

Fig. 3. Characteristics of HCC cell lines defined by EpCAM and CD90. (A) Representative photomicrographs of EpCAM⁺CD90⁻ and EpCAM⁻CD90⁺ HCC cell lines. (B) Representative FACS data of EpCAM⁺CD90⁻ and EpCAM⁻CD90⁺ HCC cell lines stained with fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-EpCAM and APC-CD90 Abs. (C) Heat-map images of seven HCC cell lines based on 890 EpCAM/CD90-coregulated genes. Each cell in the matrix represents the expression level of a gene in an individual sample. Red and green cells depict high and low expression levels, respectively, as indicated by the scale bar. (D and E) Pathway analysis of EpCAM/CD90-coregulated genes. Canonical signaling pathways activated in cluster I (orange bar) or II (blue bar) with statistical significance ($P < 0.01$) are shown. (F) qPCR of representative differentially expressed genes identified by microarray analysis (C) in seven HCC cell lines.

enriched in cluster II were mainly associated with blood-vessel morpho- and angiogenesis (Fig. 3D). By contrast, the enriched genes in cluster I were significantly associated with known hepatocyte functions ($P < 0.01$) (Fig. 3E). In addition, we identified that the enriched genes in cluster II were significantly associated with neurogenesis, skeletal muscle development, and EMT.

We used qPCR to validate that known hepatic stem cell (HSC) and hepatocyte markers, such as *AFP*, *EPCAM*, *ALB*, and *HNF4A* genes, were up-regulated in EpCAM⁺ cell lines, but not detected in CD90⁺ cell lines (Fig. 3F). By contrast, genes associated with mesenchymal lineages and EMT, such as *KIT*, *TWIST1*, *CD44*, and *THY1*, were strongly up-regulated in CD90⁺ cell lines.

Unique Tumorigenicity and Metastasis Capacity of Distinct CSCs Defined by EpCAM and CD90. We investigated the tumorigenic capacity of EpCAM⁺ or CD90⁺ cells by subcutaneously (SC) injecting 1×10^5 sorted cells of four HCC cell lines (HuH1, HuH7, HLE, and HLF) into nonobese diabetic, severe combined immunodeficient (NOD/SCID) mice. We excluded Hep3B cells for the evaluation of tumorigenicity because almost 100% of cells were EpCAM positive. We further excluded SK-Hep-1 cells from the analysis because they potentially originated from endothelial cells.¹² The highly tumorigenic capacities of EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cells were reproduced in HuH1, HuH7, and HLF cell lines, compared with marker-negative cells (Fig. 4A). However, HLE cells did not produce SC tumors, even 12 months after transplantation, in NOD/SCID mice. EpCAM⁺ cells from HuH1 and HuH7 formed larger tumors more rapidly than CD90⁺ cells from HLF (Fig. 4B). IHC analyses indicated that EpCAM⁺ cells did not produce CD90⁺ cells and *vice versa* in these cell lines *in vivo* (Fig. 4C). CD90⁺ cells showed a high metastatic capacity, whereas EpCAM⁺ cells showed no metastasis to the lung when SC tumor volume reached approximately 2,000 (HuH1 and HuH7) or 700 mm³ (HLF) (Fig. 4D). The high metastatic capacity of PLC/PRL/5 cells, which contain a small population of CD90⁺ cells, was also confirmed after SC injection into NOD/SCID mice (data not shown). CD90⁺ cells could divide to generate both CD90⁺ and CD90⁻ cells, and CD90⁺ cells showed a high capacity to invade and form spheroids with overexpression of *TWIST1* and *TWIST2*, which are known to activate EMT programs in HLF cells (Supporting Fig. 2A-D).

We next evaluated the tumorigenic/metastatic capacity of CD45⁻ tumor cells using 12 fresh primary

HCC specimens (P1-P12) that had been surgically resected (Table 2). We further evaluated the tumorigenicity of EpCAM/CD90 sorted cells obtained from xenografts derived from primary HCCs (Supporting Fig. 3A). Of these, we confirmed the tumorigenicity of cancer cells obtained from six primary HCCs after SC injection into NOD/SCID mice within 3 months after transplantation (Fig. 5A; Table 2; Supporting Fig. 3B). EpCAM⁺ cells derived from four HCCs (P4, P7, P13, and P14) showed highly tumorigenic capacities, compared with EpCAM⁻ cells. CD90⁺ cells derived from two HCCs showed equal (P12) or more-tumorigenic capacities (P15), compared with CD90⁻ cells. Tumorigenicity of EpCAM⁺ cells was observed in three hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related HCCs and an hepatitis B virus (HBV)-related HCC, whereas tumorigenicity of CD90⁺ cells was observed in two HBV-related HCCs (Tables 1 and 2).

Using unsorted cells, we compared the frequency of EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cells in primary and xenograft tumors and found that EpCAM⁺ cells remained, but CD90⁺ cells disappeared, in secondary tumors derived from P4 or P7, whereas EpCAM⁺ cells disappeared, but CD90⁺ cells remained, in secondary tumors derived from P12 (Fig. 5B). Morphologically, tumorigenic EpCAM⁺ cells showed an epithelial cell shape, whereas CD90⁺ cells showed a mesenchymal VEC shape (Fig. 5C and Supporting Fig. 3C). FACS analysis indicated that P12 HCC cells showed abundant expression of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor (VEGFR) 1 and a vascular endothelial marker endoglin (CD105) (Fig. 5D). By contrast, P4 and P7 HCC cells did not express these vascular endothelial markers (data not shown). Lung metastasis was detected in NOD/SCID mice transplanted with P12 HCC cells, but not in mice transplanted with P4 and P7 HCC cells (Fig. 5E,F).

Taken together, these results suggest that the tumorigenic and metastatic capability of primary HCC may depend on the presence of distinct EpCAM⁺ or CD90⁺ CSCs. EpCAM⁺ cells were associated with a high tumorigenic capacity with hepatic epithelial stem cell features, whereas CD90⁺ cells were related to the metastatic propensity with VEC features.

Suppression of Lung Metastasis Mediated by CD90⁺ CSCs by Imatinib Mesylate. We previously demonstrated that Wnt/ β -catenin signaling inhibitors could successfully attenuate the tumorigenic capacity of EpCAM⁺ CSCs in HCC.^{8,10} To explore the potential molecular targets activated in CD90⁺ CSCs, we investigated the expression of the known VEC markers, CD105, VEGFR1 (encoded by *FLT1*), and

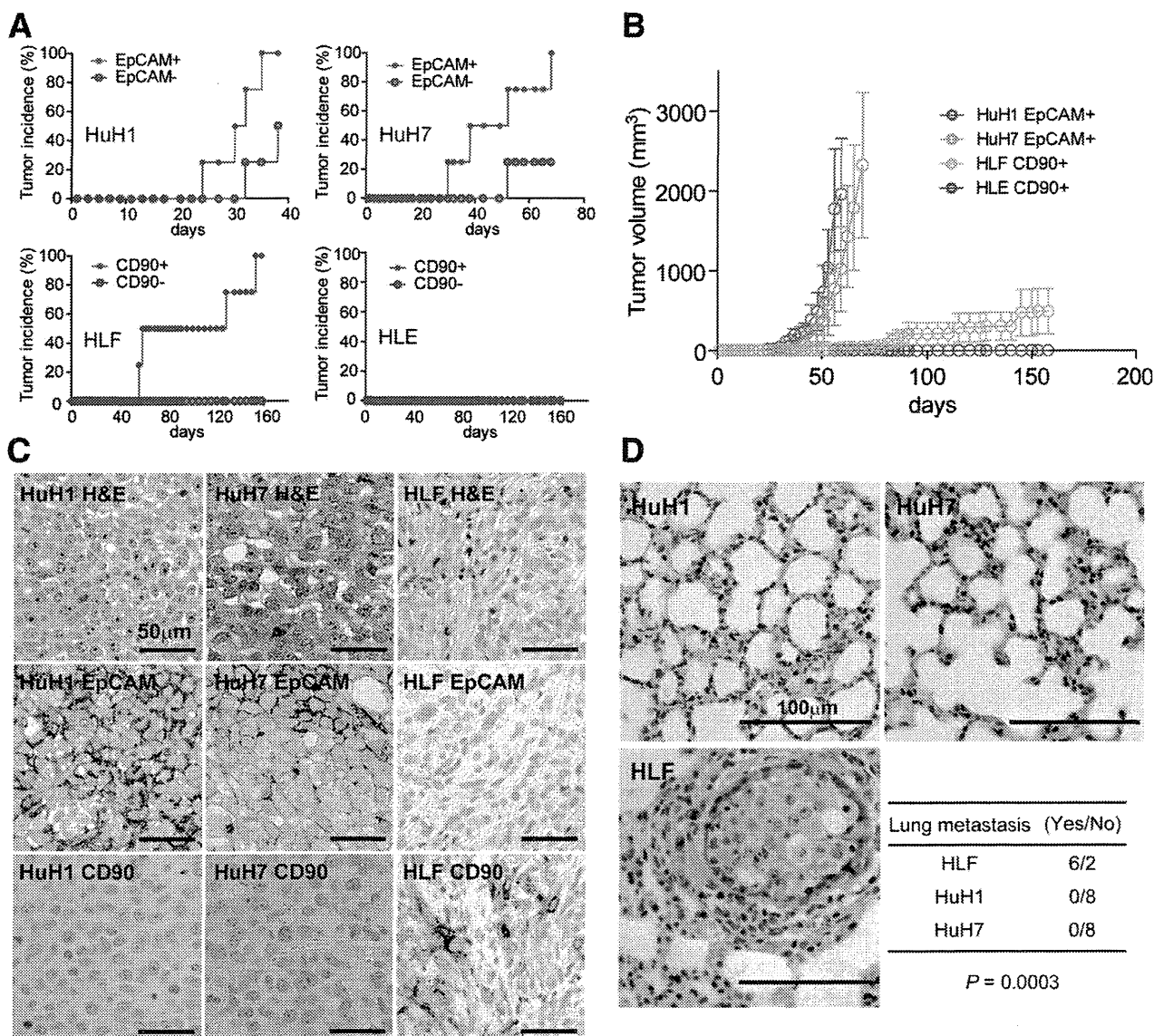


Fig. 4. Distinct tumorigenic/metastatic capacities of HCC cell lines defined by EpCAM and CD90. (A) Tumorigenicity of 1×10^5 cells sorted by anti-EpCAM (HuH1 and HuH7) or anti-CD90 (HLE and HLF) Abs. Data are generated from 8 mice/cell line. (B) Tumorigenic ability of EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ sorted cells in NOD/SCID mice. Aggressive tumor growth in the SC lesion was observed in EpCAM⁺ HuH1 or HuH7 cells, compared with CD90⁺ HLE or HLF cells. EpCAM⁺ (1×10^5) or CD90⁺ cells were injected. Tumor-volume curves are depicted as mean \pm standard deviation of 4 mice/group. (C) Histological analysis of EpCAM⁺ or CD90⁺ cell-derived xenografts. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of a SC tumor (upper panels) and IHC of the tumor with anti-EpCAM (middle panels) or anti-CD90 Abs (bottom panels) are shown (scale bar, 50 μ m). (D) Metastasis was evaluated macroscopically and microscopically in the left and right lobes of the lung separately in each mouse (n = 4) (scale bar, 100 μ m).

c-Kit (encoded by *KIT*), in cell lines and showed that they were abundantly expressed in CD90⁺ cell lines, but not EpCAM⁺ cell lines (Fig. 6A). No expression of VEGFR2 was detected in this set of cell lines, suggesting that molecular reagents specifically targeting VEGFR2 may have no effects on CD90⁺ CSCs. CD44, a stem cell marker that functionally regulates redox status and is a potential target of CD90⁺ CSCs, was also abundantly expressed in CD90⁺ cell lines (Supporting Fig. 4A), consistent with previous data.^{5,13} No significant difference was detected in the

expression of the hematopoietic marker, CD34, or ABCG2 between EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cell lines (Supporting Fig. 4A).

Among these molecular targets, we focused on the characterization of c-Kit because the c-Kit tyrosine kinase inhibitor, imatinib mesylate, is readily available, is widely used for the treatment of gastrointestinal stromal tumor with activation of c-Kit, and may have potential antitumor activity against a subset of HCC.¹⁴ We explored the effect of imatinib mesylate on HCC cell lines and found that treatment with 10

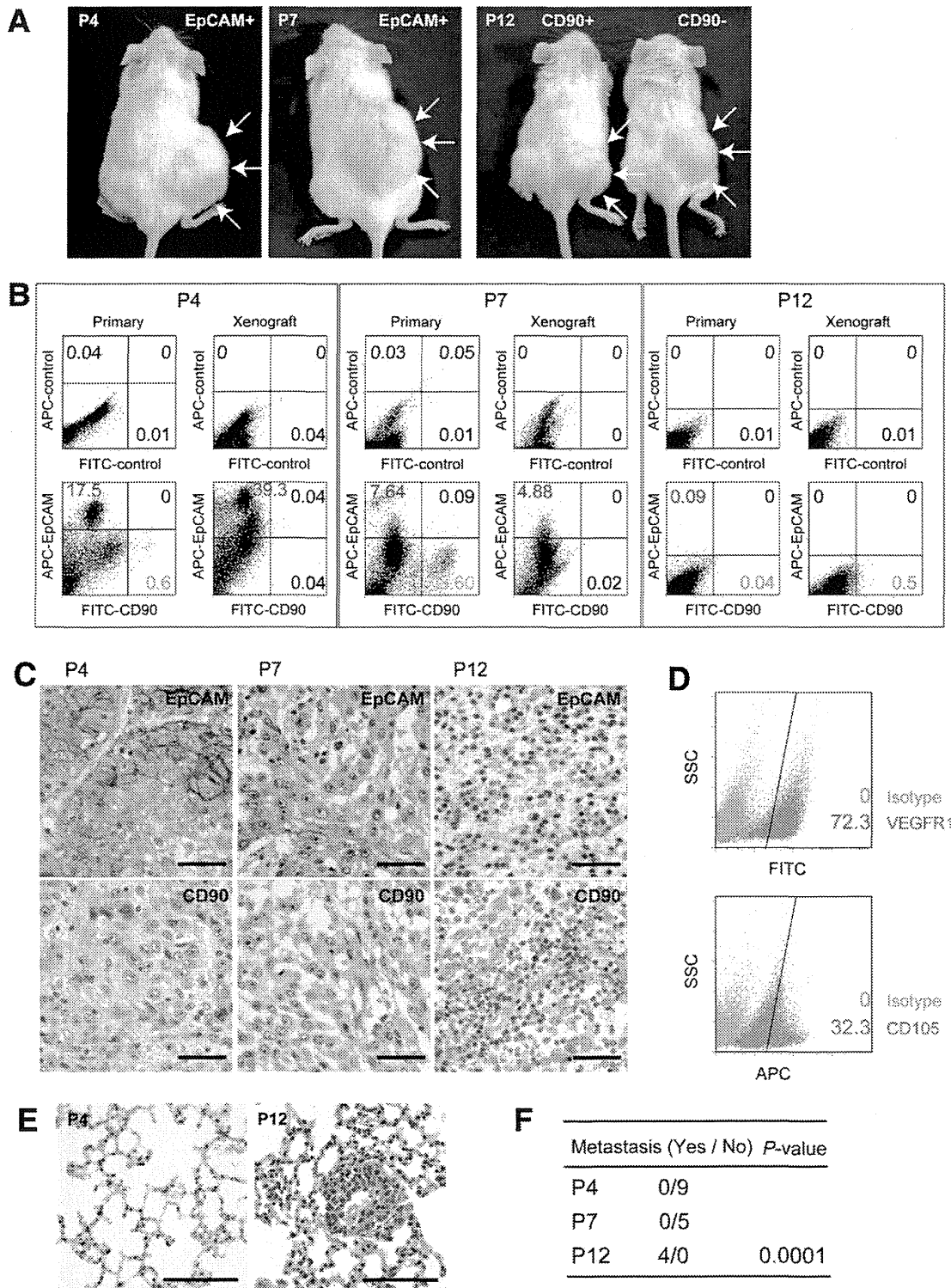
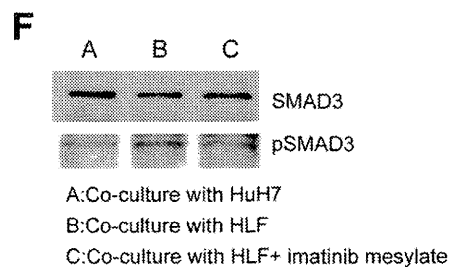
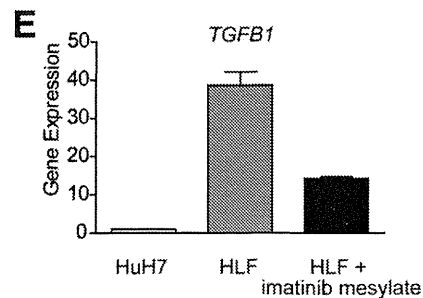
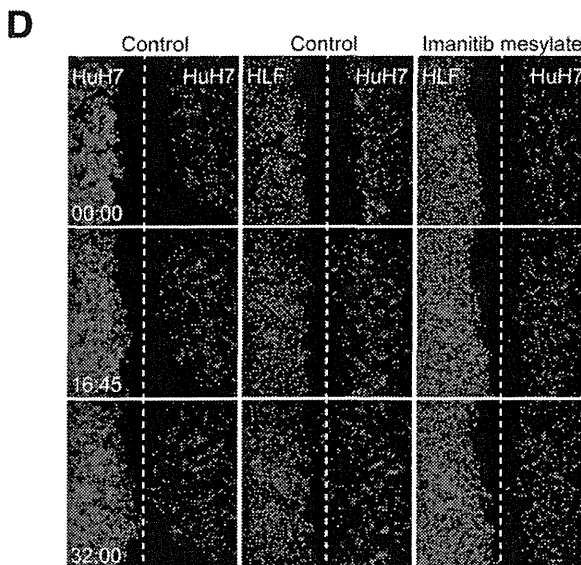
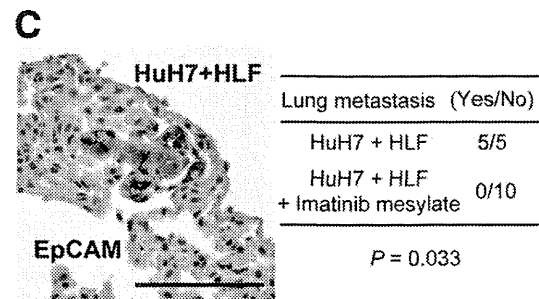
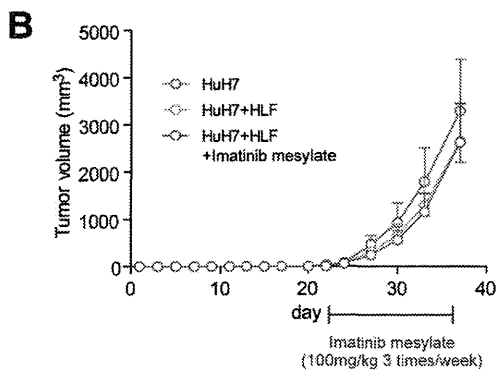
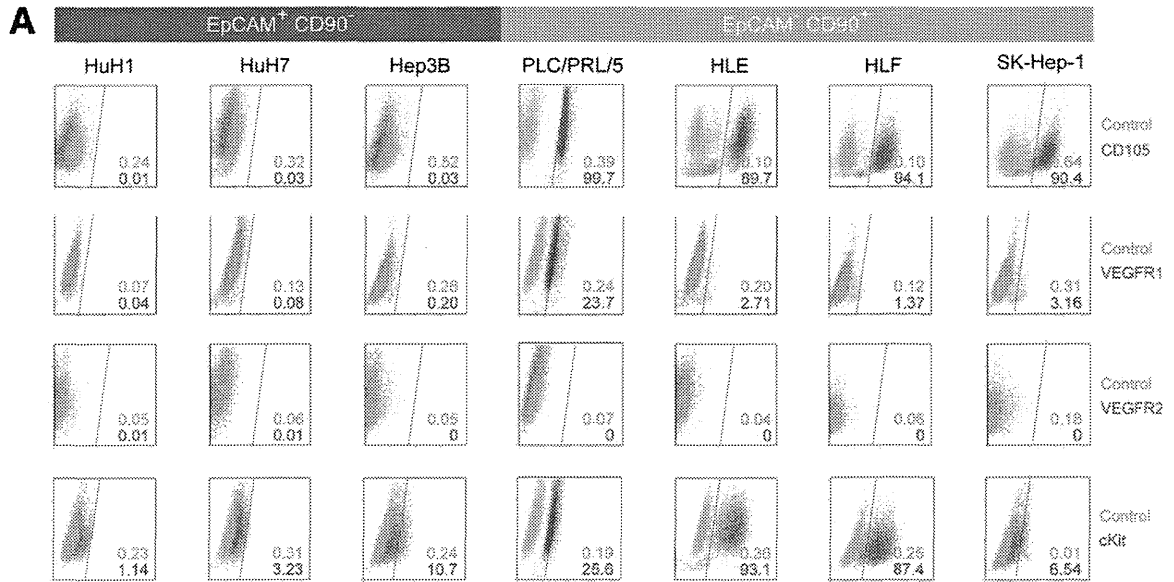


Fig. 5. Tumorigenic/metastatic capacities of EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cells in primary HCC. (A) Representative NOD/SCID mice with SC tumors (white arrows) from EpCAM⁺ P4 or P7 cells (left and middle panels) and CD90⁺ or CD90⁻ P12 cells (right panel). (B) FACS analysis of CD90 and EpCAM staining in primary HCCs and the corresponding secondary tumors developed in NOD/SCID mice. Unsorted cells (1×10^6 cells in P4 and P7 or 1×10^5 cells in P12) were SC injected to evaluate the frequency of each marker-positive cell in primary and secondary tumors. (C) IHC analysis of EpCAM and CD90 in primary HCCs P4, P7, and P12 (scale bar, 50 μ m). (D) FACS analysis of VEGFR1 (Alexa488) and CD105 (APC) in primary HCC P12. (E) Hematoxylin and eosin staining of lung tissues in P4 and P12 (scale bar, 200 μ m). (F) Frequency of lung metastasis in NOD/SCID mice SC transplanted using unsorted primary HCC cells.

μ M reduced cell proliferation and spheroid formation in CD90⁺ cell lines, but had no effect on EpCAM⁺ cell lines (Supporting Fig. S4B,C).

We further explored the effect of imatinib mesylate *in vivo*. Because EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cells reside in the

primary HCC, but not in established cell lines, we SC injected HuH7 and HLF cell lines to generate tumors organized by EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ CSCs. Interestingly, when HLF cells were coinjected with HuH7 cells, EpCAM⁺ cells could metastasize to the lung, whereas



SC primary tumors showed no difference in size (Fig. 6B,C). Furthermore, although imatinib mesylate treatment had little effect on the size of primary SC tumors, it significantly suppressed lung metastasis in primary tumors (Fig. 6C). These data suggest that CD90⁺ cells are not only metastatic to the distant organ, but also help the metastasis of CD90⁻ cells, including EpCAM⁺ cells, which originally have no distant metastatic capacity. Our data further suggest that imatinib mesylate can inhibit distant organ metastasis by suppressing CD90⁺ metastatic CSCs, albeit with little effect on EpCAM⁺ tumorigenic epithelial stem-like CSCs.

To explore the potential mechanism of how CD90⁺ cells dictate the metastasis of EpCAM⁺ cells, we utilized coculture systems and time-lapse image analysis. Wound-healing analysis clearly indicated that motility of HuH7 cells was enhanced when HLF cells were cocultured, and this effect was abolished by imatinib mesylate treatment (Fig. 6D; see Supporting Videos 1-3). HLF cells abundantly expressed *TGFB1*, compared with HuH7 cells, and its expression was dramatically suppressed by imatinib mesylate treatment (Fig. 6E). Mothers against decapentaplegic homolog 3 (Smad3) phosphorylation was augmented in HuH7 cells when cocultured with HLF cells, and this effect was attenuated when cocultured with HLF cells pretreated with imatinib mesylate.

Taken together, our data suggest that liver CSCs are not a single entity. Liver CSCs defined by different markers show unique features of tumorigenicity/metastasis with phenotypes closely associated with committed liver lineages. These distinct CSCs may collaborate to enhance tumorigenicity and metastasis of HCCs.

Discussion

The current investigation demonstrates that CSC marker expression status may be a key determinant of cancer phenotypes, in terms of metastatic propensity

and chemosensitivity, to certain molecularly targeted therapies. EpCAM appears to be an epithelial tumorigenic CSC marker, whereas CD90 seems to be a mesenchymal metastatic CSC marker associated with expression of c-Kit and chemosensitivity to imatinib mesylate. Imatinib mesylate may be effective in inhibiting metastasis, but has little effect on primary EpCAM⁺ HCC cell growth.

We investigated the frequency of three CSC markers (EpCAM, CD90, and CD133) in 15 primary HCCs with a confirmed cell viability of $\geq 70\%$ and found that three HCCs contained CD133⁺ cells, seven HCCs contained EpCAM⁺ cells, and all HCCs contained CD90⁺ cells. Among them, we confirmed the perpetuation of CD133⁺ cells derived from three HCCs (P7, P12, and P14; data not shown), EpCAM⁺ cells derived from four HCCs (P4, P7, P13, and P14), and CD90⁺ cells derived from two HCCs (P12 and P15). Recent studies showed that at least 8 of 21 HCCs (38%)⁴ and 13 of 13 HCCs (100%)⁵ contained tumorigenic CD133⁺ or CD90⁺ CSCs, respectively. Recent IHC and tissue microarray studies also demonstrated that CD133⁺ and CD90⁺ cells were detected in 24.8% ($\geq 1\%$ of tumor cells) and 32.2% ($\geq 5\%$ of tumor cells) of HCC cases examined, respectively.^{15,16}

One possible explanation of the comparatively low frequency of CD133⁺ liver CSCs identified in our study is that we used the monoclonal Ab CD133/2, whereas Ma et al. used CD133/1. Another possible explanation is the difference of etiology related to hepatocarcinogenesis. We examined tumorigenicity using 15 HCCs (five HBV related, four HCV related, three non-B, non-C hepatitis [NBNC] related, and three alcohol related) and identified that tumorigenic CSCs were only obtained from HBV- or HCV-related cases. Previous liver CSC studies were performed using HBV-related HCCs,^{4,5} and a recent study showed that

Fig. 6. Suppression of lung metastasis mediated by CD90⁺ CSCs by imatinib mesylate. (A) FACS analysis of seven HCC cell lines stained by APC-CD105, Alexa 488/VEGFR1, APC/VEGFR2, and Alexa 488/c-Kit Abs or isotype control. (B) Tumorigenicity of 5×10^5 HuH7 cells and 2.5×10^5 HuH7 cells plus 2.5×10^5 HLF cells treated with imatinib mesylate or control phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (200 μL /mouse) orally ingested three times per week (100 mg/kg) for 2 weeks. Data are generated from 5 mice per condition. (C) IHC analysis of EpCAM in lung metastasis detected in NOD/SCID mice SC injected with 2.5×10^5 HuH7 cells and 2.5×10^5 HLF cells. Metastasis was evaluated macro- and microscopically in the left and right lobes of the lung separately in each mouse ($n = 5$) (scale bar, 100 μm). (D) Cell motility of HuH7 cells cocultured with HuH7, HLF, or HLF cells with imatinib mesylate (10 μM) was monitored in a real-time manner by time-lapse image analysis. HuH7 and HLF cells were labeled with the lipophilic fluorescence tracer, DiI (indicated as red) or DiD (indicated as blue), and incubated in a μ -Slide eight-well chamber overnight. Silicone inserts were detached and the culture media replaced with Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum, including 0.1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) (control) or 10 μM of imatinib mesylate dissolved in DMSO (final concentration 0.1%). Immediately after the medium change, cells were cultured at 37°C in 5% CO₂ and time-lapse images were captured for 72 hours. (E) qPCR analysis of *TGFB1* in HuH7 (white bar), HLF (gray bar), and HLF cells pretreated with imatinib mesylate for 24 hours. (F) Smad3 and its phosphorylation evaluated by western blotting. HuH7 cells and HLF cells were harvested in cell culture inserts and treated with DMSO (0.1%) or imatinib mesylate (10 μM) for 24 hours. Cell culture inserts were washed with PBS, cocultured with HuH7 cells for 8 hours, and then removed. HuH7 cells were lysed using radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer for western blotting. (A) HuH7 cells cocultured with HuH7 cells. (B) HuH7 cells cocultured with HLF cells. (C) HuH7 cells cocultured with HLF cells pretreated with imatinib mesylate.

HBV X may play a role in generating EpCAM⁺ CSCs.¹⁷ The role of hepatitis virus infection on the generation of CSCs is still unclear and should be clarified in future studies.

We were unable to confirm the tumorigenicity of CD90⁺ cells in 13 of 15 HCCs, but we observed abundant CD90⁺ cells in more-advanced HCCs by IHC (data not shown). Tumorigenic CD90⁺ cells may emerge at a later stage of hepatocarcinogenesis, and the majority of CD90⁺ cells in early HCCs may be cancer-associated VECs without tumorigenic capacity. Furthermore, we identified tumorigenic CD90⁺ cells only from HBV-related HCCs, and a recent study suggested that expression of CD90 was associated with HBV infection.¹⁶ We could not detect the small population of CD90⁺ HuH7 and Hep3B cells reported on by Yang et al. However, because we identified a small population of CD90⁺ HuH7 cells after treatment with 5-FU (manuscript in preparation), it is conceivable that different cellular stress statuses may explain the observed differences between our findings and those of Yang et al.

The majority of CSC markers discovered thus far are almost identical to those found in healthy tissue stem cells or embryonic stem cells. However, with regard to the liver, the characteristics of healthy hepatic stem/progenitor cells isolated using different stem cell markers are currently under investigation. A recent article examined the characteristics of EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ oval cells isolated from 2-acetylaminofluorene/partial hepatectomy or D-galactosamine-treated rats.¹⁸ Interestingly, EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ oval cells represent two distinct populations: The former expresses classical oval cell markers, such as AFP, OV-1, and cytokeratin-19 (CK-19), whereas the latter expresses desmin and alpha smooth muscle actin, but not AFP, OV-1, or CK-19, which indicates that CD90⁺ populations are more likely to be mesenchymal cells. Another study has demonstrated that mesenchymal cells can interact with HSCs to regulate cell-fate decision.¹⁹ We found that EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ cells isolated from liver cancer are distinct in terms of gene- and protein-expression patterns in both primary liver cancers and cell lines. Furthermore, these distinct CSCs can interact to regulate the tumorigenicity and metastasis of HCC. Molecular characteristics of EpCAM⁺/CD90⁺ CSCs may potentially reflect the cellular context of healthy stem or progenitor cells.

Although our study strongly indicates that abundant CD90⁺ cells in a tumor is a risk for distant metastasis in liver cancer, the cell identity and role of CD90⁺ cells remains elusive. As our IHC, FACS, and xenotransplantation assays revealed, some CD90⁺ cells in

liver cancer may be cancer-associated VECs or fibroblasts that cannot perpetuate in the xenograft. Recent findings have suggested the importance of stromal cells in tumorigenesis and cancer metastasis,²⁰⁻²² so it is possible that these cells may help TECs invade and intravasate into blood vessels, thus playing crucial roles in metastasis.

Another possibility is that CD90⁺ cells are cancer cells with features of fibroblasts (having undergone EMT) or VECs (having undergone vasculogenic mimicry; VM) that can invade, intravasate, and metastasize cells to distant organs. Recently, two groups reported that a subset of tumor VECs originate from glioblastoma CSCs.^{23,24} We successfully confirmed the tumorigenicity and metastatic capacity of CD90⁺ cells that were morphologically identical to VECs from primary HCCs that could perpetuate in the xenograft. However, a recent study demonstrated that CD90⁺ HCC cells express glypican-3, a marker detected in hepatic epithelial cells.²⁵ Further studies are warranted to clarify the nature and role of CD90⁺ HCC cells.

In our study, CD90⁺ cells expressed the endothelial marker, c-Kit, CD105, and VEGFR1, and a mesenchymal VEC morphology and high metastatic capacity were confirmed in both primary liver cancer and cell lines. We further confirmed that CD90⁺ liver cancer cells showed chemosensitivity to imatinib mesylate, suggesting that cancer cells committed to mesenchymal endothelial lineages could be eradicated by the compound. Although imatinib mesylate treatment had little effect on the size of primary tumors originated from both EpCAM⁺ and CD90⁺ CSCs, it significantly suppressed lung metastasis *in vivo*. These data are consistent with a recent phase II study demonstrating the tolerable toxicity, but limited efficacy, of imatinib mesylate alone for unresectable HCC patients. Eligibility of imatinib mesylate for advanced HCC patients may be restricted to the HCC subtypes organized by CD90⁺ CSCs with a highly metastatic capacity and VEC features. Therefore, a combination of compounds targeting EpCAM⁺ tumorigenic CSCs as well as CD90⁺ metastatic CSCs may be required for the eradication of HCC and should be tested in the future.

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Acyclic Retinoid Targets Platelet-Derived Growth Factor Signaling in the Prevention of Hepatic Fibrosis and Hepatocellular Carcinoma Development

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Abstract

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) often develops in association with liver cirrhosis, and its high recurrence rate leads to poor patient prognosis. Although recent evidence suggests that peretinoin, a member of the acyclic retinoid family, may be an effective chemopreventive drug for HCC, published data about its effects on hepatic mesenchymal cells, such as stellate cells and endothelial cells, remain limited. Using a mouse model in which platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF)-C is overexpressed (*Pdgf-c Tg*), resulting in hepatic fibrosis, steatosis, and eventually, HCC development, we show that peretinoin significantly represses the development of hepatic fibrosis and tumors. Peretinoin inhibited the signaling pathways of fibrogenesis, angiogenesis, and Wnt/ β -catenin in *Pdgf-c* transgenic mice. *In vitro*, peretinoin repressed the expression of PDGF receptors α/β in primary mouse hepatic stellate cells (HSC), hepatoma cells, fibroblasts, and endothelial cells. Peretinoin also inhibited PDGF-C-activated transformation of HSCs into myofibroblasts. Together, our findings show that PDGF signaling is a target of peretinoin in preventing the development of hepatic fibrosis and HCC. *Cancer Res*; 72(17); 4459–71. ©2012 AACR.

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most common malignancies worldwide with a particularly poor patient outcome (1). It often develops as a result of chronic liver disease associated with hepatitis B or hepatitis C virus infection or with other etiologies such as long-term alcohol abuse, autoimmunity, and hemochromatosis (2–5). Despite the recent advances in antiviral therapy for hepatitis B or hepatitis C virus, these are insufficient to completely prevent the occurrence of HCC. Moreover, the recent increase in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) associated with metabolic syndrome is a potential high-risk factor for the development of HCC (6).

HCC often develops during the advanced stages of liver fibrosis and is associated with deposits of extracellular

matrix synthesized by activated stellate cells. During the course of chronic hepatitis, nonparenchymal cells, including Kupffer, endothelial, and activated stellate cells, release a variety of cytokines and growth factors. One of these growth factors is platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), which is involved in fibrogenesis, angiogenesis, and tumorigenesis (7, 8). PDGF expression has been shown to be upregulated from the early stages of chronic hepatitis, suggesting its association with the development of fibrosis in chronic hepatitis C (CH-C; refs. 9 and 10). Overexpression of PDGF-C in mouse liver resulted in the progression of hepatic fibrosis, steatosis, and the development of HCC; this mouse model closely resembles the human HCC, which is frequently associated with hepatic fibrosis (7).

Peretinoin (generic name; code, NIK-333), developed by the Kowa Company, is an oral acyclic retinoid with a vitamin A-like structure, which targets the retinoid nuclear receptor. Oral administration of peretinoin was shown to significantly reduce the incidence of posttherapeutic HCC recurrence and improve the survival rates of patients in a clinical trial (11, 12). A large-scale clinical study including various countries is now planned to confirm its clinical efficacy.

Although peretinoin treatment can suppress HCC-derived cell line growth and inhibit experimental mouse or rat liver carcinogenesis (13, 14), the detailed mechanism of its effect has not been fully elucidated. Peretinoin has a high binding affinity to cellular retinoic acid-binding protein (15) and may interact with retinoic acid receptor- β and retinoid X receptor- α (16); however, the precise molecular targets for preventing HCC recurrence have not yet been elucidated.

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In this study, we used PDGF-C transgenic (*Pdgf-c Tg*) mice to show that PDGF-C signaling is a possible target of peretinoin in the prevention of hepatic fibrosis, angiogenesis, and the development of HCC.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

The acyclic retinoid peretinoin (generic name; code, NIK-333) [(2E,4E,6E,10E)-3,7,11,15-tetramethyl-2,4,6,10,14-hexadecapentaenoic acid, C₂₀H₃₀O₂, molecular weight 302.46 g/mol] was supplied by Kowa Company.

Animal studies

The generation and characterization of *Pdgf-c Tg* have been described previously (7). Wild-type and *Pdgf-c Tg* mice on a C57BL/6J background were maintained in a pathogen-free animal facility under a standard 12-hour/12-hour light/dark cycle. After weaning at week 4, male mice were randomly divided into the following 3 groups: (1) *Pdgf-c Tg* or wild-type (WT) mice given a basal diet (CRF-1, Charles River Laboratories Japan), (2) *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice given a 0.03% peretinoin-containing diet, (3) *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice given a 0.06% peretinoin-containing diet. Control mice were normal male homozygotes. At week 20, mice were sacrificed to analyze the progression of hepatic fibrosis ($n = 15$ for each of the 3 groups). At week 48, mice were sacrificed to analyze the development of hepatic tumors ($n = 31$ for the basal diet group, $n = 37$ for the 0.03% peretinoin group, and $n = 17$ for the 0.06% peretinoin group). The incidence of hepatic tumors, maximum tumor size, and liver weight were evaluated. None of the treated WT mice given a diet of 0.03% peretinoin died, but death occurred in 5% of WT mice around after 36 weeks of age receiving a 0.06% peretinoin diet, probably because of its toxicity. In *Pdgf-c Tg* mice, death was observed at similar frequency as WT mice that received 0.06% peretinoin diet.

All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals at the Takara-Machi Campus of Kanazawa University, Japan.

Cell culture

Human HCC cell lines Huh-7, HepG2, and HLE, the mouse fibroblast cell line NIH3T3, human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC), and human stellate cells Lx-2 (kindly provided by Dr. Scott Friedman, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, NY) were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco), 1% L-glutamine (Gibco), and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco) in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ at 37°C. 1 to 5×10^4 cells were seeded in each well of a 12-well plate the day before serum starvation in serum-free DMEM for 8 hours. The culture medium was then replaced with serum-free medium containing peretinoin. After 24-hour incubation, cells were harvested for analysis.

Isolation and culture of mouse hepatic stellate cells

Hepatic stellate cells (HSC) were isolated from C57BL/6J mice and the effect of recombinant human PDGF-C and

peretinoin on HSCs was evaluated *in vitro*. Pronase-collagenase liver digestion was used to isolate HSC from wild-type mice. All experiments were replicated at least twice. Freshly isolated HSCs suspended in culture medium were seeded in uncoated 24-well plates and incubated at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ for 72 hours. Nonadherent cells were removed with a pipette and the culture medium was replaced with medium containing 80 ng/mL recombinant human PDGF-C (Abnova) with or without peretinoin or 9-*cis*-retinoic acid (9cRA; 5 or 10 μmol/L). Cells were harvested for analysis after 24-hour incubation.

Isolation of peripheral blood mononuclear cells

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were harvested and labeled with FITC-conjugate CD34 (Cell Lab) and R-Phycoerythrin (PE)-conjugated CD31 antibodies (Cell Lab) for 30 minutes at 4°C. After washing with 1 mL PBS, CD31 and CD34 surface expression was measured with a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). All flow cytometric data were analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star).

Gene expression profiling

Gene expression profiling in mouse liver was evaluated using the GeneChip Mouse Genome 430 2.0 Array (Affymetrix). Liver tissue from WT, *Pdgf-c Tg*, and *Pdgf-c Tg* with 0.06% peretinoin mice all at weeks 20 and 48 was obtained and a total of 34 chip assays were conducted as described previously (17). Expression data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; NCBI Accession; GSE31431).

Pathway analysis was conducted using MetaCore (GeneGo). Functional ontology enrichment analysis was conducted to compare the Gene Ontology (GO) process distribution of differentially expressed genes ($P < 0.01$; refs. 10 and 17). Direct interactions among differentially expressed genes between *Pdgf-c Tg* mice with or without peretinoin administration were examined as reported previously (10). Each connection represents a direct, experimentally confirmed, physical interaction (MetaCore).

Histopathology and immunohistochemical staining

Mouse liver tissues were fixed in 10% formalin and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. The liver neoplasms (HCC and liver cell adenoma) were diagnosed according to previously described criteria (18, 19). Hepatic fibrosis was evaluated by Azan staining. Percentages of fibrous areas were calculated microscopically using an image analysis system (BIOREVO BZ-9000; KEYENCE Japan). Immunohistochemical (IHC) staining was conducted by an immunoperoxidase technique with an Envision kit (DAKO). Primary antibodies used were: rabbit polyclonal PDGFR-α (1:100 dilution), PDGFR-β (1:100 dilution), VEGFR1 (1:100 dilution), desmin (1:100 dilution), β-catenin (1:200 dilution), and mouse monoclonal cyclin D1 (1:400 dilution; all from Cell Signaling Technology); collagen 1 (1:100 dilution), collagen 4 (1:100 dilution), CD31 (1:100 dilution), and CD34 (1:100 dilution; all from Abcam, Cambridge, MA); and Tie-2 (1:80 dilution) and Myc (1:100 dilution; both from Santa Cruz Biotechnology).

Quantitative real-time detection PCR

Total RNA was isolated from frozen liver tissue samples using a GenElute Mammalian Total RNA Miniprep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich) according to the manufacturer's protocol. cDNA was synthesized from 100 ng total RNA using a high-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems) then mixed with the TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) and each TaqMan probe. TaqMan probes used were PDGFR- α/β , VEGFR1/2, α -SMA, collagen 1/4, β -catenin, CyclinD1, and Myc (Applied Biosystems). Relative expression levels were calculated after normalization to glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH).

Western blotting

Western blotting was conducted as described previously (20). Whole-cell lysates from mouse liver were prepared and lysed by CelLytic MT cell lysis reagent (Sigma-Aldrich) containing Complete Mini EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor cocktail tablets (Roche). Cytoplasmic and nuclear protein extracts were prepared using the NE-PER nuclear extraction reagent kit (Pierce Biotechnology). Primary antibodies used were PDGFR- α (1:1,000 dilution), PDGFR- β (1:1,000 dilution), VEGFR2 (1:1,000 dilution), p44/42 MAPK (1:1,000 dilution), total AKT (1:1,000 dilution), p-p44/42 MAPK (1:1,000 dilution), p-AKT (Ser473; 1:1,000 dilution), p-AKT (Thr308; 1:1,000 dilution), β -catenin (1:2,000 dilution), cyclin D1 (1:400 dilution), and lamin A/C (1:1,000 dilution; all Cell Signaling Technology); α -SMA (1:200 dilution; DAKO); 4-HNE (1:200 dilution; NOF); and GAPDH (1:1,000 dilution) and Myc (1:1,000 dilution; both Santa Cruz).

Statistical analysis

Results are expressed as mean \pm SD. Significance was tested by 1-way analysis of variance with Bonferroni's method, and differences were considered statistically significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Peretinoin prevented the development of hepatic fibrosis in *Pdgf-c Tg*

To evaluate the HCC chemopreventive effects of peretinoin, we used a mouse model of *Pdgf-c Tg* in which PDGF-C is expressed under the control of the albumin promoter (7). Experimental mice were male mice expressing the PDGF-C transgene (*Pdgf-c Tg*); whereas male mice not expressing the transgene were considered WT. After weaning at week 4, *Pdgf-c Tg* or nontransgenic WT mice were fed a basal diet or a diet containing 0.03% or 0.06% peretinoin. At week 20, mice were sacrificed to analyze the progression of hepatic fibrosis. At week 48, mice were sacrificed to analyze the development of hepatic tumors (Fig. 1A). At week 20, Azan staining showed that predominant pericellular fibrosis had developed in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice (Fig. 1B). Densitometric analysis showed a significant dose-dependent reduction in the size of the fibrotic area in mice that received a diet containing peretinoin at both weeks 20 and 48 (Fig. 1C). Peretinoin

therefore efficiently repressed the development of hepatic fibrosis in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice.

The expression of fibrosis-related genes in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice was evaluated by IHC staining, quantitative real-time detection PCR (RTD-PCR), and Western blotting. The expression of PDGFR- α and PDGFR- β , essential receptors for intracellular PDGF-C signaling, was upregulated mainly in the intracellular or portal area in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice livers (Fig. 2), but was significantly repressed by peretinoin after weaning at week 4. Similarly, the expression of collagen 1, collagen 4, and desmin was significantly upregulated in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice, but repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 2 and Supplementary Fig. S1A).

RTD-PCR results confirmed that these genes were substantially upregulated in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice and significantly repressed by both 0.03% and 0.06% peretinoin (Fig. 3A). Western blotting showed that the expression of phosphorylated extracellular signal-regulated kinase (p-ERK) 1/2 and cyclin D1, representative markers of the cell proliferation signaling pathway, was upregulated in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice, and repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 3B). Thus, peretinoin could partially but significantly prevent the development of hepatic fibrosis in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice during the study observation period of 48 weeks.

Peretinoin prevented the development of HCC in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice

At week 48, *Pdgf-c Tg* mice developed hepatic tumors with an incidence of 90% (Fig. 4A). Histologic assessment of these tumors verified that 54% (15/28) were adenomas and 46% (13/28) were HCC (Fig. 4A and C and Supplementary Fig. S2; ref. 21). Peretinoin (0.03%) dose-dependently repressed the incidence of hepatic tumors to 53% (19/36) and to 29% (5/17) at 0.06%. Correlating with tumor incidence, maximum tumor size and liver weight were also significantly repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 4B). Thus, peretinoin repressed the development of hepatic tumors in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice.

Serial gene expression profiling in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice that developed hepatic fibrosis and tumors

To examine which signaling pathways were altered during the progression of hepatic fibrosis and tumor development, we analyzed gene expression profiling in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice using Affymetrix gene chips. By filtering criteria for $P < 0.001$ and more than 2-fold differences, 538 genes were selected as differentially expressed. One-way hierarchical clustering analysis of differentially expressed genes is shown in Supplementary Fig. S3.

Of the 3 main clusters, 2 were upregulated (clusters A and B) and 1 was downregulated (cluster C). Cluster A consisted of immune-related [chemokine (C-C motif) receptor (CCR)4, CCR2, toll-like receptor (TLR)3 and TLR4], apoptosis-related [caspase (CASP)1 and CASP9], angiogenesis- and/or growth factor-related (PDGF-C, VEGF-C, osteopontin, HGF), oncogene-related [*v-ets* erythroblastosis virus E26 oncogene homologue (Ets)1, Ets2, CD44, N-myc downstream-regulated (NDRG)1], and fibrosis-related (tubulin) genes. The expression of cluster A genes was further upregulated in tumors at week

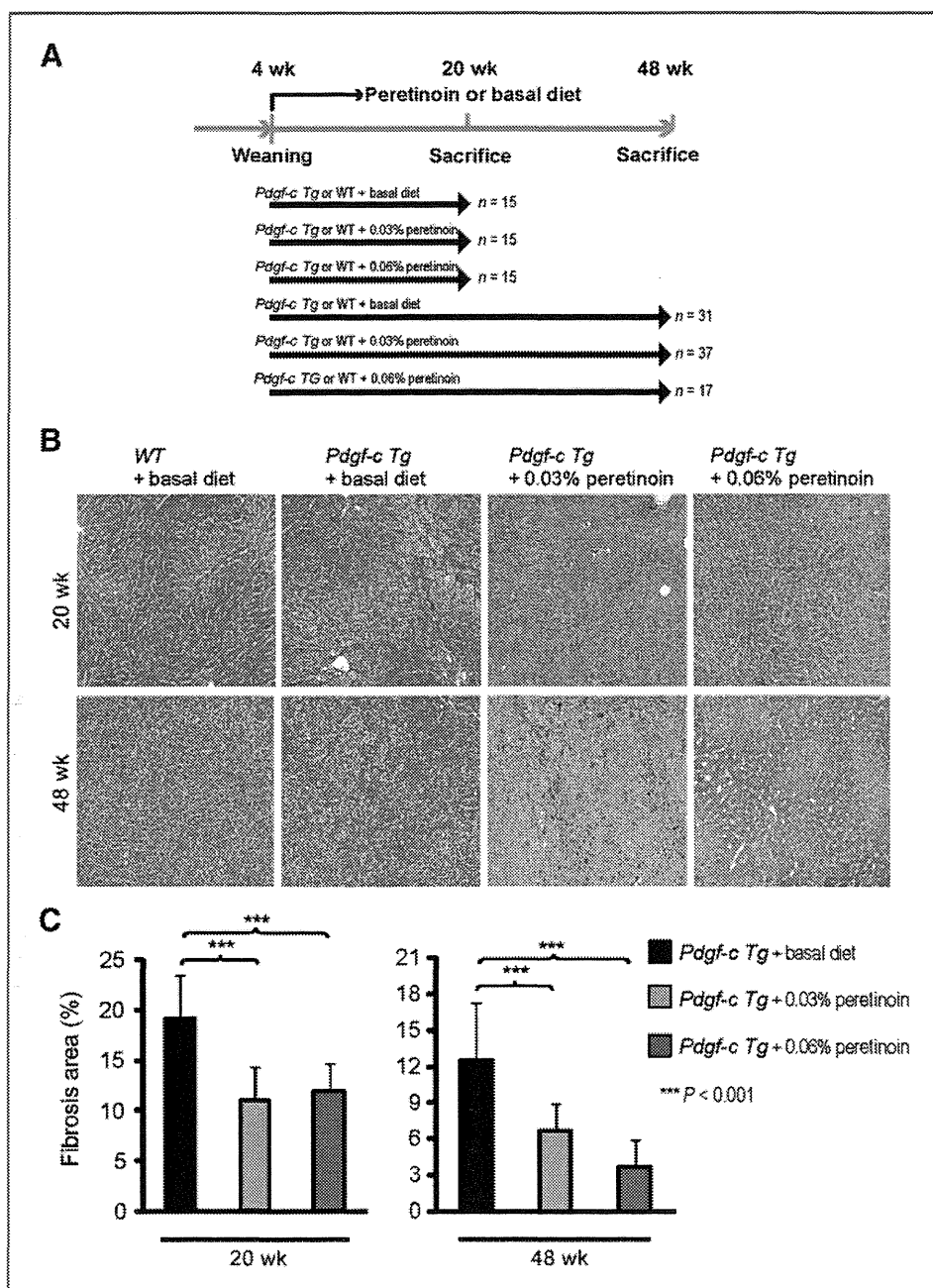


Figure 1. A, feeding schedule of *Pdgf-c Tg* and WT mice. After weaning, male mice were randomly divided into 3 groups: (i) *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice receiving basal diet, (ii) *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice receiving 0.03% peretinoin-containing diet, and (iii) *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice receiving 0.06% peretinoin-containing diet. B, Azan staining of WT or *Pdgf-c Tg* mouse livers fed with different diets at 20 weeks and 48 weeks. C, densitometric analysis of *Pdgf-c Tg* mouse liver fibrotic areas at 20 weeks ($n = 15$) and 48 weeks ($n = 15$).

48. Cluster B consisted mainly of connective tissue- and/or fibrosis-related [vascular cell adhesion molecule (VCAM)1, collagen I, III, IV, V, VI, integrin, decorin, TGF- β RII, PDGFR- α , and PDGFR- β] genes, the expression of which declined slightly at week 48. In contrast, cluster C, containing differentiation and liver function related genes [cytochrome P450, family 2, subfamily c (CYP2C)], were downregulated during the course of hepatic fibrosis and tumor development (Sup-

plementary Fig. S4). Cluster C included xenobiotic- and metabolic process-related genes, which are potential targets of peretinoin. Peretinoin treatment prevented hepatic fibrosis and it preserved liver function. In addition, peretinoin might induce its target genes. Thus, peretinoin reduced the expression of upregulated genes (clusters A and B) and restored the expression of downregulated genes (cluster C) at both weeks 20 and 48 (Supplementary Figs. S3 and S4).

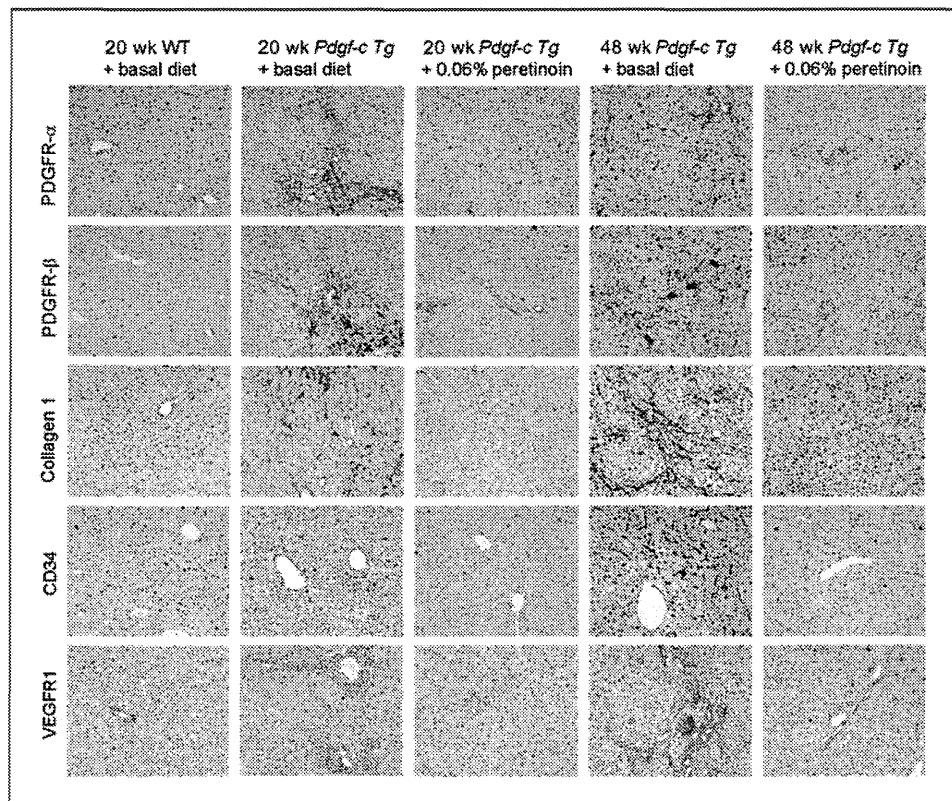


Figure 2. IHC staining of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , collagen 1, CD34, and VEGFR1 expression in *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mouse livers fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin.

To examine the molecular network consisting of differentially expressed genes in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice with or without peretinoin administration, the direct interactions of 513 genes were analyzed by MetaCore (i.e., 413 genes were downregulated and 100 genes were upregulated in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice treated with peretinoin compared with untreated mice; $P < 0.002$). A core gene network consisting of 41 genes was obtained (Supplementary Fig. S5) including interactions between representative growth factors, receptors (PDGFR and TGF β R), and transcriptional factors. Of these genes, the transcriptional factors Sp1 and Ap1 seem to be key regulators in the network (Supplementary Fig. S5).

Peretinoin inhibits PDGFR *in vitro*

Gene expression profiling landscaped the dynamic changes of signaling pathways in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice. To determine the effects of peretinoin *in vitro*, primary HSCs from normal C57BL/6J mice were stimulated by PDGF-C (Fig. 5) to induce the expression of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , alpha smooth muscle actin (α -SMA), and collagen 1a2; activated HSCs thus transformed into myofibroblasts (Fig. 5A and B). Peretinoin significantly reduced the expression of these genes and inhibited HSC activation.

We next evaluated the effects of peretinoin on human hepatoma cell lines (Huh-7, HepG2, and HLE), mouse embryonic fibroblast cells (NIH3T3), HUVECs, and Lx-2 (ref. 22; Supplementary Fig. S6A). Experimental conditions were optimized so that more than 90% of cells were variable at 20 μ mol/L peretinoin, as determined by an MTS cell prolifer-

ation assay (data not shown). Peretinoin dose-dependently inhibited the expression of PDGFR- α and PDGFR- β in Huh-7, HepG2, HLE, NIH3T3, HUVEC, and Lx-2 cells, whereas no obvious expression of PDGFR- α was observed in HepG2 cells and HUVECs (Supplementary Fig. S6A). Peretinoin also inhibited VEGFR2 expression in HUVEC. These results were confirmed by RTD-PCR (data not shown). Correlating with these results, the expression of phosphorylated serine/threonine kinase AKT (p-AKT) and p-ERK1/2, downstream signaling molecules of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , and VEGFR2, was also dose-dependently repressed. The expression of collagen 1a2 was significantly repressed by peretinoin in Lx-2, HLE, and Huh-7 cells (Supplementary Fig. S6B). These results suggest that peretinoin may inhibit hepatic fibrosis, angiogenesis, and tumor growth through reduction of the PDGF and VEGF signaling pathway.

We examined the expression of 2 key regulators in peretinoin signaling, Sp1 and Ap1, in Huh-7 cells. Interestingly, the expression of Sp1 was decreased, which correlates with that of PDGFR- α , whereas expression of phosphorylated c-Jun (p-c-Jun) was increased in Huh-7 cells (Supplementary Fig. S6C). Therefore, peretinoin seems to repress the expression of PDGFR, partially through the inhibition of Sp1.

Peretinoin inhibits hepatic angiogenesis in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice

The effect of peretinoin on liver angiogenesis in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice was further analyzed. IHC staining of *Pdgf-c Tg* mouse

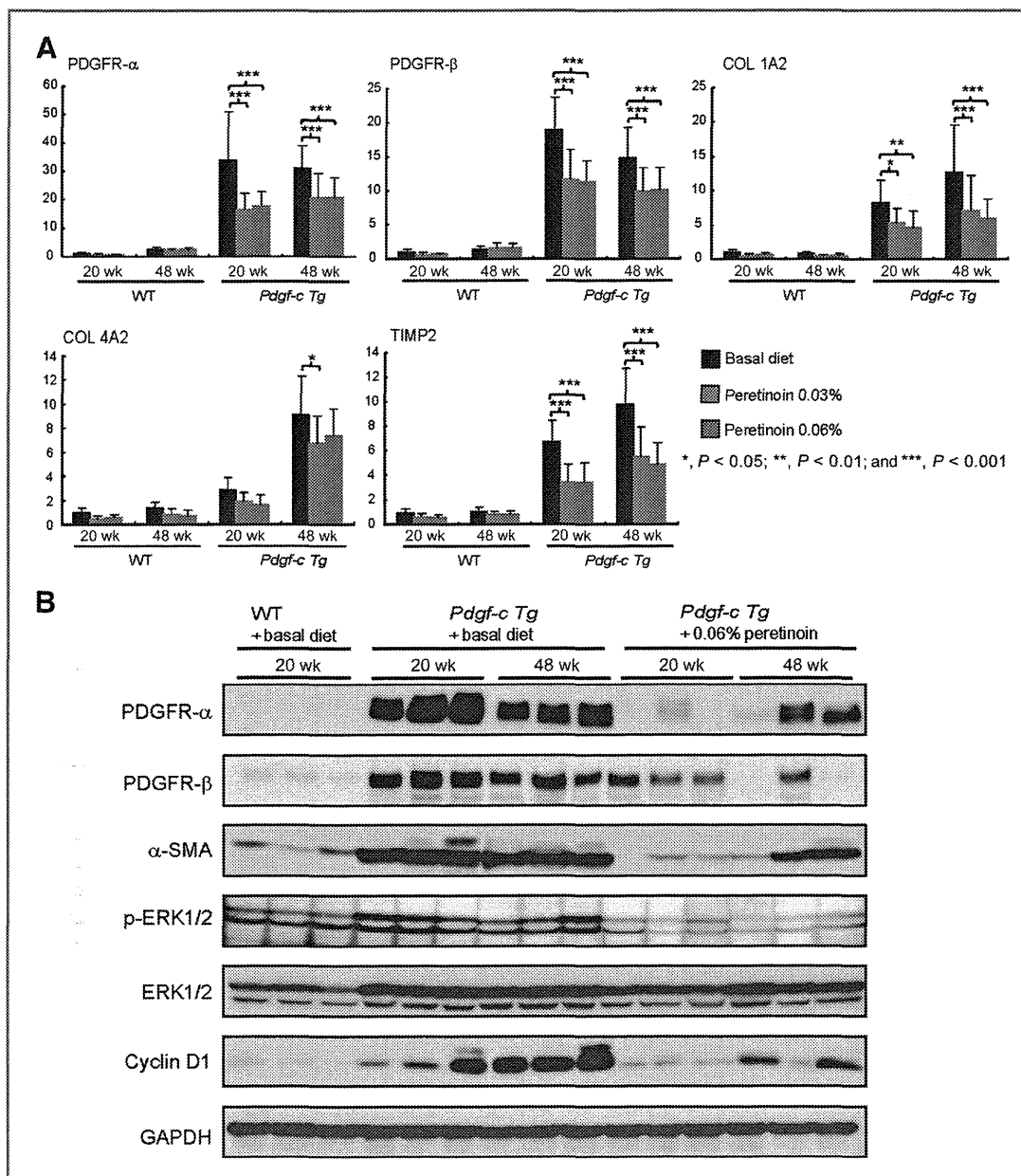


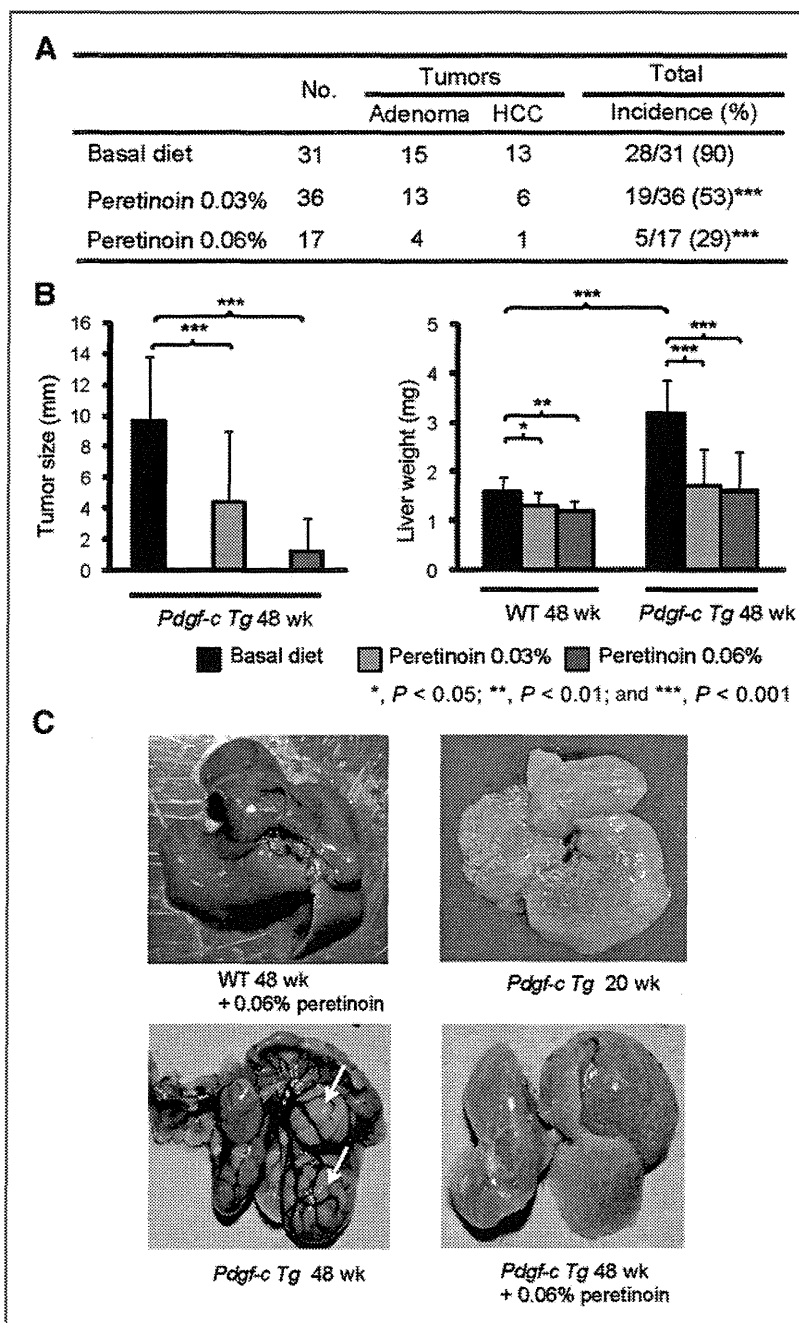
Figure 3. A, RTD-PCR analysis of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , collagen (COL) 1a2, collagen 4a2, and TIMP2 expression in *Pdgfr-c Tg* ($n = 5$) or WT mouse livers ($n = 15$). B, Western blotting of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , α -SMA, p-ERK, ERK, cyclin D1, and GAPDH expression in PDGF-C Tg or WT mouse livers fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin at 20 or 48 weeks ($n = 3$).

livers at weeks 20 and 48 revealed overexpression of the endothelial markers CD31 and CD34 and the endothelial growth factors VEGFR1 and endothelium-specific receptor tyrosine kinase 2 (Tie2) in the mesenchymal region (Fig. 6 and Supplementary Fig. S1A). This expression was significantly repressed by peretinoin as determined by the densitometric area (Supplemental Fig. S1B). RTD-PCR results revealed significant upregulation of VEGFR1 (Flt-1) in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice compared with WT mice at both weeks 20 and 48, whereas the expression of VEGFR2 (Flk-1) and Tie2 was only upregulated at week 48. The expression of these genes was significantly

repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 6A). Western blotting confirmed the upregulation of CD31 and VEGFR1 (Flk-1) at week 48 (Fig. 6B). In addition, p-AKT (Thr 308 and Ser 473) and 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal (4-HNE), an oxidative stress marker, were upregulated in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice and repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 6B).

We also assessed circulating endothelial cells (CEC), a useful biomarker for angiogenesis in the blood, and found that the CD31⁺/CD34⁺ CEC population was significantly upregulated in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice at week 48 but significantly repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 6C and D). Thus, peretinoin

Figure 4. A, incidence of hepatic tumors (adenoma or HCC) in *Pdgf-c Tg* mouse livers fed with different diets. B, tumor sizes and liver weights of *Pdgf-c Tg* and WT mice fed with basal diet ($n = 31$ for *Pdgf-c Tg*, $n = 15$ for WT mice) or 0.03% ($n = 36$ for *Pdgf-c Tg*, $n = 15$ for WT mice) and 0.06% ($n = 17$ for *Pdgf-c Tg*, $n = 15$ for WT mice) peretinoin at 48 weeks. C, macroscopic findings of *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mouse livers. No obvious change was observed in the liver of WT mice fed with 0.06% peretinoin for 48 weeks (top left). Fibrosis and steatosis were observed in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed a basal diet for 20 weeks (top right). Multiple tumors developed (white arrows) in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed a basal diet for 48 weeks (bottom left). Suppression of tumor development in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed a 0.06% peretinoin diet for 48 weeks (bottom right).



seems to inhibit angiogenesis in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice, which might prevent the development of hepatic tumors.

Peretinoin inhibits canonical Wnt/ β -catenin signaling in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice

The activation of the Wnt/ β -catenin signaling pathway is seen in 17% to 40% of patients with primary HCC (23, 24). Moreover, recent reports suggested an interaction between PDGF signaling and Wnt/ β -catenin signaling (25–27). We evaluated Wnt/ β -catenin signaling in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice

and showed by IHC staining that β -catenin was overexpressed in the submembrane at week 48 (Fig. 7A). Peretinoin significantly reduced this expression (Fig. 7A and B), and Western blotting revealed that accumulation of β -catenin in the nuclear fraction of liver tumor tissues was more preferentially repressed by peretinoin than in the cytoplasmic fraction, although expression was repressed in both fractions (Fig. 7C). Wnt ligand (Wnt5a) and frizzled receptor (Fzd1) expression was significantly upregulated in hepatic tumors compared with normal liver (Fig. 7D). These results together suggest that canonical Wnt/ β -catenin

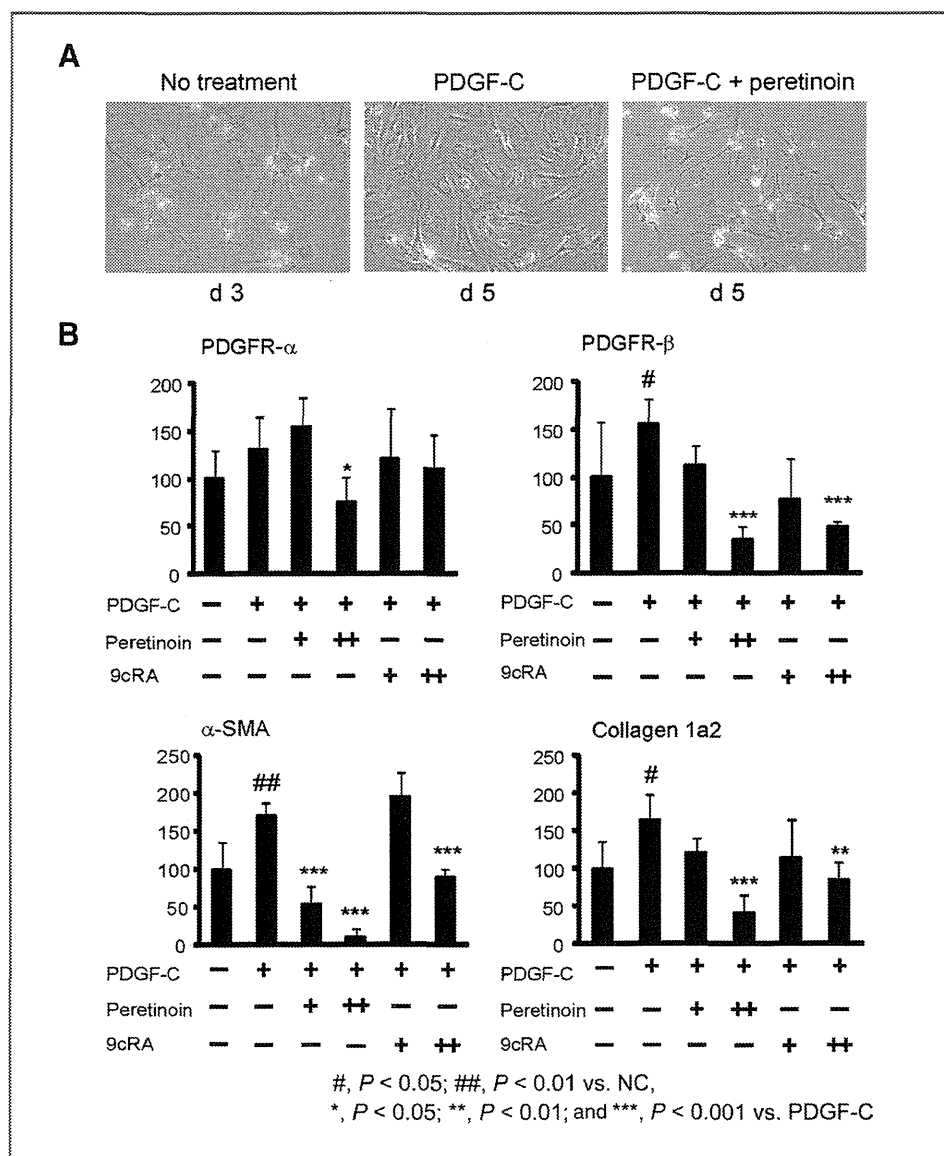


Figure 5. A, microscopic view of freshly isolated primary mouse HSCs after PDGF-C transformation into myofibroblasts (left). Peretinoin inhibited the transformation of HSCs by PDGF-C. B, RTD-PCR analysis of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , α -SMA, and collagen 1a2 expression in HSCs treated with or without PDGF-C, peretinoin, and 9cRA ($n = 4$). PDGF-C (+), 80 ng/mL; peretinoin (+), 5 μ mol/L; (++) , 10 μ mol/L; 9cRA (+), 5 μ mol/L; (++) , 10 μ mol/L. NC, no control.

signaling is activated in hepatic tumors and repressed by peretinoin.

Growth factors such as PDGF or HGF potentially activate Wnt/ β -catenin signaling (26, 28), which promotes cancer progression and metastasis. We evaluated whether such growth factor signaling could be repressed by peretinoin in hepatic tumors. The expression of c-myc, β -catenin, Tie2, Fit-1, and Flk-1 were significantly upregulated from 1.5- to 4-fold in hepatic tumors compared with normal liver, and this expression was significantly repressed by peretinoin. Similarly, the expression of PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , collagen 1a2, collagen 4a2, tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 2 (TIMP2), and cyclin D1 was substantially upregulated from 5- to 15-fold in hepatic tumors, and significantly repressed by peretinoin (Fig. 7D). Thus, growth factor signaling as well as canonical Wnt/ β -catenin signaling in hepatic tumors seems to be repressed by peretinoin. These results explain

the inhibitory effect of peretinoin in the development of HCC in *Pdgf-c* *Tg* mice.

Discussion

HCC often develops in association with liver cirrhosis and its high recurrence rate leads to poor patient prognosis. Indeed, the 10-year recurrence-free survival rate after liver resection for HCC with curative intent was shown to be only 20% (29). Therefore, there is a pressing need to develop effective preventive therapy for HCC recurrence to improve its prognosis.

Peretinoin, a member of the acyclic retinoid family, is expected to be an effective chemopreventive drug for HCC (11, 12, 30) as shown by a previous phase II/III trial in which 600 mg peretinoin per day in the Child-Pugh A subgroup reduced the risk of HCC recurrence or death by 40% [HR = 0.60 (95% CI, 0.40–0.89); ref. 31]. However, further clinical

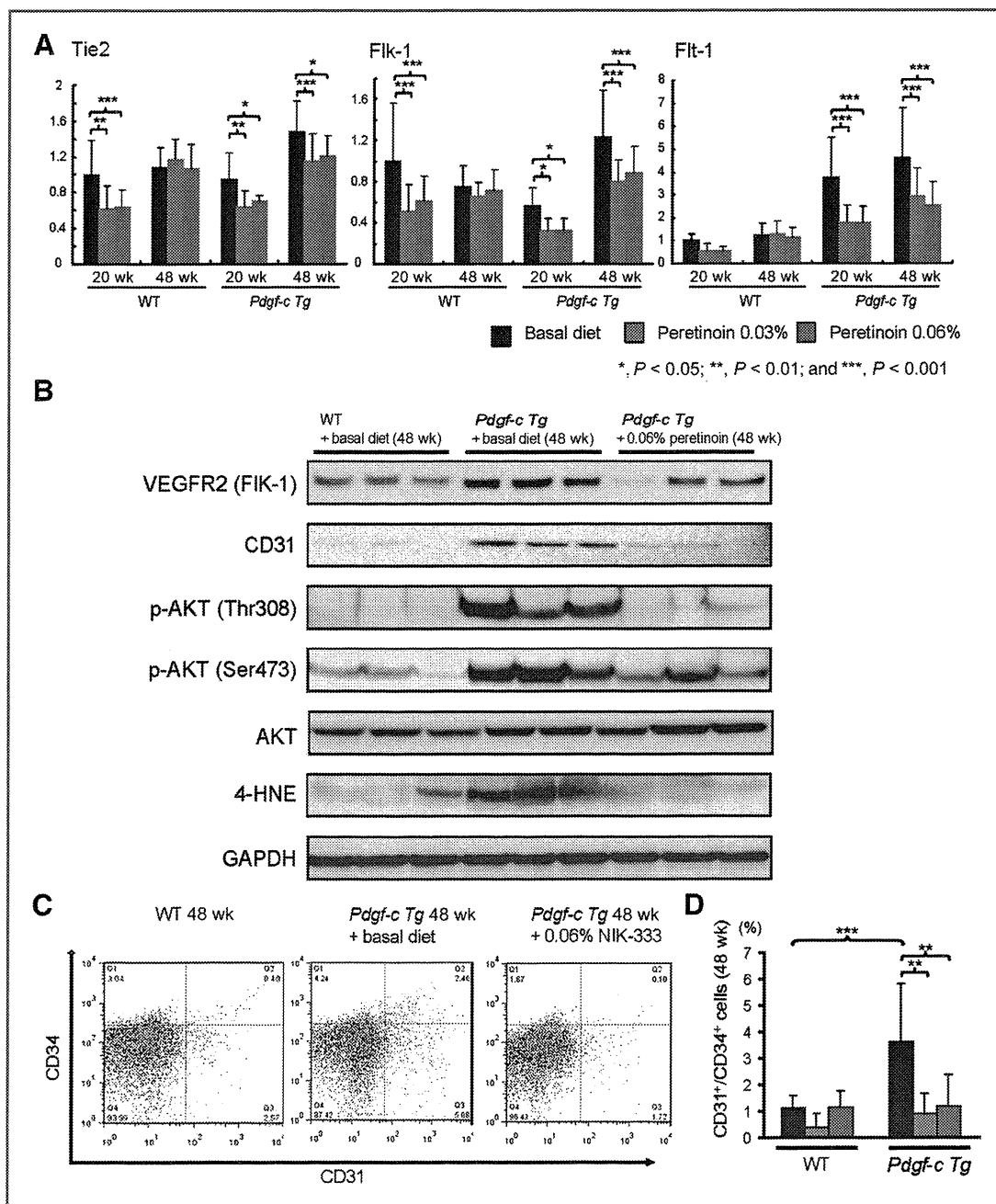


Figure 6. A, RTD-PCR analysis of Tie2, Fik-1, and Flt-1 expression in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* and WT mice fed with different diets ($n = 15$). B, Western blotting of Fik-1, CD31, p-AKT (Thr 308, Ser473), AKT, 4-HNE, and GAPDH expression in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin at 48 weeks ($n = 3$). C, fluorescence-activated cell-sorting analysis of CD31- and CD34-positive CEC in blood of *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin at 48 weeks. D, frequency of CD31- and CD34-positive CEC in blood of *Pdgf-c Tg* or WT mice fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin at 48 weeks ($n = 10$).

studies are needed to confirm the clinical efficacy of peretinoin, and a large scale study involving several countries is currently being planned.

During the course of chronic hepatitis, nonparenchymal cells including Kupffer, endothelial and activated stellate cells release a variety of cytokines and growth factors that might accelerate hepatocarcinogenesis. Although peretinoin has

been shown to suppress the growth of HCC-derived cells by inducing apoptosis and differentiation (32–35), increasing p21 and reducing cyclin D1 (13), limited data have been published about its effects on hepatic mesenchymal cells such as stellate cells and endothelial cells (14).

In parallel with a phase II/III trial, we conducted a pharmacokinetics study of peretinoin focusing on 12

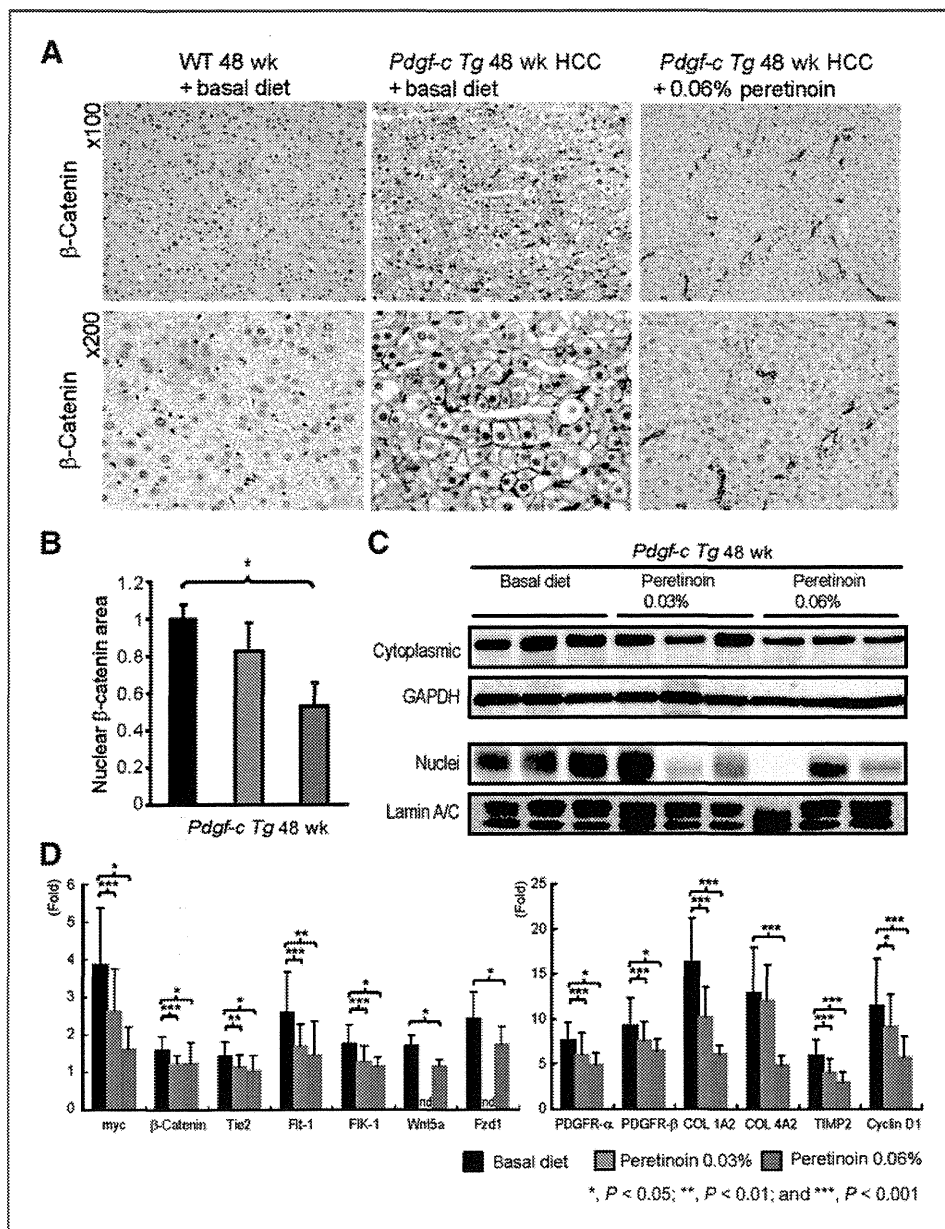


Figure 7. A, IHC staining of β -catenin expression in HCC tissues of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed a basal diet or 0.06% peretinoin at 48 weeks. B, densitometric analysis of β -catenin expression in the liver of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed with different diets ($n = 15$ for basal diet, $n = 15$ for 0.03% peretinoin, $n = 5$ for 0.06% peretinoin). C, Western blotting of β -catenin expression in cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions of *Pdgf-c Tg* mouse livers fed with different diets. GAPDH was used to standardize cytoplasmic protein and lamin A/C to standardize nuclear protein ($n = 3$). D, RTD-PCR analysis of myc, β -catenin, Tie2, Flt-1, Flk-1, Wnt5a, Fzd1, PDGFR- α , PDGFR- β , collagen (COL) 1a2, collagen 4a2, TIMP2, and cyclin D1 expression in HCC tissues of *Pdgf-c Tg* mice fed with different diets ($n = 15$ for basal diet, $n = 15$ for 0.03% peretinoin, $n = 5$ for 0.06% peretinoin). Relative fold expressions compared with WT mice are shown.

patients with CH-C and HCC to monitor the biological behavior of peretinoin in the liver. Gene expression profiling during peretinoin administration revealed that HCC recurrence within 2 years could be predicted and that PDGF-C expression was one of the strongest predictors. In addition, other genes related to angiogenesis, cancer stem cell and tumor progression were downregulated, whereas expression of genes related to hepatocyte differentiation and tumor suppression was upregulated by peretinoin (data not shown). Moreover, a recent report revealed the emerging significance of PDGF-C-mediated angiogenic and tumorigenic properties (7, 8, 36). In this study, we therefore used the mouse model of *Pdgf-c Tg*, which displays the phenotypes of hepatic fibrosis, steatosis, and HCC development

that resemble human HCC arising from chronic hepatitis usually associated with advanced hepatic fibrosis.

We showed that peretinoin effectively inhibits the progression of hepatic fibrosis and tumors in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice (Figs. 1 and 4). Affymetrix gene chips analysis revealed dynamic changes in hepatic gene expression (Supplementary Fig. S3), which were confirmed by IHC staining, RTD-PCR and Western blotting. Pathway analysis of differentially expressed genes suggested that the transcriptional regulators Sp1 and Ap1 are key regulators in the peretinoin inhibition of hepatic fibrosis and tumor development in *Pdgf-c Tg* mice (Supplementary Fig. S5).

We clearly showed that peretinoin inhibited PDGF signaling through the inhibition of PDGFRs (Figs. 2 and 3). In

addition, we showed that PDGFR repression by peretinoin inhibited primary stellate cell activation (Fig. 5). Interestingly, this inhibitory effect was more pronounced than the effects of 9cRA (Fig. 5B). Normal mouse and human hepatocytes neither express PDGF receptors (J.S. Campbell and N. Fausto, unpublished data), nor proliferate in response to treatment with PDGF ligands (7). However, peretinoin inhibited the expression of PDGFRs, collagens, and their downstream signaling molecules in cell lines of hepatoma (Huh-7, HepG2, and HLE), fibroblast (NIH3T3), endothelial cells (HUVEC), and stellate cells (Lx-2; Supplementary Fig. S6). Furthermore, Sp1 but not Ap1, might be involved in the repression of PDGFR- α in Huh-7 cells (Supplementary Fig. 6C). The over-expression of Sp1-activated PDGFR- α promoter activity, whereas siRNA knockdown of Sp1 repressed PDGFR- α promoter activity in Huh-7 cells (data not shown). Therefore, this seems to confirm that Sp1 is involved in the regulation of PDGFR, as reported previously (37, 38), although these findings should be further investigated in different cell lines. A recent report showed the involvement of transglutaminase 2, caspase3, and Sp1 in peretinoin signaling (35).

Peretinoin was shown to inhibit angiogenesis in the liver of *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice in this study, as shown by the decreased expression of VEGFR1/2 and Tie 2 (Figs. 2 and 6 and Supplementary Fig. S1). Moreover, peretinoin inhibited the number of CD31⁺ and CD34⁺ endothelial cells (CEC) in the blood and liver (Fig. 6C and D), while also inhibiting the expression of EGFR, c-kit, PDGFRs, and VEGFR1/2 in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice (data not shown). We also showed that peretinoin inhibited the expression of multiple growth factors such as HGF, IGF, VEGF, PDGF, and HDGF, which were upregulated from 3- to 10-fold in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice (Supplementary Fig. S3). These activities collectively might contribute to the antitumor effect of peretinoin in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice. The inhibition of both PDGFRs and VEGFR signaling by peretinoin was previously shown to have a significant effect on tumor growth (36), and we confirmed herein that peretinoin inhibited the expression of VEGFR2 in HUVECs (Supplementary Fig. S6; ref. 39). Finally, we showed that peretinoin inhibited canonical Wnt/ β -catenin signaling by showing the decreased nuclear accumulation of β -catenin (Fig. 7). These data confirm the previous hypothesis of transrepression of the β -catenin promoter by 9cRA *in vitro* (40).

Although we showed that the PDGF signaling pathway is a target of peretinoin for preventing the development of hepatic fibrosis and tumors in mice, retinoid-inducing genes such as GOS2 (41), TGM2 (35), CEBPA (42), ATF, TP53BP, metallothionein 1H (MT1H), MT2A, and hemopexin (HPX) were upregulated in peretinoin-treated mice (data not shown). These canonical retinoid pathways are likely to participate in preventing disease progression in conjunction with anti-PDGF effects.

The precise mechanism of peretinoin toxicity, in which 5% of mice treated with 0.06% peretinoin died after 24 weeks of treatment, is currently under investigation. These mice showed severe osteopenia and we speculate that the toxicity might be caused by retinoid-induced osteopenia, as observed in a hypervitaminosis A rat model (43). However, the toxicity of prolonged treatment with oral retinoids in humans remains controversial (44) and severe osteopenia has so far only been seen in a rodent model.

In summary, we show that peretinoin effectively inhibits hepatic fibrosis and HCC development in *Pdgfr-c Tg* mice. Further studies are needed to elucidate the detailed molecular mechanisms of peretinoin action and the effect of peretinoin on PDGF-C in human HCC. The recently developed multi-kinase inhibitor Sorafenib (BAY 43-9006, Nexavar) was shown to improve the prognosis of patients with advanced HCC (45). Promisingly, a phase II/III trial of peretinoin showed it to be safe and well tolerated (46). Therefore, combinatorial therapy that incorporates the use of small molecule inhibitors with peretinoin may be beneficial to some patients. The application of peretinoin during pre- or early-fibrosis stage could be beneficial in preventing the progression of fibrosis and subsequent development of HCC in patients with chronic liver disease.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

Authors' Contributions

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