

## Increased Frequency of CpG Island Methylator Phenotype and CDH1 Methylation in a Gastric Cancer High-Risk Region of China<sup>1</sup>

Kai-Li Zhang\*, Yuan Sun\*, Yan Li\*, Ming Liu\*, Bo Qu<sup>†</sup>, Shu-Hong Cui<sup>†</sup>, Qing-You Kong\*, Xiao-Yan Chen\*, Hong Li\* and Jia Liu\*

\*Department of Cell Biology and Liaoning Laboratory of Cancer Genomics, College of Basic Medical Sciences, Dalian Medical University, Dalian 116027, PR China; <sup>†</sup>Department of Digestive Endoscopy, Second Affiliated Hospital, Dalian Medical University, Dalian 116044, PR China

### Abstract

This study aimed to profile the methylation statuses of *CDH1/E-cadherin* and five CpG island methylator phenotype (CIMP)-associated genes (*p16*, *hMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, and *MINT31*) in gastric specimens of 47 Dalian long-term residents with and 31 without gastric cancers (GCs). CIMP patterns were classified as CIMP-H with over three methylated genes, CIMP-L with one to two methylated genes, and CIMP-N without methylation. Of 47 GC cases, 24 (51.1%) were CIMP-H, 18 (38.3%) were CIMP-L, and 5 (10.6%) were CIMP-N, whereas 5 of 21 (23.8%) premalignant lesions were CIMP-H and 15 (71.4%) were CIMP-L. CIMP-L was found in 75% (12/16) of GC-adjacent mucosa and in 38.7% (12/31) of mucosa from GC-free patients. *CDH1* methylation occurred in 48.9% (23/47) of cancer, in 23.8% (5/21) of premalignant, and in 25% (4/16) of noncancerous tissues and was correlated with patients' age ( $P = .01$ ), lymph node metastasis, and CIMP severity ( $P = .000-.028$ ). Our results demonstrated that the frequencies of CIMP-H in Dalian GCs, CIMP-L, and *p16* methylation in GC-adjacent tissues and in GC-free mucosa were much higher than those reported previously, indicating the elevated methylation pressure in this GC high-risk region. The close correlation between *CDH1* methylation and CIMP severity suggests the necessity of their combination in GC prevention and earlier diagnosis.

*Translational Oncology* (2008) 1, 28–35

### Introduction

Gastric cancer (GC) is one of the commonest malignancies in the world and the major cause of cancer-related deaths in China [1]. There are several GC at-risk regions in China including Dalian, a coastal and mountainous area located at the far south of Northeast China. Although great effort has been paid in early prevention, diagnosis, and treatments, GC remains the first killer malignancy among Dalian residents due to later diagnosis and lack of timely surveillance measures. Multiple regional oncogenic factors have been proposed during the past decades and diet habits are one of them [2]. Epidemiologic studies demonstrated that people in this area were accustomed to eating toasted or salted seafood and meat and preparing preserved vegetables for the long winter season. These foods are rich in gastrocarcinogens such as heterocyclic amines, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and the well-known DNA methylators such as nitrite and benzo(*a*)pyrene [3,4]. Apparently, a long-term consumption of those foods may enhance the risk of genetic and epigenetic alterations [5]. The high GC incidence and the traditional diet habits in this

region provide unique resource for investigating molecular aspect of gastrocarcinogenesis.

DNA hypermethylation is the main machinery of epigenetic modulation of gene expression [6], especially for those induced by chemical reagents [7,8]. DNA methylation happens in definite sequences because most of the methylation occurs on the cytosine of CpG site, where the 5'-CG-3' dinucleotide sequences appear infrequently in the genome [9]. Because the 5'-promoter region of most genes are rich

Address all correspondence to: Hong Li, Liaoning Laboratory of Cancer Genomics and Department of Cell Biology, College of Basic Medical Sciences, Dalian Medical University, 465 Zhongshan Street, Dalian 116027, PR China.  
E-mail: lihongmcn@yahoo.com.cn

<sup>1</sup>This work was supported in part by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (30370384, 30527002, and 30670946).

Received 7 June 2007; Revised 2 July 2007; Accepted 23 July 2007

Copyright © 2008 Neoplasia Press, Inc. All rights reserved 1522-8002/08/\$25.00  
DOI 10.1593/tlo.07103

in CpG sequences [10], their methylation statuses determine the activity of gene transcription [6,11]. A body of evidence demonstrated that alterations of DNA methylation are closely related with cancer formation, particularly with those raised from the organs exposed directly to environmental carcinogens [7]. Because methylated genes rarely come alone but in group [12], Toyota et al. [13,14] introduced the concept of CpG island methylator phenotype (CIMP) through the study of aberrant methylation in colorectal and GCs, in which five to seven methylator-sensitive genes were included for evaluating the methylation statuses in cancers and for correlating the CIMP pattern(s) with tumor risk and prevention [15,16].

So far, no comprehensive study has been performed on Dalian GCs concerning CIMP profiling and its potential relationship with the high GC incidence. Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) has been shown to play oncogenic roles during stepwise gastroduodenal carcinogenesis, and its expression is correlated with *Helicobacter pylori* infection, nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B activation, and Wnt signaling [17–19]. However, despite the existence of those COX-2 stimulators, COX-2 expression remains infrequent in Dalian GCs due to hypermethylation of the COX-2 promoter [20]. These data exclude the feasibility of COX-2-targeting therapy for the prevention of Dalian GCs and, meanwhile, highlight a hypermethylation-related gastroduodenal carcinogenic option in this GC at-risk region. We therefore hypothesized that, in addition to COX-2 hypermethylation, global methylation status in gastric epithelial cells might also be altered, which would be favorable for GC initiation and progression. This hypothesis was tested in this study by profiling the patterns of CIMP and CDH1 methylation in GC mass, GC surrounding tissue, and grossly normal-looking epithelium of the surgical specimens as well as the endoscopic gastric mucosa of GC-free patients.

## Materials and Methods

### Sample Collection and Treatment

Forty-seven surgical specimens from 34 male (mean age  $61.6 \pm 9.2$  years) and 13 female (mean age  $61.7 \pm 8.8$  years) GC patients were selected from the Frozen Gastric Tissue Bank of the Cancer Institute, Dalian Medical University (DMU), Dalian, PR China. Gastric mucosa were obtained from 31 cancer-free patients and were provided after the test of *H. pylori* infection and/or frozen section-based pathologic examination. All of the patients were long-term Dalian residents who never received preoperative chemotherapy. The tissue samples were selected from the GC mass, GC surrounding tissue, and grossly normal-looking epithelium of the surgical specimens. They were trimmed to suitable sizes on ice, snap-frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen, and stored at  $-85^{\circ}\text{C}$  until use. All tissue preparations were completed within 20 minutes of tissue removal. After obtaining patients' consent, fresh gastric biopsies were collected from either the Operation Rooms at DMU First Affiliated Hospital or the Gastroendoscopic Department of DMU Second Affiliated Hospital. The frozen tissue blocks were sectioned in 5- $\mu\text{m}$  thickness, fixed in cold acetone for 20 minutes, and subjected to hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining for pathologic reexamination and tissue composition evaluation. According to pathologic findings, the gastric tissues were classified into well-differentiated intestinal-type gastric cancer (i-GC), poorly differentiated diffuse-type gastric cancer (d-GC), premalignant lesions including intestinal metaplasia and atrophic gastritis, and normal-looking noncancerous mucosa. Meanwhile, a piece of placenta tissue was obtained after getting the permission from a labored donor.

### Genomic DNA Preparation and Sodium Bisulfite Treatment

Sample preparations were conducted according to the findings of pathologic examination. When a tissue block showed uniform composition, it was sectioned directly for DNA isolation. When multiple tissue components were found in the same tissue block, the border of the target histologic region was marked precisely for cell type-defined sample preparations with the manual dissection method established in our laboratory [21,22]. In total, 16 to 24 pieces of 3- $\mu\text{m}$  target frozen fragments were collected after sectioning and were placed immediately in a 1.5-ml Eppendorf tube containing 300  $\mu\text{l}$  of TE buffer (pH 8.0, 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate), digested with 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of proteinase K (10 mg/ml), and subjected to conventional DNA extraction using phenol/chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation.

For chemical DNA modification, 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of sample DNA (0.4  $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ ) was mixed with 40  $\mu\text{l}$  of pure water, heated at  $97^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 6 minutes, and interacted with 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of 2 M NaOH at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 minutes, mixed with 30  $\mu\text{l}$  of freshly prepared 10 mM hydroquinone (H9003; Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and 520  $\mu\text{l}$  of 3 M sodium bisulfate (S9000; Sigma), and then incubated at  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  in darkness for 16 to 20 hours. The chemically-modulated sample DNA was subjected to desalt purification using the Wizard DNA Clean-Up System (A7280; Promega, Madison, WI). The purified DNA was dissolved with 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of pure water, mixed with 5.5  $\mu\text{l}$  of 3 M NaOH at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 minutes, precipitated in ethanol, and dissolved in 30  $\mu\text{l}$  of pure water for use. A placenta DNA sample was incubated with Sss1 methyltransferase (New England Biolabs Inc., Beverly, MA) at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 4 hours followed by bisulfite treatment.

### Methylation-Specific Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)

The sequences of methylation-specific PCR (MSP) primers and the conditions of PCR reaction for individual genes are listed in Table 1 [23]. PCR amplifications were conducted using TaKaRa PCR amplification Kit (TaKaRa Biotechnology Inc. Dalian, China) by the following procedures: 30  $\mu\text{l}$  of reaction solution was prepared, which contains 3  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $10\times$  buffer ( $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  Plus), 4  $\mu\text{l}$  of 2.5 mM deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate, 0.5  $\mu\text{l}$  of respective 20  $\mu\text{M}$  upstream and downstream primers, 1 U *Taq* polymerase (5 U/ $\mu\text{l}$ ), and 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of DNA template. The reaction condition was as follows:  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 minutes;  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 minute; 53 to  $65^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 minute and  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 minute for 35 to 40 cycles; and  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 minutes. The PCR products were separated in 6% polyacrylamide gel and were then observed and photographed under UV illumination (BioSpectrumAC BioImaging Systems; Ultra-Violet Products Inc., Upland, CA). Distilled pure water was used as negative control [23] and the placenta DNA was treated with Sss1 methyltransferase was used as positive control for methylated allele in each of MSP reactions [24].

### Criteria of CIMP Classification

In this study, *p16*, *bMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, and *MINT31* were chosen and the hot loci of CpG island methylation in their promoter regions were examined for CIMP identification. According to the suggestion of Jean-Pierre Issa's Laboratory [25], the grades of methylation were classified into three types: CIMP-high (CIMP-H) when three to five genes were found with methylation; CIMP-low (CIMP-L) when one or two genes were methylated; and CIMP-none (CIMP-N) if none of the five genes was methylated. As indicated in Figure 1, DNA samples isolated from the GC tissues of G-89-T and G-64-T showed CIMP-H pattern, whereas their premalignant counterparts revealed CIMP-L, and the noncancerous mucosa showed CIMP-N.

**Table 1.** Primer Sequences and MSP Reaction Conditions for Individual Genes.

Gene	Primer Sequence	Annealing Temperature (°C)
<i>p16</i>	Methylated	65
	Sense 5'-TTATTAGAGGGTGGGGCGGATCGC-3'	
	Antisense 5'-GACCCCGAACCGCGACCGTAA-3'	60
	Unmethylated	
<i>MINT1</i>	Methylated	55
	Sense 5'-TTATTAGAGGGTGGGGTGGATTGT-3'	
	Antisense 5'-CAACCCCAAACCACAACCATAA-3'	55
	Unmethylated	
<i>MINT2</i>	Methylated	60
	Sense 5'-TTGTTAAAGTGTGAGTTCGTC-3'	
	Antisense 5'-AATAACGACGATTCGGTACG-3'	60
	Unmethylated	
<i>MINT31</i>	Methylated	60
	Sense 5'-GATTTTGTTAAAGTGTGAGTTTGT-3'	
	Antisense 5'-CAAATAATAACAACAATTCATACA-3'	64
	Unmethylated	
<i>hMLH1</i>	Methylated	60
	Sense 5'-GATAGCGATTTTAAACGC-3'	
	Antisense 5'-TCTATAAATTAATAATCTCTTCG-3'	60
	Unmethylated	
<i>CDH1</i>	Methylated	57
	Sense 5'-TTAGGTTAGAGGGTTATCGCGT-3'	
	Antisense 5'-TAACTAAAAATTCACCTACCGAC-3'	53
	Unmethylated	
<i>CDH1</i>	Methylated	57
	Sense 5'-TTAGGTTAGAGGGTTATCGCGT-3'	
	Antisense 5'-TAACTAAAAATTCACCTACCGAC-3'	53
	Unmethylated	

The primer sequences and reaction conditions were cited from Park et al. [23] and Herman et al. [26].

Meanwhile, the CpG island methylation in the *CDH1* promoter region was checked using the PCR primers and reaction condition described elsewhere [26] and the results were compared with CIMP patterns.

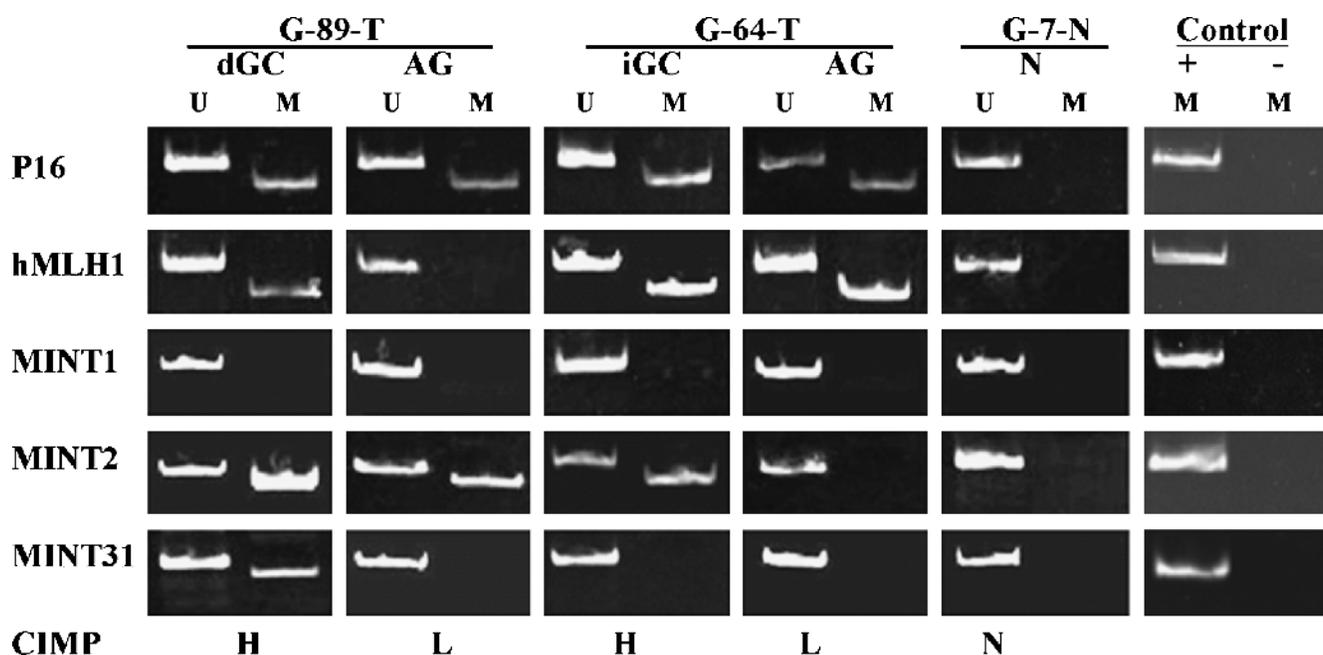
### Collection and Analyses of CIMP-Related Data

The related clinical data were obtained from the clinical records achieved in the Case Muniment Room of DMU Affiliated Hospitals. Patients' gender, age, Lauren's classification, the degree of tumor differentiation, clinical stage/tumor, node, and metastasis staging, and *H. pylori* infection were recorded. Mann-Whitney test was used to analyze the distribution of three CIMP patterns as well as *CDH1* methylation in GC, premalignant, and noncancerous groups, and their relation with patients' gender, age, GC subtypes, tumor, node, and metastasis staging, and *H. pylori* infection. Spearman relative analysis was employed to evaluate the relation of the extent of CIMP and *CDH1* methylation.

## Results

### Differential Methylation Patterns of Five CIMP-Related Genes during Stepwise Gastrocarcinogenesis

The same parameters (*p16*, *hMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, and *MINT31*) proposed by other investigators were employed here as CIMP-related genes [23]. As shown in Table 2, MSP analysis performed on the tissues obtained from gastrectomy specimens revealed that the incidences of *p16* methylation were 18.8% (3/16) in noncancerous, 57.1% (12/21) in premalignant, and 63.8% (30/47) in GC tissues, respectively. The detection rates of GCs and premalignant lesions were significantly different with their noncancerous counterpart ( $P = .002$  and  $P = .020$ ). The rates of *hMLH1* methylation were 25% (4/16), 47.6% (10/21), and 53.2% (25/47) in noncancerous, premalignant, and



**Figure 1.** Illustration of CIMP-H, CIMP-L, and CIMP-N and their distribution in different gastric tissues. U and M indicate the PCR products amplified with the primers for unmethylated and methylated sequences, respectively. *d-GC*, diffuse gastric cancer; *i-GC*, intestinal gastric cancer; AG, chronic atrophic gastritis. Normal placenta DNA treated with Sss1 methyltransferase was used as positive control (+) and distilled water without template DNA as negative control (-) for methylated loci.

**Table 2.** Methylation Statuses of *p16*, *hMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, *MINT31*, and *CDH1* in Different Gastric Tissues.

Locus	Methylation Frequencies				P
	Endoscopic (n = 31)	Noncancerous (n = 16)	Premalignant (n = 21)	GC (n = 47)	
<i>p16</i>	29% (9/31)	18.8% (3/16)	57.1% (12/21)	63.8% (30/47)	.008
<i>hMLH1</i>	9.7% (3/31)*	25% (4/16)	47.6% (10/21)	53.2% (25/47)	.151
<i>MINT1</i>	6.5% (2/31)*	25% (4/16)	42.9% (9/21)	44.7% (21/47)	.375
<i>MINT2</i>	0% (0/31)*	12.5% (2/16)	33.3% (7/21)	40.4% (19/47)	.126
<i>MINT31</i>	9.7% (3/31)*	18.8% (3/16)	14.3% (3/21)	25.5% (12/47)	.56
<i>CDH1</i>	9.7% (3/31)*	25% (4/16)	23.8% (5/21)	48.9% (23/47)	.031

\*Significant difference of methylation incidences between the noncancerous mucosa of the patients with and without gastric cancers (Mann-Whitney test,  $P = .000-.008$ ).

GC groups, respectively. In the case of MINTs, the methylation rates of *MINT1* were 25% (4/16) in noncancerous, 42.9% (9/21) in premalignant, and 44.7 (21/47) in GC groups; *MINT2*, 12.5% (2/16) in noncancerous, 33.3% (7/21) in premalignant, and 40.4 (19/47) in GC groups; and *MINT31*, 18.8% (3/16) in noncancerous, 14.3% (3/21) premalignant, and 25.5 (12/47) GC groups. Unlike the results of *p16* analysis, Mann-Whitney test revealed that no significant difference between the *hMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, or *MINT31* methylation rates could be found among the three histologic groups when they were compared in pair ( $P > .05$ ).

**Distinct CIMP Patterns of GC, Premalignant, and Noncancerous Groups**

As summarized in Figure 2, and Table 3, the frequencies of CIMP-H were 51.1% (24/47) in GC group, 23.8% (5/21) in premalignant lesions, and 0% (0/16) in noncancerous mucosa. CIMP-L was 38.3% (18/47) in GCs, 71.4% (15/21) in premalignant, and 75% (12/16) in noncancerous tissues, respectively. CIMP-N was 10.6% (5/47) in GCs, 4.8% (1/21) in premalignant, and 25% (4/16) in noncancerous

tissues. The statistical analyses revealed that the incidences of CIMP-H were significantly different ( $P = .001$ ) between premalignant (23.8%, 5/21) and GC groups (51.1%, 24/47). However, no statistical difference could be established between diffuse GCs (59.3%, 16/27) and intestinal GCs (40%, 8/20) ( $P = .282$ ) and between the primary GCs with (50%, 15/30) and without lymph node metastases (50%, 5/10) ( $P = .435$ ).

**Frequent CIMP-L in the Mucosa of GC-Free Patients**

Among the 31 gastric biopsies obtained from GC-free patients, 9 were found with mild and 22 were with moderate to severe chronic gastritis (Figure 3). Furthermore, 20 were positive in *H. pylori* infection, 10 were negative, and 1 was without relevant record. There were nine cases (29%) with *p16* methylation, three (9.7%) with *hMLH1*, two (6.5%) with *MINT1*, none with *MINT2*, and three (9.7%) with *MINT31*. None of those samples exhibited CIMP-H, whereas 12/31 (38.7%) were found with CIMP-L. Distribution of CIMP-L in mild (2/9, 22.2%) and severe gastritis (10/22, 45.5%) was different but without statistical significance ( $P = .367$ ). In comparison with the data obtained from the noncancerous mucosa of GC-bearing patients, the frequencies of *hMLH1*, *MINT1*, *MINT2*, and *MINT31* methylation were significantly lower ( $P = .000-.008$ ) except that of *p16* methylation ( $P = .323$ ).

**No Relevance of CIMP Patterns with Patients' Gender, Age, and H. pylori Infection**

Analysis of CIMP patterns in male and female GC patients revealed that CIMP-H was 47.1% (16/34), CIMP-L was 38.2% (13/34), and CIMP-N was 14.7% (5/34) among male patients, and 61.5% (8/13), 38.5% (5/13), and none among females, respectively (Table 3). No significant difference of these parameters could be established between the two groups ( $P = .317$ ). The 47 GC cases checked here were divided into two age groups: the younger (less

Case No	Methylation statuses											
	P16		hMLH1		MINT1		MINT2		MINT31		CDH1	
	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N
G-66	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-2	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-89	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-98	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-9	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-19	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-20	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-31	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-35	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-64	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-77	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-88	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-93	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-94	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-96	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-97	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-101	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-102	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-106	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-24	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-56	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-8	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-10	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-70	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

Case No	Methylation statuses											
	P16		hMLH1		MINT1		MINT2		MINT31		CDH1	
	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N	T	P/N
G-11	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-17	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-23	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-29	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-52	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-59	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-62	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-74	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-82	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-26	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-27	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-50	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-75	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-87	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-84	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-100	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-60	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-76	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-7	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-15	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-5	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-41	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■
G-44	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■

**Figure 2.** Profiling of CIMPs in gastric cancers raised from Dalian, China. ■, the locus with methylation among GC tissues; □, the locus with methylation among premalignant/noncancerous gastric mucosa; and □, the locus without methylation. N.A., tissue sample was not available.

**Table 3.** Differential CIMP and *CDH1* Methylation Patterns during Stepwise Gastrocarcinogenesis and Their Correlation with Patients' Personal Parameters.

Parameters	No.	CIMP			<i>P</i>	<i>CDH1</i> * Methylation (%)	<i>P</i>
		H (%)	L (%)	N (%)			
Gender							
Male	34	16 (47.1)	13 (38.2)	5 (14.7)	.317	16 (47.1)	.108
Female	13	8 (61.5)	5 (38.5)	0 (0)		7 (53.8)	
Age (years)							
< 50	12	4 (33.4)	7 (58.3)	1 (8.3)	.154	2 (16.7)	.010
≥ 50	35	20 (57.2)	11 (31.4)	4 (11.4)		21 (60)	
Histology							
Noncancerous	16	0 (0)	12 (75)	4 (25)	.001	4 (25)	.031
Premalignant	21	5 (23.8)	15 (71.4)	1 (4.8)		5 (23.8)	
Cancer	47	24 (51.1)	18 (38.3)	5 (10.6)		23 (48.9)	
d-GC	27	16 (59.3)	8 (29.6)	3 (11.1)	.282	16 (59.3)	.100
i-GC	20	8 (40)	10 (50)	2 (10)		7 (35)	
Differentiation							
Poor	32	16 (50)	13 (40.6)	3 (9.4)	.236	19 (59.4)	.335
Well	7	4 (57.1)	2 (28.6)	1 (14.3)		2 (28.6)	
Lymph node metastasis							
+	30	15 (50)	11 (36.7)	4 (13.3)	.435	19 (63.3)	.028
-	10	5 (50)	5 (50)	0 (0)		2 (20)	
<i>H. pylori</i> infection							
+	8	3 (37.5)	3 (37.5)	2 (25)	.079	3 (37.5)	.112
-	5	5 (100)	0 (0)	0 (0)		4 (80)	

\*Significant difference of *CDH1* methylation incidences between CIMP-H and CIMP-L/N groups (Spearman relative analysis,  $P = .000$ ).

than 50 years old) and the elder (over 50 years old) groups [12]. The incidences of i-GC and d-GC were 50% (6/12) and 50% (6/12) in the younger and 40% (14/35) and 60% (21/35) in the elder group, respectively, showing similar i-GC and d-GC incidences of the two groups ( $P = .157$ ). Of 12 younger cases, 4 (33.4%) were found with CIMP-H, 7 (58.3%) with CIMP-L, and 1 (8.3%) with CIMP-N, whereas 20 (57.2%) of 35 elder GC patients were with CIMP-H, 11 (31.4%) with CIMP-L, and 4 (11.4%) with CIMP-N. Although CIMP-H frequency of the elder patients was higher than that of the younger patients, this difference had no statistical significance ( $P = .154$ ).

Among the 47 GC cases, 8 were diagnosed as *H. pylori*-positive (HP<sup>+</sup>) and 5 as *H. pylori*-negative (HP<sup>-</sup>). Notably, all of the HP<sup>-</sup> cases showed CIMP-H in comparison with 37.5% (3/8) of CIMP-H in HP<sup>+</sup> tissues. However, a statistical difference of CIMP-H incidences could not be established ( $P = .079$ ) between the two groups due to the limited case number. To further address this issue, the test of *H. pylori* infection was performed on the noncancerous mucosa of 30 GC-free patients, which revealed that 20 were found with and 10 without *H. pylori* infection. The same frequencies of CIMP-L (40%) and CIMP-N (60%) were found in both HP<sup>+</sup> and HP<sup>-</sup> groups.

### Close Correlation of CIMP-H with *CDH1* Hypermethylation

*CDH1* promoter methylation was found in 48.9% (23/47) of GC samples, and 75% (18/24) of this methylation occurred in CIMP-H and 21.7% (5/23) in CIMP-L/N GC group, revealing a significant difference of *CDH1* methylation rates between the two groups ( $P = .000$ ; Table 3). The incidences of *CDH1* methylation were apparently lower in the premalignant (23.8%; 5/21) and noncancerous tissues (25%; 4/16) of GC patients ( $P = .031$ ). About 35% (7/20) of i-GC were found with methylated *CDH1* in comparison with 59.3% (16/27) in d-GC ( $P = .100$ ), indicating that the loss of E-cadherin due to the increased *CDH1* methylation in d-GCs may lead to the

diffuse phenotype. Additionally, *CDH1* methylation was found in 63.3% (19/30) of primary GCs with lymph node metastases, whereas in 20% (2/10) of those without lymph node metastases ( $P = .028$ ). *CDH1* methylation was also correlated with the patients' age ( $P = .010$ ), because its frequencies were apparently different in the younger (16.7%, 2/12) and the elder GC groups (60%, 21/35). In contrast, no statistical significance of *CDH1* methylation incidences was found between male (47.1%, 16/34) and female (53.8%, 7/13) patients ( $P = .108$ ). The results from the noncancerous mucosa of 31 GC-free patients revealed that 3 cases (9.7%) were found with *CDH1* methylation, and all of them fell into the elder and CIMP-L groups.

### Discussion

Altered gene silencing due to DNA hypermethylation is a universal epigenetic event in great majority of human malignancies, which, unlike the situation of hereditary diseases, happens to multiple genes in cancer cells and the genes affected usually vary in chemical- and disease-dependent fashions [3,4,27]. It is therefore necessary to elucidate the methylation statuses of a panel of representative genes in an individual disease. To achieve this goal, CIMP was introduced by Toyota et al. [13]. Data from gastroenterological cancers revealed that a combination of *MINT1*, *MINT2*, and *MINT31* with tumor suppressor *p16* and mismatch repair gene *hMLH1* is suitable in evaluating the general methylation status in these sorts of tumors [14,25,28]. To make our results more comparable with the published data, we employed this evaluation system to check the unknown CIMP pattern in Dalian GCs and to see whether the CIMP pattern here was different from those identified in other places.

To have a clearer view in the correlation of DNA methylation with GC formation in this GC high-risk region, different histologic tissues of GC surgical specimens and the endoscopic gastric mucosa of GC-free patients were collected and examined. It has been believed that GC-adjacent noncancerous mucosa and chronic gastritis rarely had *p16* (0–10%) and *hMLH1* (0–1.7%) methylation, even in the case of GCs of high-risk regions [29,30]. In contrast, the methylation incidences of *p16* and *hMLH1* in the same tissue types of Dalian GC patients were 18.8% and 25%, respectively. Accordingly, the methylation rates of *MINT1* (25%) and *MINT2* (12.5%) in those samples were also higher than the ones (5% and 7%) reported by other investigators [28]. These results implicate the existence of certain epigenetic variations in different GC high-risk regions and the elevated methylation pressure in Dalian region presumably due to its epidemiologic features as mentioned in the Introduction section. This speculation was further supported by the data obtained from the inflammatory mucosa of 31 GC-free patients, because 29% of them were found with *p16* methylation, 9.7% with *hMLH1*, and even GC-associated *MINT1* and *MINT31* methylation could be detected in the rates of 6.5% and 9.7%, respectively. Moreover, *p16* and *MINT1* or *MINT31* methylation appeared even in the mucosa of 18-year-old male and 27-year-old female patients, and *hMLH1* in a 26-year-old male. If we suppose the relatively high *p16* and *hMLH1* methylation incidences in GC-adjacent mucosa is somewhat influenced by the neoplastic changes and/or tumorigenic microenvironment, the findings from GC-free patients reflect the frequent pre-existence of abnormally methylated genes in this GC high-risk population. Because *p16* plays important roles in controlling cell outgrowth [31] and *hMLH1* in repairing the nucleotide sequences

No	Gender /Age	HP	Diagnosis	Methylation statuses					CIMP	CDH1
				<i>P16</i>	<i>hMLH1</i>	<i>MINT1</i>	<i>MINT2</i>	<i>MINT31</i>		
1	M/79	+	S-CG	■	■	□	□	□	L	■
2	F/70	+	S-CG	■	□	□	□	■		□
3	F/27	+	S-CG	■	□	□	□	□		□
4	M/18	+	S-CG	■	□	■	□	□		□
5	M/60	-	S-CG	■	■	□	□	□		□
6	F/59	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	■		■
7	M/46	+	S-CG	■	□	□	□	□		□
8	M/26	+	S-CG	□	■	□	□	□		□
9	F/55	-	S-CG	□	□	■	□	□		□
10	F/30	-	S-CG	■	□	□	□	□		□
11	F/47	+	M-CG	■	□	□	□	□		□
12	M/47	-	M-CG	■	□	□	□	□		□
13	F/74	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□	N	
14	F/72	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
15	F/70	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
16	F/50	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
17	F/43	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
18	F/26	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
19	F/20	+	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
20	F/60	N.A.	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
21	M/34	-	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
22	F/34	-	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
23	F/27	-	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
24	F/24	-	S-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
25	F/58	+	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
26	F/42	+	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
27	F/38	+	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
28	M/30	+	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
29	M/20	+	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
30	M/22	-	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		
31	M/18	-	M-CG	□	□	□	□	□		

**Figure 3.** Personal backgrounds and CIMP statuses of gastric biopsies of GC-free patients. The dark and light blocks indicate the genes with and without methylation, respectively. *M-CG*, mild chronic gastritis; *S-CG*, moderate to severe chronic gastritis; *N.A.*, the record of *H. pylori* test was not available.

damaged/alterd by external and intrinsic factors [32], it is reasonable to suppose that the cells without those proteins may gain longer life span and/or more chance of additional genetic aberrations.

The CIMP data from previous GC studies revealed that the frequencies of CIMP-H were from 31% to 51% in GC tissues, whereas only 4% to 16% in GC-adjacent premalignant or normal mucosa [28,33]. It was therefore proposed that CIMP-H happened in the later stage of gastroduodenal carcinogenesis. In this study, CIMP-H was found preferentially in Dalian GCs (51.1%) and at a higher rate among premalignant lesions (23.8%, 5/21), suggesting the accumulation of multiple loci methylations during malignant transformation. Although none of the noncancerous mucosa exhibited CIMP-H, the incidence of CIMP-L (75%) in those tissues was remarkably higher than the ones (17–38%) reported previously [28,33,34] because of the early appearance of methylation(s) of the five checked genes. Based on the low frequency of *COX-2* expression due to promoter hypermethylation in Dalian GCs, we had assumed the possible high methylation background in this GC high-risk population [20]. The results of the current study provided further supporting data for this speculation and motivated us to check whether the gastric mucosa of GC-free patients showed the similar methylation tendency.

The data about CIMP patterns in different gastric lesions have been accumulated in recent years, including the ones from other GC popular regions [33,34]. However, a simultaneous analysis on gastric samples from the patients with and without GCs in a high-risk population has been rarely reported. This work was conducted using endoscopic biopsies of 31 GC-free outpatients. Similar with the situation of GC-adjacent noncancerous mucosa, a high rate (38.7%) of CIMP-L and absence of CIMP-H was found in those samples. It was noted that 2 of 12 CIMP-L cases appeared in the patients with mild gastritis and 7 in the patients are less than 50 years old. These findings thus provide additional evidence for the high methylation status of Dalian long-term residents, and further hold the notion that DNA methylation may occur at the early stage of gastroduodenal carcinogenesis. Although the local factor(s) leading to the high methylation status remains to be figured out, early detection of methylation-sensitive genes such as *p16* and exploration of reliable method to erase the methylation from those genes would have potential value in GC prevention of this region.

Generally, the genes affected by hypermethylation can be classified into two categories: cancer-associated genes as Type-C and age-related genes as Type-A [13]. The five genes used for CIMP profiling

here are Type-C genes [35] that are sensitive to environmental methylators [25]. However, their responses to other GC-related factors like *H. pylori* infection are still in dispute. Maekita et al. [36] found high levels of aberrant DNA methylation in *H. pylori*-infected gastric samples, whereas Kang et al. [30] reported that this epigenetic event was unrelated with *H. pylori* infection. The results obtained from the gastric samples of both GC-bearing and GC-free patients revealed that the CIMP status is related neither with *H. pylori* infection nor with patients' age, gender, as well as GC subtypes. These data thus suggest that Type-C genes are more suitable for CIMP profiling because of their preferential methylations in cancer-associated lesions regardless of the differences of other personal factors. Additionally, our results indicate two possibilities: 1) the gastrocarcinogenic effect(s) of *H. pylori* may not depend on DNA methylation pathway or 2) certain powerful methylation element(s) might exist universally and cause hypermethylation of Type-C genes in Dalian gastric samples irrespective of the presence or absence of *H. pylori* infection. In this context, more careful evaluation will be required to address the association of HP infection and increased severity of DNA methylation in GC high-risk regions.

Downregulation of *CDH1* is a typical malignant biomarker observed in a wide variety of cancers including GCs [37]. Multiple genetic factors can inhibit *CDH1* expression, and hypermethylation in *CDH1* promoter region is one of the main reasons [38]. Because *CDH1* methylation usually appeared in elder patients, it was regarded as a kind of age-related methylation (Type-A methylation) [35]. In parallel with CIMP analysis, the status of *CDH1* methylation was checked here to elucidate the potential link of *CDH1* methylation to CIMP patterns and to see whether this sort of methylation occurred earlier or more frequently in a GC high-risk population. In agreement with previous reports [35,39,40], we found increased frequency of *CDH1* methylation in GC samples and the gastric mucosa of GC-free patients in an age-related pattern. However, it is difficult to conclude the causality of *CDH1* methylation with gastrocarcinogenesis because: 1) the methylation event of *CDH1* unnecessarily occurs concurrently in GC and noncancerous tissues of the same patients and 2) *CDH1* methylation is frequently found in CIMP-H GC cases. Moreover, *CDH1* methylation is closely related with GC dissemination because of its presence in 63.3% (19/30) of primary GCs with lymph node metastases, but only 20% (2/10) in those without lymph node metastases. All these data suggest the cancer-promoting feature of *CDH1* downregulation/silencing and the existence of other methylation element(s) in the transformed cells beyond cell aging. Therefore, we would rather regard *CDH1* methylation as Mixed type (Type-M) because of its compatibility with age- and cancer-associated features. To make the results more informative and substantial, a combination of *CDH1* with Type-C genes would be necessary in CIMP profiling.

In summary, our comprehensive CIMP profiling revealed a high CIMP-H incidence in GC samples and more frequent CIMP-L in premalignant and noncancerous mucosa of the patients with and without GCs, suggesting the persistent methylation pressure and increased CIMP grade in this GC at-risk region. Among the five CIMP-associated genes so far checked, *p16* seems more sensitive to methylator(s) because of its overall methylation rate and the earlier onset of its methylation in stepwise gastrocarcinogenesis. *CDH1* methylation was closely related with either aging or malignant phenotypes of gastric epithelial cells. Therefore, an integration of *CDH1* with conventional CIMP-related genes is recommended in methylation

assay. Because several options for profiling methylation patterns of GCs have been available [14,28,30,34], it would be worthwhile to compare their applicability in GC risk assessment of the Dalian region based on the current study.

## References

- [1] Parkin DM, Bray F, Ferlay J, and Pisani P (2005). Global cancer statistics, 2002. *CA Cancer J Clin* **55**, 74–108.
- [2] You WC, Blot WJ, Chang YS, Ershow AG, Yang ZT, An Q, Henderson B, Xu GW, Fraumeni JF Jr, and Wang TG (1988). Diet and high risk of stomach cancer in Shandong, China. *Cancer Res* **48**, 3518–3523.
- [3] Chen CS, Pignatelli B, Malaveille C, Bouvier G, Shuker D, Hautefeuille A, Zhang RF, and Bartsch H (1992). Levels of direct-acting mutagens, total *N*-nitroso compounds in nitrosated fermented fish products, consumed in a high-risk area for gastric cancer in southern China. *Mutat Res* **265**, 211–221.
- [4] Sadikovic B and Rodenhiser DI (2006). Benzopyrene exposure disrupts DNA methylation and growth dynamics in breast cancer cells. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* **216**, 458–468.
- [5] Slattery ML, Curtin K, Sweeney C, Levin TR, Potter J, Wolff RK, Albertsen H, and Samowitz WS (2006). Diet and lifestyle factor associations with CpG island methylator phenotype and BRAF mutations in colon cancer. *Int J Cancer* **120**, 656–663.
- [6] Herman JG and Baylin SB (2003). Gene silencing in cancer in association with promoter hypermethylation. *N Engl J Med* **49**, 2042–2054.
- [7] Marsit CJ, Karagas MR, Schned A, and Kelsey KT (2006). Carcinogen exposure and epigenetic silencing in bladder cancer. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* **1076**, 810–821.
- [8] Bestor TH (2000). The DNA methyltransferases of mammals. *Hum Mol Genet* **9**, 2395–2402.
- [9] Yoder JA, Walsh CP, and Bestor TH (1997). Cytosine methylation and the ecology of intragenomic parasites. *Trends Genet* **13**, 335–340.
- [10] Antequera F, and Bird A (1993). Number of CpG islands and genes in human and mouse. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **90**, 11995–11999.
- [11] Bird A (1992). The essentials of DNA methylation. *Cell* **70**, 5–8.
- [12] Munot K, Bell SM, Lane S, Horgan K, Hanby AM, and Speirs V (2006). Pattern of expression of genes linked to epigenetic silencing in human breast cancer. *Hum Pathol* **37**, 989–999.
- [13] Toyota M, Ahuja N, Ohe-Toyota M, Herman JG, Baylin SB, and Issa JP (1999). CpG island methylator phenotype in colorectal cancer. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **96**, 8681–8686.
- [14] Toyota M, Ahuja N, Suzuki H, Itoh F, Ohe-Toyota M, Imai K, Baylin SB, and Issa JP (1999). Aberrant methylation in gastric cancer associated with the CpG island methylator phenotype. *Cancer Res* **59**, 5438–5442.
- [15] Marsit CJ, Houseman EA, Christensen BC, Eddy K, Bueno R, Sugarbaker DJ, Nelson HH, Karagas MR, and Kelsey KT (2006). Examination of a CpG island methylator phenotype and implications of methylation profiles in solid tumors. *Cancer Res* **66**, 10621–10629.
- [16] Shen L, Ahuja N, Shen Y, Habib NA, Toyota M, Rashid A, and Issa JP (2002). DNA methylation and environmental exposures in human hepatocellular carcinoma. *J Natl Cancer Inst* **94**, 755–761.
- [17] Juttner S, Cramer T, Wessler S, Waldack A, Gao F, Schmitz F, Wunder C, Weber M, Fischer SM, Schmidt WE, et al. (2003). *Helicobacter pylori* stimulates host cyclooxygenase-2 gene transcription: critical importance of MEK/ERK-dependent activation of USF1/-2 and CREB transcription factors. *Cell Microbiol* **5**, 821–834.
- [18] Hung JH, Su IJ, Lei HY, Wang HC, Lin WC, Chang WT, Huang W, Chang WC, Chang YS, Chen CC, et al. (2004). Endoplasmic reticulum stress stimulates the expression of cyclooxygenase-2 through activation of NF-kappaB and pp38 mitogen-activated protein kinase. *J Biol Chem* **279**, 46384–46392.
- [19] Howe LR, Suaramaiah K, Chung WJ, Dannenberg AJ, and Brown AM (1999). Transcriptional activation of cyclooxygenase-2 in Wnt-1-transformed mouse mammary epithelial cells. *Cancer Res* **59**, 1572–1577.
- [20] Huang L, Zhang KL, Li H, Chen XY, Kong QY, Sun Y, Gao X, Guan HW, and Liu J (2006). Infrequent COX-2 expression due to promoter hypermethylation in gastric cancers in Dalian, China. *Hum Pathol* **37**, 1557–1567.
- [21] Li H, Sun Y, Kong QY, Zhang KL, Wang XW, Chen XY, Wang Q, and Liu J (2003). Combination of nucleic acid and protein isolation with tissue array construction: using defined histologic regions in single frozen tissue blocks for multiple research purposes. *Int J Mol Med* **12**, 299–304.

- [22] Sun Y, Chen XY, Liu J, Cheng XX, Wang XW, Kong QY, and Li H (2006). Differential caspase-3 expression in noncancerous, premalignant and cancer tissues of stomach and its clinical implication. *Cancer Detect Prev* **30**, 168–173.
- [23] Park SJ, Rashid A, Lee JH, Kim SG, Hamilton SR, and Wu TT (2003). Frequent CpG island methylation in serrated adenomas of the colorectum. *Am J Pathol* **162**, 815–822.
- [24] Yang HJ, Liu VW, Wang Y, Tsang PC, and Ngan HY (2006). Differential DNA methylation profiles in gynecological cancers and correlation with clinicopathological data. *BMC Cancer* **6**, 212.
- [25] Issa JP (2004). CpG island methylator phenotype in cancer. *Nat Rev Cancer* **4**, 988–993.
- [26] Herman JG, Graff JR, Myohanen S, Nelkin BD, and Baylin SB (1996). Methylation-specific PCR: a novel PCR assay for methylation status of CpG islands. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **93**, 9821–9826.
- [27] Kang GH, Lee S, Kim WH, Lee HW, Kim JC, Rhyu MG, and Ro JY (2002). Epstein-Barr virus-positive gastric carcinoma demonstrates frequent aberrant methylation of multiple genes and constitutes CpG island methylator phenotype-positive gastric carcinoma. *Am J Pathol* **160**, 787–794.
- [28] An C, Choi IS, Yao JC, Worah S, Xie K, Mansfield PF, Ajani JA, Rashid A, Hamilton SR, and Wu TT (2005). Prognostic significance of CpG island methylator phenotype and microsatellite instability in gastric carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* **11**, 656–663.
- [29] Kang GH, Shim YH, Jung HY, Kim WH, Ro JY, and Rhyu MG (2001). CpG island methylation in premalignant stages of gastric carcinoma. *Cancer Res* **61**, 2847–2851.
- [30] Kang GH, Lee HJ, Hwang KS, Lee S, Kim JH, and Kim JS (2003). Aberrant CpG island hypermethylation of chronic gastritis, in relation to aging, gender, intestinal metaplasia, and chronic inflammation. *Am J Pathol* **163**, 1551–1556.
- [31] Drayton S, Brookes S, Rowe J, and Peters G (2004). The significance of p16INK4a in cell defenses against transformation. *Cell Cycle* **3**, 611–615.
- [32] Fedier A and Fink D (2004). Mutations in DNA mismatch repair genes: implications for DNA damage signaling and drug sensitivity. *Int J Oncol* **24**, 1039–1047.
- [33] Lee JH, Park SJ, Abraham SC, Seo JS, Nam JH, Choi C, Juhng SW, Rashid A, Hamilton SR, and Wu TT (2004). Frequent CpG island methylation in precursor lesions and early gastric adenocarcinomas. *Oncogene* **23**, 4646–4654.
- [34] Chang MS, Uozaki H, Chong JM, Ushiku T, Sakuma K, Ishikawa S, Hino R, Barua RR, Iwasaki Y, Arai K, et al. (2006). CpG island methylation status in gastric carcinoma with and without infection of Epstein-Barr virus. *Clin Cancer Res* **12**, 2995–3002.
- [35] Choi IS and Wu TT (2005). Epigenetic alterations in gastric carcinogenesis. *Cell Res* **15**, 247–254.
- [36] Maekita T, Nakazawa K, Mihara M, Nakajima T, Yanaoka K, Iguchi M, Arai K, Kaneda A, Tsukamoto T, Tatematsu M, et al. (2006). High levels of aberrant DNA methylation in *Helicobacter pylori*-infected gastric mucosae and its possible association with gastric cancer risk. *Clin Cancer Res* **12**, 989–995.
- [37] Cheng XX, Wang ZC, Chen XY, Sun Y, Kong QY, Liu J, Gao X, Guan HW, and Li H (2005). Frequent loss of membranous E-cadherin in gastric cancers: a cross-talk with Wnt in determining the fate of beta-catenin. *Clin Exp Metastasis* **22**, 85–93.
- [38] Graziano F, Arduini F, Ruzzo A, Mandolesi A, Bearzi I, Silva R, Muretto P, Testa E, Mari D, Magnani M, et al. (2004). Combined analysis of E-cadherin gene (CDH1) promoter hypermethylation and E-cadherin protein expression in patients with gastric cancer: implications for treatment with demethylating drugs. *Ann Oncol* **15**, 489–492.
- [39] Kang GH, Lee S, Kim JS, and Jung HY (2003). Profile of aberrant CpG island methylation along multistep gastric carcinogenesis. *Lab Invest* **83**, 519–526.
- [40] To KF, Leung WK, Lee TL, Yu J, Tong JH, Chan MW, Ng EK, Chung SC, and Sung JJ (2002). Promoter hypermethylation of tumor-related genes in gastric intestinal metaplasia of patients with and without gastric cancer. *Int J Cancer* **102**, 623–628.