to the older candidate gene approach, the GWAS approach investigates not only the region around candidate genes with a known or predicted role in disease but across the entire genome using an SNP array, which simultaneously genotypes hundreds of thousands to millions of marker SNPs (also called tag SNPs). An SNP is often in strong linkage disequilibrium with multiple other SNPs in the same region, making it possible for tagging SNPs to serve as proxy markers for nearby SNPs that are not genotyped, and marker SNPs on genotyping platforms are selected to provide maximum coverage of the genome.[42] Over the past few years, this new high-throughput genotyping technology has revealed thousands of SNPs that are significantly associated with disease and drug responses, and this approach has been particularly promising in the field of liver diseases.

Anti-HCV therapy is prescribed in many countries to prevent the progression of liver fibrosis and development of HCC.[22,43,44] The current standard of care is PEG-IFN plus ribavirin combination therapy, but this costly and poorly tolerated treatment leads to SVR in only 50% of patients with HCV genotype 1, which is the most prevalent genotype in many developed countries such as the USA, UK, France, Italy, Spain and Japan.[45] To attempt to improve treatment efficacy, several viral and host factors responsible for SVR have been identified and studied extensively. Both HCV genotype and viral load are strong predictors of SVR.[46] In HCV genotype 1b, amino acid substitutions at positions 70 and 91 of the HCV core protein and the presence of multiple substitutions in the interferon sensitivity determining region of the NS5A protein were also reported to affect treatment outcome, especially among Japanese patients.[17,47,48] Host factors responsible for SVR include age, gender,[15] degree of hepatic fibrosis,[49] obesity, hepatic steatosis,[50] low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase,[48] and insulin resistance.[51] In addition, although the individual effects of genetic polymorphisms are typically small and of limited use for prediction, we recently identified an SNP in *MAPKAPK3* that affects response to interferon therapy using a candidate gene approach.[52] Using the GWAS approach, a series of studies independently revealed that a common polymorphism within the non-coding region of the *IL28* locus is strongly associated with both outcome of PEG-IFN plus ribavirin therapy for chronic HCV infection[10–12] as well as spontaneous clearance of the virus.[53] Similarly, a polymorphism within the *ITPA* locus was found to strongly predict incidence of ribavirin-induced anemia during therapy.[13,14] It is likely that future treatment regimens will involve screening for these and other SNPs in an effort to select the most promising treatment candidates, as well as to identify patients at risk for serious side-effects. Direct-acting antiviral agents, such as the protease inhibitors telaprevir and boceprevir, have recently become available, and in the near future triple therapy consisting of PEG-IFN, ribavirin, and a protease inhibitor will likely become the standard of care.[54,55] In a recent clinical trial, we found that both *IL28* and *ITPA* polymorphisms are also useful predictive factors for outcome and occurrence of side-effects in triple therapy.[56,57]

Genome-Wide Association Studies of HCV-Related HCC

The GWAS approach has also been used to identify HCV patients at greatest risk for developing HCC. The primary goal of antiviral therapy is to prevent development of HCC and advanced liver disease and improve prognosis of patients. Particularly among HCV and HBV patients who are unable to clear the virus, screening of additional SNPs associated with susceptibility to HCC may help improve prognosis and better target surveillance to high-risk patients. As for HBV, which is the major cause of HCC in many Asian countries other than Japan, we identified variants in the *HLA-DP* locus associated with persistent HBV infection in Japanese and Thai study groups using a GWAS approach,[58] and this result was also confirmed in a Han Chinese patient group.[59] Subsequently, in the first GWAS for HCC, Zhang *et al.*[60] recently identified an SNP within the *KIF1B* locus associated with progression to HCC among chronic HBV carriers. However, it is known that the epidemiology is quite different between HBV-related and HCV-related HCC, and different virological effects of HBV and HCV have been reported.[61–63] Hepatitis B infection alters pro-apoptotic and DNA repair pathways, whereas HCV infection primarily affects anti-apoptotic and inflammatory pathways.[63] Two GWAS studies were reported very recently from Japan identifying genetic factors specific to HCV-related HCC.[64,65] Kumar *et al.* identified the *MICA* locus associated with HCV-related HCC, and we identified the *DEPDC5* locus (Table 1).

Study design. A flowchart of our study is shown in Figure 1. To identify genetic markers associated with the risk of HCV-related HCC development in the Japanese population, we carried out a two-phase case–control study consisting of a GWAS and a replication study using a total of 3312 Japanese patients over the age of 55 with chronic HCV infection. An important point is that the controls used in this study were not healthy controls, but chronic HCV carriers who have the potential of developing HCC in the future. This choice of control helps to avoid confounding risk factors for developing HCV-related

Table 1. Recently reported genome-wide association studies of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)

Etiology	Ethnicity	Characteristics Case/control	SNP	Chr. (locus)	Sample size Case	Sample size Control	RAF Case	RAF Control	OR	95% CI	*P*-value	References
HBV	Chinese	Chronic HBV carriers with HCC/without HCC	rs17401966	1 (*KIF1B*)	348	359	0.833	0.731	0.53	0.41–0.70	5.8×10^{-6}	(60)
HCV	Japanese	Chronic HCV carriers with HCC/non-HCC controls	rs2596542	6 (*MICA*)	721	2890	0.388	0.331	1.34	1.16–1.53	4.5×10^{-6}	(64)
HCV	Japanese	Chronic HCV carriers (age $\geq$ 55 years) with HCC/without HCC	rs1012068	22 (*DEPDC5*)	212	765	0.189	0.095	2.20	1.64–2.97	8.0×10^{-8}	(65)

Chr., chromosome; CI, confidence interval; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; OR, odds ratio; RAF, risk allele frequency; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

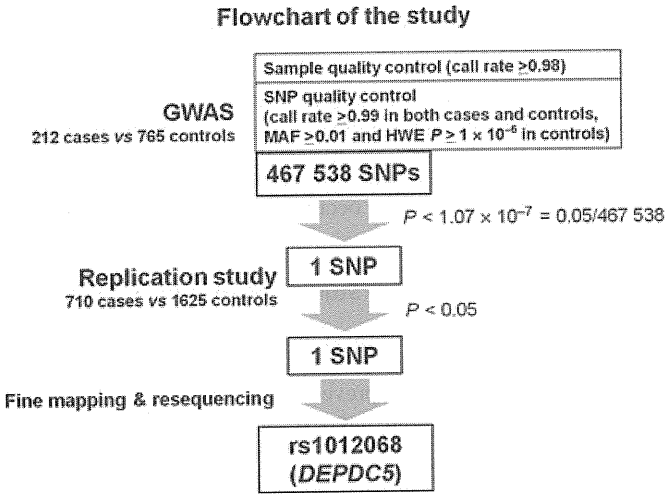

Fig. 1. Flowchart of our two-phase case–control study. For the genome-wide association study (GWAS) stage, we used the Illumina HumanHap610-Quad BeadChip. After we excluded two samples with call rate < 0.98, 467 538 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) passed the SNP quality control filters (call rate $\geq$ 0.99 in cases and controls, minor allele frequency [MAF] $\geq$0.01 and Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium [HWE] *P*-value $\geq 1.0 \times 10^{-6}$ in controls). Only one SNP, rs1012068, within the *DEPDC5* gene reached statistical significance. We used multiplex-PCR-based Invader assays for the replication study and fine mapping. Finally, SNP rs1012068 had the strongest independent association with hepatitis C virus-related hepatocellular carcinoma.[65]

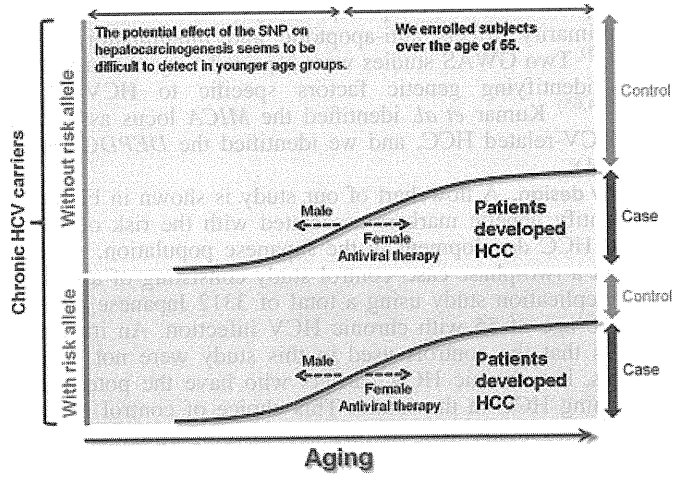

Fig. 2. Scheme of our study design considering the age range for developing hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). All subjects were Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection, therefore, the controls used in this study were not healthy controls but chronic HCV carriers.[65] We enrolled subjects over the age of 55 years because most HCC patients are diagnosed at age 55 or older.[23,66–68] The potential effect of the SNP on hepatocarcinogenesis seems to be more difficult to detect in younger age groups, although males generally develop HCC at a younger age than females,[23,66,67] and antiviral therapy may prevent development of HCC.[22,43,44] SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism.

HCC with risk factors for chronic HCV. Another important point is that we enrolled subjects over the age of 55 years (Fig. 2) because age at initial diagnosis of HCV-related HCC has been increasing in Japan since the identification of HCV in 1989, and most patients are diagnosed at age 55 or older.[23,66–68] These two points represent major differences between the two Japanese GWAS studies of HCV-related HCC, and we speculate that these differences partially explain their inconsistent results, even though both studies focus on Japanese patients (Table 1).

Results. We initially carried out a GWAS using the Illumina HumanHap610-Quad BeadChip (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). After applying strict quality control filters, 467 538 autosomal SNPs remained and were analyzed using an additive model for genotype–phenotype association in 212 chronic HCV carriers with HCC (cases) and 765 chronic HCV carriers without HCC (controls). Principal component analysis revealed no population substructure in our study group, and the Cochran–Armitage trend test indicated a low probability of false-positive associations resulting from population stratification. Only one intronic SNP, rs1012068, within the *DEPDC5* locus on chromosome 22, showed a statistically significant association with HCC ($P = 8.05 \times 10^{-8}$) after Bonferroni correction for multiple testing (calculated as $P < 0.05/467\ 538 = 1.07 \times 10^{-7}$) with OR 2.20. To validate these results, we carried out a replication study using 710 cases and 1625 controls and confirmed the association between the SNP and HCC ($P = 2.41 \times 10^{-8}$, OR = 1.63). After adjusting for age, gender, and platelet count, which is known to correlate with the stage of liver fibrosis in HCV patients,[22] the significance level of rs1012068 increased. However, there are many confounding factors in the analysis of HCC, so we cannot rule out the possibility that other confounding factors influenced the results. To investigate causative SNPs, we carried out fine mapping of the *DEPDC5* locus including neighboring genes, and resequenced all 42 exons of the *DEPDC5* gene, but found no SNP with a stronger association than rs1012068. In contrast to *MICA*, which has previously been proposed to have a functional association with HCC,[69] *DEPDC5* has not been reported in association with HCC, and its function remains unknown.[70] Further functional analysis is needed to clarify which SNP is the true causative variant and to define the role of *DEPDC5* on the susceptibility of HCV-related HCC.

Limitations and future plans. An important limitation of our GWAS is the relatively small number of cases and the consequent lack of statistical power to detect other associations that are less robust, including rare variants and SNPs with weak effects. It remains to be determined whether other SNPs influence susceptibility to HCV-related HCC in the Japanese population. For a process as complex as HCV-related hepatocarcinogenesis, interactions among two or more SNPs as well as interactions with environmental factors should also be studied. In addition to SNPs, other types of genetic association, such as copy number variation, should be examined in the future. The question also remains whether the susceptibility loci within *MICA* and *DEPDC5* are associated with HCV-related HCC in other ethnic groups. Additional studies on other ethnic populations as well as stratification based on viral subgenotypes will provide more comprehensive information on the genetic etiology and heterogeneity of HCV-related HCC.

Towards Personalized Medicine

In current clinical practice in Japan, patients with chronic hepatitis C are recommended for surveillance for progression of liver fibrosis and early detection of cancer.[71,72] The susceptibility SNPs are relatively weak markers, but in combination with other clinical predictors, SNP genotyping could constitute a useful addition to assess the magnitude of the risk of HCC (Fig. 3). Intervention using PEG-IFN, ribavirin, and novel agents such as telaprevir[54–57] for reducing the risk for HCC[22,43,44] is planned in the future, and some SNPs

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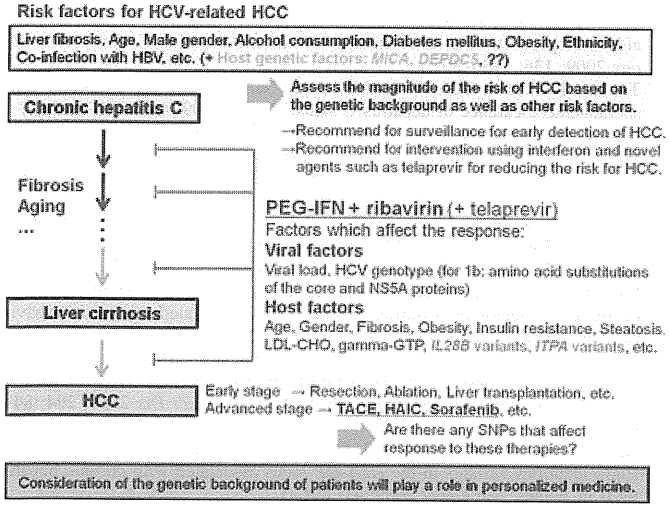

Fig. 3. Suggested outline of management of hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) incorporating genetic markers. Consideration of the genetic background of HCV patients will likely play a role in personalized medicine for HCV-related HCC. HAIC, hepatic artery infusion chemotherapy; HBV, hepatitis B virus; gamma-GTP, gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase; LDL-CHO, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; PEG-IFN, pegylated interferon; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; TACE, transarterial chemoembolization.

might provide information useful in deciding whether or not intervention should be carried out. Once HCC has developed, the most promising treatment is determined based on clinical practice guidelines that are mainly based on tumor stage as well as liver function.[71–74] For treating advanced HCC, various anticancer agents and new molecular-targeted agents such as sorafenib have been advanced, but treatment outcome is still insufficient, and severe adverse drug reactions have occurred in some cases.[75–77] Host genetic factors affecting drug responses have not yet been thoroughly studied, and recent research on HCC genomes have identified several previously uncharacterized mutation patterns.[78,79] Host as well as cancer genomes should be studied further, and both may bring about benefits to HCC treatment in the future.

Conclusion

In conclusion, consideration of the genetic background of HCV patients will likely play a role in personalized medicine for HCV-related HCC, and understanding the mechanism underlying the association may suggest novel therapeutic targets.

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Disclosure Statement

The authors have no conflicts of interest.

Abbreviations

GWAS	genome-wide association study
HBV	hepatitis B virus
HCC	hepatocellular carcinoma
HCV	hepatitis C virus
OR	odds ratio
PEG-IFN	pegylated interferon
SNP	single nucleotide polymorphism
SVR	sustained virological response

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Original Article

Combination of hepatitis B viral antigens and DNA for prediction of relapse after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs in patients with chronic hepatitis B

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Aim: The factors associated with hepatitis recurrence after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs) in patients with chronic hepatitis B were analyzed to predict the risk of relapse more accurately.

Methods: A total of 126 patients who discontinued NA therapy were recruited retrospectively. The clinical conditions of a successful discontinuation were set as alanine aminotransferase (ALT) below 30 IU/L and serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA below 4.0 log copies/mL.

Results: Relapse of hepatitis B were judged to occur when maximal serum ALT became higher than 79 IU/L or when maximal serum HBV DNA surpassed 5.7 log copies/mL following NA discontinuation since these values corresponded with mean values of ALT (30 IU/L) and HBV DNA (4.0 log copies/mL), respectively. At least 90% of patients with either detectable hepatitis B e antigen or serum HBV DNA higher than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of NA discontinuation relapsed within one year. In the remaining patients, higher levels of both hepatitis B surface and core-related antigens at the time of discontinuation, as well as a shorter course of NA treatment, were significantly associated with relapse by multivariate analysis.

Conclusions: It appears that negative results for hepatitis B e antigen and serum HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL are essential for successful NA discontinuation, which may be attained by a longer treatment period. Levels of hepatitis B surface and core-related antigens are also significant factors independently associated with relapse of hepatitis.

Key words: discontinuation, hepatitis B core-related antigen, hepatitis B surface antigen, nucleos(t)ide analogs, relapse of hepatitis

INTRODUCTION

HEPATITIS B VIRUS (HBV) infection is a major health concern that has an estimated 350 to 400 million carriers worldwide. Chronic infection with HBV can cause chronic hepatitis, and may eventually develop into liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.[1–3] Over the last decade, major advances in the treatment of chronic hepatitis B have been made with nucleos(t)ide

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analogs (NAs) such as lamivudine (LVD), adefovir dipivoxil (ADV), and entecavir (ETV).[4] NAs are orally administered and are associated with low rates of adverse effects. Treatment with NAs shows strong suppression of HBV replication and consequently rapid improvement of elevated ALT levels. Furthermore, these drugs have been reported to lower the risk of complicating cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma,[5–7] and so NAs are becoming widely used to treat patients with chronic hepatitis B. On the other hand, NAs carry the risk of developing drug-resistance;[8] drug-resistant viruses emerging during treatment may be associated with hepatitis flare-ups. Hepatitis B patients are also required to undergo prolonged treatment with NAs because early discontinuance often leads to relapse of hepatitis and ensuing hepatic failure following rises in alanine aminotransferase (ALT) level.[9,10]

Serum HBV DNA is normally used to monitor the antiviral effect of NAs. HBV DNA decreases rapidly and becomes undetectable in the majority of patients who are treated with NAs,[11–13] but relapse after discontinuation is not rare.[14–17] Since it is also true that favorable virological and biochemical responses to NAs may continue indefinitely in some patients,[9,15] reliable markers that can predict relapse of hepatitis after NA discontinuation are needed. Such markers would benefit not only patients who are considering discontinuation of NA treatment, but also clinicians, hospitals, and the medical economy.

In the present study, we assessed several factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs in patients with chronic hepatitis B, including hepatitis B viral antigens, which have been reported as new and promising markers for monitoring the effect of antiviral agents, such as interferon and NAs.

METHODS

Patients

A TOTAL OF 126 patients with chronic hepatitis B who underwent and completed NA treatment between 2000 and 2010 were enrolled in this study. Patients were recruited retrospectively from 11 hospitals across Japan (Toranomon Hospital, Hokkaido University Hospital, Nagoya City University Hospital, Shinshu University Hospital, Hiroshima University Hospital, National Hospital Organization Nagasaki Medical Center, Chiba University Hospital, The Hospital of Hyogo College of Medicine, Japanese Red Cross Nagoya Daini Hospital, and Tokyo Women's Medical University Hospital, Sapporo Kosei General Hospital) and met the following conditions: (i) serum ALT higher than 30 IU/L and serum HBV DNA higher than 4.0 log copies/mL were observed at least twice within the 6 months prior to administration of NAs; (ii) stored serum samples at initiation and discontinuation of NAs were available for measurements of viral markers; (iii) clinical outcomes were followed for at least 6 months after the discontinuation of NAs; and (iv) tests for hepatitis C and human immunodeficiency virus antibodies were negative. Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) was confirmed to be positive on at least two occasions at least 6 months apart in all patients before treatment. Patients complicated with hepatocellular carcinoma or signs of hepatic failure at treatment discontinuation were excluded from the study. Our cohort consisted of 83 men and 43 women with a median age of 46 (range, 19 to 79) years when NA administration was discontinued. Hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) was positive in 64 patients (51%) at the initiation of treatment and in 24 patients (19%) at its discontinuation. HBV genotype was A in two (2%) patients, B in five (4%), C in 102 (81%), and undetermined in 17 (13%). Thirty-five of the 126 patients in this study were younger than 35 years old. Although not recommended as the first line treatment for this group by Japanese guidelines,[18] NA treatment was commenced since chronic active hepatitis had been persisting in all cases irrespective of their HBeAg status (26 positive and nine negative) at the initiation of treatment.

The decision to discontinue NAs was made by individual physicians using similar, but not uniform, conditions. Four patients who halted NAs for financial reasons were included. No patient underwent interferon treatment during or after NA treatment. The decision to recommence NA administration was also made by individual physicians, essentially when relapse of hepatitis became obvious. With few exceptions, patients were seen at least once a month during the first year after discontinuation of NAs, and at least once every several months afterwards. Stored serum samples were kept frozen at −20 °C or below until assayed. This study was approved by the Ethics Committees of all participating institutions.

Hepatitis B viral markers

Serological markers for HBV, including HBsAg, HBeAg, and antibody to HBe (anti-HBe) were tested using commercially available enzyme immunoassay kits (Abbott Japan Co., Ltd, Tokyo, Japan; Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan; and/or Sysmex Co., Kobe, Japan) at each hospital. Quantitative measurement of HBsAg[19] was done using a chemiluminescence enzyme immunoassay

(CLEIA)-based HISCL HBsAg assay manufactured by Sysmex Corporation (Kobe, Japan). The assay had a quantitative range of −1.5 to 3.3 log IU/mL. End titer was determined by diluting samples with normal human serum when initial results exceeded the upper limit of the assay range.

Serum concentration of HBV DNA was determined using an Amplicor HBV monitor kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan),[20] which had a quantitative range of 2.6 to 7.6 log copies/mL. Serum HBV DNA was also determined using a COBAS TaqMan HBV kit (Roche, Tokyo, Japan)[21] with a quantitative range of 2.1 to 9.0 log copies/mL in 43 patients whose serum samples were available at the time of NA discontinuation. According to the manufacturer's instructions, detection of a positive signal below the quantitative range was described as a positive signal, and no signal detection was described as a negative signal. Six HBV genotypes (A–F) were evaluated according to the restriction patterns of DNA fragments from the method reported by Mizokami *et al.*[22]

Serum hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels were measured using a CLEIA HBcrAg assay kit with a fully automated Lumipulse System analyzer (Fujirebio Inc., Tokyo, Japan) as described previously.[23,24] Briefly, 150 μL of serum was incubated with pretreatment solution and then added to a ferrite microparticle suspension in an assay cartridge. Ferrite particles were coated with a monoclonal antibody mixture against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. After incubation and washing, further incubation was carried out with alkaline phosphatase conjugated with two kinds of monoclonal antibodies against denatured HBcAg, HBeAg, and the 22 kDa precore protein. Following washing, a substrate solution was added to the test cartridge and then incubated. The relative chemiluminescence intensity was measured, and HBcrAg concentration was calculated by a standard curve generated using recombinant pro-HBeAg. The immunoreactivity of pro-HBeAg at 10 fg/mL was defined as 1 U/mL. We expressed HBcrAg in terms of log U/mL, with a quantitative range set at 3.0 to 6.8 log U/mL.

Statistical analyses

A linear regression model was used to examine for associations between mean and maximal values of both ALT and HBV DNA. Correlations between variables were calculated using the Spearman's rank correction correlation coefficient test. Each cut-off value was decided using receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis and results were evaluated by measuring the area under the curve (AUC). The Fisher's exact and Pearson's χ^2 tests were adopted to test for differences between subgroups of patients. To compare continuous data, the Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used. The Kaplan–Meier method was used to estimate rates of non-relapse observations, and the log-rank test was used to test hypotheses concerning differences in non-relapse observations between selected groups. Multivariate analyses were performed using the Cox regression model. Variables associated with a P-value < 0.2 in univariate analyses were included in a stepwise Cox regression analysis to identify independent factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs. All tests were performed using the IBM SPSS Statistics Desktop for Japan ver. 19.0 (IBM Japan Inc., Tokyo, Japan). P-values of less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Definition of hepatitis relapse after discontinuation of NAs

THE CLINICAL CONDITIONS of a successful discontinuation of NAs were set at serum HBV DNA below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L according to the Japanese guidelines for the treatment of hepatitis B.[18] However, these criteria could not be directly applied to our cohort as post-therapy fluctuations in ALT and HBV DNA were difficult to evaluate consistently. In total, 26 (76%) of 34 patients with successful discontinuation of NAs showed transient abnormal levels of ALT and/or HBV DNA, especially during the early phase after cessation. We therefore used mean and maximal values of these markers to evaluate relapse of hepatitis B in this study; mean values were used to evaluate relapse of hepatitis as a whole, and maximal values were used to dynamically assess relapse during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation. Both ALT and HBV DNA were measured 11.0 times per year on average during the first year and 4.1 times per year on average thereafter.

The mean values of HBV DNA were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.853. Similarly, the mean values of ALT were significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with maximal values with a correlation coefficient of 0.940 (Fig. 1). The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to a maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.930, $P < 0.001$), and the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to a maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L (AUC = 0.988, $P < 0.001$). These results suggested that patients having serum HBV DNA higher

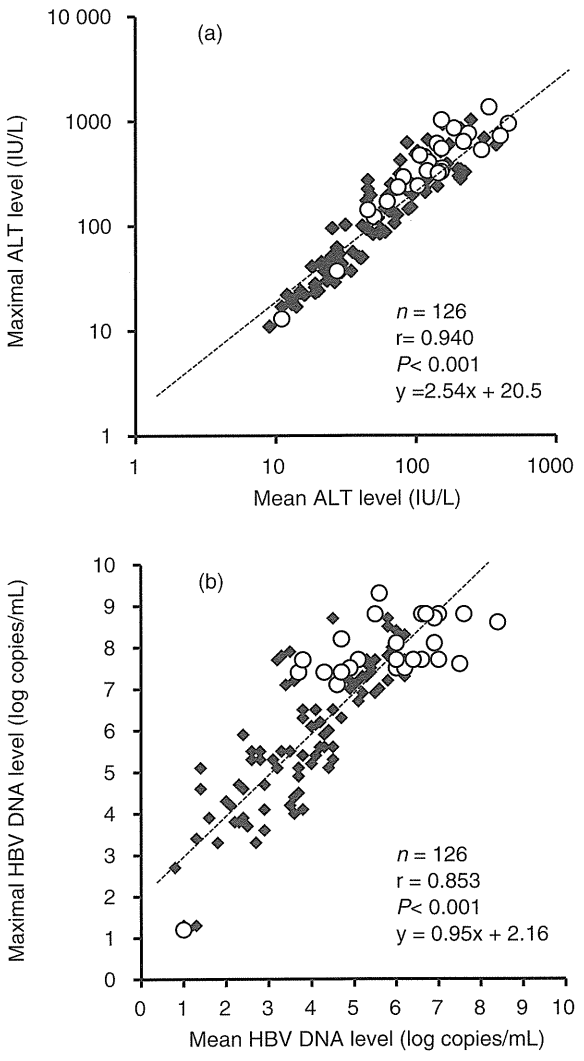

Figure 1 Correlation between maximal and mean levels of alanine aminotransferase (ALT) (a) and hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA (b) after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs). Open circles indicate patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and closed squares indicate patients without detectable HBeAg.

than 5.7 log copies/mL during the follow-up period after NA discontinuation were not likely to achieve the HBV DNA criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 4.0 log copies/mL. Similarly, it could be inferred that patients reaching ALT levels higher than 79 IU/L would also not likely achieve the ALT criterion of a successful discontinuation of below 30 IU/L.

Based on our findings, we judged that a relapse of hepatitis B occurred when serum ALT exceeded 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA exceeded 5.7 log copies/mL following NA discontinuation. Accordingly, 92 (73%) of the 126 patients enrolled in the present study showed a relapse. We set the follow-up period as discontinuation to relapse for relapse patients and as discontinuation to the last recorded examination for patients without relapse. Whereas re-administration of NAs due to relapse was commenced in 70% of relapse patients in the follow-up period, none was performed in non-relapse patients during that time.

Elimination of cases likely to show relapse of hepatitis

As it is generally believed that patients who are positive for HBeAg and/or have a higher level of HBV DNA at discontinuation of NAs are likely to relapse, these factors were assessed first. The progression of analyses in the present study and the population structure of each analysis are shown in Figure 2.

The non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 3). The revised cut-off value of 3.0 log copies/mL was determined by ROC analysis (AUC = 0.709, $P < 0.001$). Thirty (97%) of 31 patients with HBV DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL relapsed within one year of discontinuation. On the other hand, approximately 30% of patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL showed prolonged non-relapse. Thus, the 31 patients with high HBV DNA at the time of discontinuation were eliminated from the following analyses.

In the remaining 95 patients, the non-relapse rate was compared using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable HBeAg and 85 patients without HBeAg when NAs were discontinued (Fig. 4). Ninety percent of patients with HBeAg experienced relapse within one year, which was significantly ($P = 0.005$) higher than in cases without HBeAg. In patients without HBeAg, the non-relapse rate decreased rapidly during the first year to approximately 45%, and then decreased relatively slowly over the following 3 years to nearly 30%. It is noteworthy that this subgroup did not relapse afterwards. Since the relapse rate was high among patients with detectable HBeAg, they were excluded from the following analyses as well.

Factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs

Additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis were analyzed in the remaining 85 patients who were

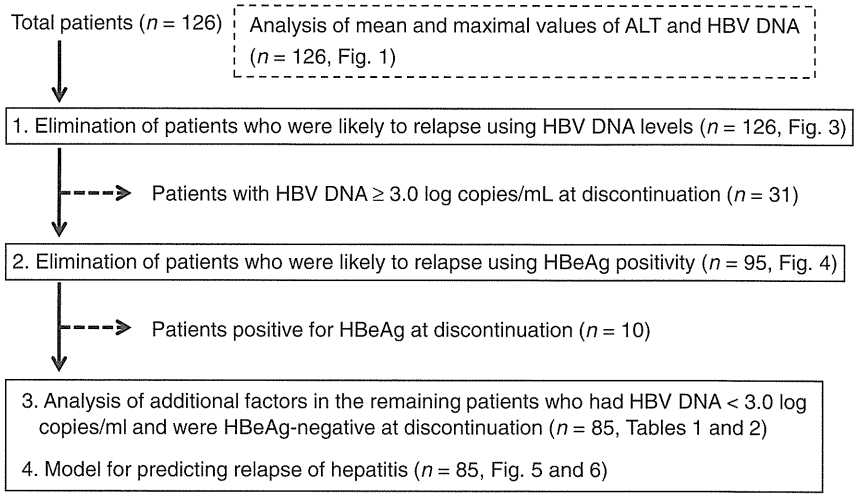

Figure 2 The progression of analyses in the present study and population structure of each analysis.

both negative for HBeAg and whose serum HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at NA cessation. Table 1 shows the comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between the 53 relapse and 32 non-relapse patients using univariate analysis. Age and gender distributions were similar between the groups. Approximately 75% of the 85 patients had HBV genotype C, but the distribution of genotypes did not differ between the groups. Approximately 90% of patients were being treated with LVD alone at the time of discontinuation, compared with 6% of patients being given ETV. The median duration of NA treatment was about two times longer in patients without relapse. Levels of both HBsAg and HBcrAg were significantly lower in non-relapse patients than in relapse patients at the time of NA discontinuation. The difference between serum HBsAg was also significant at the initiation of NAs, but not that of HBcrAg. As only patients with HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL were analyzed, the majority of these cases showed levels below the 2.6 log copies/mL lower detection limit of the Amplicor assay at NA discontinuation. We therefore also tested HBV DNA with a TaqMan assay, which had a higher sensitivity than the Amplicor assay, in 43 patients whose serum samples were available. The prevalence of patients having a negative detection signal did not differ between the two groups. The number of

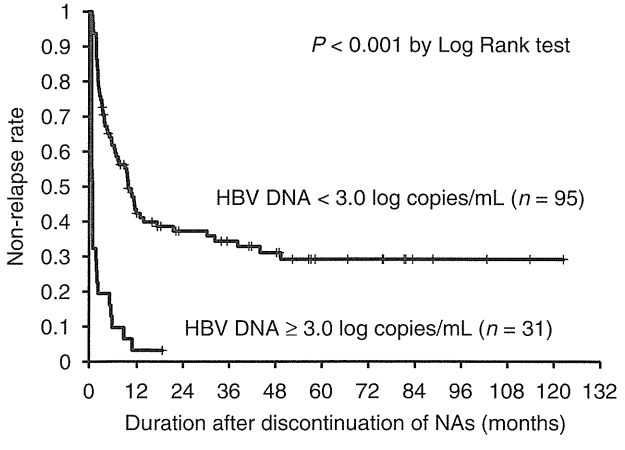

Figure 3 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 31 patients with serum hepatitis B virus (HBV) DNA equal to or higher than 3.0 log copies/mL and 95 patients with serum HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

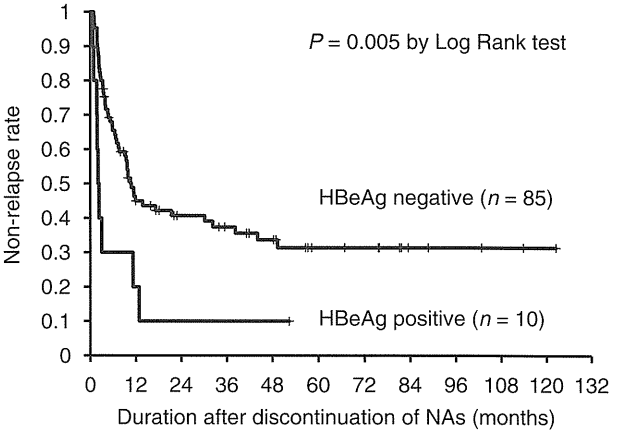

Figure 4 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method between 10 patients with detectable hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) and 85 patients without detectable HBeAg at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

Table 1 Comparison of clinical and virological backgrounds between patients with and without relapse of hepatitis at initiation and discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Background	Non-relapse patients ($n = 32$)	Relapse patients ($n = 53$)	*P*-value
At initiation of NAs			
Age (years)†	47 (17–75)	48 (26–74)	>0.2
Gender (M : F)	23:9	32:21	>0.2
ALT (IU/L)†	183 (9–1182)	187 (20–2052)	>0.2
Genotype (A : B : C : UD)	1:2:21:8	0:3:44:6	0.193
HBeAg (positive)‡	11 (34%)	16 (30%)	>0.2
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	6.2 (<2.6->7.6)	6.5 (<2.6->7.6)	0.099
HBsAg (log IU/mL)†	2.7 (0.1–4.3)	3.3 (1.6–3.9)	0.018
HBcrAg (log U/mL)†	5.2 (<3.0->6.8)	5.6 (<3.0->6.8)	>0.2
At discontinuation of NAs			
Age (years)†	50 (21–78)	49 (26–79)	>0.2
NAs (LVD : LVD+ADV : ETV : ADV)	28:1:3:0	50:0:2:1	>0.2
Duration of NA treatment (months)†	36 (4–129)	17 (4–84)	0.007
Follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs (months)†	45 (6–123)	12 (1–111)	0.002
ALT (IU/L)†	16 (7–38)	20 (9–65)	0.002
HBV DNA			
Amplicor assay (log copies/mL)†	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	<2.6 (<2.6–2.9)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative signal)‡	5 (23%) ($n = 22$)	3 (14%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
TaqMan assay (negative or positive signal)‡	13 (59%) ($n = 22$)	13 (62%) ($n = 21$)	>0.2
HBsAg (log IU/ml)†	2.0 (<–1.5–4.3)	3.1 (0.6–4.0)	0.001
HBcrAg (log IU/mL)†	3.4 (<3.0–4.9)	4.3 (<3.0->6.8)	0.003

†Data are expressed as the median (range)
‡Data are expressed as a positive number (%)
ADV; adefovir dipivoxil; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ETV, entecavir; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBeAg, hepatitis B e antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen; LVD, lamivudine; UD, undetermined.

patients with a negative detection signal or a positive signal also did not vary significantly. The follow-up period after discontinuation of NAs was significantly shorter in patients with relapse than in those without because formal follow-up ended once patients relapsed. The median period of follow-up was 45 months in patients without relapse.

Multivariate analyses revealed that a shorter duration of NA treatment and higher levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation were significantly associated with the occurrence of hepatitis relapse (Table 2). The cut-off values that showed the highest significance by ROC analysis were 1.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg (AUC = 0.707, $P = 0.001$), 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg (AUC = 0.692, $P = 0.003$), and 16 months (AUC = 0.674, $P = 0.007$) for treatment duration.

Model for predicting relapse of hepatitis using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg

The existence of a second cut-off value was suggested by ROC analysis for both of HBsAg (2.9 log IU/mL) and HBcrAg (3.0 log IU/mL) to discriminate between

Table 2 Multivariate analysis of factors associated with relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of nucleos(t)ide analogs (NAs)

Factor	Hazard ratio	95%CI	*P*-value
HBsAg at discontinuation ≥ 1.9 log IU/mL	5.21	1.87–14.55	0.002
HBcrAg at discontinuation ≥ 4.0 log U/mL	2.20	1.25–3.87	0.006
Duration of NA treatment ≥ 16 months	0.54	0.31–0.93	0.027

CI, confidence interval; HBcrAg, hepatitis B core-related antigen; HBsAg, hepatitis B surface antigen.

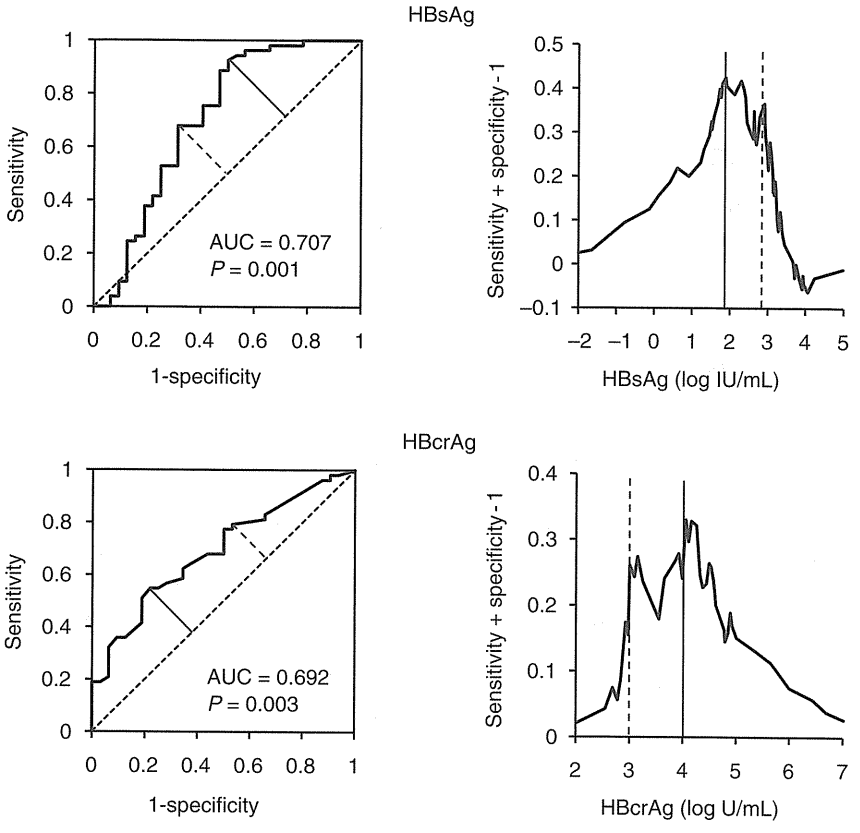

Figure 5 Receiver operating characteristic curve (ROC) analysis of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) to discriminate between patients with and without hepatitis relapse. The existence of two inflection points is suggested for both HBsAg and HBcrAg. Short diagonal lines indicate main inflection points and short broken diagonal lines indicate second inflection points. Vertical lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the main inflection points and vertical broken lines indicate actual values of antigens that correspond to the second inflection points.

patients with and without relapse (Fig. 5). Thus, we set cut-off values as 1.9 and 2.9 log IU/mL for HBsAg and 3.0 and 4.0 log U/mL for HBcrAg in our model for predicting hepatitis relapse.

We tentatively defined three groups using the sum of the scores for HBsAg and HBcrAg levels at the time of NA discontinuation for our model. Conversions were made by assigning a score of 0 for an HBsAg level lower than 1.9 log IU/mL, 1 for a level from 1.9 to 2.8 log IU/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 2.9 log IU/mL. HBcrAg was scored as 0 for a level lower than 3.0 log U/mL, 1 for a level from 3.0 to 3.9 log U/mL, and 2 for a level equal to or higher than 4.0 log U/mL. Overall, group 1 consisted of patients with a total score of 0, group 2 of patients with a total score of 1 or 2, and group 3 of patients with a total score of 3 or 4.

Patients whose HBV DNA was lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and in whom HBeAg was negative at the time of NA discontinuation were assigned to one of the three groups. Figure 6 shows the comparison of non-relapse rates among the three groups using Kaplan–Meier analysis, which differed significantly. The non-relapse rate was approximately 90% in group 1, as low as 10% in group 3, and intermediate in group 2. When factors associated with relapse were analyzed in group 3 patients, an age of over 40 years at the time of discontinuation was calculated as a significant factor (hazard

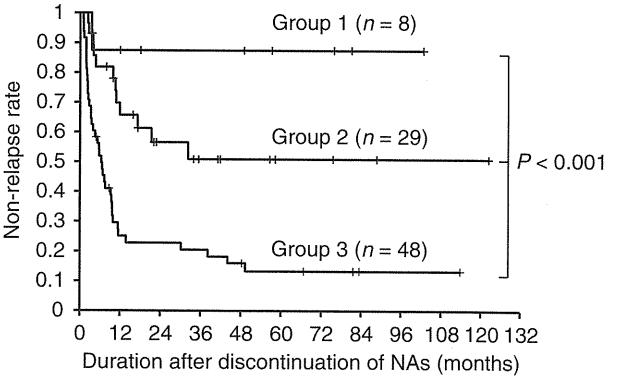

Figure 6 Comparison of non-relapse rates using the Kaplan–Meier method among three groups classified by the sum of the scores of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) and hepatitis B core-related antigen (HBcrAg) levels at the time of nucleos(t)ide analog (NA) discontinuation.

ratio = 5.25, range 2.37–11.65, $P < 0.001$). No significant factors were associated with relapse in group 2 patients.

DISCUSSION

THE EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION for the Study of the Liver recommends continuation of NA treatment until HBsAg is cleared.[25] Liu *et al.* came to a similar conclusion in their study of chronic hepatitis B patients treated with LVD.[14] Indeed, the clearance of HBsAg is a reliable marker for the safe discontinuation of NAs, but the rate of patients who can clear HBsAg is relatively low (1–3%/year).[26–28] Thus, additional factors associated with relapse of hepatitis B after discontinuation of NAs were analyzed in the present study to better identify candidates who could achieve drug-free status. Such studies are relatively few, possibly because patients who discontinue NAs prematurely often experience severe complicating relapse and hepatic failure.[9] Although prospective studies are desirable to obtain accurate results, retrospective studies, such as ours, are also necessary to minimize the risk of adverse complications.

Since HBV cannot be completely eradicated in hosts, the primary goal in treating chronic hepatitis B is to convert symptomatic patients into inactive carriers in whom HBeAg is negative (usually anti-HBe-positive), serum HBV DNA is low, and serum ALT is normal.[1,2,18,29] Thus, we set the clinical conditions of a successful discontinuation of NAs as serum HBV DNA level below 4.0 log copies/mL and ALT below 30 IU/L following NA cessation. Patients who satisfy these conditions are not recommended for treatment by the Japanese guidelines for hepatitis B,[18] and it is also widely accepted that the risk of developing cirrhosis or complicating hepatocellular carcinoma is very low in such patients.[30,31] We used our cohort's mean and maximal values of HBV DNA and ALT for relapse analyses. Mean values were useful for evaluating relapse of hepatitis as a whole since parameter levels often fluctuated after discontinuation, and maximal values were used to evaluate relapse in a real-time fashion during the follow-up period. It is noteworthy that the mean and maximal values correlated very closely for both HBV DNA and ALT. The mean HBV DNA value of 4.0 log copies/mL corresponded to the maximal HBV DNA value of 5.7 by ROC analysis, and similarly the mean ALT value of 30 IU/L corresponded to the maximal ALT value of 79 IU/L. Thus, relapse of hepatitis B was judged to occur when serum ALT became higher than 79 IU/L or when serum HBV DNA surpassed 5.7 log copies/mL after the time of NA discontinuation. Such criteria may also be useful for physicians to detect relapse at an early phase and avoid the occurrence of severe reactivation or unnecessary discontinuation of NAs.

It is generally understood that patients with a higher level of HBV DNA at the time of NA discontinuation are likely to relapse, but this cut-off value has not been analyzed sufficiently. Our findings using ROC analysis showed that patients with levels lower than 3.0 log copies/mL have a good possibility to achieve successful discontinuation. The presence of HBeAg is also generally accepted as a reliable factor to predict relapse of hepatitis. Our study showed that patients with detectable HBeAg at the time of NA discontinuation were likely to relapse, even if their HBV DNA levels were lower than 3.0 log copies/mL. Therefore, we next analyzed additional factors associated with a relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs by selecting patients who met both of these criteria.

Nucleos(t)ide analog treatment produces a rapid decrease in serum HBV DNA by suppressing reverse transcription of pregenomic HBV RNA. However, the key intrahepatic HBV replicative intermediate, covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA), tends to remain and is capable of reinitiating replication once NAs are ceased.[32] Measurement of HBV cccDNA has been reported to be useful for monitoring and predicting responses to antiviral treatments.[33] However, its measurement is difficult in the clinical setting as it requires a liver biopsy. Due to the mechanism of action of NAs mentioned above, serum HBV DNA does not reflect intrahepatic HBV cccDNA in patients undergoing NA treatment.[34] To address this, quantitative measurement of HBV antigens has been reported to be useful for predicting the effect of antiviral treatment in patients with chronic hepatitis B. Although HBsAg is usually used as a serum marker for the diagnosis of HBV infection, several groups have shown that HBsAg levels can also be reflective of the response to peg-interferon in chronic hepatitis B.[28,35,36] The HBcrAg assay measures serum levels of HB core and e antigens simultaneously using monoclonal antibodies that recognize the common epitopes of these two denatured antigens. Since the assay measures all antigens transcribed from the pre-core/core gene, it is regarded as core-related.[37] Serum HBcrAg has been reported to accurately reflect intracellular levels of HBV cccDNA even during NA treatment,[24,34,38] and was found to be useful for identifying patients who were likely to show relapse of hepatitis after the discontinuation of NAs.[39,40] It is possible that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg have different roles in

monitoring antiviral effects because the transcription of these two antigens are regulated by alternative enhancer-promoter systems in the HBV genome.[3] Therefore, we analyzed both of these antigens to elucidate their ability to predict relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs.

Multivariate analysis demonstrated that levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were independent factors significantly associated with relapse of hepatitis. Thus, we believe these factors can also be applied for predicting relapse in patients whose HBV DNA is lower than 3.0 log copies/mL and whose HBeAg is negative at NA discontinuation. HBV DNA levels were further analyzed using a highly sensitive assay based on real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). However, even the level of a negative signal did not ensure successful discontinuation of NAs. The results obtained here indicate that the combined use of HBV-related antigens are useful makers for monitoring the effect of anti-viral treatment in ways different from HBV DNA. Finally, since prolonged NA administration was also a significant factor associated with safe discontinuation, physicians are advised to continue patient treatment for at least 16 months for the best possible outcome.

From our data, a tentative model for predicting relapse of hepatitis after discontinuation of NAs was constructed using levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at discontinuation. A negative result for HBeAg and HBV DNA lower than 3.0 log copies/mL at the time of NA discontinuation are the essential conditions in this system. Levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg were each converted into scores from 0 to 2 partly because two cut-off values were needed for each antigen and partly because a scoring system may be more convenient for clinical use. The sum of the two scores, which ranged from 0 to 4, was used to prospect relapse. We found that group 1 patients who had a low score (0) could be recommended to discontinue NAs because nearly 90% of this group achieved successful discontinuation. Further analysis of factors associated with relapse are needed for group 2 patients who had middle range scores (1 or 2), since the odds of achieving successful discontinuation were approximately 50%. Continuation of NA treatment is recommended for group 3 patients having high scores (3 or 4) because nearly 90% of this group relapsed. However, this recommendation may be reconsidered in patients younger than 40 years; such cases tended to have a lower relapse rate in group 3. It is also noteworthy that relapse occurred mainly during the first and second years following NA discontinuation in all groups, similarly to a report by Liu *et al.*[14] Thus, clinicians should be vigilant in the early phase after discontinuation.

This study has several limitations. The patients who discontinued NAs were recruited retrospectively, and thus the decision to halt NA treatment was made by individual physicians without uniformly established criteria. Based on this, prospective studies are required to confirm our results. Furthermore, as over 90% of the patients we enrolled had genotype C and over 90% of cases were treated with LVD until discontinuation, the results obtained here can not be applied directly to other HBV genotypes or other types of NAs.

In conclusion, the present study showed that maximal levels of serum ALT and HBV DNA were useful for defining relapse patients after discontinuation of NAs. Along with serum HBV DNA of less than 3.0 log copies/mL and negative serum HBeAg, serum levels of HBsAg and HBcrAg at the time of NA discontinuation were able to predict relapse of hepatitis B and should therefore be considered when establishing uniform guidelines regarding the safe withdrawal of NA treatment. To this end, NA administration of more than 16 months is advisable to achieve successful discontinuation.

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Hepatitis B Virus-Specific miRNAs and Argonaute2 Play a Role in the Viral Life Cycle

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Abstract

Disease-specific serum miRNA profiles may serve as biomarkers and might reveal potential new avenues for therapy. An HBV-specific serum miRNA profile associated with HBV surface antigen (HBsAg) particles has recently been reported, and AGO2 and miRNAs have been shown to be stably associated with HBsAg in serum. We identified HBV-associated serum miRNAs using the Toray 3D array system in 10 healthy controls and 10 patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection. 19 selected miRNAs were then measured by quantitative RT-PCR in 248 chronic HBV patients and 22 healthy controls. MiRNA expression in serum versus liver tissue was also compared using biopsy samples. To examine the role of AGO2 during the HBV life cycle, we analyzed intracellular co-localization of AGO2 and HBV core (HBcAg) and surface (HBsAg) antigens using immunocytochemistry and proximity ligation assays in stably transfected HepG2 cells. The effect of AGO2 ablation on viral replication was assessed using siRNA. Several miRNAs, including miR-122, miR-22, and miR-99a, were up-regulated at least 1.5 fold ($P<2E-08$) in serum of HBV-infected patients. AGO2 and HBcAg were found to physically interact and co-localize in the ER and other subcellular compartments. HBs was also found to co-localize with AGO2 and was detected in multiple subcellular compartments. Conversely, HBx localized non-specifically in the nucleus and cytoplasm, and no interaction between AGO2 and HBx was detected. SiRNA ablation of AGO2 suppressed production of HBV DNA and HBs antigen in the supernatant.

Conclusion: These results suggest that AGO2 and HBV-specific miRNAs might play a role in the HBV life cycle.

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Introduction

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is a partially double-stranded DNA virus in the Hepadnaviridae family [1]. New therapies are urgently needed for the 350 million chronically infected individuals who face a significantly elevated lifetime risk of cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [2,3]. Recent insight into the role of non-coding RNAs in the liver has highlighted potential applications of microRNAs (miRNAs) in HBV diagnosis and treatment [4,5,6,7,8,9].

MiRNAs are a class of short non-coding RNAs involved in post-transcriptional gene regulation of multiple pathways [10]. In contrast to messenger RNAs, exosome-free extracellular miRNAs may be nuclease-resistant and remain in circulation for long periods of time by being stably bound to AGO2, a component of the RNA-induced silencing complex [11]. The origin and function of these extracellular miRNAs is unclear, but they may serve as biomarkers for liver injury and cancer [4]. Elucidating the function of hepatic miRNAs in HBV infection is important in the development of strategies to eradicate the virus and assess the risk of HCC. A number of miRNAs have been shown to be up- or down-regulated in HBV infection [4,12,13]. Noting that the defective hepatitis delta virus co-opts HBsAg subviral particles for export, Novellino et al. hypothesized that HBsAg subviral particles might also sequester miRNAs from the liver [5]. Using HBsAg immunoprecipitation, they identified a set of liver-specific and immune regulatory AGO2-bound miRNAs associated with HBsAg.

These reports suggest that AGO2 and a specific subset of miRNAs may participate in HBV replication, either as part of a host anti-HBV defense or as viral strategy to exploit or evade the RISC machinery. In this study, we examined serum miRNA expression in chronic HBV and healthy individuals and found a specific subset of miRNAs that are over-expressed in HBV-positive

patients and in which miR-122 was strongly up-regulated. To determine whether components of the miRNA system are associated with other HBV components, we performed subcellular localization experiments with viral proteins and AGO2.

Materials and Methods

Study Subjects

We performed a series of experiments to compare miRNA profiles of healthy and HBV-infected individuals in serum and liver tissue. All patients had chronic hepatitis B and agreed to provide blood samples for a viral hepatitis study. Patient profiles are shown in Table 1. Histopathological diagnosis was made according to the criteria of Desmet et al. [14]. The study protocol conforms to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki, and all patients provided written informed consent. This study was approved a priori by the ethical committee of Hiroshima University.

miRNA Expression Levels in Serum

miRNA expression in serum samples was measured using the Toray Industries miRNA analysis system, in which serum miRNA samples were hybridized to 3D-Gene human miRNA ver12.1 chips containing 900 miRNAs (Toray Industries, Inc., Tokyo, Japan). MiRNA gene expression data were scaled by global normalization, and differential expression was analyzed using the limma package in the R statistical framework. Serum was collected from 20 patients with high HBV DNA and HBsAg levels and with either high (>42 IU/l) or low (≤42 IU/l) ALT levels. Serum from the 10 low ALT patients was analyzed as a mixture, whereas serum from each of the 10 high ALT patients was analyzed both separately and as a mixture. For comparison with healthy controls we collected separate mixtures of serum from 10 healthy females and 12 healthy males. Serum samples from each healthy female were also measured separately. All healthy controls were negative for HBsAg, HBcAb, and HCV Ab. For comparison with miRNA expression in hepatocytes, miRNA expression was measured in non-tumor biopsy tissue from an HBV-infected patient and compared to non-cancerous liver tissue samples from two patients without HBV or HCV infection.

Table 1. Clinical characteristics of chronic hepatitis B virus patients (n = 248).

Factor	Value
Age	44 (15–76)
Sex (male/female)	169/77
Alanine aminotransferase (IU/l)	56 (10–1867)
Aspartate aminotransferase (IU/l)	43.5 (15–982)
HBV DNA (IU/ml)	6.3 (1.8–9.1)
Liver fibrosis (1/2/3/4)	69/102/46/26
Necroinflammatory activity (0/1/2/3/4)	1/70/127/45/0
γ-glutamyl transpeptidase (IU/l)	43 (9–459)
Alpha-fetoprotein (μg/l)	6.15 (0–9400)
Promthrombin time (s)	93 (0–146)
Albumin (g/dl)	4.4 (0–5.2)
Platelets (x10^4/mm^3)	16.75 (1–36)
HBsAg (IU/l)	2765 (0.05–239000)
HBeAg (−/+)	115/127
HBeAb (−/+)	113/128

Continuous variables are shown as median and range, and categorical variables are shown as counts.
Fibrosis and necroinflammatory activity were scored according to the criteria of Desmet et al. [14].
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Quantitative Real-time Polymerase Chain Reaction miRNA Analysis

Using real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) we measured the expression of 19 miRNAs in serum from 248 patients with chronic HBV infection and from 10 healthy females and 12 healthy males. Circulating microRNA was extracted from 300 μl of serum samples using the mirVana PARIS Kit (Ambion, Austin, TX) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was eluted in 80 μl of nuclease free water and reverse transcribed using TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Life Technologies Japan, Tokyo, Japan). *Caenorhabditis elegans* miR-238 (cel-miR-238) was spiked to each sample as a control for extraction and amplification steps. The reaction mixture contained 5 μl of RNA solution, 2 μl of 10× reverse transcription buffer, 0.2 μl of 100 mM dNTP mixture, 4 μl of 5× RT primer, 0.25 μl of RNase inhibitor and 7.22 μl of nuclease free water in a total volume of 20 μl. The reaction was performed at 16°C for 30 min followed by 42°C for 30 min. The reaction was terminated by heating the solution at 85°C for 5 min. MiRNAs were amplified using primers and probes provided by Applied Biosystems using TaqMan MicroRNA assays according to the manufacturer's instructions. The reaction mixture contained 12.5 μl of 2× Universal PCR Master Mix, 1.25 μl of 20× TaqMan Assay solution, 1 μl of reverse transcription product and 10.25 μl of nuclease free water in a total volume of 25 μl. Amplification conditions were 95°C for 10 min followed by 50 denaturing cycles for 15 sec at 95°C and annealing and extension for 60 sec at 60°C in an ABI7300 thermal cycler. For the cel-miR-238 assay, a dilution series using chemically synthesized miRNA was used to generate a standard curve that permitted absolute quantification of molecules.

Pathway Analysis

Target genes of differentially expressed miRNAs were predicted based on agreement among three miRNA prediction tools, miRanda, miRBase, and TargetScan. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (http://www.broadinstitute.org/gsea) was used to identify significantly over-represented gene ontology (GO) terms among the predicted targets.

Plasmid Construction

The construction of wild-type HBV 1.4 genome length, pTRE-HB-wt, was described previously [15]. We used pTRE2 vector without pTet-off vector and doxycycline because a sufficient amount of HBV transcript was produced from internal HBV promoters, and transcription from the pTRE2 promoter is negligible under these conditions. The nucleotide sequence of the HBV genome that we cloned into plasmids pTRE-HB-wt was deposited into GenBank under accession number AB206817.

Cell Culture

HepG2 cells, derived from a human hepatoma cell line, were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum at 37°C and under 5% CO_2. For the production of stably transfected cell lines, HepG2 cells were transfected with 20μg of the plasmid pTRE-HB-wt by calcium precipitation and the transfected cells were selected with

400μg/ml hygromycin-included DMEM. Sixty colonies were isolated, and clones that were positive for both HBs and HBe antigens were selected. Finally, one cell line named T23 was selected and used for further experiments. T23 cells continuously produced more than 6 log copies/ml of HBV DNA in supernatant over more than 12 months (data not shown).

Immunocytochemistry

Co-localization between AGO2 and several HBV proteins (HBc, HBs, and HBx) was analyzed using immunocytochemistry, followed by cellular localization assays using antibodies targeting various sub-cellular compartments. HepG2 or T23 cells were seeded in 2-well chamber plates and harvested 48 hours after seeding. The cells were washed with PBS and fixed with 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde. After fixation, the cells were stained with several primary antibodies (Table S1). The bound antibodies were detected with an Alexa 488-conjugated antibody against rabbit IgG (1:2000) or Alexa 568-conjugated antibody against mouse IgG (1:2000), respectively (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Nuclei were counterstained with 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) (Vector laboratories, Burlingame, CA). The stained cells were examined with a Fluoview FV10i microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

In situ Proximity Ligation Assay

We used proximity ligation assays (PLA) to determine whether AGO2 and HBc physically interact. PLA is a recent method to detect protein-protein interactions using protein-DNA conjugates that can be detected using fluorescence microscopy [16]. PLA improves on traditional immunoassays by directly detecting even weak or transient protein interactions [16]. HepG2 and T23 cells were seeded in 2-well chamber plates and harvested 48 hours after seeding. The cells were washed with PBS and fixed with 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde. After fixation, the cells were stained with primary antibodies. The primary antibodies used are listed in Table S1. After overnight incubation with primary antibody at 4°C, PLA was performed using Duolink II PLA probe anti-rabbit plus and anti-mouse minus and Duolink II Detection Reagents Orange (Olink, Uppsala, Sweden) following the manufacturer's protocol. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. Imaging was performed using a Fluoview FV10i microscope.

Analysis of Supernatant HBV Production by RNA Interference Against AGO2

To investigate the necessity of AGO2 for HBV production, we performed RNA interference assay using T23 cells that are HepG2 cells stably transfected with the plasmid pTRE-HB-wt. We used Silencer Select Pre-designed siRNA small interfering RNA targeting *AGO2* (#s25932, Ambion, Austin, TX) and Silencer Select Negative Control #1 siRNA for control (Ambion). T23 cells were transfected with one of the siRNA oligonucleotides (10 nM) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. To examine the knockdown effect of siRNAs against *AGO2* by real-time quantitative RT-PCR, T23 cells transfected with siRNAs were harvested 72 hours after transfection. Total RNA was isolated using the QuickGene RNA cultured cell kit S (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan). One μg of each RNA sample was reverse transcribed with the SuperScript VILO cDNA Synthesis kit (Invitrogen). First-strand complementary DNA (cDNA) was amplified with specific primers for the coding sequence of *AGO2*. The primers were as follows: forward, 5′-CCAGCATACTACGCTCACCT-3′; reverse, 5′-CAGAGTGTCTTGGTGAACCTG-3′. We quantified *AGO2* mRNA with EXPRESS SYBR Green ER qPCR Supermix Universal (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Amplification and detection were performed using the Mx3000P Multiplex quantitative PCR system (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). Results were normalized to the transcript levels of the housekeeping reference gene glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (*GAPDH*). Three to seven days after transfection, the culture media were collected to examine HBV production in supernatant. HBs antigen was measured quantitatively using the Abbott chemiluminescence immunoassay kit (Abbott Japan, Tokyo, Japan). HBV DNA levels were determined by Cobas TaqMan HBV standardized real-time PCR assay (Roche Molecular Systems, Pleasanton, CA). Results are expressed in log10 international units/ml. We also evaluated viability of cells using the Cell Counting kit-8 (Dojindo Laboratories, Kumamoto, Japan) at 3, 5 and 7 days after transfection, according to the manufacturer's instructions. All assays were performed in triplicate, and the results are expressed as mean ± SD.

Statistical Analysis

All analyses were performed using the R statistical package (http://www.r-project.org). Continuous variables are reported using the median and range. Moderated t statistics or Mann Whitney U tests were used to detect significant associations, as appropriate, and P-values were adjusted for multiple testing based on the false discovery rate.

Results

MiRNA Microarray Results

We performed miRNA microarray analysis to identify HBV-associated differences in serum miRNA profiles between 10 chronic HBV patients and 10 healthy controls (Fig. S1). 26 miRNAs with an absolute log fold change greater than 1.5 were found to be significantly (P_{FDR} <0.05) up-regulated in serum of HBV patients, and 8 miRNAs were significantly down-regulated (Table 2). MiR-122, miR-22, and miR-99a levels were the most strongly up-regulated in serum of HBV-infected patients, and levels of miR-575, miR-125a-3p, and miR-4294 were the most down-regulated. We also examined miRNAs associated with presence of HBe antigen or HBe antibody, but no miRNAs were significant following correction for multiple testing (data not shown).

Analysis of Serum Sample Mixtures from HBV-infected Patients and Healthy Controls

In addition to individual serum samples, we also examined 4 pooled serum samples as follows: 10 healthy males, 10 healthy females, 10 HBV patients with low ALT levels, and 10 HBV patients with high ALT levels (Fig. S2). In agreement with results from individual analysis, miR-122 and miR-99 levels were significantly higher in serum from HBV serum samples compared to healthy control samples (Table 2). Corresponding results with a log change greater than 1.5 were found for several other miRNAs, including miR-22, miR-642b, miR-125b (up-regulated) and miR-575 and miR-4294 (down-regulated), but results were not significant following correction for multiple testing in the mixture samples due to the small number of samples compared.

RT-PCR Analysis

Serum levels of 19 miRNAs were analyzed using quantitative RT-PCR analysis of 250 chronic HBV patients and 20 healthy controls. Several miRNAs (miR-122, miR-22, miR-99a, miR-720, miR-125b, and miR-1275) were significantly up-regulated in

Table 2. Top 10 up- or down-regulated serum miRNAs associated with chronic HBV infection.

Sample	Direction	miRNA	logFC	AveExpr	t	P	P_{FDR}
Serum	Up	hsa-miR-122	5.97	9.09	12.84	3.27E−12	3.06E−09
		hsa-miR-99a	2.59	6.20	10.73	2.11E−10	2.19E−08
		hsa-miR-22	2.49	9.55	10.47	2.10E−10	2.19E−08
		hsa-miR-191	2.19	8.42	11.87	1.68E−11	3.93E−09
		hsa-miR-642b	2.03	10.07	9.93	5.92E−10	4.26E−08
		hsa-miR-125b	1.95	5.99	8.72	9.91E−09	4.21E−07
		hsa-miR-486-3p	1.79	9.09	8.01	3.19E−08	9.95E−07
		hsa-miR-378	1.78	5.97	9.94	9.00E−10	6.02E−08
		hsa-miR-320d	1.70	7.19	7.88	4.25E−08	1.21E−06
		hsa-miR-23b	1.69	8.99	7.62	7.64E−08	1.93E−06
	Down	hsa-miR-575	−2.10	8.35	−10.00	5.20E−10	4.05E−08
		hsa-miR-125a-3p	−1.99	7.22	−11.91	1.56E−11	3.93E−09
		hsa-miR-4294	−1.75	11.82	−11.37	4.07E−11	7.63E−09
		hsa-miR-92a-2*	−1.64	11.03	−7.70	6.36E−08	1.75E−06
		hsa-miR-1202	−1.59	8.60	−12.41	6.72E−12	3.14E−09
		hsa-miR-30c-1*	−1.31	6.29	−8.66	1.12E−08	4.35E−07
		hsa-miR-1275	−1.19	9.91	−7.50	1.00E−07	2.35E−06
		hsa-miR-3197	−1.05	11.46	−8.58	9.24E−09	4.21E−07
		hsa-miR-1908	−1.03	13.75	−9.05	3.49E−09	2.04E−07
Mixture	Up	hsa-miR-122	6.80	9.09	20.51	1.09E−06	0.001
		hsa-miR-99a	2.58	6.34	9.32	9.80E−05	0.037
		hsa-miR-22	2.07	8.60	3.16	0.020	0.528
		hsa-miR-125b	2.03	6.29	5.09	0.002	0.264
		hsa-miR-1915*	1.80	8.32	6.24	0.001	0.158
		hsa-miR-3648	1.69	14.16	5.06	0.002	0.264
		hsa-miR-642b	1.64	9.82	4.49	0.004	0.377
		hsa-miR-1288	1.39	6.43	3.56	0.012	0.528
		hsa-miR-325	1.30	4.91	2.87	0.047	0.586
		hsa-miR-486-3p	1.29	8.98	3.87	0.009	0.480
	Down	hsa-miR-575	−1.95	8.43	−6.38	0.001	0.158
		hsa-miR-4294	−1.79	11.95	−5.99	0.001	0.158
		hsa-miR-654-3p	−1.35	5.36	−2.99	0.042	0.569
		hsa-miR-1202	−1.24	8.52	−3.97	0.008	0.480
		hsa-miR-1237	−1.06	7.52	−3.10	0.022	0.531
		hsa-miR-744	−1.03	9.51	−2.91	0.028	0.545

Expression levels were compared using moderated t-statistics, and P-values were corrected for multiple testing using the false discovery rate.
logFC: log2 fold-change between patients with chronic HBV infection relative to healthy individuals.
AveExpr: The average log2 expression level for each miRNA over all samples.
t: moderated t-statistic for patients with chronic HBV infection compared to healthy individuals P for each miRNA.
P: uncorrected P-value for t-test.
P_{FDR}: P-value adjusted for multiple testing based on the false discovery rate.
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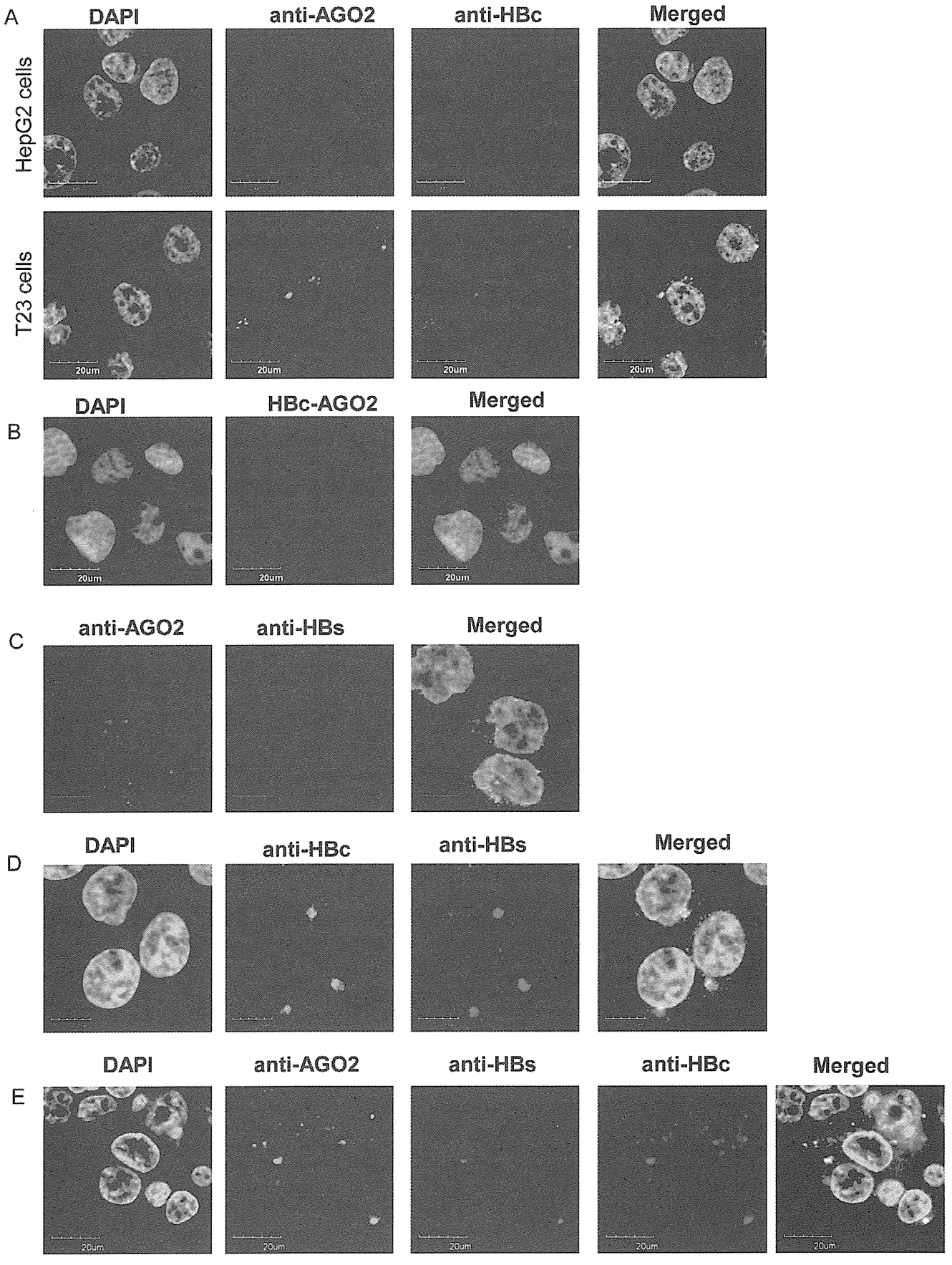
serum from HBV-infected patients (Table 3). Agreement of microarray and RT-PCR results was strongest for up-regulation of miR-122, miR-22, and miR-125b in serum of HBV patients. To determine whether there is a linear relationship between HBV markers and HBV-associated miRNAs, we analyzed the correlation between HBsAg and 6 up-regulated miRNAs. MiR-122, miR-99a, and miR-125b levels were found to be significantly correlated with HBsAg levels with $R^2>0.5$ (Fig. S3). These three miRNAs were also significantly correlated with HBV DNA titers, with R^2 of about 0.4 (Fig. S4). MiR-122 and miR-22 were significantly but diffusely associated with serum ALT levels ($R^2>0.2$; Fig. S5). To identify miRNAs associated with different phases of HBV infection, we also analyzed the 6 significantly up-regulated miRNAs with respect to the presence of HBe antigen and antibody. MiR-122, miR-99a, miR-720, and miR-125b were each highly significantly elevated in chronic HBV patients who were positive for the HBe antigen (P<4.0E−07; Fig. S6). Similarly, each miRNA was significantly elevated in chronic HBV patients who were negative for the HBe antibody (P<9.1E−05; Fig. S7).


A
DAPI
anti-AGO2
anti-HBc
Merged
HepG2 cells
T23 cells
20um
B
DAPI
HBc-AGO2
Merged
C
anti-AGO2
anti-HBs
Merged
D
DAPI
anti-HBc
anti-HBs
Merged
E
DAPI
anti-AGO2
anti-HBs
anti-HBc
Merged