

4.3. Possibility of iPS Cell-Derived Hepatocytes as a Cell Source for Drug Screening and In Vitro Hepatic Disease Model

The CYP superfamily plays a key role in the detoxification and metabolic activation of various endogenous and exogenous compounds, such as drugs, carcinogens, and environmental chemicals [73]. Therefore, in drug screening, it is crucial to induce CYP activity in iPS cell-derived hepatocytes. A majority of reports showed that iPS cell-derived hepatocytes express CYPs such as CYP1A1, 1A2, 2A6, 2B4, 2D6, 3A4, and 7A1 at mRNA and/or protein levels (Table 2). Furthermore, it was also demonstrated in several reports that iPS cell-derived hepatocytes exhibited the enzymatic activities of CYP1A2 and/or CYP3A4, which are the key enzymes in drug metabolism. However, as discussed in the next section, the levels of CYP activities of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes have not yet been sufficient for drug screening.

The technique of generating hepatocytes from patient-specific iPS cells could provide useful platforms for drug discovery and offer unprecedented insights into liver disease mechanisms. Rashid *et al.* and Ghodsizadeh *et al.* proved for the first time that it was possible to derive iPS cells from patients suffering from inherited metabolic disorders: alpha1-

antitrypsin deficiency (A1ATD), familial hypercholesterolemia (FH), glycogen storage disease type 1a (GSD1a) [60], GSD1b, tyrosinemia, progressive familial hereditary cholestasis, and Crigler-Najjar syndrome [62] (Table 3).

Importantly, Rashid *et al.* demonstrated that these disease-specific iPS cell-derived hepatocytes recapitulated key pathological features of the diseases, such as aggregation of misfolded α 1-antitrypsin in the endoplasmic reticulum, deficient LDL receptor-mediated cholesterol uptake, and elevated lipid and glycogen accumulation [60]. These findings suggest that human iPS cells can be used to model a diverse range of inherited diseases in adult cells.

Generating hepatocyte-derived iPS cells is also crucial, since certain liver diseases involve acquired somatic mutations that occur only in the hepatocytes of patients and not in other cell types [74-78]. So far, human iPS cells have been produced mostly from mesoderm (fibroblasts and blood cells) [10,14,15,79,80] or ectoderm (keratinocytes and neural stem cells) [81,82].

Liu *et al.*, for the first time, generated human iPS cells from adult hepatocytes, and demonstrated that these cells were able to directly differentiate into definitive endoderm, hepatic progenitors, and mature hepatocytes [57]

Table 3. Generation of liver disease-specific iPS cells and their hepatic differentiation

Phenotype of disease	Hepatic differentiation	Recapitulation of symptoms	Reference
α 1-antitrypsin deficiency	Yes.	Yes. Aggregation of misfolded mutant α 1-antitrypsin in the endoplasmic reticulum.	[60]
Glycogen storage disease type 1a	Yes.	Yes. Elevated cellular lipid and glycogen accumulation.	[60]
familial hypercholesterolemia	Yes.	Yes. Deficient LDL receptor-mediated cholesterol uptake.	[60]
Hereditary tyrosinemia type 1	Not determined.	Not determined.	[60]
Crigler-Najjar syndrome type 1	Not determined.	Not determined.	[60]
Tyrosinemia type 1	Yes.	Not determined.	[62]
Glycogen storage type 1b	Yes.	Not determined.	[62]
Progressive familial hereditary cholestasis	Not determined.	Not determined.	[62]
Crigler-Najjar Syndrome	Yes.	Not determined.	[62]

In addition, their report offers an insight toward comprehensive comparative investigations of the quality of human iPS cells of different origins.

4.4. Comparison among ES Cell-Derived Hepatocytes, iPS Cell-Derived Hepatocytes, and Primary Hepatocytes

Some of the reports described above compared human iPS cell-derived hepatocytes with ES cell derived-hepatocytes in liver-enriched gene expression and liver-specific functions.

These reports indicated that iPS cells behave similarly to ES cells in endodermal induction in terms of morphological assessment and gene expression profiles [52,53].

In addition, the patterns and the levels of hepatic functions of human iPS cell-derived hepatocytes were similar to those of ES cell-derived hepatocytes [52,53,58]. Si-Tayeb *et al.* performed array analyses and demonstrated that iPS cell-derived hepatocytes expressed the same hepatocyte mRNA fingerprint that was found for human ES cell-derived hepatocytes [53].

Of note, however, the expression levels and functional levels of hepatic markers of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes were lower in most cases when compared with adult liver samples. Human iPS and ES cells expressed liver-enriched genes including α 1-antitrypsin, TDO2, CYP2A6, CYP3A4, and phase I and phase II enzymes at lower levels than human hepatocytes [52,53].

Song *et al.* showed that the CYP activities of the differentiated human iPS and ES cells were nearly 30-fold lower than those of human hepatocytes either at basal level or after drug induction [52].

These results suggest that although hepatocyte-like cells derived from both human ES or iPS cells have differentiated to a state that supports many hepatic activities, they do not entirely recapitulate mature liver function.

Therefore, it seems essential to improve the final maturation stage in order to allow ES and iPS cell-derived hepatocytes to acquire full hepatic functions.

5. Challenging Issues in Application of iPS Cell-Derived Hepatocytes

So far, we have reviewed the potential of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes as a promising cell source for cell replacement therapy, drug screening, and disease model. However, before their use, hurdles remain that need to be cleared. Here, we will mainly discuss the issues that challenge their therapeutic application. We will also discuss possible challenges to the application of iPS cells to drug screening as well as to disease model.

5.1. Cell Replacement Therapy

First, a therapeutic application of iPS cells involves the risk of teratoma formation. As with ES cells, even a small number of undifferentiated iPS cells can form a teratoma. In addition, recently, iPS cells have been demonstrated to develop teratoma more efficiently and faster than human ES cells [83]. Thus, for a cell replacement therapy, it is essential to establish a method to direct iPS cells to differentiated cells as thoroughly as possible. In particular, this issue is a serious problem in hepatocyte transplantation therapy, which requires an extremely large amount of hepatocytes [1].

Second, the generation of iPS cells involves genetic modification, which could possibly give rise to obstacles in several aspects. Most reprogramming methods have used retroviruses or lentiviruses, which involve transgene integration. Although transgenes are largely silenced in iPS cells, it is possible that reactivation of transgenes causes tumorigenesis. Furthermore, insertional mutagenesis which can occur after the integration of heterologous genetic material into the genome, significantly increases the risk of tumorigenesis. Even though it is possible to circumvent transgene integration for generating iPS cells [18-23], there remains the risk that such iPS cells may contain other genetic alterations such as integration of small plasmid fragments or chemically induced mutations [84]. Another problem in cell replacement therapy involving genetic correction of patient-specific iPS cells is the potential immunological consequences [85]. Autologous iPS cells are devoid of alloreactivity. However, the

absence of the corrected gene products would preclude the induction of self-tolerance during T cell repertoire collection, which would cause a T cell attack against the autologous iPS cell derivatives.

Third, the molecular and cellular characteristics of iPS cells have not been fully understood, which might cause unpredictable accidents in a future clinical application. The criteria for quality control of generated iPS cells should be the similarities to ES cells, since ES cells are natural and authentic pluripotent stem cells. Although iPS cells have similarity to ES cells in their morphology, expression of important ES cell marker genes, and their ability to form teratomas, it remains unclear whether they have truly identical properties. Gene expression signatures and microRNA profiling have demonstrated iPS cells and ES cells to be distinguishable [86,87]. Several studies have also shown that iPS cells differ from ES cells epigenetically [88,89]. Pick *et al.* studied the imprinting gene expression pattern of multiple human iPS cells, and demonstrated that iPS cells exhibited the presence of genes that showed aberrant expression levels, namely biallelic expression of several imprinting genes [89]. Another concern is the variation in the safety of iPS cells. Miura *et al.* evaluated the teratoma-forming propensity of secondary neurospheres (SNS) generated from iPS cell lines derived from different tissues in different ways, and found that the teratoma-forming propensities of SNS varied significantly depending on the iPS cells' tissue of origin [90]. It will be important to correlate these differences with the ways these iPS cells behave, and answer questions such as which ones are more stable and which ones form tumors more efficiently. In addition, for any future clinical application of iPS cells it is crucial to further understand the molecular characteristics underlying their various propensities and their differences from ES cells.

5.2. Drug Screening

Drug screening also has hurdles to be cleared prior to practical use. The most serious problem is, as described in section 4.4, that hepatic functions of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes including the CYP activities have been much lower than those of human

hepatocytes. Another problem is that we do not have an appropriate culture system to maintain mature phenotypes of adult hepatocytes. Even if researchers succeed in generating iPS cell-derived hepatocytes with authentically mature phenotypes, it is very likely that their hepatic functions will last only for a short period, a likelihood that this will hamper implementation of drug screening programs that take longer than several weeks. Thus, it is crucial to explore an appropriate culture system for maintaining mature hepatocytes.

5.3. Disease Model

Two major challenges in the application of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes in disease model are the kinetics of disease onset and progression as well as the spatial localization of a disease in the patient's body [8]. First, it may be difficult or not practical to model diseases *in vitro* with a long latency. One possible solution to this challenge would be attempting to accelerate the onset of pathological phenotypes by exposing the cells to environmental effects that may contribute to the disease. In such a strategy, however, researchers have to be careful about the results, since the imposed environment may produce artifacts. Second, it may be difficult or impractical to model hepatic diseases *in vitro* only with hepatocytes. Currently, possible interactions of hepatocytes that are affected in a patient with other cell types within the liver or within the diseased patient's body have not yet been systematically reconstructed.

6. Possibility of Direct Conversion of Somatic Differentiated or Stem Cells into Functional Hepatocytes

The direct conversion of somatic cells into functional hepatocytes may offer a useful technique in cell replacement therapy. Such a strategy might make it possible to circumvent the risks in the therapeutic application of iPS cell-derived hepatocytes, such as the teratoma formation problem. In addition, the omission of the process to reprogram somatic cells to pluripotency would be more convenient.

It has been demonstrated that one type of differentiated cell can be directly converted into another type without requiring a stem-cell intermediate stage. This strategy is conceptually based on that for the generation of iPS cells from differentiated somatic cells. Zhou *et al.* demonstrated that *in vivo* adenoviral expression of key developmental regulators, namely three transcription factors (Ngn3, Pdx1 and Maf), reprogrammed differentiated pancreatic exocrine cells in adult mice into β -like cells [91]. Feng *et al.* reported retroviral expression of transcription factors PU.1 and C/EBP α converted fibroblasts into macrophage-like cells [92]. More recently, Vierbuchen *et al.* have demonstrated that combinatorial expression of neural-lineage-specific transcription factors via lentiviral vectors directly converted fibroblasts to functional neurons [93]. As described above, ectopic expression of key transcription factors is possible for converting one cell type to another. So far there have been no reports on the direct conversion of differentiated cells into hepatocytes using such methods. That, however, may be changed in the not-too-distant future because several transcription factors have been defined which play a key role in hepatic development: HEX, FOXA1 and FOXA2, GATA4 and GATA6, HNF1 α and HNF4, and C/EBP α [94]. Ectopic expression of these transcription factors in a combinatorial and/or sequential manner might be feasible for generating hepatocytes directly from other types of differentiated cells such as fibroblasts.

Another, and probably the best-known candidate for the somatic cell origin for direct conversion into hepatocytes is mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs). MSCs are present in adult mesodermal tissues such as the bone marrow, the adipose tissue and the cartilage, and can differentiate into several types of mesodermal cells – osteoblasts, chondrocytes, adipocytes, and myoblasts – under varying culture conditions [95]. In addition, it has been demonstrated that MSCs have “stem cell plasticity”, the ability of adult stem cells to cross lineage barriers to adopt the expression profile and functional phenotypes of cells unique to other tissues including the liver [96]. Previous studies from our laboratory demonstrated that human adipose tissue-derived MSCs exhibited an *in vitro* hepatic differentiation ability when cultured using a protocol similar to that for directing ES cells into hepatocytes

[97,98]. When transplanted into CCl₄-injured mice, the transdifferentiated hepatocytes were incorporated into the host livers. This brought about improvement in some liver functions such as levels of ammonia concentration and glutamic-pyruvate transaminase. It is of note that transdifferentiation of MSCs into hepatocytes does not involve viral transduction, which offers safety in their use in a clinical application.

Although each strategy described above holds promise for partly circumventing the obstacles confronted by iPS cells, each has challenging issues to overcome prior to clinical application. Since direct conversion of differentiated somatic cells into hepatocytes involves viral transduction, they would share the unpredictable problems with iPS cells as described earlier. MSCs also hold possible risks in therapeutic use. The principal concern in the use of MSCs is the complexity of their interaction with cancer. The effects of MSCs, which secrete a variety of cytokines, on the progression of primary tumors can be pro- as well as anti-tumorigenic [99]. In addition, concerns have been raised about whether MSCs are the putative originating cells of sarcomas, malignant tumors that arise from the mesoderm [100]. Further and thorough investigation regarding these issues is necessary.

Conclusion

The study on techniques to generate iPS cells has undergone tremendous growth over the last several years. Accordingly, evidence has been accumulating that generated iPS cells give rise to a variety of differentiated cell types, including hepatocytes. In concert with this progress are the increasing expectations that iPS cell-derived hepatocytes can serve as an alternative cell source to human hepatocytes in cell replacement therapy, drug screening, and disease model. However, researchers must validate the feasibility of applying these techniques as carefully as possible from the points of view of current challenging issues, including the confirmation of safety, the elucidation of reprogramming mechanisms, and a thorough characterization of iPS cells as well as iPS cell-derived hepatocytes. Concomitantly, researchers must establish ways to evaluate each iPS cell line and

stringent criteria for clinical application. As challenging as these issues are, the potential of iPS cell technology is very promising. Considering the current rapid progress in this field, iPS cell technology could ultimately bring innovation to medicine in the not-too-distant future.

Reference

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Comprehensive miRNA Expression Analysis in Peripheral Blood Can Diagnose Liver Disease

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Abstract

Background: miRNAs circulating in the blood in a cell-free form have been acknowledged for their potential as readily accessible disease markers. Presently, histological examination is the golden standard for diagnosing and grading liver disease, therefore non-invasive options are desirable. Here, we investigated if miRNA expression profile in exosome rich fractionated serum could be useful for determining the disease parameters in patients with chronic hepatitis C (CHC).

Methodology: Exosome rich fractionated RNA was extracted from the serum of 64 CHC and 24 controls with normal liver (NL). Extracted RNA was subjected to miRNA profiling by microarray and real-time qPCR analysis. The miRNA expression profiles from 4 chronic hepatitis B (CHB) and 12 non alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) patients were also established. The resulting miRNA expression was compared to the stage or grade of CHC determined by blood examination and histological inspection.

Principal Findings: miRNAs implicated in chronic liver disease and inflammation showed expression profiles that differed from those in NL and varied among the types and grades of liver diseases. Using the expression patterns of nine miRNAs, we classified CHC and NL with 96.59% accuracy. Additionally, we could link miRNA expression pattern with liver fibrosis stage and grade of liver inflammation in CHC. In particular, the miRNA expression pattern for early fibrotic stage differed greatly from that observed in high inflammation grades.

Conclusions: We demonstrated that miRNA expression pattern in exosome rich fractionated serum shows a high potential as a biomarker for diagnosing the grade and stage of liver diseases.

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Introduction

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a gene family that is evolutionarily conserved and have important roles in the control of many biological processes, such as cellular development, differentiation, proliferation, apoptosis, and metabolism [1]. Aberrant expression of miRNAs in liver tissue has been implicated in the progression of liver fibrosis, and hepatocarcinogenesis [2,3,4]. Recently, two independent groups showed that miR-122 plays a critical role in the maintenance of liver homeostasis and anti-tumor formation [5,6].

Exosome in one of the endoplasmic reticulum carries mRNAs and miRNAs [7]. Recently, it has become clear that exosome perform intercellular signaling through miRNA. miRNAs are released through a ceramide-dependent secretory machinery and are then transferred and become functional in the recipient cells

[8]. In a prior study using human blood and cultured cells, several miRNAs were selectively packaged into microvesicle (MV) and actively secreted [9]. In another study, miRNAs originating from EBV was transported by exosome and then participated in the immune response of host cells [10]. In HCC cells as well, this type of exosome-mediated miRNA transfer is an important mechanism of intercellular communication [11].

It has also become clear that exosome can adjust to immune function, control infection or carry the virus itself. Exosomes of T, B and dendritic immune cells contain a repertoire of miRNAs that differ from that of their parent cells [12,13]. Exosomes released from nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells harboring latent EBV were shown to contain LMP1, signal transduction molecules, and virus-encoded miRNAs [14]. Retroviruses evade adaptive immune responses by using nonviral or host exosome biogenesis pathways to form infectious particles and as a mode of infection [15].

Recent evidence has shown that the expression patterns of serum or plasma miRNAs are altered in several diseases, in particular heart disease, sepsis, malignancies, and autoimmune diseases (reviewed in [16]). Discoveries such as this is encouraging and has propelled further research leading to the hypothesis that circulating miRNAs are detectable in serum and plasma in a form sufficiently stable to serve as biomarkers [17,18]. One such example is that tumour-associated miRNAs were found in the serum of diffuse large B-cell lymphoma patients [19]. In other examples, serum levels of miR-34a and miR-122 were associated with histological disease severity in patients with CHC or non-alcoholic fatty-liver disease (NAFLD) [20]. In fact, the serum level of miR-122 strongly correlates with serum ALT activity and with necro-inflammatory activity in patients with CHC and elevated ALT levels. However, there seems to be no significant correlation between fibrosis stage and functional capacity of the liver [21]. The expression levels of miR-122 and miR-194 correlated negatively with age in patients with CHB and HBV associated acute-on-chronic liver failure [22]. The expression level of miR-122 in serum was found to be closely related to non drug-induced acute liver injury [23]. Based on the above, it comes as no surprise that recently, the expression profile from extracellular miRNA is being used clinically to diagnose various diseases.

Here, in order to obtain data with high resolution that is reproducible, we extracted MVs from serum using exoquick and then performed a comprehensive microarray analysis. We attempted to diagnose HCV infection, and ascertain the degree of liver inflammation and fibrosis stage using exosome-rich fractionated miRNA. In short, we investigate if serum-derived miRNAs had the potential to serve as non-invasive bio-markers for various liver diseases.

Results

Reproducible Gene-analysis Using Microarray

In microarray experiments, serum analysis is comparatively easy; however, the downside is that the accuracy and reproducibility of the results are usually not satisfactory. To circumvent this drawback, we devised a procedure that would give us higher accuracy and reproducibility. Serum samples from NL subjects were prepared and divided into two groups; for the first, RNA was extracted using exoquick treated serum, and in the second, RNA was extracted from total serum. Next, miRNA expression was analyzed using Agilent miRNA microarray. The above procedure was performed independently twice (**Fig. 1A**). We compared the miRNA expression pattern among the four microarray results (**Fig. 1B**) and found that miRNA expression analysis using exoquick was the more reliable and reproducible (**Fig. 1C**).

Exosome from normal human prostatic cell lines PNT-2, was yielded by the conventional ultra-centrifugation method [8]. We prepared serums with and without exoquick treatment and performed immunoblot analysis with anti-CD63 (**Fig. 1D**). Bands of the expected relative sizes were detected in serum treated with exoquick. We designated RNA extracted using exoquick treated serum as exosome-rich fractionated RNA.

Unique Expression Pattern of miRNA in CHC

We attempted to diagnose CHC using the miRNA expression pattern found in the peripheral blood samples from 64 CHC and 24 NL. The expression of nine miRNAs (miR-1225-5p, miR-1275, miR-638, miR-762, miR-320c, miR-451, miR-1974, miR-1207-5p, and miR-1246) allowed us to categorize patients as CHC or NL with 96.59% accuracy (**Fig. 2, 3** Table 1 and Table S1). As shown in **Fig. 2C**, CHC and NL were well differentiated due to

their distinct miRNA expression patterns. The expression pattern of 12 miRNAs led to the distinction of CHC, CHB, NASH, and NL with 87.50% accuracy (**Fig. 4, S1A**, and Table S1). The accuracy of determining whether samples were CHC or CHB, CHC or NASH, CHB or NASH was 98.35%, 97.37%, and 87.50%, respectively. The accuracy of judging whether samples were NL or CHB, NL or NASH, was 89.29% and 88.89%, respectively (**Fig. 3, S1B** and Table S1). Unlike CHC and NL, there were relatively fewer analyses done of CHB and NASH (due to a small sample size), therefore, we used “*in silico*” resampling to overcome any possible bias. With “*in silico*” we found that it was highly reproducible to determine with high accuracy whether samples were CHC, CHB, NASH, or NL, CHC or CHB, CHC or NASH, CHC or NL, CHB or NASH, CHB or NL, or finally NASH or NL (**Fig. S2 to S8** and Supporting Information).

In order to validate our above-mentioned classifications, we prepared a separate independent sample consisting of 31 CHC, 16 CHB, and 8 NASH. We established miRNA expression patterns using microarray for each of these chronic liver disease groups. We tried to discriminate among the classifications in the independent cohort using the semi-supervised learning method [24] based only on the labels in the original sample group and the selected miRNAs shown in Table S1. The accuracy of judging whether samples were CHB or CHC, CHC or NASH, CHB or NASH, was 74.47%, 87.18%, and 79.19%, respectively (**Fig. S9**, Table 1, and Supporting Information). During the process of obtaining these results, we noticed that different versions of the Feature Extraction (FE) Software provided slightly different results, however it was not possible to fully unify these versions of FE. This may explain the relatively lower performance of the independent group compared with the original samples that mostly used the same FE Software versions.

miRNA Expression Correlates with the Grade of Liver Inflammation

The grade of inflammation for CHC patients was ascertained by liver histological examination, and then samples were divided into four groups A0, A1, A2, and A3 based on their fibrosis stage. miRNA expression profiles were then established for CHC according to each of their inflammation grade. From the four groups (A0 to A3), a combination of six arbitrary pairs is possible. miRNAs which had significant differential expression in five or more of the six pairs were extracted ($p < 0.05$). Five miRNAs (miR-1914*, miR-193a-5p, miR-22, miR-659, and miR-711) had expression levels that increased as the severity of liver inflammation progressed. On the other hand, the expression levels of nine miRNAs (miR-1274b, miR-197, miR-1974, miR-21, miR-34a, miR-451, miR-548d-5p, miR-760, and miR-767-3p) significantly decreased with the progression of liver inflammation (**Fig. 5, S10** and Table S2).

The Grade of Liver Fibrosis Corresponded with the Expression Level of miRNAs

As previously noted, CHC samples were divided into F0, F1, F2, and F3 based on patients' fibrotic stage. From these four fibrotic groups, a combination of six arbitrary pairs were possible. miRNAs that had significant differential expression in all six pairs were extracted ($p < 0.05$). The expression levels of two miRNAs (miR-483-5p and miR-671-5p) significantly increased the higher the fibrotic stage and the expression level of 14 miRNAs (let-7a, miR-106b, miR-1274a, miR-130b, miR-140-3p, miR-151-3p, miR-181a, miR-19b, miR-21, miR-24, miR-375, miR-548l, miR-93, and miR-941) became progres-

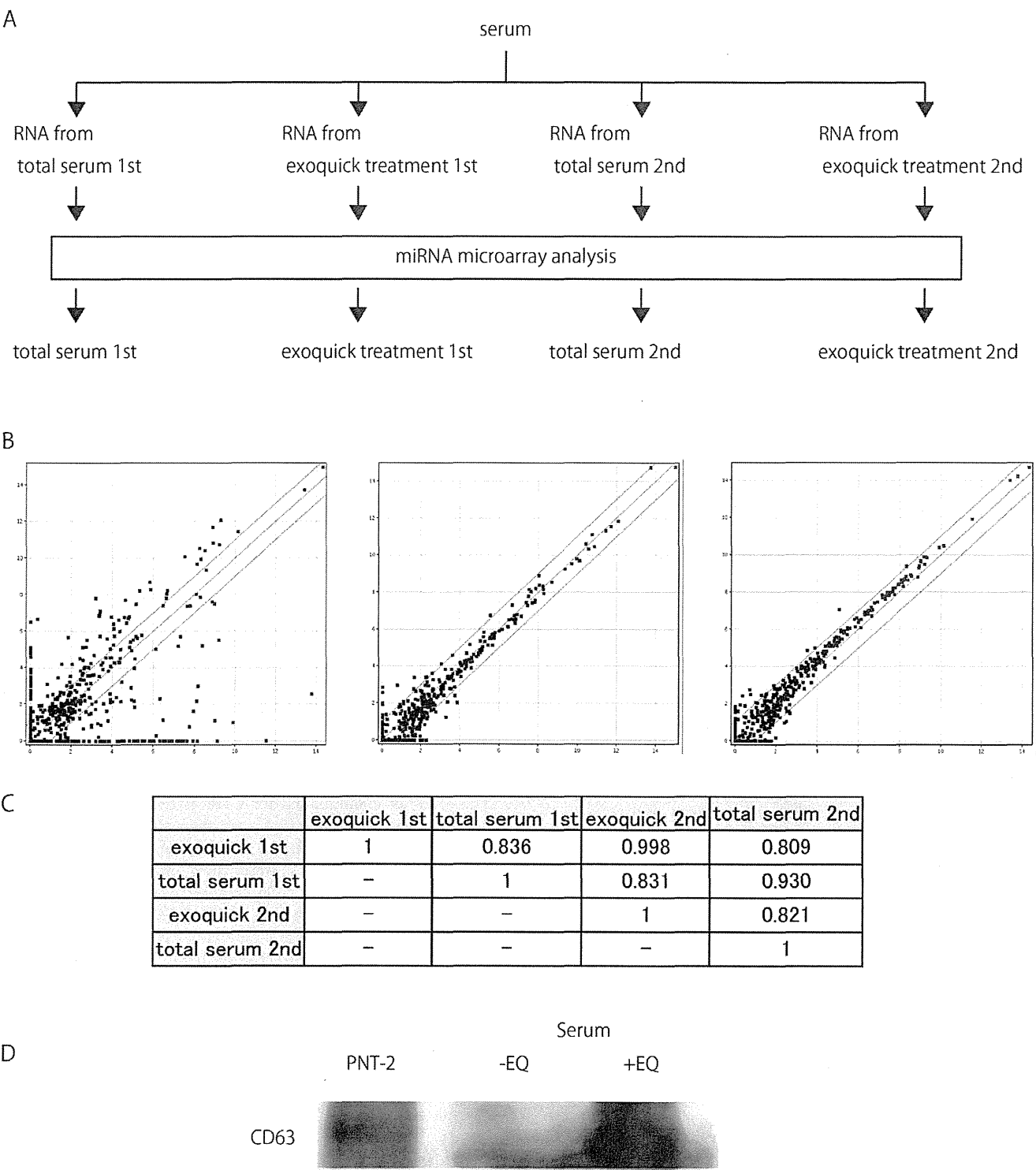


Figure 1. The method used to obtain reproducible data for microarray analysis conducted on serum-extracted samples. A. NL patients' serum were sampled twice. In the first, RNA was extracted first from untreated serum, and then extracted again from serum treated with exoquick. In the second serum sample, RNA was also extracted from both untreated serum and serum treated with exoquick. Microarray analysis was conducted for RNA in a total of four samples. B. Reproducibility test of microarray data. Scatter plots comparing non- normalized signal intensities of miRNAs in two independent experiments from human total serum and exosome rich fraction. Red and black denotes high and low miRNA expressions respectively. Total serum extracted first, versus exosome rich fraction first (left), total serum extracted first versus second (middle), and exosome rich fraction extracted first versus second (right). C. Pearson's pairwise correlations of signal intensities of miRNAs from human total serum and exosome rich fraction. D. Western blot was performed for untreated serum, serum extracted by exoquick and exosome fraction from PNT-2, using anti-CD63.
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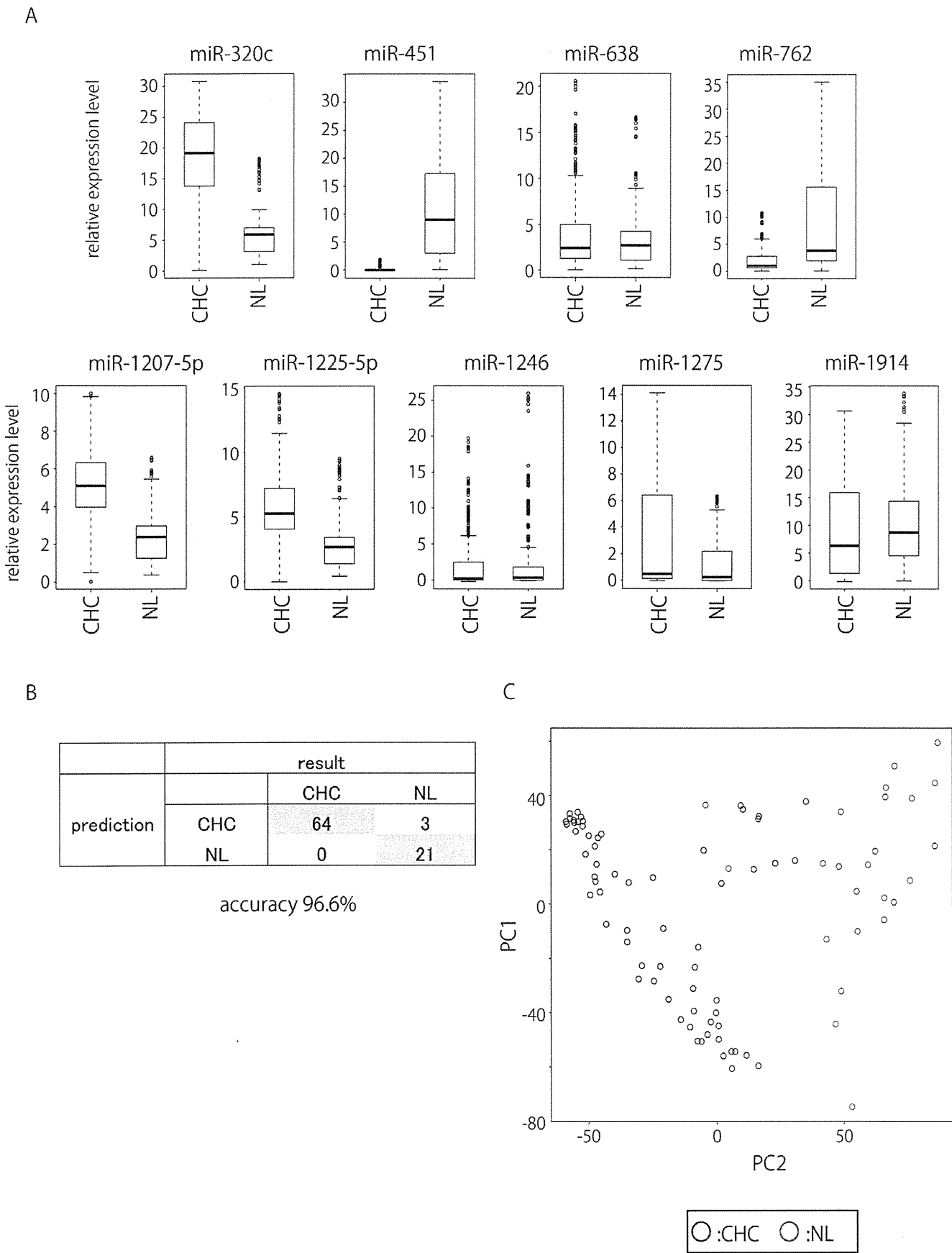


Figure 2. Expression patterns of miRNA used for discriminating between CHC and NL. A. Box plots of expression patterns of the nine miRNAs used for discriminating between CHC and NL. B. Classification of CHC and NL using LOOCV from miRNA expression profile. C. PCA in CHC and NL. The two dimensional embedding of CHC and NL by PCA. The first and second principal component scores computed (not selected for discrimination) of normalized miRNA expression were employed for this plot. Computation was done with ALL.
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sively downregulated as liver fibrotic stage increased (**Fig. 6, S11** and Table S2).

Classification of Liver Inflammation Grade and Fibrotic Stage Using miRNA Expression Pattern

We attempted to classify liver inflammation grade and fibrosis stage using miRNA expression pattern. Liver inflammation was diagnosed by Leave One Out Cross-Validation (LOOCV); the accuracy of determining A1 from other inflammation grade was 71.88% and its odds ratio was 7.08. The accuracy of determining A2 and A3 was 75.00% and 82.81%, and their odds ratios were 9.50 and 11.08, respectively. In our study, we were unable to accurately classify A0 because we were limited to only one sample for that grade (**Fig. 7A**). Diagnosis of liver fibrosis by LOOCV showed that determining F0 from the other fibrotic stages had an accuracy of 87.50% and an odds ratio of 14.25. The classification of F1, F2, and F3 had accuracy rates of 65.63%, 70.31%, and 73.44% and odds ratio of 3.16, 6.39 and 5.80, respectively (**Fig. 7B**).

miRNA Expression Level Detected by Real-time qPCR Validated the Microarray Result

Four miRNAs (miR-1207-5p, miR-134, miR-1249, and miR-1183) with expression levels that differed among liver inflammation grades and liver fibrotic stages were chosen in order to confirm the microarray results using stem-loop based real-time qPCR. miRNAs that correlated with other clinical characteristics besides liver fibrosis and inflammation were listed using the Wilcoxon test. We performed two Wilcoxon tests and ranked miRNAs based on their p-value from smallest to largest and selected the miRNAs with the four smallest p-values that were common among the two Wilcoxon tests.

The real-time qPCR result was consistent with the microarray analysis (**Fig. 8**). Here also, we applied “*in silico*” resampling to compensate for the small number of patients used in the real-time qPCR analysis. The results of the “*in silico*” resampling conferred with the results of the real-time qPCR (**Fig. S12**).

miRNA Expression Pattern was Closely Related to Several Clinical Parameters in CHC

Although we observed that miRNA expression correlated with ALT value, we were unable to identify miRNAs that displayed a strong correlation. 12 miRNAs were chosen sequentially from miRNAs with a high absolute correlation coefficient. One to 12 of these selected miRNAs were used to compare the canonical correlation coefficient of the above. When the expression patterns of six of the 12 miRNAs were compared with serum ALT value, the correlation coefficient and p-value were 0.44 and $4.91\text{E}-02$, respectively. Similarly, when serum Albumin value was compared with the expression pattern of all 12 miRNAs, the correlation coefficient and p-value were 0.59 and $2.04\text{E}-02$, respectively. Finally when the amount of serum HCV RNA was compared with the expression pattern of 12 miRNAs, the resulting correlation coefficient and p-value were 0.59 and $1.89\text{E}-02$, respectively (**Fig. 9, S13** and Table S3).

Expression Pattern of a Several miRNAs Correlated to Serum and Hepatic Tissue

In a previous report, we described the miRNA expression pattern found in liver tissues obtained from 105 CHC [2]. From this group, we analyzed the miRNA expression of hepatic tissue and serum in 60 samples. We observed that the expression pattern of three miRNAs (miR-134, miR-200b, miR-324-5p) in hepatic tissue negatively correlated with that in serum, and the expression pattern of miR-370 in hepatic tissue positively correlated with that in serum ($p < 0.05$) (Table S4). However, there was no significant correlation between the expression pattern of miR-122 in the hepatic tissue and serum (**Fig. S14** and Table S4).

Discussion

In this comprehensive miRNA analysis in various chronic liver diseases, we observed that aberrant expression of miRNAs was closely related to disease progression. Based on this, we believe that these miRNAs are potential readily accessible biomarkers, useful for diagnosing hepatic viral infection and for grading or staging liver diseases.

Many investigators have elected to use miRNA from serum instead of miRNA from exosome as the candidate for diagnosing diseases [18,20,22,25,26]. In our study, when exoquick was used, exosome could not be isolated therefore other MVs similar in size to exosome were also extracted. In other words, exoquick not only collected miRNAs contained in exosome, but also miRNA that were or were not combined with protein. Despite this, we found that exoquick delivered results that were superior to those obtained without exoquick. Therefore, although the process of analyzing miRNA from serum is simple, we chose to analyze miRNA from exosome rich fraction since it has a higher rate of reproducibility. Moreover, since exosome is closely related to intercellular signaling [14,27], it is expected that data obtained by exosome analysis can clarify the mechanism of chronic infection and inflammation [28].

When we extended our analysis from miR-122 to all miRNAs, it became clear that the expression level of several miRNAs correlated with the progression of liver fibrosis. In fact, recent studies have stated that when the expression levels of adequate numbers of miRNAs is used to identify disease, diagnostic ability is significantly higher than using a single miRNA [29]. In this study, when liver fibrosis was diagnosed using miRNA expression, distinguishing between F0 and F1-3 was done with 87.50% accuracy. Since F0 cannot be distinguished from other stages of chronic liver disease using blood examination, we propose that using miRNA expression pattern may be useful for diagnosing chronic liver disease that is in the early stage.

Previous studies have shown that the level of miR-122 in blood plasma increased earlier than in ALT in the presence of toxic liver injury in rodents [30]. Serum levels of miR-122 in patients with CHC are frequently elevated compared with healthy individuals [21]. Bihrer et al. mentioned that variations in the concentration of miR-122 in serum or plasma tend to be more specific for liver diseases than ALT and AST. This is because miR-122 is almost exclusively expressed in the liver, whereas ALT and AST originate from skeletal muscles and other tissues, therefore their diagnostic value is low [31]. In our study, the expression level of miR-122 had

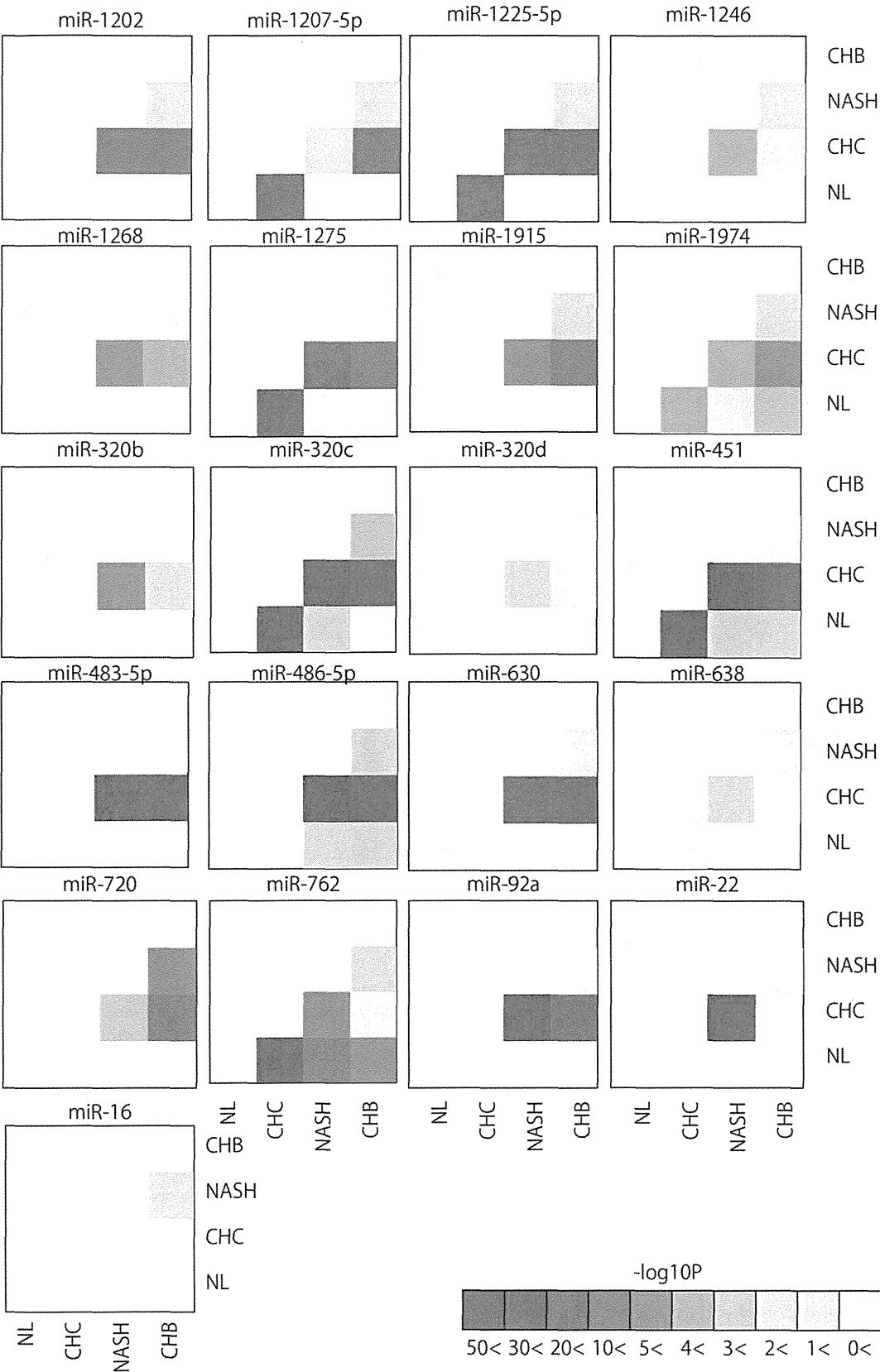


Figure 3. Pairwise heatmap of the miRNAs used for classifying two arbitrary groups. Pairwise heatmap showed the miRNAs and their p-value of two arbitrary groups.
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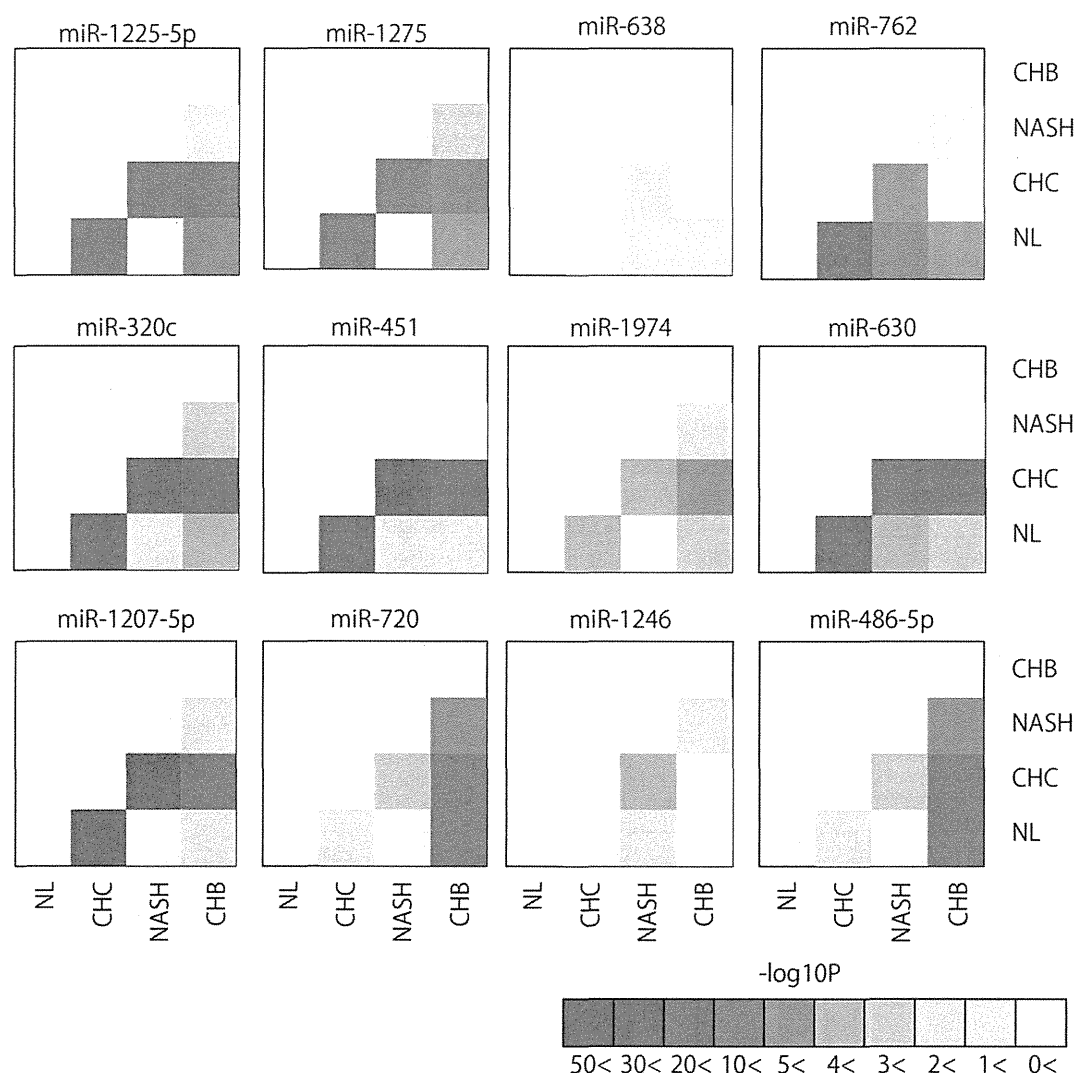


Figure 4. Pairwise heatmap of the miRNAs used for classifying among four groups.

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a significant positive correlation with the grade of liver inflammation, serum albumin value, or serum HCVRNA value. However, miR-122 expression did not significantly correlate with liver fibrosis stage. Moreover, there was no correlation between the expression level of miR-122 in liver tissue, and that in serum in the same 60 samples (**Fig. S14**). The expression pattern of only four miRNAs out of total liver tissue miRNAs correlated with the expression patterns of miRNA found in the serum (Table S4). Most serum miRNA had expression patterns that differed from those observed in hepatic tissue samples. Moreover, we observed differences in miRNAs expression between various tissues [32]. These differences were observed even in tissues taken from the same subject; at present we are unclear as to the reason for this phenomenon.

In regards to the progression of liver fibrosis and the expression pattern of miR-21, previous studies concur with our result that miR-21 expression level significantly decreased in response to the progression of liver fibrosis [20]. Taken together, this suggests that any miRNAs that may have been emitted from liver tissue cannot be detected in serum after hepatic cell injury.

The expression pattern of many miRNAs in serum positively correlated with serum ALT, albumin, and HCVRNA levels in this

study (**Fig. 9, S13** and Table S3). This result contradicts prior assumptions that no correlation exists between serum miR-122 and HCVRNA serum levels [21]. Three likely reasons for this difference in results are: 1) the detection method used (real-time qPCR versus microarray), 2) the difference in the subjects' ages (the subjects in this study were older), and 3) the difference in the amount of miRNAs (multiple miRNAs vs. a single miRNA) used to identify the clinical parameters of the disease.

CHC and NL were classified with a high level of accuracy using the expression pattern of miRNA. In order to elucidate if the miRNA expression in CHC is common to other chronic liver diseases including CHB, we compared the miRNA expression pattern of CHC with those of NASH and CHB. The result of this analysis was that CHC could be clearly distinguished from both CHB and NASH. These results demonstrate that the varying forms of chronic liver disease have their own unique miRNA expression pattern. NASH is a histological diagnosis that rests on a combination of features and can only be confirmed by liver biopsy. Recently, NASH was diagnosed by first determining the existence of NAFLD from blood samples and then performing an ultrasound tomography. Finally, liver fibrosis stage was determined by Fibroscan

Table 1. Characteristics of subjects in this study of original samples and independent samples.

Original samples				
Characteristics	CHC	CHB	NASH	NL
Gender	F: 34/M: 30	F: 2/M: 2	F: 3/M: 9	F:11/M: 13
Age (years)	59.5±8.3	46.8±14.5	52.3±13.1	50.8±12.0
AST (IU/L)	50.1±29.8	83.3±53.7	46.2±16.0	N.D
ALT (IU/L)	57.6±40.6	167.8±170.3	74.5±34.9	N.D
WBC (x10 ³ /mm ³)	5.1±1.5	4.7±1.5	6.2±1.6	N.D
Platelet (x10 ⁴ /mm ³)	16.6±5.9	14.8±6.3	24.7±8.0	N.D
Total Bilirubin (mg/dl)	0.65±0.22	0.83±0.40	0.76±0.25	N.D
Weight (kg)	57.9±9.18	58.8±4.3	74.9±24.8	59.6±9.6
ALP (IU/L)	267.0±88.4	223.3±25.0	232.7±36.2	N.D
γGTP (IU/L)	46.9±42.3	77.3±82.2	58.4±20.9	N.D
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	13.8±1.2	14.5±0.59	14.7±1.6	N.D
Albumin (g/dl)	4.1±0.4	4.2±0.5	4.4±0.3	N.D
Independent samples				
Characteristics	CHC	CHB	NASH	
Gender	F: 18/M: 13	F: 10/M: 6	F: 6/M: 2	
Age (years)	59.5±8.3	46.8±14.5	54.8±12.7	
AST (IU/L)	50.1±29.8	83.3±53.7	80.9±50.0	
ALT (IU/L)	57.6±40.6	167.8±170.3	108.9±76.2	
WBC (x10 ³ /mm ³)	5.1±1.5	4.7±1.5	5.5±1.8	
Platelet (x10 ⁴ /mm ³)	16.6±5.9	14.8±6.3	19.3±7.6	
Total Bilirubin (mg/dl)	0.65±0.22	0.83±0.40	0.73±0.25	
Weight (kg)	57.9±9.18	58.8±4.3	66.4±9.9	
ALP (IU/L)	267.0±88.4	223.3±25.0	278.6±100.6	
γGTP (IU/L)	46.9±42.3	77.3±82.2	130.1±81.23	
Hemoglobin (g/dl)	13.8±1.2	14.5±0.59	13.6±1.4	
Albumin (g/dl)	4.1±0.4	4.2±0.5	3.8±0.3	

Abbreviations; CHC, chronic hepatitis C; CHB, chronic hepatitis B; NASH, non alcoholic steatohepatitis; NL, normal liver (healthy control); N.D, no data.
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(reviewed in [33]). However, when the results of these and other measures fail to yield a diagnosis then a pathology evaluation is necessary. Using “*in silico*” resampling to increase the reliability of our data, has led us to believe that NASH diagnosis may be possibly through blood examination.

We tested the reliability of our analysis in two ways and obtained reproducible results in both cases. First we enrolled an independent sample group, and second, we created virtual cohorts using *in silico* resampling to overcome our small sample size.

In this study we concluded that miRNA profiling is a promising alternative to diagnosing liver disease. This is based on our demonstration that the following evaluations could be performed using suitable miRNA expression profiles (1) determining the stage or grade of chronic liver disease, (2) ascertaining the clinical status of chronic liver diseases, and (3) distinguishing among various forms of chronic liver diseases. While these results suggest there is great potential and benefit of

miRNA profiling, future studies in a larger population of CHC patients are warranted to fully elucidate the diagnostic potential of serum miRNA expression.

Materials and Methods

Patient Selection

A cohort of 64 CHC, 4 CHB, and 12 NASH patients who had undergone liver biopsy, as well as 24 healthy control subjects was enrolled. We also prepared independent samples consisting of 31 CHC, 12 CHB, and 8 NASH to validate our results. Patient characteristics are summarized in Table 1 and detailed clinical data is depicted in Table S5. The criteria for exclusion for CHC, CHB, and NASH were: co-infection with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) types 1 and 2, decompensated liver disease, organ transplantation, immune suppression, autoimmune disorders, consumption of >20 g/day alcohol, and past history of intravenous drug abuse. Healthy controls were selected if they were not infected with HBV, HCV, nor HIV, had normal liver function tests, and had no history of liver disease.

All patients or their guardians provided written informed consent, and Ogaki Municipal Hospital and Kyoto University Graduate School and Faculty of Medicine’s Ethics Committee approved all aspects of this study in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration.

Liver Histology and Blood Examination

A liver biopsy specimen was collected from each patient before anti-viral treatment. Histological grading and staging of CHC liver biopsy specimens were performed according to the Metavir classification system [34]. NASH was diagnosed histologically [35].

Serum HCV RNA was quantified before IFN treatment using Amplicor-HCV Monitor Assay (Roche Molecular Diagnostics Co., Tokyo, Japan), while serum HBV DNA was quantified before treatment using Amplicor HBV Monitor Assay (Roche). Pretreatment blood tests were conducted to determine each patient’s level of aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), total bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase, white blood cell (WBC), platelets, and hemoglobin.

Blood Sampling

Peripheral blood was collected from all subjects directly into serum tubes before anti-viral treatment. The tubes were centrifuged at 1,500 g for 10 min at 4°C, sera were aliquoted and additionally centrifuged at 2,000 g to completely remove any remaining cells. Sera were stored at –80°C until use.

RNA Preparation

Total RNA from 200 ul of serum was prepared using miRNeasy mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden Germany) according to the manufacturer’s instruction. Exosome rich fractionated RNA was prepared using Exoquick (System Biosciences, CA, USA). Briefly, 900 ul of serum was mixed with 250 ul of Exoquick and incubated for 12 hr at 4°C. The tubes were centrifuged at 1500 g for 30 min at room temperature and then supernatant was discarded. The pellet was dissolved with 200 ul of PBS with vigorous vortex. RNA was extracted using miRNeasy mini kit (Qiagen).

Immunoblot Analysis and Exosome Preparation

The procedure for exosome preparation has been previously described [8]. SDS-PAGE gels, SuperSep Ace 5–20% (194–15021) (Wako, Osaka, Japan), were calibrated with Precision Plus Protein Standards (161–0375) (Bio-Rad), and anti-CD63 (1:200)

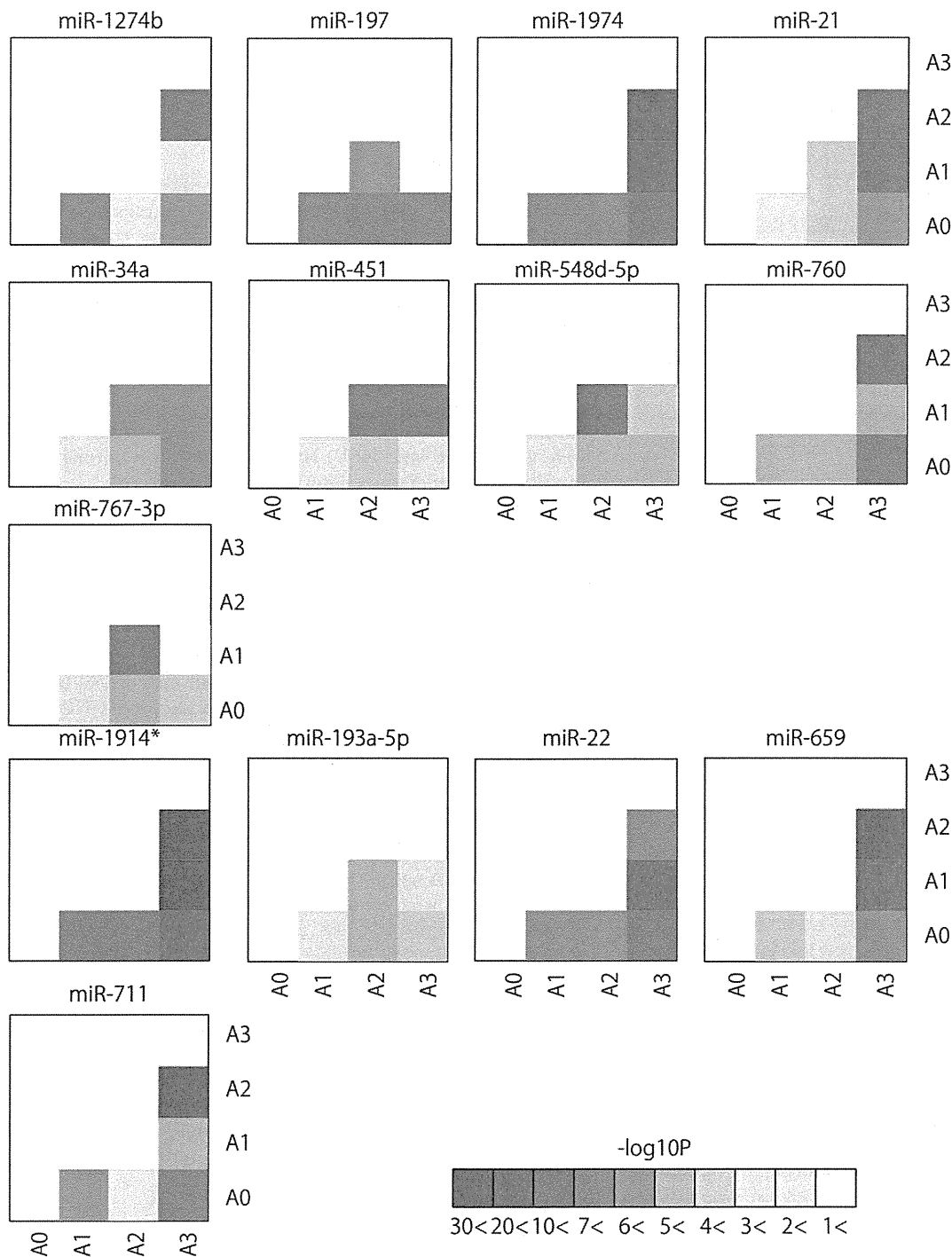


Figure 5. Significantly differentially expressed miRNAs according to liver inflammation grade. Pairwise heatmap showing the miRNAs and p-value of two arbitrary grades.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0048366.g005

was used as primary antibodies. The dilution ratio of each antibody is indicated in parentheses. Two secondary antibodies (peroxidase-labeled anti-mouse and anti-rabbit antibodies) were used at a dilution of 1:5000. Bound antibodies were visualized by chemiluminescence using the ImmunoStar LD (Wako) and luminescent images were analyzed by a LuminoImager (LAS-3000; Fuji Film, Inc.). Only gels for CD63 (BD, NJ, USA) detection were run under non-reducing conditions. To exclude the

albumin and IgG in serum, Albumin & IgG Depletion SpinTrap kit was used (GE health care, WI, USA). After aliquots isolation, exosome-contained fraction was isolated by Exoquick according to standard instructions.

miRNA Microarray

To detect serum miRNA, 60 ng of RNA was labeled and hybridized using the Human microRNA Microarray Kit (Rel

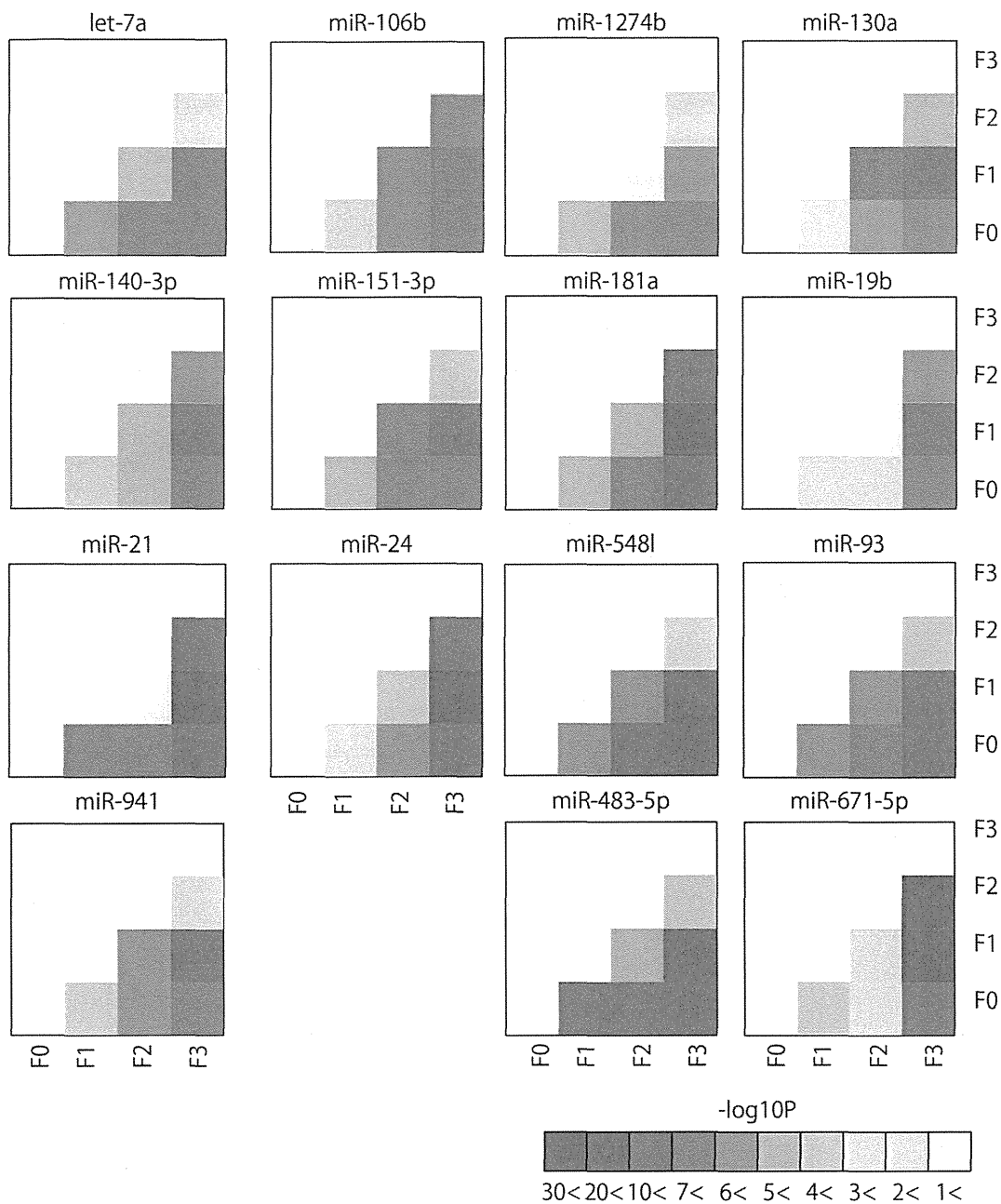


Figure 6. Significantly differentially expressed miRNA according to liver fibrotic stage. Pairwise heatmap showing the miRNAs and p-value of two arbitrary stages.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0048366.g006

14.0) (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol (protocol for use with Agilent microRNA microarrays Version 1.0). Hybridization signals were detected with a DNA microarray scanner G2505B (Agilent Technologies) and the scanned images were analyzed using Agilent feature extraction software (v9.5.3.1). We used raw data (gProcessedSignal) and normalized each expression so as to have zero mean and unit sample variance. The data presented in this manuscript have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus and are accessible through GEO Series access number GSE33857: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE33857>.

Real-time qPCR for Human miRNA

To detect miRNA expression level by real-time qPCR, TaqMan® microRNA assay (Applied Biosystems) was used to quantify the relative expression levels of miR-1207-5p (assay ID. 241060), miR-134 (assay ID. 000459), miR-1183 (assay ID. 002841), and miR-1249 (assay ID. 002868). The expression level of miR-16 (assay ID. 000391) was also measured and used as an internal control. cDNA was synthesized using the Taqman miRNA RT Kit (Applied Biosystems). RNA (2 ng/ml) in 5 ml of nuclease free water was added to 3 ml of 5 × RT primer, 10 × 1.5 µl of reverse transcriptase buffer, 0.15 µl of 100 mM dNTP, 0.19 µl of RNase inhibitor, 4.16 µl of nuclease free water, and 50 U of reverse transcriptase in a total volume of 15 µl. The reaction was performed for 30 min at 16°C, 30 min at 42°C, and 5 min at 85°C.

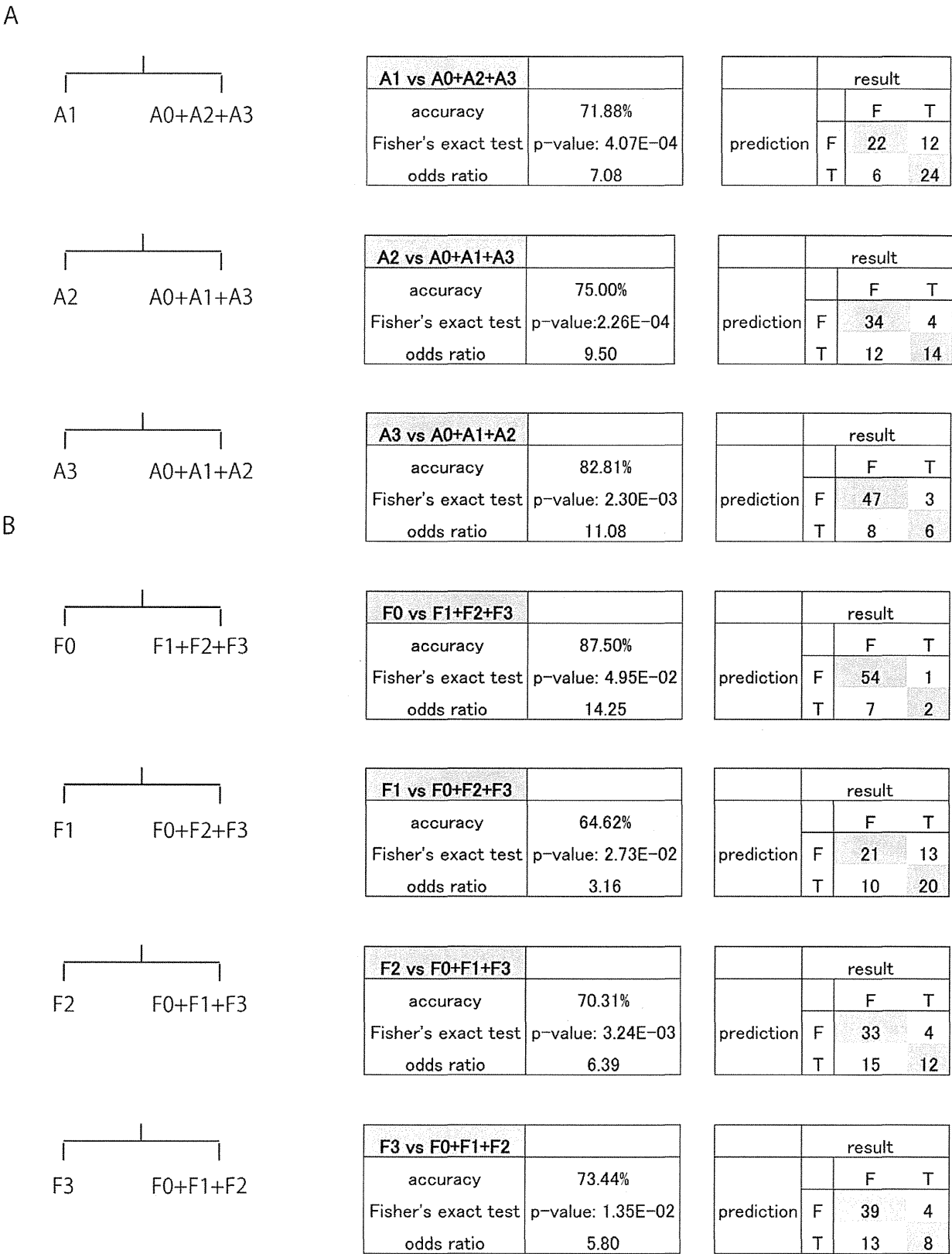


Figure 7. Determining liver inflammation grade and fibrotic stage using miRNA expression pattern in LOOCV analysis. A. In order to diagnose the grade of liver inflammation, A0 was identified first. Next A1, A2, and A3 were identified in a similar manner as A0. For each, the accuracy rate, P value, and the odds ratio are shown. B. For liver fibrosis stage, F0 was first diagnosed following which the other stages F1, F2, and F3 were diagnosed in a similar manner. For each group the accuracy rate, P value, and the odds ratio are shown.
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