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Susceptibility of Chimeric Mice with Livers Repopulated by Serially Subcultured Human Hepatocytes to Hepatitis B Virus

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We previously identified a small population of replicative hepatocytes in long-term cultures of human adult parenchymal hepatocytes (PHs) at a frequency of 0.01%-0.09%. These hepatocytes were able to grow continuously through serial subcultures as colony-forming parenchymal hepatocytes (CFPHs). In the present study, we generated gene expression profiles for cultured CFPHs and found that they expressed cytokeratin 19, CD90 (Thy-1), and CD44, but not mature hepatocyte markers such as tryptophan-2,3-dioxygenase (TO) and glucose-6-phosphatase (G6P), confirming that these cells are hepatic progenitor-like cells. The cultured CFPHs were resistant to infection with human hepatitis B virus (HBV). To examine the growth and differentiation capacity of the cells *in vivo*, serially subcultured CFPHs were transplanted into the progeny of a cross between albumin promoter/enhancer-driven urokinase plasminogen activator-transgenic mice and severe combined immunodeficient (SCID) mice. The cells were engrafted into the liver and were able to grow for at least 10 weeks, ultimately reaching a maximum occupancy rate of 27%. The CFPHs in the host liver expressed differentiation markers such as TO, G6P, and cytochrome P450 subtypes and could be infected with HBV. CFPH-chimeric mice with a relatively high replacement rate exhibited viremia and had high serum levels of hepatitis B surface antigen. *Conclusion:* Serially subcultured human hepatic progenitor-like cells from postnatal livers successfully repopulated injured livers and exhibited several phenotypes of mature hepatocytes, including susceptibility to HBV. *In vitro*–expanded CFPHs can be used to characterize the differentiation state of human hepatic progenitor-like cells. (HEPATOLOGY 2008;47:435-446.)

Abbreviations: 9MM, 9-month-old Caucasian male; 10YF, 10-year-old Caucasian female; 12YM, 12-year-old Asian male; 16YF, 16-year-old Asian female; AAT, α1-antitrypsin; AFP, α-fetoprotein; ALB, albumin; BGP, biliary glycoprotein; BrdU, 5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine; CFPH, colony-forming parenchymal hepatocyte; CK, cytokeratin; G6P, glucose-6-phosphatase; h, human; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; HBV, hepatitis B virus; CYP, cytochrome P450; m, mouse; MDR, multidrug resistance protein; MRP, multidrug resistance-associated protein; PH, parenchymal hepatocyte; RI, replacement index; RT-PCR, reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction; SH, small hepatocyte; TO, tryptophan-2,3-dioxygenase; uPA, urokinase plasminogen activator.

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Studies using rodents with damaged livers have shown that parenchymal hepatocytes (PHs) have great growth potential. When mouse (*m*) hepatocytes were transplanted into the livers of albumin promoter/enhancer-driven urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA)-transgenic mice,[1] they engrafted and repopulated the host liver. Serial transplantation experiments using *m*-hepatocytes in mice with tyrosinemia showed their enormous growth capacity.[2] The replicative potential of rat hepatocytes has also been demonstrated by transplanting them into the partially hepatectomized liver of a retrorsine-treated rat,[3] and uPA-transgenic mice crossed with severely immunodeficient mice, such as severe combined immunodeficient (SCID)/beige mice,[4] SCID mice,[5,6] or recombination activation gene 2 knockout mice[7] have been used to show the growth potential of human (*h*)-hepatocytes. When transplanted into uPA/SCID mice, PHs from a human juvenile male grew in the host liver to a level at which the proportion (replacement index) of the area of repopulated *h*-hepatocytes to the total number (host and donor) of hepatocytes reached 96% at 64 days posttransplantation.[5] Such *h*-hepatocyte–chimeric mice have been used to study the pharmacological responses of *h*-hepatocytes[5] and to investigate *h*-hepatitis viral infections.[4,6-8]

In contrast, normal hepatocytes have limited replicative capacity *in vitro* and acquire an abnormal phenotype if they are cultured for extended periods.[9,10] Studies on hepatocytes cultured in a newly devised medium (hepatocyte clonal growth medium[11,12]) revealed a subpopulation of highly replicative PHs, known as small hepatocytes (SHs), in both rats[12] and humans.[13] Their occupancy rate in *h*-liver ranged from 0.01% to 0.09% and was dependent on donor age.[13] The *h*-SHs formed colonies and grew continuously through several subcultures, which led us to name them colony-forming PHs (CFPHs).[13] Replication of the CFPHs was donor age–dependent up to passage 7 (p = 7),[13] and the cells did not exhibit a normal hepatocytic phenotype. Instead, they exhibited the traits of hepatocytes or biliary cells depending on the culture conditions. In addition, the CFPHs were not susceptible to infection with hepatitis B virus (HBV) (unpublished data).

In this study, we generated gene expression profiles of CFPHs and transplanted serially subcultured CFPHs into homozygous uPA/SCID mice to examine their growth and differentiation capacity. Our results indicate that the cells were engrafted onto the liver parenchyma and repopulated the tissue, ultimately differentiating into mature hepatocytes. Importantly, the *in vitro*–propagated CFPHs became susceptible to infection with HBV. This study supports our previous suggestion that CFPHs from *h*-postnatal liver are hepatic progenitor-like cells with the potential to assume a normal hepatocytic phenotype.[13]

Materials and Methods

h-*Hepatocytes.* This study was performed with the approval of the Hiroshima Prefectural Institute of Industrial Science and Technology Ethics Board. PHs were isolated as described[13,14] from livers donated by a 12-year-old Asian male (12YM) and a 16-year-old Asian female (16YF) according to the guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki. Cryopreserved PHs from a 9-month-old Caucasian male (9MM) and a 10-year-old Caucasian female (10YF) were obtained from In Vitro Technologies (Baltimore, MD) and BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA), respectively.

Culture of CFPHs. Cryopreserved PHs from the 9MM, 12YM, and 16YF were thawed[5] and serially subcultured to obtain *in vitro*–expanded CFPHs.[13] Commercial 9MM PHs and freshly isolated 12YM and 16YF PHs were each subcultured to p = 3. The expanded cells were then cryopreserved, thawed upon use, and cultured on collagen-coated plates for 14-20 days as described.[13]

Flow Cytometry. We detached 12YM CFPHs (p = 4 or 5) from culture plates by treatment with 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), suspended, incubated on ice for 30 minutes with *m*-monoclonal antibodies against *h*Thy-1 (clone F15-42-1; Chemicon, Temecula, CA), and incubated with antibodies against *m*-immunoglobulin G Alexa-488 (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). We used *m*-immunoglobulin G_1 as a negative control. The cells were then analyzed and separated using a fluorescence-activated cell sorter (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) as reported.[12]

Transplantation of PHs and CFPHs. We detached 9MM and 12YM CFPHs (p = 4) from their culture plates and treated for 1 hour with DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum and 3 μg/mL anti–*h*-integrin α1 monoclonal antibodies (clone FB12, Chemicon).[15] This procedure improved engraftment of the CFPHs in uPA/SCID *m*-liver and reduced host mortality.

Transplantation of PHs and CFPHs was performed as described previously.[5] Homozygous uPA/SCID mice were injected with 0.75×10^6 9MM and 12YM PHs or $0.75\text{-}1.0 \times 10^6$ *in vitro*–expanded 9MM and 12YM CFPHs into the inferior splenic pole. When necessary, 10 mM 5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine (BrdU) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and 1.2 mM 5-fluoro-2′-deoxyuridine (Wako, Osaka, Japan) in saline were injected intraperitoneally into the mice at 10 μL/g body weight 1 hour prior to death. The animals were treated according to the guidelines of our local committee on animal experiments.

Table 1. Summary of CFPH and PH Transplantation Experiments in uPA/SCID Mice

Group	Donor Cells	Time of Sacrifice (Weeks After Transplantation)	No. of Transplanted Mice	No. of Mice with Engraftment* [RE (%)]	RI† [Mean ± SD (n)]
A	12YM CFPHs (p = 4)	3	9	3 (33)	0.06-0.19% [0.14 ± 0.07% (n = 3)]
B	9MM CFPHs (p = 4)	3	6	4 (67)	0.03-0.05% [0.04 ± 0.01% (n = 4)]
C	9MM PHs	3	3	3 (100)	5.1-19.4% [6.4 ± 2.9% (n = 3)]
D	12YM CFPHs (p = 4)	9-10	27	14 (52)	0.2-27.0% [6.6 ± 8.3% (n = 14)]
E	9MM PHs	10-11	23‡	23 (100)‡	32.6-82.2% [57.4% (n = 2)]
F	12YM PHs	10	6	4 (67)	31.0-77.0% [62.3 ± 23.8% (n = 4)]
G§	12YM CFPHs (p = 4)	17-20	4	ND	ND

Abbreviation: ND, not determined.

*Number of mice whose livers were engrafted with transplanted PHs or CFPHs. The RE was determined via *h*ALB immunohistochemistry on sections prepared from 5 lobes of a liver.

†Ranges of RI of chimeric mice used in each group.

‡Data from Tateno et al.[5]

§Mice from group G were used for HBV infection studies.

We transplanted 9MM and 12YM CFPHs into 6 and 40 uPA/SCID mice, respectively. The mice were then killed 3, 9, or 10 weeks later, depending on the experimental purpose. In a previous report, we used 9MM and 12YM PHs as donor cells.[5] In this study, we used some of the preserved livers from these mice for histological examinations and as sources of RNA for reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis. The mice used in our transplantation experiments were separated into 7 groups (A-G) as shown in Table 1, which includes the rates of engraftment and replacement indices (RIs) of the chimeric mice.

Blood samples (5 μL) were collected periodically after transplantation from the tail veins of the hosts, and the level of *h*-albumin (ALB) in each was determined using a Human Albumin ELISA Quantitation Kit (Bethyl Laboratories, Montgomery, TX) to monitor the growth of the transplanted CFPHs.

RT-PCR. An RNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) was used to isolate total RNA from freeze-thawed 9MM and 10YF PHs, cells of the *h*-hepatoma cell line HepG2, and 12YM and 16YF CFPHs (p = 4). RNA was also isolated with Isogen (Nippon Gene, Tokyo, Japan) from the livers of homozygous uPA/SCID mice and mice chimeric for 12YM PHs or 12YM CFPHs. Each RNA sample was treated with deoxyribonuclease (Takara Bio, Kyoto, Japan) and used as the template for RT-PCR. The RNA (1 μg) was reverse-transcribed with random hexamers using PowerScript Reverse Transcriptase (Clontech, Kyoto, Japan). All reactions were performed with Ex Taq (Takara Bio). Semiquantitative PCR was performed to allow linear amplification of the targets. The following *h*-specific or *m* and *h* cross-reactive genes were subjected to RT-PCR under the conditions shown in Supplementary Table 1: ALB, α1-antitrypsin (AAT), tryptophan-2,3-dioxygenase (TO), glucose-6-phosphatase (G6P), α-fetoprotein (AFP), cytokeratin 19 (CK19), biliary glycoprotein (BGP), Thy-1, CD44, multidrug resistance protein 1 (MDR1), multidrug resistance-associated protein 1 (MRP1), MRP2, and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase.

In Situ *Hybridization.* Cryosections (7 μm thick) were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, then incubated with 100 ng/mL proteinase K for 10 minutes at 37°C. The sections were then treated at 90°C for 6 minutes and hybridized for 2 hours at 37°C with biotinylated h-DNA probes (Dako, Glostrup, Denmark). The sections were also used to detect whole *h*-genomic DNA using the GenPoint System (Dako) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Finally, they were stained with hematoxylin-eosin.

Immunohistochemistry and Histochemistry. Formalin-fixed livers were embedded in paraffin and sectioned 5 μm thick. The sections were heated in a microwave oven for 5 minutes in Target Retrieval Solution (Dako), then placed at room temperature for 20 minutes. The livers used to generate frozen sections were embedded in OCT compound (Sakura Finechemicals, Tokyo, Japan), frozen in liquid nitrogen, and sectioned 5 μm thick. The cultured cells were fixed in cold ethanol for 10 minutes. The primary antibodies and conditions used for immunohistochemistry are listed in Supplementary Table 2. For bright-field immunohistochemistry, the antibodies were visualized using a Vectastain ABC Kit (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) using DAB substrates. Fluorescense immunohistochemistry was performed using Alexa 488–conjugated or Alexa 594–conjugated secondary antibodies (Molecular Probes). The nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258. Glycogens were visualized using a periodic acid-Schiff (PAS) staining kit (Muto Pure Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan). RIs were determined using *h*ALB-immunostained sections of chimeric *m*-livers as reported previously.[5]

HBV Infection. We obtained *h*-serum containing high-titer HBV DNA (8.1 $\log_{10}$ genome equivalents/mL serum) from an HBV genotype C carrier after obtaining informed consent. The serum was kept at −80°C until use. Four CFPH-chimeric mice were intravenously injected with 100 μL of the HBV-positive serum 9-12 weeks after transplantation.

HBV Marker Analysis. Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) was measured using an Architect Analyzer (Abbott, Osaka, Japan). Serum DNA was extracted using a SMITEST EX-R&D Nucleic Acid Extraction Kit (Genome Science Laboratories, Fukushima, Japan). Small amounts of HBV DNA (<300 copies/mL) were detected via nested PCR.[8] If HBV DNA was detected during the initial round of PCR, the copy number was determined via real-time PCR as reported.[8]

Results

***Phenotypes of CFPHs* In Vitro.** We seeded 9MM and 12YM PHs on culture dishes and confirmed that the CFPHs from the 2 donors were similar in morphology and replicative capacity. A small number of the CFPHs (0.01%-0.09% of the seeded PHs) began to replicate after 5 days, and the number of replicating cells gradually increased until colonies appeared at 17 days (Fig. 1A); after 21 days, the cells covered the surface of the dish (Fig. 1B). Most of the seeded PHs were not replicative, and they gradually flattened, acquiring a senescent morphology within 20 days of seeding (Fig. 1A). The CFPHs showed an epithelial cell–like morphology with scant cytoplasm (Fig. 1B), and they retained this appearance during subculture (Fig. 1C). The population doubling time (PDT) of the CFPHs gradually increased as the passage number increased. Up to p = 4, the CFPHs from the young donors replicated with a population doubling time of 170-220 hours; subsequently, the population doubling time increased until the cells finally became senescent.[13]

The expression of several marker genes was compared among PHs, HepG2 cells, and CFPHs (Fig. 1D). In our experience, no significant differences exist in the marker gene expression profiles of PHs among different donors, and the same trend applies to subcultured CFPHs.[13] At p = 4, the CFPHs expressed less ALB and AAT messenger RNA compared with the PHs. The PHs expressed TO and G6P, both of which are markers of mature hepatocytes, whereas the CFPHs did not. CK19, a hepatic progenitor/biliary cell marker, was expressed in both the CFPHs and HepG2 cells, but not in the PHs. BGP, a cell–cell adhesion molecule in epithelium, endothelium, and myeloid cells,[16] was expressed in the PHs and HepG2 cells, but only faintly in the CFPHs. The CFPHs, but not the PHs or HepG2 cells, expressed Thy-1, a hematopoietic/hepatic progenitor cell marker. AFP, a hepatic progenitor/carcinoma cell marker, was only detectable in HepG2 cells. CD44, an SH[17] or oval cell marker,[18] was strongly expressed in CFPHs, but only faintly in PHs and HepG2 cells. PHs and CFPHs faintly expressed MDR1. PHs expressed MRP2, but not MRP1. In contrast, CFPHs expressed MRP1, but not MRP2. A change from MRP2 to MRP1 expression during culture has been reported in rat hepatocytes.[19]

Thy-1 and CD44 expression in CFPHs was assessed via immunocytochemistry (Fig. 1E-F). A few CFPHs were positive for Thy-1 (Fig. 1E), whereas the majority was strongly positive for CD44 (Fig. 1F). Fluorescence-activated cell sorting indicated that a minor population of the CFPHs expressed Thy-1 (Fig. 1G-H), with an occupancy rate of 1%-3% (Fig. 1H). The CFPHs expressed CK7, CK8, CK18, and CK19 in the preconfluent state and became CK7- and CK19-negative in condensed regions postconfluence (data not shown), which is in agreement with our previous findings.[13] Other hepatic stem cell markers such as CD34 and c-kit were undetectable in our CFPHs (data not shown).

Repopulation of CFPHs in uPA/SCID Mouse Liver. We transplanted 12YM CFPHs (p = 4) into 27 homozygous uPA/SCID mice. The serum concentration of *h*ALB was monitored posttransplantation as a measure of the RI of CFPHs (Fig. 2A). Approximately half of the hosts had no or only a small increase in the level of *h*ALB throughout the experimental period. The remaining mice showed a continuous increase in the concentration of *h*ALB, which reached >10 μg/mL after 9 to 10 weeks. Animal 27 showed the greatest increase, reaching 0.7 mg/mL after 10 weeks. The RI of each of the 14 mice in which blood *h*ALB concentration was >8 μg/mL after 9 to 10 weeks was determined by dividing the *h*ALB-positive areas by the entire area measured,[5] and the data were plotted against the corresponding blood *h*ALB concentrations (Fig. 2B). RIs between 0.2% and 27.0% were well correlated with blood *h*ALB concentrations in the 9-728 μg/mL range.

Livers of mice engrafted with the CFPHs were subjected to immunohistochemical staining for *h*ALB (Fig. 3A-D,H) and *in situ* hybridization using *h*-genomic DNA probes (Fig. 3I). *h*ALB-positive cells were visible within 3 weeks posttransplantation as single cells or small clusters consisting of up to 25 cells (Fig. 3A-B). Larger clusters containing 20-450 *h*ALB-positive cells appeared after 9 to 10 weeks (Fig. 3C for animal 2 and Fig. 3D for animals 17 and 27). To detect replicating CFPHs, the mice were

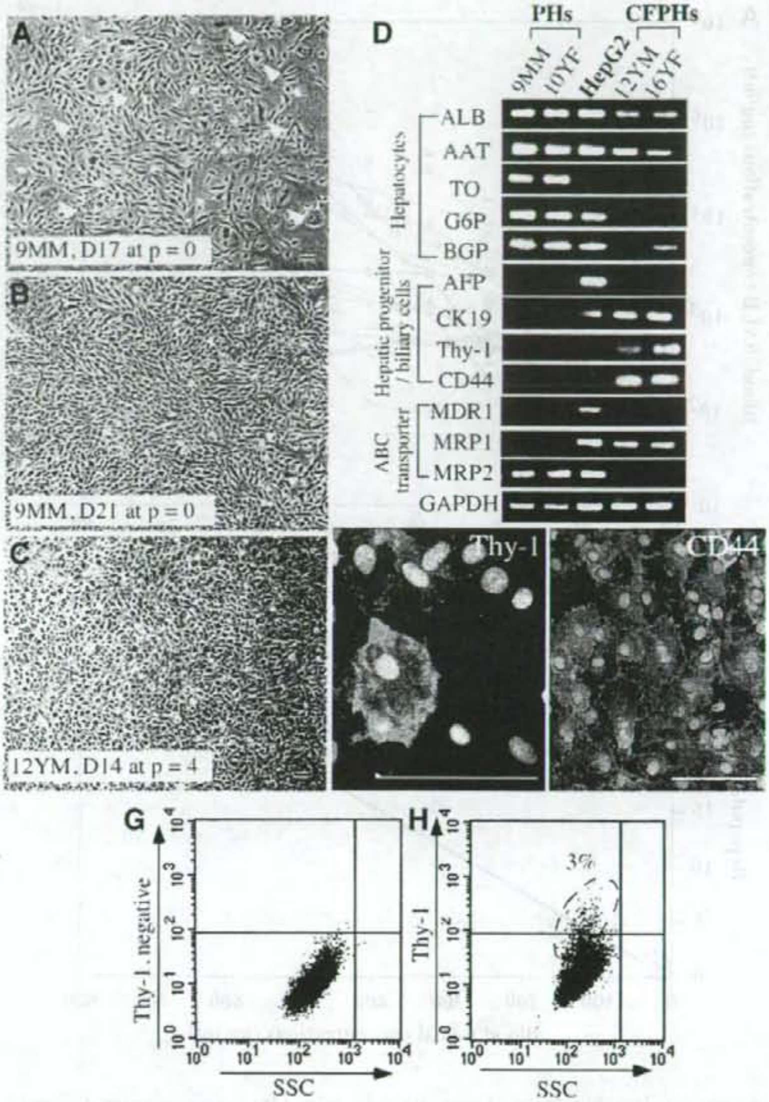

Fig. 1. CFPH growth and gene expression. (A-C) CFPH colony formation. We seeded 9MM PHs at 8×10^3 cells/cm^2 and cocultured with mitomycin C-treated Swiss 3T3 cells in *h*-hepatocyte clonal growth medium. A few CFPHs proliferated and formed colonies. CFPHs were cultured for (A) 17 and (B) 21 days. PHs were nonreplicative and were gradually expelled by replicative CFPHs. Arrowheads indicate the remaining flattened PHs, whose size increased. (C) Cryopreserved 12YM CFPHs (p = 3) were thawed and cultured in *h*-hepatocyte clonal growth medium with Swiss 3T3 cells for 14 days. (D) CFPH messenger RNA expression profiles. RNA was extracted from 9MM and 10YF PHs, HepG2 cells, and 12YM and 16YF CFPHs (p = 4). Semiquantitative RT-PCR was performed for ALB, AAT, TO, G6P, BGP, AFP, CK19, Thy-1, CD44, and the ABC transporters MDR1, MRP1, and MRP2. Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was used as an internal control. (E,F) Immunohistochemistry of Thy-1 and CD44. 12YM CFPHs (p = 4) were cultured for 14 days and stained for (E) Thy-1 and (F) CD44. The nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258. Scale bar: 100 μm. (G,H) Flow cytometric analysis of CFPHs for Thy-1. Cells were suspended in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum with (G) *m*-immunoglobulin G_1 as a negative control or (H) anti-*h*Thy-1 antibodies. Living cells were analyzed via fluorescence-activated cell sorting. A small fraction (3% in this case) of the CFPHs was Thy-1$^+$. Three independent analyses were performed with similar results.

given BrdU after 9 weeks. BrdU-positive CFPHs were observed at the edges of the colonies (Fig. 3E-G). Serial liver sections were prepared from CFPH-chimeric mice 9 to 10 weeks after transplantation for *h*ALB immuohistochemistry (Fig. 3H) and for *in situ* hybridization with an *h*-DNA probe (Fig. 3I). The regions identified as containing *h*-hepatocytes by the 2 methods were identical.

Comparison of Repopulation by CFPHs and PHs. PHs and CFPHs (p = 4) were prepared from the livers of 9MM and 12YM donors and transplanted into uPA/SCID mice, and the mice were killed 3 and 10 weeks posttransplantation. The transplanted cells were identified as *h*ALB-positive from histological sections. The number of PH- and CFPH-derived clusters was 125.0 ± 28.2 (n = 3) and 3.3 ± 7.5 (n = 7), respectively, per cross-section of the left lobe of the livers 3 weeks after transplantation, suggesting that the rate of engraftment of the CFPHs was much lower than that of the PHs.

The CFPHs were smaller in size compared with the PHs after 3 weeks (Fig. 4A-B). The cytoplasm of the

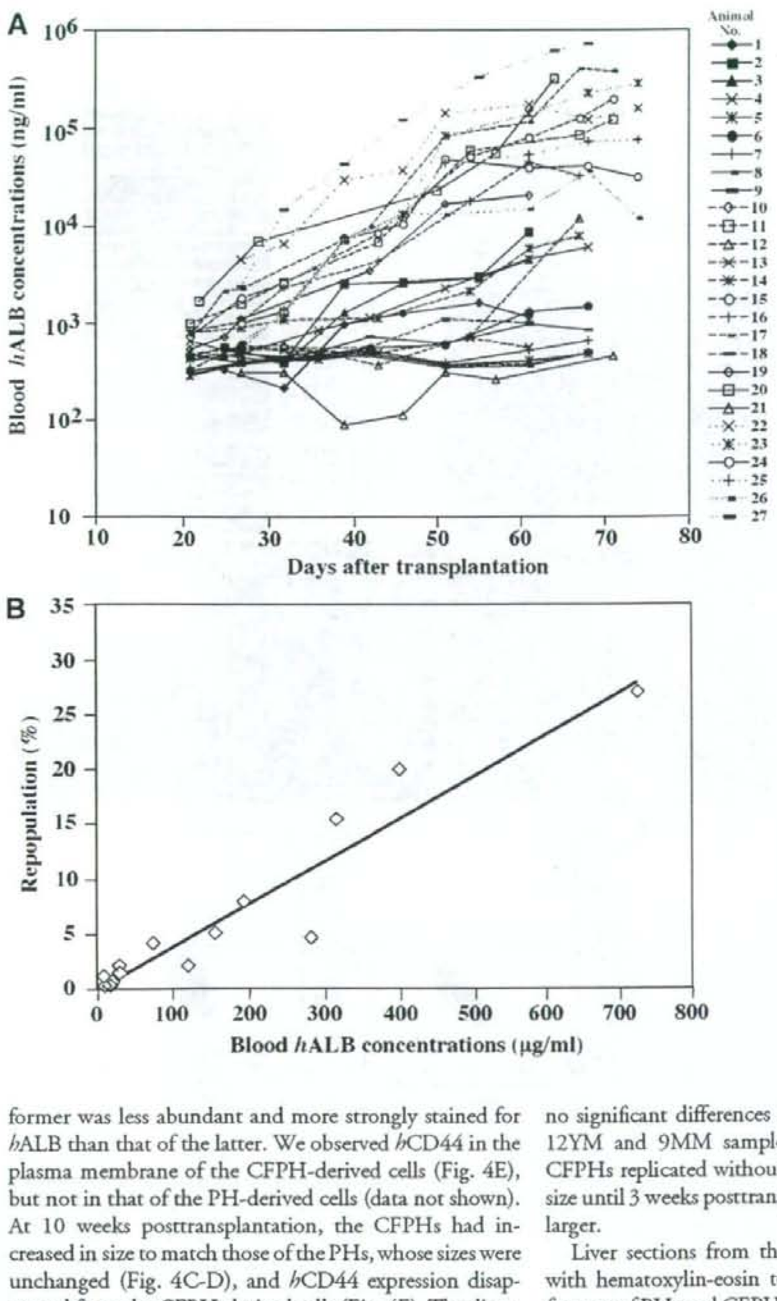

Fig. 2. Transplantation of CFPHs into uPA/SCID mice. The chimeric mice in this experiment are included in group D in Table 1. (A) We transplanted 12YM CFPHs (p = 4) into 27 mice and the serum level of *h*ALB was monitored individually. Ten hosts (animals 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 18, and 21) did not show significantly elevated *h*ALB levels during the experimental period. Four hosts (2, 3, 4, and 14) showed slight elevation. The *h*ALB concentration of 13 mice (11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 27) reached >10 μg/mL at 9 to 10 weeks after transplantation. (B) Correlation between the blood *h*ALB level and RI. Fourteen CFPH-chimeric mice (animals 2, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 27) were selected from the mice shown in panel A for RI determination. Their liver sections were immunostained for *h*ALB. RIs were determined for each animal and plotted against the *h*ALB concentration. The correlation coefficient (r^2) between the 2 parameters was 0.91.

former was less abundant and more strongly stained for *h*ALB than that of the latter. We observed *h*CD44 in the plasma membrane of the CFPH-derived cells (Fig. 4E), but not in that of the PH-derived cells (data not shown). At 10 weeks posttransplantation, the CFPHs had increased in size to match those of the PHs, whose sizes were unchanged (Fig. 4C-D), and *h*CD44 expression disappeared from the CFPH-derived cells (Fig. 4F). The diameter of each CFPH and PH was quantified as follows: 18.3 ± 5.1 μm (mean ± SD, n = 65) versus 25.8 ± 6.4 μm (n = 124) at 3 weeks and 27.0 ± 5.5 μm (n = 185) versus 25.8 ± 4.8 μm (n = 187) at 10 weeks. We found no significant differences in this parameter between the 12YM and 9MM samples. Thus, it appears that the CFPHs replicated without changing their original small size until 3 weeks posttransplantation, when they became larger.

Liver sections from the chimeric mice were stained with hematoxylin-eosin to compare the morphological features of PHs and CFPHs at 10 weeks. The repopulated CFPHs (Fig. 4G) showed no significant difference in morphology compared with the repopulated PHs (Fig. 4H). As reported previously,[5,6] the PHs in the chimeric livers were enlarged and had less eosinophilic cytoplasm

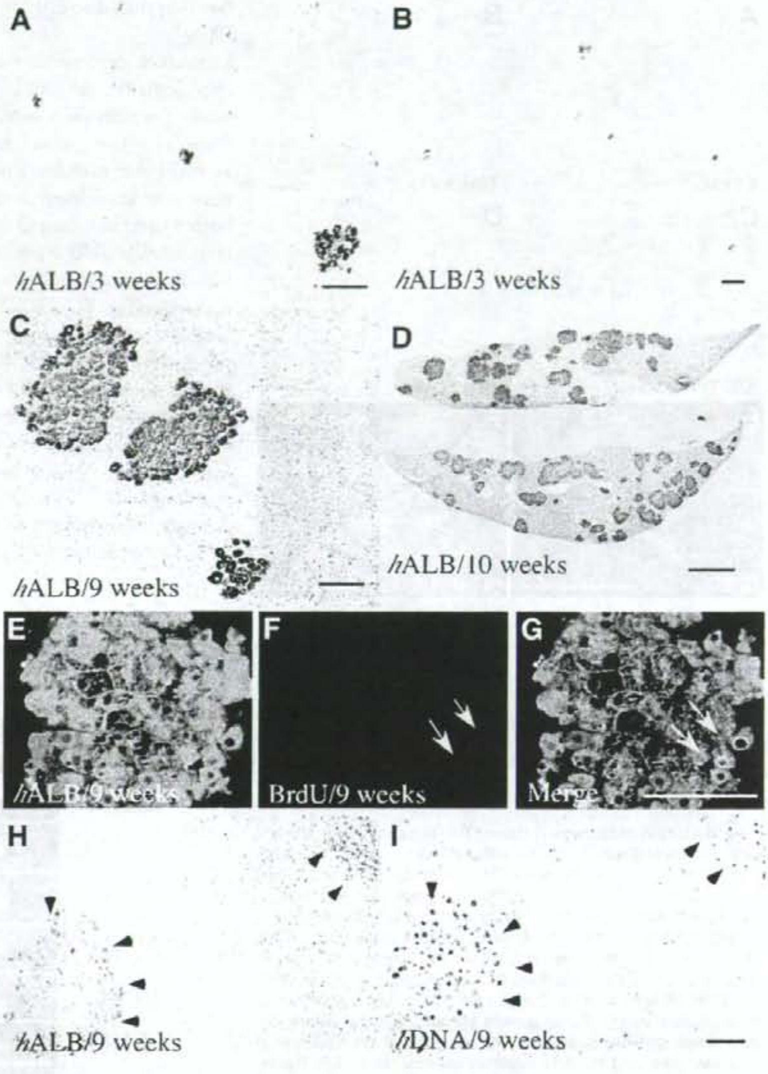

Fig. 3. Engraftment and repopulation of CFPHs in chimeric mouse liver. The chimeric mice in this experiment are included in groups A and D in Table 1. We performed *h*ALB immunohistochemistry using liver sections from CFPH-chimeric mice (A,B) 3, (C) 9, and (D) 10 weeks after transplantation. (A,B) Small clusters composed of 1-25 cells were scattered throughout the liver at 3 weeks in 3 of 9 mice. (C,D) The clusters became larger at 9 to 10 weeks. The liver sections in panel C were prepared from animal 2 in Fig. 2A (RI = 1.1%). The liver sections in panel D were prepared from animals 17 (RI = 20.0%; upper section) and 27 (RI = 27.0%; lower section). Three mice were randomly selected for the BrdU incorporation experiments (animals 2, 19, and 20 in Fig. 2A). They were given BrdU 1 hour before death at 9 weeks posttransplantation. Serial liver sections were subjected to (E) *h*ALB- and (F) BrdU immunohistochemical staining. The image in panel G is panel E and panel F merged. Similar results were obtained from these experiments, and the result from animal 19 (RI = 0.6%) is shown in panels E-G. Serial liver sections were prepared from CFPH-chimeric mice (animals 2, 15, and 17 in Fig. 2A) 9 to 10 weeks after transplantation for *h*ALB immunohistochemistry (H) and for *in situ* hybridization with an *h*-genomic probe (I). Similar results were obtained from the 3 mice. The results shown in panels H and I were obtained from animal 2 (positive cells are indicated by arrowheads). Scale bars in panels A-C, G, and I: 100 μm. Scale bar in panel D: 1 cm.

than the PHs in *h*-livers. The livers of the mice that had low *h*ALB levels at 10 weeks posttransplantation were mostly occupied by red nodules, which have been reported to be formed by the transgene-deleted hepatocytes of the host.[20]

Gene and Protein Expression Profiles of CFPHs in Chimeric Mice Compared with Those of PHs. Three 12YM CFPH-chimeric mice (11, 15, and 17) were randomly selected from the mice in Fig. 2A and killed 10 weeks after transplantation. RNA was extracted from each liver to generate gene expression profiles via RT-PCR. RT-PCR was also performed on 2 12YM PH-chimeric mice that were included in a previous study.[5] The CFPH livers expressed *h*ALB, *h*AAT, *h*TO, *h*G6P, and *h*MRP2, but not *h*CK19, *h*Thy-1, or *h*MRP1, just as in the PH-livers (Fig. 5). Previously, we showed that the PHs in chimeric mice expressed various *h*-cytochrome P450 (*h*CYP) subtypes in a manner similar to the donor liver.[5] In this study, we found that the expression of *h*CYPs 1A2, 2C8, 2C9, 2D6, and 2E1, but not 3A4, in the CFPH-chimeric mice was similar to that in the PH-chimeric mice (data not shown). Expression of *h*CYP3A4 was very

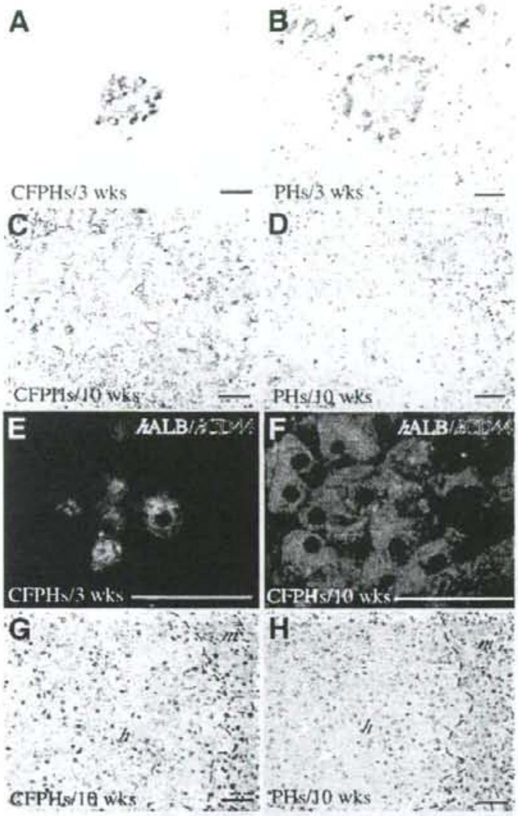

Fig. 4. Immunohistochemical staining for CFPHs and PHs in chimeric mice. Immunohistological analysis with antibodies against (A-D) *h*ALB and (E-F) *h*CD44. We produced 3 12YM CFPH-chimeric mice and 4 9MM CFPH-chimeric mice [(A) and (E), included in groups A and B in Table 1] and 3 9MM PH-chimeric mice [(B), group C], which were killed at 3 weeks posttransplantation. At 10 weeks posttransplantation, 3 12YM CFPH-chimeric mice that were randomly selected from the mice shown in Fig. 2A (15, 16, and 17) were killed [(C) and (F), group D), as were 9MM and 12YM PH-chimeric mice, 2 mice each [(D), groups E and F]. (A-D) Representative images of liver sections prepared from the animals and stained with anti-*h*ALB antibodies. The diameters of the *h*ALB-positive cells were measured in 10-15 randomly selected fields. (E,F) Double-fluorescence immunostaining. Green and red stains depict *h*ALB and *h*CD44, respectively. (G,H) Hematoxylin-eosin staining. (G) Eight CFPH mice were randomly selected from the mice shown in Fig. 2A and killed at 10 weeks posttransplantation. Their liver tissues were then subjected to hematoxylin-eosin staining. (H) Three 12YM PH-chimeric mice were killed at 10 weeks posttransplantation for hematoxylin-eosin staining as above. Similar results were obtained for the 8 CFPH-chimeric mice and 3 PH-chimeric mice. (E-F) Sections from (E) a CFPH-chimeric mouse (RI = 20.0%) and (F) a PH-chimeric mouse (RI = 57%). *h*, *h*-hepatocyte region; *m*, *m*-hepatocyte region. Dashed lines show the boundary between the 2 regions. Scale bars: 50 μm.

low (less than one-fifth) in CFPHs compared with that in PHs.

Protein expression was investigated immunohistochemically for the CFPH-chimeric livers at 3, 9, and 10 weeks posttransplantation. All of the examined CFPHs were Thy-1–negative, CK7-negative, CK19-negative, and AFP-negative (data not shown). The *h*ALB-positive cells were coincident with the *h*CK18-positive cells at both 3 (data not shown) and 9 weeks posttransplantation (Fig. 6A-C). MRP2-positive signals were present on the bile canalicular membranes of the transplanted CFPHs at 10 weeks (Fig. 6D-F). CYP3A4-expressing CFPHs were localized in the pericentral zone (Fig. 6G-I) as reported previously,[21] but their distributions were unique. Although some of the CFPHs were positive for CYP3A4, approximately 70% of them were negative. In contrast, all of the CFPHs in the pericentral zone strongly expressed CYP1A2 (Fig. 6J-L), which is known to be expressed in postnatal liver.[22] The CFPHs in the chimeric mice were strongly PAS-positive (Fig. 6N), whereas the *in vitro* CFPHs were faintly PAS-positive (data not shown). From

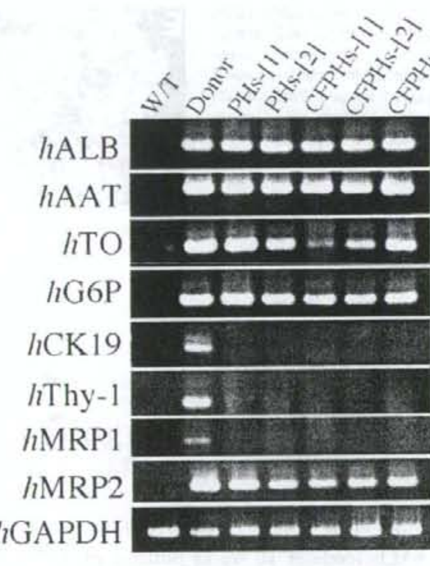

Fig. 5. Gene expression profiles of CFPHs in chimeric mice. Two uPA/SCID mice were transplanted with 12YM PHs ([1] and [2]); 3 uPA/SCID mice were transplanted with 12YM CFPHs ([1], [2], and [3]). The chimeric mice in this experiment are included in groups D and F in Table 1. After 10 weeks, the livers were removed for RT-PCR analysis. At the time of death, the PH-[1]-, PH-[2]-, CFPH-[1]-, CFPH-[2]-, and CFPH-[3]-chimeric mice had RIs of 41.0%, 57.0%, 2.1%, 7.9%, and 20.0%, respectively. The analysis was repeated using liver tissues from donor and uPA/SCID mice without transplantation (W/T). Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) amplification was used as an internal control.

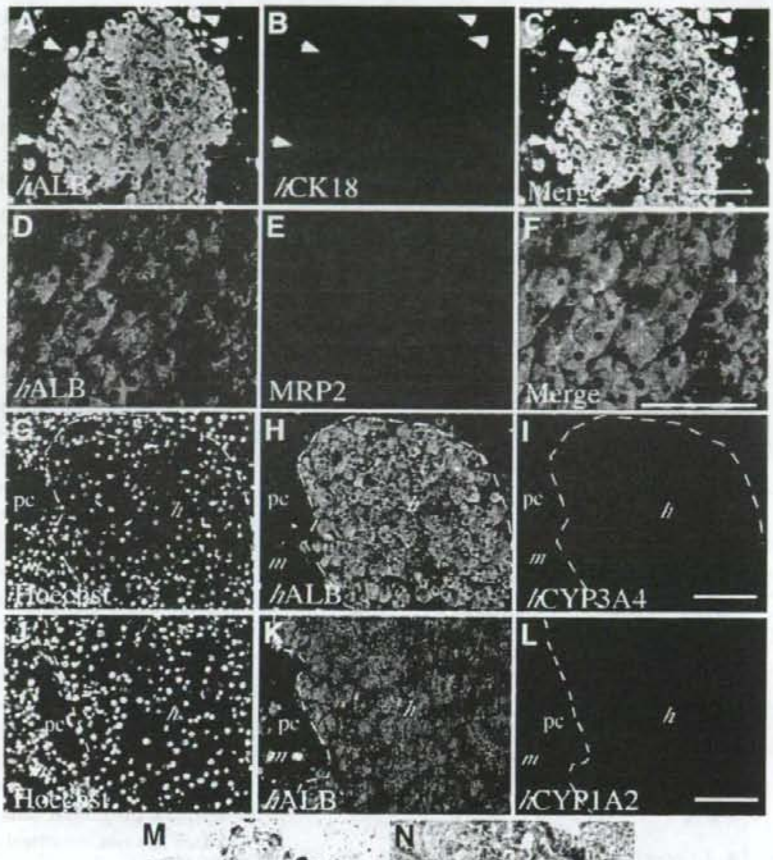

Fig. 6. Protein expression profiles of the CFPHs in chimeric livers. Mice were transplanted with 12YM CFPHs, and their livers were removed 9 to 10 weeks after transplantation for immunohistochemical analysis of (A,D,H,K) *h*ALB, (B) *h*CK18, (E) MRP2, (I) CYP3A4, and (L) CYP1A2. The chimeric mice in this experiment are included in group D in Table 1. Representative images are shown. (A-F) Double-fluorescence immunostaining. (A,D) *h*ALB is stained green. (B) *h*CK18 and (E) *h*MRP2 are stained red. Panels A and B were merged to create panel C; panels D and E were merged to create panel F. The arrowheads in panels A-C show macrophages engulfing such wastes as lipids. Serial sections of liver tissues subjected to 2 series of immunohistochemical examinations, one for (G-I) *h*CYP3A4 and the other for (J-L) *h*CYP1A2. The sections were stained with (G,J) Hoechst 33258, and for (H,K) *h*ALB, (I) *h*CYP3A4, and (L) *h*CYP1A2. Serial sections of liver tissues at 9 weeks posttransplantation were subjected to *h*ALB-immunostaining (M) and PAS staining (N). The positive cells appear brown in (M) and red in (N). *h*, *h*-hepatocyte region; *m*, *m*-hepatocyte region; pc, pericentral zone. Dashed lines show the boundary between the *h*-hepatocyte and *m*-hepatocyte regions. Scale bars: 100 μm.

these results, we conclude that the transplanted CFPHs differentiated into functionally mature hepatocytes. No *h*-cell tumors were formed during any of our experiments in the uPA/SCID mice.

Infection of CFPH-Chimeric Mice with HBV. To further examine whether CFPHs had exhibited normal differentiated phenotypes in chimeric mice, we tested their susceptibility to HBV infection. Four CFPH-chimeric mice with various serum *h*ALB levels (0.2, 1.6, 7.3, and 222.0 μg/mL) were inoculated with 100 μL of HBV-positive *h*-serum at 9-12 weeks posttransplantation. The animals were then tested every 2 weeks for HBV viremia and serum *h*ALB levels (Fig. 7A). The amount of HBV DNA in the animals increased between 2 and 8 weeks after inoculation, and all 4 mice developed measurable viremia within 8 weeks. However, a correlation was observed between the HBV DNA and/or HBsAg level and the *h*ALB level: the former appeared to be high when the latter was high (Fig. 7A). HBsAg was detectable in the serum of the chimeric mice when they showed elevated virus titers: the HBsAg levels of chimeric mice with HBV DNA levels of 2×10^3, 5.2×10^5, 5.9×10^7, and 7.7×10^8 copies/mL 8 weeks after inoculation were <0.05, <0.05, 3.2, and 124.0 IU/mL, respectively. HBV was infectious to CFPH-chimeric mice with very low levels of *h*ALB (<10^4 ng/mL), and all mice showed quantitatively

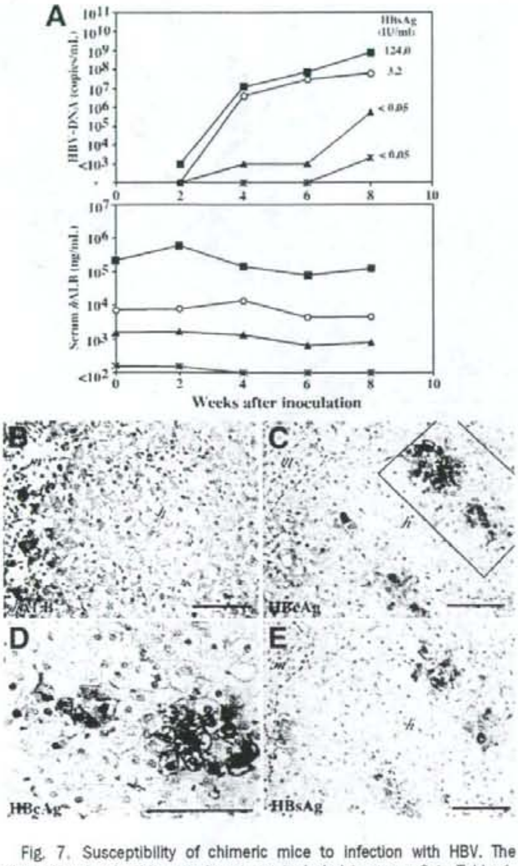

Fig. 7. Susceptibility of chimeric mice to infection with HBV. The chimeric mice in this experiment are included in group G in Table 1. uPA/SCID mice were transplanted with 12YM CFPH (p = 4). (A) The serum *h*ALB concentration of each mouse was determined 9-12 weeks posttransplantation just before the mouse was intravenously injected with 100 μL of HBV-positive *h*-serum (0.2 μg/mL at 12 weeks, 1.6 μg/mL at 10 weeks, 7.3 μg/mL at 11 weeks, and 222.0 μg/mL at 9 weeks). The animals were examined every 2 weeks for HBV viremia and serum *h*ALB level. The upper and lower graphs show the HBV DNA levels (copies/mL) and serum *h*ALB concentrations (ng/mL), respectively. The amount of HBV DNA ($<10^3$ copies/mL) was semiquantitatively measured via nested PCR. The values in the upper graph represent the HBsAg levels at 8 weeks. (B-E) Immunohistochemical analysis of chimeric livers infected with HBV. Serial sections of liver tissues at 8 weeks after inoculation were stained for (B) *h*ALB, (C,D) hepatitis B core antigen, and (E) HBsAg. The region enclosed by a square in panel C is magnified in panel D. Scale bars: 100 μm.

measurable viremia ($>10^3$ copies/mL) up to 8 weeks after inoculation. In contrast, most PH-chimeric mice with $<10^4$ ng/mL *h*ALB did not show quantitatively measurable levels of viremia up to 12 weeks after inoculation (data not shown) as reported previously.[8] In this study, we confirmed that CFPHs were not susceptible to infection with HBV prior to transplantation. The presence of hepatitis B core antigen and HBsAg in the CFPHs from HBV-infected chimeric livers was examined immunohistochemically (Fig. 7C,E). CFPHs were positive for both antigens that were sporadically distributed in the same regions among the CFPH colonies. Hepatitis B core antigen–positive cells accounted for 18.7 ± 8.3% of the total number of CFPHs (n = 3; total cell count = 1,215) (Fig. 7C), and both the nucleus and cytoplasm of the cells showed signals (Fig. 7D).

Discussion

This study supports our previous conclusion that CFPHs are *h*-hepatic progenitor-like cells.[13] Cultured CFPHs expressed such hepatic progenitor cell markers as CK19, Thy-1, and CD44, but not mature hepatocyte markers such as TO and G6P. We also found that *in vitro*–expanded CFPHs in uPA/SCID mice were able to repopulate the parenchyma, in which they differentiated into mature hepatocytes. FISH (fluorescence *in situ* hybridization) using mouse X chromosome probes showed that the engrafted and propagated CFPHs did not fuse to the mouse cells (data not shown). Thus, replicative CFPHs isolated from postnatal liver are normal, functional hepatocyte progenitor-like cells.

The existence of stem/progenitor cells in the adult liver is controversial.[23-25] In the present study, we showed that the CFPHs expressed CK19, Thy-1, and CD44, but not AFP, in serial culture. Thy-1 antigens are expressed in *h*-hepatic progenitor cells in fetal liver[26] and in rat oval cells,[27] but not in normal adult hepatocytes. We showed that Thy-1-expressing cells were present among the CFPHs at an occupancy of 1%-3%. SHs show greater growth potential than PHs in rats.[12] Other studies have reported that CD44 is a specific marker for rat SHs *in vitro* and *in vivo*, and that its expression level decreases with SH maturation *in vitro*.[17] Moreover, a recent study demonstrated that CD44 was strongly expressed by oval cells in a 2-acetylaminofluorene/partial hepatectomy, a D-galactosamine, and a retrorsine/partial hepatectomy rat model, but not by small hepatocyte-like progenitor cells (SHPCs)[18] that appeared in a retrorsine/partial hepatectomy model.[28] We detected CD44 expression in CFPHs at the plasma membrane. These results suggest that Thy-1 and CD44 may be common markers for both rat and *h*-hepatic progenitor cells.

Mouse embryonic liver stem cell lines differentiate into both hepatocytes and bile ducts in uPA/SCID mice.[29] Like PHs, our CFPHs differentiated into mature hepatocytes, but not into biliary epithelial cells, in uPA/SCID mice. CFPHs are considered to be hepatic progenitor-like cells, like rat SHs[12,30-33] and SHPCs.[28,34] SHPCs are closely related to SHs; they are small and similar in size,[28-30] and both express CYP3A1 and 2E1 at a low level.[28,32] At 3 weeks posttransplantation, the CFPHs were small in size, had a large nucleus-to-cytoplasm ratio, and expressed *h*CD44, but not *h*CK19. At 10 weeks, the cells became bigger, assumed a morphology similar to that of PH-derived cells, and lost their expression of *h*CD44. The expression of *h*CYP3A4 was quite low (0.15-fold) among CFPHs compared with that of PHs (data not shown). In addition, the distribution of *h*CYP3A4-expressing CFPHs in the pericentral zone was unique: more than two-thirds of CFPHs did not express CYP3A4. In the case of the *h*-PH–chimeric mice, all PHs in the pericentral zone expressed CYP3A4 (data not shown).

Presently, we lack experimental data to explain the expression of *h*CYP3A4 in CFPH-chimeric liver, but CFPHs may require some specific environmental factor(s) for differentiation, which might be absent from mouse liver. Alternatively, some factors that specifically inhibit the differentiation of CFPHs might be present there. CK7-positive *h*-hepatic progenitor cells are present in the livers of uPA/SCID mice transplanted with *h*-postnatal liver-derived PHs,[6] and these small cells are strongly immunoreactive to pan-cytokeratin with scant cytoplasm. The CFPHs were morphologically similar to these cells at 3 weeks posttransplantation, although we were unable to detect CK7-positive cells in either the PH- or CFPH-transplanted chimeric livers. However, CFPHs were *h*CK7-, *h*CK19-, and *h*CD44-positive, at least until 1 day posttransplantation (data not shown).

We reported previously that uPA/SCID livers were nearly completely replaced with young donor PHs at 10 weeks posttransplantation.[5] In contrast, the RIs of our CFPH-chimeric mice were <30% at 9 to 10 weeks. CFPHs were rare in the host liver at 3 weeks posttransplantation, whereas several PHs were observed. The lower RIs of the CFPHs might be attributable to their lower engraftment efficiency.

In conclusion, *h*-hepatocytes in immunodeficient, and liver-injured mice are useful for the study of viral hepatitis. Repopulated *h*-hepatocytes are susceptible to infection with HBV[6-8] and HCV.[4,6] Additionally, *h*-hepatocyte–chimeric mice are usually produced by transplanting fresh[6,7] or cryopreserved hepatocytes,[4,5] but sources of *h*-hepatocytes are limited. Several studies have reported on liver repopulation by *in vitro*–propagated cells from adult and fetal livers, such as immortalized mouse hepatic stem cells,[29] rat SHPCs,[34] immortalized *h*-hepatocytes transfected with full-length HBV,[35] and fetal *h*-epithelial/hepatic progenitor cells.[36,37] However, the RIs in these studies were extremely low (less than a few percent). In the present study, we were able to produce CFPH-chimeric mice with RIs as high as 27%. Thus, CFPHs could be an alternative to *h*-hepatocytes as a source of hepatocytes for transplantation. Moreover, the CFPH-chimeric mice were susceptible to infection with HBV, even though their serum *h*ALB levels were extremely low (10^2-10^3 ng/mL). CFPH-chimeric mice will be useful for studying *h*-HBV and for characterizing *h*-hepatic progenitor cells.

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Journal of Medical Virology 79:1811–1817 (2007)

Successful Treatment of an Entecavir-Resistant Hepatitis B Virus Variant

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Emergence of a lamivudine (LAM)-resistant hepatitis B virus (HBV) with amino acid substitutions in the YMDD motif is a well-documented problem during long-term LAM therapy. Entecavir (ETV) is a new drug approved for treatment of HBV infection with or without LAM-resistant mutants. This report describes an ETV-resistant strain of HBV, which emerged after prolonged ETV therapy in a patient who did not respond to LAM therapy. Direct sequence analysis of the ETV-resistant strain showed appearance of amino acid substitution rtS202G in the reverse transcriptase (RT) domain, together with rtL180M + M204V substitution that had developed at the emergence of LAM-resistant mutant. In vitro analysis demonstrated that the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant strain displayed a 200-fold and a 5-fold reduction in susceptibility to ETV compared with the wild-type and the rtL180M + M204V mutant strain, respectively. Adefovir was effective against the ETV-resistant strain both in vitro and during the clinical course. In conclusion, this study showed that virological and biochemical breakthrough due to ETV could occur in patients infected with LAM-resistant HBV and confirmed that the addition of rtS202G substitution to the rtL180M + M204V mutant strain is responsible for ETV resistance and we could treat the resistant mutant successfully. ***J. Med. Virol. 79:1811–1817, 2007.*** © 2007 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

KEY WORDS: HBV; rtS202G; lamivudine; adefovir; in vitro

INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is a small enveloped DNA virus known to cause chronic hepatitis and often leads to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [Bruix and Llovet, 2003; Ganem and Prince, 2004]. To date, interferon and three nucleoside and nucleotide analogs (lamivudine [LAM], adefovir dipivoxil [ADV], and entecavir [ETV]) have been approved for the treatment of chronic HBV infection. Nucleoside and nucleotide analogues suppress HBV replication in most patients and improve transaminase levels and liver histology [Nevens et al., 1997; Lai et al., 1998; Suzuki et al., 1999]. However, prolonged therapy results in the emergence of drug-resistant mutants.

LAM is associated with a higher rate of emergence of drug-resistant mutants than ADV or ETV, which is 24% and 70% after 1 and 4 years of therapy, respectively, followed by increases in viral load and re-elevation of transaminase levels [Lai et al., 2003]. Most LAM-resistant

Abbreviations used: HBeAg,hepatitis B e antigenHBsAg,hepatitis B surface antigenHBV,hepatitis B virusORF,open reading framePCR,polymerase chain reactionRT,reverse transcriptase

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strains show amino acid substitutions in the YMDD (tyrosine–methionine–aspartate–aspartate) motif in the C domain of HBV polymerase. In addition to the emergence of the YMDD mutation, rtL180M and rtV173L mutations in the B domain of HBV polymerase are frequently observed [Allen et al., 1998; Delaney et al., 2003].

Both in vitro and clinical studies have shown recently that ADV and ETV could suppress both wild-type and LAM-resistant strains and were confirmed as salvage therapy for LAM-refractory patients [Levine et al., 2003; Sherman et al., 2006; Rapti et al., 2007]. However, a few studies have already reported the emergence of resistant mutants to these drugs.

ADV-resistant mutations are infrequent and their appearance is delayed in treatment-naïve patients; mutation occurs at 0% after 1 year and 28% after 5 years and the selection of rtA181V/T or rtN236T mutant was associated with resistance to ADV [Maecellin and Asselah, 2005]. On the other hand, the emergence rate of ADV-resistant mutations in LAM-resistant patients was 18% after 48 weeks of ADV monotherapy [Lee et al., 2006]. A recent study reported patients treated with combination therapy of ADV with LAM did not develop resistance to ADV for 3 years [Rapti et al., 2007].

ETV is the most novel nucleotide analogue of the three drugs and displays greater in vitro potency than LAM or ADV against wild-type HBV. ETV-resistance is reported to be rare in treatment-naïve patients [Colonno et al., 2006]. However, ETV-resistant mutants appeared at 6–9% per year in LAM-refractory patients [Tenney et al., 2004, 2007; Sherman et al., 2006].

In the present study, an ETV-resistant strain of HBV was identified after prolonged ETV therapy in a patient who did not respond to LAM therapy. To our knowledge, this is the first report that breakthrough hepatitis was induced by emergence of an ETV-resistant strain and was successfully treated with ADV. This study checked the importance of amino acid substitutions in the HBV polymerase for resistance to ETV in vitro. Furthermore, the susceptibility of the mutant strain to ADV was analyzed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Antiviral Compounds

LAM [(−)-β-L-2′, 3′-dideoxy-3′-thiacytidine] was provided by GlaxoSmithKline (Stevenage, Herts, UK). Adefovir {9-[2-(phosphonomethoxy)ethyl]-adenine} was provided by Gilead Sciences (Foster City, CA), and ETV {2-amino-1,9-dihydro-9-[(1S,3R,4S)-4-hydroxy-3-(hydroxymethyl)-2-methylenecyclopentyl]-6H-purin-6-one, monohydrate} was provided by Bristol-Myers Squibb Pharmaceutical Research Institute (Wallingfold, CT).

Analysis of Virological Markers

Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg), and antibody against HBeAg (anti-HBe) were determined by enzyme immunoassay kits (Abbot Diagnostics, Chicago, IL). HBV-DNA was measured by real-time PCR using the Light Cycler (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The primers used for amplification were 5′-TTTGGGCATGGACATTGAC-3′ and 5′-GGTGAACAATGTTCCGGAGAC-3′. The amplification condition included initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 45 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15 sec, annealing at 58°C for 5 sec and extension at 72°C for 6 sec. The lower detection limit of this assay was 300 copies.

Cloning of HBV-DNA and Plasmid Construction

HBV-DNA was extracted from 100 µl of serum samples by SMITEST (Genome Science Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan) and was dissolved in 20 µl H_2O. The full-length HBV-DNA was amplified using the above HBV-DNA samples by the method of Gunther et al. [1998]. Nucleotide sequence positions were numbered from the unique *Eco*RI site. The 1.4 genome lengths HBV-DNA amplified from the serum of a patient who showed ETV resistance was cloned into a plasmid vector pcDNA3 (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA). In brief, the PCR product amplified using serum from the patient was cleaved with *Bam*HI and *Apa*I (HBV positions 1,400–2,600) and cloned into pcDNA3, which was named pcDNA3-1. Similarly, the PCR product was cleaved with *Apa*I and *Bam*HI (HBV positions 2,600–3,215, 1–1,400) and cloned into pBluerscript SK+ (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA), which was named pB-1. The *Kpn*I-*Bam*HI fragment from pB-1 and *Kpn*I-*Apa*I fragment from pcDNA3-1 were cloned into pcDNA3-1. To introduce the nucleotide substitutions into the rtL180M, M204V, and S202G, site-directed mutagenesis was performed using the QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene). Four plasmids with/without amino acid substitutions were created and are listed in Table IV.

Cell Culture, Transfection, and Determination of IC_{50}

HepG2 cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C under 5% CO_2. Cells were seeded to semi-confluence in 6-well tissue culture plates. Transient transfection of the plasmids into HepG2 cell lines was performed using TransIT-LT1 (Mirus, Madison, WI) according to the instructions provided by the supplier. To determine 50% inhibitory concentrations (IC_{50}s) for each anti-viral drug, various concentrations of LAM, ADV, and ETV were added after 24 hr to the culture plate containing the cells, and harvested after 5 days. The medium containing the drugs was changed at days 1, 3, and 4. All experiments were performed in triplicate. GraphPad prism (GraphPad Prism Software, Inc., San Diego, CA) was used to determine the best-fit values for individual dose–response equations.

Analysis of Replicative Intermediate of HBV by Quantitation

The cells were harvested at 5 days after transfection and lysed with 250 µl of lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl [pH

7.4], 140 mM NaCl, and 0.5% (v/v) NP-40) followed by centrifugation for 2 min at 15,000*g*. The core-associated HBV genome was immunoprecipitated by mouse anti-core monoclonal antibody 2A21 (Institute of Immunology, Tokyo) and subjected to Southern blot analysis after SDS/proteinase K digestion followed by phenol extraction and ethanol precipitation. Quantitative analysis was performed by real-time PCR with cyber green using Light Cycler. The HBV-specific primers used for amplification were 5′-TTTGGGCATGGACATTGAC-3′ and 5′-GGTGAACAATGTTCCGGAGAC-3′. The amplification conditions included initial denaturation at 95°C for 10 min, followed by 45 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15 sec, annealing at 58°C for 5 sec, and extension at 72°C for 6 sec. The lower detection limit of this assay was 300 copies.

Statistical Analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SD. Group comparisons were performed using the Student's *t*-test. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Patient's Profile

An ETV-resistant strain of HBV was isolated from a 44-year-old Japanese woman with hepatitis B e antigen-positive chronic HBV infection (Fig. 1A). In this patient, LAM successfully reduced the HBV at the initial stage of treatment. However, viral breakthrough was observed at 11 months after the beginning of LAM therapy and the HBV viral load reached up to 7.5 log copies/ml. After 17 months of LAM, interferon was added to LAM therapy for 6 months. However, after withdrawal of IFN, the viral load and ALT rebounded. Thus, the patient was switched to 0.5 mg of ETV. This resulted in reduction of HBV-DNA and normalization of ALT. After 12 months of ETV therapy, the viral load rebounded, and following 12 more months of ETV, breakthrough hepatitis was observed. After stopping ETV, because of the inadequate effect of IFN monotherapy for one month, the patient was switched to 10 mg of ADV. This treatment reduced both the viral load and ALT level to acceptable levels (Fig. 1).

treatment		month	ALT (IU/L)	HBV-DNA (log copies/ml)
		-3	246	7.2
LAM		0	46	5.2
		5	28	3.7
		11	33	4.1
	IFN	17	72	7.5
		18	1184	5.6
		20	39	3.9
		23	34	3.4
		27	117	7.1
ETV		31	112	7.2
		39	40	2.9
		43	28	4.2
	IFN	56	140	6.8
ADV		57	313	6.8
		60	38	4
	LAM	71	24	3.3
		75	19	3.1

Fig. 1. Clinical course of a patient who developed entecavir resistant mutant.

Isolation of a Multiple Drug-Resistant Hepatitis Strain

Isolates from this patient were analyzed for substitutions in HBV reverse transcriptase (RT). Comparison of the nucleotide sequences by the direct sequence method obtained throughout the clinical course showed three amino acid substitutions in the RT domain of the polymerase (Table I). At the baseline of LAM, all three substitutions were of the wild-type by direct sequence analysis and clonal analysis (Table II). After breakthrough hepatitis induced by LAM, direct sequence analysis showed mixed type (YIDD and YVDD) mutant strain. The rtM204V mutant was detected in 65% of HBV clones and the rest were all the YIDD type. Importantly, at this point, there was no amino acid substitution at rt202. After 12 months of ETV therapy when the viral load was slightly increased, the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant was detected in 45% of the HBV clones, followed by decrease of the YIDD and YVDD mutants without substitution at rtS202G. Finally, after 24 months of ETV therapy, when the breakthrough hepatitis occurred, the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant was detected in 92% of the HBV clones and the rest were rtL180M + M204V mutants without substitution at rtS202G. Interestingly, the rtM204I + S202G strain never appeared during nucleotide therapy.

Susceptibility of Mutants to Entecavir In Vitro

To analyze the role of the rtL180M, rtG202S, and rtM204V substitutions in ETV resistance, four patient-specific strains were transfected into HepG2 cells (Table III). ETV was added after 24 hr to the culture plate containing the cells, and harvested after 5 days. The core-associated HBV genome was extracted from cells and quantified by real-time PCR. The double amino acid substitutions rtL180M + M204V, which is related to LAM resistance, displayed a 38-fold decrease in susceptibility to ETV compared with the wild-type. Moreover, triple amino acid substitutions rtL180M + M204V + S202G, isolated from the patient

TABLE I. Direct Sequence Analysis of Samples From Our Patient With Entecavir (ETV) Resistance

	rt L180	rt S202	rt M204
(1) At the beginning of LMV	—	—	—
(2) At the beginning of ETV	L/M	—	I/V
(3) One year after ETV	M	G/S	V
(4) Two years after ETV	M	G	V

LMV, lamivudine.

who developed breakthrough hepatitis during ETV therapy, induced 198 times greater resistance than the wild-type. In agreement with the above data, the appearance of the rtS202G substitution in the rtL180M + M204V mutant strain resulted in a fivefold decrease in ETV susceptibility. On the other hand, only a single amino acid substitution rtS202G, which was artificial and did not truly exist, had little effect on the susceptibility to ETV (Table III, Fig. 3).

Susceptibility of Mutants to Lamivudine and Adefovir In Vitro

The susceptibility of the rtL180M + M204V and rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutants to LAM was also analyzed using transient transfection assay with HepG2 cells. Both strains displayed strong resistance to LAM (>1,000-fold). We also examined whether ADV was as effective against the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant strain as the wild-type. The IC_{50} values of the mutant strain and wild-type for adefovir were almost the same, which displayed the same result in vivo (Fig. 2, Table IV).

DISCUSSION

The present study describes the identification of an ETV-resistant strain of HBV after prolonged ETV therapy in a patient who was resistant to LAM therapy. Using direct sequencing and clonal analysis, the results demonstrated that the addition of rtS202G mutation to the LAM-resistant mutant strain correlated with the ETV-resistance. To our knowledge, this is the first report of a patient who developed not only virologic breakthrough but also biochemical breakthrough, followed by successful treatment with ADV (Fig. 1).

Clonal analysis showed mixed type of LAM-resistant strains at the commencement of ETV treatment. All of the rtM204V mutant strains were accompanied by rtL180M mutation, but none of the rtM204I mutant did. After 1 year of ETV therapy, the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant emerged in 45% of the HBV clones. Furthermore, almost all clones became the rtL180M + M204V + S202G variant 2 years after ETV therapy. These results suggest two important things. Firstly, the addition of the rtS202G mutant to the rtM204V mutant induced the ETV resistance. Secondly, the S202G was induced only in the mutant strains with rtM204V not in the rtM204I.

The in vitro study described in this article demonstrated that the rtL180M + M204V mutation reduced the susceptibility to ETV by 38-fold compared with wild-type (Table III). Furthermore, the addition of the rtS202G substitution to the rtL180M + M204V mutant strain resulted in a fivefold decrease in ETV susceptibility. Interestingly, the single S202G substitution did not induce ETV resistance in vitro. Thus, it appears that the rtS202G substitution never reduced the susceptibility to ETV in the absence of rtM204V substitution. The amino acid substitutions rtS202G have been reported to emerge with resistance against ETV [Yim et al., 2006; Tenney et al., 2007; Villet et al., 2007]. In all previous studies, the rtS202G mutation was accompanied by rtM204V substitution and our results are similar to those of the reported in vitro studies. It is known that other amino acid substitutions, rtT184 and rtM250 in the RT domain are associated with ETV resistance and they also need the substitution at rt204 to achieve such resistance. Tenney et al. [2004] reported that the rates of T184, S202, and M250 mutations in LAM-resistant patients before ETV treatment were 5.2%, 1.2%, and 1.8%, respectively. Moreover, these ETV-resistance-related residues emerged in 6% more patients by 1-year ETV therapy and 8% more patients by 2-year therapy.

TABLE II. Clonal Analysis of Samples From the Patient With Entecavir (ETV) Resistance

	Relative rate (%) of clones (no. of clones/total)			
	Wild	M204I	L180M + M204V	L180M + M204V + S202G
(1) At the beginning of LMV	100 (6/6)	0	0	0
(2) At the beginning of ETV	0	35 (7/20)	65 (13/20)	0
(3) 12 months after ETV	0	14 (3/22)	41 (9/22)	45 (10/22)
(4) 24 months after ETV	0	0	8 (1/13)	92 (12/13)

LMV, lamivudine.

TABLE III. In Vitro Susceptibility of rtL180/rtM204/rtS202 Mutants to Entecavir

	rt L180	rt M204	rt S202	ETV	
				IC_{50} (μM)	Resistance (fold)
Wild	—	—	—	0.00081	1
S202G	—	—	G	0.00054	0.67*
L180M + M204V	M	V	—	0.031	38**
L180M + M204V + S202G	M	V	G	0.16	198**

Experiments were performed in triplicates.
*NS, not significant.
**$P < 0.001$ compared with the wild-type.

In the present study, clonal analysis showed the rtS202G substitution was induced only in the mutant strains with rtM204V but not in the rtM204I, as described recently [Yim et al., 2006; Tenney et al., 2007; Villet et al., 2007]. A recent study demonstrated similar results; all 16 patients with virologic rebounds with ETV resistance had the rtM204V substitution, either alone or in combination with rtM204I substitution [Tenney et al., 2007]. Ono et al. [2001] reported that the clinical frequency of LAM-resistant mutants was 18.6% for the rtM204I, 1.4% for the rtM204V, 11.4% for the rtL180M + M204I, and 64.3% for the rtL180M + M204V. In other words, most of the YVDD mutants were accompanied with rtL180M mutation. On the other hand, only about one-third of YIDD mutants were accompanied with rtL180M. Previous in vitro studies demonstrated that both the rtM204I and rtL180M + rtM204V substitutions had incomplete cross-resistance to ETV, and reported that the rtL180M + rtM204V mutant was more susceptible than the rtM204I mutant. The replication capacity of the rtL180M + rtM204V was four-times larger than the rtM204I mutant [Ono et al., 2001]. Thus, it was considered that the addition of rtS202G substitution to the rtL180M + rtM204V mutant could strengthen the replication ability, or could reduce susceptibility to ETV more strongly than the rtM204I mutant. Further studies are needed to confirm the above hypothesis.

There is no consensus regarding the management of patients with ETV resistance. There are few reports of successful treatment of ETV resistant viruses in vivo. Villet et al. [2007] reported that ADV was clinically effective for virological breakthrough caused by ETV-resistant HBV variant. However, different from the previous report, the present study demonstrated the emergence of biochemical breakthrough after viral rebound caused by ETV resistance. Moreover, it was confirmed that ADV was effective in not only viral breakthrough but also biochemical breakthrough. Our in vitro study also indicated that the rtL180M + M204V + S202G mutant had no resistance against ADV. This result is compatible with the response in vivo. In this regard, recent studies demonstrated that ADV and tenofovir are effective for ETV-resistance in vitro and that ADV was definitely effective against other ETV-related amino acid substitutions S184 and M250 in vitro [Tenney et al., 2007; Villet et al., 2007]. However, the clinical effect has never been reported.

In conclusion, the present study showed that virological and biochemical breakthrough due to ETV could occur in patients infected with LAM-resistant HBV. It was confirmed that the addition of rtS202G substitution to the rtM204V mutant strain is responsible for ETV resistance and the resistant mutant could be treated successfully. While ETV resistance is rare in treatment-naïve patients, the amino acid substitution associated with ETV resistance is similar to the substitution seen in patients with LAM-resistance. Thus, it is considered that the successful salvage therapy described in this study could be a potentially helpful for similar events during ETV therapy. The possibility of emergence of novel mutants resistant to

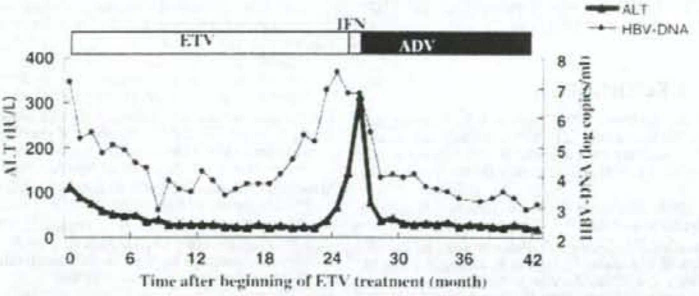

Fig. 2. Clinical course of a patient who developed breakthrough during entecavir therapy.

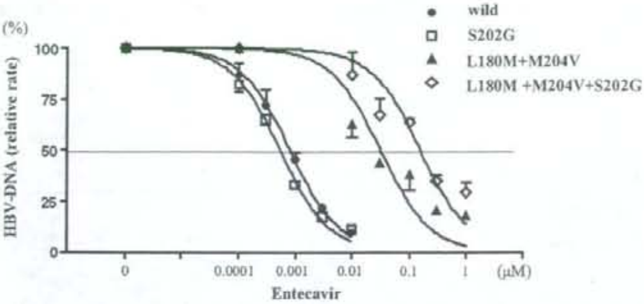

Fig. 3. In vitro analyses of susceptibilities of wild-type HBV and three mutants (rtS202G, rtL180M + M204V, rtL180M + M204V + S202G) to entecavir (ETV) after transient transfection into HepG2 cells. Cells were transiently transfected with plasmids containing 1.4 genome lengths HBV and treated with the indicated amount of entecavir. Data are the dose–response curves of the four HBV strains against entecavir. The strains were used to estimate the entecavir IC_{50} values for each HBV strains. Values are relative to no entecavir treatment controls for each strain. Experiments were performed in triplicates.

TABLE IV. In Vitro Susceptibility of rtS202/rtM204 Mutant to Lamivudine (LAM) and Adefovir (ADV)

	LAM		ADV	
	IC_{50} (μM)	Fold resistance	IC_{50} (μM)	Fold resistance
Wild	0.1	1	0.39	1
L180M + M204V	>100	>1,000**	—	—
L180M + M204V + S202G	>100	>1,000**	0.32	0.82[a]

Experiments were performed in triplicates.
[a]NS, not significant.
**$P < 0.001$ compared with the wild-type.

multiple anti-HBV drugs is real. Therefore, further studies are necessary to develop safes and more useful treatment strategies.

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