Human seminal fluid as a source of prostate cancer-specific microRNA biomarkers

Dear Editor,

Prostate cancer (PCa) is the most commonly diagnosed malignancy among men living in Western countries and a major cause of cancer-related deaths. Biopsy-based diagnosis of PCa is usually performed following an elevated serum prostate-specific antigen (PSA) measurement and/or abnormal digital rectal examination (DRE). The deficiencies of serum PSA as a biomarker have been well documented (Roobol & Carlsson 2013). While it is highly specific for tissues of prostatic origin, PSA is not cancer specific, resulting in many unnecessary biopsies of benign disease. Moreover, PSA screening has resulted in substantial over-diagnosis and over-treatment of indolent tumours without having a significant effect on PCa mortality (Schroder et al. 2009). Biomarkers that could identify patients with clinically significant PCa would be ideal but are currently lacking.

Aberrant microRNA (miRNA) expression is a common feature of many diseases, including PCa (Selth et al. 2012), and there has been widespread interest in the diagnostic, prognostic and predictive potential of these molecules. Recent focus has shifted towards circulating miRNAs, which can be sourced from minimally invasive samples, such as serum, plasma and urine, and show promise as biomarkers for PCa (Sapre & Selth 2013). Human seminal fluid (SF) is enriched for exocrine and other constituents of the prostate, such as PCa-derived cells, proteins and metabolites (Gardiner et al. 2003, Roberts et al. 2011), but is yet to be investigated as a source of PCa-associated miRNAs. In this study, we used small RNA sequencing and quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) to assess the potential of SF miRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers of PCa.

SF samples were collected from patients attending the Urology Outpatient Clinic at the Royal Brisbane and Women’s Hospital following informed consent. Sample processing was conducted as described previously (Gardiner et al. 2003), and RNA was extracted using the Trizol reagent (Life Technologies) and cleaned up using RNeasy Mini kits (Qiagen), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Deep sequencing using Illumina’s TruSeq Small RNA workflow was used to analyse the small RNA population in the non-sperm cellular fraction of SF, which includes prostatic epithelial, urothelial and inflammatory cells (Gardiner et al. 2003). Two RNA pools, representing groups of men with low/intermediate risk cancer (D’Amico et al. 1998) or men without cancer, were compared (Table 1). Men in both groups had elevated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Clinical details of patient samples used in this study</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Screening (RNA-seq) study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (n=12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age, mean±S.E.M. (years)</td>
<td>60.4±2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-operative PSA (ng/ml)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>≤ 10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gleason score</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Mann–Whitney U test or Fisher’s exact test, P value.
Human seminal fluid cellular miRNAs (n=726)

A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>miRNA</th>
<th>Control Reads</th>
<th>Control % small RNA</th>
<th>Cancer Reads</th>
<th>Cancer % small RNA</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>miRNA</td>
<td>8,684,210</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>5,003,959</td>
<td>22.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>scRNA</td>
<td>1,527,018</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>371,472</td>
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<td>snoRNA</td>
<td>782,471</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>141,359</td>
<td>0.6</td>
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<td>snRNA</td>
<td>200,218</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>63,217</td>
<td>0.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>rRNA</td>
<td>11,919,255</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>15,687,212</td>
<td>71.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23,093,172</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>21,887,219</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

B

Chromosomal region

C

miR-200b

D

miR-200b

miR-200c

miR-30a

miR-375

miR-99a

E

F

Sensitivity

AUC=0.713

P=0.005

100-specificity

Sensitivity

AUC=0.731

P=0.002

100-specificity

Sensitivity

AUC=0.689

P=0.022

100-specificity

Sensitivity

AUC=0.713

P=0.005

100-specificity

Sensitivity

AUC=0.734

P<0.001

100-specificity

Sensitivity

AUC=0.555

P=0.023

100-specificity

G

miR-200b

P=0.0008

miR-200c

P<0.0001

miR-30a

P=0.0003

miR-375

P<0.0001

miR-99a

P=0.0027
serum PSA levels to increase the likelihood of identifying miRNA biomarkers that would provide additional diagnostic information.

RNA-seq demonstrated that the small RNA population of the non-sperm SF cellular fraction consisted primarily of tRNA and miRNA (Fig. 1A). Interestingly, a higher ratio of tRNA to miRNA was observed in cancer compared with the control. Of the 1523 miRNAs that were assessed using our workflow, 824 and 851 were detected (at least one read) in the cancer and control patients respectively. Despite the control sample exhibiting increased miRNA reads, the miRNA populations in cancer and non-cancer samples were highly concordant: 726 miRNAs were detected in both groups and the common miRNAs were generally expressed at similar levels (Fig. 1B).

To identify miRNAs that were differentially expressed in the SF of cancer patients, we considered only robustly expressed miRNAs (≥1000 raw reads in either pool) and applied a twofold change cutoff after generating normalised expression values. This filtering strategy yielded 82 miRNAs (20 increased and 62 decreased) that were altered in PCa (data not shown). Visual inspection of RNA-seq read density in individual miRNA genes confirmed the predicted changes in expression levels (Fig. 1C, and data not shown). A number of miRNAs, including miR-200 family members and miR-375, have been identified as candidate PCa biomarkers in previous studies of PCa tissues and body fluids (Selth et al. 2012), suggesting that the data were robust and biologically relevant.

Putative SF miRNA biomarkers of PCa were subsequently assessed in a validation cohort comprising 26 men with biopsy-proven, low–high-risk tumours and 22 men with elevated PSA levels but no detectable cancer on biopsy. Demographic and clinical characteristics of the validation cohort are shown in Table 1; there were no significant differences in age or PSA between the cancer patients and control subjects. For the validation study, we measured a subset of the potential biomarkers – namely, miR-125b, miR-141, miR-153, miR-200b, miR-200c, miR-203, miR-215, miR-30a, miR-34c, miR-363-3p, miR-375, miR-449a, miR-96 and miR-99a – by qRT-PCR. We focused on miRNAs that were elevated in cancer for two reasons: i) known PCA-associated miRNAs were identified in this group and ii) to counter the possibility that miRNAs detected at lower concentrations in cancer were an artefact of the lower total miRNA read count in this group. The geometric mean of three small RNAs – miR-16, U6 and RNU48 (SNORD48) – that were stably expressed in the clinical samples (data not shown) was used for normalisation purposes. miRNAs with a detection rate <80% (miR-141, miR-153, miR-215, miR-34c, miR-363-3p, miR-449a and miR-96) were excluded from further analysis. Of the remaining seven miRNAs, miR-200b, miR-200c, miR-30a, miR-375 and miR-99a were present at significantly higher levels in the cancer samples (Fig. 1D). Hierarchical clustering based on these miRNAs yielded two major branches (Fig. 1E), one of which was characterised by higher levels of the SF miRNAs and was largely composed of men with biopsy-proven disease and the other characterised by lower SF miRNA levels and men with negative biopsies. These findings support the concept that individual SF miRNAs or an SF miRNA signature could be useful diagnostic tools.

To further evaluate the diagnostic potential of SF-derived miR-200b, miR-200c, miR-30a, miR-375 and miR-99a, we performed receiver-operating characteristic (ROC) analysis. All of the miRNAs were able to more accurately discriminate between cancer and non-cancer samples than serum PSA (Fig. 1F). However, miR-200b was the only significantly discriminate marker in a model generated by forward stepwise logistic regression ($P=0.015$). The lack of an additive diagnostic benefit when considering multiple miRNAs could be explained by strong positive correlations in their levels; by contrast, none of the miRNAs were correlated with serum PSA (data not shown). A combination of miR-200b and serum PSA (area under the curve (AUC) = 0.751) was significantly ($P=0.030$) better at identifying men with cancer than PSA alone (AUC=0.555), suggesting that SF miR-200b could provide complementary diagnostic information to
current clinical tests. Moreover, SF miR-200b could distinguish between a group of men without cancer or with Gleason score (GS) 6 cancer and another group of men with GS ≥7 cancer (AUC = 0.666, P = 0.030), indicating that this marker may have prognostic potential.

To further assess the biological relevance of the putative SF miRNA biomarkers, we interrogated a publically available dataset from The Cancer Genome Atlas, which contains miRNA expression data for prostate tumours and patient-matched benign tissues (n = 50 of each). The five putative SF miRNA biomarkers were expressed in both malignant and benign samples, and all were significantly elevated in cancer (Fig. 1G). This analysis suggests that the miRNAs identified in this study are likely to be derived from prostatic tumour cells within the SF.

Biomarkers that can accurately detect PCa at an early stage and identify aggressive disease subtypes are urgently required to improve patient management. In this study, we provide proof-of-principle that SF cellular material from patients is a potentially useful source of miRNA diagnostic biomarkers. Specifically, SF-derived miR-200b, miR-200c, miR-30a, miR-375 and miR-99a were found at higher levels in men with elevated PSA levels and biopsy-proven cancer compared with men with elevated PSA levels but no cancer. Moreover, SF miR-200b was also associated with Gleason score and therefore may have prognostic value. Further investigation of these potential biomarkers in a larger cohort is now warranted.

Robust and validated SF-derived miRNA diagnostic biomarkers could potentially be useful in a number of clinical scenarios. First, the complementary information provided by such markers may help to guide the urgency of biopsy for men with elevated serum PSA levels or a concerning DRE result. For example, men with low levels of SF PCa miRNA biomarkers such as miR-200b may benefit from postponing biopsy and vice versa. In such a situation, SF miRNAs could be used in combination with other emerging molecular tools, such as urine TMPRSS2:ERG and PCA3 (Tomlins et al. 2011), to provide a more robust appraisal of the likelihood of clinically significant disease. Secondly, SF miRNAs could have a role as a non-invasive tool for monitoring men in active surveillance regimens, a management approach now adopted worldwide for low-risk PCa (Dall’Era et al. 2012). While the advantages of active surveillance are clear, it can be compromised by serum PSA testing, biopsy undersampling and molecular heterogeneity of historically inapparent multifocal disease (Haas et al. 2007, Dall’Era et al. 2012). SF miRNA measurements could be used to help determine if or when to proceed with curative interventions by providing an additional measure of global prostatic pathology, with a clear advantage of repeated and non-invasive sampling.

A limitation of this study is the size of the validation cohort, which did not permit robust associations between SF miRNAs and clinical parameters within the cancer group. We are in the process of accruing a larger, more representative cohort of samples to validate the findings from this study. Nevertheless, we believe that our findings provide a solid platform for the future investigation of SF-derived miRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers of PCa.

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Declaration of interest
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References


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