Liver cancer comes sixth in respect of incidence and third in cancer-related mortality worldwide [1]. Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) comprises 75 to 85% of all pathological kinds of liver cancers. Chronic hepatitis B and C virus infection, heavy drinking, and metabolic abnormalities are the major risk factors for HCC [2]. Over the past decade or two, targeted therapy and immunotherapy have been used as primary systemic therapy for advanced HCC [3, 4]. Despite several advances in the treatment of HCC, the survival rate at 5 years after diagnosis is still low. Serum alpha-fetoprotein (AFP) is the most common biomarker of HCC. However, around half of patients with HCC are AFP-negative, especially early and small HCCs [5]. Hence, it is critical to determine more key biomolecules complementary to AFP for optimizing diagnostic accuracy and therapeutic decisions in HCC cases.

N6-methyladenosine (m$^6$A), one of the most prevalent RNA modifications, shows indispensable roles in diverse molecular processes, including transcription, processing, and metabolism [6]. RNA m$^6$A methylation is composed of methyltransferase (“Writer”), binding protein (“Reader”), and demethylase (“Erase”). Recent studies found a pivotal role of dysregulated m$^6$A modifications in various biological processes and diseases [7, 8].

Hepatocellular carcinoma is the most common form of liver tumor. m$^6$A modification and noncoding RNA show indispensable roles in HCC. We sought to establish and verify an appropriate m$^6$A-related long noncoding RNA prognostic tool for predicting hepatocellular carcinoma progression. We extracted the RNA expression levels and the clinicopathologic data from GTEx and TCGA databases. Multivariate Cox regression analysis and receiver operating characteristic curves were performed to test the model's predictive ability. We further built a nomogram for overall survival according to the risk score and clinical features. A competing endogenous RNA network and Gene Ontology assessment were implemented to identify related biological mechanisms and processes.
types of cancer, including HCC [7-9]. For instance, upregulated YTHDF1 promotes the occurrence and development of breast cancer by enhancing tumor glycolysis [10]. In addition, KIAA1429 could facilitate the progression of tumor, which suggests it might be a novel oncogenic factor in colorectal cancer [11].

Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) are a series of non-coding RNAs that contain more than 200 nucleotides, which regulate the expression of genes at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels [12]. The role of lncRNAs in promoting tumorogenesis and invasion has been well-documented in several cancers, including HCC [13]. Meanwhile, mA regulators could affect cancer development by changing the methylation level of lncRNA. However, the prognostic value of mA-associated lncRNAs in HCC remains to be discovered.

In our work, we analyzed the RNA expression profile and clinical characteristics of HCC patients and established a risk signature that could effectively predict HCC progression. Then, we created a competing endogenous RNA (ceRNA) network for exploring underlying molecular mechanisms. Besides, we identified the potential compounds that might have therapeutic values in HCC. To summarize, our in-depth research identifies promising lncRNAs that can be positioned as prognostic biomarkers and provide better selections of the potential therapeutic target in HCC.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Preparation and Processing of Data

RNA expression matrix and clinical features of HCC patients were downloaded from the TCGA database (https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov/) and GTEx database (https://gtexportal.org/home/). HCC patients with missing survival data were removed from our study. Eventually, we filtered 13425 lncRNAs from the GTEx-TCGA database for the following analysis. Besides, 24 mA regulators were retrieved from the published research findings, comprising writers (WTAP, METTL3, METTL14, VIRMA, RBM15, RBM15B, ZC3H13, and ZCCHC4), erasers (FTO and ALKBH5) and readers (YTHDF1, YTHDF2, YTHDF3, HNRNPC, HNRNPA2B1, FMR1, RBMX, LRPPRC, IGF2BP1, IGF2BP2, and IGF2BP3).

2.2. Acquisition of mA-associated lncRNAs and Construction of Model

Pearson correlation analysis was developed to investigate the correlation between mA regulators and lncRNAs (|Pearson R| > 0.3 and P < 0.05). Afterwards, we selected differentially expressed mRNAs (DEmRNAs) and lncRNAs (DElncRNAs) utilizing the limma package (log2FC > 1 and FDR < 0.05). DElncRNAs and mA-associated lncRNAs were intersected to obtain differentially expressed mA-associated lncRNAs (DEMlncRNAs). Kaplan-Meier (K-M) and univariate Cox regression analysis were applied to select the prognostic DEMlncRNAs in the GTEx-TCGA database. LASSO (least absolute shrinkage and selection operator) regression was applied to determine the more dependent DEMlncRNAs by the glmnet R package. The 7 DEMlncRNAs were obtained from multivariate Cox regression analysis, after which we established an mA-associated lncRNAs signature (MRLS). The risk score is computed using the following formula: Risk score = \( \sum (\text{Exp}[\text{lncRNA}] \times \text{Coeff}[\text{lncRNA}]) \). Exp(lncRNA) represents the expression levels of each selected lncRNA, and Coeff(lncRNA) is the corresponding coefficient. 370 HCC patients were randomly classified into the training cohort (N = 186) and the testing cohort (N = 184) in nearly 1:1 ratio. Afterwards, we categorized HCC patients into high-risk and low-risk sets using the median risk score. Using the timeROC R package, the analysis of the 1-, 3-, and 5-year receiver operating characteristic (ROC) was used to assess the accuracy of the MRLS in the complete cohort.

2.3. Function Enrichment Analysis

We used \(|\log 2 FC| \geq 1\) along with FDR < 0.05 to get the differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between the two risk subgroups. In addition, we executed Gene Ontology (GO) assessment to identify the biological procedures related to the mA-associated lncRNAs, and we computed single-sample Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (ssGSEA) scores that represented the immune status by the “GSVA” R package. Heatmap showed differences in immune functions between two risk subgroups.

2.4. Tumor Mutational Burden and Expression of Immune Checkpoint Genes

Tumor mutational burden (TMB) has been reported to be an indicator of immune response and tumor behavior, which was generated from the somatic mutation data of TCGA. Thus, we analyzed the common mutations by the “maftools” R package and calculated the TMB for each tumor sample. Furthermore, different expression levels of seven immune checkpoints between two risk subgroups were analyzed by box plot using limma and ggpubr R packages.

2.5. Prediction of Potential Compounds

To evaluate the chemotherapeutic drug sensitivity in HCC therapy, we computed the half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50) values of potential compounds using the ggpubr, ggplot2, pRRophetic and limma R packages.

2.6. Construction of Nomogram

Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses identified the independent prognostic factors in HCC. On the basis of these results, a nomogram comprising age, gender, grade, risk score, and stage was plotted to prognosticate the 1-, 3-, and 5-year overall survival (OS) rates of HCC patients. Moreover, a calibration chart was used to estimate the exactness of the nomogram. Principal component analysis (PCA) was created to compare different distributions among all genes, 24 mA regulators, 1419 mA-associated lncRNAs, and 7 mA-associated lncRNAs between the high and low-risk subgroups.

2.7. ceRNA network construction

To elucidate the regulatory relationship of mA-associated lncRNAs, five of seven DEMlncRNAs were obtained to predict target miRNAs based on miRecode (http://www.mircode.org/) and Starbase (http://starbase.sysu.edu.cn/) databases. We used miRDB (http://www.mirdb.org/), miRTarbase (http://mirtarbase.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/), and TargetScan (http://www.targetscan.org/) databases to search targeted regulation between miRNAs and mRNAs. Then, the intersection between DEmRNAs and target mRNAs was imported into the ceRNA network, which was visua-
lized with “Cytoscape” software (version 3.7.2) [14].

3. Results

3.1. Identification of m^A-Related lncRNAs

A flowchart illustrating this research process is presented in Figure 1A. A total of 13,425 lncRNAs were screened out from TCGA and GTEx databases among 370 HCC samples and 160 normal liver samples. 1419 m^A-related lncRNAs were extracted from co-expression networks of lncRNAs and m^A regulators, as displayed in Figure 1B. Additionally, we obtained 1784 DElncRNAs and 1497 DElncRNAs in the GTEx-TCGA database, including 1035 downregulated DElncRNAs, 749 upregulated DElncRNAs, 486 downregulated DElncRNAs, and 1011 upregulated DElncRNAs respectively. Finally, 468 shared DEMlncRNAs were obtained for the following analysis.

3.2. Establishment and Validation of the MRLS

In the training cohort, 24 lncRNAs were identified via univariate Cox regression analysis and were linked to the OS of HCC patients (Figure 2A). Subsequently, we further determined 13 lncRNAs by LASSO regression analysis (Figure 2B, 2C). After applying the multivariate Cox regression analysis, 7 prognostic m^A-related lncRNAs (GABPB1-AS1, AC025580.1, LINC01358, AC026356.1, AC009005.1, HCG15, and AC026368.1) were included as the prognostic signature. The correlation between m^A regulatory genes and 7 m^A-associated lncRNAs in the entire set is shown in Figure 1C. Risk score was calculated using the following formula: risk score = (-1.541 * GABPB1-AS1 exp.) + (0.760 * AC025580.1 exp.) + (0.715 * LINC01358 exp.) + (-2.640 * AC026368.1 exp.) + (1.459 * AC026356.1 exp.) + (0.442 * AC009005.1 exp.) + (0.801 * HCG15 exp.). HCC patients were classified into high/low-risk sets using the cutoff score. As shown in Figures 2D-2F, the risk score distribution, survival status, and expressions of 7 m^A-associated lncRNAs in HCC patients were presented. K-M survival plot showed that patients with low-risk value had significantly longer OS than those with high-risk value (P < 0.001; Figure 2G). As we expected, a similar trend was verified in the testing and entire cohorts (Figures 2H-2K). In the three cohorts, we found statistically significant differences between the two risk subgroups respectively.

We also analyzed the correlation between the risk model and clinical features (Figure 3A-3H). The results demonstrated that high-risk HCC populations had shorter OS than low-risk populations, regardless of subgroups defined by age, gender, grade or stage. This situation also occurred in TNM Stage I-II subgroup, but there was no significant difference in Stage III-IV subgroup. It may be because the TCGA database included only five patients with stage IV.

Next, we implemented PCA to compare different distributions among entire expression genes, m^A regulators, 1419 m^A-related lncRNAs, and 7 m^A-related lncRNAs between the two risk subgroups (Figures 3I-3L). These results indicated that 7 m^A-associated lncRNAs had the best classification performance and could divide all samples into two risk sections quite well.

3.3. Tumor Immune Analysis and Tumor Mutational Burden

GO analysis was conducted to pick up the biological processes related to the MRLS. The results suggested that the DEGs between the two risk subgroups were closely correlated with immune-related biological processes, including humoral immune response and leukocyte-mediated immunity (Figure 4A). Using the ssGSEA method, we further discovered remarkable differences in the scores of immune functions among the two subgroups, such as MHC class I, APC_co stimulation, cytokine, and cytokine receptor (CCR), para-inflammation, checkpoint, T cell co-stimulation, inflammation-promoting, and HLA, suggesting that these immune functions are more active in high-risk
patients (Figure 4B). Furthermore, the difference analysis of tumor immune checkpoints (PDL1, B7H3, CTLA4, LAG3, TIM3, IDO1, and TIGIT) showed as follows: high-risk patients exhibited elevated expression levels of PDL1, B7H3, CTLA4, TIM3, IDO1, and TIGIT (Figures 4C-4H), while LAG3 expression was similar in two risk subgroups (Figure 4I).

As demonstrated in Figure 4J, high-risk patients displayed higher TMB compared to low-risk patients (P = 0.038). The alteration frequencies of TP53 and MUC16 were significantly higher in high-risk patients (Figures 4K, 4L). However, the alteration frequencies of CTNNB1 and ALB were markedly higher in low-risk patients. K-M curve indicated that the low-mutation set outperformed the high-mutation set in terms of OS (P = 0.006; Figure 4M). Subsequently, we explored the relationship between the MRLS and TMB, and the results revealed that patients in the high-TMB/high-risk group had a worse OS than patients in the low-TMB/low-risk group (P < 0.001; Figure 4N).

3.4. Differential response of treatments upon two risk cohorts

The pRRophetic algorithm was applied to figure out which drugs might affect HCC patients by looking at the IC50 of different drugs from the Genomics of Drug Sensitivity in Cancer (GDSC) database. The estimated IC50 levels of cisplatin (P = 0.0013; Figure 5A), gemcitabine (P = 0.0033; Figure 5B), and mitomycin C (P = 0.0015; Figure 5C) in the low-risk set were significantly higher than those in the high-risk set, and vinblastine (P = 0.024; Figure 5D) had a lower IC50 level in the low-risk set than in the high-risk set. However, doxorubicin and sorafenib showed no significant difference (Figures 5E, 5F). Our findings demonstrated that high-risk populations were more responsive to cisplatin, gemcitabine, and mitomycin C, and low-risk populations were more responsive to vinblastine.

Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis revealed that MRLS and stage were both independent prognostic factors of HCC patients (Figures 5G, 5H). The ROC curves evaluated the predictive performance of the signature for 1, 3, and 5 years with area under curve (AUC) values of 0.701, 0.744, and 0.698, respectively, demonstrating that the model had good prediction efficiency (Figure 5I). Besides, the AUC of ROC curves, including risk model, age, gender, grade, and stage in entire group, were 0.701, 0.522, 0.527, 0.458, and 0.650, implying that the MRLS was reliable in predicting HCC patients’ prognosis (Figure 5J). Furthermore, C-index analysis further manifested that risk score has better accuracy of prognostic prediction in HCC patients than other clinical features such as stage (Figure 5K).

We plotted a nomogram based on gender, age, grade, stage and risk score to calculate the 1-, 3-, and 5-year OS probabilities of HCC patients (Figure 5L). In addition, calibration plots confirmed good concordance between the prognostic outcome and actual observations (Figure 5M). All the results indicated that risk score might be a prediction tool to provide clinical guidance for HCC patients.

To further speculate on the potential mechanisms of m6A-associated lncRNAs, we built a lncRNA-miRNA-mRNA ceRNA network. Five lncRNAs were selected from...
Recent molecular studies, mainly directed towards RNA epigenetic alteration in cancers, have attempted to investigate the potential effects of m^6^A on cancer development and progression by detecting heterogeneity of m^6^A modification landscape and regulator expression levels. Several research studies have shown that deregulation of m^6^A is involved in many types of cancer by affecting the targeted mRNA or miRNA, as reviewed by Chen et al. [17]. However, current cancer studies regarding m^6^A modification in lncRNAs are scarce. Recently, Zuo et al. [18] demonstrated that METTL3-mediated m^6^A upregulates LINC00958 in HCC cells by regulating the stability of its transcript, thereby promoting the progression and lipogenesis of HCC. The m^6^A modification on Lnc-LSG1, which was regulated by METTL14, can prevent the interaction with ESRP2 via the m^6^A reader YTHDC1 in clear cell renal cell carcinoma [19]. LncRNA NEAT1, whose expression and m^6^A methylation level is significantly elevated by CRISPR/Cas13b-METTL3, can suppress the migration and progression of renal cell carcinoma [20]. These results are consistent with our hypothesis that m^6^A modification is closely related to lncRNAs. With these premises, we focused on the latent interplay between m^6^A modification and lncRNAs to reveal new prognostic indicators and precise treatment of HCC.

In this work, 7 m^6^A-related lncRNAs were used to develop the risk prediction model. The results of K-M analysis, ROC curves, and univariate and multivariate cox analysis have demonstrated that MRLS may be the more dependable clinical parameter. They will predict the OS of HCC patients independently. Among the above lncRNAs, two lncRNAs (GABPB1-AS1 and AC026368.1) expressions were positively correlated with OS, while five lncRNAs (AC025580.1, LINC01358, AC026356.1, AC009005.1, and HCG15) expression were negatively correlated with OS. The biological function of the vast majority of lncRNAs remains a mystery. HCG15 acted as a tumor-promoting factor in HCC cells by enhancing USF1-mediated ZNF641 transcription [21]. AC009005.1, a novel autophagy-related lncRNA, has been demonstrated as a predictor of prognosis in HCC patients [22]. GABPB1-AS1 triggered osteosarcoma development by targeting SP1 to activate the Wnt/β-catenin pathway [23]. Conversely, GABPB1-AS1, being involved in ferroptosis, functioned as a tumor suppressor and as an attractive therapeutic target for HCC [24]. The above studies confirmed that HCG15, AC009005.1 and GABPB1-AS1 are closely related to the progression of HCC, which further favors our findings. Notably, the role of lncRNAs AC026368.1, AC025580.1, LINC01358, and AC026356.1 was first reported and validated in our study. However, the regulatory mechanisms of these lncRNAs in tumors need to be further investigated.

We conducted a GO analysis to explore the DEGs between high/low-risk groups in HCC. Interestingly, we found that both immune response and immunoglobulin occurred most frequently, implying that the immune microenvironment may be critical for HCC progression. Subsequently, the immune functions (MHC class I, CCR, checkpoint, T cell co-stimulation, APC co-stimulation, and HLA) were more active among the high-risk populations. Moreover, most of the immune checkpoint expressions were significantly up-regulated in high-risk HCC patients, implying that high-risk populations might respond better.
to immunotherapy, which merited further validation in the future. A meta-analysis revealed that the poorer prognosis in HCC patients, along with elevated alpha-fetoprotein and poorly differentiated histology, is linked to the level of PD-L1 expression [25]. Analyses of other immune checkpoint expressions and their association with prognosis are awaited from numerous immunotherapy trials. Although anti-PD1/PD-L1 and anti-CTLA4 monotherapies have been demonstrated to benefit patients with HCC [26-28], these trials achieve unsatisfactory response rates. This is likely due to the highly immunosuppressive state of the tumor microenvironment in the liver.

TMB, a promising biomarker, is the overall amount of somatic coding mutations, which links to the advent of neoantigens that induce antitumor immune responses [29]. The high TMB is a reliable predictor of clinical outcome and treatment response to immune checkpoint inhibitors in non-small-cell lung cancer [30, 31]. Xu found that patients with HCC harboring higher TMB have more effective immunotherapy responses and longer progression-free survival (PFS) than those with lower TMB [32]. The results of our article revealed that the high-risk set has higher TMB in comparison with the low-risk set. TMB has a strong relationship with the m^6^A-related lncRNAs risk model. Additionally, the MRLS well-prognosticated mutation rates between high- and low-risk HCC cases, especially those of TP53, TTN, and CTNNB1 genes. High-risk populations had more increased TP53 mutations than low-risk cases (34% vs 21%). TP53 mutations impact the cell cycle in almost 30% of all HCC cases, and patients carrying this mutation tend to have unfavorable prognoses [2]. Interestingly, CTNNB1 was the highest mutated gene in the low-risk group. CTNNB1 mutations occurred in HCC lead to sparse T-cell infiltration and immune evasion through activating the β-catenin pathway [33, 34], implying that low-risk patients may have resistance to immunotherapy. People with higher TMB had worse OS than those with lower TMB. Therefore, these mutated genes and TMB may act as new targets for cancer therapy selection and monitoring and immune checkpoint biomarkers in combination with TMB should be used in the future to optimize therapeutic strategies for HCC patients.

Our study further explored the disparities in drug response between the two groups. Low-risk HCC patients were more sensitive to vinblastine. In contrast, high-risk patients were more susceptible to cisplatin, gemcitabine, and mitomycin C. As indicated above, the risk model might be helpful for guiding drug treatment choices. We then built a nomogram based on MRLS. Upon the completion of evaluation and verification, the risk model was suitable for prognosticating the prognosis of HCC. Finally, using the miRcode, starbase, miRTarBase, TargetScan, and miRDB databases, 5 lncRNAs, 163 miRNAs, and 256 mRNAs were identified to create their co-mediated ceRNA. Although we provided a comprehensive view of the underlying mechanism, further investigations are warranted to validate our findings.

Our study also has some limitations that need to be clarified. First, our signature was only validated using the GTEx-TCGA database without external data validation. Multi-center cohorts and other databases are required. Additionally, the functions of the identified lncRNAs have not been elucidated in depth. Further validation studies are needed to confirm the biological role of these lncRNAs in HCC.

5. Conclusion
Taken together, the MRLS can independently anticipate the prognosis in patients with HCC and optimize the treatment modalities. Besides, our study may contribute to explaining the primary process and mechanism of m^6^A-related lncRNAs.

Conflict of Interests
The author has no conflicts with any step of the article preparation.

Consent for publications
The author read and approved the final manuscript for publication.

Availability of data and material
The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Authors' contributions
XW and YW: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing original draft. LT, YZ and XZ: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Validation. LW, YZ, JJ, JW and JC: Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. XZ and XW: Methodology, Validation, Writing review & editing, Supervision. JY: Writing review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

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