

cell proliferation. It seems reasonable to consider a possibility that some of the non-mutagenic carcinogens exert their action by epigenetic mechanisms. In this context, epigenomic analysis seems essential in toxicology, which has just started. Unfortunately, few reliable and sensitive methods specifically designed for toxicological analysis have been reported yet, and ordinary procedures for epigenetic and epigenomic analysis are used also for toxicological analysis. Their brief principles and efforts in development of convenient assay systems are described.

5.1 Principles of DNA Methylation Analysis

Methods can be divided into those for analysis of specific genomic regions and those for genome-wide analyses. DNA methylation at specific genomic regions is analyzed mainly based upon two principles of methylation detection; methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes, and bisulfite modification of DNA (Figure 8). Some restriction enzymes, such as *HpaII* and *SmaI*, have recognition sequences with CpG sites, and cannot cleave if the CpG site is methylated. Bisulfite

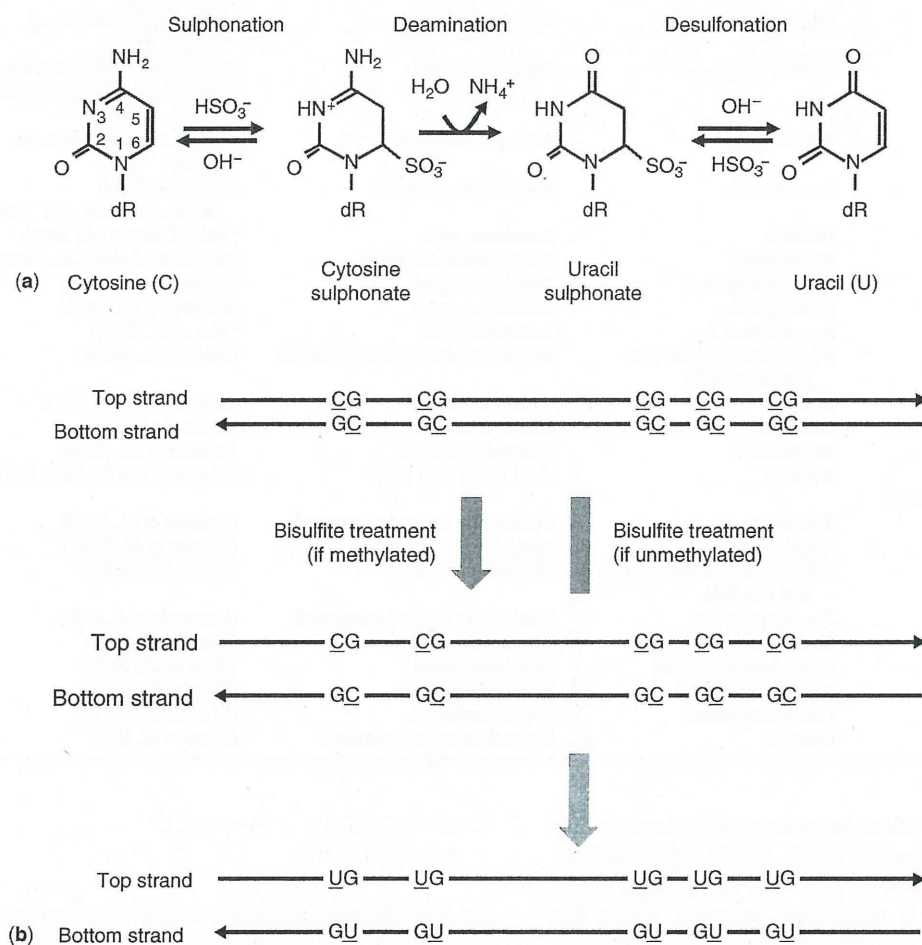


Figure 8. Principle of bisulfite modification: (a) chemical reactions for unmethylated cytosine; (b) sequence changes produced by bisulfite modification of methylated and unmethylated DNA. Different sequences are produced from methylated and unmethylated DNA, and the difference can be detected by various modalities.

modification takes advantage of different efficiency in converting cytosine to uracil, which is very efficient for unmethylated cytosines but very slow for methylated cytosines. After bisulfite conversion, the top and bottom strands are no longer complementary. Methylated and unmethylated DNA will produce different sequences after the conversion, and the difference can be detected by various techniques, such as sequencing, allele-specific PCR, restriction digestion, and pyrosequencing. Depending upon the purpose of experiments, appropriate techniques should be selected, considering the required amount of DNA, flexibility in selection of CpG sites to analyze, how quantitative the method is, technical complexity, and the cost.

Genome-wide analyses are generally composed of a step of detection of DNA methylation and another step of genome-wide analysis (Ushijima, 2005; Laird, 2010). The methylation detection can be performed using affinity-based methods, such as use of anti 5-methylcytidine antibody and affinity column with methylated DNA binding domains, but also using methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes and bisulfite conversion. The detection step can be performed using microarray or next-generation sequencers.

5.2 Principles of Histone Modification Analysis

Methods for histone modification analysis can be divided into: (i) those for analysis of global contents of histone modifications within a cell; (ii) those for analysis of histone modifications for a defined genomic region; (iii) those for histone modifications of defined genomic regions in a genome-wide manner. Global contents of histone modifications within a cell are mainly analyzed by immunohistochemistry and Western blotting. In contrast, histone modifications in defined genomic regions are analyzed by chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP). All of these methods are based upon the recognition of histone modifications by antibodies, and their specificity is critical for successful analysis.

The ChIP method can detect physical interactions between histones containing a specific modification and genomic DNA within a cell (Figure 9). The ChIP method is composed of four steps including: (i) preparation of fragmented chromatin from cells; (ii) immunoprecipitation by using a specific

antibody; (iii) purification of immunoprecipitated (IP) DNA; (iv) analysis of IP DNA (Lee *et al.*, 2006). Fragmented chromatin is usually prepared by cross-linking DNA and histones by formaldehyde, followed by a fragmentation step by sonication or micrococcal nuclease. Immunoprecipitation is performed using a specific antibody, and then the immuno-complex of chromatin and antibody is collected and purified. IP DNA is analyzed by PCR of a specific genomic region, or by microarray or next-generation sequencers for a genome-wide analysis (Barski *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et al.*, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2008).

5.3 Screening Methods for Epimutagens

A major reason why only a limited number of chemicals are reported to have epigenetic actions (see Section 4.6) is the lack of easy-to-use assay systems for chemicals' capacity to induce epigenetic alterations. For mutagens, there are various *in vitro* assays, using bacterial cultures or mammalian cells, and also *in vivo* assays using genetically-engineered animals (MacGregor, Casciano and Muller, 2000) (Table 3). In contrast, very limited assay systems are available for epimutagens. To construct an assay system for epimutagens, considerations should be given to what target genomic region is used as a marker for epigenetic effects, such as DNA demethylation and methylation, and what reporter

Table 3. Characteristics of assay systems for mutations and epigenetic alterations.

Mutation assays		Assays for epigenetic alterations
Bacterial system	<i>Reversion in S. typhimurium</i> (Ames test)	Essentially impossible
Mammalian cell	<i>HPRT</i> or <i>TK</i> mutations Chromosome aberration test Mouse lymphoma assay Measurement of UDS	Under development (see text)
<i>In vivo</i> Assay	Micronucleus test Mouse specific locus test Tg mice for a marker gene (Big Blue, <i>gpt-Δ</i> , Muta-mouse etc.)	Not available yet

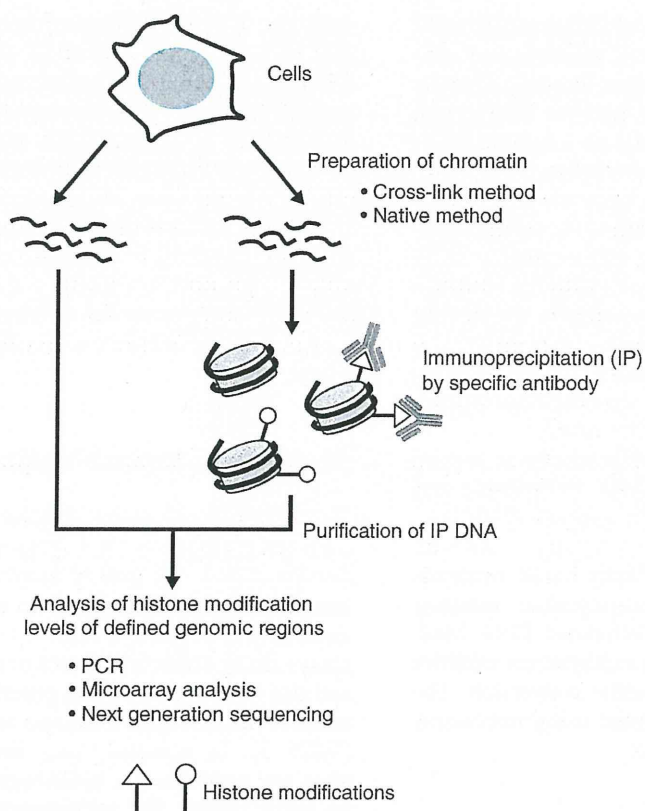


Figure 9. Principle of chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP). Fragmented chromatin is prepared, and then immunoprecipitated (IP) by using a specific antibody. DNA purified from the IP chromatin is used for analysis of histone modification levels for defined genomic regions by several technologies such as PCR, microarray, and next generation sequencing.

system is used. For screening purposes, a convenient and reliable assay system is essential.

So far, assay systems only for DNA demethylating agents have been reported. Three systems have been reported using a promoter of an exogenous gene and a reporter gene (Biard *et al.*, 1992; Cervoni and Szyf, 2001; Fan *et al.*, 2005). Among these, Fan *et al.*, 2005 successfully identified 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) as an anti-silencing agent without changing DNA methylation status. These exogenous promoters have a concern that they have epigenetic modifications different from endogenous genes. From this aspect, two assay systems are reported using a promoter of an endogenous gene (Okochi-Takada *et al.*, 2004; Oyer *et al.*, 2009). In addition to these efforts to use specific exogenous and endogenous promoters, hypomethylation of repeat sequences is also proposed as

a precursor of toxicity (Carnell and Goodman, 2003).

6 EPILOGUE

Epigenomic alterations are important for cancer and possibly for other disorders. Nevertheless, epigenomic toxicology has just started, and scientists are not armed well yet. Application of findings in epigenetics and epigenomics to toxicology is now an exciting task.

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Analysis of Gene-specific DNA Methylation

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INTRODUCTION

Gene- or region-specific DNA methylation analysis is necessary in various situations, and a variety of methods are available. It is important to become familiar with the characteristics of each technique, including the required amount of DNA, flexibility in selection of CpG sites to analyze, how quantitative the technique is, technical complexity, and the cost (Table 8.1). For example, if one wants to analyze DNA methylation as a cause of gene silencing, a specific region that controls gene expression should be analyzed [1], and a method with flexibility in selecting a region to analyze should be used. If one aims for diagnostic applications, a method that is highly accurate should be adopted.

In this chapter, we first introduce principles of DNA methylation analysis, and then summarize characteristics of individual methods. Finally, we will provide tips necessary to perform bisulfite sequencing, methylation-specific PCR (MSP), and quantitative MSP.

PRINCIPLES OF DNA METHYLATION ANALYSIS

DNA methylation can be analyzed based on several principles that differentially recognize 5-methylcytosine (C^m) from cytosine (C). The first principle depends upon methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes whose activity is affected by the presence of a methyl group on a cytosine at a CpG site(s) within restriction sites (Fig. 8.1A). The vast majority of methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes, such as *HpaII* and *SmaI*, are inactive on methylated CpG sites, but a unique methylation-sensitive restriction enzyme, *McrBC*, is inactive on unmethylated CpG sites. Differential cleavage can be detected by Southern-blot hybridization.

The second principle depends on bisulfite-mediated DNA conversion. This treatment converts unmethylated C into uracil (U) very rapidly, whereas it converts methylated C extremely slowly [2]. Under optimized conditions, a difference in methylation status of a CpG site can be converted into a difference of sequence, UpG or CpG. Once a difference of methylation status is converted into a difference of DNA sequence, it can be detected by various techniques, such as bisulfite sequencing, methylation-specific PCR (MSP), real-time MSP, combined bisulfite restriction analysis (COBRA), pyrosequencing, and MassARRAY® analysis (Table 8.1).

Third, methylated cytosines can be specifically recognized by an anti-methylcytidine antibody or a methylated DNA binding (MBD) protein. After appropriate shearing of DNA,