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A LIN28B Tumor-Specific Transcript in Cancer

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A LIN28B Tumor-Specific Transcript in Cancer

Highlights

- RNA-seq analyses reveal a LIN28B tumor-specific variant in cancers
- LIN28B-TST initiates from an ATI site regulated by NFYA but not c-Myc
- LIN28B-TST expression is controlled by DNA methylation
- LIN28B-TST is critical for cancer cell proliferation and tumorigenesis

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In Brief

Guo et al. identified a tumor-specific LIN28B transcript variant, LIN28B-TST, in hepatocellular carcinoma and many other cancer types produced by alternative transcription initiation. The LIN28B-TST-expressing tumors may represent a subtype of aggressive cancer. LIN28B-TST could serve as an ideal and promising target candidate for cancer diagnosis and therapy.

Data and Software Availability

GSE77661
GSE109528
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A LIN28B Tumor-Specific Transcript in Cancer

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SUMMARY

The diversity and complexity of the cancer transcriptome may contain transcripts unique to the tumor environment. Here, we report a LIN28B variant, LIN28B-TST, which is specifically expressed in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and many other cancer types. Expression of LIN28B-TST is associated with significantly poor prognosis in HCC patients. LIN28B-TST initiates from a de novo alternative splicing initiation site that harbors a strong promoter regulated by NFYA but not c-Myc. Demethylation of the LIN28B-TST promoter might be a prerequisite for its transcription and transcriptional regulation. LIN28B-TST encodes a protein isoform with additional N-terminal amino acids and is critical for cancer cell proliferation and tumorigenesis. Our findings reveal a mechanism of LIN28B activation in cancer and the potential utility of LIN28B-TST for clinical purposes.

INTRODUCTION

The application of deep sequencing for RNA analysis has allowed for an unprecedented view of the human transcriptome, revealing the diversity and complexity in transcript identity and splicing (Barash et al., 2010; Djebali et al., 2012; Mercer et al., 2011). Cancer is a heterogeneous and complex disease involving genetic and epigenetic alterations that result in a more complicated transcriptome. Hence, there is tremendous potential to yield tumor-specific transcripts (TSTs) in the cancer transcriptome. The detection and characterization of TSTs such as fusion transcripts are of great importance for clinical purposes and for understanding carcinogenesis (Mertens et al., 2015; Mitelman et al., 2007). Fusion transcripts derived from DNA translocation are a typical type of TST but have only been validated in some cancers. Dysregulation of transcription splicing and epigenetic alteration may result in abundant TSTs, including specific mRNA variants and intergenic transcripts. However, the identification and functional roles of these specific transcripts in cancer remain largely unknown.

The LIN28 family, including LIN28A and LIN28B, is highly expressed during embryogenesis but silent in most adult tissues (Shyh-Chang and Daley, 2013). LIN28 can block the maturation of the tumor suppressor microRNA let-7 family and mediate diverse biological functions (Shyh-Chang and Daley, 2013; Viswanathan et al., 2008). LIN28A, in combination with NANOG, OCT4, and SOX2, can reprogram human somatic cells to pluripotent stem cells (Yu et al., 2007). LIN28A also regulates mammalian stem cell self-renewal and promotes tissue repair (Kim et al., 2014; Shyh-Chang et al., 2013). LIN28B is highly expressed in various types of human cancer (Helland et al., 2011; King et al., 2011a, 2011b; Viswanathan et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2010). Mice overexpressing LIN28B develop multiple tumors, including lymphoma (Beachy et al., 2012), neuroblastoma (Molenaar et al., 2012), colonic adenocarcinoma (Madison et al., 2013), Wilms tumor (Urbach et al., 2014), hepatoblastoma, and hepatocellular carcinoma (Nguyen et al., 2014). These mouse models suggest that LIN28B alone is sufficient to drive cancer. In addition to tumor initiation, LIN28B is necessary for maintenance of liver cancer (Nguyen et al., 2014). However, the mechanism of LIN28B activation in cancer remains unclear.

Here, we investigated the potential TSTs in the cancer transcriptome and found an LIN28B variant that is specifically expressed in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and many other tumor types. We showed that LIN28B-TST is produced from a de novo alternative transcription initiation site, which harbors a strong promoter. LIN28B-TST encodes a long protein isoform with additional N-terminal amino acids and is critical for cancer cell proliferation and tumorigenesis.

RESULTS

RNA-Seq Analyses Reveal a LIN28B Tumor-Specific Variant in Multiple Cancers

We first performed transcriptome analyses of different normal and cancerous tissues, as well as several cell lines, by RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and investigated the existence of potential TSTs (Figure S1A). We detected a substantial number of TSTs, including 430 intergenic transcripts and 1,385 variants overlapping with annotated genes (Figure 1A; Table S1). Of these TSTs, we noted an LIN28B variant showing a high expression level and percentage splicing index, named LIN28B-TST.
Figure 1. RNA-Seq Analyses Revealed a LIN28B Tumor-Specific Transcript, LIN28B-TST, in Multiple Cancers
(A) Dot plot of TST expression levels with respect to corresponding percentage splicing index (PSI) in cancer samples.
(B) Distribution of RNA-seq reads for the LIN28B gene locus in various RNA-seq libraries.
(C) Expression levels of LIN28B-TST and LIN28B-WT in different cancers from TCGA cohort (Table S2).
(D) Expression levels of LIN28B-TST and LIN28B-WT in fetal liver, normal liver, hepatoblastoma, and HCC. Medians are indicated within samples expressing LIN28B-TST or LIN28B-WT.
(E) Overall survival of HCC patients with (+, n = 35) or without (−, n = 22) LIN28B-TST expression. The p values were calculated using the log-rank test.
Figure 2. LIN28B-TST Is Produced by Alternative Transcription Initiation with a Strong Promoter Independent of c-Myc
(A) ChIP-seq and 5′ RACE profiles of LIN28B-TST at the alternative transcription initiation site in HuH-7 cells.
(B) Luciferase reporter assay of LIN28B-TST promoter with serial deletions from the 5′ end in HEK293T cells.
(C) Relative activity of the LIN28B-TST promoter in various cell lines. Data were presented as means ± SEM and representative of three independent experiments.

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We observed that LIN28B-TST expression was specifically expressed in H1 embryonic stem cells (Figure S2A). Additionally, we found that the promoter region and new exons of LIN28B-TST are only conserved in primates, but not in other mammals (Figure S2B), suggesting that LIN28B-TST is a pri- mate-specific variant.

To evaluate LIN28B-TST expression, we screened more than 7,000 tumors from 22 different cancer types in The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) RNA-seq datasets. LIN28B was expressed in 10.2% of all cancers (Table S2). Of the 50%, 59/118) (Figure 1C; Table S2). To distinguish and quantify the expression of LIN28B-WT or the Simian vacuolating virus 40 (SV40) promoter in HEK293T cells (Figure 2B). A series of constructs with different deletions revealed a ~200-bp core promoter proximal to the ATI site (Figure 2B). Strikingly, all cells showed strong promoter activity, including the LIN28B-TST-expressing cells, LIN28B-WT-expressing cells, and LIN28B null-expressing cells (Figure 2C), suggesting that transcription of LIN28B-TST is restricted by epigenetic mechanisms. We also investigated whether LIN28B-TST could be modulated by the c-Myc oncogene, which was found to directly regulate the expression of LIN28B-WT (Chang et al., 2009). Inhibition of c-Myc by small interference RNA (siRNA) or Bromodomain and extra terminal protein (BET) inhibitor JQ1 remarkably decreased the expression of c-Myc and LIN28B in LIN28B-WT-expressing HepG2 cells, while LIN28B-TST expression was not altered after silencing of c-Myc expression in LIN28B-WT-expressing HepG2 cells (Figure 2E). ChIP qPCR showed that c-Myc could bind to the promoter of LIN28B-WT but not LIN28B-TST (Figure S3B), suggesting that the regulation of LIN28B-TST is independent of c-Myc expression. Considering that BET inhibitor JQ1 represents a promising therapeutic agent for a broad spectrum of cancers and c-Myc is the key target gene, we wondered whether expression of LIN28B-TST is resistant to its treatment. We noted that the half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50) value of JQ1 in LIN28B-TST-expressing HuH-7 cells (IC50 = 30.1 nM) was much higher than that in LIN28B-WT-expressing HepG2 cells (IC50 = 5.08 nM) (Figures S3C and S3D). Importantly, the IC50 value of JQ1 was significantly decreased in LIN28B-TST-silencing HuH-7 cells (IC50 = 3.91 nM), almost 13% of the value in the control cells (Figure S3C). Furthermore, ectopic expression of LIN28B-TST led to the increase of the IC50 value in HepG2 cells (IC50 = 33.3 nM), compared to the control cells (Figure S3D). These findings suggested that expression of LIN28B-TST contributes to BET inhibitor JQ1 resistance and that inhibition of LIN28B-TST might be a potential strategy to sensitize LIN28B-TST-expressing cancers to JQ1.

To explore the transcription factors (TFs) that regulate the LIN28B-TST, we first scanned the LIN28B-TST promoter sequences, using PROMO and TFBIND, and found a panel of 28 TFs that possess putative binding sites in the LIN28B-TST promoter region. We then performed a siRNA knockdown screening
Figure 3. Demethylation of the LIN28B-TST Promoter Is Associated with Its Expression

(A) Schematic diagram showing the position of 2 CpG islands at the promoter region of LIN28B-TST. Promoter methylation status was analyzed by bisulfite sequencing. Filled circles denote methylated cytosines, and open circles denote unmethylated cytosines at the indicated CpG sites.

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to evaluate their effect on LIN28B-TST expression in HuH-7 cells. Of note, three TfS (NFYA, YY1, and TFAP4) were identified to regulate LIN28B-TST expression (Figure S3E), and NFYA had the most significant effect. NFYA is a pioneer transcription factor during spermatogonial stem cell development and preimplantation development (Guo et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2016). A binding site of NFYA (CCAT) is present in the LIN28B-TST promoter (Figure S3F). ChiP qPCR, luciferase reporter, and western blot assays confirmed that NFYA could directly regulate the expression of LIN28B-TST but not LIN28B-WT (Figures 2F–2H).

**Demethylation of the LIN28B-TST Promoter Is Associated with Its Expression**

To evaluate whether CpG methylation of the LIN28B-TST promoter is associated with its expression, we performed bisulfite sequencing in regions flanking the ATI site. Two CpG islands were found in the LIN28B-TST promoter regions (Figure 3A). Compared to LIN28B-TST null-expressing samples, the LIN28B-TST-expressing samples showed lower CpG methylation in the second CpG island (Figure 3A). To test whether demethylation at the CpG site is sufficient to induce its expression, we investigated the expression of LIN28B-TST in LIN28B null or LIN28B-WT-expressing cells in the presence of the DNA methyltransferase inhibitor 5-aza-deoxycytidine (5-AZA). Treatment with 5-AZA strongly activated LIN28B-TST mRNA and protein expression in LIN28B null-expressing SK-HEP-1 and AGS cells (Figures 3B and 3C). Moreover, the induction of LIN28B-TST might be a prerequisite for its transcription and transcriptional regulation.

**LIN28B-TST Encodes a Protein Isoform with Additional N-Terminal Amino Acids and Is Critical for Cancer Cell Proliferation and Tumorigenesis**

The LIN28B-TST transcript contains two predicted in-frame start codons (ATGs) at the 5′ end, resulting in proteins with additional N-terminal amino acids (Figure 4A). Immunoblots of different cancer cell lines expressing LIN28B-TST revealed a predominant band, suggesting that LIN28B-TST is translated mainly from the first start codon (Figure S2D). We further mutated the two start codons individually or in combination. Immunoblots revealed that each mutated form of LIN28B-TST no longer produced the corresponding protein band (Figure 4B). We also prepared a rabbit antibody against the additional N-terminal amino acids. ImmunobLOTS showed that this antibody specifically recognized the primary LIN28B-TST isoform but not the minor isoform or LIN28B-WT (Figures 4B and S2D). Using this specific LIN28B-TST antibody, we detected the expression of LIN28B-TST in HCC tissues but not in normal liver tissues by immunoblotting and immunohistochemistry (Figures 4C and 4D).

Because the LIN28B-TST protein contains all of the functional domains of LIN28B-WT (Figure 4A), we speculated that LIN28B-TST would have functions similar to those of LIN28B-WT. To test this notion, we ectopically expressed LIN28B-TST or LIN28B-WT in LIN28B null-expressing SK-HEP-1 cells. We found that either LIN28B-TST or LIN28B-WT significantly suppressed the expression of let-7 family members (Figure 4E). Consistently, overexpression of either LIN28B-TST or LIN28B-WT increased the levels of let-7 target genes, including HMGA2, and IGF2BP1, -2, and -3. (Figure 4F). We also noted that the protein level of LIN28B-TST was higher than that of LIN28B-WT in cells infected with the same amount of lentivirus, which may be due to the different translation efficiency or protein stability. By using cycloheximide (CHX), a protein synthesis inhibitor, we observed that the stability of the LIN28B-TST protein level is much higher than that of LIN28B-WT (Figure S4A). We further used siRNAs and CRISPR/Cas9 technology to knockdown LIN28B-TST expression and observed significant inhibition of cell growth and cell-colony formation (Figures 4G and 4H; Figures S4B–S4D). Silencing of LIN28B-TST also dramatically inhibited the tumorigenic ability and reduced the tumor weight and volume of HuH-7 cells (Figures 4I and 4J). All together, these results indicated that LIN28B-TST is critical for cancer cell proliferation and tumorigenesis and may serve as a specific target for cancer treatment.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we provide a mechanism of LIN28B activation through alternative transcription initiation and epigenetic alteration. Similar to the genesis of ALK\(^{44,45}\), a ALK transcript in several cancer types (Wiesner et al., 2015), LIN28B-TST is also produced from a new transcription initiation site. However, these two transcripts use distinct transcriptional activation mechanisms. The ALK\(^{44'}\) expression is mainly driven by the long terminal repeat (LTR) promoter. Despite the presence of LTR within the LIN28B-TST promoter region, it is not considered a core component of the LIN28B-TST promoter. The core promoter of LIN28B-TST showed ubiquitously strong activity independent of cell types, and LIN28B-TST expression level correlates with its promoter methylation status, indicating that epigenetic alterations may contribute to the activation of LIN28B-TST.

Identifying molecules specific to tumor is essential for deciphering the cancer development and progression, as well as for
cancer diagnosis and therapy. DNA mutations constitute the major focus of tumor-specific discovery efforts to date. The diversity and complexity of cancer transcriptome hold the potential to yield TSTs in cancer. We proposed that dysregulation of transcription splicing and epigenetic alteration may result in abundant TSTs, such as specific mRNA variants and intergenic transcripts. In this study, we investigated the existence of these potential TSTs by RNA-seq and transcriptome analyses. Fusion transcripts were not included in our bioinformatics pipelines. We detected a substantial number of TSTs, suggesting widespread TSTs in cancer. Notably, we only considered the transcripts that have not been annotated previously. The number of TSTs could be underappreciated. In addition, the TST candidates could be false positive due to the limited set of samples. The analyses of large databases of transcriptome sequencing data derived from tumors and normal tissues such as TCGA and the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEX) project are suggested for future study.

In this study, we showed that the function of LIN28B-TST is similar to that of LIN28B-WT. However, the detailed mechanism of how the additional amino acids of LIN28B-TST may contribute to the extraordinarily high protein stability has not yet been elucidated. In addition, LIN28B-TST expression is independent of the c-Myc oncogene, and LIN28B-TST-expressing cells are resistant to the BRD4 inhibitor JQ1. Moreover, LIN28B-TST expression is associated with significantly poorer prognosis in HCC patients. The LIN28B-TST-expressing tumors may represent a subtype of cancer. Such tumors would be more aggressive and resistant to therapy, possibly due to the stem cell phenotype by LIN28B expression (Shyh-Chang and Daley, 2013). HCC is a leading cause of cancer mortality and is increasing in incidence worldwide. Chemotherapy for HCC has been quite ineffective. Our findings suggested that LIN28B-TST may serve as an ideal and promising target candidate for HCC therapy. For instance, LIN28B-TST may be targeted by epigenetic compounds, siRNA, or antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) without affecting wild-type LIN28B expression. In addition, the specific additional amino acids may be a neo-epitope candidate for tumor immunotherapy.

In conclusion, we identified a tumor-specific LIN28B transcript variant, LIN28B-TST, in HCC and many other cancers. Unlike wild-type LIN28B, LIN28B-TST initiates from a de novo alternative transcription initiation site harboring a strong promoter independent of c-Myc expression. The LIN28B-TST-expressing tumors may represent a subtype of aggressive cancer. These findings provide new insight into the diversity and complexity of LIN28B transcriptional regulation, and they suggest a mechanism of LIN28B activation in cancer and the potential of LIN28B-TST in cancer diagnosis and therapy.

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

Detailed materials and methods can be found in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

**RNA-Seq Analysis**

The RNA-seq data for six normal tissues (brain, heart, liver, lung, colon, and stomach) and seven cancer tissues (hepatocellular carcinoma, colorectal cancer, gastric cancer, kidney clear cell carcinoma, bladder urothelial carcinoma, breast cancer, and prostate cancer) were previously described (Zeng et al., 2016). HuH-7, NCI-H1299, and HEK293T cells were also subjected to RNA-seq. Sequencing reads from RNA-seq data were aligned using the spliced read aligner HISAT2, v2.0.4 (Kim et al., 2015), which was supplied with the Ensembl human genome assembly (Genome Reference Consortium GRCh38) as the reference genome. Specifically, a two-step mapping strategy was used to combine splice junctions from all samples that could be used to annotate mapped reads. In the first round of mapping, HISAT2 was provided with known splice sites extracted from GENCODE annotation, v24 (Harrow et al., 2012), using hisat2_extract_splice_sites.py script. At the end of the first mapping step, all splice junctions in each sample were combined across samples to obtain a master set of combined junctions. Next, a second round of mapping was performed, with the master set of junctions generated in the first step supplied using the option "-novel-splice-site-infile." The read alignments were provided as input into StringTie, v1.2.3 (Pertea et al., 2015), for transcriptome assembly. GENCODE, v24, was used as the transcript model reference annotation to guide the assembly process. Transcripts were assembled individually for each sample and then merged to generate a non-redundant set of transcripts observed in all RNA-seq samples. The Cufflinks program (Trapnell et al., 2012) was used to produce expression levels for the merged transcriptome in each sample at the gene and transcript levels in FPKM (fragments per kilobase of transcript per million mapped reads) units. The percentage splicing index of each transcript—which denotes the fraction of each transcript’s abundance over its parent gene’s abundance—was calculated. Only high-confidence transcripts containing at least two exons and >0.1 FPKM were considered. TSTs exclusively expressed in tumor samples were extracted by excluding all annotated transcripts (GENCODE, v24) and those expressed in normal samples.

**Cell Culture and Chemical Reagents**

HEK293T, HuH-7, and SK-HEP-1 cells were cultured in DMEM; NCI-H1299 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium ( Gibco); HCT-116 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium (GIBCO; HCT-116 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium (GIBCO).
Antibodies
LIN28B-TSTs were generated by GenScript (Nanjing, China) and raised against the distinct N-terminal immunogen of LIN28B-TST (HRREQFLQKR MRSFNQVSSAP).

RNA Extraction, Reverse Transcription, and Real-Time qPCR
Total RNA was extracted from tissues or cells using TRIzol reagent. cDNA was synthesized using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan). Real-time qPCR analyses were performed using SYBR Premix Ex TaqII (TaKaRa). Mature microRNAs were quantified with specific primers and probes using TaqMan MicroRNA Assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). U6 small nuclear RNA (snRNA) served as a loading control.

Luciferase Assays
Cells were cultured in 24-well plates and co-transfected with 60 ng firefly luciferase reporter plasmid and 10 ng Renilla luciferase reporter plasmid. After 48 hr of incubation, firefly and Renilla luciferase activities were measured using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega).

DNA Methylation Analysis
Genomic DNA was extracted using the AllPrep DNA/RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN). Two micrograms of genomic DNA were treated with sodium bisulfite using the EpiTect system (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer’s protocol.

Western Blotting
Proteins were separated on a 10% or 14% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The membrane was blocked with 5% non-fat milk and incubated with primary antibodies.

Transfection of Oligonucleotides
Small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) were synthesized by RiboBio (Guangzhou, China), and the sequences were listed in Table S3. Cells were transfected with the oligonucleotides using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Reagent (Invitrogen) at a final concentration of 50 nM.

Cell Proliferation and Colony Formation Assays
Cell proliferation was measured using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK8) assay (Dojindo Laboratories, Kumamoto, Japan). For the colony formation assay, 1 × 10^3 cells were plated in each well of a 6-well plate and incubated at 37°C for 1–2 weeks. The cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and stained with 1% crystal violet (Sigma-Aldrich). Mosaic cell colonies were counted and analyzed.

Xenograft in Nude Mice
HuH-7 cells with LIN28B knockdown by CRISPR/Cas9 or vector control were harvested and suspended in DMEM. Twelve mice (male BALB/c-nu/nu, 6 weeks old) were randomly divided into two groups. Each mouse was injected subcutaneously in the lower back with 2 × 10^6 cells in 200 μL DMEM. The mice were sacrificed after 4 weeks, and xenograft tumors were excised and weighed.

Statistical Analysis
Data were presented as the mean ± SEM from at least three independent experiments. Unless stated otherwise, the two-tailed Student’s t test or one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett’s multiple comparisons test was performed to compare differences between two groups or more than two groups, respectively. The paired t test was used to analyze mRNA expression levels in paired human samples. A p value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY
The accession numbers for raw sequencing data reported in this study are GEO: GSE77681 (tissue RNA-seq), GEO: GSE109528 (cell RNA-seq), and GEO: GSE109575 (ChIP-seq).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION
Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, four figures, and three tables and can be found with this article online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.celrep.2018.02.002.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS
The authors declare no competing interests.

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