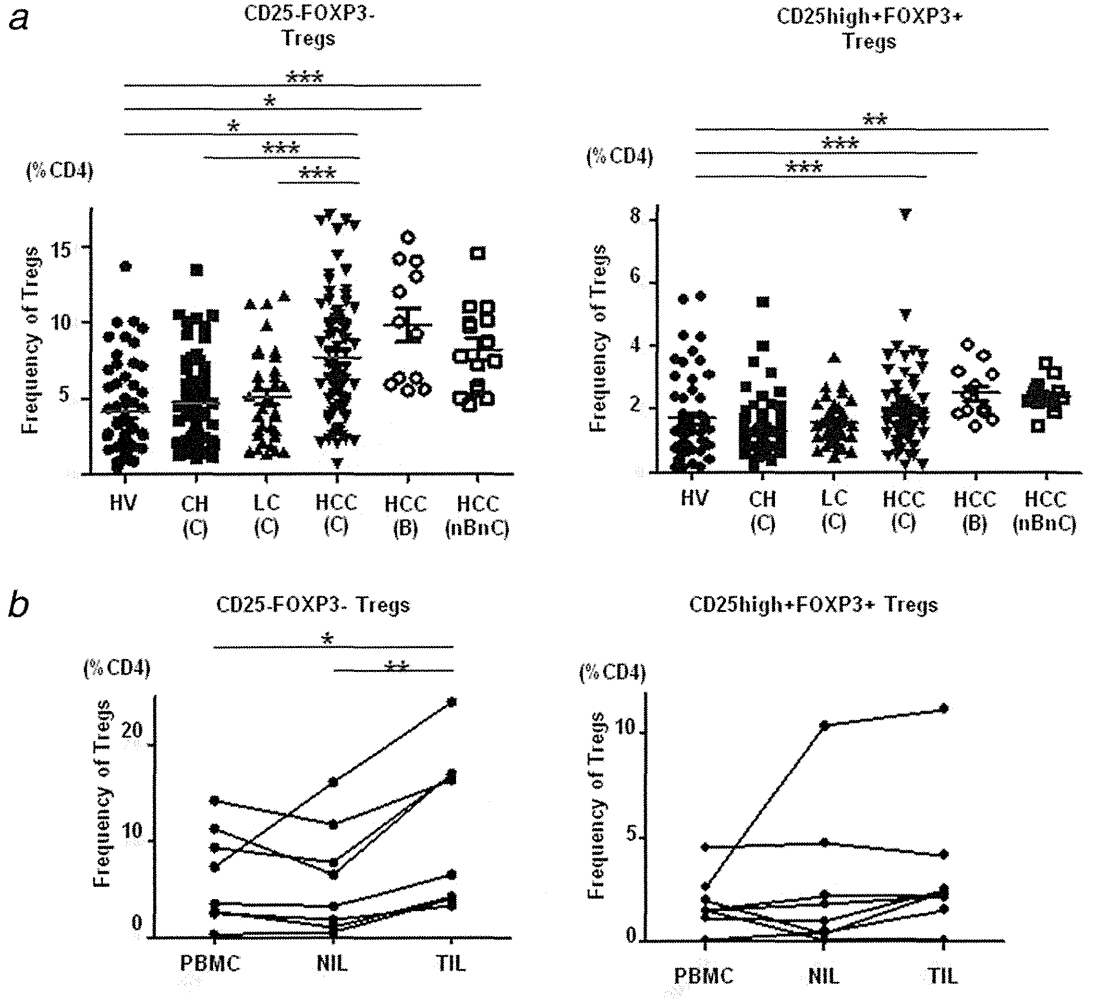

Figure 3. $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ Tregs and $CD25^{high+}FOXP3^{+}$ Tregs increase in HCC patients both in the periphery and in the liver. (*a*) The frequencies of $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ Tregs ($CD4^{+}CD25^{-}CD127^{-}$ $FOXP3^{-}$) and $CD25^{high+}FOXP3^{+}$ Tregs ($CD4^{+}CD25^{high+}CD127^{-}FOXP3^{+}$) in $CD4^{+}$ T cells were compared among the groups. HV, healthy volunteers; CH(C), LC(C), HCC (C), HCV-infected chronic hepatitis, liver cirrhosis or hepatocellular carcinoma, respectively; HCC (B), HBV-positive; HCC (nBnC), HCV-negative and HBV-negative HCC patients. The horizontal bars indicate mean ± standard deviation. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$ by Kruskal–Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison test. (*b*) $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ Tregs and $CD25^{high+}FOXP3^{+}$ Tregs are present in tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes of HCC patients. Lymphocytes from HCC, nontumor liver tissue and PBMC were collected from identical nine HCC patients, and the frequency of $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ Tregs and $CD25^{high+}FOXP3^{+}$ Tregs in them was compared. PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cells; NIL, nontumor tissue infiltrating lymphocytes; TIL, tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$, by Friedman test with Bonferroni multiple comparison test.

IL-T4 is expressed on DC and transmits inhibitory signals after ligation with HLA-G. To confirm that the HLA-G and PD-L1 expressed in HCC are responsible for $IL10^{+}$ $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ T cell induction, we knocked down HLA-G and/or PD-L1 in Huh7 cells by siRNA and subjected them to the abovementioned *in vitro* cultures (Fig. 5*d*). As a result, $IL10^{+}$ $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ T cell frequency is significantly decreased in the presence of siRNA-treated HCC, but not with mock-transfected HCC (Fig. 5*e*). These results demonstrate that DC and HCC cells are actively involved in $IL\text{-}10^{+}$ $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ T cell induction, in which PD-L1, IL-T4 and HLA-G are indispensible.

Discussion

In this study, we focused on $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ Tregs in HCC patients, which are distinct from $CD25^{high+}FOXP3^{+}$ natural Tregs in cellular phenotypes, genetic profiles and functional aspects. We demonstrated that; (*i*) $CD4^{+}CD127^{-}CD25^{-}$ cells (as defined as $CD25^{-}FOXP3^{-}$ cells in this study) are endowed with suppressive capacity comparably with

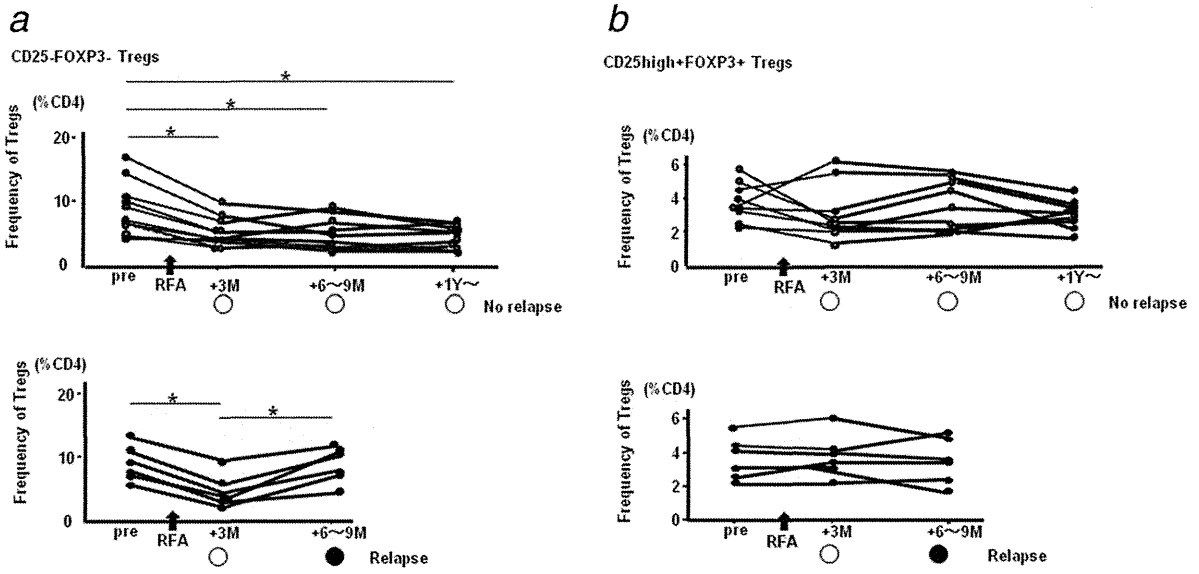

Figure 4. CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs increase in parallel with post therapeutic HCC recurrence. In HCC patients who underwent RFA therapy, frequencies of CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs (*a*) and CD25^{high+}FOXP3$^+$ Tregs (*b*) in CD4$^+$ T cells are examined serially before RFA sessions and after confirmation of complete ablation of relevant HCC lesions. Open circles (○)depict the time points without HCC recurrence under CT/MRI examinations and closed circles (●)are those with detectable HCC recurrence, respectively. Arrows indicate the time points of RFA sessions. *: $p < 0.05$ by Friedman test with Bonferroni multiple comparison test.

CD4$^+$CD127$^-$CD25^{high+} cells (CD25^{high+}FOXP3$^+$ cells) and (*ii*) the frequency of CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs changes more dynamically than those of CD25^{high+}FOXP3$^+$ Tregs in correlation with post-therapeutic HCC recurrence.

Extensive studies have been carried out on the role of natural Tregs in cancer patients, of which are conventionally defined as CD25^{high+}FOXP3$^+$ T cells. Pharmaceutical deprivation of CD25$^+$ T cells *in vivo* were tried to improve immune reactivity against cancers; however, most of the study results were unsatisfactory.[19,20] Such experiences raise the possibility that the involvement of CD25$^-$ Tregs in the pathogenesis of certain cancers. In support for this, the existence of CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs has been reported in mice and human, in relation to viral infection or cancers.[21–23] The comparative roles of CD25^{high+}FOXP3$^+$ natural Tregs and CD25$^-$ Tregs in human diseases are still largely unknown. It is reported that CD127 expression is inversely correlated with a FOXP3 and CD127 negative population broadly encompassing regulatory cells.[11,12] Several investigators reported that CD127 expression on T cells is aberrantly regulated with regard to their functional relevance.[24,25] Taking these findings into consideration, we aimed to identify distinct type of Tregs in CD4$^+$CD127$^-$ population. Consequently, we found a functional regulatory subset in CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$ T cells, which differ from CD4$^+$CD25^{high+}CD127$^-$ Tregs in molecular profiles and inhibitory mechanisms. The profile of CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$ T cells is quite unique; they express more LAG-3, IL-21, c-Maf and PD-1 but less FOXP3, CTLA-4 and GITR than CD4$^+$CD25^{high+}CD127$^-$ Tregs do. In support of our results, Pot *et al.* reported that IL-27 induces IL-21 and c-Maf, which are critically involved in the differentiation of IL-10-producing Tr1.[26] As for functional aspects, we showed that CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$ cells use IL-10 as suppressive machineries, not completely but in part. Based on these characteristics, it is likely that CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$FOXP3$^-$ cells, as defined as CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs in this study, are presumed to be aforementioned Tr1 cells. Such phenotype of T cells are compatible with Tr1-like cells in human, as reported by Haringer *et al.*[14] To confirm that, several additional examinations, such as antigen-specific suppressive capacity, need to be carried out. Using tetanus toxoid as a representative of general recall antigens in this study, CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$ cells and CD4$^+$CD25high$^+$CD127$^-$ cells tended to be suppressive on autologous CD4$^+$ T cell proliferation (Supporting Information Fig. 2). Further analysis needs to be performed on this issue, using other sets of recall antigens.

To therapeutically control Tregs *in vivo*, extensive studies have been carried out to disclose the mechanisms of the induction or attraction of FOXP3$^+$ Tregs.[27,28] Likewise, it is tempting to consider that CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs depletion would have a favorable impact on the clinical features of the patients. Thus, identifying the molecules involved in CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$, Treg induction should be carried out for the future development of Treg-oriented therapeutic approach. For this purpose, we successfully expanded CD4$^+$CD25$^-$CD127$^-$FOXP3$^-$IL10$^+$ cells from naive CD4$^+$CD25$^-$T cells. Such cultured cells contained approximately 10% of IL-10$^+$ cells, which subsequently

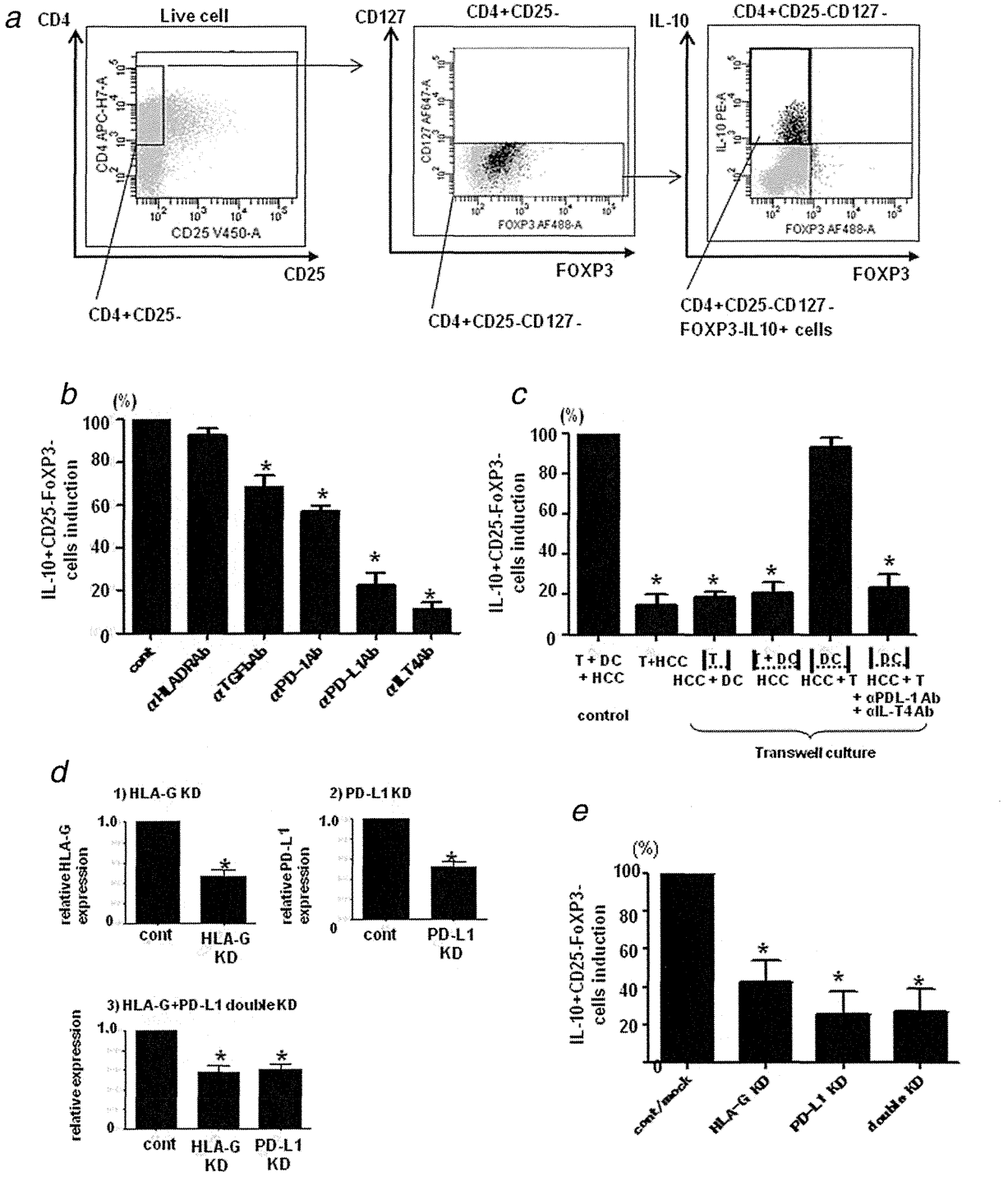

Figure 5. HLA-G and PD-L1 in HCC and IL-T4 in DC are involved in the induction of IL-10$^+$CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs. After culture of CD4$^+$CD45RA$^+$ naive T cells with autologous monocyte-derived dendritic cells and Huh-7 or HepG2, CD4$^+$ CD127$^-$ CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$IL-10$^+$ T cells (IL-10$^+$CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs) were generated. (*a*) Representative dot plots from results of seven healthy volunteers are shown. In the abovementioned coculture system, various neutralizing/masking Abs (*b*) or transwell inserts (*c*) were added and the results were compared with the frequencies of IL-10$^+$CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs with or without treatments. In addition, we transfected siRNA against HLA-G and/or PD-L1 to Huh-7 and cocultured them with naive CD4$^+$ T cells and DC as the same as above. The efficiency of gene silencing was evaluated by the comparison of transcripts of HLA-G or PD-L1 with or without siRNA transfection (*d*). The frequency of IL-10$^+$CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs after the culture was compared with mock-transfected ones (*e*). In Figures 5-B, 5-C and 5-E, the bars indicate the ratio of IL-10$^+$CD25$^-$FOXP3$^-$ Tregs frequency (mean + standard deviation) between those with treatment and without from three series of experiments. *: $p < 0.05$ by Wilcoxon rank sum test.

tended to inhibit proliferation of allogeneic $CD4^+$ T cells (data not shown). Using this culture, we demonstrated that DCs are indispensible for IL-10^+ $CD25^-FOXP3^-$ Tregs induction *in vitro* by way of PD-1/PD-L1 and IL-T4/HLA-G pathways. Several reports showed that such molecular interactions are involved in the generation of regulatory cells in cancer patients.[29,30] In patients with HCC, a positive correlation is observed between the expression of PD-L1 or HLA-G in cancer tissue and the poorer prognosis of the patients,[31,32] suggesting that such molecules are involved in cancer development. As for HLA-G in this study, direct cellular contact between DC and HCC is not necessary in IL-10^+ $CD25^-FOXP3^-$ Tregs induction, suggesting that soluble HLA-G released from HCC may play an active role. In our hands, soluble HLA-G was measurable in culture supernatants of HCC cell lines and in serum samples from HCC patients (data not shown). Further investigation is arguably needed to elucidate whether soluble HLA-G is functional or not in HCC patients.

In summary, we demonstrate that $CD25^-FOXP3^-$ Tregs are increased in HCC patients, which change dynamically in response to HCC occurrence and post-therapeutic recurrence. Cross-talks among HCC cells, DC and $CD4^+$ T cells are required for IL-10^+ $CD25^-FOXP3^-$ Tregs induction, in which PD-L1, HLA-G and IL-T4 are critically involved. Although further investigation is needed to prove that deprivation or inactivation of $CD25^-FOXP3^-$ Tregs improves immune responses *in vivo*, such molecules could serve as targets of Treg-oriented therapeutic intervention for HCC.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Dynamics of regulatory T cells and plasmacytoid dendritic cells as immune markers for virological response in pegylated interferon-α and ribavirin therapy for chronic hepatitis C patients

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Abstract
Background For the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, a combination of pegylated interferon-α (PEG-IFNα) and ribavirin has been widely used as a standard of care. Enhancement of immune response against hepatitis C virus (HCV) is known to be involved in the efficacy of the combination therapy. Our aim was to elucidate whether or not the frequency or function of blood cells is related to the outcome of the therapy.
Methods Sixty-seven chronic hepatitis C patients with high viral load of HCV genotype 1 infection who underwent 48 weeks of PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin therapy were examined. During the treatment, frequencies of myeloid or plasmacytoid dendritic cells, Th1, Th2 cells, NK cells, and regulatory T cells were phenotypically determined.
Results Among the patients enrolled, 29 showed a sustained virological response (SVR), 18 a transient response (TR) and 17 no response (NR). The clinical and immunological markers were compared between the SVR and non-SVR patients, including TR and NR. Based on clinical, histological, immunological parameters, and cumulative dosage of PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin, multivariate analyses revealed that higher platelet counts and higher regulatory T cell frequency at week 12 are indicative of SVR. Even in patients who attained complete early virological response at week 12, multivariate analyses disclosed that higher platelet counts and higher plasmacytoid dendritic cell frequency are indicative of SVR.
Conclusions In PEG-IFNα and ribavirin combination therapy for chronic hepatitis C patients, the increments of regulatory T cells and plasmacytoid dendritic cell frequency are independently related to favorable virological response to the therapy.

Keywords Early virological response · Plasmacytoid dendritic cells · Regulatory T cells

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Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is one of the major causative agents of chronic liver diseases and hepatocellular

carcinoma (HCC) in the world [1, 2]. In order to prevent the development of HCV-induced liver diseases, eradication of HCV from infected patients may be required. For the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, a combination of pegylated interferon-α (PEG-IFNα) and ribavirin treatment has been used as a standard of care (SOC) [3, 4]. However, in patients with HCV genotype 1 and high viral load, approximately 50% of them are able to clear the virus by 48 weeks of SOC [5, 6]. In addition to HCV genotype and quantity, several demographic factors have been reported as therapeutic determinants in PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy, such as age, gender, ethnicity, and liver fibrosis [5, 6]. In addition, it is accepted that initial changes of serum HCV RNA titer from the beginning of the therapy, i.e., early virological response (EVR), correlate well with the clinical outcomes of the treated patients [5, 7]. It has been reported that the patients who fail to clear HCV at week 24 are not likely to attain SVR after 48 weeks of the therapy, suggesting that non-EVR can serve as a negative predictor of SVR [8]. Even in patients who attained EVR, 30% of them eventually relapse during the 48 weeks of therapy. Prolongation of the duration of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy from 48 to 72 weeks is recommended to improve the SVR rate by decreasing relapsers [9]. Thus, identifying potential relapsers during therapy and providing additional weeks of treatment may be clinically important, because it can offer them a better chance of attaining SVR.

In chronic hepatitis C, multifaceted immune dysfunction may be implicated in the persistence of HCV including dendritic cells (DC), NK cells, and T cells [10, 11]. Some investigators have reported that the dynamics of immune cells throughout the therapy are involved in the efficacy of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin. In chronic HCV infection, the enhancement of HCV-specific Th1 response or DC function has been reported to be involved in therapeutic HCV eradication [12, 13]. We have previously demonstrated that plasmacytoid dendritic cell (PDC) frequency and DC function are involved in HCV eradication in patients who underwent 48 weeks of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy [14]. These reports have supported the possibility that the enhancement of certain immune responses is a prerequisite for therapeutic HCV clearance. However, one of the limitations of these studies is that the conclusions were drawn from relatively small numbers of patients and evaluated by univariate analysis. Therefore, multivariate analyses are arguably required in order to validate the significance or independence of immune cell markers in the therapeutic efficacy.

In this study, we have extended our investigation to elucidate whether or not the dynamics of immune cells are involved in therapeutic outcomes. Consequently, the independent significance of regulatory T cell or plasmacytoid DC frequency is revisited in the efficacy of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy for chronic hepatitis C patients.

Materials and methods

Subjects

Among chronic hepatitis C patients who had been followed at Osaka University Hospital, Osaka Kosei-nenkin Hospital, Higashi Osaka Municipal Hospital, and Osaka National Hospital, 67 patients who received PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin combination therapy for 48 weeks were enrolled in the present study. The study was approved by the ethics committee of the Osaka University Graduate School of Medicine and all the hospitals listed above (approval no. 08156). Written informed consent was obtained from all patients. At enrollment, the patients were confirmed to be positive for both serum anti-HCV antibody (Ab) and HCV RNA, but were negative for hepatitis B virus and human immunodeficiency virus. All of them were infected with HCV genotype 1b with serum HCV RNA quantity of more than 100 kilo international units (KIU)/ml, as determined by methods described elsewhere [15]. All patients had shown persistent or fluctuating serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) abnormalities at enrollment. The presence of other causes of liver disease, such as autoimmune, alcoholic, and metabolic disorders was excluded by laboratory and imaging analyses. A combination of biochemical markers and ultrasonography (US) or computed tomography scan analyses ruled out the presence of cirrhosis and tumors in the liver in all patients. Histological analyses of liver disease were performed with liver tissue obtained by US-guided biopsy. The activity and stage of the disease were assessed by two independent pathologists according to the METAVIR scoring system [16].

Treatment

All patients were treated with PEG-IFNα2b subcutaneously at a dose of 75 μg/week (body weight >40 and ≤60 kg), 105 μg/week (body weight >60 and ≤80 kg), or 135 μg/week (body weight >80 and ≤100 kg) and oral ribavirin at a dose of 600 mg/day (body weight >40 and ≤60 kg), 800 mg/day (body weight >60 and ≤80 kg), or 1000 mg/day (body weight >80 and ≤100 kg). Ribavirin was administered divided into two doses per day. All patients were treated for 48 weeks and followed for 24 weeks after the cessation of therapy.

Dose reduction of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin

Dose modification followed, as a rule, the manufacturer's drug information according to the intensity of the hematological adverse effects. The dose of PEG-IFNα2b was reduced to 50% of the assigned dose if the white blood cell (WBC) count declined to less than 1500/mm^3, the

neutrophil count to less than 750/mm^3, or the platelet (Plt) count to less than 8×10^4/mm^3, and was discontinued if the WBC count declined to less than 1000/mm^3, the neutrophil count to less than 500/mm^3, or the Plat count to less than 5×10^4/mm^3. Ribavirin was also reduced from 1000 to 600 mg, or 800 to 600 mg, or 600 to 400 mg if the hemoglobin (Hb) level decreased to less than 10 g/dl, and was discontinued if the Hb level decreased to less than 8.5 g/dl. Both PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin had to be discontinued if there was a need to discontinue one of the drugs. During the therapy, ferric medicine or hematopoietic growth factors, such as erythropoietin alpha or granulocyte–macrophage colony-stimulating factor were not administered.

Quantification of HCV RNA and assessment of virological response

Serum HCV RNA titers were quantified using the COBAS AMPLICOR HCV MONITOR Test, version 2.0 (detection range 6–5000 KIU/ml; Roche Diagnostics, Branchburg, NJ, USA) and qualitatively analyzed by the COBAS AMPLICOR HCV Test, version 2.0 (detection threshold 50 IU/ml).

Virological response during and after the therapy was determined according to the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases (AASLD) practice guideline [17]. The complete early virological responders (c-EVR) were defined as those who showed a reduction in serum HCV RNA quantity to an undetectable level by qualitative PCR at week 12 of the therapy. Virological response was estimated at 24 weeks after cessation of the treatment. Sustained virological response (SVR) was defined as the maintenance of negative serum HCV RNA by PCR for more than 6 months after completion of the therapy. Transient response (TR) was defined as the reappearance of serum HCV RNA within 6 months after cessation of therapy in patients who had achieved negative serum HCV RNA at the end of the treatment. No response (NR) meant that there was persistently positive serum HCV RNA throughout the therapy period. The non-SVR group comprised TR and NR patients.

Assessment of drug exposure

The amounts of PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin actually taken by patients during the first 12 weeks of the treatment were evaluated by reviewing the medical records as reported previously [18, 19]. The mean doses of both drugs were calculated individually as averages on the basis of body weight at baseline. The dose of PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin was expressed as micrograms per kilogram per week and milligrams per kilogram per day, respectively.

Analysis of DC subsets, helper T cells, NK cells, and regulatory T cells

For the numerical analyses of blood DC, helper T cells, NK cells, and regulatory T cells (Tregs), venous blood was drawn from patients before treatment and at weeks 8, 12, 24, and 48 during the therapy. Blood samples taken from patients in relevant hospitals were transferred to Osaka University within 6 h and were processed on the same day. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were collected by density-gradient centrifugation on a Ficoll-Hypaque cushion. After viable PBMCs had been counted, the cells were stained with combinations of various Abs for phenotypic markers. All immunological assays were performed in Osaka University.

The following monoclonal antibodies were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA, USA): anti-Lineage marker [Lin; CD3 (clone SK7), CD14 (clone MφP9), CD16 (clone 3G8), CD19 (clone SJ25C1), CD20 (clone L27), and CD56 (clone NCAM16.2)], anti-CD4 (clone RPA-T4), anti-CD11c (clone B-ly6), anti-CD123 (clone 7G3), anti-CD3 (clone UCHT1), anti-CD45RO (clone UCHL1), anti-CD56 (clone B159), anti-HLA-DR (clone L243), anti-CCR4 (clone 1G1). The antibodies for CD25 (clone B1.49.9) and CD4 (clone 1 3B8.2) were purchased from Beckman Coulter (Fullerton, CA, USA). Anti-CXCR3 (clone 49801) monoclonal antibodies were purchased from R&D Systems (Minneapolis, MN, USA). Staining was performed with FITC, PE, PerCP, and APC conjugated antibodies as described previously [14]. The acquisitions and analyses of data were performed with FACS Calibur (BD Biosciences) and CellQuest software.

Blood DCs were defined as Lin$^-$ and HLA-DR$^+$ cells. Myeloid DCs (MDC) are Lin$^-$, HLA-DR$^+$, CD11c$^+$, and CD123^{low} cells, and plasmacytoid DCs (PDC) are Lin$^-$, HLA-DR$^+$, CD11c$^-$, and CD123^{high} cells. Helper T cell subpopulations were defined by the pattern of CXCR3 and CCR4; Th1 cells are CD4$^+$, CD45RO$^+$, and CXCR3$^+$, and Th2 cells are CD4$^+$, CD45RO$^+$, and CCR4$^+$. NK cells were defined as CD3$^-$ and CD56$^+$ cells. Regulatory T cells (Tregs) were defined as CD4$^+$, CD25^{high+} cells as reported previously [20]. The percentages of DC subsets and NK cells in PBMCs or Th1, Th2 cells and Tregs in CD4$^+$ T cells were determined by FACS. In order to examine the dynamics of immune cells after initiation of the treatment, we used the ratio of frequencies at each time point to those before the therapy [14].

Allogeneic mixed leukocyte reaction with DC

In some patients, we examined whether the allostimulatory ability of DCs was related to the clinical outcomes. Before, at the end of treatment, and at week 4 after completion of

the treatment, monocyte-derived DCs were generated from PBMC obtained from the patients according to methods reported previously [21]. As controls, monocyte-derived DCs were simultaneously generated from healthy donors. As responder cells in mixed lymphocyte reactions (MLR), naive $CD4^+$ T cells were isolated from PBMC of irrelevant healthy donors by using a naive $CD4^+$ T cell enrichment kit (Stemcell Technologies, Vancouver, BC). Allogeneic MLR with DC was performed as reported previously [21]. In order to compare the ability of DC among patients, we determined the MLR ratio between patients and controls as counts per minute (cpm) of [^{3}H]thymidine incorporated into CD4 T cells at the T cell/DC ratio of 10:1.

Statistical analyses

To analyze the relationship between clinical and immunological data at the baseline and virological response, univariate analysis using the Mann–Whitney *U* test or chi-squared test and multivariate analysis using logistic regression analysis were performed. The significance of trends in values was determined with the Mantel–Haenszel chi-square test. Differences of continuous variables between groups were compared by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). A two-railed *P* value less than 0.05 was considered significant. These statistical analyses were performed with SPSS version 15.0 (SPSS Inc. Chicago, IL, USA).

Results

Outcome of the PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin therapy

In 67 patients who had been treated for 48 weeks, 29 (43%) achieved SVR, 18 (27%) were TR, 17 (25%) were NR, and 3 (4%) were unknown (Fig. 1). The clinical backgrounds of these patients are summarized in Table 1. Among these cohorts, 32 patients were c-EVR and were further categorized into 24 SVR (EVR-SVR group) and 8 TR (EVR-TR group). Of the other 35 patients who were not c-EVR, 5 were SVR, 10 were TR, 17 were NR and 3 were unknown. Details of the therapeutic response in the current study are shown in Fig. 1.

Higher platelet counts and Treg increase are involved in SVR in patients who underwent PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin therapy

In order to clarify whether the frequency and function of immune cells are involved in the outcomes of the combination therapy, we first compared these parameters between SVR and non-SVR groups. Representative dot plots of the immune cell populations are shown in Fig. 2. The identification and enumeration of immune cells were determined by FACS. The pretreatment percentages of DC in SVR were higher than those in the non-SVR group. However, those of PDC, NK cells, Th1, Th2, Treg, and DC function as judged by MLR were not different between them (Fig. 3).

As for the changes of DC subsets during the therapy, in the SVR group, the frequencies of PDC increased after the

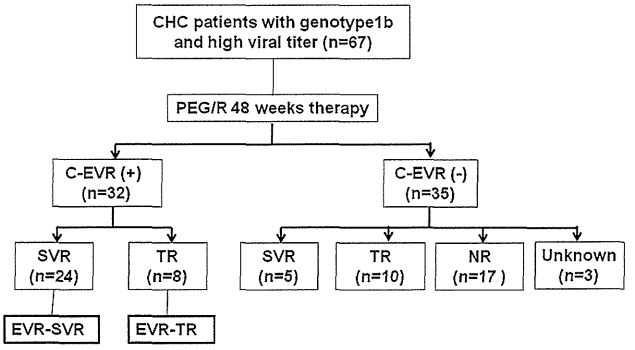


Fig. 1 Detailed outcomes of chronic hepatitis C patients treated with 48-week PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin combination therapy. In 67 patients who had been treated for 48 weeks, 29 achieved SVR, 18 were TR, 17 were NR, and 3 were unknown. The complete early virological responders (c-EVR) were defined as those who show a reduction in HCV RNA quantity to an undetectable level by qualitative PCR at week 12 of the therapy. According to this criterion, 32 patients were c-EVR and were further categorized into 24 SVR (EVR-SVR) and 8 TR (EVR-TR). Of the other 35 patients who were not c-EVR, 5 were SVR, 10 were TR, 17 were NR, and 3 were unknown. *SVR* sustained virological responder, *TR* transient responder, *NR* non-responder

Table 1 Demographics and clinical backgrounds of the subjects

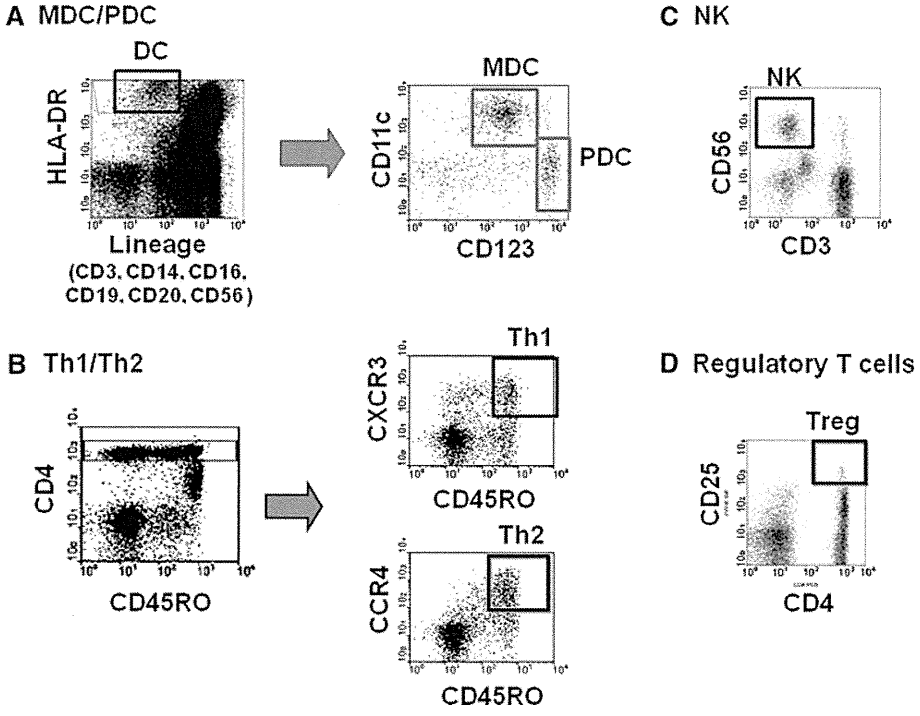
Factors	Value	Range
Number	67	
Age (years)	51.0 ± 10.3	(24–67)
Gender (M/F)	44/23	
HCV RNA (KIU)[a]	2415	
Activity: A0/1/2/3[b]	0/35/30/1	
Fibrosis: F0/1/2/3/4[b]	2/27/27/9/1	
WBC (/ml)	5229 ± 1299	(2960–9400)
Neutro (/ml)	2663 ± 826	(1077–4516)
Hb (g/dl)	14.6 ± 1.2	(12.0–18.0)
Platelets ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)	16.6 ± 4.6	(5.0–31.0)
ALT (IU/l)	83.1 ± 53.9	(14–269)
T. chol (mg/dl)	172 ± 29	(118–238)
Cr (mg/ml)	0.8 ± 0.2	(0.4–1.3)

All results are expressed as mean ± SD and range

T. chol total serum cholesterol, *Cr* creatinine

[a] Amplicore HCV monitor

[b] Ishak's histological scores



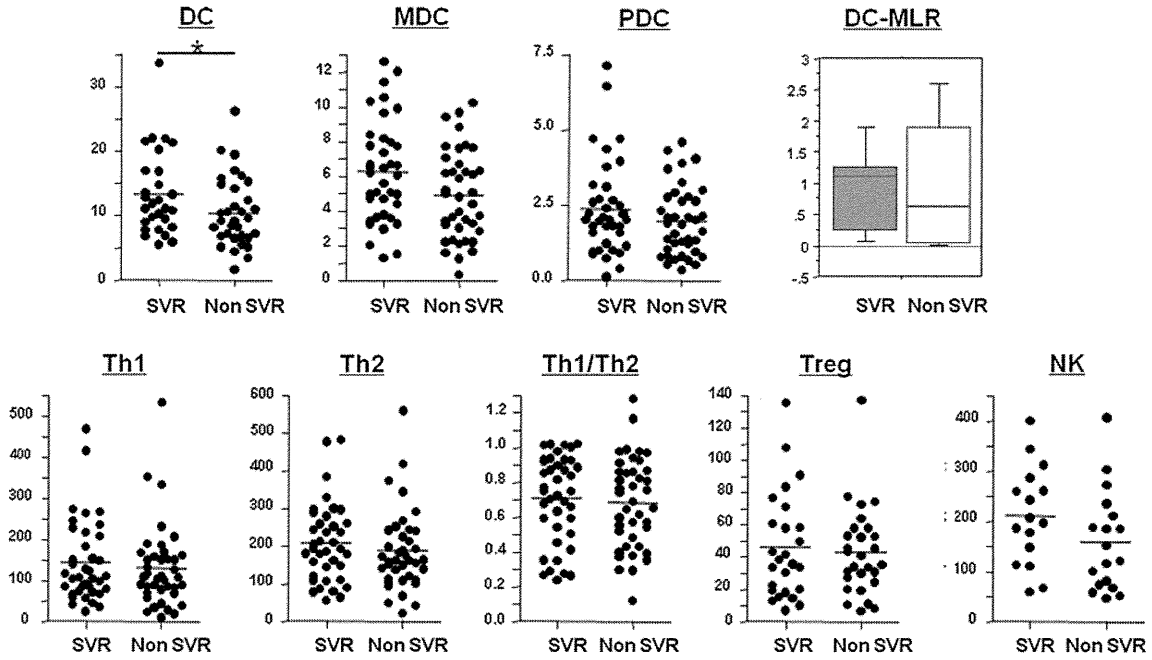


Fig. 3 Comparison of pretreatment frequency of blood cells and allostimulatory capacity of monocyte-derived dendritic cells between SVR and non-SVR patients who had been treated with 48-week PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin therapy. The frequencies of MDC, PDC, Th1 and Th2 cells, Th1/Th2 ratio, NK cells, regulatory T cells, and allogeneic MLR were compared between SVR and non-SVR patients. The MLR ratio between patients and controls was determined from the counts per minute (cpm) of [^{3}H]thymidine incorporated into $CD4^+$ T cells at T cell/DC ratio of 10:1. $*P < 0.05$ by Mann–Whitney U test

Fig. 2 Phenotypic identification of blood cells by flow cytometry. Representative analyses of myeloid and plasmacytoid dendritic cells (MDC and PDC), type 1 and type 2 helper T cells (Th1 and Th2), natural killer (NK) cells, and regulatory T cells are shown. The combination of surface molecules for the identification of cells is described in "Materials and methods"

beginning of therapy and showed a peak at week 12 of therapy (T12W), which subsided to the end-of-treatment (EOT). Such a PDC increase at the early phase was not observed in the non-SVR group (Fig. 4a). In contrast, the MDC frequency remained at a similar level throughout the therapy, regardless of viral response (data not shown). Alternatively, in the SVR group, the percentages of Treg ($CD4^+CD25^{high+}$ cells) increased through the therapy,

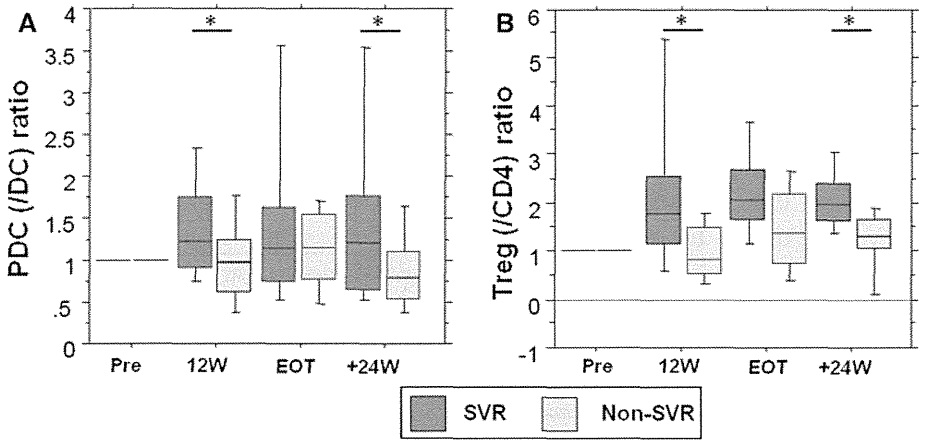


Fig. 4 Changes in frequencies of plasmacytoid dendritic cells and regulatory T cells during and after 48-week PEG-IFNα2b and ribavirin therapy in SVR and non-SVR patients. The ratios of frequencies of PDC (**a**) and Tregs (**b**) at each time point to the pretreatment values were compared between SVR and non-SVR patients. *Boxes* represent lower and upper quartiles, *solid line* within each *box* the median value, *whiskers* the minimum and maximum values. $^{*}P < 0.05$ by Mann–Whitney *U* test. *EOT* end-of-treatment (at 48 weeks of the therapy), *+24W* 24 weeks after the completion of therapy

with cell levels being higher than those in the non-SVR group (Fig. 4b). The other cells, including Th1, Th2, and NK cells, did not differ between the groups (data not shown). Univariate and multivariate analyses were performed to assess the significance of various factors, including demographic, biochemical, virological, immunological parameters, and drug adherence. The allostimulatory capacity of DC after the completion of therapy, whose significance was demonstrated in the previous paper [21], was not included in this study because the numbers of patients examined for it were limited. In univariate analyses, platelet counts, histological activity and fibrosis, dose of PEG-IFNα2b, and attainment of c-EVR were found to be significant in SVR (Table 2). As for immunological markers, pretreatment DC frequency, PDC frequency, their ratio at T12W, and Treg frequency ratio at T12W are significant (Table 3). Based on these parameters, multivariate analysis revealed that platelet counts and Treg frequency at T12W were independent factors involved in SVR (Table 4). These results show that higher platelet counts and Treg increment may be related to SVR in 48 weeks of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin treatment.

Table 2 Univariate analyses of clinical factors involved in SVR

Factors	SVR	Non-SVR
N	29	38
Age (years)	48.0 ± 11.8	53.3 ± 8.6
Gender (M/F)	20/9	24/14
WBC (/mm^3)	5361 ± 1314	5127 ± 1295
Neutro (/mm^3)	2969 ± 861	2461 ± 753
Hb (g/dl)	14.6 ± 1.2	14.5 ± 1.2
Platelets ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)	18.2 ± 4.4*	15.2 ± 4.4
ALT (IU/l)	72 ± 54	92 ± 53
HCV RNA (KIU/ml)	2103	2654
Activity: 0–1/2–3/n.d.	29/0/0$^{\#}$	27/10/1
Fibrosis: 0–2/3–4/n.d.	20/9/0*	15/22/1
PEG-IFN dose (μg/kg/day)	1.43 ± 0.14$^{\#}$	1.31 ± 0.22
Ribavirin dose (mg/kg/day)	10.6 ± 1.5	9.9 ± 1.4
c-EVR: +/−	24/5$^{\#}$	8/27

Mann–Whitney *U* test, chi-square test

n.d. not determined

$^{*}P < 0.05$, $^{\#}P < 0.01$

Higher platelet counts and PDC increase are independent factors involved in SVR after attainment of c-EVR

Next, we examined the above-mentioned immunological parameters in patients who attained c-EVR, as they were considered to be comparable with respect to the virological response to the therapy. Among 32 patients in the c-EVR group, 24 developed to SVR (EVR-SVR) and the remaining 8 to TR (EVR-TR) (Fig. 1). Univariate analysis disclosed that lower age is a characteristic of the EVR-SVR patients compared with those in the EVR-TR group (Table 5). As for immunological markers, pretreatment DC frequency, PDC frequency, and PDC ratio at T12W were higher in EVR-SVR patients than those in EVR-TR (Table 6). The pretreatment percentages of MDC, PDC, Th1, Th2, NK cells, and Tregs and those at any all points during the therapy did not differ between EVR-SVR and EVR-TR patients (data not shown). Multivariate analyses revealed that higher platelet counts and PDC increase at T12W were independent factors involved in EVR-SVR (Table 7). These results indicate that the dynamics of PDC

Table 3 Univariate analyses of immunological factors involved in SVR

Factors	SVR	Non-SVR	*P* value
N	29	38	
DC pre (/μl)	13.3 ± 6.5	10.3 ± 5.4	0.038
PDC-12W (/DC)	0.23 ± 0.09	0.18 ± 0.07	0.017
PDC-12W (/DC) ratio	1.42 ± 0.72	1.04 ± 0.63	0.028
Treg-12W (/CD4) ratio	2.49 ± 2.62	1.03 ± 0.64	0.016

Mann–Whitney *U* test, chi-square test

Only the factors that are of significance are shown

DC pre DC number before therapy, *PDC-12W (/DC)* PDC frequency in DC at T12W, *PDC-12W (/DC) ratio* the ratio of PDC frequency in DC at T12W to the pretreatment value, *Treg-12W (/CD4) ratio* the ratio of regulatory T cell frequency in CD4 at T12W to the pretreatment value

Table 4 Multivariate analyses of clinical and Immunological factors involved in SVR

Factors	Category	Odds ratio	95% CI	*P* value
Platelets		0.531	0.322–0.875	0.013
Treg-12W (/CD4) ratio	<1.2/>1.2	0.026	0.001–0.750	0.033

Logistic regression analysis, stepwise method

Table 5 Univariate analyses of clinical factors involved in SVR after the attainment of c-EVR in 48 weeks of therapy

Factors	EVR-SVR	EVR-TR
N	24	8
Age (years)	46.9 ± 12.3*	57.6 ± 6.5
Gender (M/F)	17/7	6/2
WBC (/mm^3)	5442 ± 1382	5211 ± 805
Neutro (/mm^3)	2975 ± 890	2587 ± 759
Hb (g/dl)	14.7 ± 1.1	15.1 ± 1.2
Platelets (×10^4/mm^3)	18.7 ± 4.5	15.0 ± 3.8
ALT (IU/l)	69 ± 56	91 ± 61
HCV RNA (KIU/ml)	1723	1296
Activity: 0–1/2–3/n.d.	24/0/0	6/2/0
Fibrosis: 0–2/3–4/n.d.	16/8/0	5/3/0
PEG-IFN dose (μg/kg/day)	1.43 ± 0.15	1.39 ± 0.23
Ribavirin dose (mg/kg/day)	10.8 ± 1.5	10.1 ± 2.1

Mann–Whitney *U* test, chi-square test

n.d. not determined, *EVR-SVR* SVR patients who attained complete EVR at T12W, *EVR-TR* TR patients who attained complete EVR at T12W

*$P < 0.05$

frequency during therapy serve as an independent immunological predictor for SVR in patients who attained c-EVR with PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy.

Table 6 Univariate analyses of immunological factors involved in SVR after the attainment of c-EVR in 48 weeks of therapy

Factors	Category	EVR-SVR	EVR-TR	*P* value
N		24	8	
DC pre (/μl)		13.5 ± 6.8	8.9 ± 4.5	0.030
PDC-12W (/DC) ratio	<0.8/>0.8	3/21	4/4	0.047

Mann–Whitney *U* test, chi-square test

Only the factors that are of significance are shown

DC pre, *PDC-12 (/DC) ratio*: see Table 3

Table 7 Multivariate analyses of clinical and immunological factors involved in SVR after the attainment of c-EVR in 48 weeks of therapy

Factors	Category	Odds ratio	95% CI	*P* value
Platelets		0.627	0.402–0.978	0.040
PDC-12W (/DC)	<0.18/≥0.18	0.028	0.001–0.787	0.036
PDC-12W (/DC) ratio	<0.8/≥0.8	0.032	0.002–0.673	0.027

Logistic regression analysis, stepwise method

PDC-12W (/DC), PDC-12W(/DC) ratio: see Table 3

Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that the increase of Treg frequency during therapy is involved in SVR, and that of PDC is in SVR patients who attained c-EVR in 48 weeks of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy. Of particular importance is that such significance is independent of viral dynamics (c-EVR), host factors (fibrosis, gender), and drug adherence.

Regulatory T cells (Treg) are immune suppressors that are supposed to alleviate HCV-induced liver inflammation. In chronic HCV infection, the increment of Tregs has been reported by several investigators, including us, although the underlying mechanisms were unspecified [20, 22]. The increase of Treg in SVR patients observed herein seems to be inconsistent with the previous reports regarding Treg as a tolerance inducer in chronic hepatitis C patients. Several controversial reports have been published with regard to the involvement of Tregs in the efficacy of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy for chronic hepatitis C. Soldevila et al. [23] showed that the pretreatment frequency of Treg is higher in patients with non-response (NR) than those in the non-NR groups. Akiyama et al. [24] reported that Tregs in PBMC increased in SVR patients at earlier time points, while Tregs in liver-infiltrating lymphocytes decreased. By contrast, another group disclosed that frequency, phenotype, and function of Tregs are comparable regardless of the outcomes of PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy [25].

The current observation raises the possibility that the reduction of HCV load and/or liver inflammation correlates with the increment of Treg frequency, or vice versa. Recently, it was reported that liver inflammation caused by HCV induces PD-L1 on hepatocytes, which then suppress Treg proliferation in liver [26]. If such a scenario is operative as well in PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy, alleviation of liver inflammation may reduce PD-L1 expression on hepatocytes, thereby stimulating Treg proliferation. However, most of the TR patients, who were categorized as being in the non-SVR group, displayed normalized serum ALT levels and negative HCV RNA during treatment, of which conditions are equivalent with the SVR patients. Thus, it is still uncertain whether or not such mechanisms are applicable to the present results.

The other possibility is that phenotypically determined Tregs in this study partly consist of activated T cells. It is well known that $CD127^-$ and $FOXP3^+$ are reliable markers of Tregs [27]. In order to examine whether or not the increment of Treg frequency in this study is a contamination of activated T cells, we determined Tregs as $CD4^+CD25^{high}FOXP3^+CD127^-$ cells instead of $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ cells in some patients. In the comparison of the ratio of $CD4^+CD25^{high}FOXP3^+CD127^-$ cell frequency between the SVR and non-SVR groups at T12W, similar results were obtained with those of $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ cells (SVR vs. non-SVR, 10 patients in each group, 2.50 ± 1.20 vs. 1.54 ± 0.53, $P < 0.05$ by Mann–Whitney U test). These results suggest that the analytical results of $CD4^+CD25^{high}$ T cells reflect those of $FOXP3^+$ Tregs. Further investigation is needed to show that such Tregs are functionally suppressive and to see if the change of frequency parallels with suppressor capacity or not.

According to the AASLD practice guidelines for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C, a combination of PEG/R for 48 weeks is recommended for patients who attained c-EVR at week 12 of therapy [17]. However, in some cohorts with large numbers of patients, approximately 30% of them eventually relapse after cessation of the therapy [5]. The factors involved in post-therapeutic relapse have not been fully explored. We and others have reported that liver fibrosis, female gender, late virological response, and dosage of ribavirin (drug adherence) are critically involved in relapse [19, 28, 29]. It is well known that platelet counts in patients with chronic liver disease are well correlated with the degree of fibrosis. In the present study, multivariate analyses revealed that platelet counts but not fibrosis stage are involved in SVR. The reasons for such discrepant contributions to SVR are not clear; however, it demonstrates that the degree of fibrosis is involved in the therapeutic response in this cohort. In addition, the current study showed that the changes of PDC frequency are also somewhat involved in virological relapse in patients that once attained c-EVR.

Plasmacytoid DCs (PDC) play crucial roles in antivirus immune responses by producing IFN-β and -α [30]. In the previous study by us [14], the increment of PDC is observed in patients with SVR, of which change is more significant in those with c-EVR. No concrete explanation is available for the mechanisms of PDC increase in SVR patients. One of the possibilities is that the PDC increase is a consequence of better response to exogenous IFN-α in patients who have a higher chance of attaining SVR. IFN-α is reported to act as a regulatory factor on $CD11c^-$ DCs to sustain their viability and to inhibit gaining the ability to stimulate Th2 development [31]. Such a possibility is supported by the findings that higher induction of IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) in hepatocytes after PEG-IFNα and ribavirin therapy, but not higher ISG levels before therapy, is critically involved in successful outcome [32]. Thus, patients who respond well to IFN-α, as demonstrated by better PDC survival during the treatment, are likely to have better chances to eradicate HCV.

Another possible reason for the PDC increase in the periphery of SVR patients is that PDC alter their localization during the treatment. Mengshol et al. [33] reported that PDC and myeloid DC (MDC) are accumulated in inflamed liver through the interactions of chemokines and their receptors. Of particular interest is that the expression of such chemokine receptors on DCs decreased in SVR patients, but not in non-SVR ones [33]. Therefore, it is plausible that PDC may migrate from the liver to periphery/lymphoid tissue after being unleashed from chemokines in the liver. In support for this, it is reported that IFN-α alters the profiles of chemokine receptors on DC, resulting in changes of the DC migrating ability [34].

Recently, numerous other factors were reported to be involved in therapeutic response in chronic hepatitis C patients, such as mutations of HCV genome (core region) [35] or host genetic variation (single nucleotide polymorphisms near the IL28B gene) [36]. In the current study, we were unable to analyze such factors because of the limited numbers of patients. A prospective study is warranted to analyze the involvement of such factors in relation to immune cell markers, in the outcomes of SOC, or the treatment with direct-acting antiviral agents.

In summary, we demonstrated that the increase of Treg frequency is an independent factor involved in SVR in 48 weeks of SOC for chronic hepatitis C patients. In addition, the increase of PDC gains similar significance in SVR patients who attained c-EVR. The assessment of the dynamics of such cells during therapy could offer some clues to identify potential relapsers and give them a better chance of attaining SVR by rescheduling the therapy.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Interferon-α suppresses hepatitis B virus enhancer II activity via the protein kinase C pathway

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ABSTRACT

HBV has two enhancer (En) regions each of which promotes its own transcription. En II regulates production of pregenomic RNA, a key product of HBV replication, more strongly than En I. Although IFN-α has been found to suppress En I activity, its effect on En II activity has not been examined. Here we used luciferase assay to demonstrate that IFN-α suppresses En II activity. Analysis with several deletion/mutation constructs identified two major segments, nt 1703–1727 and nt 1746–1770, within the En II sequence as being responsible for the suppressive effects of IFN-α. Pre-treatment with protein kinase C (PKC) inhibitors blocked this effect regardless of the expression levels of phospho-STAT1 and Mx upon IFN-α stimulation. These results indicate that IFN-α suppresses En II activity via the PKC pathway, which may be an alternative suppressive pathway for HBV replication. (136 words).

Introduction

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) causes acute and chronic hepatitis in humans, and chronic infection is closely associated with the development of liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (Lok and McMahon, 2009). HBV has a partially double-stranded 3.2-kb DNA genome (relaxed circular (RC) DNA) in its nucleocapsid. When HBV invades host cells, RC-DNA is converted into a plasmid-like covalently closed circular DNA (cccDNA) inside the nucleus. From the cccDNA, the 3.5-, 2.4-, 2.1-, and 0.8-kb mRNAs are transcribed by cellular RNA polymerase II (Beck and Nassal, 2007). Among these RNAs, 3.5-kb pregenomic RNA (pgRNA) serves as the template of reverse transcription for synthesis of negative-strand DNA. Thus, transcription of pgRNA from cccDNA is one of the key steps in HBV replication.

In the HBV genome, there are four promoters (CP, SPI, SPII, and XP) and two transcriptional enhancer regions. Both enhancers stimulate transcription from the promoters (Antonucci and Rutter, 1989; Moolla et al., 2002; Su and Yee, 1992; Vannice and Levinson, 1988; Yee, 1989). Enhancer I (En I), which is located upstream of the X gene, activates transcription in a relatively cell-independent manner (Vannice and Levinson, 1988). In contrast, enhancer II (En II) (Fig. 1), located just upstream of CP, specifically activates transcription in hepatocytes (Wang et al., 1990; Yee, 1989; Yuh and Ting, 1990). Hepatocytes selectively express transcription factors which activate En II activity, such as HNF1 (Wang et al., 1998), HNF3 (Johnson et al., 1995; Li et al., 1995), HNF4 (Guo et al., 1993; Raney et al., 1997), CCAAT/enhancer binding protein (C/EBP) (López-Cabrera et al., 1990, 1991; Yuh and Ting, 1991) and FTF (Ishida et al., 2000; Li et al., 1998). This characterizes En II as a hepatocyte-specific *cis*-acting element. A previous report showed that, upon transfection with HBV genome, human hepatic cells, but not non-hepatic cells, were able to express pgRNA (Sureau et al., 1986). For this reason, En II is considered to regulate the production of pgRNA more strongly than En I (Yee, 1989).

Interferon-α (IFN-α) has been used as an anti-viral agent against HBV. It suppresses HBV viral load and ameliorates hepatic inflammation (Jonas et al., 2010; Liaw, 2009). Type I IFN activates the Janus kinase (JAK) bound to the cytoplasmic domain of its receptor. JAK phosphorylates transcription factors such as signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) 1 and STAT2. Phosphorylated STAT1 and STAT2 bind to IFN regulatory factor 9 (IRF9). These transcription factors form a complex, IFN-stimulated gene factor 3 (ISGF3). This complex binds to IFN stimulation response element (ISRE) in the promoter region of various genes, and activates interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) (Der et al., 1998). Some of the ISGs including RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR), 2′,5′-oligoadenylate synthetases (OAS), and Mx have been shown to possess antiviral activity. ISG induction by type I IFN is considered to be the main pathway to suppressing viral replication.

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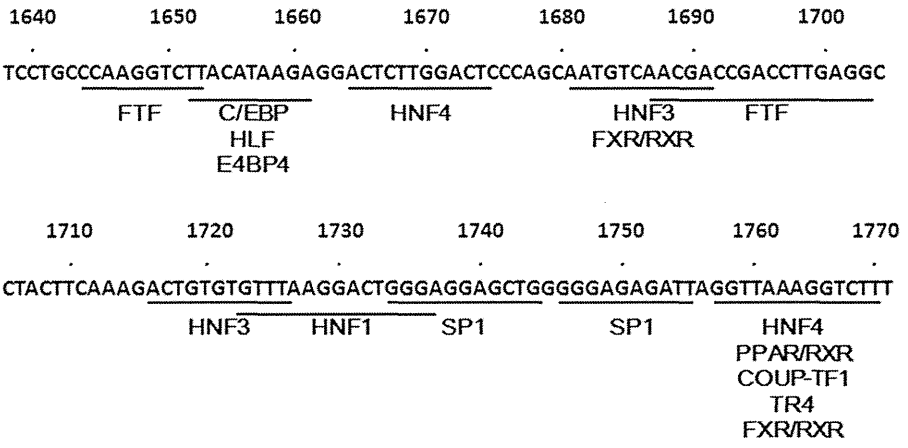

Fig. 1. Nucleotide sequences of the HBV En II region. The HBV sequence used in this study was of the *adw2* subtype (GenBank accession no. X02763). Numbering of the HBV sequence started at the unique *Eco*RI site. The underlined sequences represent the transcription factor binding sites mentioned in previous reports.

Type I IFN has been reported to inhibit HBV En I and core promoter activities (Nakao et al., 1999; Romero and Lavine, 1996; Schulte-Frohlinde et al., 2002; Tur-Kaspa et al., 1990). Nakao et al. demonstrated that IFN-α suppressed En I transcriptional activity by the binding of ISGF3 to the ISRE-like sequence in En I region (Nakao et al., 1999). However, there has been no study on the effect of IFN-α on HBV En II activity. In this study, we demonstrated that IFN-α suppressed En II activity via activation of PKC. Notably, STAT1 activation and ISG induction may be dispensable for IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity. This might shed light on understanding the inhibition of HBV replication by IFN-α.

Results

En II activity is down-regulated by IFN-α

We constructed a luciferase gene expression vector by inserting the En II sequence (nt 1640 to 1771) into pGL4LUC (pGL4LUC-En II). Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC or pGL4LUC-En II, treated with or without IFN-α, and luciferase activities were evaluated. Insertion of En II increased the luciferase activity (about 228-fold) (Fig. 2A). IFN-α down-regulated the luciferase activity of pGL4LUC-En II, but did not affect that of pGL4LUC (Fig. 2B). This result suggested that IFN-α inhibited the activity of En II, and we examined the time course of IFN-α-induced suppression of En II activity. The suppressive effect of IFN-α on En II activity appeared at 3 h after administration of IFN-α, peaked at 6–12 h, and was gradually attenuated (Fig. 2C). Next, dose-response analysis showed that the En II activity was down-regulated by IFN-α in a dose-dependent manner, with the maximal suppressive effect at 300–1000 IU/m (Fig. 2D). We also examined the IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity in other hepatoma cell lines, PLC/PRF/5 and Hep3B. IFN-α significantly suppressed En II activities in both these cell lines (Fig. 2E). We next assessed whether or not IFN-α regulated HBV transcription in the HBV genome transfected cells by RT-PCR. HBV-RNA levels were significantly reduced by IFN-α (Fig. 2F). These results indicate that IFN-α suppresses HBV En II activity as well as its expression at a transcriptional level.

Both nt 1703–1727 and nt 1746–1770 within the En II region are required for suppression of En II activity by IFN-α

To determine the region responsible for the inhibitory effect of IFN-α on En II activity, we divided the En II sequence into six segments (Fig. 3A), and constructed plasmids containing En II sequences with deletion of each segment (pGL4LUC-En II-D1∼6). Huh-7 cells were transfected with these deleted constructs, treated with IFN-α, and then assayed for luciferase activity. None of the deletions could restore the suppressive activity by IFN-α (Fig. 3B), suggesting that there are several responsible regions for the IFN-α-induced suppression of En II activity. Next, we constructed plasmids containing four iterations of each segment within the En II sequence in tandem (pGL4LUC-En II-T1∼6) to examine the contribution of individual short fragments. IFN-α significantly suppressed the activities of pGL4LUC-En II-T2, T3, T4, T5 and -T6 in luciferase assay. Among them, the activities of pGL4LUC-En II-T4 and -T6 showed the largest suppression by IFN-α (Fig. 3C). On the basis of this result, we constructed a luciferase reporter vector with deletions of both segment 4 (nt 1703–1727) and segment 6 (nt 1746–1770) (pGL4LUC-En II-D4+6). The activity of this dual-deleted construct did not show a significant change due to IFN-α (Fig. 3D). These results suggest that both nt 1703–1727 and nt 1746–1770 within the En II region are required for the suppression of En II activity by IFN-α.

IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity is dependent on JAK activation

IFN-induced signal transduction occurs through the sequential activation of JAKs and STATs (Darnell et al., 1994). We examined the role of JAK in the inhibition of En II activity. JAK inhibitor alone did not affect En II activity. But the pre-treatment of the cells with JAK inhibitor completely blocked the suppressive effect of IFN-α on En II activity (Fig. 4A). The effect of JAK inhibitor was confirmed by the reducion of Mx induction in Western blot analysis (Fig. 4B). This result demonstrates that JAK activation is necessary for the IFN-α-induced suppression of En II activity.

The PKC pathway is involved in IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity

Previous reports demonstrated that type I IFN activated various kinases such as MAPK family members (MEK/ERK and p38 MAPK) (David et al., 1995; Goh et al., 1999), PI3K/Akt (Uddin et al., 1995), JNK (Caraglia et al., 1999) and protein kinase C (PKC) (Uddin et al., 2002). Here we examined the involvement of alternative pathways by pre-treatment with inhibitors for various kinases, including MEK, p38 MAPK, PI3K/Akt, JNK and PKC. The name of each inhibitors and its target kinase is commented in Table 1. As shown in Fig. 5A, only staurosporine, a PKC inhibitor, blocked the inhibitory effect of IFN-α, and other inhibitors did

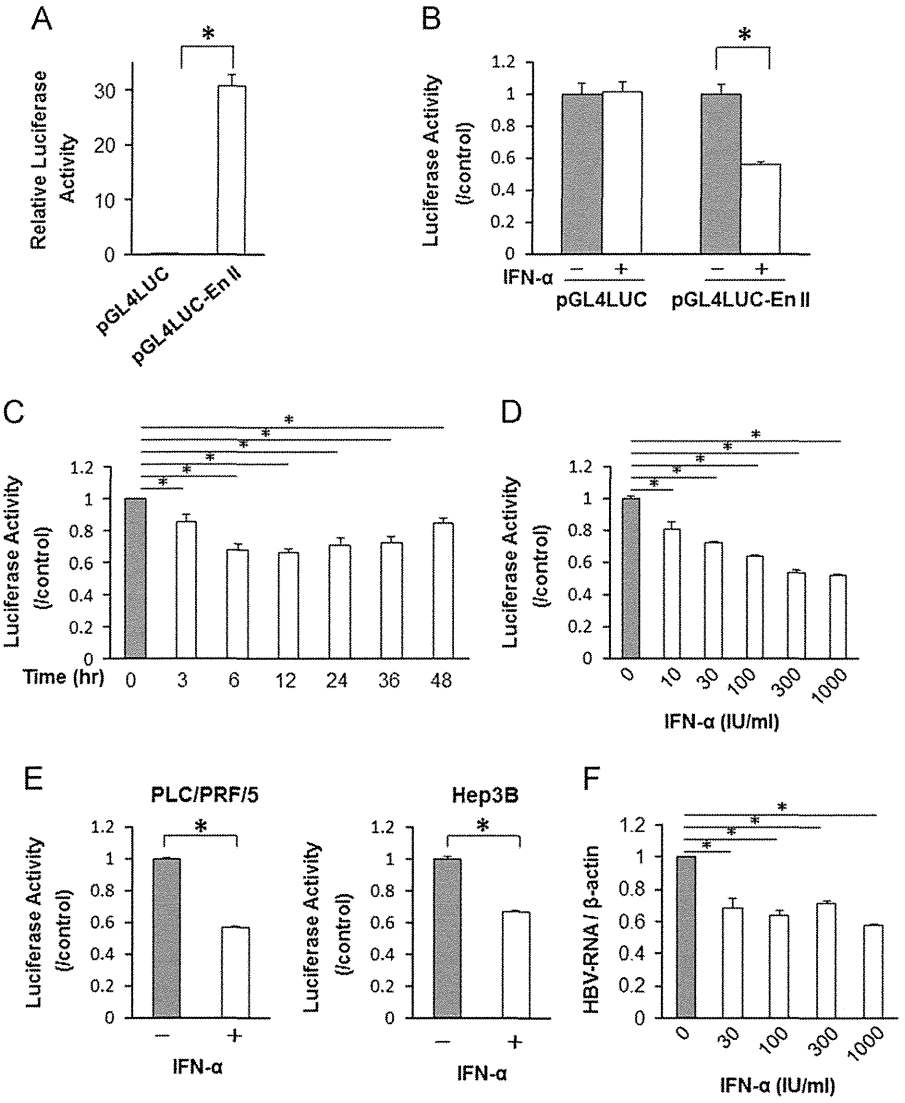

Fig. 2. Suppression of HBV En II transcriptional activity and reduction of HBV-RNA by IFN-α. A, B. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC or pGL4LUC-En II or incubated with or without IFN-α (100 IU/ml). After 24 h, the activity of firefly luciferase was evaluated. C. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC-En II, and incubated with IFN-α (100 IU/ml). Luciferase activities were evaluated at the indicated times. D. Huh-7 cells were transfected with various concentrations (0–1000 IU/ml) of IFN-α for 12 h and luciferase activities were evaluated. E. PLC/PRF/5 cells (left panel) and Hep3B (right panel) cells were transfected with pGL4LUC-En II, and incubated with or without IFN-α (300 IU/ml). Luciferase activities were evaluated. F. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pHBV1.5, and treated with IFN-α at various concentrations (0–1000 IU/ml). At 72 h after IFN-α treatment, cells were harvested, and the abundances of HBV-RNA were evaluated by quantitative RT-PCR. The HBV-RNA level of the IFN-α treated cells was normalized with that of non-treated cells. $*p < 0.05$. "/control" on the vertical axis means the ratio of luciferase activity of IFN-α treated cells normalized with that of non-treated cells.

not. Since staurosporine is a PKC inhibitor showing broad-spectrum activity (Marte et al., 1994), we also examined other inhibitors specific for PKC isoforms. Previous reports demonstrated that IFN-α activated PKC-α/β and PKC-δ (Pfeffer et al., 1990; Uddin et al., 2002). Indeed, activation of PKC-α/β and PKC-δ by IFN-α was confirmed by immunoblot analysis (Fig. 5B). Thus, we examined the PKC inhibitors rottlerin and Gö6976 (Gschwendt et al., 1994; Martiny-Baron et al., 1993). All PKC inhibitors blocked the suppression of En II activity by IFN-α (Fig. 5C). These results suggest that several isoforms of PKC are involved in the IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity. We also examined STAT1 activation and ISGs induction by IFN-α in cells pre-treated with these PKC inhibitors using immunoblot analysis (Fig. 5D). Expression levels of phospho-STAT1 and Mx differed among these PKC inhibitors. Staurosporine and Gö6976 slightly diminished the activation of STAT1, but rottlerin did not. This result suggests that PKC isoforms might not strongly regulate activation of STAT1. Rottlerin, a specific inhibitor for PKC-δ, inhibited the induction of Mx, which agreed with previous findings (Kaur et al., 2005). Staurosporine and Gö6976 did not suppress Mx expression. Taken together, all these PKC inhibitors blocked the suppression of En II activity by IFN-α regardless of the expression levels of phospho-STAT1 and Mx. These results suggest that STAT1 activation and ISG induction may be dispensable for the IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity. Next, we examined the effect of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), a PKC activator (Castagna et al., 1982; Griner and Kazanietz, 2007). PMA suppressed En II activity (Fig. 5E), and PMA stimulation did not result in STAT1 phosphorylation and Mx induction (Fig. 5F), suggesting that suppression of En II by PMA is independent of STAT1 activation and ISG induction. On the basis of these findings, we conclude that IFN-α suppresses En II activity via the PKC pathway, which may not involve STAT1 activation and ISG induction.

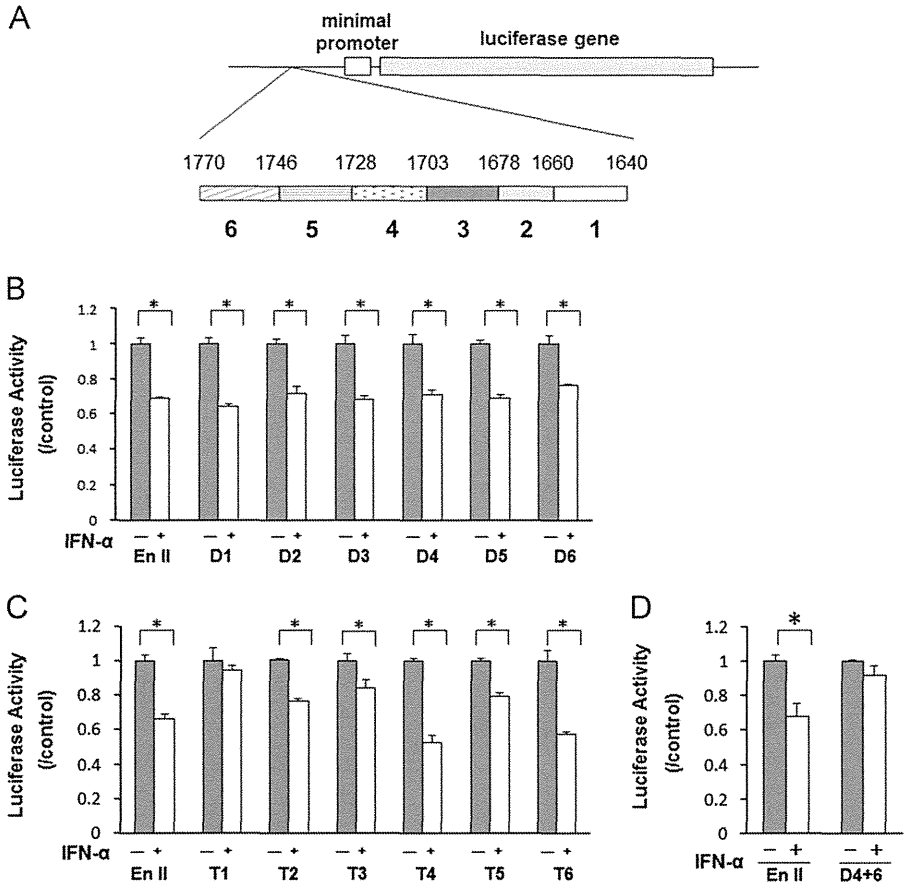

Fig. 3. Deletion/mutational analysis to identify the responsive sequence for the suppressive effect of IFN-α on En II. A. Scheme of pGL4LUC-En II and six segments defined within the En II sequence. The En II sequence was integrated just upstream of the minimal promoter of pGL4LUC. B. Huh-7 cells were transfected with the reporter vectors with deletion of each segment (pGL4LUC-En II-D1∼6), incubated with 300 IU/ml IFN-α for 12 h, and luciferase activities were evaluated. C. Plasmids containing four iterations of each segment within En II sequence in tandem (pGL4LUC-En II-T1∼6) were generated and luciferase activities were evaluated similarly. D. Plasmid with deletion of both nt 1703–1727 and nt 1746–1770 (pGL4LUC-En II-D4+6) was constructed and luciferase activities were evaluated similarly. $*p < 0.05$. "/control" on the vertical axis means the ratio of luciferase activity of IFN-α treated cells normalized with that of non-treated cells.

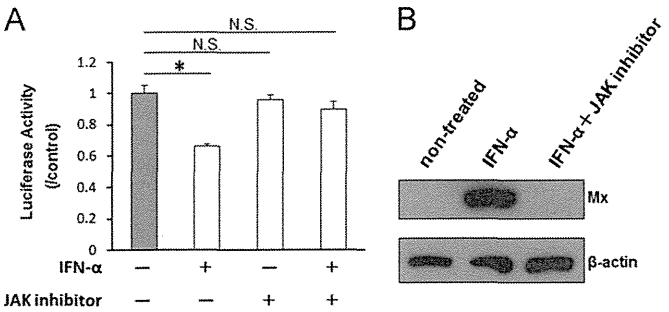

Fig. 4. Involvement of JAK activation in the IFN-α-induced suppression of En II activity. A. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC-En II and treated with JAK inhibitor (1 μM) for 1 h. The cells were then incubated with IFN-α(150 IU/ml) for 12 h, followed by luciferase assay. B. Huh-7 cells were pre-treated with JAK inhibitor for 1 h, and then incubated with IFN-α(150 IU/ml) for 12 h, followed by immunoblot analyses to detect Mx protein. $*p < 0.05$. "/control" on the vertical axis means the ratio of luciferase activity of IFN-α treated cells normalized by that of non-treated cells.

Table 1
A comment of the inhibitors and its target kinase.

PD98059	MEK inhibitor
SB203580	P38MAPK inhibitor
LY294002	PI3K inhibitor
Akt-1-1/2	Akt inhibitor
SP600125	JNK inhibitor
Staurosporine	PKC inhibitor with broad spectrum
Rottlerin	Inhibitor specific for PKC-δ
Gö6976	Inhibitor specific for Ca^{2+}-dependent PKC isoforms

Knockdown of a single transcription factor does not influence IFN-α-induced suppression of En II activity

We anticipated that IFN-α suppressed En II activity by functional down-regulation of some transcription factor(s) phosphorylated in a PKC-dependent manner. Among transcription factors which bind the En II region, previous reports showed that Specificity Protein 1 (Sp1) (Mahoney et al., 1992; Pal et al., 1998; Rafty and Khachigian, 2001), Retinoid X Receptor α (RXRA) (Delmotte et al., 1999) and C/EBP (Mahoney et al., 1992) were inactivated by PKC. Thus, we examined the En II response to IFN-α after knockdown of these transcription factors. C/EBP, RXR and Sp1 expression was efficiently reduced by siRNA (Fig. 6A). We observed no significant change in the suppression of En II activity compared with control siRNA (Fig. 6B). This result suggests that several transcription factors (including unknown proteins) might be involved in the IFN-α-mediated suppression of En II activity.

Discussion

In the present study, we demonstrated that IFN-α suppressed HBV En II activity. The inhibition by IFN-α of En II activity could be blocked by pre-treatment with PKC inhibitors, and this

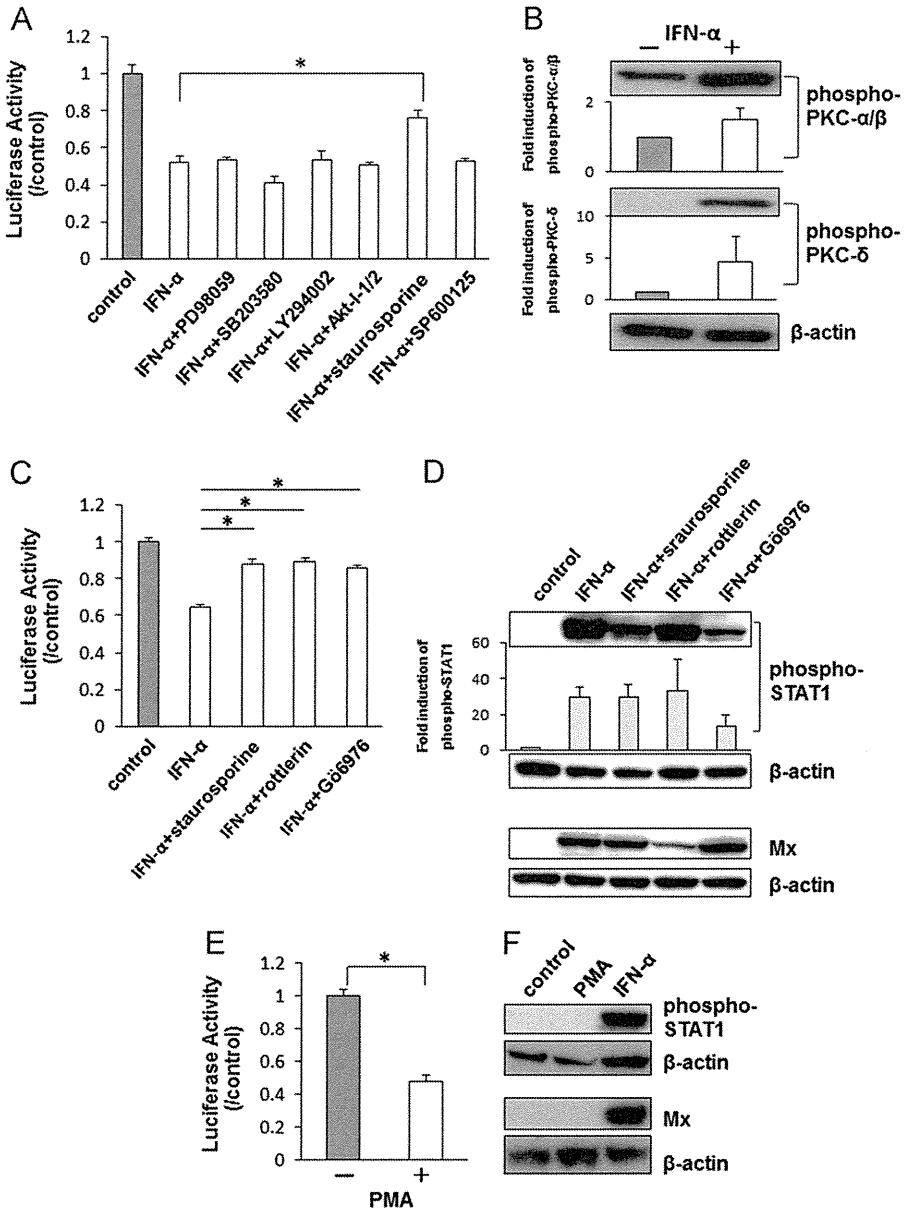

Fig. 5. PKC-dependent suppression of En II activity by IFN-α. A and C. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC-En II, treated separately with each kinase inhibitor for 1 h. The cells were then treated with IFN-α(1000 IU/ml) for 12 h, and luciferase activities were evaluated. B. Huh-7 cells were treated with IFN-α(1000 IU/m) for 12 h. Immunoblot analyses were performed to detect phosphorylated PKC-α/β and phosphorylated PKC-δ. Quantitative analysis of the expression level of phopho- PKC-α/β and -δ was performed by using ImageJ. Each level was normalized with that of IFN-α-non-treated cells. D. Huh-7 cells were harvested at 30 min to detect phosphorylated STAT1 and at 12 h to detect the expression of Mx after administration of IFN-α (1000 IU/m), and immunoblot analyses were performed. Quantitative analysis of the expression level of phopho-STAT1 was performed by using ImageJ. Each level was normalized with that of IFN-α-non-treated cells. E. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pGL4LUC-En II, treated with PMA (100 nM) for 12 h, and luciferase activities were evaluated. F. Huh-7 cells were treated with PMA (100 nM) or IFN-α(1000 IU/m). The cells were harvested at 30 min to detect phosphorylated STAT1 and at 12 h to detect the expression of Mx, and immunoblot analyses were performed. $*p < 0.05$. "/control" on the vertical axis means the ratio of luciferase activity of IFN-α/ PMA treated cells normalized with that of non-treated cells.

blocking effect may not involve STAT1 activation and ISG induction. The latter, ISG induction via the JAK-STAT pathway, has been considered to be the main mechanism suppressing viral replication. Our findings suggest a pathway for IFN-α repression of HBV transcription other than ISG induction.

PKCs are involved in a wide variety of cell functions and signal transduction pathways regulating cell migration and polarity, proliferation, differentiation and cell death (Nishizuka, 1988). In the PKC family, there are at least ten isoforms which can be divided into three sub-groups based on their structural characteristics and cofactor requirements. These include the classical PKC (cPKC: α, βI, βII, and γ), the novel PKC (nPKC: δ, ε, η and θ), and the atypical PKC (aPKC: ζ and ι/λ) (Azzi et al., 1992; Breitkreutz et al., 2007; Kikkawa et al., 1989). IFN-α can activate multiple PKC isoforms: not only PKC-δ, but also PKC-α/β (Pfeffer et al., 1990), PKC-ε (Pfeffer et al., 1991), and PKC-θ (Srivastava et al., 2004). Despite the variety of PKC isoforms, most phosphorylate similar sequences (Breitkreutz et al., 2007). Both the PKC-α/β inhibitor (Gö6976) and PKC-δ inhibitor (rottlerin) blocked the inhibitory effect of IFN-α on En II activity. Thus, it was speculated that each PKC isoform might be similarly involved in suppressing of En II activity.

Other studies have examined the role of the PKC pathway in HBV replication. Kang et al. (2008) reported that PKC-mediated phosphorylation increased capsid assembly and stability (von Hahn et al., 2011), and von Hahn et al. (2011) reported that the