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Research article

Characterization of the dehydrogenase-reductase DHRS2 and its involvement in histone deacetylase inhibition in urological malignancies

Melanie R. Müller^{a,b,1}, Aaron Burmeister^{a,b,1}, Margaretha A. Skowron^{a,b,1}, Alexa Stephan^{a,b}, Christian Söhnngen^{a,b}, Philipp Wollnitzke^c, Patrick Petzsch^d, Leandro A. Alves Avelar^e, Thomas Kurz^e, Karl Köhrer^d, Bodo Levkau^c, Daniel Nettersheim^{a,b,*}

^a Department of Urology, Urological Research Laboratory, Translational UroOncology, Medical Faculty and University Hospital Düsseldorf, Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Germany

^b Center for Integrated Oncology Aachen Bonn Cologne Düsseldorf (CIO ABCD), Düsseldorf, Germany

^c Institute of Molecular Medicine III, University Hospital Düsseldorf, Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Germany

^d Genomics and Transcriptomics Laboratory (GTL), Biological and Medical Research Center (BMFZ), Medical Faculty and University Hospital Düsseldorf, Heinrich Heine University, Germany

^e Department of Pharmaceutical and Medical Chemistry, Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf, Düsseldorf, Germany

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ABSTRACT

Background: Being implicated during tumor migration, invasion, clonogenicity, and proliferation, the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)/-phosphate (NADP)-dependent dehydrogenase/reductase member 2 (DHRS2) has been considered to be induced upon inhibition of histone deacetylases (HDACi). In this study, we evaluated the current knowledge on the underlying mechanisms of the (epi)genetic regulation of *DHRS2*, as well as its function during tumor progression.

Methods: *DHRS2* expression was evaluated on mRNA- and protein-level upon treatment with HDACi by means of qRT-PCR and western blot analyses, respectively. Re-analysis of RNA-sequencing data gained insight into expression of specific *DHRS2* isoforms, while re-analysis of ATAC-sequencing data shed light on the chromatin accessibility at the *DHRS2* locus. Further examination of the energy and lipid metabolism of HDACi-treated urologic tumor cells was performed using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry.

Results: Enhanced *DHRS2* expression levels upon HDACi treatment were directly linked to an enhanced chromatin accessibility at the *DHRS2* locus. Particularly the *DHRS2* ENST00000250383.11 protein-coding isoform was increased upon HDACi treatment. Application of the HDACi quisinostat only mildly influenced the energy metabolism of urologic tumor cells, though, the analysis of the lipid metabolism showed diminished sphingosine levels, as well as decreased S1P levels. Also the ratios of S1P/sphingosine and S1P/ceramides were reduced in all four quisinostat-treated urologic tumor cells.

Conclusions: With the emphasis on urologic malignancies (testicular germ cell tumors, urothelial, prostate, and renal cell carcinoma), this study concluded that elevated *DHRS2* levels are indicative of a successful HDACi treatment and, thereby offering a novel putative predictive biomarker.

1. Background

The dehydrogenase/reductase member 2 (DHRS2), previously known as Hep27 due to its isolation from HepG2 hepatocellular carcinoma cells by Donadel et al., in 1991 [1], is a member of the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)/-phosphate (NADP)-dependent

short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR) protein family [2,3]. Located on chromosome 14q11.2, a region frequently deleted in different tumor entities, *DHRS2* has been ascribed a fundamental role during the progression of cancer [3]. As such, forced *DHRS2* expression significantly reduced tumor growth of ovarian carcinoma and nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells *in vitro* and *in vivo* [4,5]. Also in lung

* Corresponding author. Department of Urology Medical Research Center I, Urological Research Laboratory, Translational UroOncology, Medical Faculty and University Hospital Düsseldorf, Heinrich Heine University, Moorenstraße, 5 40225, Düsseldorf, Germany.

E-mail address: Daniel.Nettersheim@med.uni-duesseldorf.de (D. Nettersheim).

¹ contributed equally.

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carcinoma, *DHRS2*-overexpressing cells had a reduced ability of migration, invasion, clonogenicity, and proliferation [6]. Vice versa, low *DHRS2* levels were associated with a significantly worse outcome of patients suffering from esophageal squamous cell carcinoma [7]. This study focuses on the current knowledge on the (epigenetic) regulation and function of *DHRS2* in urologic malignancies, such as testicular germ cell tumors (GCT), as well as urothelial, prostate, and renal cell carcinoma (UC, PC, RCC).

2. Methods

2.1. Cell culture and standard laboratory techniques

GCT, UC, RCC, and PC cell lines were cultured in the conditions described in Table S1 A and were checked for *Mycoplasma* contamination as well as authenticity (short tandem repeats (STR) profiles). Further standard laboratory techniques, such as cDNA synthesis, qRT-PCR, and western blot analyses have been described elsewhere [8–11]. See Table S1 B–D for detailed information on the utilized drugs, oligos, and antibodies, respectively. Synthesis of the novel HDACi LAK31, KSK64, and MPK409 has been described previously [9].

2.2. Re-analysis of RNA-sequencing data

The RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) has been performed at the ‘Core Facility: Genomics & Transcriptomics’ (Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf, Germany) as described previously and has been re-analyzed for the purpose of this study (GSE190022, GSE189472) [9,10].

2.3. Assay for transposase-accessible chromatin using sequencing

The assay for transposase-accessible chromatin using sequencing (ATAC-seq) was performed by Active Motif and the data was published elsewhere [9]. The visualization was enabled using the ‘Integrated Genome Browser’ (<https://bioviz.org>) [12]. The ATAC-seq data are publicly available via GEO and were re-analyzed in the context of this study (GSE191184).

2.4. Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)

Chromatographic separation was performed on a LCMS-8050 triple quadrupole mass spectrometer (Shimadzu Deutschland GmbH, Duisburg, Germany) with a Dual Ion Source and a Nexera X3 Front-End-System (Shimadzu Deutschland GmbH). Chromatographic separation for S1P were performed with a 2×60 mm MultoHigh 100 RP18-3 μ m column (CS Chromatographie Service, Langerwehe, Germany) at 40 °C. Mobile phases consisted of [A] MeOH and [B] aq. HCO₂H (1 % v/v) and the following gradient settings were used: [A] increased from 10 % to 100 % over 3 min (B.curve = −2) and returned to 10 % from 8.01 min to 10 min prior next injection. Flow rate was 0.4 ml/min and injection volume of all samples was 10 μ l. MS settings were the following: Interface: ESI, nebulizing gas flow: 3 l/min, heating gas flow: 10 l/min, interface temperature: 300 °C, desolvation temperature: 526 °C, DL temperature: 250 °C, heat block temperature: 400 °C, drying gas flow: 10 l/min. Data were collected using multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) and positive ionization [M+H]⁺ was used for qualitative analysis and quantification. The following MRM transitions were used for quantification: $m/z = 380 \rightarrow 264$ or 82 for S1P ($R_t = 2.67$ min) and $m/z = 366 \rightarrow 250$ for C₁₇ S1P ($R_t = 2.55$ min). Standard curves were generated by measuring increased amounts of analytes (10 nM–50 μ M S1P; Avanti Polar Lipids Inc., Alabaster, AL, USA) with internal standard (100 nM C₁₇ S1P) in MeOH. Chromatographic separation of ceramides were performed with a 2×60 mm MultoHigh-C₁₈ RP column with 3 μ m particle size at 40 °C. Mobile phases consisted of [A] MeOH and [B] aq. HCO₂H (1 % v/v) and the following gradient settings were used: [A] increased from 10 % to 100 % over 3 min (B.curve = −2) and returned to

10 % from 8.01 min to 10 min prior next injection. MS settings were the following: Interface: APCI, nebulizing gas flow: 2.4 l/min, heating gas flow: 3 l/min, interface temperature: 300 °C, desolvation temperature: 526 °C, DL temperature: 250 °C, heat block temperature: 400 °C, drying gas flow: 3 l/min. Flow rate was 0.4 ml/min. Standard curves were generated by measuring increased amounts (100 fmol – 50 pmol) of external standards (Cer_{14:0}, Cer_{16:0}, Cer_{18:0}, Cer_{18:1}, Cer_{20:0}, Cer_{22:0}, Cer_{24:0}, Cer_{24:1}; Avanti Polar Lipids Inc.) with internal standard (3 pmol Cer_{15:0}; Avanti Polar Lipids Inc.) in methanol. Injection volume of all samples was 10 μ l. Data were collected using multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) and positive ionization was used for qualitative analysis and quantification. MRM fragment ions used for quantification were $m/z = 264$ for Cer and $m/z = 284$ for dHCer. Linearity of standard curves and correlation coefficients were obtained by linear regression analysis. Metabolome primary data were analyzed and further processed with LabSolutions 5.99 (Shimadzu Deutschland GmbH) and further processed in Microsoft Excel. 1 pmol S1P/Mio RBC equals 21 μ mol/l S1P calculated based on a MCV of 47.5 fl.

2.5. Online analysis tools and statistical analyses

The TCGA (‘The Cancer Genome Atlas’) cohort was analyzed using ‘cBioportal’ (<https://www.cbioportal.org/>) [13], the ‘Xena Functional Genomics Explorer’ (<https://xenabrowser.net/>) [14], and the ‘Gene Expression Profiling Interactive Analysis’ (GEPIA) tool (<http://gepia.cancer-pku.cn/>) [15]. The ‘MusiteDeep’ deep-learning framework (<https://www.musite.net/>) was utilized for the prediction of protein post-translational modification sites [16]. Protein interactions were visualized using the STRING protein interaction algorithm (<https://string-db.org/>) [17]. Graphical illustrations were designed using ‘bioicons’ (<https://bioicons.com/>). Differences between groups were analyzed using a two-tailed Student’s t-test and highlighted by asterisks (* = $p < 0.05$).

3. Results

3.1. HDAC inhibition increases chromatin accessibility of the *DHRS2* locus eventually enhancing *DHRS2* expression

According to the TCGA pan-cancer cohorts, 69 mutations (0.6 % in 10433 evaluated cases) have been noted within the genomic locus of *DHRS2* (NM_005794, ENST00000250383), mostly missense single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) and deletions (Fig. 1 A; Data S1 A). Further, two fusions were found in the bladder cancer cohorts, namely *DHRS2-GAPDH* and a *DHRS2-IL25* fusion (Fig. 1 A; Data S1 A).

Ten isoforms of the *DHRS2* gene can be transcribed, of which six are protein coding (ENST00000250383.11, ENST00000344777.11, ENST00000611765.4, ENST00000557535.5, ENST00000553600.1, ENST00000432832.6). Using the ‘Xena Functional Genomics Explorer’, it could be shown that particularly the *DHRS2* isoforms ENST00000250383.10 and ENST00000557535.5 were expressed in GCT, UC, PC, RCC as well as their corresponding normal tissues (Fig. 1 B). Based on the GEPIA tool, high levels of *DHRS2* were found in adrenocortical-, breast invasive-, head and neck squamous cell carcinoma, kidney chromophobe, pheochromocytoma and paraganglioma, rectum adenocarcinoma, skin cutaneous melanoma, and thymoma as compared to their respective non-cancerous tissues. Contrariwise, lower *DHRS2* levels were seen in acute myeloid leukemia, ovarian serous cystadenocarcinoma, and GCT in comparison to the corresponding normal tissues, thereby indicating putative different functional roles of *DHRS2* during cancer progression (Fig. 1 C).

Two alternative *DHRS2* promoter regions were identified, of which one was inducible by the HDACi butyrate in HepG2, THP-1, HT-29, and CaCo-2 cells [18]. HDACi modify the accessibility of the chromatin by inhibiting enzymes responsible for removing acetyl groups, causing an accumulation of histone acetylation and resulting in transcriptional



Fig. 1. Mutational landscape, isoforms, and expression levels of *DHRS2* in tumor tissues. **A)** Mutational landscape of *DHRS2* in 32 studies including 10.433 samples of the TCGA and visualized using cBioPortal. **B)** *DHRS2* isoform percentages found in the TCGA TGCT, bladder cancer (BLCA), prostate cancer (PRAD), kidney renal cell carcinoma (KIRC), kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma (KIRP), and kidney chromophobe (KICH) cohorts (purple) in comparison to the respective GTEx normal tissues (blue). Visualized using the 'Xena Functional Genomics Explorer'. qRT-PCR strategy for the detection of various exons depicted as colored arrows. **C)** *DHRS2* expression levels in several tumor entities (red) compared to respective non-cancerous normal tissues (green) from the TCGA and the GTEx cohorts as evaluated using the GEPIA tool.

hyperactivation [19–21]. Using ATAC-seq of quisinostat-treated 2102 EP embryonal carcinoma (EC) cells, an enhanced accessibility of the genomic *DHRS2* locus was observed (Fig. 2 A). In contrast, DNA methylation seems to play a subordinate role during the HDACi-mediated upregulation of *DHRS2* expression [22]. We further evaluated the *DHRS2* expression in 13 cell lines of various urologic tumor entities (GCT, UC, PC, RCC) treated with the HDACi quisinostat, romidepsin, SAHA/vorinostat, entinostat, LAK31, KSK64, or MPK409 (Fig. 2 B). As such, *DHRS2* levels were enhanced in most of the urologic tumor cell lines (TCam-2, 2102 EP, JAR, GCT72, VM-CUB-1, RT-112, SCaBER, Caki-1, 786-O, ACHN DU-145, PC-3, and LNCaP) treated with the HDACi (Fig. 2 B). Hence, the induction of the *DHRS2* expression can be assumed to be a direct result of a hyperacetylated *DHRS2* locus (Fig. 2 A, B), which has also been previously reported [22,23]. We further re-evaluated RNA-seq data of 2102EP EC cells treated with the HDACi quisinostat or LAK31, as well as VM-CUB-1 (UC), Caki-1 (RCC), and DU-145 (PC) treated with LAK31 with regard to isoform-specific changes in *DHRS2* expression (GSE190022, GSE189472) [9,10]. Treatment with quisinostat or LAK31 resulted in enhanced expression of the protein-coding isoforms *ENST00000553600.1*, *ENST00000557535.5*, *ENST00000250383.11* and *ENST00000344777.11*, as well as the non-protein-coding isoforms *ENST00000556729.1* and *ENST00000556701.5* (Fig. 2 C, D). The highest increase in expression was observed for the *DHRS2* *ENST00000250383.11* isoform (Fig. 2 C, D). Using a qRT-PCR-based strategy, we further analyzed the expression

of the different *DHRS2* isoforms in 2102EP EC cells treated with either quisinostat, romidepsin or LAK31 (Figs. 1 B, 2 E). In accordance with the RNA-seq data, elevated expression levels of *DHRS2* exon 2/3c, representing the protein-coding isoforms *ENST00000250383.11* and *ENST00000344777.11*, as well as the non-protein-coding isoform *ENST00000556701.5*, were detected in HDACi-treated 2102EP cells (Fig. 2 E). Also on protein levels, elevated *DHRS2* levels were observed in quisinostat-treated 2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1 and PC-3 cells (Fig. 2 F).

3.2. HDACi-induced *DHRS2* levels correlate with a pro-apoptotic lipid metabolism

Being located in the cytoplasm, nucleus, and mitochondria, the physiological function of *DHRS2* is diverse ranging from the (a) regulation of lipid metabolism by increasing oleic acid and elaidic acid concentrations [2,5], (b) interruption of the choline metabolism [4], (c) (NRF2-dependent) cytoprotection against reactive oxygen species (ROS) [24] to (d) diminished NADP/NADPH ratios [7].

So far, it is not known which role the *DHRS2* deregulation plays in the mechanism of action of HDACi. Hence, we aimed at understanding the causality of elevated *DHRS2* levels upon HDACi treatment. The STRING protein interaction algorithm further indicated SHB/D (phosphotyrosine residue binding activity), P3H3 (collagen biosynthesis), TYRP1 (melanin biosynthesis), TTC3 (ubiquitin-dependent protein

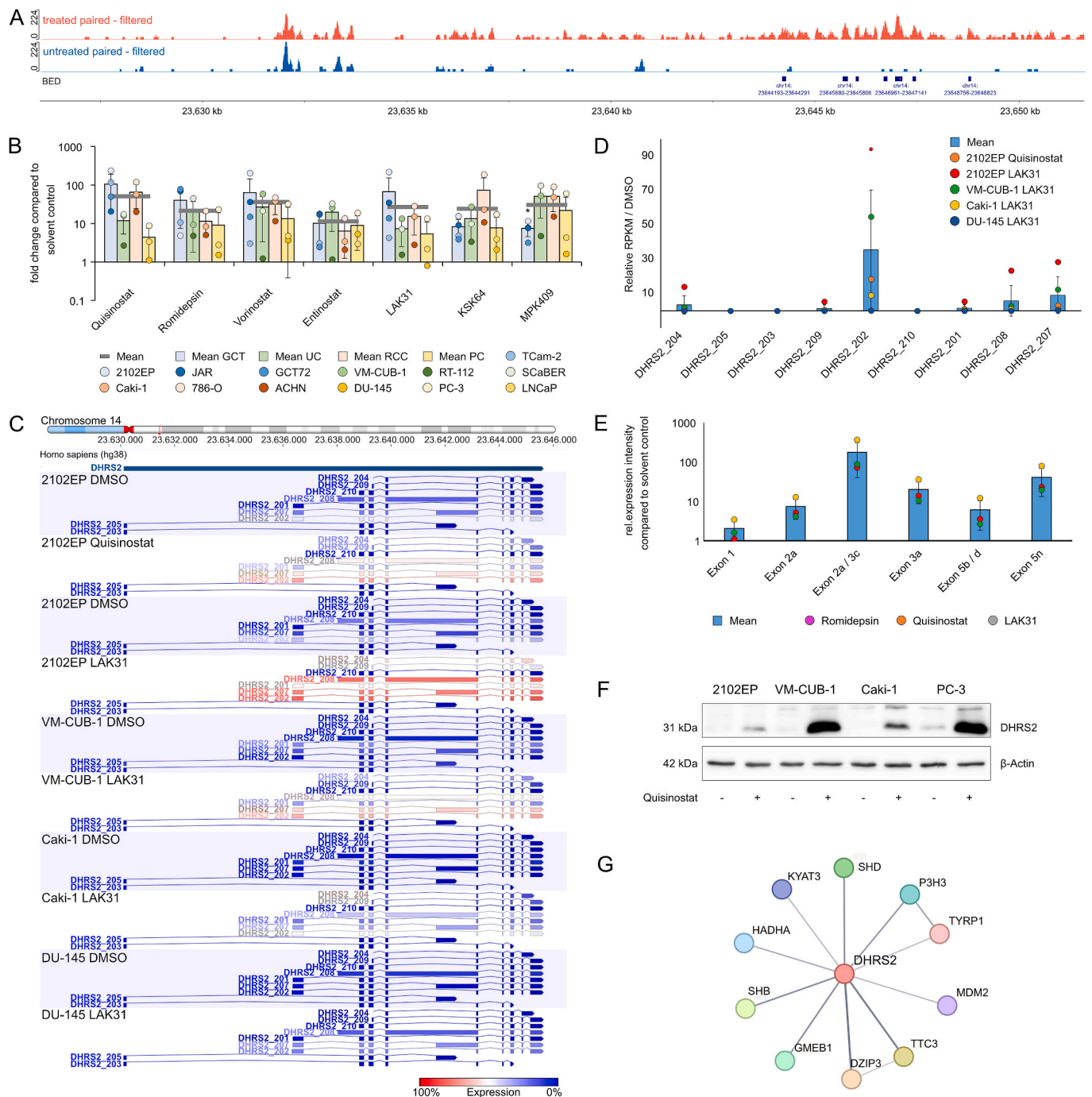


Fig. 2. Induction of *DHRS2* expression upon HDAC inhibition in urological malignancies. A) Genomic *DHRS2* locus of 2102EP cells after LAK31 application (red) as compared to the solvent control (blue) as measured by ATAC-seq. B) *DHRS2* expression of urologic tumor cells (TCam-2, 2102EP, JAR, GCT72, VM-CUB-1, RT-112, SCaBER, DU-145, PC-3, LNCaP, Caki-1, 786-O, and ACHN) treated with different HDACi (quisinostat, romidepsin, SAHA/vorinostat, entinostat, LAK31, KSK64, or MPK409) for 16 h (LD₅₀) in comparison to their solvent control (DMSO) as evaluated by qRT-PCR. *ACTB* and *GAPDH* served as housekeeping genes. C) Detailed re-analysis of RNA-seq data to identify deregulated *DHRS2* isoforms of quisinostat-treated 2102EP cells (16 h) and LAK31-treated 2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, and DU-145 cells (24 h) as compared to their solvent control (DMSO). D) Bar graph of the RPKM-values observed in (C). E) qRT-PCR of the different *DHRS2* exons of HDACi (quisinostat, romidepsin, LAK31)-treated 2102EP cells (16 h) as compared to their solvent control (DMSO). *ACTB* and *GAPDH* served as housekeeping genes. F) Western blot analyses indicating *DHRS2* protein levels of 2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, and PC-3 cells treated for 24 h (LD₅₀) with quisinostat or the solvent control (DMSO). β-Actin served as a loading control. G) STRING interaction analyses of proteins putatively interacting with *DHRS2*. Two-tailed Student's t-tests were performed to test for significance; **p* < 0.05.

catabolic process), DZIP3 (protein polyubiquitination), GMEB1 (glucocorticoid response), HADHA (mitochondrial beta-oxidation of long chain fatty acids), and KYAT3 (tryptophan metabolism) as putatively *DHRS2*-interacting proteins (Fig. 2 G). Next, we evaluated potential post-translational modifications (PTM) in the *DHRS2* protein. According

to the MusiteDeep deep-learning platform, histone PTM, such as ubiquitinations (K31, L69), SUMOylation (K147), N6-acetyllysine (K96, K206, K219), or N-linked glycosylation (N186, N229) were predicted to affect *DHRS2* (Table 1). However, to our knowledge further validation as well as functional analyses of PTM in *DHRS2* are still lacking.

Table 1
Protein PTM site prediction for DHRS2 using the MusiteDeep deep-learning framework (<https://www.musite.net/>) [16].

PTM	Score	Position	Residue
Methylarginine	0.612	7	R
Ubiquitination	0.658	31	K
Ubiquitination	0.700	69	K
Phosphoserine	0.509	86	S
N6-acetyllysine	0.730	96	K
SUMOylation	0.603	147	K
N-linked glycosylation	0.894	186	N
N6-acetyllysine	0.554	206	K
N6-acetyllysine	0.779	219	K
N-linked glycosylation	0.901	229	N

Being an NADPH-dependent dicarbonylreductase, *DHRS2*-overexpressing KYSE510 cells indicated a decreased NADP/NADPH ratio as compared to the controls. Vice versa, a shRNA-mediated silencing of *DHRS2* in KYSE180 and HKESC1 cells resulted in an enhanced ratio of NADP/NADPH [7]. NADPH is known to maintain reduced glutathione levels, thereby preventing the development of ROS. While an increase in NADP⁺, NADPH, NAD⁺ and NADH has been observed in KRAS-mutant non-small-cell lung cancer cells upon treatment with the HDACi ACY1215 as compared to the control [25], we rather noted marginal changes in all NAD cofactors in quisinostat-treated urologic tumor cells (Fig. 3 A, B; Data S1 B). Further evaluation of the metabolic condition of tumor cells treated with quisinostat revealed commonly enhanced levels of uridine, while inosine levels differed tremendously in a cell line dependent manner. Other factors involved during energy metabolism, such as xanthosine, tryptophan, adenosine, or the ATP/ADP ratio remained rather unchanged (Fig. 3 A, B; Data S1 B).

Previously, enhanced HDACi-mediated upregulation of *DHRS2* expression was linked to increased *CKB* levels, another important factor during cellular energy metabolism [22]. During the *de novo* synthesis of sphingolipids, sphinganine is catalyzed by a ceramide synthase to generate dihydroceramide, which can subsequently be converted to ceramide by a desaturase. Further, ceramide can be converted to (a) ceramide-1-phosphate (C1P) via the ceramide kinase, (b) glucosylceramide by glucosylceramide synthase, (c) sphingomyelin (SM) via the sphingomyelin synthase, or (d) sphingosine by ceramidase. The latter can be further converted to sphingosine-1-phosphate (S1P) by sphingosine kinases (SphK) [26].

To further decipher the potential role of *DHRS2*-induction upon HDACi treatment, we performed a liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS)-based approach to characterize the lipidomics of HDACi-treated urologic tumor cells (2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, PC-3). As such, we observed elevated sphingosine levels in all four quisinostat-treated tumor cells, while reduced levels of S1P were seen (Fig. 3C). Hence, the S1P/sphingosine ratio was significantly diminished upon quisinostat treatment (Fig. 3 D; Data S1 C). This is in accordance with previous descriptions of sphingosines resulting in enhanced apoptosis induction [27]. Evaluating the ‘sphingolipid rheostat’, a diminished S1P/ceramide ratio was observed in all four quisinostat-treated urologic tumor cells (Fig. 3 D; Data S1 C), thereby representing a pro-apoptotic ceramide generation [28]. These observations were further validated on mRNA level where an induction of the pro-apoptotic factors *APAF1*, *BAK1*, and *NOXA* in correspondence with a downregulation of the anti-apoptotic factors *BCL2* and *BIRC5* was noted in most of the evaluated quisinostat-treated tumor cells in comparison to their respective solvent control (Fig. 3 E). A closer look into the specific SM and ceramide types indicated a rather heterogeneous outcome (Fig. 3C; Data S1 C). Though, the pro-tumoral SM_{38:1} and SM_{38:2} were often diminished in urologic tumor cells upon treatment with quisinostat. While most of the evaluated ceramides were reduced upon quisinostat treatment in 2102EP cells (Cer_{14:0;16:0;18:0;22:0;24:0;24:1}), Caki-1 cells indicated elevated ceramide levels (Fig. 3C; Data S1 C), thereby offering a tumor

type specific therapeutic approach in combination with HDACi, which could be in part be explained by the elevated *DHRS2* levels.

4. Discussion

Functionally, upon translocation of the mitochondrial *DHRS2* to the nucleus, *DHRS2* is known to inhibit the MDM2-dependent degradation of p53, eventually resulting in p53 stabilization via enhanced S15 phosphorylation, thereby implying a regulatory role of *DHRS2* on cell cycle and apoptosis (Fig. 3 F) [29]. As such, a HOXA13-dependent decrease of *DHRS2* expression resulted in increased *MDM2* expression, followed by enhanced p53 degradation [30]. Though, phosphorylation of p53 (S15) remained rather unchanged in GCT cell lines treated with romidepsin or quisinostat [10,31]. Also reduced phosphorylation of Rb (S795) and p38-MAPK (T180/Y182) was noted in *DHRS2*-overexpressing KYSE510 and KYSE30 esophageal squamous cell carcinoma cell lines *in vitro* [7], while AKT phosphorylation (S473) was decreased in *DHRS2*-overexpressing OVCAR3 ovarian carcinoma cells *in vivo* [4]. Moreover, *DHRS2* was shown to be positively regulated by c-Myb in WI-38 fibroblasts [29], FOXR1 in HEK293T cells [32], and LEF1 in JURKAT T-lymphocytes [33], while being negatively regulated by miR-145-3p in TE-8 esophageal squamous cell carcinoma cells [34], polyP kinase expression in HEK293T [35], and HOXA13 in gastric cancer (Fig. 3 F) [30]. With regard to *DHRS2* regulation via changes in the epigenetic machinery, it was shown in RCC that a knockdown of the histone methyltransferase *SUV420H2* resulted in H4K20 tri-methylation within the *DHRS2* promotor region, eventually resulting in increased *DHRS2* expression [36]. Further studies, including our own (here presented) work, observed significantly enhanced *DHRS2*/*DHRS2* levels upon treatment with various HDACi, such as SAHA/vorinostat, valproic acid, entinostat, trichostatin A (TSA), MS-275, CRA-024781, LBH589, apacidin, romidepsin, quisinostat, LAK31, KSK64, MPK409, and panobinostat (Table 2) [9,10,22,31,37–43]. Of note, the *DHRS2* paralogue *DHRS4* does not seem to be implicated in the HDACi-mediated response cascade [22]. Previous studies have shown that HDACi-induced *DHRS2* expression levels correlated with enhanced H3ac [22] as well as H3K27ac [23]. The here presented study further confirmed an enhanced accessibility of the genomic *DHRS2* locus upon HDACi treatment. Currently, the HDACi SAHA/vorinostat (pan), romidepsin (HDAC1/2), belinostat (pan), panobinostat (pan), and chidamide (HDAC1/2/3/10) have been approved for clinical use [44], while ongoing clinical trials are investigating the safety, tolerability, and efficacy of the ‘second-generation’ HDACi quisinostat with first results showing high efficacy and good tolerability [45–48]. Despite their clinical use since 15 years and even though several multifactorial HDACi resistance mechanisms have been described *in vitro*, only few cases describe resistance mechanisms in the clinics [44,49]. Nevertheless, with regard to the putative development of HDACi resistance, a shRNA-mediated knock-down of *DHRS2* expression was concomitant with a diminished efficacy of SAHA treatment *in vivo* [42].

Besides *DHRS2*, other HDACi-dependent key factors have been previously identified, such as *RHOB*, *GADD45B*, *CDKN1A*, *ATF3*, *DUSP1*, *FOS*, and *ID2*, which are known to regulate stress response, apoptosis induction, and cell cycle distribution [9,22,31]. Concomitantly, lack of *DHRS2* in TCam-2 cells did not only have marginal effects on transcriptome-wide changes as compared to their parental controls, it also did not have an influence on the expression of HDACi-induced key players upon treatment with romidepsin [22], thereby suggesting *DHRS2* to act rather independently of these stress-related factors during the HDACi downstream signaling.

This study further aimed at understanding the functional role of HDACi-mediated induction of *DHRS2* levels. Hence, the energy- and lipid metabolisms were investigated pan-urologically in tumor cells treated with the HDACi quisinostat. While NAD cofactors in quisinostat-treated urologic tumor cells remained rather unchanged, the NADPH oxidase (Nox) protein family has been ascribed as are a major regulator

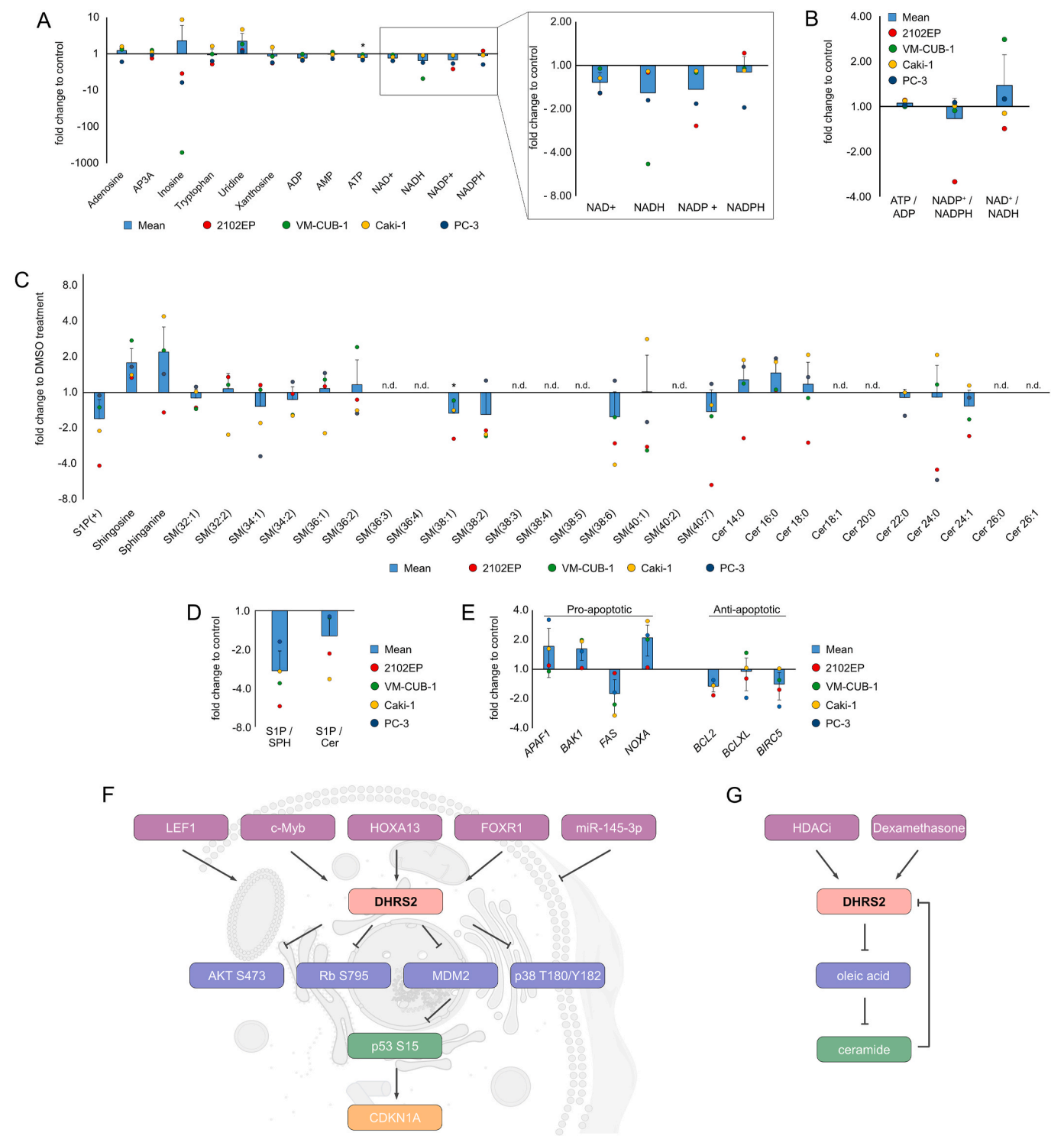


Fig. 3. Energy metabolism and lipidomics of HDACi-treated urologic tumor cells. A) Evaluation of the energy metabolism of urologic tumor cells (2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, PC-3) treated with quisinostat for 24 h (LD₅₀) as compared to the solvent control (DMSO). B) Relative ratio of ATP/ADP, NAD⁺/NADPH, and NAD⁺/NADH in quisinostat-treated urologic tumor cells (2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, PC-3) as compared to the solvent control. C) Evaluation of the lipid metabolism in 2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1 and PC-3 cells treated with quisinostat or DMSO as evaluated by means of LC-MS. D) Calculated S1P/SPH and S1P/ceramide ratios based on the findings observed in (C). E) mRNA levels of *APAF1*, *BAK1*, *FAS*, *NOXA*, *BCL2*, *BCLXL*, and *BIRC5* in urologic tumor cells (2102EP, VM-CUB-1, Caki-1, PC-3) treated with quisinostat for 24 h (LD₅₀) as compared to the solvent control (DMSO). *ACTB* and *GAPDH* served as housekeeping genes. F) Graphical summary of the functional role of DHRS2. G) Illustration of the therapeutic options involving DHRS2. Two-tailed Student's t-tests were performed to test for significance; *p < 0.05.

of ROS production. As such, decreased levels of Nox enzymes were noted in pulmonary arterial hypertension, human atherosclerosis, or HUVEC cells treated with the HDACi [50,51]. However, our transcriptome-wide analyses of romidepsin-, quisinostat-, givinostat-, SAHA- or

LAK31-treated urologic tumor cells could not confirm these observations (GSE70120, GSE190022, GSE189472) [9,10,31,41].

Regarding the evaluation of lipidomics, enhanced ceramide and sphingosine levels have been associated with diminished tumor growth

Table 2
Studies showing enhanced DHRS2-levels upon HDACi-treatment.

Tumor entity	Cell lines	HDACi	Model	Reference
Germ cell tumor	TCam-2	LAK31	<i>in vitro</i>	[9]
Urothelial carcinoma	2102EP	KSK64		
Renal cell carcinoma	JAR	MPK409		
Prostate carcinoma	GCT72			
	VM-CUB-1			
	Caki-1			
	DU-145			
Germ cell tumor	TCam-2	Quistinostat	<i>in vitro</i>	[10]
	2102EP			
	JAR			
Germ cell tumor	GCT72			
	TCam-2	Romidepsin	<i>in vitro</i>	[22]
	2102EP			
	JAR			
Germ cell tumor	TCam-2	Romidepsin	<i>in vitro</i>	[31]
Fibroblasts	2102EP/-R			
Sertoli cells	NCCIT/-R			
	NT2/D1/-R			
	JAR			
	JEG-3			
	MPAF			
	ARZ			
	FS1			
Glioblastoma	T98G	Panobinostat	<i>In vitro</i>	[37]
Pancreas carcinoma	PANC-1			
Urothelial carcinoma	T24	SAHA/ Vorinostat Trichostatin A MS-275		
Colorectal carcinoma	HCT116	SAHA/ Vorinostat	<i>in vitro</i>	[39]
	HT29	CRA-024781		
Colorectal carcinoma	HCT116			
Urothelial carcinoma	UM-UC-3	SAHA/ Vorinostat Romidepsin	<i>in vitro</i>	[41]
	VM-CUB-1			
Ovarian carcinoma	ES2	SAHA/ Vorinostat Apacidin Trichostatin A	<i>in vitro</i>	[42]
	A2780			
Leukemia	CMK	Valproic acid	<i>in vitro</i> <i>ex vivo</i>	[43]
	HEL			
	K-562			
	NB-4			
	HL-60			

and apoptosis induction, while S1P and C1P were correlated with elevated proliferation [26,27]. However, even though C₁₂₋₂₆-ceramide were shown to result in growth inhibition, C₁₆-ceramide was described to be involved during tumor proliferation in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma [52,53].

In this study, we demonstrated diminished S1P/sphingosine as well as S1P/ceramide (sphingolipid rheostat) levels (Fig. 3 D, Data S1 C), thereby indicating the promotion of a pro-apoptotic state [27,28]. Interestingly, Xu et al. observed that the administration of oleic acid, which was previously shown to be negatively regulated by DHRS2 [5], significantly diminished ceramide levels in hepatocytes [54]. Hence, HDACi-mediated enhanced DHRS2 activity could diminish oleic acid levels, thereby resulting in induced generation of ceramides. Interestingly, Cao et al. observed, besides several histone-regulating genes, DHRS2 to be among the most prominently downregulated genes upon treatment with exogenous dihydroceramide (dhC16-Cer) in lymphoma cells, thereby indicating a putative negative feedback loop of DHRS2 expression [55] (Fig. 3 G).

Previously, we could show that besides DHRS2, several other stress-related genes, such as GADD45B, DUSP1, FOS, ID2, RHOB, and ATF3, were upregulated upon HDACi treatment in GCT cells [9,22,31], all of which are also known to be glucocorticoid response genes [22]. Hence, in our previous investigation, a combined therapeutic approach using

the glucocorticoid steroid dexamethasone for 8 days followed by the addition of the HDACi romidepsin for 16 h not only significantly enhanced the expression of GADD45B, DUSP1, and DHRS2 as compared to the HDACi treatment alone, but also resulted in decreased cell viability in GCT cells (TCam-2, 2102EP, JAR) in comparison to the single HDACi treatment [22].

The role of DHRS2 as a therapeutic target still needs to be further elucidated. While low DHRS2 levels were seen in tamoxifen-resistant MCF-7 breast carcinoma cells and 5-fluorouracil-treated in HCT116 colon carcinoma cells [56,57], downregulation of DHRS2 sensitized oxaliplatin-resistant HCT116 colon carcinoma cells by downregulating ERCC1 in a p53-dependent manner [58]. Moreover, since DHRS2 was previously identified as a WNT4-associated protein [59] and LEF1 was described as a positive regulator of DHRS2 expression [33], modulating the WNT/ β -catenin signaling cascade could offer a promising targetable pathway in combination with HDACi treatment (Fig. 3 F).

5. Conclusion

Emphasizing on urologic malignancies, such as GCT, UC, RCC and PC, this study observed that enhanced DHRS2 levels upon HDACi treatment correlated with an increased chromatin accessibility of the DHRS2 locus, thereby enabling its presence as an indication of a successful HDACi treatment. The identification of a pro-apoptotic lipid metabolism in HDACi-treated urologic tumor cells offers further therapeutic strategies for a combined treatment resulting in the reprogramming of the fatty acid metabolism [60]. Further evaluation of the literature gives rise to the hypothesis that enhanced DHRS2 levels, either through activation of the WNT/ β -catenin signaling pathway or treatment with HDACi or glucocorticoid steroids (e.g. dexamethasone), as well as its stabilization through the application of oleic acid (Fig. 3 F, G) could have an anti-tumor effect in urologic malignancies.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The ethics committee of the Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf raised no concerns on utilizing cell lines for *in vitro* experiments (vote 2018-178 to D. N.).

Consent for publication

All authors are aware of this article and agreed on publication.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

Melanie R. Müller: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Aaron Burmeister:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Margaretha A. Skowron:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Investigation, Formal analysis. **Alexa Stephan:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Christian Söhngen:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Philipp Wollnitzke:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Patrick Petzsch:** Visualization, Software, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Leandro A. Alves Avelar:** Resources. **Thomas Kurz:** Resources. **Karl Köhrer:** Writing – review & editing, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Resources. **Bodo Levkau:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Software, Resources,

Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Daniel Nettersheim:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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List of abbreviations

C1P	Ceramide-1-phosphate
DHRS2	Dehydrogenase/reductase member 2
EC	Embryonal carcinoma
HDACi	Histone deacetylase inhibitor
GCT	Germ cell tumor
LC-MS	Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry
MRM	Multiple reaction monitoring
NAD	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NADP	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
PC	Prostate cancer
PTM	Post-translational modification
RCC	Renal cell carcinoma
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
RPKM	Reads per kilobase million
SDR	Short-chain dehydrogenase/reductase
SM	Sphingomyelin
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphisms
S1P	Sphingosine-1-phosphate
SphK	Sphingosine kinases (SphK)
TCGA	The Cancer Genome Atlas
TSA	Trichostatin A
UC	Urothelial carcinoma

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yexcr.2024.114055>.

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