)*, *HDAC10(22q)*, and *HDAC9(7q)* – were
314 highly associated with the risk signature and may be affected in chromosomal alterations such as 10q–,
315 22q– and 7+ in gliomas. However, we did not find significant differences in OS between low and high
316 levels of expression of these four genes in patients without CNVs (Fig. S6A–D). Therefore, we
317 regarded the differences in OS rates between patients with or without copy number loss of these four
318 genes as passive changes resulting from chromosomal variations, indicating that they may have little
319 effect in related clinical outcomes.

320 Discussion

321 In this report, we have shown that the mRNA expression levels of most of the evaluated LARs are
322 closely associated with clinicopathological features of glioma. We further identified three subgroups,
323 LA1/2/3, by consensus clustering of 26 OS-related LARs, and confirmed that LA3 was the most
324 malignant subtype with the poorest prognosis. Moreover, the LA3 subgroup was tightly associated
325 with malignancy-related biological processes, key signaling pathways, and tumor hallmarks. In
326 addition, we also constructed a prognostic signature and divided glioma patients into low- and high-
327 risk categories by the median of risk scores. We noticed a close relationship between the risk signature
328 and clinicopathological features of glioma, and ROC curves, univariate and multivariate analyses, and
329 Kaplan–Meier curves were used to determine the potential prognosis value of the risk signature in
330 glioma. We also included SNP and CNV data of LARs to identify potential therapeutic targets that
331 may play a prognostic role in gliomas.

332 Our 14-gene signature included seven members of the HDAC family (*HDAC1*, *HDAC2*, *HDAC3*,
333 *HDAC4*, *HDAC5*, *HDAC7*, and *HDAC8*), two of the sirtuin family of deacetylases (*SIRT5* and *SIRT7*),
334 two of the GCN5 family of lysine acetyltransferase (*KAT2A* and *KAT2B*), establishment of sister
335 chromatid cohesion N-acetyltransferase 2 (*ESCO2*), solute carrier family 16 member 10 (*SLC16A10*),
336 and lymphoid enhancer binding factor 1 (*LEF1*).

337 Based on univariate analysis, the increased expression of five genes from the risk-signature group was
338 associated with longer OS. The expression of *HDAC4* and *HDAC5* was downregulated in high-grade
339 gliomas when compared with low-grade ones, and was associated with a favorable clinical outcome
340 [17, 18]. Interestingly, *HDAC4* and *HDAC5* have been reported to act as oncogenes by promoting the
341 proliferation of glioma cells, as well as their invasive ability [19, 20]. *KAT2A*, also known as *GCN5*,
342 functions primarily as a transcriptional activator, although it also represses NF- κ B signaling by
343 promoting the ubiquitination of the NF- κ B subunit RELA [21]. Moreover, *KAT2A* can enhance glioma
344 proliferation and invasion via the STAT3 and AKT signaling pathways [22]. *KAT2B*, also known as
345 *PCAF* (p300/CBP-associated factor), can upregulate the transcriptional activity of p53 through
346 acetylation of lys320 in the C-terminal portion of p53 [23, 24], as well as mediate the acetylation of
347 AKT1, thereby enhancing the proliferative capacity of glioblastoma cells [25]. *SIRT5* functions both
348 as a lysine acetyltransferase, and as a desuccinylase, demalonylase, or deglutarylase [26-28]. Although
349 several reports have indicated that *SIRT5* can act as an oncogene in different cancers [29-32], *SIRT5*
350 downregulation has also been associated with poor prognosis in glioblastoma patients [33].

351 Compared with our result, the action of the five genes above could be extremely contradictory. We
352 thought that this discrepancy could be due to three reasons: Firstly, their reduced expression with higher
353 WHO grades may have obscured their carcinogenic effects in the univariate analysis, higher grade with
354 lower expression may mislead us to believe they are protective factors. Moreover, most of the LARs
355 evaluated have comprehensive and widespread regulatory targets and that could provide them with
356 dual functions in oncogenic regulation.

357 The expression levels of the other nine genes were negatively related to OS time in the univariate
358 analysis. *HDAC1*, one of the most studied histone deacetylases, functions as a powerful tumor
359 promotor and enhances chemoresistance in a variety of cancers [34-39]. Our results showed that it was
360 the main regulatory factor in the LAR interaction network and loss of *HDAC1* copy number with 1p
361 deletion contributed to a better prognosis in gliomas. And it was a hub and potential driver gene in
362 gliomas, its reported that it could activate PI3K/AKT and MEK/ERK signaling pathways to promote
363 glioma cell proliferation and invasion and knockdown of it could induce glioma cell apoptosis and
364 invasion suppression[34, 40]. *HDAC2* and *HDAC3*, both of which were upregulated with higher WHO
365 grades, have been reported to be involved in glioma malignancy and chemoresistance [41-43]. The
366 expression of *HDAC7* is positively associated with a mesenchymal subtype of glioblastoma [44], and
367 can enhance the malignant phenotype of glioma, while its inhibition may suppress STAT3 tumorigenic
368 activity [45, 46]. *HDAC8* has been found to be correlated with several types of cancer, although seldom
369 in gliomas[47, 48]. *SIRT7* can activate the ERK/STAT3 signaling pathway, thereby promoting glioma
370 proliferation and invasion [49]. *LEF1*, a recent addition to the deacetylase family, is involved in the
371 Wnt signaling pathway and can promote glioma malignancy [50, 51]. *SLC16A10*, coding for a member
372 of a family of plasma membrane amino acid transporters, was shown to be significantly upregulated in
373 higher-grade gliomas [52]; however, its role in glioma and other cancer types remains unclear. *ESCO2*,
374 required for the establishment of sister chromatid cohesion during the S phase of mitosis [53], can
375 enhance the malignancy of gastric cancer while inhibiting colorectal tumor metastasis [54, 55], and its
376 role in glioma has not been previously reported.

377 Based on the above results, whether these 14 genes are responsible for the differential OS in a
378 biological meaning or reflect other inner associations remains to be elucidated. Our results showing
379 the presence of distinct biological processes and signaling pathways between the LA1/2 and LA3
380 subgroups might provide some clues. We clearly identified a correlation between LAR levels and
381 immune characteristics as GO biological process and KEGG pathway analyses both revealed that genes
382 enriched in the LA3 subgroup were significantly involved in immune-related activities such as immune
383 response, complement activation (classical complement pathway), B cell activation and T cell receptor
384 signaling pathway. This indicates that LARs may have a prominent role in the immune response of
385 glioma cells. However, although numerous studies have investigated the relationship between
386 acetylation regulation and immune response, its effect in glioma remains unclear [56-58]. Therefore,
387 further explorations are needed to seek the inner relationship between LARs and immune activities and
388 it may lead to an unexpected breakthrough in glioma therapy.

389 Mutations of LARs were explored in our study, in which KAT6B and CREBBP were found with
390 highest frequency of mutations in glioma samples. KAT6B is a tumor suppressor histone H3 lysine 23
391 acetyltransferase, loss or mutation of KAT6B may impair acetylation of histone H3 at lysine 23[59,
392 60]. CREBBP is one of the most frequent mutant genes in small cell lung cancer (SCLC), and also
393 common in some kinds of paediatric cancers like high-grade gliomas, medulloblastoma and T-lineage
394 acute lymphoblastic leukaemia[61, 62]. CREBBP inactivation mutations could result reduced histone
395 acetylation in genes associated with cell adhesion, and SCLC patients with inactivation CREBBP
396 mutation have a higher sensitivity to HDAC inhibitors[61]. Though study have revealed that mutations
397 of KAT6B and CREBBP could result the loss of functions, the potential influence of KAT6B and
398 CREBBP mutations remain to be investigated in glioma by deep-going experiments.

399 Our risk signature was also shown to be pertinent to the TMB of glioma patients. The TMB is
400 associated with neoantigen abundance and increased immunogenicity [63], and is used to quantitatively
401 assess mutations carried by tumor cells. It is defined as the total number of somatic gene coding errors,
402 base substitutions, gene insertions, or deletion errors that are detected per million bases. In recent years,
403 several studies have demonstrated that dysregulation of lysine acetylation may result in errors during
404 DNA damage repair. For instance, PCAF/GCN5-mediated K163 acetylation of RPA1 (replication
405 protein A) is crucial for nucleotide excision repair (NER) [64], SIRT7 is recruited in a PARP1-
406 dependent manner to sites of DNA damage, where it modulates H3K18Ac levels [65], and TET1 (ten-
407 eleven translocation-1) forms a complex with KAT8 to modulate its function and the level of H4K16Ac,
408 which ultimately affects gene expression and DNA repair [66]. Based on these observations, we
409 speculate that dysregulation of lysine acetylation of both histone and non-histone proteins may play a
410 pivotal role in impairing the DNA damage repair response, which would then lead to hypermutations
411 and an increased neoantigen load, leading to malignant progression of tumors.

412 We have systematically revealed the mRNA expression, underlying functions, and prognostic values
413 of LARs in glioma, and shown that acetylation regulators may have an immune-related effect on the
414 malignant progression of glioma. Moreover, we identified that several underexplored LARs, such as
415 *ESCO2*, *HAT1(KAT1)*, and *LEF1*, may have prognostic value in lower grade glioma patients (Table
416 S5) and may be potential glioma biomarkers. We further found that specific chromosomal alterations
417 in gliomas were highly related to the CNVs of several LARs. *HDAC1* was shown to be one of the
418 oncogenes deleted in the 1p deletion event, and *SIRT2* and *EP300* were two cancer suppressors lost in
419 19q deletion and 22q deletion events, respectively. Our results also revealed that dysfunction of LARs
420 may partially explain the hypermutation state of gliomas, which is associated with unfavorable
421 prognosis. Taken together, we believe that substantial research is still required to illuminate the detailed

422 mechanisms involved in lysine acetylation-mediated regulation of glioma malignancy that may
423 ultimately lead to new and effective targeted therapies for glioma patients.

424 **Conclusions**

425 LARs play a crucial role in the prognosis and malignant progression of gliomas. The identified
426 prognostic LARs and CNVs can promote our understanding of the underlying mechanisms in glioma
427 pathological processes and provide new diagnostic and therapeutic strategies.

428 **Abbreviations**

429 LAR: lysine acetylation regulators; LGG: lower-grade glioma; GBM: glioblastoma; CNV: Copy
430 Number Variation; SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism; TCGA: The Cancer Genome Atlas;
431 CGGA: Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas; OS: Overall survival; LASSO: Least absolute shrinkage and
432 selection operator; ROC: Receiver operating characteristic; AUC: Area under curve.

433 **Declarations**

434 **Consent for publication**

435 All authors proofread and approved the final manuscript.

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438 **Authors' contributions**

439 Xingen Zhu and Kai Huang designed the research. Zewei Tu, Shigang Lv, Lei Wu performed the
440 bioinformatic and statistical analysis and created the figures and tables. Qing Hu, Chuming Tao and
441 Kuangxun Li performed the literature search, and were involved in manuscript writing and
442 proofreading. Xingen Zhu and Lei Wu supervised the research and critically read the draft manuscript.

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448 **Availability of data and materials**

449 The datasets of RNA-seq data, clinical information, SNV and SNP data for this study can be found in
450 the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA) (<http://www.cgga.org.cn/>), the University of California,
451 Santa Cruz Xena browser (UCSC Xena; <https://xenabrowser.net/datapages/>) and the Genomic Data
452 Commons Data Portal (GDC; <https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/>). The Immunohistochemistry images of
453 LARs could be acquired from the The Human Protein Atlas (HPA: <https://www.proteinatlas.org/>)
454 More details could be found in “Data Acquisition” part of materials and methods.

455 **Competing interests**

456 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
457 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

458 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

459 Not applicable.

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Figures

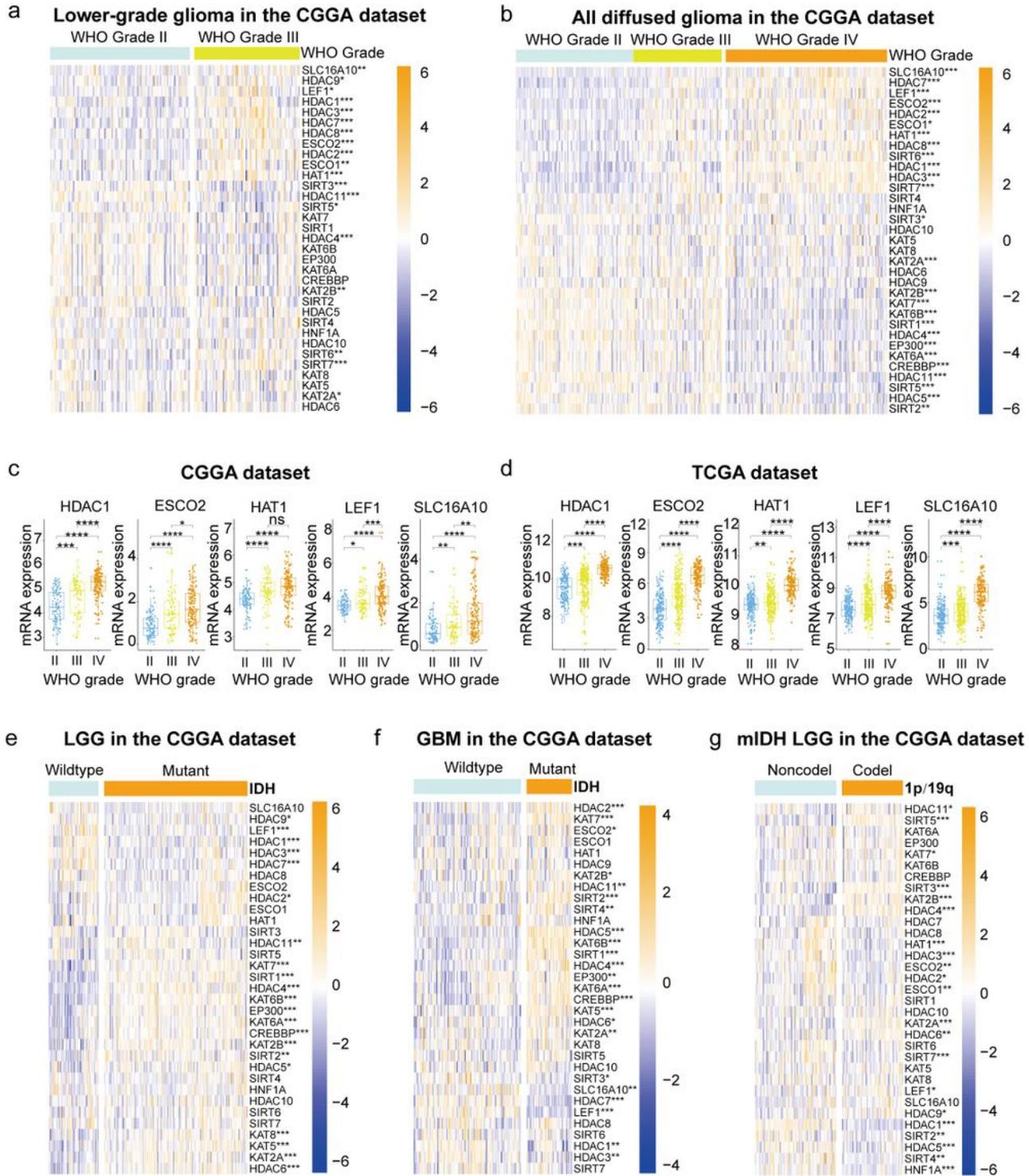


Figure 1

(A, B) The expression levels of 33 lysine acetylation regulators (LARs) in gliomas with different WHO grades. (C, D) HDAC1, ESCO2, KAT1, LEF1, and SCL16A10 expression levels increased with increasing WHO grade. (E, F) The expression levels of LARs in low-grade gliomas (LGGs) and glioblastomas (GBMs)

with different IDH mutation status. (G) The expression levels of LARs in LGGs with IDH mutations (mIDH) with different 1p/19q codeletion status. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, and **** $p < 0.0001$.

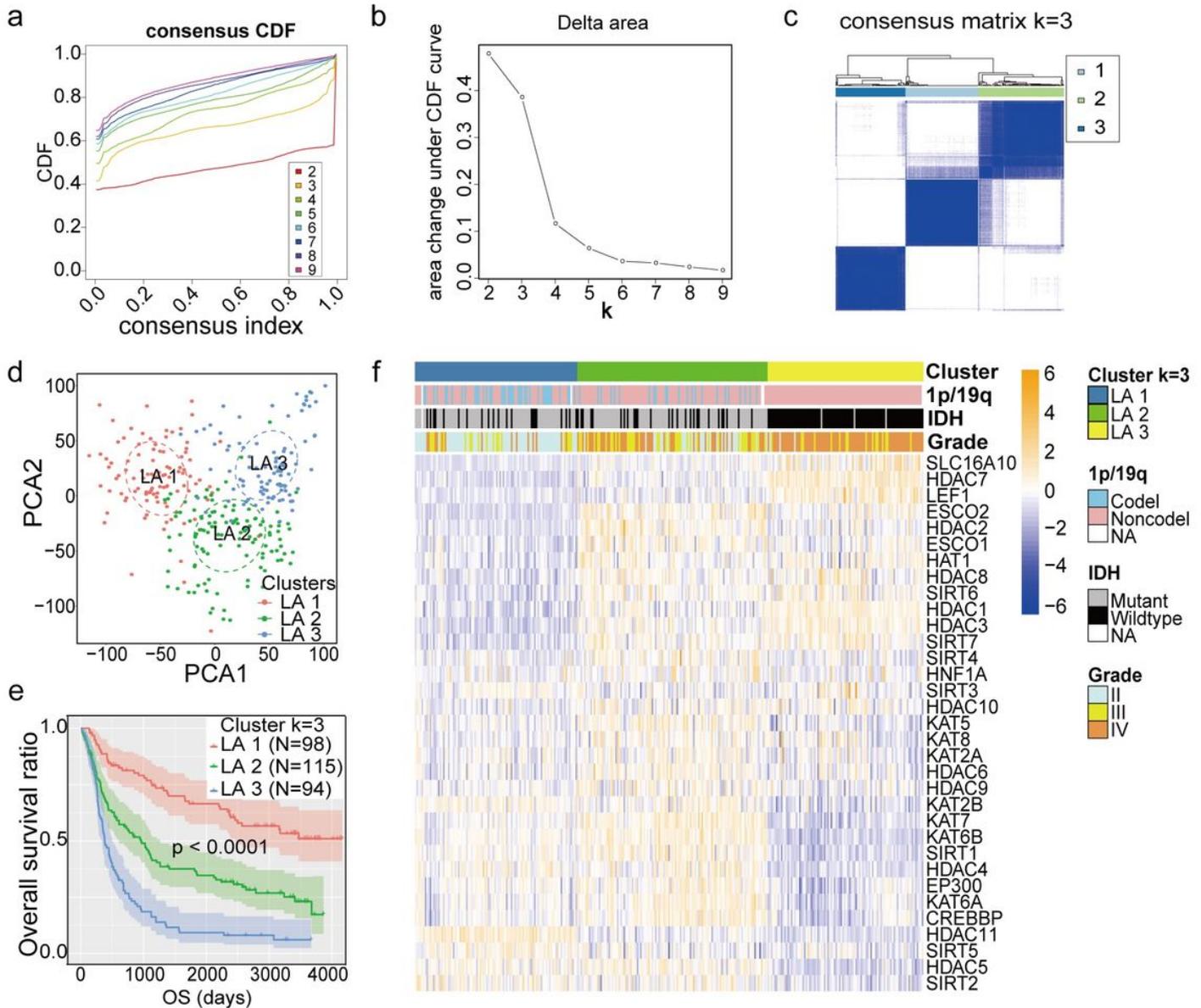


Figure 2

(A) Consensus clustering cumulative distribution function (CDF) for $k = 2$ to 9 . (B) Relative change in area under the CDF curve for $k = 2$ to 9 . (C) Consensus clustering matrix for $k = 3$. (D) Principal component analysis of the total RNA expression profile in the CGGA dataset. (E) Kaplan–Meier overall survival curves for 307 glioma patients in the LA1, 2, and 3 subgroups. (F) The different expression levels of lysine acetylation regulators (LARs) and clinicopathological feature contributions of the three subgroups defined by the consensus expression of 33 LARs.

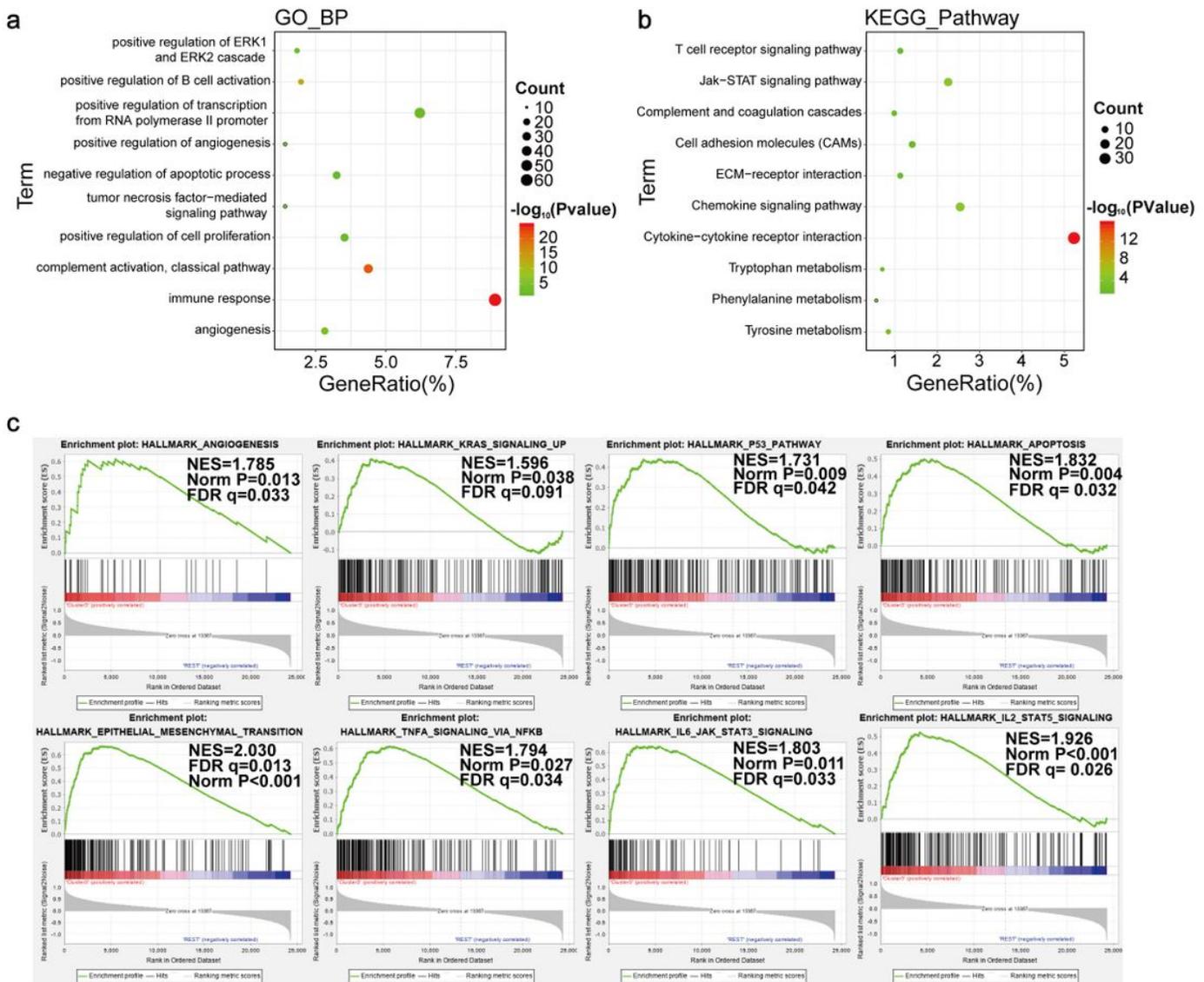


Figure 3

(A, B) Functional annotation of the genes with higher expression in the LA3 subgroup using gene ontology (GO) terms of biological processes (A) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway (B) analyses. (C) Gene set enrichment analysis indicated that genes with higher expression in the LA3 subgroup were enriched for hallmarks of malignant tumors.

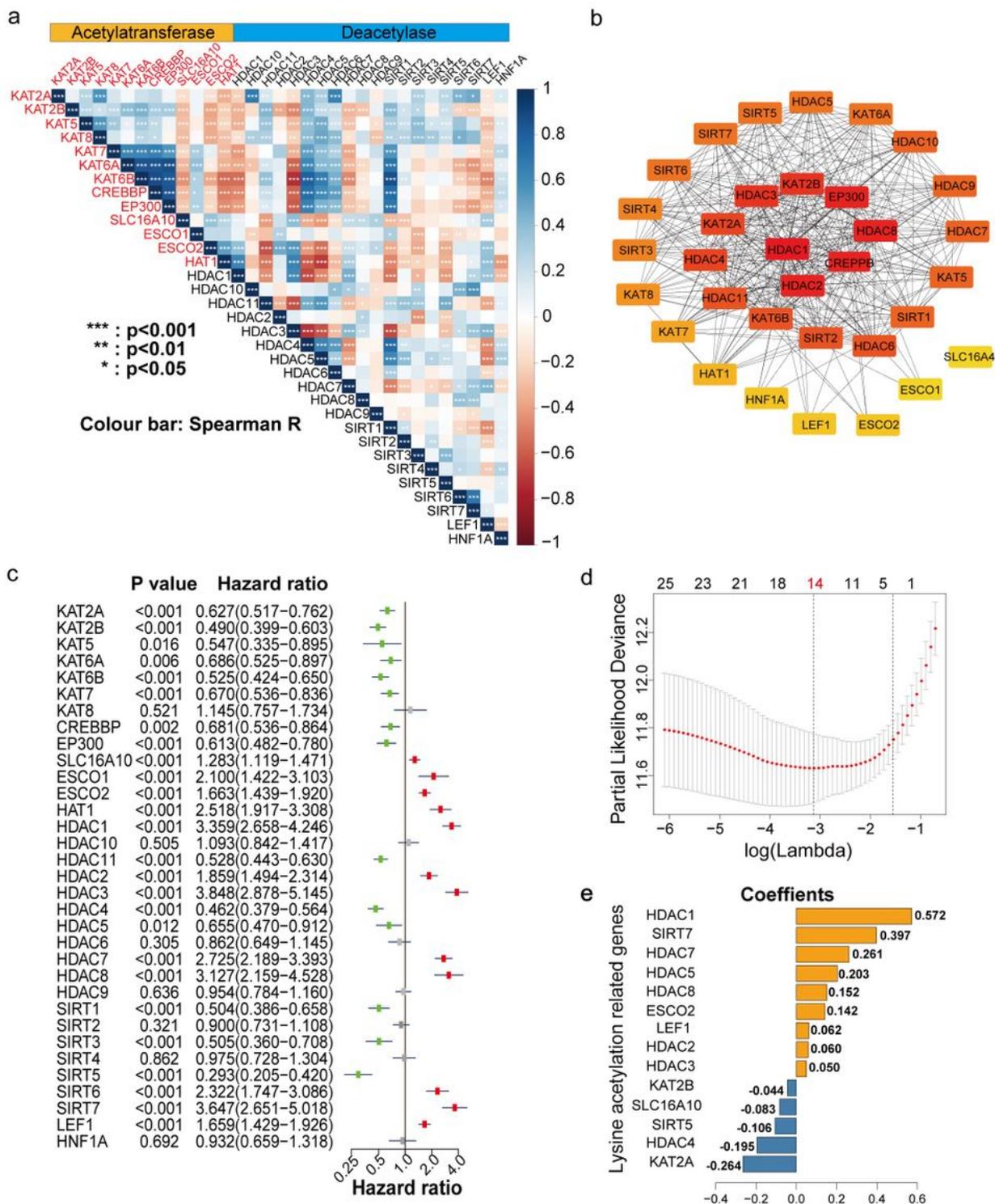


Figure 4

(A) Spearman's correlation analysis among the 33 lysine acetylation regulators (LARs). (B) Protein interaction network of the 33 LARs. (C) Univariate Cox regression analysis was used to calculate the hazard ratios (HRs), 95% confidence intervals, and p-values for screening the prognostic LARs. (D, E) Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression was performed to calculate the minimum criteria(D) and coefficients(E).

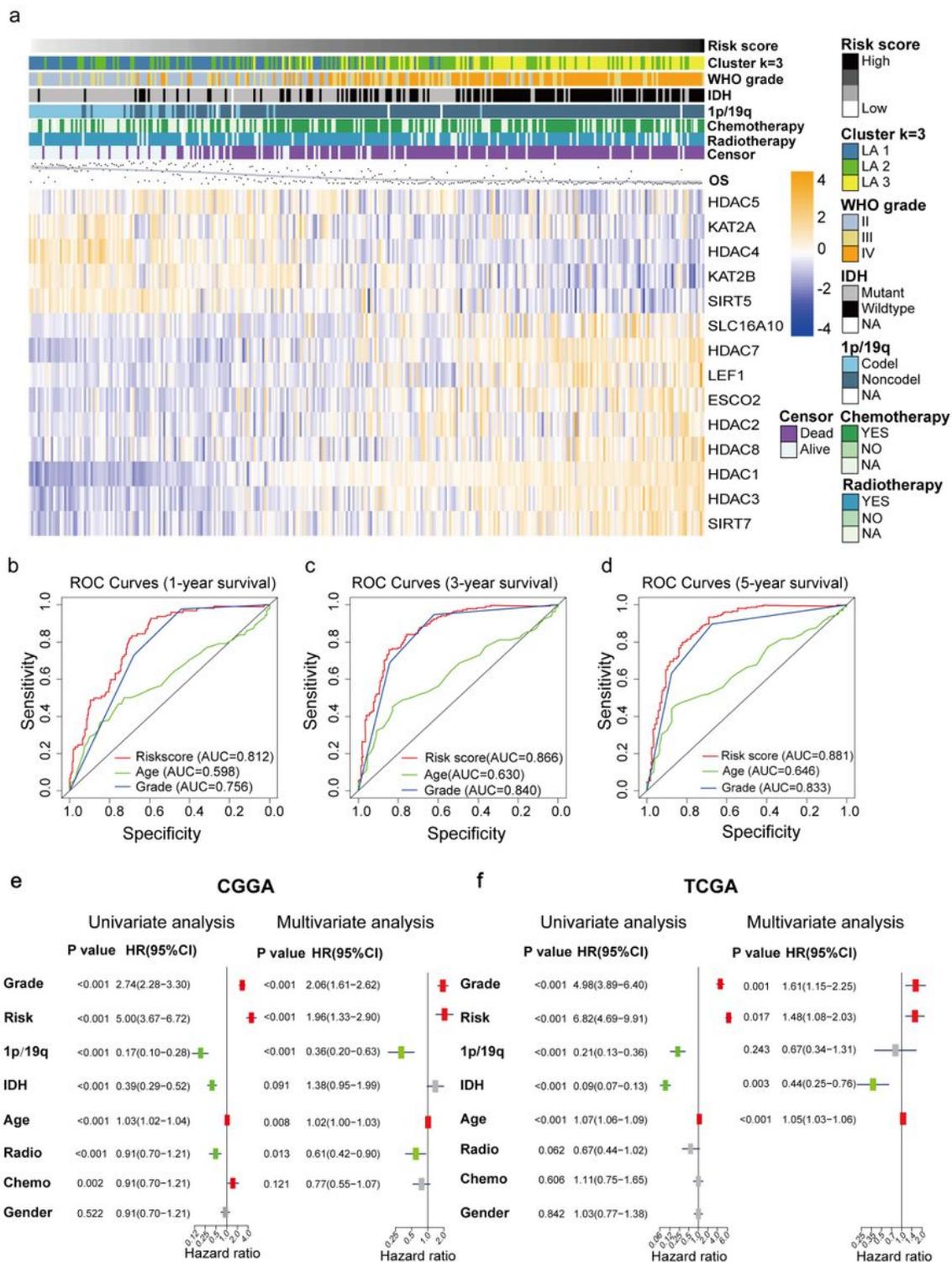
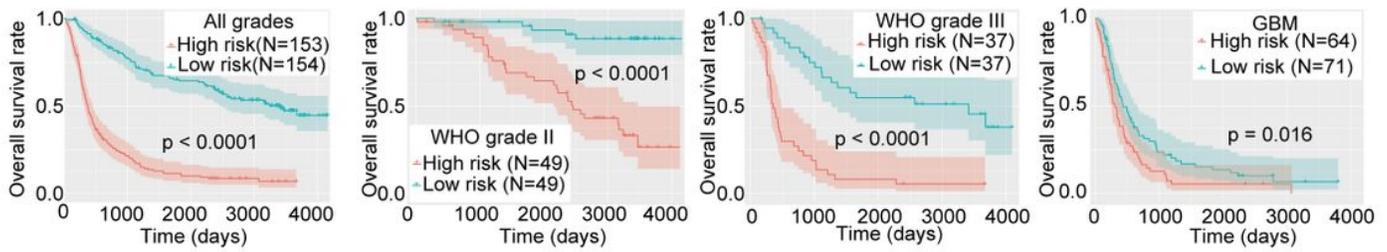


Figure 5

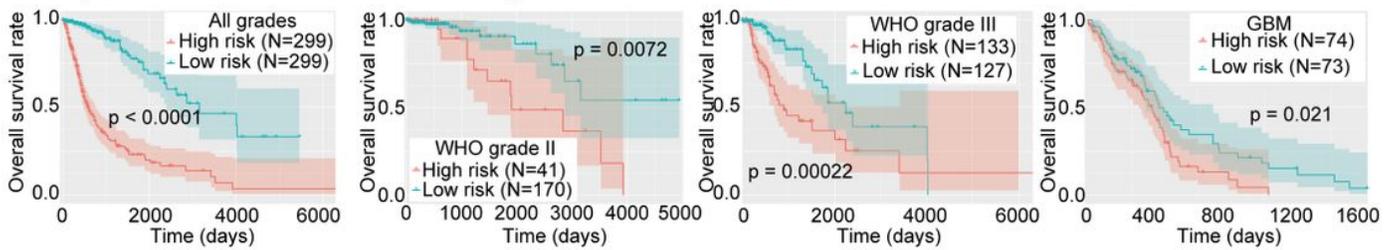
(A) The differential expression levels of the included 14 lysine acetylation regulators (LARs) and the distributions of clinicopathological characteristics were compared between low- and high- risk subgroups. (B–D) Receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves showed the predictive efficiency of the risk signature, WHO grade, and age on 1/3/5-year survival rate. (E, F) Univariate and multivariate Cox

regression analyses of the overall survival and clinicopathological features of patients from the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA) (E) and The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (F) datasets.

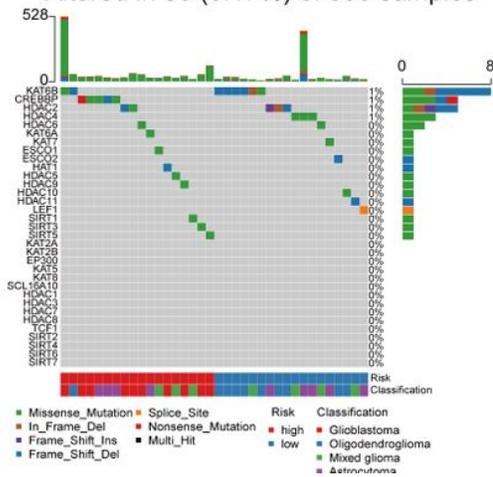
a Kaplan-Meier overall survival curves of high- and low-risk score in the CGGA dataset



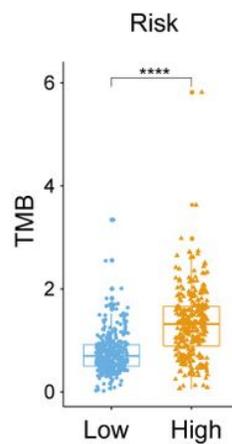
b Kaplan-Meier overall survival curves of high- and low-risk score in the TCGA dataset



c Altered in 36 (6.17%) of 583 samples



d



e

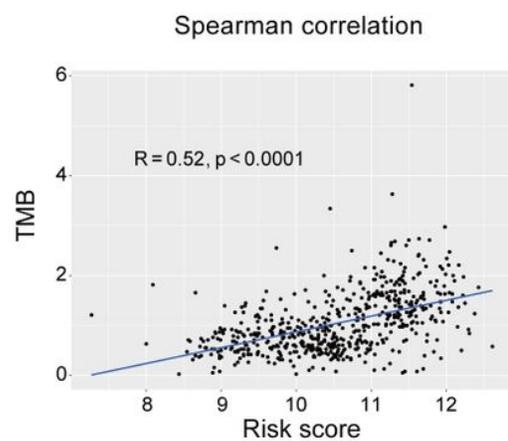


Figure 6

(A) Kaplan–Meier curves of low- and high-risk subgroups of all grades and each grade in the Chinese Glioma Genome Atlas (CGGA) training dataset. (B) Kaplan–Meier curves of low- and high-risk subgroups of each grade in The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) training dataset. (C) Waterfall plot depicting the mutant status of lysine acetylation regulators (LARs). (D, E) Box plot showing that risk subgroups were significantly associated with the tumor mutation burden (TMB) and Spearman correlation analysis showed that the risk score was strongly correlated with TMB.

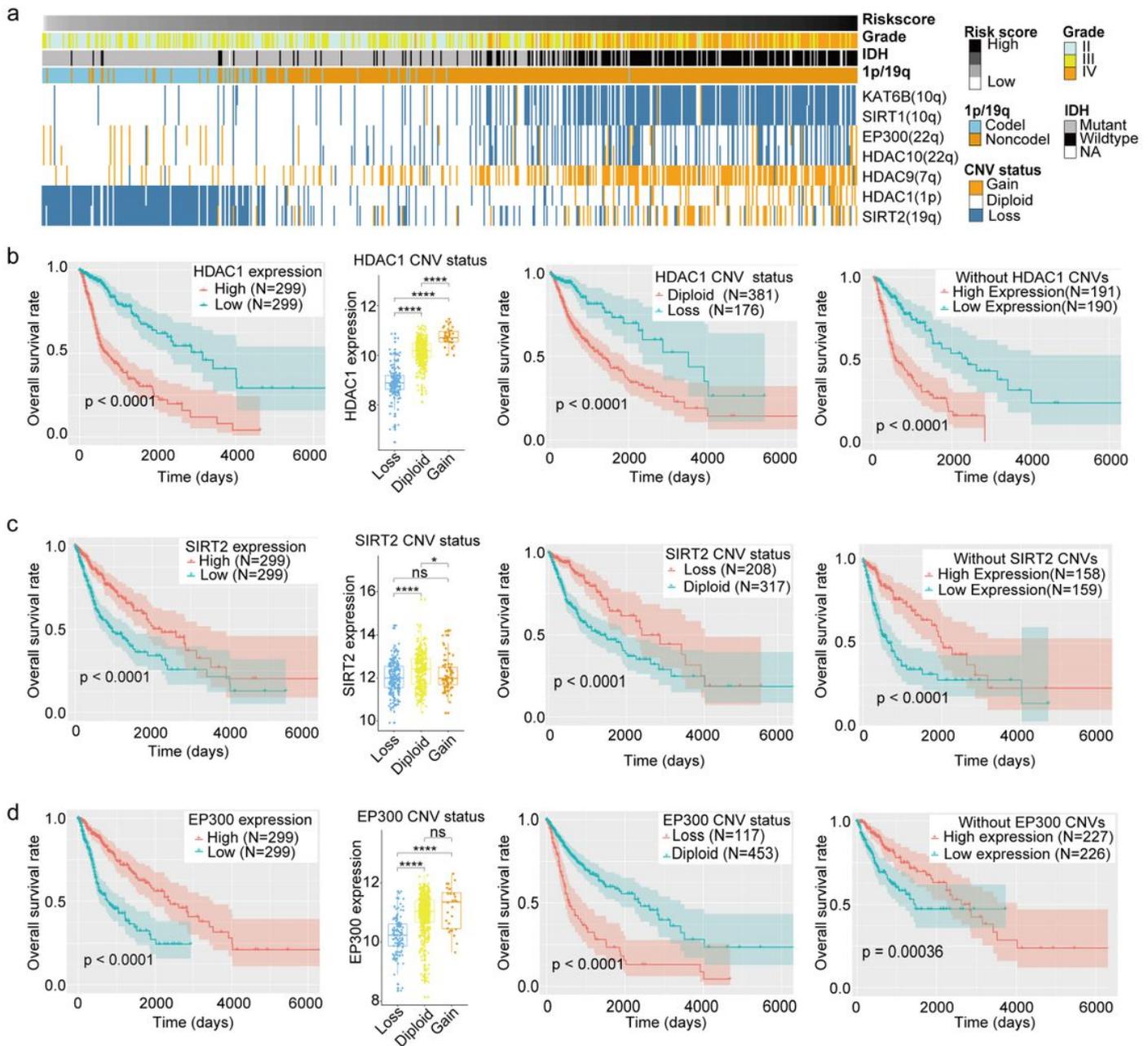


Figure 7

(A) Copy number variation (CNV) of seven lysine acetylation regulators (LARs) were significantly correlated with the risk score and other clinicopathological features. (B–D) Box plots indicated that different CNV status of HDAC1, SIRT2, and EP300 have different mRNA expression levels and the Kaplan–Meier curves revealed that HDAC1, SIRT2, and EP300 expression levels were associated with OS rates both in all samples and samples without their CNVs and their CNV status were also related to OS rates of glioma patients.

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