

# Evidence by molecular profiling for a placental origin of infantile hemangioma

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The origin of the pathogenic endothelial cells in common infantile hemangioma is unknown. We show here that the transcriptomes of human placenta and infantile hemangioma are sufficiently similar to suggest a placental origin for this tumor, expanding on recent immunophenotypical studies that have suggested this possibility [North, P. E., *et al.* (2001) *Arch. Dermatol.* 137, 559–570]. The transcriptomes of placenta, hemangioma, and eight normal and diseased tissues were compared by hierarchical and nonhierarchical clustering analysis of >7,800 genes. We found that the level of transcriptome similarity between placenta and hemangioma exceeded that of any other tissue compared and paralleled that observed between a given tissue and its derived tumor, such as normal and cancerous lung. The degree of similarity was even greater when a subset of endothelial cell-specific genes was analyzed. Genes preferentially expressed in both placenta and hemangiomas were identified, including 17- $\beta$  hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 2 and tissue factor pathway inhibitor 2. These data demonstrate the value of global molecular profiling of tissues as a tool for hypothesis-driven research. Furthermore, it suggests that the unique self-limited growth of infantile hemangioma may, in fact, mirror the lifetime of placental endothelium.

angiogenesis | endothelium | microarray | gene array

Infantile hemangioma is the most common pediatric tumor, affecting 1 in 10 Caucasian babies (1, 2). Hemangiomas are benign vascular lesions that grow rapidly during infancy and slowly involute during childhood to be replaced by fibro-fatty tissue. Hemangiomas are heterogeneous at all stages of tumor development (3). Proliferating lesions consist of endothelial cells (EC), supporting pericytes, and myeloid cells but include other cells such as fibroblasts and mast cells (3, 4). Recent studies with isolated hemangioma EC (5) and whole lesions (6) indicate that hemangiomas arise from uncontrolled clonal expansion of EC. Both abnormal local cellular signals (7) and somatic mutation in EC and/or pericytes (6) have been proposed as triggers for EC proliferation.

The tissue of origin on the hemangioma EC remains elusive. Hemangioma EC may derive from resident angioblasts, possibly arrested in an early stage of vascular development (8), because early lesions express CD34 and LYVE-1 (9). However, hemangioma EC could derive from cells expressing immature markers that home to receptive tissues from nonlocal sources. One option is bone marrow, because endothelial progenitor cells (10, 11) are found within hemangiomas (10) and are increased in the plasma of patients (10). A second alternative is placenta, because placental progenitor cells could embolize to receptive fetal tissues during gestation (12, 13).

Here, we test the hypothesis that hemangiomas derive from placental EC. A placental origin would explain the unique immunophenotypic similarity between hemangioma and placental vasculature. At least seven markers of hemangioma vessels are uniquely coexpressed in placental vessels. In addition to the four markers identified by North: GLUT1 (14), merosin (12), Lewis Y antigen (12), and Fc $\gamma$ -RIIb (12), the following three markers have been independently reported in hemangioma and placental vessels: type III iodothyronine deiodinase (15, 16), indoleamine 2,3-

deoxygenase (17, 18), and insulin-like growth factor 2 (IGF2)<sup>§§</sup> (19, 20). No other tissue jointly expresses these markers. A placental origin would explain the 3-fold higher incidence of hemangiomas in infants born after transcervical chorionic villus sampling (21) and the association between hemangioma and prematurity (22) because prematurity may result from placental complications (13).

The molecular basis for the placental hypothesis is based on shared immunohistochemical markers. To more definitely test this hypothesis, we reasoned that if hemangiomas derive from placenta, then the genomewide gene expression profiles of hemangioma and placenta should exhibit a higher degree of global similarity relative to other tissues. Gene expression profiling permits comparison of the transcriptome as an entity (23, 24). The use of genomewide gene expression profiles as a whole, rather than specific genetic markers, is a powerful diagnostic tool for distinguishing tumor subtypes and prognostic groups (24). Here, we exploit gene expression profiling of tissues in a previously uncharacterized way: not only to identify differentially expressed genes or gene signatures, but primarily to test a biological hypothesis based on a feature of the transcriptome as an entity.

## Materials and Methods

**Tissue Collection.** Human discarded tissues were handled anonymously according to procedures approved by the Committee on Clinical Investigation and the Internal Review Board of Children's Hospital and Brigham and Women's Hospital (Boston). Foreskins and proliferating infantile hemangiomas were obtained immediately after surgery and normal term placentas after Cesarean delivery, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  until use.

**Gene Expression Studies.** RNA from placental villous samples (P), and from infantile hemangioma samples (H), RNA target preparation, and hybridization to U95Av2 (12,626 probe sets) GeneChip oligonucleotide microarrays (Affymetrix) were performed as described in ref. 25.

**Data Collection and Scaling.** P, H, normal skeletal muscle (N) (25), and brain (B) (26) expression profiles were performed in the microarray facility at Children's Hospital and scaled to a target intensity of 1,500 (MICROARRAY SUITE 5.0, Affymetrix). Normal (L) and cancerous lung data (Sq, SmC, and Car) were obtained from ref. 27 as Affymetrix U95Av2 raw image (DAT) files and were analyzed in MICROARRAY SUITE as above. Normal skin (S) and

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Abbreviations: EC, endothelial cell; FB, fibroblast; H, infantile hemangioma samples; IGF2, insulin-like growth factor II; P, placental villous samples; 17HSD $\beta$ 2, 17- $\beta$  hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type II; TFPI2, tissue factor pathway inhibitor 2.

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scleroderma (Sc) U95A data (28) downloaded from ref. 28 as text files of the raw numerical data were scaled to an average “signal” target intensity of 1,500 (all sample details are in Table 3, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site).

**Gene Filtering.** Data were filtered with the MICROARRAY SUITE 5.0 present/absent call. Only genes “expressed” in at least one tissue were included; expressed required a “present” call in  $\geq 75\%$  of all samples of that tissue. Filtering left  $m = 7,815$  (of 12,650) genes; thus, the input data matrix for clustering was  $(m = 7,815) \times (n = 63$  samples).

**Cluster Analysis.** The  $m \times n$  data matrix of signal values was log<sub>2</sub>-transformed to yield a normal distribution and prevent bias by outlier genes. Samples were standardized to the  $z$  score to minimize sample-to-sample variations given different sources. One-way clustering of samples was performed by calculating the entire  $n \times n$  distance matrix between all samples, making the process independent of the order of the data in the input matrix. Clustering and dendrograms of similarity between the samples were generated with the program CLUSTANGRAPHICS 6.0. (Clustan, Ltd, Edinburgh) (29) (details in Fig. 4, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site).

**Analysis in GEDI.** A visual portrait for each sample’s profile based on self-organizing maps (30) was created by analyzing the data for hierarchical clustering with the program GEDI (31) (specific parameters are in Fig. 5, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site).

**Placenta and Hemangioma Specific Expression.** Differentially expressed genes in H and P versus control tissues were identified by fold difference and  $q$  value as criteria (32). Fold difference in two tissues corresponds to the ratio of the averaged signal values over all samples for each respective tissue.  $q$  values, which measure significance in terms of false discovery rate rather than false positive rate, were determined by using the program QVALUE as described

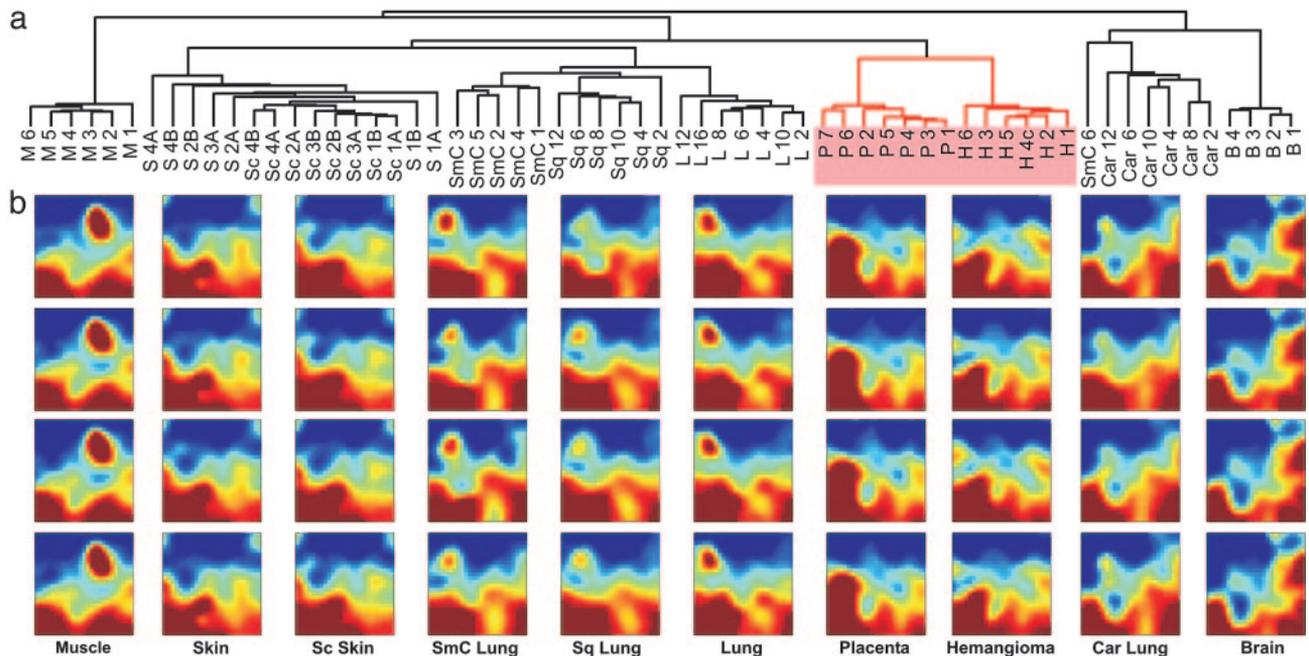
in Table 4, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site (32).  $\pi_0$  values were automatically estimated by using the “smoother” method of the program.

**Correlation Matrix of EC Expression.** An EC-associated gene set was defined based on a pan-endothelial set previously identified by using different sources (33). Our EC-associated set, constituting 29 probe sets and reflecting 21 genes (Table 5, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site), comprises all genes expressed  $\geq 4$ -fold in EC relative to non-EC (33) and represented in the U95Av2 arrays. This set was used to investigate the correlation of EC-expression between different tissues. The  $63 \times 63$  half-matrix of Pearson correlation coefficients  $r$  of all samples to each other was calculated by using the signal values and represented as a colored matrix by using the MATLAB 6.0 program (MathWorks, Natick, MA).

**Confirmation of Differentially Expressed Genes.** Gene expression levels of tissue factor pathway inhibitor 2 (TFPI2), IGF2, and 17- $\beta$  hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type II (HSD17B2) were compared in cells and tissues by real-time quantitative RT-PCR with the Quantitect SYBR Green RT-PCR kit (Qiagen) (primer sequences and details in Table 3).  $\beta$ -2-microglobulin controlled for overall cDNA content. RNA from neonatal foreskin was isolated as described above. RNA from human skeletal muscle, brain, fetal liver, uterus, lung, and bone marrow were obtained from BD Biosciences. RNA from primary cultures of human EC and fibroblasts (FB) was harvested by using RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). ECs from H (5), P (isolated as described in ref. 34), umbilical vein (HUVEC, Cambrex), and neonatal dermal microvascular (HMVEC, Cambrex) were cultured in EGM-2 media (Cambrex). FB from placental villi, H, and foreskin (isolated by collagenase/DNase I digestion) were cultured in DMEM with 10% FCS.

**Results**

**Data Collection.** We used oligonucleotide microarrays to compare the transcriptomes of H, P, and eight control tissues: normal muscle



**Fig. 1.** High similarity between hemangioma and placental transcriptomes. (a) Hierarchical clustering of 7,815 genes in the “sample dimension.” (b) Self-organizing maps visualized with GEDI. Each tile within a mosaic represents a minicluster of genes ( $\approx 10$  on average) with similar expression patterns across all samples. Tile’s color indicates minicluster’s average gene expression level. Samples are from: B, brain; H, hemangioma; P, placenta; S, skin; M, muscle; L, lung; Sc, scleroderma; Sq, squamous lung; SmC, small cell lung; Car, carcinoid lung.



two hierarchical clustering methods placed the cutaneous profiles as an independent cluster next to that formed by H/P.

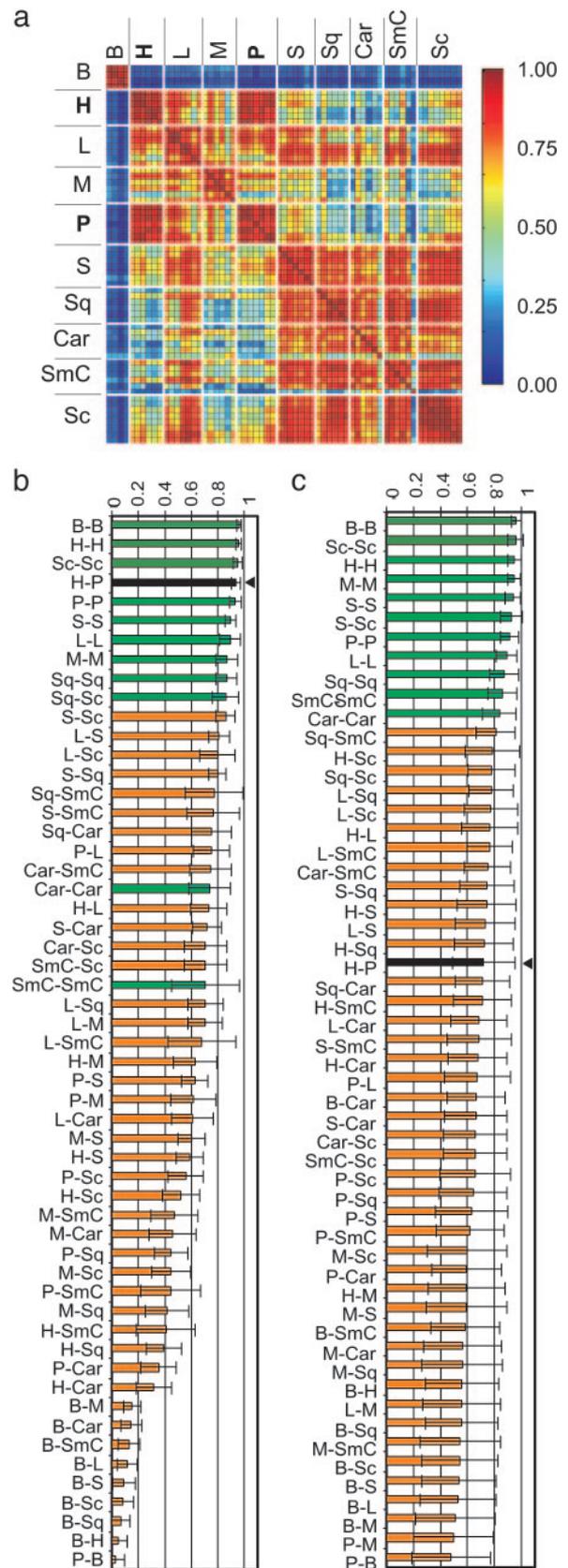
**Comparing the Endothelial Compartment.** Because hemangioma EC are clonal (5), and endothelium in different tissues display distinct transcriptomes (40–42), we asked whether hemangioma EC might exhibit a similar molecular portrait with placental EC. The microarray data were from whole tissues rather than isolated cells; thus, we “electronically dissected” the endothelial compartments by analyzing the profiles established by EC-associated genes. A set of 29 EC-associated genes (33) was defined (see *Materials and Methods* and Table 5) and used to investigate the degree of tissue-specific EC similarity. We first performed hierarchical clustering. As in the analysis of the entire transcriptome, all H and P formed a single cluster (Fig. 2). The relative similarity between the samples was then determined with correlation coefficients based on the EC set. Correlations are not affected by variations in the proportion of endothelium in the samples (Fig. 3*a*). We found a remarkably high correlation between hemangioma and placenta (H-P) (Pearson correlation coefficient,  $r = 0.94$ ) that surpassed that of most same-tissue comparisons (normal or diseased), including P-P, and all different-tissue pairwise combinations (Fig. 3*b*). These findings indicate that hemangioma and placental EC are at least as similar to one another, as is endothelium of the same tissue harvested from different patients, including that from placenta, lung, muscle, or skin.

The high degree of H-P correlation with respect to EC-associated genes cannot be explained by endothelium activation or by ongoing angiogenesis. The EC-associated subset in H correlated more with that of normal lung (H-L,  $r = 0.73$ ) than pulmonary tumor ( $r = 0.41$ – $0.31$ ), although the latter exhibits active angiogenesis. Moreover, the correlations for the EC subset of (cutaneous) H and normal skin (H-S,  $r = 0.59$ ) and H and sclerodermic skin (H-Sc,  $r = 0.52$ ) were significantly lower than H-P.

To examine the robustness of the EC gene set in representing the similarity, we analyzed the same correlation in 1,000 iterations with 15 randomly selected genes from the 29 EC-associated probe set (data not shown). To expose possible bias by an individual EC-associated gene with extreme expression values, we also performed a jackknife analysis (43), where the correlation coefficient was examined after removing a single gene (Fig. 6, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site). In both instances, H-P correlation was comparable to that obtained for same tissue pairs and was significantly higher than for different tissue pairs, demonstrating its independence of any one single EC-associated gene.

To confirm that the correlation between H and P was not so strong that it could be maintained by any 29 probes, we also calculated the H-P correlation from 29 randomly selected genes from the remaining 7,786 genes (7,815 gene sets minus 29 EC sets) (1,000 iterations). The high H-P correlation was lost and was comparable to the mean correlation of all pairwise combinations ( $r = 0.72$  vs.  $0.70$ ; Fig. 3*c*). Thus, the endothelial compartment significantly contributed to the H/P coclustering observed at the tissue level, although non-EC genes and other EC-associated genes not included in the 29-probe subset also contributed to the coclustering.

**Genes Differentially Expressed in Placenta and Hemangioma.** To identify genetic markers common to hemangioma and placenta, we searched for genes overexpressed in both tissues relative to normal, or both normal and diseased tissues. We compared H vs. P, H vs. all other tissues X, and P vs. all other tissues X, yielding 17 pairwise comparisons for the 7,815 genes. This analysis led to the identification of 17 genes overexpressed by >3-fold in H and P relative to all other tissues (9 genes) or all normal tissues (8 genes) (Table 2). Fig. 7, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site, shows a color map of the signal values of these genes and



**Fig. 3.** Pearson correlation coefficient of a 29 EC-associated gene subset (*a* and *b*) or 29 random genes (*c*) (1,000 permutations). (*a*) Color map, with pairwise comparisons in each square. (*b* and *c*) Average of  $r$  for same-pairwise comparisons, arranged in decreasing order: green (same-tissue pairs), orange (different-tissue pairs), black with arrow (H-P). Abbreviations are as in Fig. 1.



sion. Using very stringent criteria, we identified four additional HP genes, lending further support to the hypothesis of placental origin. From these genes, IGF2, 17HSD $\beta$ 2, and  $\delta$  drosophila homolog-like 1 are highest during the proliferative phase in hemangioma and decrease during involution (19), when endothelial content decreases.

Our data strongly support the hypothesis that hemangiomas are related to placenta in terms of the molecular portrait. But how could placental cells physically reach the fetus? There could be active migration of genetically normal placental angioblasts during gestation or after genetic alteration of placental EC clones that confer a migratory advantage (13). Alternatively, passive shedding of differentiated placental EC into the fetal circulation may allow placental cells to reach the fetus (12, 13).

Placental breakdown, which would increase cellular shedding, occurs during gestation. Fetal nucleated erythrocytes (48) and fetal cells of multilineage potential circulate in maternal blood and increase during placental complications (49). In addition, hematopoietic progenitor cells detected in mouse placentas as early as embryonic day 8.5 appear to arise *in situ* (50). Because placental-derived progenitor cells may contribute to the colonization of hemopoietic sites (50), the trafficking of placental progenitors to embryonic tissues may occur normally during gestation.

An alternative hypothesis compatible with our results and the H/P relationship is that local angioblasts invading the tissue aberrantly differentiate toward a placental microvascular phenotype in the mesenchyme of skin and subcutis (12). This proposal suggests a common genetic program activated ectopically in the skin, rather

than direct physical descent. In this scenario, the resulting hemangioma EC should also be functionally analogous to a placental EC.

In summary, we provide compelling evidence to support the existence of a common genetic program between placental and hemangioma endothelium, supporting the idea of a placental origin of hemangioma. The unique hemangioma cycle marked by rapid EC proliferation, EC apoptosis, and tumor involution may mirror the lifetime of a placental EC, destined to proliferate for only 9 months, as has been suggested in ref. 12. Further studies employing this type of genome-based analysis will lead to a better understanding of the cellular and developmental basis for the similarity between the hemangioma and placenta and for the characteristic postnatal evolution of hemangioma.

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