

Molecular and Cell Biology methods for validation of (imaging) biomarkers



Summer school

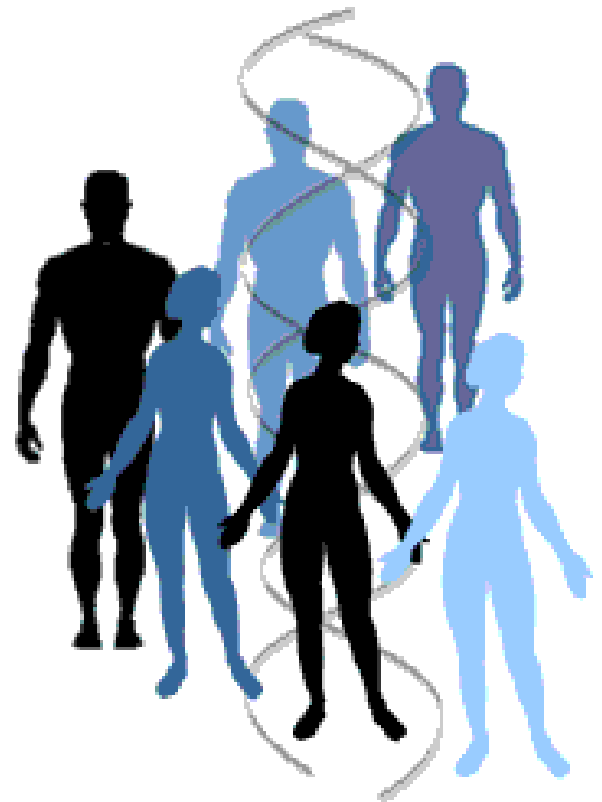
Development and Pre-clinical Evaluation of Radiopharmaceuticals

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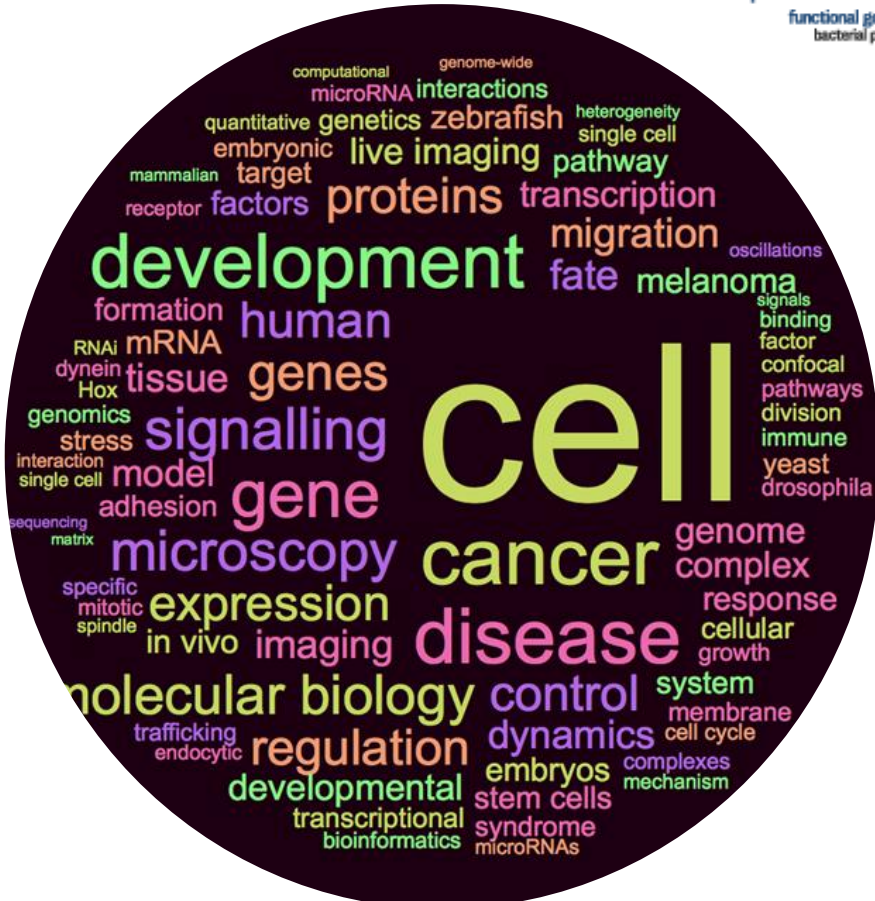
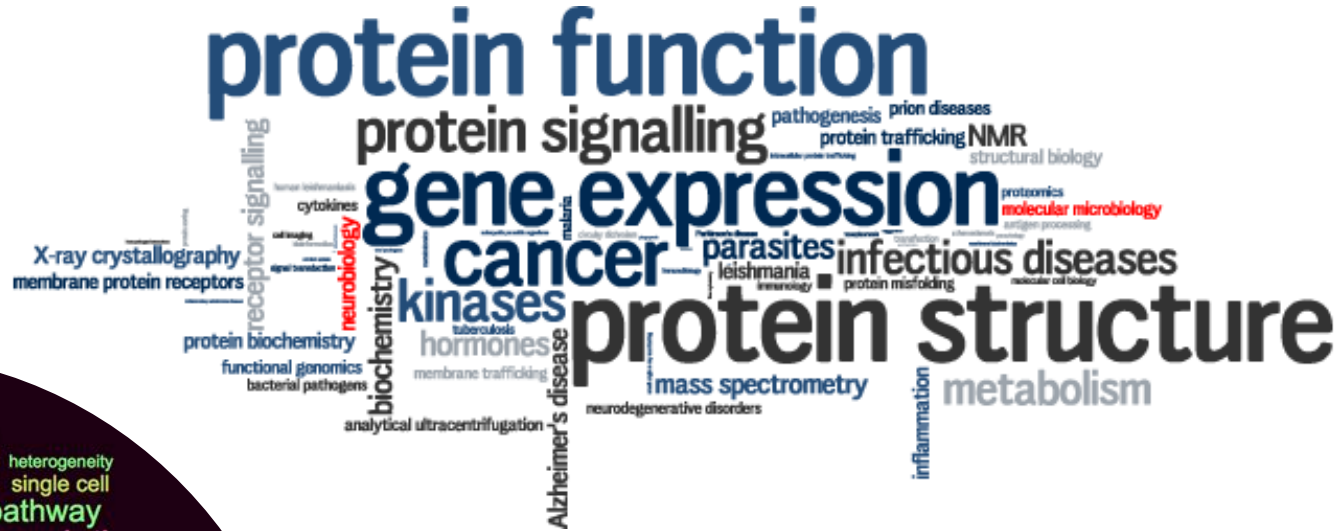
- Molecular and Cell Biology
- Biomarkers vs targets – imaging and therapy
- Transcriptomics and Proteomics
- Antibody fragments

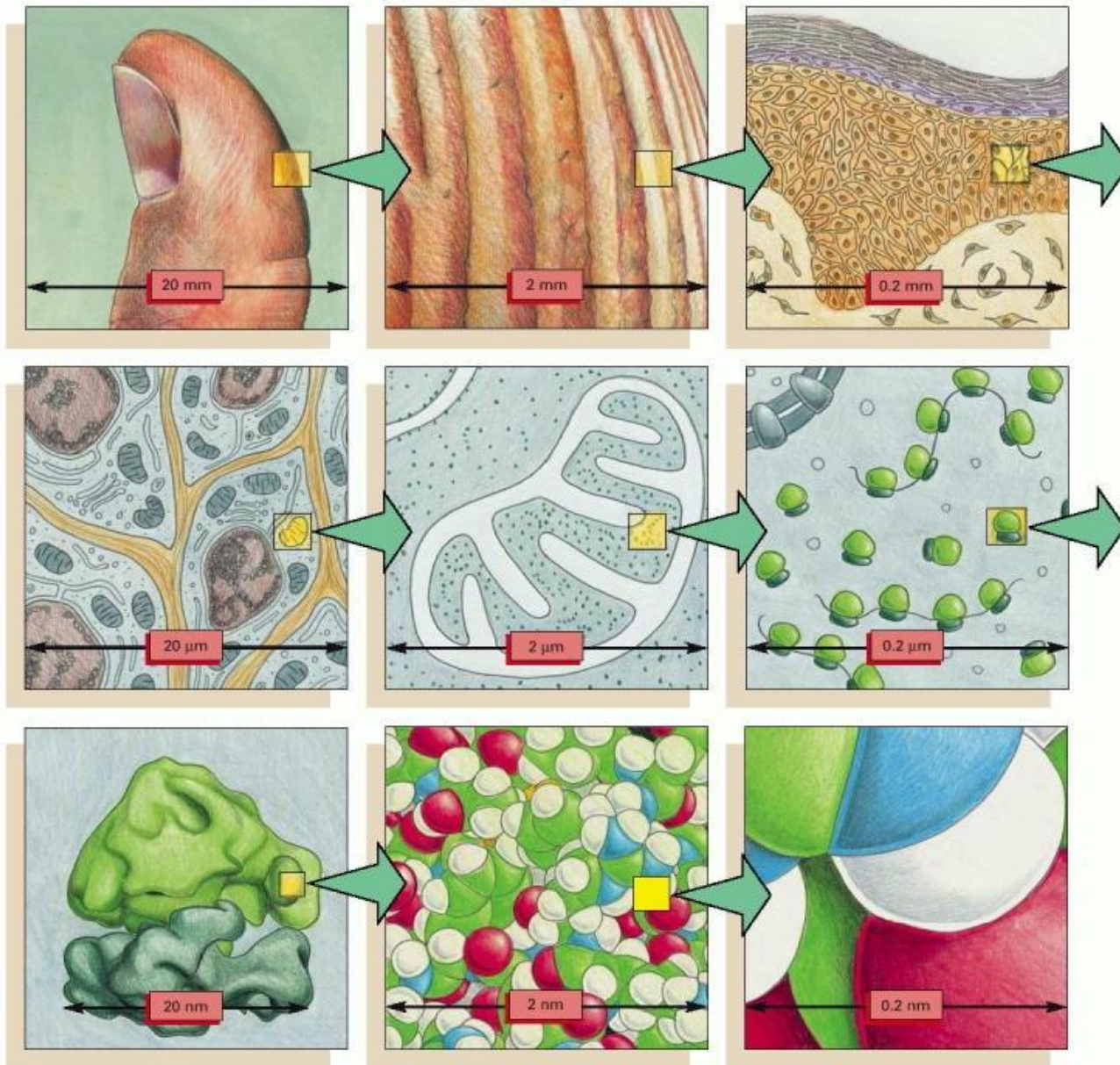


Molecular Biology is the field of biology that studies the composition, structure and interactions of macromolecules – e.g. nucleic acids and proteins – that carry out the biological processes essential for the cell's functions and maintenance.

Cell Biology is the study of structure and function of cells, which are the fundamental units of life.

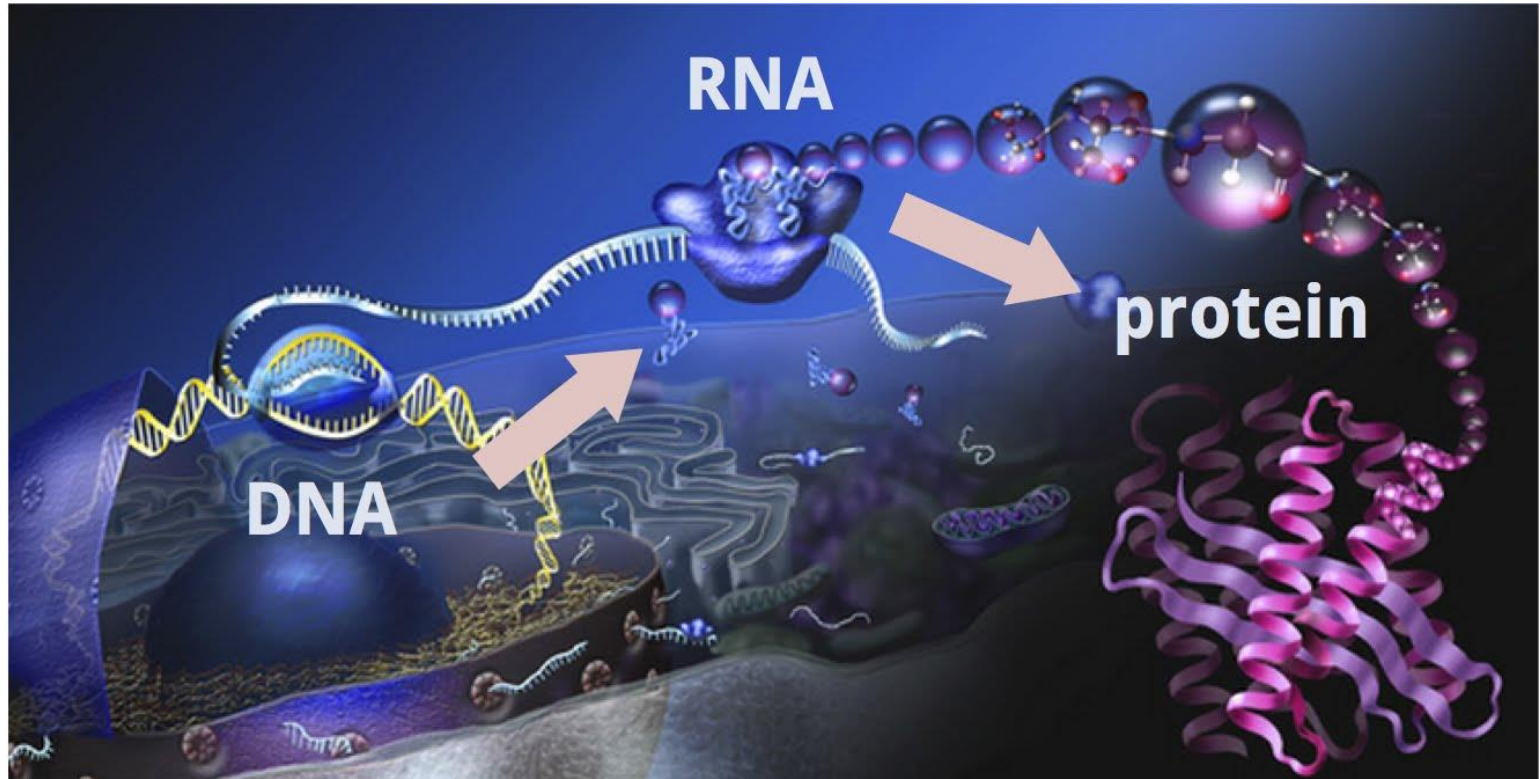
Focusing on the cell allows a detailed understanding of the tissues and organisms that cells compose.



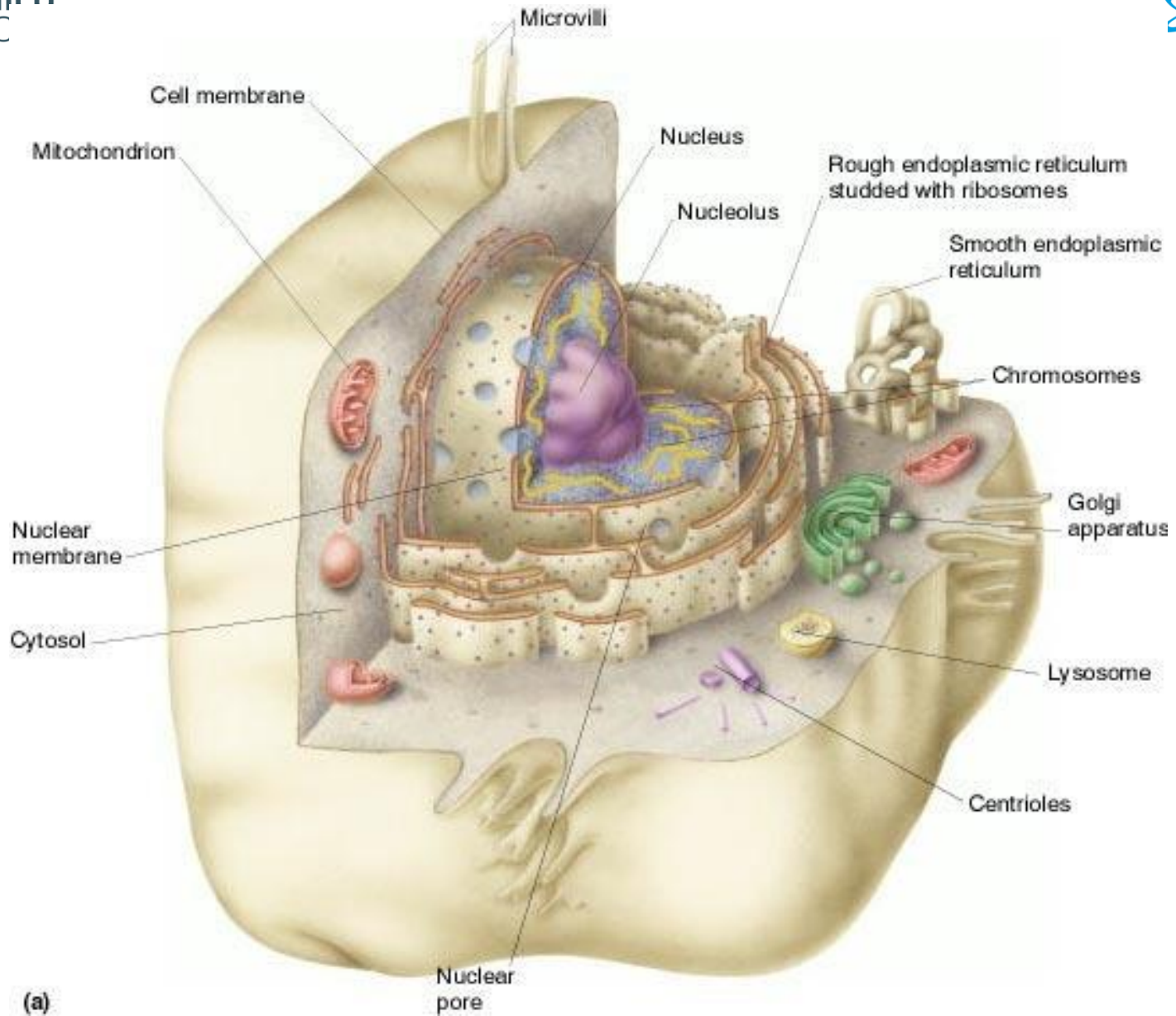


Molecular Biology of the Cell. 4th edition. Alberts B, Johnson A, Lewis J, et al., New York: [Garland Science](http://www.garlandscience.com); 2002

Central dogma of molecular biology



the two-step process, transcription and translation, by which the information in genes flows into proteins: DNA → RNA → protein



JCB

THE JOURNAL OF CELL BIOLOGY

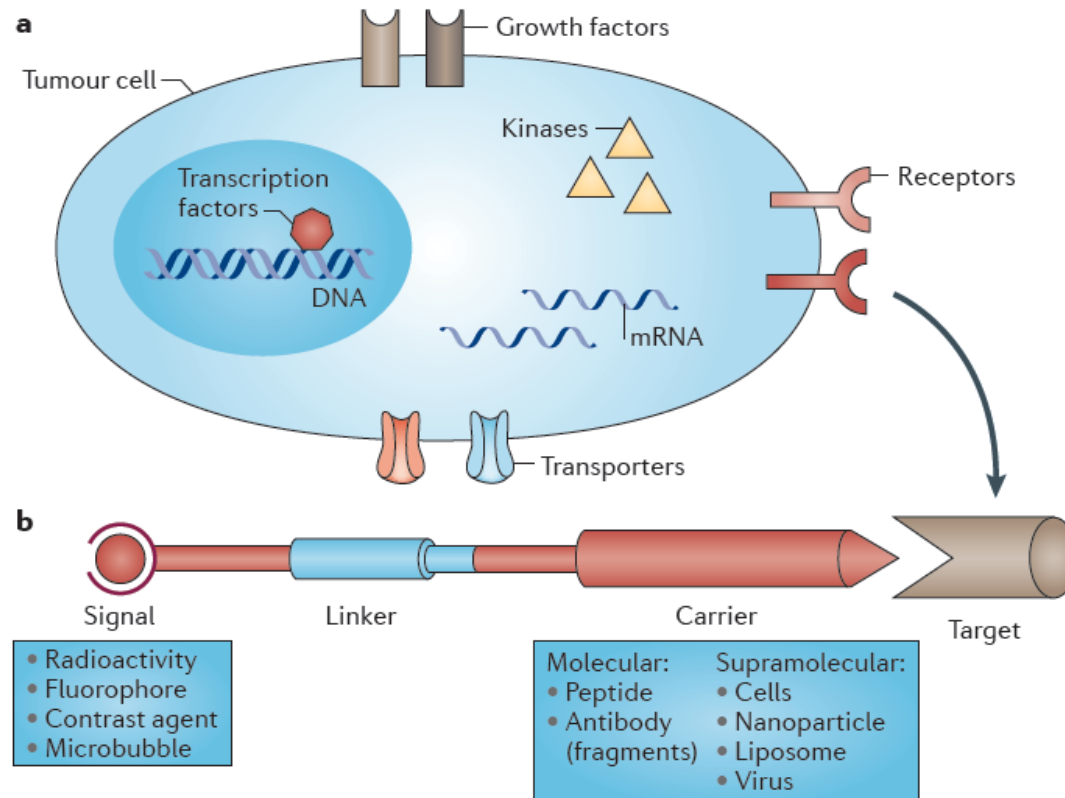


The Year in Cell Biology

Molecular Imaging

In vivo characterization and measurement of biological/biochemical processes at the **cellular/molecular level**, allowing the noninvasive visualization of a target macromolecule *in vivo* by virtue of its interaction with a specific imaging probe.

Since certain molecular markers (e.g. cell surface receptors and enzymes) anticipate macromolecular manifestations of disease, namely aberrant anatomy and organ dysfunction, their visualization by imaging modalities may allow early disease detection.

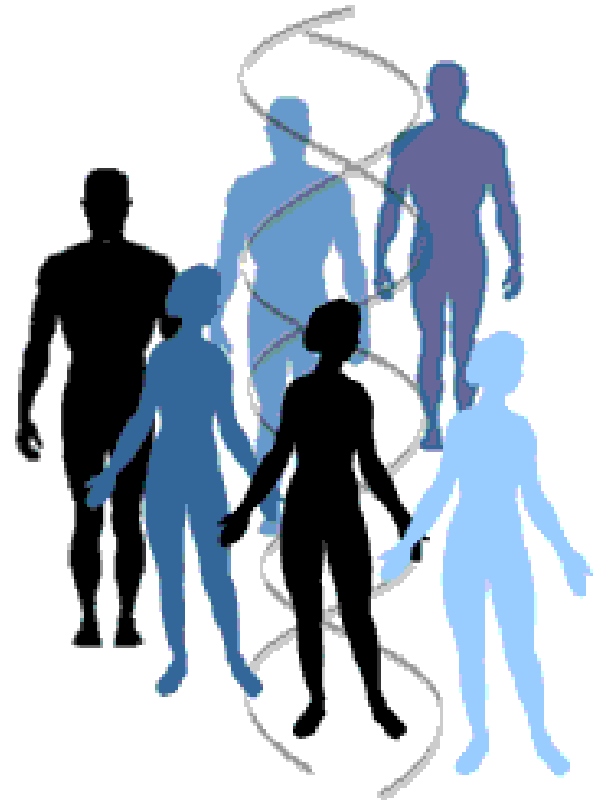


Changing times in medicine - Paradigm shift in disease detection and treatment from a focus on morphology, function, and pathophysiology to **genetic and molecular events**



n this way, molecular nuclear medicine will play an increasing role in disease definition, preventive medicine, and treatment planning and monitoring – Personalized medicine

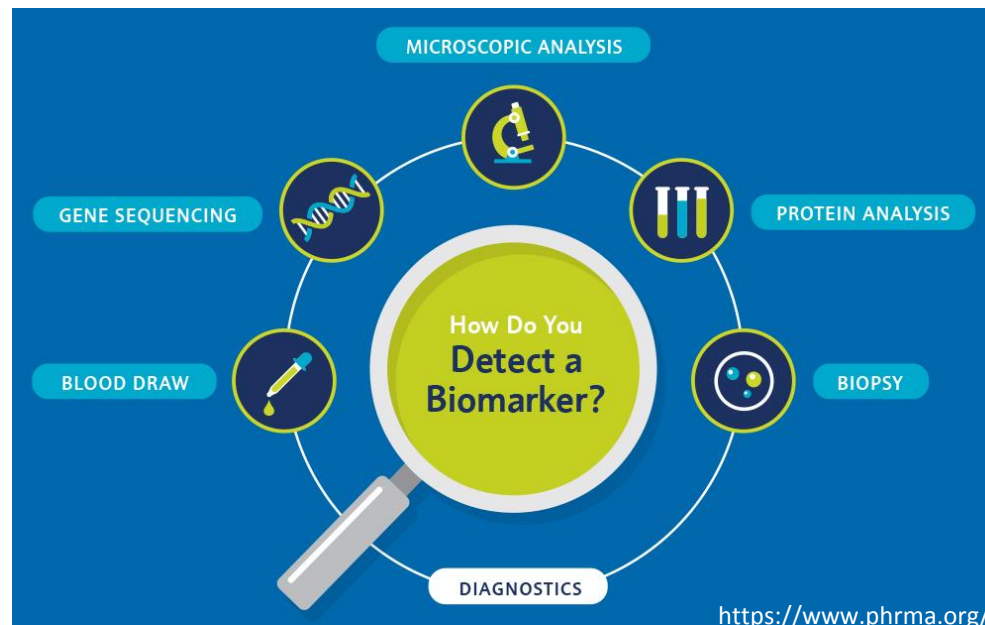
- Molecular and Cell Biology
- **Biomarkers vs targets – imaging and therapy**
- Transcriptomics and Proteomics
- Antibody fragments



Biomarkers

NIH Biomarkers Definition Working Group

Cellular, biochemical, and molecular alterations by which a normal, abnormal, or simply biologic process can be recognized or monitored and are used to objectively measure and evaluate normal biological processes, pathogenic processes, or pharmacologic responses to a therapeutic intervention



~30 cancer biomarkers approved by the FDA

Cancer biomarkers have typically relied on assays of blood or tissue; however, molecular imaging (MI) has a promising and complementary role as a cancer biomarker

Why?

Non-invasive (serial assay)

Entire disease burden (whole-body)

Avoidance of sampling errors (tumor heterogeneity)

Disadvantages:

Sample only 1 or 2 processes simultaneously

One subject at a time

Biomarkers

- Detect cancer
- Direct cancer therapy

Types of biomarkers

- Predictive and prognostic
Indication of aggressiveness, course of disease, likelihood of response to treatment
e.g. ERexpression in breast cancer - ¹⁸F-estradiol
- Early-response
PhD markers – indication of biological response to treatment
e.g. Ki 67 tumor proliferation - ¹⁸F-FDG
- Surrogate endpoints
Indication of therapeutic success associated with patient outcome
e.g. tumor regression (histology) – ¹⁸F-FDG

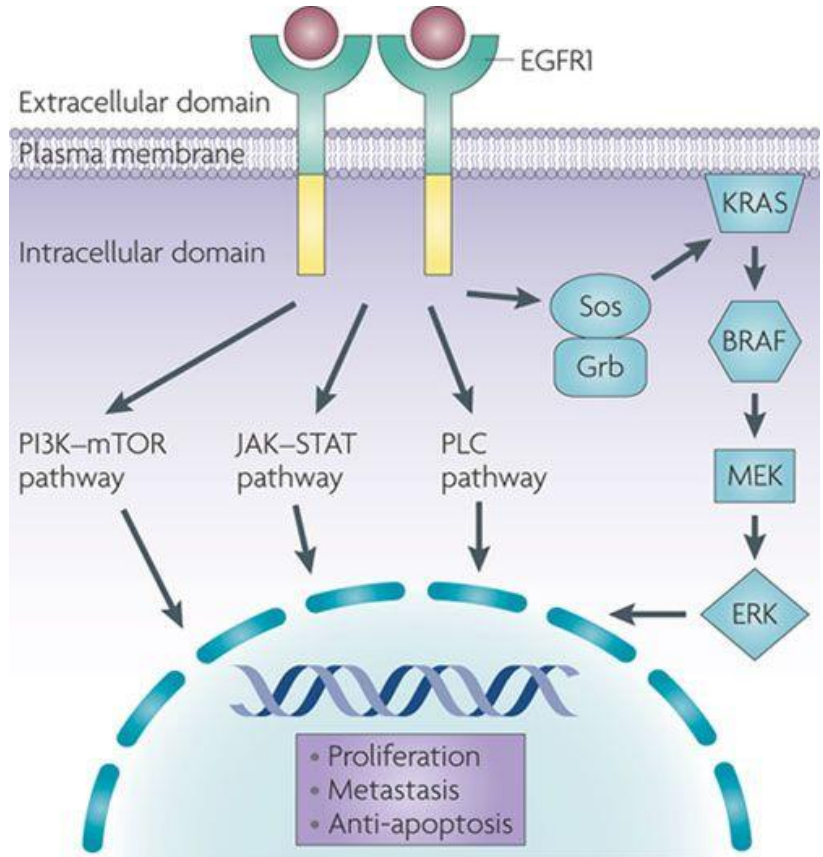
Biomarkers are not (always) equivalent to targets

An important distinction should be made between biomarkers and targets

KRAS is an excellent biomarker in colorectal cancer- but it is not the target of therapy



mutations in KRAS render tumors less responsive to anti-**EGFR** therapies



Nature Reviews | Cancer

<https://media.nature.com/full/nature-assets/nrc/journal/v9/n7/images/nrc2645-f2.jpg>

Imaging targets can be used as (imaging) biomarkers



tremendous variety of (potential) biomarkers: proteins, nucleic acids, antibodies, and peptides

Imaging biomarkers

- Angiogenesis
- Proliferation
- Infection
- Apoptosis
- Atherosclerosis (unstable plaques)
- Neurodegenerative disorders
- Inflammation
- Renal function

Identification and validation of new targets

Validation

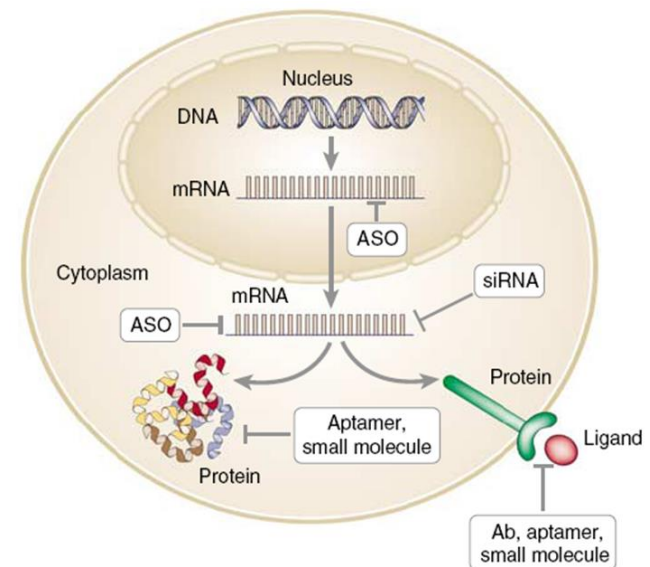
Process of determining the direct or indirect involvement of a specific protein in a disease and as a suitable target for new (radio)pharmaceuticals

Methods for the identification and validation of new targets - analysis of gene function in the different levels of expression



DNA, RNA and protein

Emerging from investigations of the genomic and proteomic signatures of cancer cells, an increasing number of promising targets are being identified, including receptors, enzymes, transporters, micro RNA, and antigens (a biomarker can also be a collection of alterations, such as gene expression, proteomic, and metabolomic signatures)



Identification and validation of new targets

Potential markers can be identified through multiple approaches:

Classic approach - identify candidate biomarkers/targets based on the biology of the tumor and surrounding environment

“Discovery” approach – using techniques such as high-throughput sequencing, gene expression arrays, and mass spectroscopy to quickly identify individual or groups of targets that differ between cohorts



vast amount of data generated means that particular attention needs to be paid to the study design and the data analysis, in order to minimize the chance of identifying associations that are false positives

Key aspects- careful study design to avoid bias, comprehensive testing and validation, and accurate reporting

OPEN

Imaging biomarker roadmap for cancer studies

James P. B. O'Connor¹, Eric O. Aboagye², Judith E. Adams³, Hugo J. W. L. Aerts⁴, Sally F. Barrington⁵, Ambros J. Beer⁶, Ronald Boellaard⁷, Sarah E. Bohndiek⁸, Michael Brady⁹, Gina Brown¹⁰, David L. Buckley¹¹, Thomas L. Chenevert¹², Laurence P. Clarke¹³, Sandra Collette¹⁴, Gary J. Cook⁵, Nandita M. deSouza¹⁵, John C. Dickson¹⁶, Caroline Dive¹⁷, Jeffrey L. Evelhoch¹⁸, Corinne Faivre-Finn¹⁹, Ferdia A. Gallagher⁸, Fiona J. Gilbert⁸, Robert J. Gillies²⁰, Vicky Goh⁵, John R. Griffiths⁸, Ashley M. Groves¹⁶, Steve Halligan¹⁶, Adrian L. Harris⁹, David J. Hawkes¹⁶, Otto S. Hoekstra²¹, Erich P. Huang²², Brian F. Hutton¹⁶, Edward F. Jackson²³, Gordon C. Jayson²⁴, Andrew Jones²⁵, Dow-Mu Koh¹⁵, Denis Lacombe²⁶, Philippe Lambin²⁷, Nathalie Lassau²⁸, Martin O. Leach¹⁵, Ting-Yim Lee²⁹, Edward L. Leen², Jason S. Lewis³⁰, Yan Liu²⁶, Mark F. Lythgoe³¹, Prakash Manoharan¹, Ross J. Maxwell³², Kenneth A. Miles¹⁶, Bruno Morgan³³, Steve Morris³⁴, Tony Ng⁵, Anwar R. Padhani³⁵, Geoff J. M. Parker¹, Mike Partridge⁹, Arvind P. Pathak³⁶, Andrew C. Peet³⁷, Shonit Punwani¹⁶, Andrew R. Reynolds³⁸, Simon P. Robinson¹⁵, Lalitha K. Shankar¹³, Ricky A. Sharma¹⁶, Dmitry Soloviev⁸, Sigrid Stroobants³⁹, Daniel C. Sullivan⁴⁰, Stuart A. Taylor¹⁶, Paul S. Tofts⁴¹, Gillian M. Tozer⁴², Marcel van Herk¹⁹, Simon Walker-Samuel³¹, James Wason⁴³, Kaye J. Williams¹, Paul Workman⁴⁴, Thomas E. Yankeelov⁴⁵, Kevin M. Brindle⁸, Lisa M. McShane²², Alan Jackson¹ and John C. Waterton¹

Abstract | Imaging biomarkers (IBs) are integral to the routine management of patients with cancer. IBs used daily in oncology include clinical TNM stage, objective response and left ventricular ejection fraction. Other CT, MRI, PET and ultrasonography biomarkers are used extensively in cancer research and drug development. New IBs need to be established either as useful tools for testing research hypotheses in clinical trials and research studies, or as clinical decision-making tools for use in healthcare, by crossing ‘translational gaps’ through validation and qualification. Important differences exist between IBs and biospecimen-derived biomarkers and, therefore, the development of IBs requires a tailored ‘roadmap’. Recognizing this need, Cancer Research UK (CRUK) and the European Organisation for Research and Treatment of Cancer (EORTC) assembled experts to review, debate and summarize the challenges of IB validation and qualification. This consensus group has produced 14 key recommendations for accelerating the clinical translation of IBs, which highlight the role of parallel (rather than sequential) tracks of technical (assay) validation, biological/clinical validation and assessment of cost-effectiveness; the need for IB standardization and accreditation systems; the need to continually revisit IB precision; an alternative framework for biological/clinical validation of IBs; and the essential requirements for multicentre studies to qualify IBs for clinical use.

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doi:10.1038/nrclinonc.2016.167
Published online 11 Oct 2016

A biomarker is a “defined characteristic that is measured as an indicator of normal biological processes, pathogenic processes or responses to an exposure or intervention, including therapeutic interventions” (REFS 1,2). The current FDA–NIH Biomarker Working Group definition

— adopted in this consensus statement — states explicitly that “molecular, histologic, radiographic or physiologic characteristics are examples of biomarkers” (REF. 2). This approach seeks to clarify inconsistency in terminology, because some previous definitions have restricted

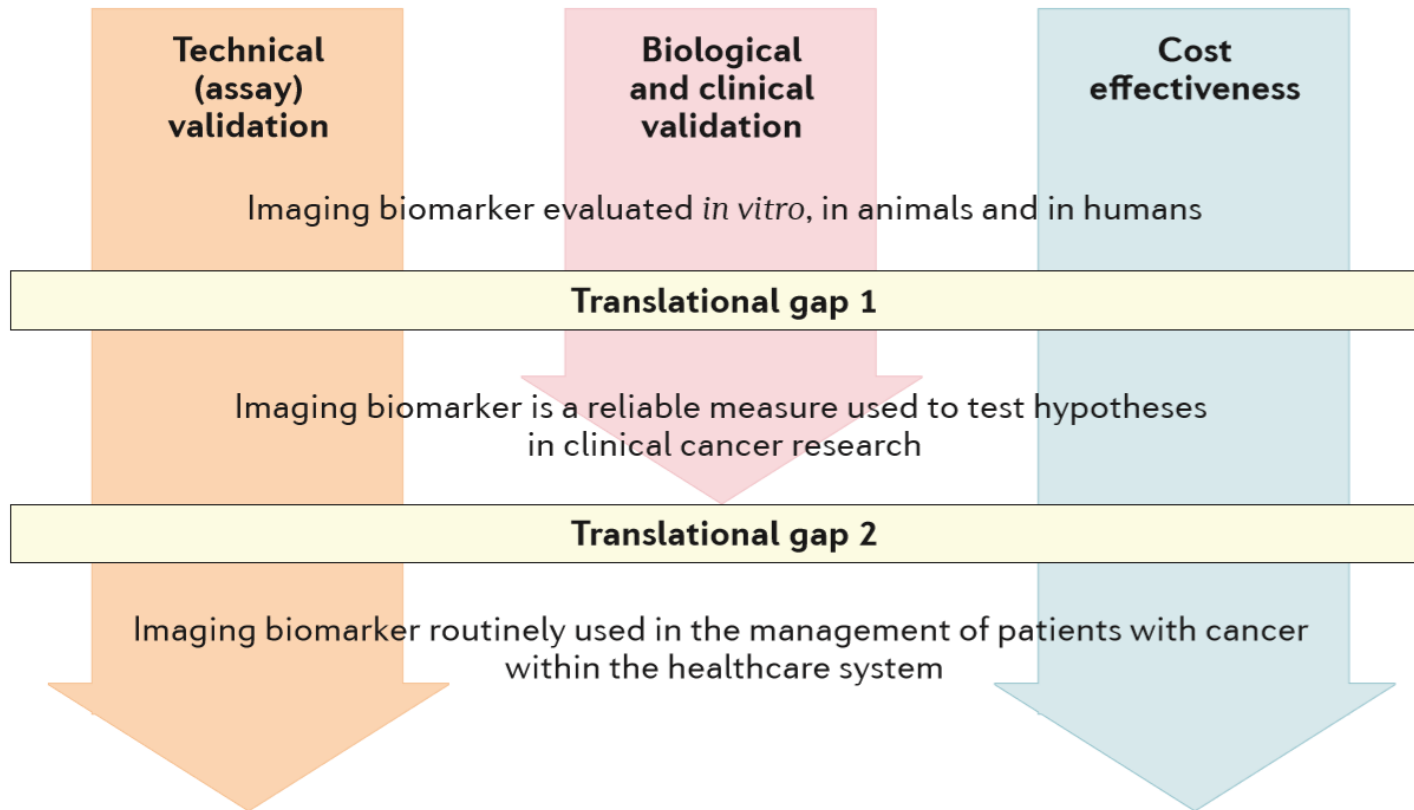
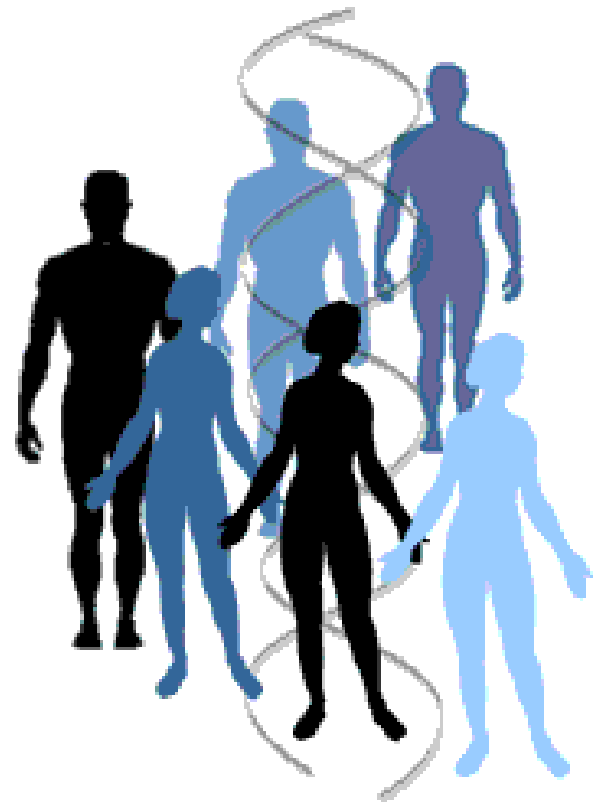
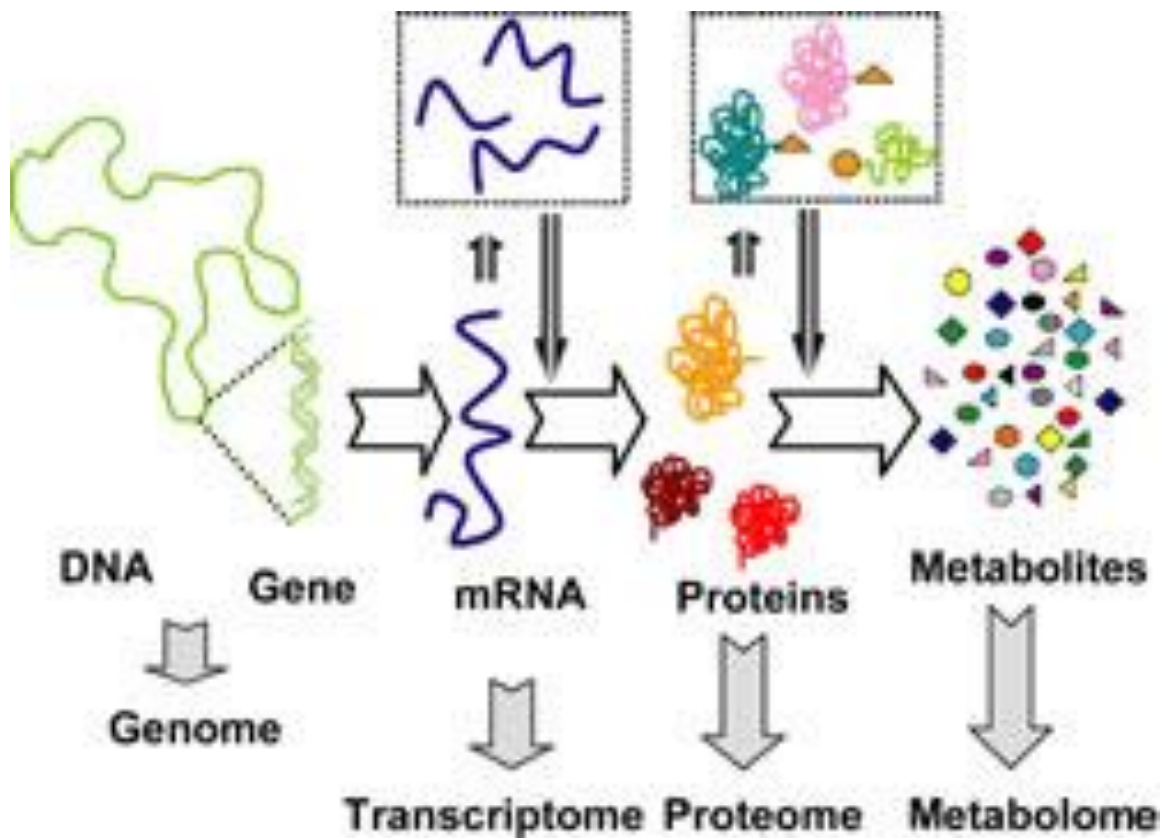


Figure 1 | **Overview of the imaging biomarker roadmap.** Imaging biomarkers must cross translational gap 1 to become robust medical research tools, and translational gap 2 to be integrated into routine patient care. This goal is achieved through three parallel tracks of technical (assay) validation, biological and clinical validation, and cost effectiveness.

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- **Transcriptomics and Proteomics**
- Antibody fragments



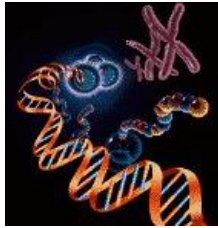
Omic: global (integrated) cell biology



The Era of Omics

What might happen

Genomics



Genotype

What is happening (now)

Metabolomics



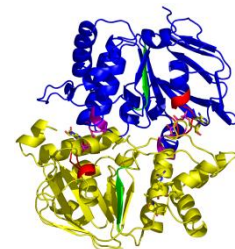
What seems to be happening

Transcriptomics

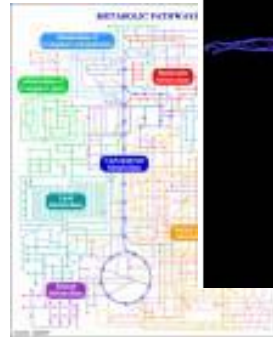


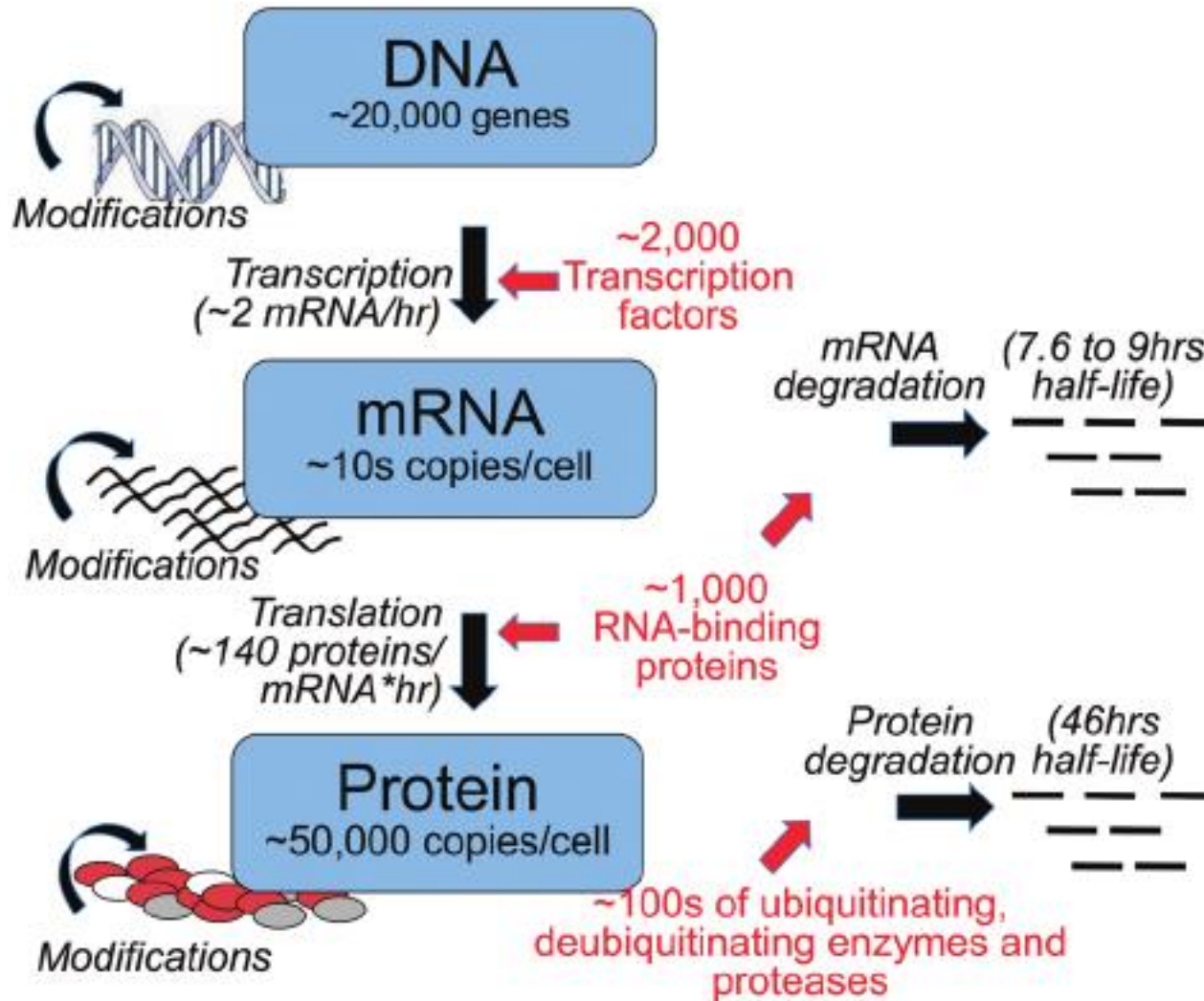
What makes it happen

Proteomics



Fenotype





> 68.000 protein variants

Next-generation analysis of gene expression regulation – comparing the roles of synthesis and degradation
 July 2015, Molecular BioSystems 11(10)

Transcriptomics

DNA Arrays vs RNA sequencing

Dominant contemporary techniques: microarrays and RNA-Seq, were developed in the mid-1990s and 2000s

Microarrays that measure the abundances of a defined set of transcripts via their hybridisation to an array of complementary probes were first published in 1995.

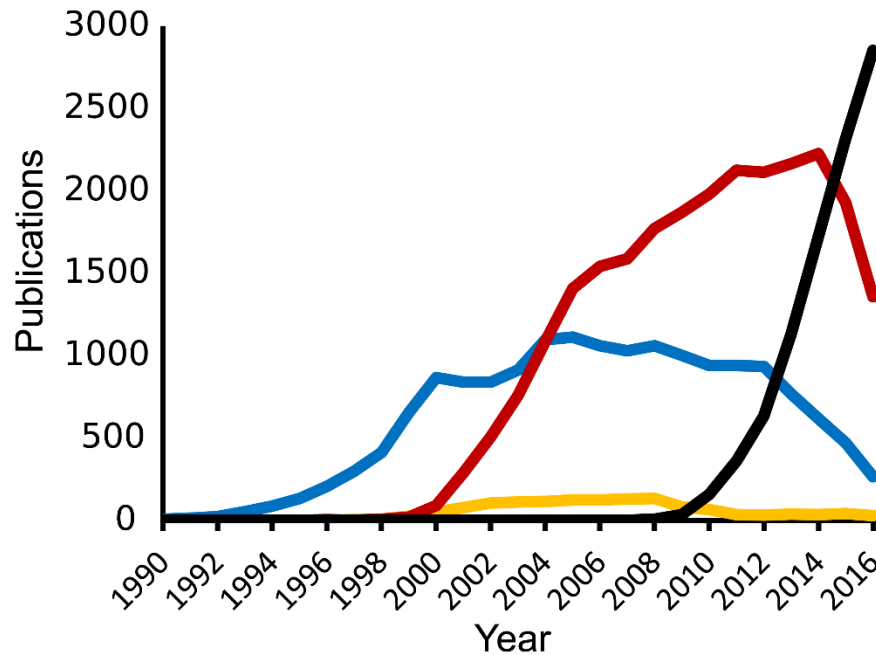
RNA-Seq refers to the sequencing of transcript cDNAs, in which abundance is derived from the number of counts from each transcript.

Method	RNA-Seq	Microarray
Throughput	High [10]	Higher [10]
Input RNA amount	Low ~ 1 ng total RNA [25]	High ~ 1 µg mRNA [26]
Labour intensity	High (sample preparation and data analysis) [10][23]	Low [10][23]
Prior knowledge	None required, though genome sequence useful [23]	Reference transcripts required for probes [23]
Quantitation accuracy	~90% (limited by sequence coverage) [27]	>90% (limited by fluorescence detection accuracy) [27]
Sequence resolution	Can detect SNPs and splice variants (limited by sequencing accuracy of ~99%) [27]	Dedicated arrays can detect splice variants (limited by probe design and cross-hybridisation) [27]
Sensitivity	10^{-6} (limited by sequence coverage) [27]	10^{-3} (limited by fluorescence detection) [27]
Dynamic range	$>10^5$ (limited by sequence coverage) [28]	$10^3 - 10^4$ (limited by fluorescence saturation) [28]
Technical reproducibility	>99% [29][30]	>99% [31][32]

RNA-Seq, RNA Sequencing

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005457.t001>

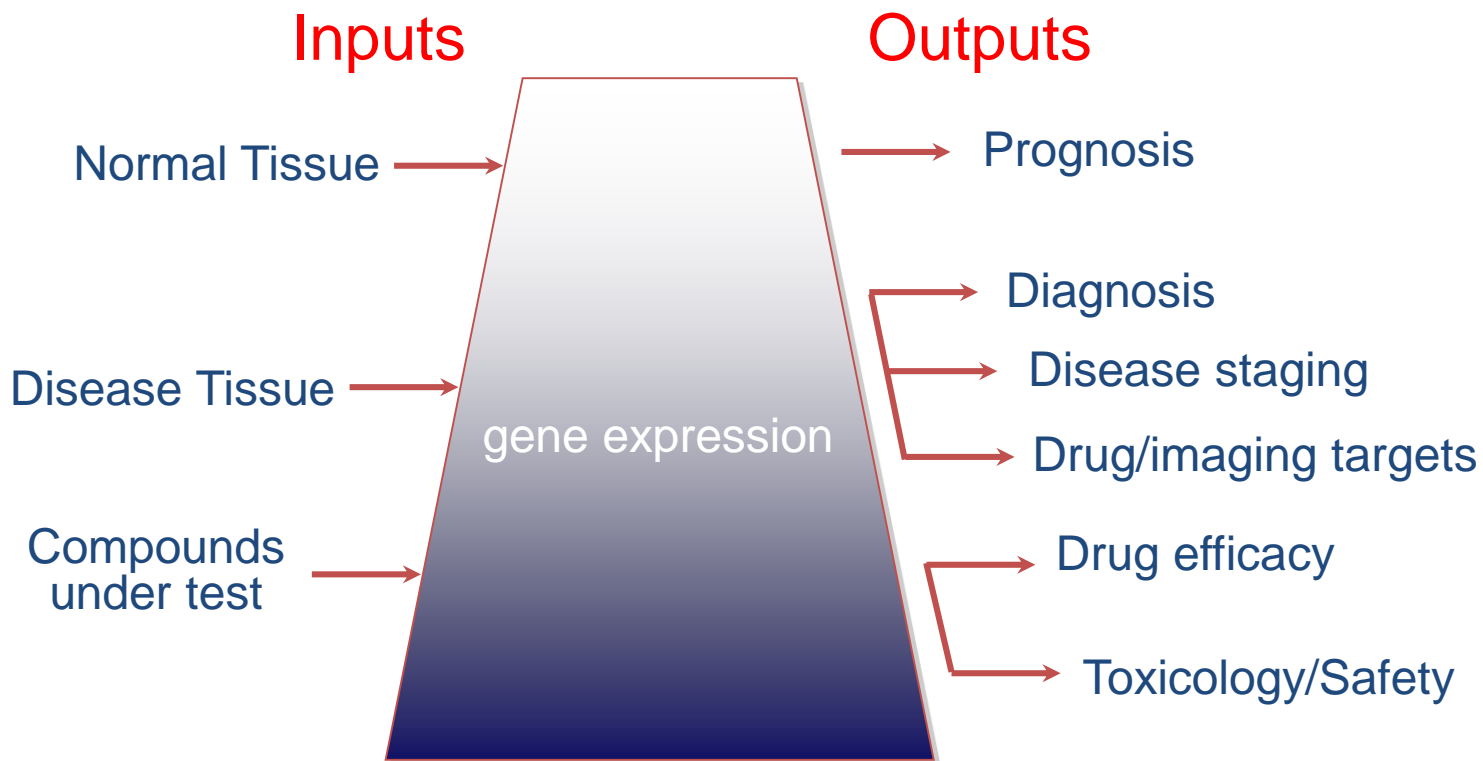
Transcriptomics methods use over time



Published papers since 1990, referring to RNA sequencing (black), RNA microarray (red), expressed sequence tag (blue), and serial/cap analysis of gene expression (yellow)

<https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1005457>

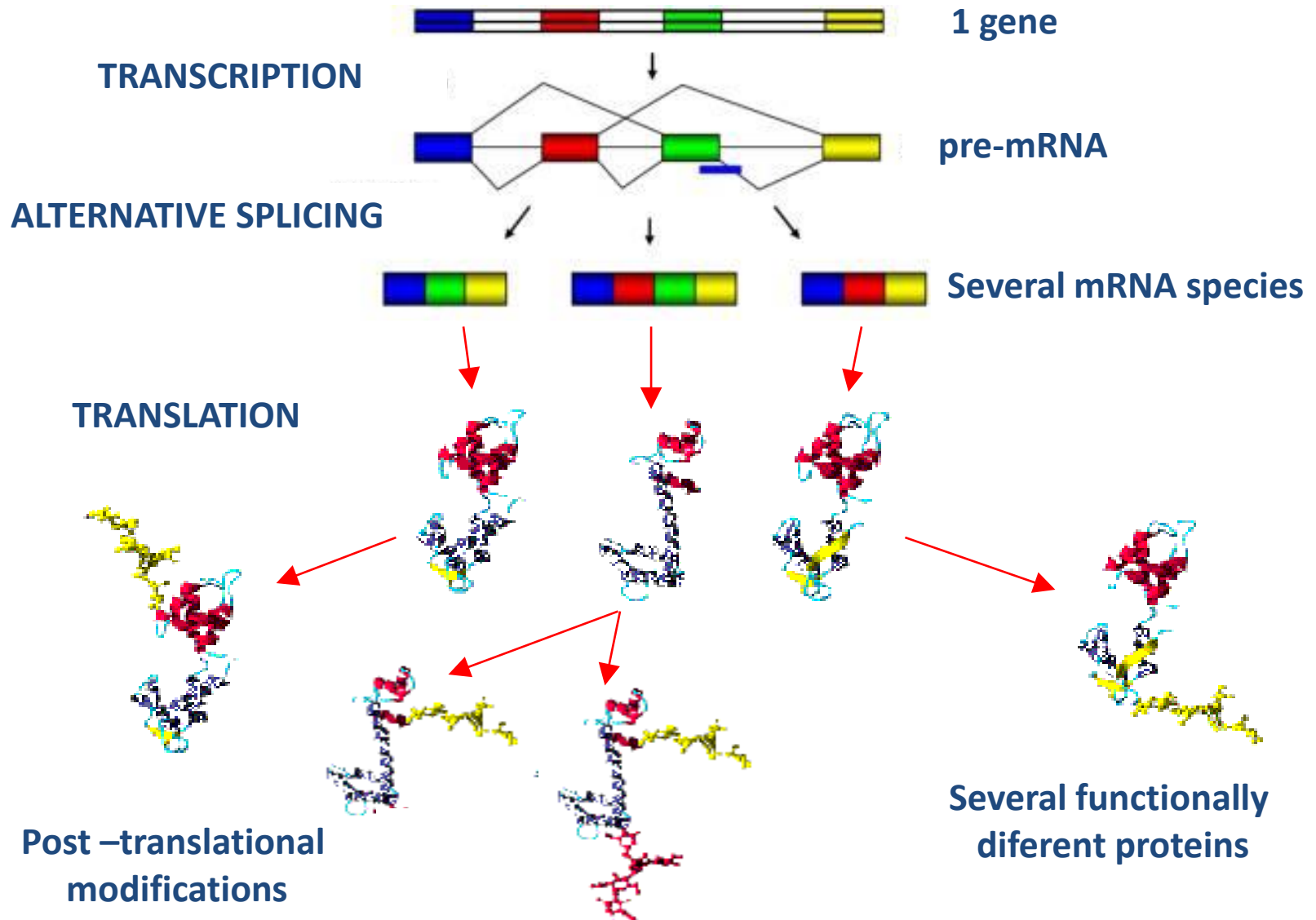
Transcriptomics - Applications



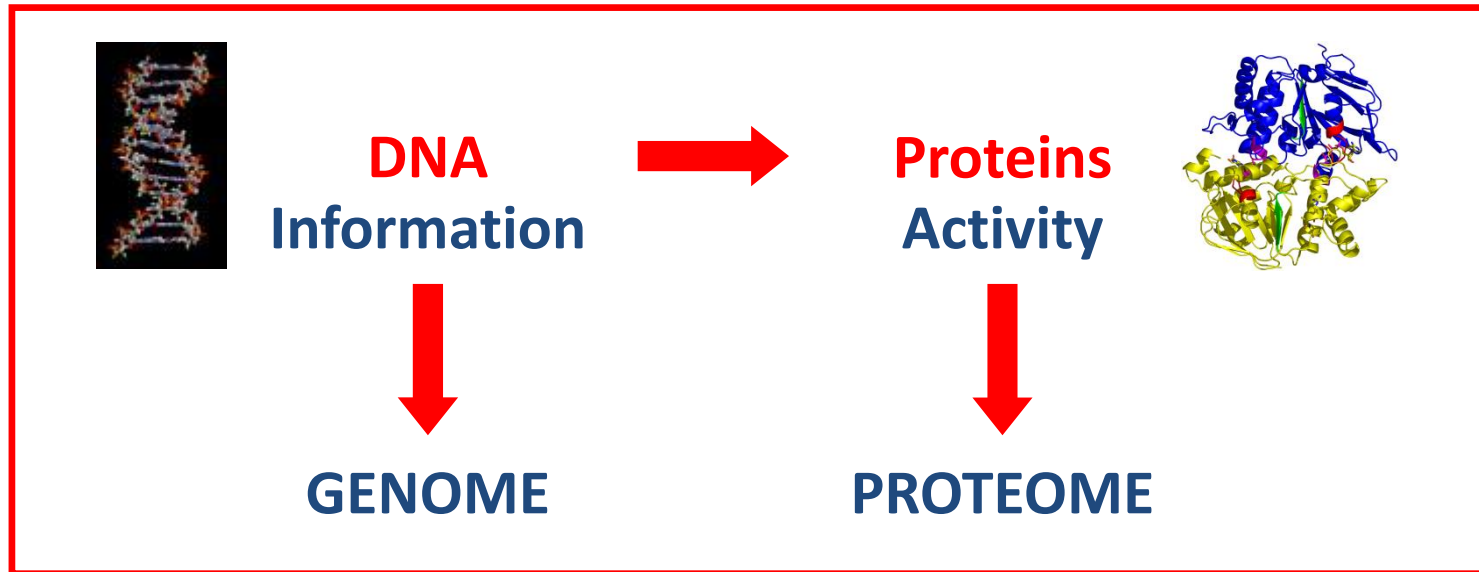
Limitations of (genomics) and Transcriptomics

- ✓ The genome does not demonstrate the dynamic processes occurring at the protein and cellular levels
- ✓ The sequence of a gene does not allow the identification of the post translational modifications (glycosilation, phosphorylation), which are essencial for protein funciton and activity
- ✓ The expression level of a gene does not correlate with the amount of active protein in the cell

DNA versus Protein



Proteome



One genome



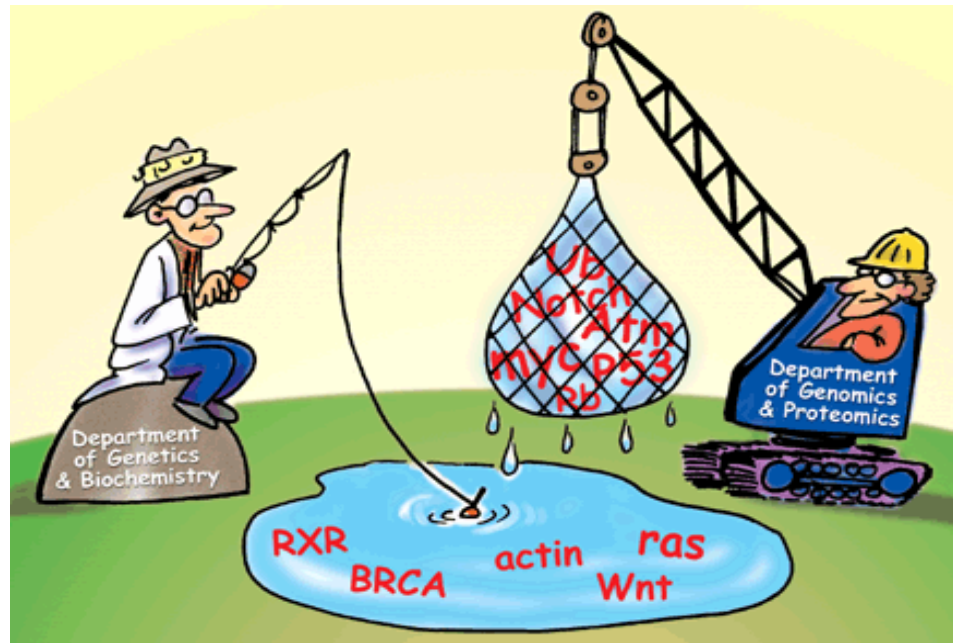
Two proteomes

It is the set of all **proteins** expressed by a determined type of cells, organisms, etc, in a determined time, under determined conditions, by a **genome**.

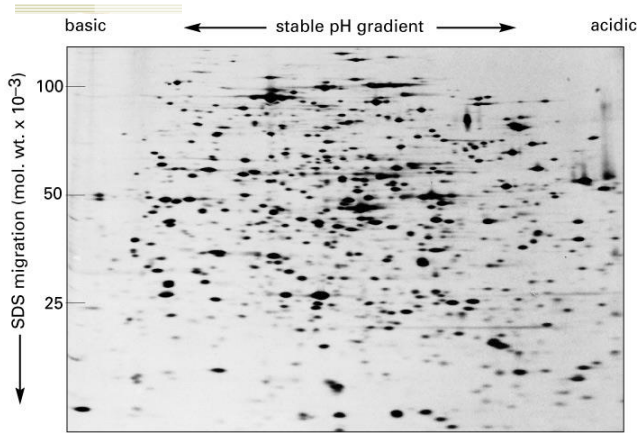
Marc R. Wikins, 1994

Proteomics

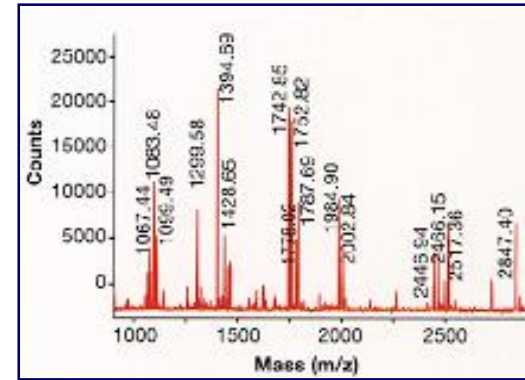
Methodologies to quantitatively determine the pattern of protein expression of a genome



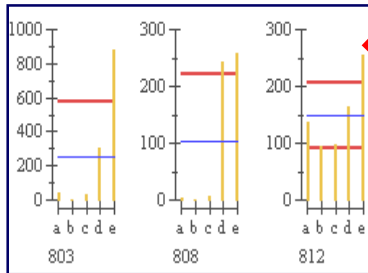
Proteomics classical approach



1. 2-DE separation



3. Mass spectrometry ID



2. Bioinformatic analysis



4. Databases

Proteomics- alternatives to 2DE

- ✓ HPLC
- ✓ ICAT (Isotope Coded Affinity Tags)
- ✓ Protein Chip
- ✓ High Performance mass spectroscopy - iTRAQ, label-free LFQ...

Review Article

The Discovery of Novel Genomic, Transcriptomic, and Proteomic Biomarkers in Cardiovascular and Peripheral Vascular Disease: The State of the Art

Stefano de Franciscis,^{1,2} Laurent Metzinger,³ and Raffaele Serra^{1,2}

Guest et al. *Genome Medicine* 2013, 5:17
<http://genomemedicine.com/content/5/2/17>



EDITORIAL

Proteomics: improving biomarker translation to modern medicine?

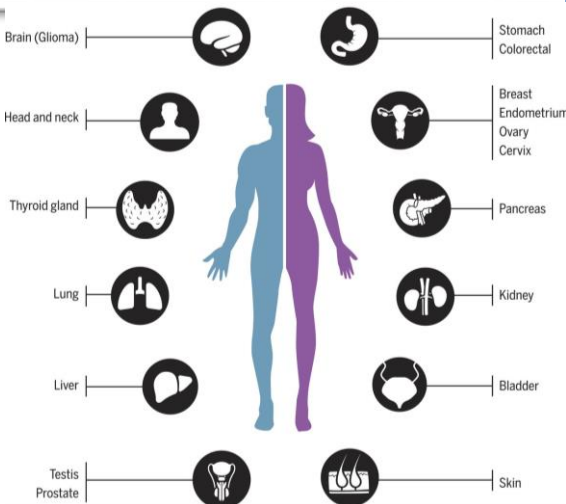
Paul C Guest^{1*}, Michael G Gottschalk¹ and Sabine Bahn^{1,2}

RESEARCH ARTICLE

A pathology atlas of the human cancer transcriptome

Mathias Uhlen^{1,2,3,*}, Cheng Zhang¹, Sunjae Lee¹, Evelina Sjöstedt^{1,4}, Linn Fagerberg¹, Gholamreza Bidkhori¹, Rui Benfeitas¹, ...
 + See all authors and affiliations

Science 18 Aug 2017:
 Vol. 357, Issue 6352, eaan2507
 DOI: 10.1126/science.aan2507



transcriptome of 17 major cancer types, based on a genome-wide transcriptomics analysis of ~8000 individual patients



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Translational Proteomics

journal homepage: <http://www.elsevier.com/locate/trprot>

Plasma proteomics to identify biomarkers – application to cardiovascular diseases

Hans Christian Beck^{a,b,*}, Martin Overgaard^{a,b}, Lars Melholt Rasmussen^{a,b,c}

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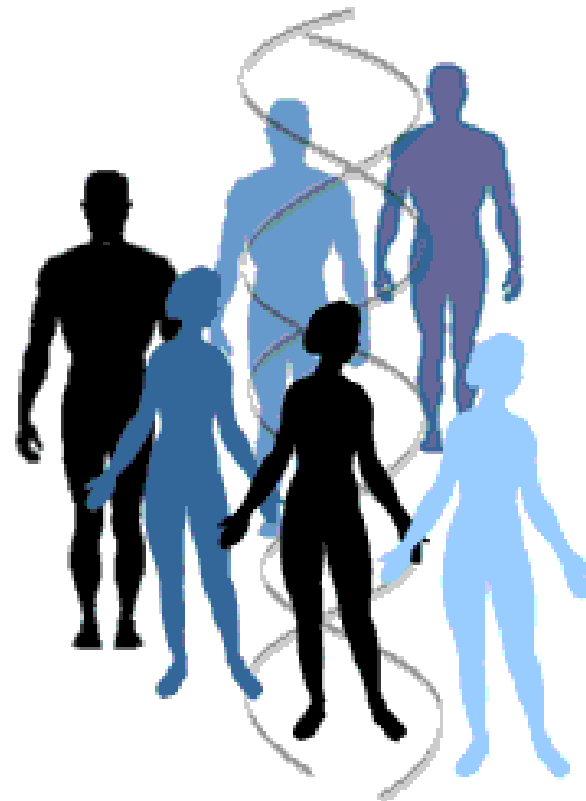
2017; 7(14): 3559-3572. doi: 10.7150/thno.20797

Review

Mass spectrometry-assisted gel-based proteomics in cancer biomarker discovery: approaches and application

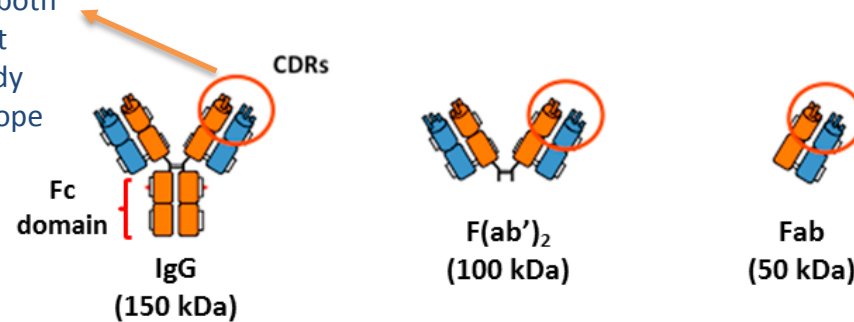
Rongrong Huang¹, Zhongsi Chen¹, Lei He¹, Nongyue He^{1,4}, Zhijiang Xi², Zhiyang Li^{1,3}, Yan Deng^{1,4}, Xin Zeng⁵

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Antibody fragments

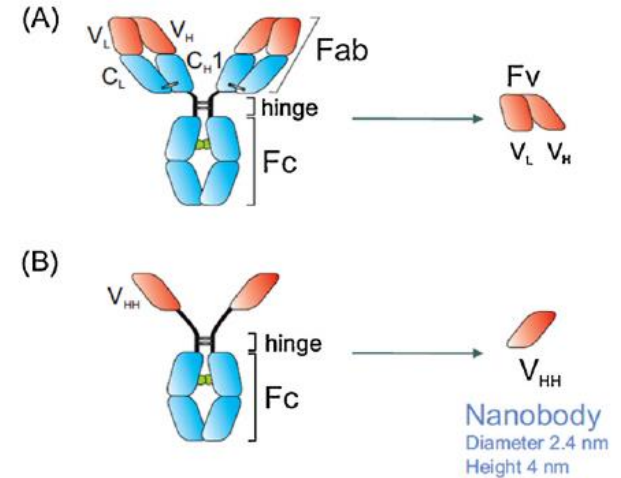
Complementarity-determining regions (CDR) are hypervariable domains in both light and heavy chains that determine specific antibody binding to an antigen epitope



Monovalent and monospecific recombinant fragments



Multivalent and monospecific recombinant fragments



Smallest available intact antigen binding fragments, only 15 kDa,

Production of antibody and antibody fragments

Full (natural) antibodies

Immunization + antibody isolation (hybridoma technology)

Antibody fragments

Libraries + antibody-fragment isolation & sequencing
(biopanning technology)

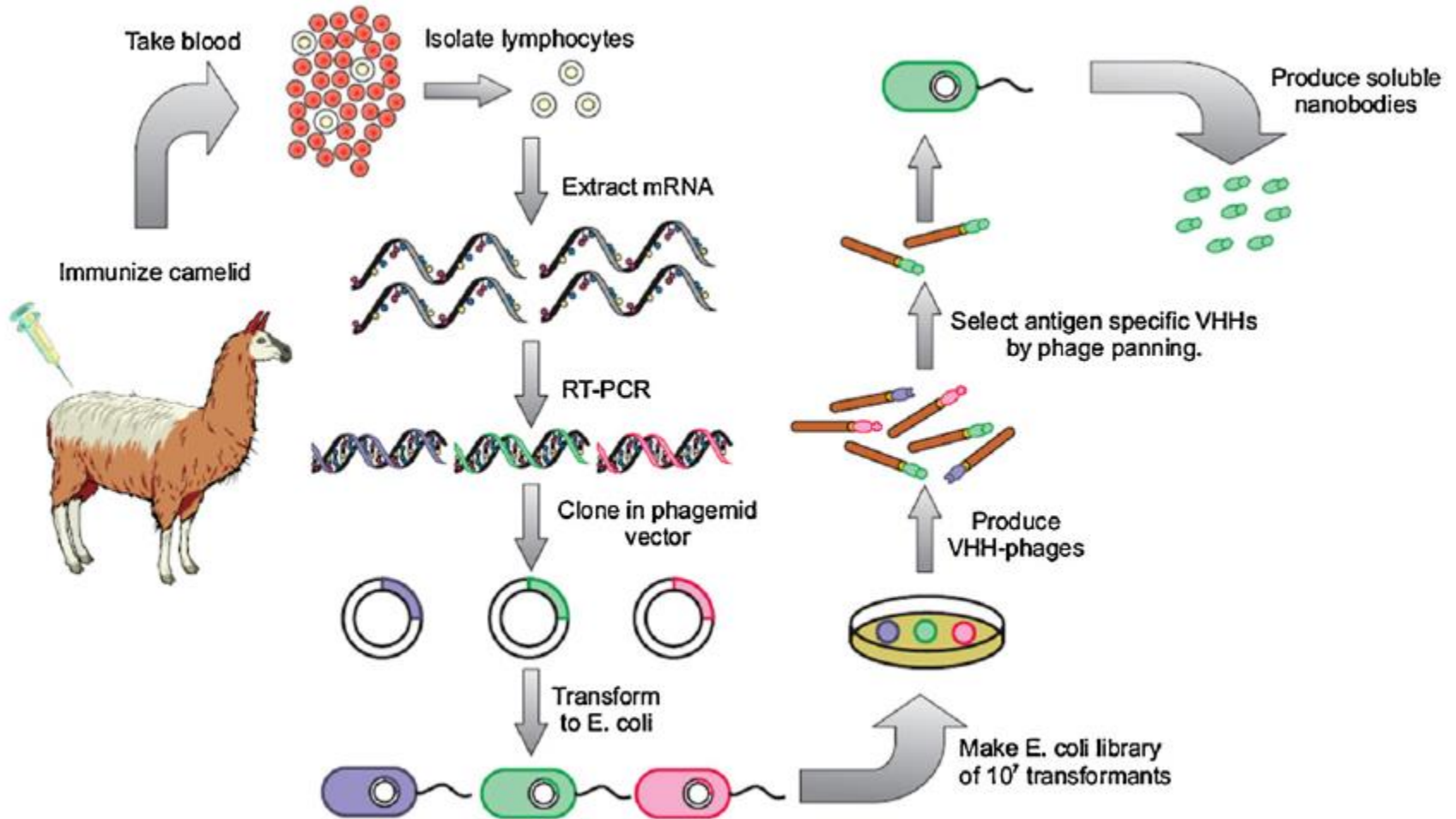
Production of Ab fragments

→ ANTIBODY FRAGMENT LIBRARY:

- naive library
 - immune library
 - synthetic library
- } natural

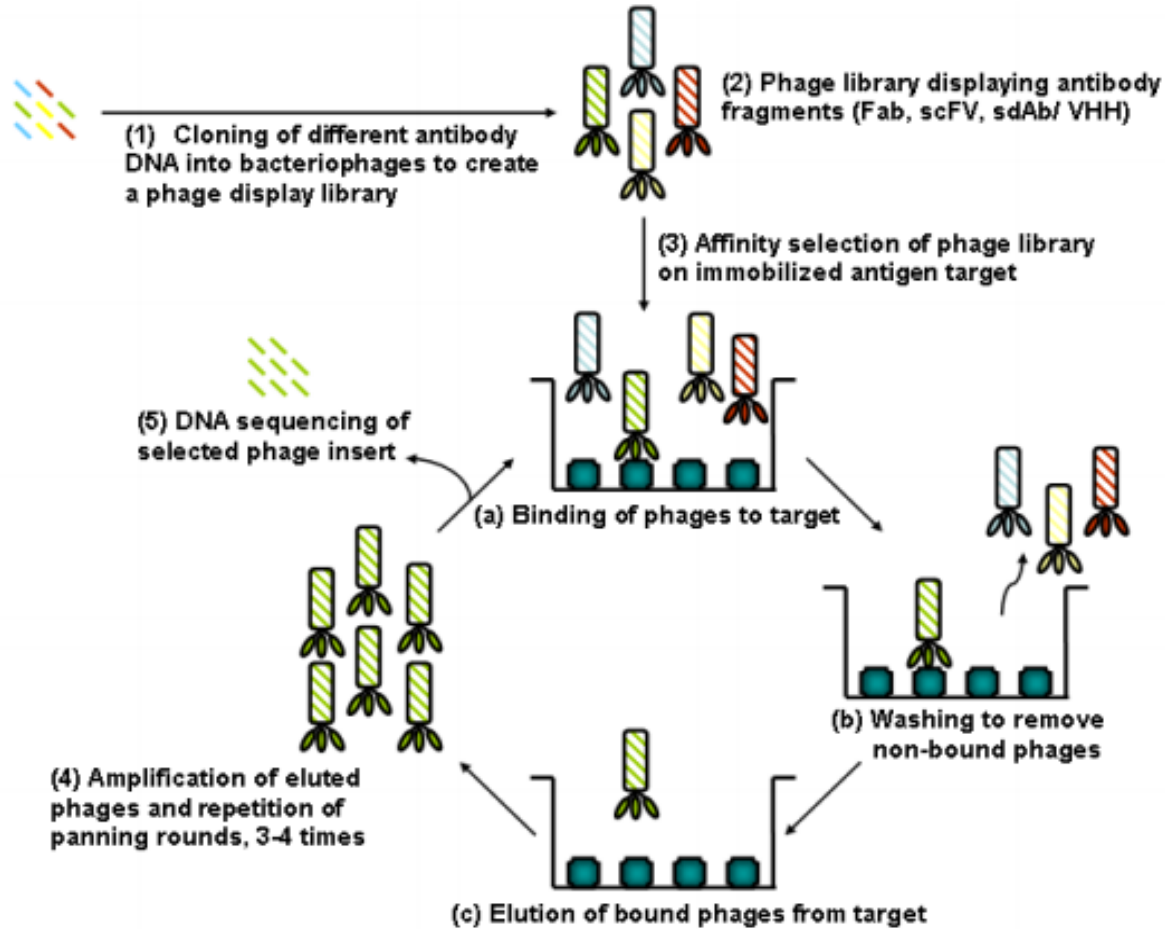
- antibody libraries based solely on natural repertoires typically yield panels of hits with good levels of functionality but with limited diversity

- synthetic libraries will yield far higher encoded diversity but will generally suffer from a high representation of antibodies with poor functionality.



After immunization of a camelid, cDNA is generated from the animal's lymphocytes. This cDNA is introduced in a phage display system which is consequently used for panning on the antigen of interest. Positive clones are easily expressed or recloned into any desired format.

Selection of target-specific antibodies from an antibody phage display library



(1) DNA encoding different antibodies is cloned into the genome of a filamentous bacteriophage linked to one of the phage coat protein genes; (2) Each DNA variant is packed into a separate phage particle, and the antibody displayed on the phage coat protein; (3) Phage displaying an antibody that binds to the target analyte is selected using biopanning cycles of (a) binding, (b) washing, and (c) elution; (4) Eluted phages are reinfected into *E. coli* cells and amplified for further rounds of affinity selection; (5) Clones from the enriched library are characterized for binding properties using appropriate techniques (from Yun *et al.*, 2009).

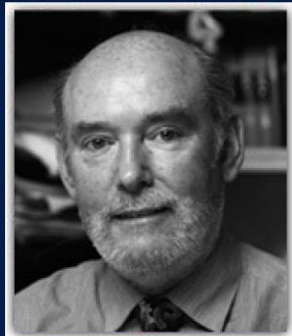
To finish

May 2018 – 50th anniversary

Fifty years since DNA repair was linked to cancer

In 1968, a defect in DNA repair was found to underlie a disorder that makes people extremely sensitive to sunlight. This finding continues to influence research into the origins, diagnosis and treatment of cancer.

J Cleaver, “Defective Repair Replication of DNA in Xeroderma Pigmentosum”
Nature, **218**, pp 652–656
(18 May 1968)



James E. Cleaver, PhD

Professor Emeritus, Departments of Dermatology and
Pharmaceutical Chemistry, UCSF

Some people are born with exceptional sensitivity to sunlight. Fifty years ago, J Cleaver reported a study of one such condition, and concluded that a failure of DNA repair was related to the extreme susceptibility of affected individuals to skin cancer. This was the first description of defective DNA repair in a genetically inherited disorder that makes people prone to cancer.

Thank you!

Any questions?

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