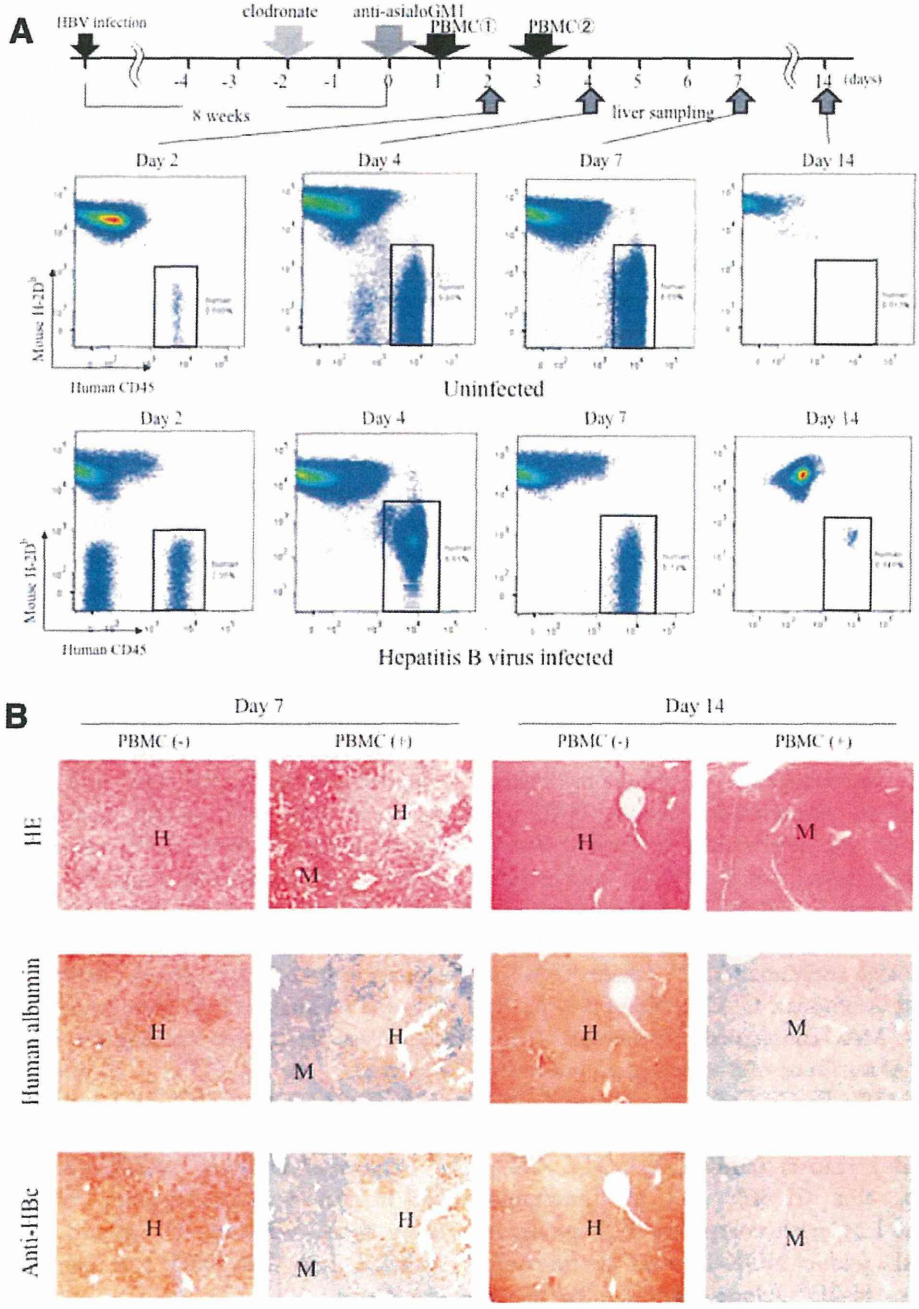

Fig. 1. Establishment of human PBMC chimerism in human hepatocyte chimeric mice. (A) Experimental protocol to establish chimerism and liver sampling is shown at the top of the figure (see Materials and Methods). Scheduling of administration of HBV-positive serum, clodronate, and anti-asialo GM1 antibody and liver sampling by scarification are shown by arrows. Liver mononuclear cells isolated from uninfected (upper panel) and HBV-infected (lower panel) human hepatocyte chimeric mice transplanted with human PBMCs were separated with antibodies for human CD45 and mouse H-2D^b and were analyzed by flow cytometry. Percentage of human mononuclear cells is shown in each panel. Representative figures of two experiments with similar results are shown. (B) Histological analysis of livers of HBV-infected mice. Liver samples obtained from mice with or without human PBMCs at weeks 9 (day 7) and 10 (day 14) were stained with hematoxylin and eosin staining (HE), anti-human albumin antibody, or anti-hepatitis B core antibody. Regions are shown as human (H) and mouse (M) hepatocytes, respectively (original magnification, 40×). (C) Time course of human albumin concentration (upper panel) and HBV DNA titer (lower panel) in mouse serum. Time course of 4 HBV-infected mice transplanted with human PBMCs, 3 HBV-infected mice without human PBMC transplantation, and 4 uninfected mice transplanted with human PBMC are shown. (D) Time course of human albumin concentration (upper panel) and HBV DNA titer (lower panel) in mice. Mice with or without HBV-infection were transplanted with PBMCs obtained from 3 healthy donors who were not vaccinated against hepatitis B.

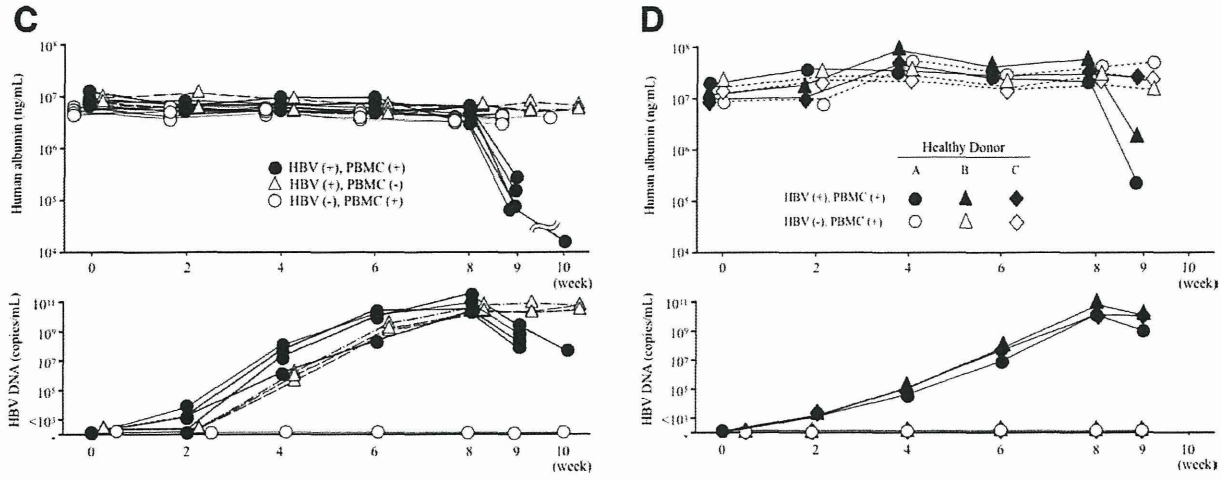

Fig. 1.

enabled us to establish a human PBMC chimerism in uPA-SCID mice. We observed an up to 7% human mononuclear cell chimerism among the liver-resident mononuclear cells of uninfected and HBV-infected mice 2-14 days after the initial injection of PBMC (Fig. 1A; Table 1). Chimerism was most prominent 4 days after initial PBMC administration and almost undetectable by day 14 (Fig. 1A). Histological examination of chimeric mice livers showed extensive human liver cell death, comparable to the massive liver cell death observed in fulminant hepatitis, only in HBV-infected and PBMC-treated mice liver (Fig. 1B). Human hepatocytes were almost completely eliminated and replaced by human albumin-negative mouse hepatocytes at days 7 and 14. Consistent with these histological changes, we observed a rapid decline of HSA levels and HBV DNA only in HBV-infected and PBMC-treated mice (Fig. 1C). The decline of mice HSA levels and HBV DNA was also observed in 2 of 3 HBV-infected mice transplanted with PBMCs isolated from healthy blood donors without HBsAg vaccination (Fig. 1D and Supporting Fig. 2).

Analysis of Liver-Infiltrating Human Lymphocytes Necessary to Establish Massive Hepatocyte Degeneration. We then analyzed liver-infiltrating cells with flow cytometry. Unexpectedly, we did not detect CD8-positive and tetramer-positive CTLs, as reported previously (Fig. 2A). Instead, we observed substantial numbers of CD3-negative and CD56-positive NK cells (Fig. 2B) and small numbers of pDCs and mDCs (Fig. 2C). The majority of NK cells of HBV-infected mice were FasL positive (Fig. 2D). In contrast, such FasL-positive NK cells were not detected in uninfected

Table 1. Analysis of Liver-Infiltrating Cells by Flow Cytometry

	HBV Infected				Uninfected			
Day	No.	Chimerism (%)	Human NK (%)	Fas (+) NK (%)	No.	Chimerism (%)	Human NK (%)	FasL (+) NK (%)
2	1	1.77	2.51	0	1	0.59	12.8	0
	2	2.35	3.02	0.143	2	0.774	58.8	1.1
4	3	6.81	30.7	80.1	3	5.95	42.7	0.678
	4	1.08	68.7	94.7	4	7.11	4.98	0.027
	5	6.60	23.2	58.7	5	5.02	23.1	0.314
7	6	6.73	13.2	0.383	6	6.55	42.1	0.103
	7	5.70	12.5	2.01	7	1.24	13.6	0.025
	8	1.46	3.83	0	8	2.04	1.49	4.03
14	9	0.34	ND	ND	9	0.012	ND	ND
	10	NA*	NA	NA	10	0.013	ND	ND
DCs depleted day 4	11	4.77	5	2.14	11	3.32	4.21	0.465
(by clodronate)	12	1.27	39.5	2.3	12	12.9	9.06	0
DCs depleted day 7	13	2.42	24.8	2.19	13	6.31	54.1	0.131
(by clodronate)	14	1.41	10.6	0.103	14	4.69	1.68	0.12

Abbreviations: NA, not analyzed; ND, not detectable.
*Mouse died just before liver analysis.

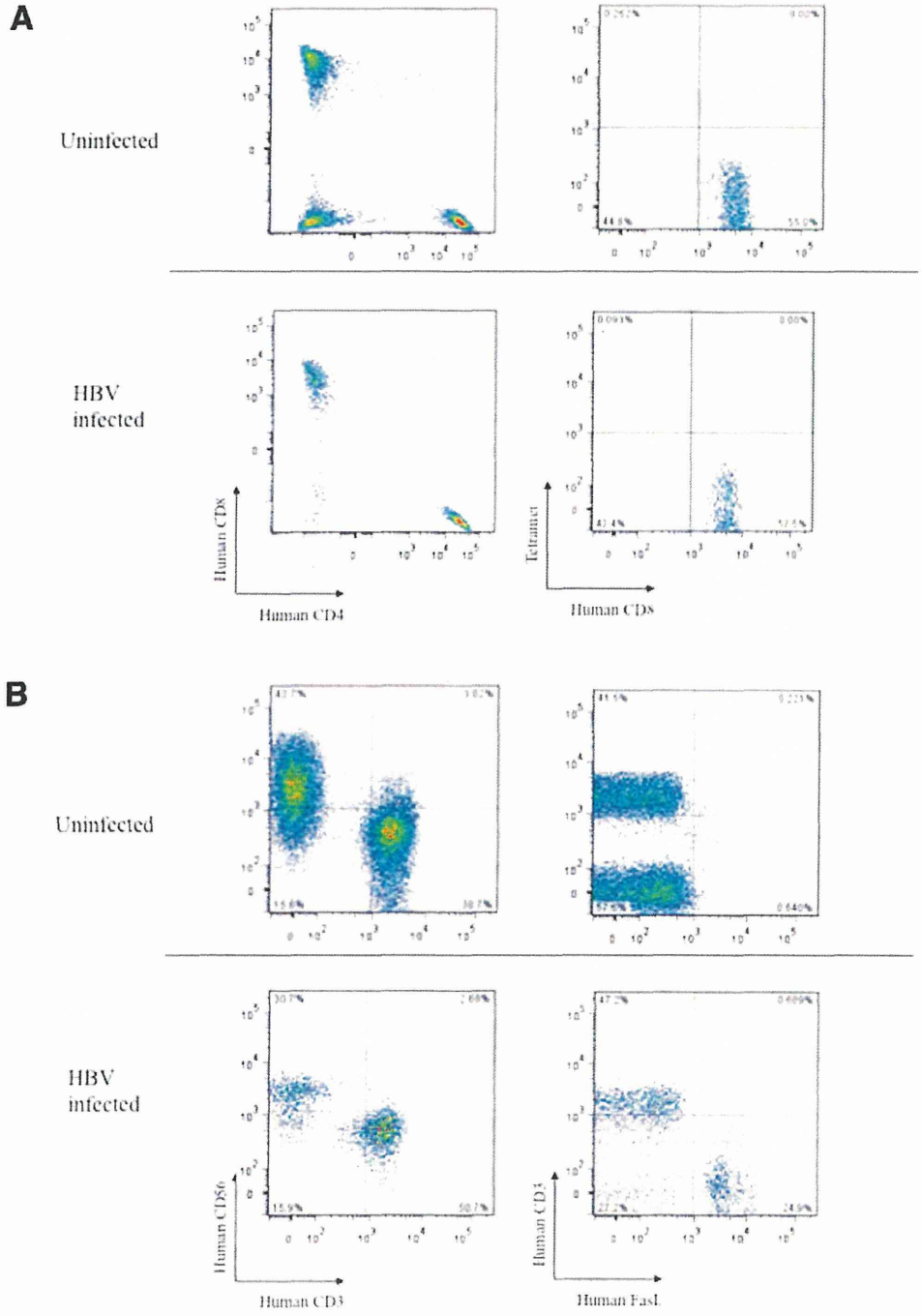

Fig. 2. Analysis of mononuclear cells isolated from day 4 chimeric mouse livers. After defining human PBMCs as mouse H-2Db-human CD45^{+} cells, we further analyzed the phenotypes of these cells. (A-C) Liver mononuclear cells of uninfected (upper panel) and HBV-infected (lower panel) mice transplanted with human PBMCs were separated with anti-human CD4 and CD8 antibody or anti-human CD8 and HLA-A2 HBcAg tetramer (A), anti-human CD3and CD56 or human CD3 and FasL (B), and anti-human HLA-DR and CD123 and HLA-DR and CD11c (C). (D) Frequency of FasL-positive cells in NK cells were analyzed in uninfected and HBV-infected mice. All figures are representative of two experiments with similar results.

mice livers (Table 1; Fig. 2D), suggesting that these NK cells were activated in HBV-infected mice. These activated NK cells and DCs were detectable in mice livers only 4 days after the initial PBMC injection, but were undetectable after 2 and 7 days (Supporting Figs. 3 and 4, respectively).

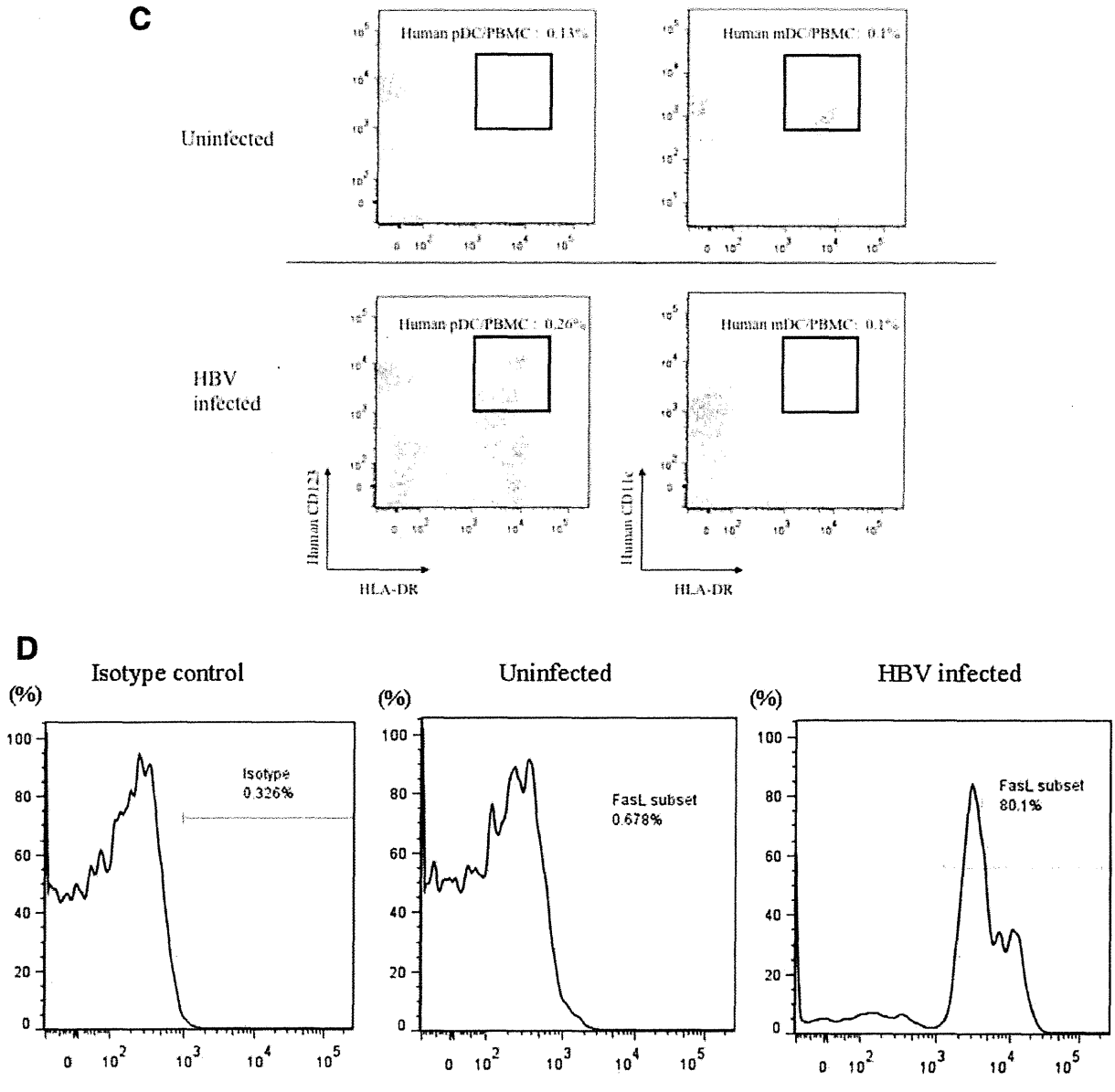

Fig. 2.

Effect of DC Depletion on Establishment of Massive Hepatocyte Degeneration. To confirm the necessity of both DCs and NK cells to complete hepatocyte destruction, we depleted DCs or NK cells with negative selection using antibody-coated magnetic beads before the administration of PBMC. Depletion of either DCs or NK cells completely abolished the decline of human albumin as well as HBV DNA (Supporting Fig. 5A). However, analysis of liver-infiltrating cells revealed that chimerism with human PBMC was poorly established in these animals, probably the result of the loss or damage of human cells by bound antibodies during separation and/or subsequent incubation in mice (Supporting Fig. 5B; Supporting Table 1).

To overcome possible confounding resulting from poor chimerism resulting in poor human hepatocyte degeneration in mice, we attempted to remove DCs from transplanted human PBMCs by alternate means. We attempted to deplete human DCs by administering clodronate 1 day before PBMC transplantation, because we thought that clodronate remaining in the mouse body would impair transplanted human DCs. As expected, we observed an almost complete elimination of DCs by this procedure without impairing

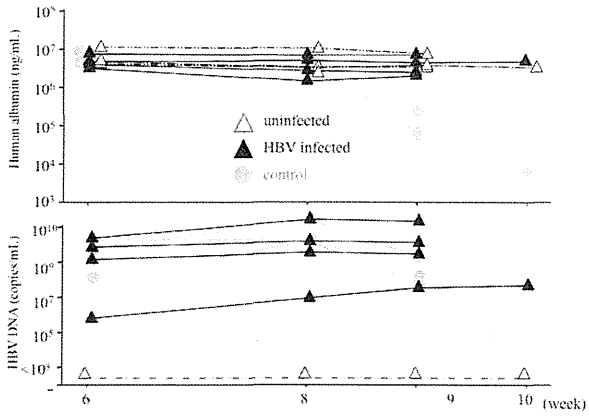

Fig. 3. Time course of mice transplanted with human PBMCs with DC depletion by clodronate 1 day before transplantation. Mice were treated with IP administration of clodronate 1 day before human PBMC transplantation. Time courses of human albumin concentration (upper panel) and HBV DNA titer (lower panel) in mouse serum are shown. Open and closed triangles correspond to 3 uninfected and 4 HBV-infected mice, respectively. Time courses of 3 mice infected with HBV and transplanted with human PBMC 3 days before transplantation (see Fig. 1C) are shown for comparison (shaded closed circle).

PBMC chimerism (Supporting Figs. 6A and 7A; Supporting Table 1). Activation of NK cells was not observed in this setting (Supporting Figs. 6B and 7B; Supporting Table 1). Depletion of DCs completely abolished the decline of both human albumin and HBV DNA (Fig. 3). Histological examination showed that hepatocyte degeneration was absent, and that there were no TUNEL-staining–positive cells (data not shown). Clodronate lyposomes may also nonspecifically deplete macrophages and monocytes in addition to DCs, but no monocytes or macrophages were observed when transplanted PBMCs were analyzed using Ficoll-Hypaque density gradient centrifugation, indicating that the clodronate administration was specifically associated with DC depletion in this study.

Analysis of Fas/FasL System in Massive HBV-Infected Hepatocyte Degeneration Model. We then assessed the importance of the Fas/FasL system and the occurrence of apoptosis in NK-cell–mediated human hepatocyte degeneration. Only HBV-infected human hepatocytes positive for HSA were positive for Fas antibody staining (Fig. 4A). TUNEL staining was also positive only in mice infected with HBV and inoculated with PBMCs (days 4 and 7). Measurement of mRNA levels in infected and uninfected livers showed that expression levels of Fas mRNA increased significantly upon HBV infection (Fig. 4B). To confirm that apoptosis of human hepatocytes was mediated by the Fas/FasL pathway and to determine whether IFN-α or IFN-γ played a role in the establishment of liver cell degeneration, we administered a blocking mAb against FasL, IFN-α, and IFN-γ 1 day before PBMC transplantation. Treatment of mice with antibody against FasL before PBMC completely abolished the decline of human albumin and HBV DNA (Fig. 5A). This abolishment of human albumin decline in mouse serum suggests that the Fas/FasL pathway almost exclusively eliminated infected hepatocytes in this model, which also suggests that Fas-mediated apoptosis could play an important role in FHB. Antibodies against IFN-α and IFN-γ inhibited IFN-induced ISG expression in mice livers (Supporting Fig. 8); however, these antibodies did not disturb the decline of HSA levels (Fig. 5A) and histological inflammation (Fig. 5B). Contact-dependent and -independent activation of NK cells by DCs has been reported previously.[23-25] Although IFN-α and IFN-γ play a role in their activation,[23,25,26] our results indicate that the effects of IFN-α are almost negligible in our experiments (Fig. 5A), suggesting that direct contact among these cells, or cytokines other than IFN-α and IFN-γ, are necessary to activate NK cells in this setting. NK cells have also been reported to exert antiviral effects by secreting IFN-γ. However, our results suggest that this mechanism does not work well in our model (Fig. 5A).

Discussion

In this study, we established a small animal model in which massive hepatocyte degeneration similar to FHB in humans is observed. Our initial attempts to detect human PBMCs in blood or any organ in transplanted mice failed even after injecting 2×10^7 cells, which is sufficient to establish human PBMC chimerism in SCID mice.[27] We assumed that failure to develop chimerism was the result of the activity of NK cells and macrophages because the activity of these cells in uPA-SCID mice is higher than in SCID mice.[28,29] Therefore, we attempted to eliminate these effects by administering clodronate and anti–asialo GM1 antibody, which are known to effectively eliminate these cells.[30,31] This assumption appears to be valid, because we were able to establish human PBMC chimerism and massive hepatocyte degeneration by suppressing these cells (Fig. 1).

HBV-specific CTLs have been reported to play an important role in eliminating the virus.[32-34] Accordingly, we attempted to detect HBV-specific CTLs in mice with massive hepatocyte degeneration. Unexpectedly, we failed to detect HBV-specific CTLs (Fig. 2A and Supporting Fig. 9) and instead found that infiltrating cells in the liver were CD3-negative NK cells

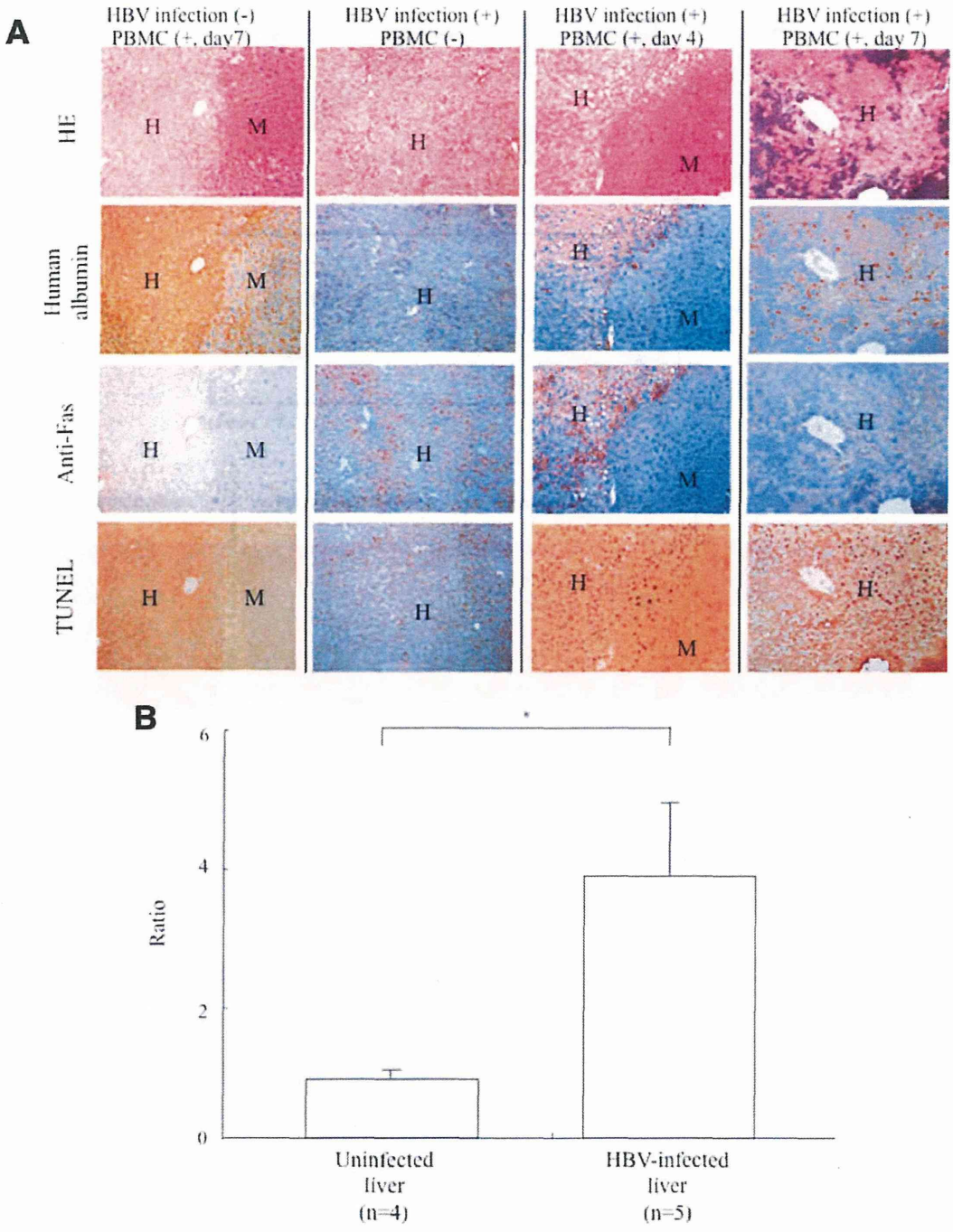

Fig. 4. Assessment of Fas expression in the liver in human hepatocyte chimeric mice. (A) Histological analysis of chimeric mice livers transplanted with human PBMCs but without HBV infection (day 7), with HBV infection but without PBMC transplantation, and with HBV infection and PBMC transplantation at days 4 and 7. Liver samples were stained with hematoxylin and eosin staining (HE), anti-human albumin antibody, anti-human Fas antibody, and TUNEL staining. Regions are shown as human (H) and mouse (M) hepatocytes, respectively (original magnification, 100×). Note that Fas antigen was expressed only in HBV-infected human hepatocytes, and TUNEL staining is only positive for HBV-infected and human PBMC-transplanted mice livers. Mouse hepatocytes were negative for all three stains. (B) Expression of Fas mRNA levels in uninfected and HBV-infected human hepatocytes. Data are represented as mean ± standard deviation. *$P < 0.001$.

(Fig. 2B,D and Supporting Fig. 10). The reason for the absence of CTLs in our experiment is unknown, but this suggests that massive hepatocyte degeneration resembling fulminant hepatitis can be caused by NK cells as a main player, and recent reports demonstrating that NK cells contribute to severe acute and

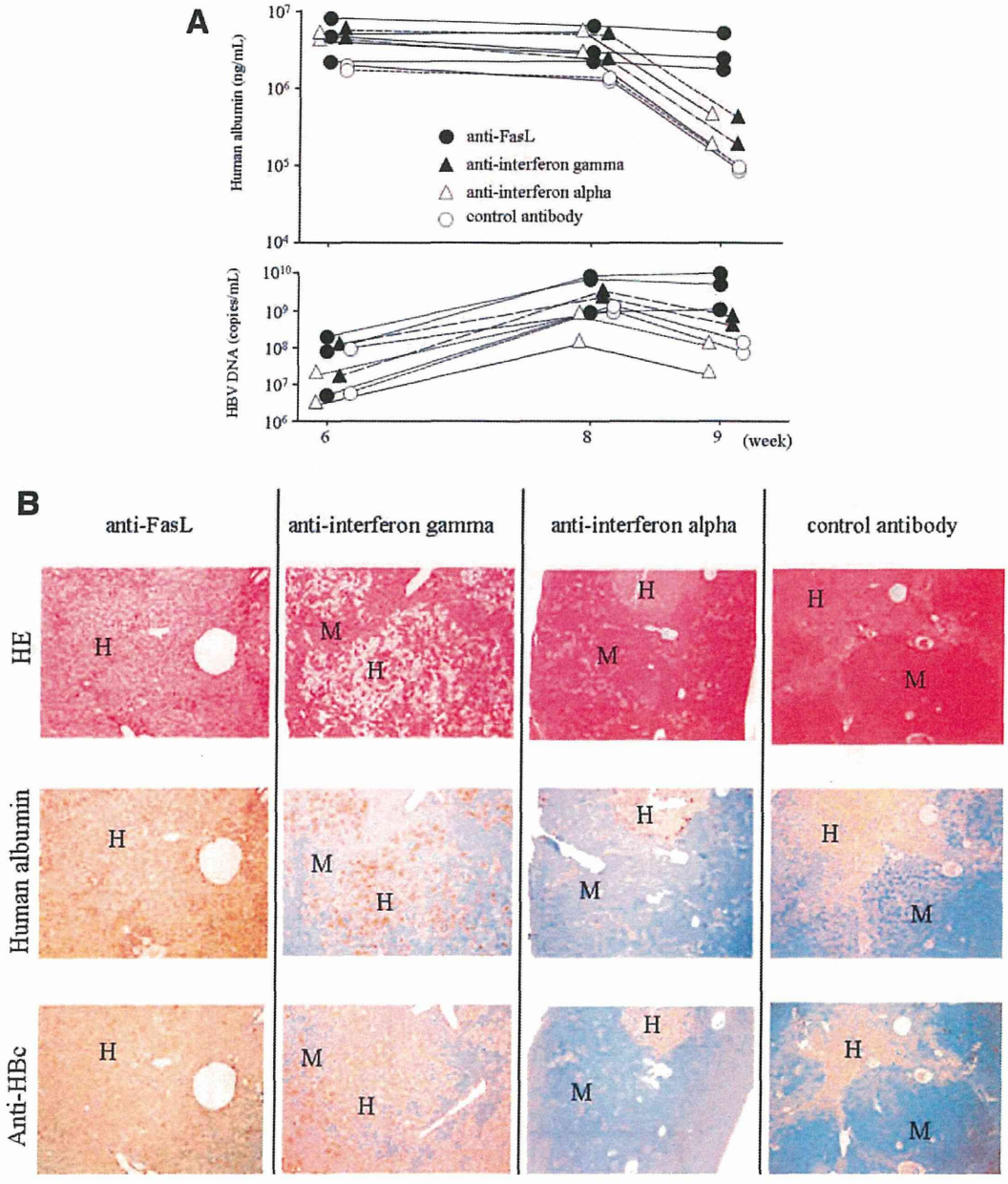

Fig. 5. Effect of anti-FasL, anti-IFN-γ and anti-IFN-α antibody administration on HSA and HBV DNA. (A) Time courses of HSA (upper panel) and HBV DNA (lower panel) before and 1 week after human PBMC transplantation are shown. Mice were pretreated with antibodies against human Fas-L, IFN-γ, and IFN-α before PBMC transplantation, as described in Materials and Methods. Isotype antibody was used as a control. (B) Histological analysis of livers of HBV-infected mice injected with anti-human FasL mAb, IFN-γ, IFN-α, and control antibody. Liver samples obtained from mice with human PBMCs at weeks 9 (day 7) were stained with hematoxylin and eosin staining (HE), antihuman albumin antibody, or antihepatitis B core antibody. Regions are shown as human (H) and mouse (M) hepatocytes, respectively (original magnification, 40×).

chronic hepatitis B (CHB) support this assertion.[11,35] We attempted to collect CTLs from HBV-infected patients and to establish hepatitis in chimeric mice. However, we rarely detected tetramer-positive CTLs in blood samples from chronically infected patients and were therefore unable to establish hepatitis using CD8-positive T cells. Consequently, a limitation of this study is that differential roles of NK cells and CTLs in massive liver cell death could not be examined.

Although it is not clear in this study how profoundly DC and NK cell activity plays a role in patients with FHB, our results suggest that the immune system can trigger severe hepatocyte

degeneration. The importance of the activation of NK cells by DCs was evident, because depletion of DCs almost completely abolished the massive hepatocyte degeneration in this model (Supporting Fig. 10; Table 1). The interaction between NK cells and DCs is not well characterized, although it has been established that antigen-presenting accessory cells provide both indirect (i.e., soluble) and direct (i.e., contact-dependent) signals to T cells. Experiments in which NK cells are separated from pathogens and antigen-presenting cells by semipermeable membranes are cultured with supernatants from pathogen-activated DCs or in which cytokines are neutralized with blocking antibodies. These reports indicate that both soluble and contact-dependent signals may contribute to the activation of NK cells.[23,25,26]

The importance of the Fas/FasL system in hepatocyte damage in acute and chronic HBV infection has been reported previously.[37,38] However, the extent to which this system plays a role in human hepatitis B, especially fulminant hepatitis, is unknown. As shown in this study (Fig. 5A), inhibition of the Fas/FasL system by anti-Fas antibody dramatically reduced the effect of human PBMC transplantation. This showed the possibility that the Fas/FasL system plays an important role in the degeneration of infected hepatocytes in FHB. Further studies should be conducted to evaluate what immunological responses play important roles in human hepatitis B.

The importance of NK-cell activity suggests that the suppression of DCs and NK-cell activity or the Fas/FasL system might have therapeutic implications for FHB.[11,35] If DCs and NK-cell activity or Fas/FasL activity could be controlled in the early stages of severe acute or fulminant hepatitis, we might be able to control hepatitis activity and prevent subsequent liver failure. Of course, it would be necessary to monitor the development of chronic hepatitis after such treatment because DCs and NK cells contribute to early host defenses and shape subsequent adaptive immune response through complex cross-talk regulating the early phase of the immune response.[19,24,39,40]

We analyzed liver damage using HBV genotype C–infected mice in this study. However, HBV genotype C is associated with more severe histological liver damage than genotype B,[41] and future studies should compare immunological differences between genotypes B and C.

In summary, we established an animal model of FHB using highly repopulated human hepatocyte chimeric mice and transplanted human PBMCs. Modifications of this model will facilitate further research into acute and CHB using human immune cells, including HBV-directed CTL clones, suppressor and regulatory T cells, as well as immunological experiments to study interactions between DCs and NK cells. Such models may be useful to develop and evaluate new therapeutic strategies against HBV infection.

Acknowledgment: The authors thank Rie Akiyama and Yoko Matsumoto for their expert technical assistance. This work was carried out at the Analysis Center of Life Science, Natural Science Center for Basic Research and Development, Hiroshima University.

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Journal of Medical Virology 85:789–798 (2013)

Circulating MicroRNA-22 Correlates with MicroRNA-122 and Represents Viral Replication and Liver Injury in Patients with Chronic Hepatitis B

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Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection is associated with increased expression of microRNA-122. Serum microRNA-122 and microRNA-22 levels were analyzed in 198 patients with chronic HBV who underwent liver biopsy and were compared with quantitative measurements of HBsAg, HBeAg, HBV DNA, and other clinical and histological findings. Levels of serum microRNA-122 and microRNA-22 were determined by reverse transcription-TaqMan PCR. Serum levels of microRNA-122 and microRNA-22 were correlated ($R^2 = 0.576$; $P < 0.001$), and both were elevated in chronic HBV patients. Significant linear correlations were found between microRNA-122 or microRNA-22 and HBsAg levels ($R^2 = 0.824$, $P < 0.001$ and $R^2 = 0.394$, $P < 0.001$, respectively) and ALT levels ($R^2 = 0.498$, $P < 0.001$ and $R^2 = 0.528$, $P < 0.001$, respectively). MicroRNA-122 levels were also correlated with HBV DNA titers ($R^2 = 0.694$, $P < 0.001$ and $R^2 = 0.421$, $P < 0.001$). Levels of these microRNAs were significantly higher in HBeAg-positive patients compared to HBeAg-negative patients ($P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$). MicroRNA-122 levels were also lower in patients with advanced liver fibrosis ($P < 0.001$) and lower inflammatory activity ($P < 0.025$). These results suggest that serum micro-RNA levels are significantly associated with multiple aspects of HBV infection. The biological meaning of the correlation between microRNA-122 and HBsAg and should be investigated further.

J. Med. Virol. 85:789–798, 2013.

KEY WORDS: HBsAg; histological activity; inflammation; microRNA

Abbreviations: ALT, alanine transaminase; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; miR-122, microRNA-122; miR-22, microRNA-22; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

Grant sponsor: Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare and Ministry of Education Culture Sports Science and Technology, Government of Japan.

Conflict of interest: The authors who have taken part in this study declare that they have nothing to disclose regarding funding or conflict of interest with respect to this manuscript.

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Accepted 10 January 2013
DOI 10.1002/jmv.23540
Published online in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com).

INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is a small enveloped virus with a partially double-stranded 3.2 kb DNA genome belonging to the Hepadnaviridae family [Fields et al., 2007]. Chronic HBV infection is a major cause of chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [Beasley et al., 1981]. More than 350 million people are persistent carriers of HBV and many may progress to chronic liver disease [Lavanchy, 2004; McMahon, 2009].

MicroRNAs are a class of naturally occurring short non-coding RNAs that regulate the expression of a wide range of genes and play an important role in various biological functions including cell differentiation, development, immune responses, metabolism, and carcinogenesis. Circulating microRNAs are bound to Ago2 and remain in the serum for an extended period of time [Blumberg et al., 1965; Bala et al., 2009]. Liver damage ultimately results in alteration of hepatic and serum microRNA expression profiles [Bala et al., 2009]. Hepatocellular carcinoma-associated expression profiles have been reported by a number of laboratories [Murakami et al., 2006; Ji et al., 2009; Ura et al., 2009; Gao et al., 2011; Hou et al., 2011; Mizuguchi et al., 2011], but microRNA expression profiles may differ based on etiology, including differences among patients infected with HBV compared with patients infected with hepatitis C virus (HCV). HBV infection disrupts pathways involved in signal transduction, DNA damage, and cell death, whereas HCV infection tends to disrupt pathways involved in lipid metabolism, cell cycle regulation, and immune response [Ura et al., 2009].

Many of these cellular changes are mediated by changes in microRNA expression, suggesting that analysis of microRNA expression may improve understanding of HBV pathogenesis and uncover new avenues for risk assessment and therapy. A number of microRNAs associated with HBV infection have been reported [Bala et al., 2009], but in most cases little is known about the biological roles of the identified microRNAs. In this study, two microRNAs, microRNA-122 (miR-122) and microRNA-22 (miR-22), were examined as possible biomarkers for association with chronic HBV infection. miR-122 was selected due to its strong expression in the liver and central role in liver function, and because it directly suppresses HBV replication by binding to viral RNA [Qiu et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2011]. Serum miR-122 has been reported as a biomarker for various liver injuries and is correlated with levels of ALT, HBV DNA, and HBsAg [Zhang et al., 2010; Waidmann et al., 2012]. Circulating miR-122 is elevated in patients with chronic hepatitis B, especially in patients positive for HBeAg [Xu et al., 2010; Ji et al., 2011; Qi et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2011; Waidmann et al., 2012]. miR-22 was selected for this study because it is also highly expressed in the liver and has been implicated in HCC and liver failure in patients infected with HBV [Ji et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2011]. miR-22 is described in the literature both as a tumor-suppressor [Xu et al., 2011] and as a micro-oncogene [Liu et al., 2010] due to its central role in targeting multiple genes involved in determining cell fate, including PTEN [Liu et al., 2010], p21 [Tsuchiya et al., 2011], Mat1a and Mthfr [Koturbash et al., 2011], and senescence-associated transcripts CDK6, SIRT1, and Sp1 [Xu et al., 2011]. miR-22 also targets estrogen receptor alpha [Pandey and Picard, 2009], which compromises the protective effects of estrogen and leads to up-regulation of IL-1α in hepatocytes under conditions of oxidative stress, such as that caused resulting from activity of the HBx protein [Jiang et al., 2011]. HBV also evades senescence through hypermethylation of p16 and transcriptional interference in components of the stress-induced senescence pathway [Kim et al., 2010]. Changes in miR-22 expression may, therefore, reflect cellular changes leading to suppression of senescence and indicate an increased risk of dysplasia.

Because of their prominent roles in the liver and association with HBV infection, serum microRNA levels of miR-122 and miR-22 were compared between healthy individuals and patients with chronic HBV infection, and correlation with clinical and histological parameters were examined.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Patients

One hundred and ninety-eight patients with chronic hepatitis B who visited Hiroshima University Hospital between January 2000 to December 2009 who underwent liver biopsy for diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and agreed to provide blood samples for a viral hepatitis study were examined. Histological diagnosis was evaluated as described previously [Desmet et al., 1994]. Anti-HBs and anti-HBc antibodies were also examined in 22 healthy controls, all of whom tested negative for HBsAg and anti-HBc and anti-HCV antibodies. The study protocol conforms to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki. All patients provided written informed consent for the study using a form approved by the ethical committee of Hiroshima University.

Viral Markers

Serum samples obtained at biopsy were kept frozen at −80°C prior to analysis. Serum HBsAg and HBeAg levels were measured quantitatively using the Abbott Chemiluminescence Immunoassay Kit (Abbott Japan, Tokyo, Japan). HBV DNA levels were determined by the Cobas TaqMan HBV standardized real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) assay (Roche Molecular Systems, Pleasanton, CA). Results are expressed in log10 international units per milliliter.

MicroRNA Analysis

Circulating microRNA was extracted from 300 μl of serum samples using the mirVana PARIS Kit (Ambion,

TABLE I. Clinical Characteristics of Hepatitis B Virus Patients and Healthy Controls

	HBV patients (n = 198)		Healthy controls (n = 22)	
Characteristic	N	Value	N	Value
Age (years)[a]	198	42 (13–71)	22	31.5 (25–39)
Sex (male/female)	198	140/58	22	10/12
Fibrosis (1/2/3/4)	198	58/75/43/22		
Activity (0/1/2/3)	198	2/53/109/34		
miR-122/cel-miR-238	198	0.144 (0.002–1.737)	22	0.02 (0.01–0.04)
miR-22/cel-miR-238	198	0.266 (0.019–1.652)	22	0.02 (0.11–0.49)
HBV DNA (LGE/ml)[a]	181	6.5 (2.6–8.8)		
AST (IU/l)[a]	197	51 (18–982)		
ALT (IU/l)[a]	197	73 (10–1,867)	20	16 (10–23)
γ-GT (IU/l)[a]	189	46 (9–536)		
ALB (g/dl)[a]	196	4.3 (2.6–5.2)		
PLT ($\times 10^4$/mm^3)[a]	197	17.1 (1.0–36.2)		
PT[a]	180	92 (19–146)		
AFP (ng/ml)[a]	186	6.5 (<5.0–8,928.0)		
HBsAg (IU/ml)	176	2,765 (<0.05–1,55,000)		
Anti-HBeAg (±/NA)	176	104/82/12		
HBeAb (±/NA)	176	85/96/17		

NA, not available.
[a]Median (range).

Austin, TX) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was eluted in 80 μl of nuclease free water and reverse transcribed using TaqMan MicroRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Life Technologies Japan Ltd, Tokyo, Japan). *Caenorhabditis elegans* miR-238 (cel-miR-238) was spiked to each sample as a control for extraction and amplification steps. The reaction mixture contained 5 μl of RNA solution, 2 μl of 10× reverse transcription buffer, 0.2 μl of 100 mM dNTP mixture, 4 μl of 5× RT primer, 0.25 μl of RNase inhibitor, and 7.22 μl of nuclease free water in a total volume of 20 μl. The reaction was performed at 16°C for 30 min followed by 42°C for 30 min. The reaction was terminated by heating the solution at 85°C for 5 min. miR-122 and miR-22 were amplified using primers and probes provided by Applied Biosystems (Foster City, CA) using TaqMan MicroRNA assays according to the manufacturer's instructions. The reaction mixture contained 12.5 μl of 2× Universal PCR Master Mix, 1.25 μl of 20× TaqMan Assay solution, 1 μl of reverse

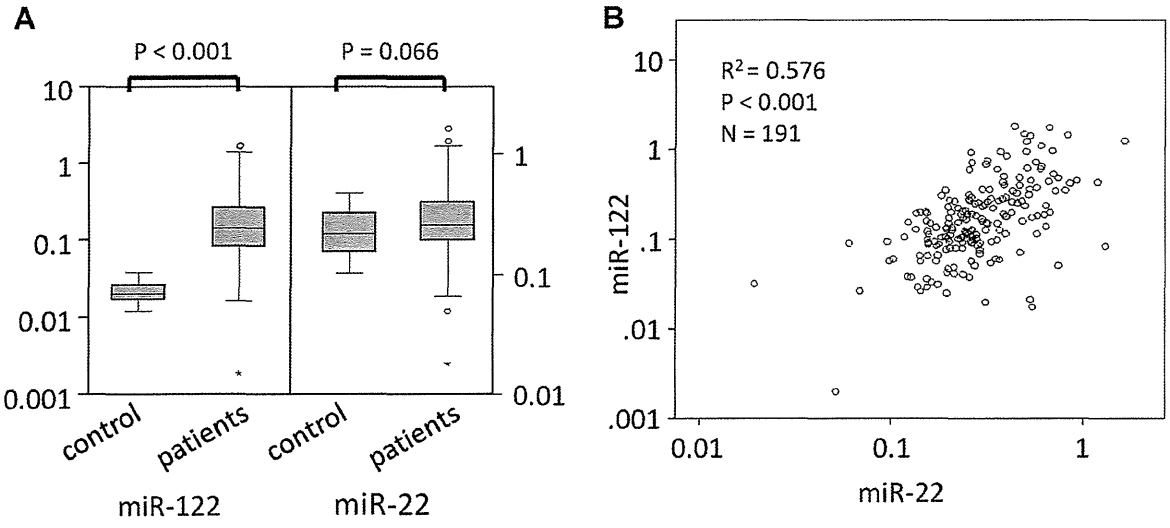

Fig. 1. Detection of miR-122 and miR-22 in patients infected with HBV and in healthy subjects and the relationship between miR-122 and miR-22. **A**: Serum levels of miR-122 and miR-22 in patients infected with HBV (171) and in healthy controls (22). Boxes represent 25–75 percentiles, and horizontal bars represent median values. Statistical analysis was performed using the Mann–Whitney U test. **B**: The relationship between miR-122 and miR-22 was analyzed using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient.

transcription product, and 10.25 μl of nuclease free water in a total volume of 25 μl. Amplification conditions were 95°C for 10 min followed by 50 denaturing cycles for 15 sec at 95°C and annealing and extension for 60 sec at 60°C in an ABI7300 thermal cycler. For the cel-miR-238 assay, a dilution series using chemically synthesized microRNA was used to generate a standard curve that permitted absolute quantification of molecules. For miR-122 and miR-22, relative abundance was determined using standard curves generated with a dilution series of samples with high serum levels. miR-122 and miR-22 levels were calculated by normalizing based on cel-miR-238 measurement levels.

Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed using the Mann–Whitney U test for continuous variables and the chi-squared or Fisher exact test for categorical variables using the R statistics package (http://www.r-project.org). Factors associated with high miR-122 and miR-22 levels were analyzed by multiple regression analysis using the rms library. Forward/backward stepwise selection of factors with a P-value < 0.05 in univariate analysis was used for model selection. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient was used to evaluate the strength of the association between continuous variables.

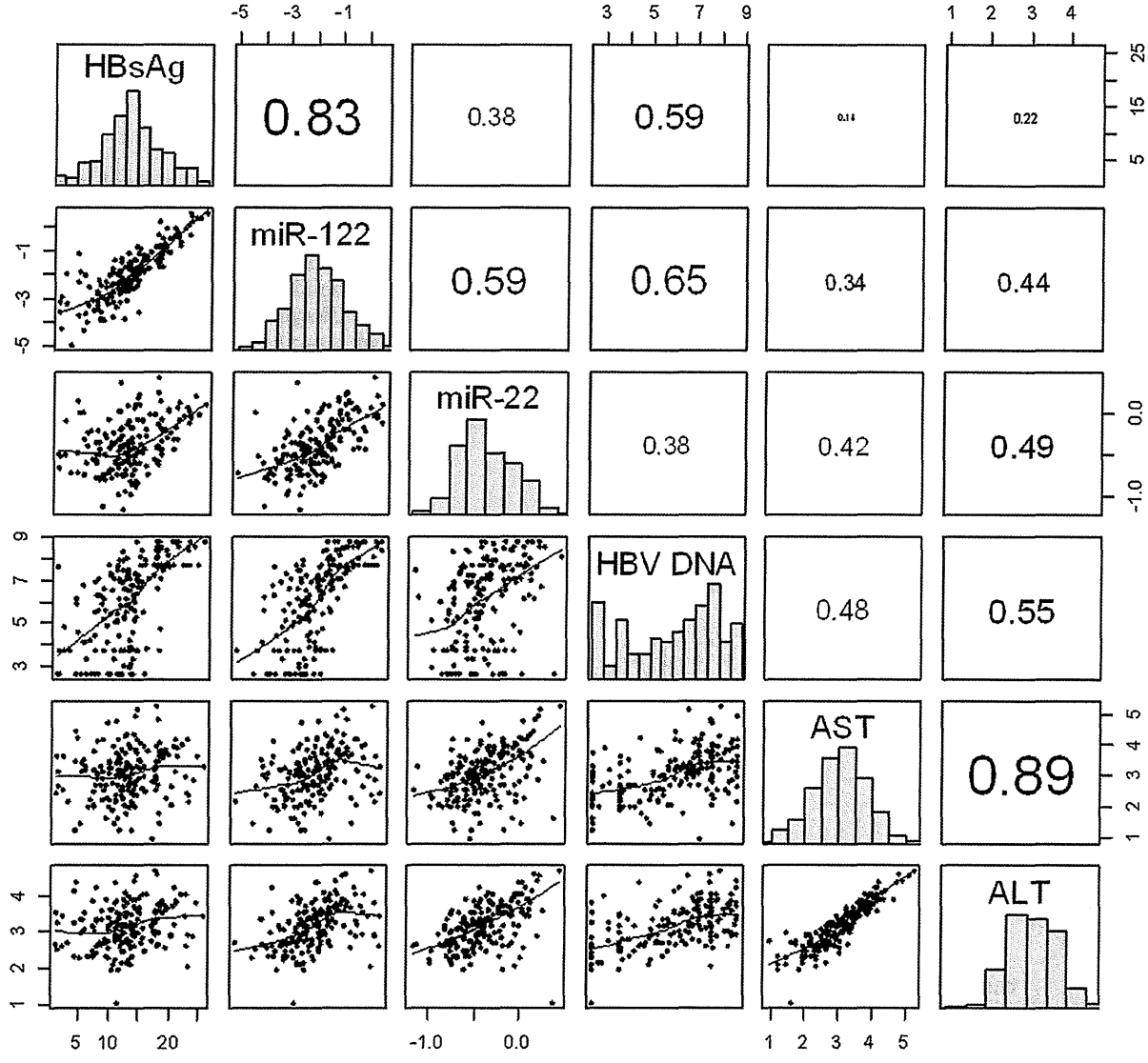

Fig. 2. Pairwise correlations of miR-122 and miR-22 with HBsAg, HBV DNA, ALT, and AST levels. Serum levels of miR-122 and miR-22 were compared with serum HBsAg and HBV DNA titers and with ALT and AST levels using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient.

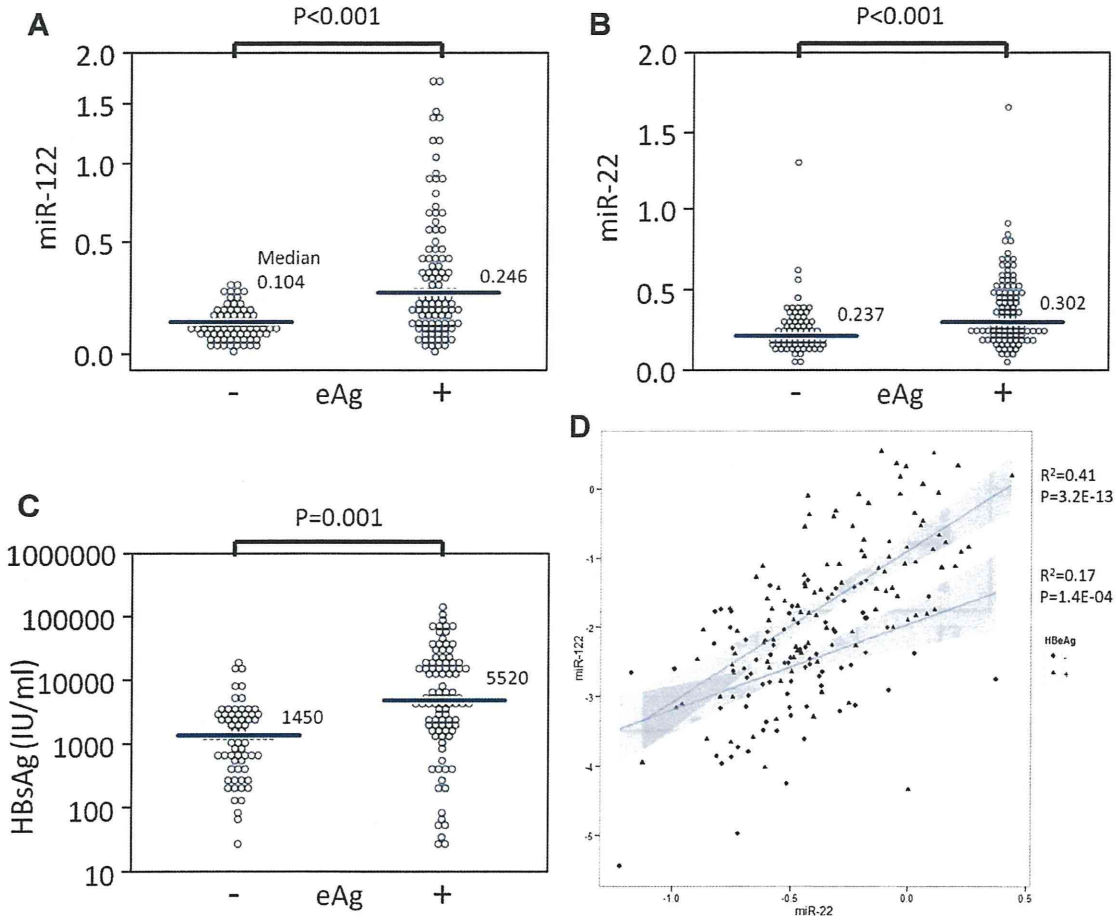

Fig. 3. Comparison of miR-122 and miR-22 with HBsAg levels between patients positive or negative for HBeAg. Serum levels of miR-122 (**A**), miR-22 (**B**), and HBsAg (**C**) were analyzed using the Mann–Whitney U test. Bars indicate median values.

RESULTS

Detection of Circulating miR-122 and miR-22 and Their Correlation

Both miR-122 and miR-22 were detectable in all HBV patients, and median values were higher than in normal controls (Table I; Fig. 1A, $P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.066$, respectively). miR-122 and miR-22 expression levels were moderately correlated (Fig. 1B, $R^2 = 0.576$, $P < 0.001$).

miR-122 and miR-22 Levels and Viral Markers

Relationships between miR-122 and miR-22 levels and HBsAg, HBeAg, and ALT levels were examined (Fig. 2A). There was a strong linear correlation between HBsAg and miR-122 levels ($R^2 = 0.824$, $P < 0.001$). There was also a correlation between HBsAg and miR-22 levels ($R^2 = 0.394$, $P < 0.001$), although the correlation was not as strong as with miR-122. Both miR-122 and miR-22 were also correlated with HBV DNA titers ($R^2 = 0.694$, $P < 0.001$

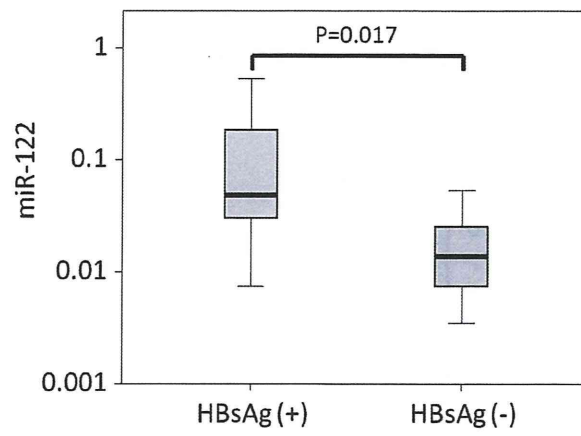

Fig. 4. miR-122 and HBsAg elimination. miR-122 levels before and after HBsAg elimination are shown for patients who became negative for HBsAg (n = 13). Bars represent median, minimum, and maximum levels, and boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles. Data were analyzed using the Mann–Whitney U test.

and $R^2 = 0.421$, $P < 0.001$, respectively) and ALT levels ($R^2 = 0.498$, $P < 0.001$ and $R^2 = 0.528$, $P < 0.001$, respectively). The correlation with ALT was slightly stronger with miR-22 ($R^2 = 0.528$) than with miR-122 ($R^2 = 0.498$). Patients who were positive for HBeAg had elevated levels of both miR-122 and miR-22 (Fig. 3A and B; $P < 0.001$ and $P < 0.001$) and had higher HBsAg titers (Fig. 3C; $P = 0.001$). The correlation between miR-122 and miR-22 expression was also stronger in HBeAg positive patients (Fig. 3D, $R^2 = 0.41$, $P = 3.2E{-}13$) compared to HBeAg negative patients ($R^2 = 0.17$, $P = 1.4E{-}04$).

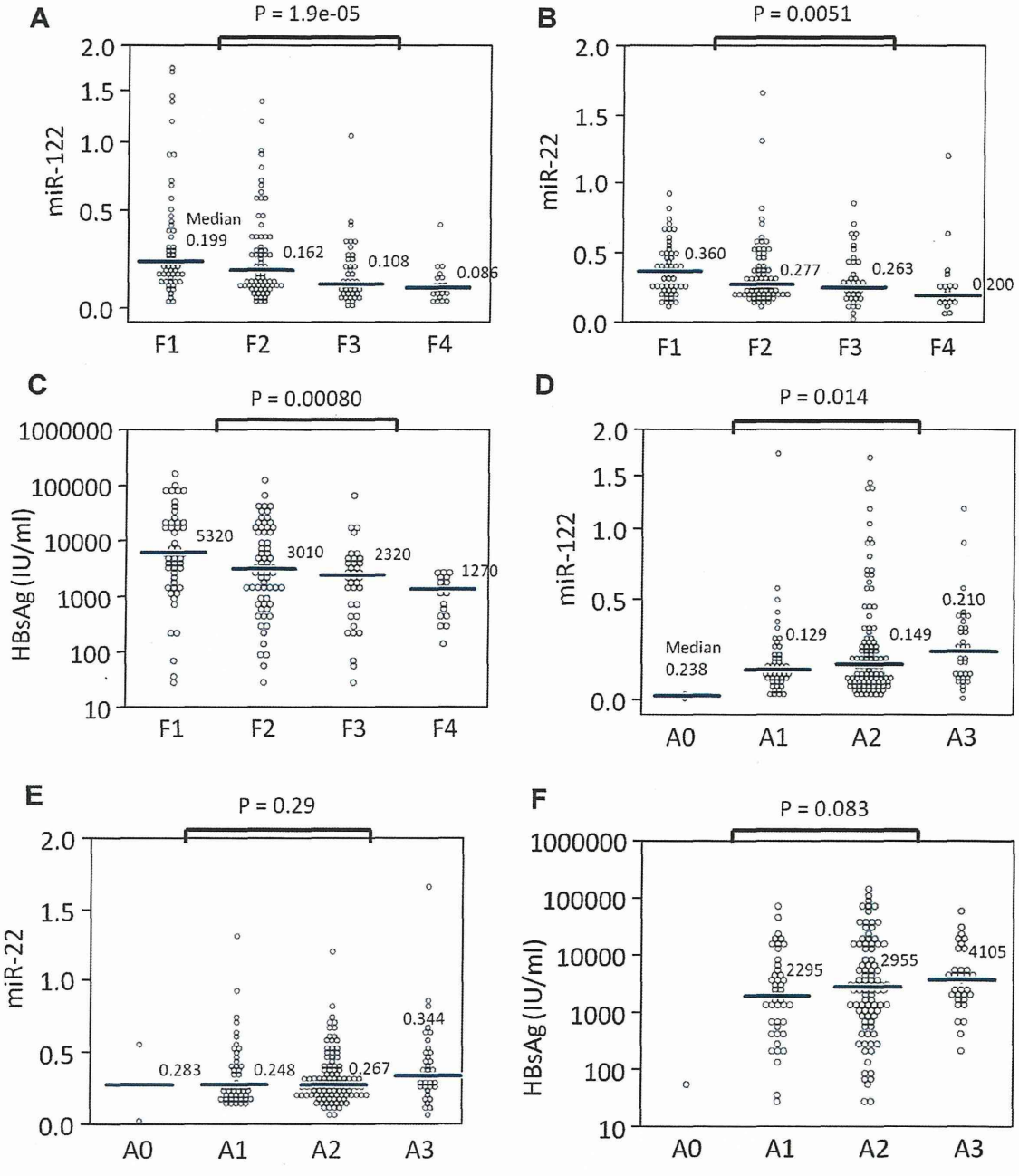

Fig. 5. Stage of fibrosis and histological inflammation activity by liver biopsy and miR-122, miR-22, and HBsAg levels. Serum levels of miR-122, miR-22, and HBsAg were plotted according to the stage of fibrosis (**A**, **B**, and **C**, respectively) and inflammation activity (**D**, **E**, and **F**). Median values are indicated as horizontal bars. Statistical analysis was performed using the Kruskal–Wallis non-parametric analysis of variance test.

miR-122 Levels in Patients Who Became Negative for HBsAg

To examine if the high miR-122 levels seen in chronic hepatitis B patients with high HBsAg levels result from active HBsAg production or represent individual characteristics that allow high-level HBsAg production, miR-122 levels were measured before and after elimination of HBsAg (observation period 4.5–16.5 years [median 9.0 years]). As shown in Figure 4, miR-122 levels in these patients declined significantly when they became negative for HBsAg ($P = 0.017$).

miR-122 and miR-22 Levels and Histological Findings

As shown in Figure 5A and B, both miR-122 and miR-22 were observed at progressively lower serum levels at more advanced stages of fibrosis ($P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.001$, respectively). HBsAg levels were also lower in patients with advanced fibrosis (Fig. 5C; $P = 0.001$). In contrast, serum levels of miR-122 and miR-22 were higher in patients with higher inflammatory activity (Fig. 5D and E; $P = 0.025$ and $P = 0.170$, respectively), although for miR-22 the difference was not significant. HBsAg levels were also marginally higher in patients with higher inflammatory activity (Fig. 5F; $P = 0.079$).

Factors Associated with Higher Serum miR-122 and miR-22 Levels

Clinical factors associated with elevated miR-122 and miR-22 levels were examined using multiple linear regression. As shown in Table II, HBsAg was most strongly associated with miR-122 ($P = 1.1E{-}67$), whereas serum AST levels were most strongly associated with miR-22 ($P = 4.7E{-}19$).

miR-122 and miR-22 Levels in Patients with Acute HBV Infection, Cirrhosis, and HCC

To examine miR-122 and miR-22 levels in patients with and without HBV infection, miR-122 and miR-22 levels were also measured in the following groups of patients: healthy controls (5), patients with acute (9) or chronic (9) HBV infection, liver cirrhosis (24),

TABLE II. Univariate and Multivariate Regression Analysis of Predictive Factors for MicroRNA-122 and MicroRNA-22 Expression Levels Relative to cel-miR-238

	Univariate				Multivariate	
MicroRNA	Variable	N	Coef.	*P*	Coef.	*P*
miR-122	Female	198	0.076	6.6E−01		
	Age	198	−0.030	2.9E−07***	0.007	1.7E−02*
	Fibrosis	198	−0.391	8.9E−07***	−0.143	3.8E−04***
	Activity	198	0.331	4.0E−03**		
	HBsAg	176	0.177	6.7E−46***	0.137	3.3E−32***
	HBeAg (±)	186	1.010	3.5E−11***		
	Anti-HBeAb (±)	181	−0.801	2.5E−07***		
	HBV DNA	181	0.357	2.1E−21***	0.064	1.4E−02*
	AST	197	0.472	6.1E−07***		
	ALT	197	0.816	2.0E−11***	0.281	4.1E−04***
	γ-GT	189	0.187	3.8E−01		
	Total bilirubin	196	−1.020	3.5E−02*	−0.596	9.8E−03**
	ALB	196	0.137	3.2E−02*		
	PT	180	0.020	1.3E−05***		
	AFP	186	0.000	1.5E−01		
	miR-22	198	2.010	1.9E−19***	0.739	4.2E−07***
miR-22	Female	198	−0.080	1.1E−01		
	Age	198	−0.009	3.8E−07***	−0.005	7.4E−04***
	Fibrosis	198	−0.085	2.9E−04***		
	Activity	198	0.053	1.1E−01		
	HBsAg	176	0.023	1.6E−07***	−0.016	2.1E−02*
	HBeAg (±)	186	0.192	1.8E−05***		
	Anti-HBeAb (±)	181	−0.143	1.5E−03**	−0.044	2.8E−01
	HBV DNA	181	0.058	4.6E−07***	−0.025	7.9E−02
	AST	197	0.161	1.5E−09***	0.116	2.6E−05***
	ALT	197	0.255	9.1E−14***		
	γ-GT	189	0.129	3.0E−02*		
	Total bilirubin	196	−0.170	2.2E−01		
	ALB	196	0.058	1.3E−03**		
	PT	180	0.006	1.6E−06***	0.004	2.3E−04***
	AFP	186	0.000	2.5E−01		
	miR-122	198	0.170	1.9E−19***	0.162	5.5E−06***

Forward/backward stepwise selection was used for model selection.
*$P < 0.05$.
**$P < 0.01$.
***$P < 0.001$.

HCV-related HCC (12), and HBV-related HCC (12). Both miR-122 and miR-22 were significantly elevated in patients with acute or chronic HBV infection compared to other case types (Fig. 6A and B) and were more strongly correlated (Fig. 6C).

DISCUSSION

In this study, expression levels of miR-122 and miR-22 were correlated with each other, as well as with markers of HBV infection, including HBsAg and HBV DNA titers (Fig. 2). Circulating levels of both microRNAs were also higher in patients who were positive for HBeAg. Although this suggests that these microRNAs may be up-regulated in cells infected with HBV, it will be necessary to compare serum and liver microRNA level to confirm this, as many other factors may influence circulating microRNA levels.

A notable result of this study is the strong linear association between miR-122 and serum HBsAg levels

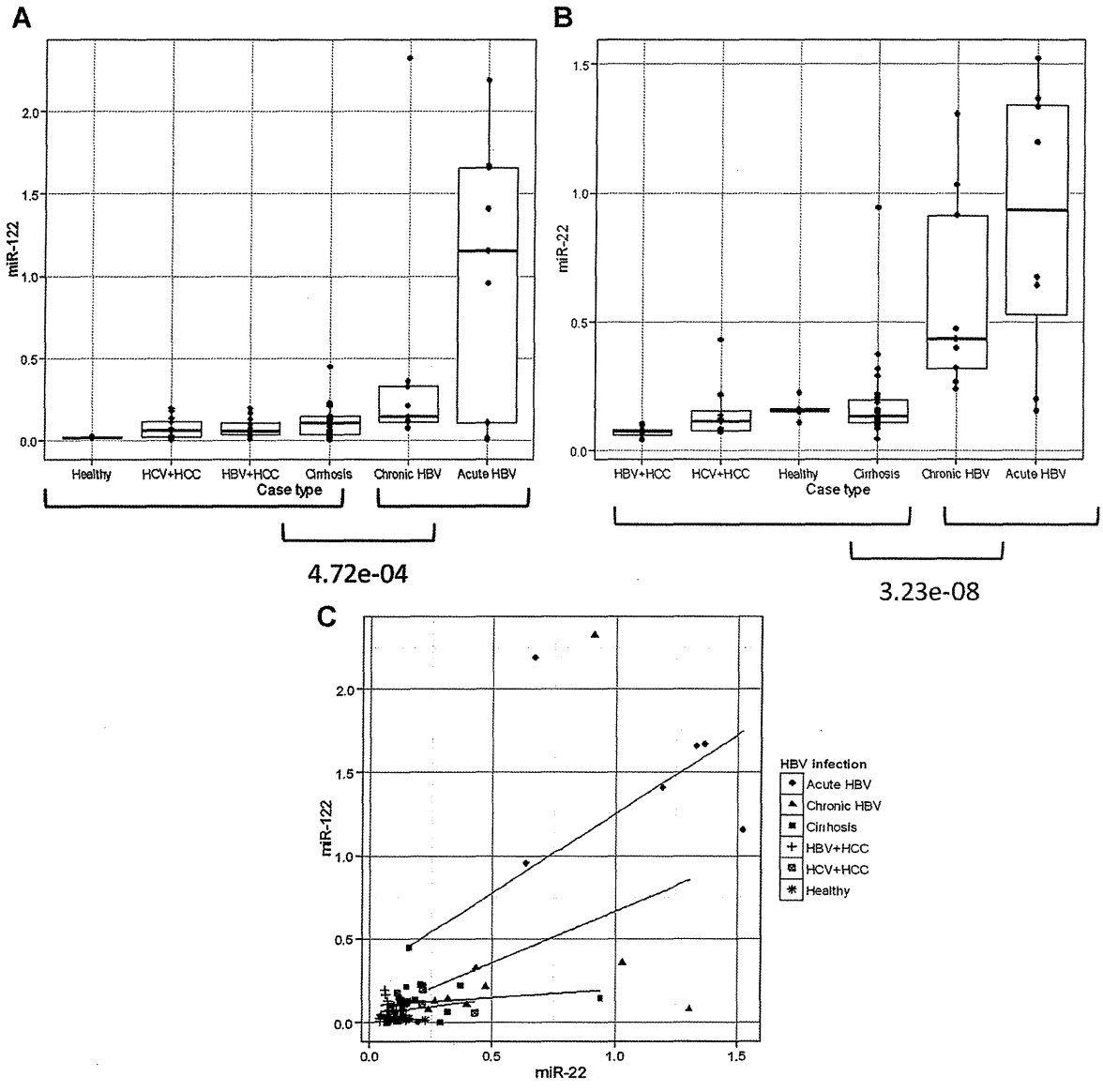

Fig. 6. miR-122 and miR-22 levels by case type. To examine the association of serum miR-122 and miR-22 with HBV infection, expression levels of miR-122 (**A**) and miR-22 (**B**) were compared among healthy controls, patients with acute or chronic HBV infection, liver cirrhosis, and HCC associated with either HBV or HCV. Both miR-122 and miR-22 were significantly higher in patients with acute or chronic HBV infection compared to patients with other case types, including patients with HBV-associated HCC. **C**: miR-122 and miR-22 also appear to be more strongly correlated in patients with acute or chronic HBV infection than in healthy controls or patients with cirrhosis or HCC.

(Table II; Fig. 2A). miR-122 has recently been shown to bind to a highly conserved HBV RNA sequence and negatively regulates viral gene expression and replication [Qiu et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2011]. Loss of miR-122 expression has also been shown to enhance HBV replication indirectly through cyclin G1-modulated p53 activity [Wang et al., 2011]. If miR-122 suppresses HBV replication, an inverse relationship between HBsAg titer and miR-122 levels might be expected, but instead a strong positive correlation was observed in this study. Although the reason for higher levels of miR-122 in patients with high HBsAg production is unclear, the innate immune response in liver cells against HBV replication may potentially induce higher expression of miR-122, which might be reflected in serum levels. Another possibility is that HBV might evade miR-122 suppression by sequestering and excreting miR-122 within the massively over-produced HBsAg particles in serum, in which case serum levels might be proportional to HBsAg levels but may not reflect miR-122 levels in the liver. It will be necessary to compare matched serum and liver miR-122 levels to address this issue.

In contrast to miR-122 levels, miR-22 expression was most strongly correlated with ALT and AST levels (Fig. 2; Table II). As it is known that miR-122 is expressed primarily or exclusively in hepatocytes [Mariana et al., 2002], the higher levels of miR-122 might reflect liver cell damage caused in the course of chronic hepatitis, and the same may be true for miR-22. Tissue-specificity of miR-22 is less clear, although it appears to be strongly expressed in hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines [Landgraf et al., 2007]. However, the fact that the levels of miR-22 are more strongly associated with ALT levels than miR-122 suggests that miR-122 is more likely to be over-expressed in liver cells infected with HBV. In this sense, miR-22 might be a better marker of liver injury than miR-122, although the lack of correlation of miR-22 with inflammatory activity complicates this association. Therefore, miR-122 and miR-22 may reflect different aspects of HBV infection and disease progression. miR-122 and miR-22 were expressed more strongly in acute and chronic HBV infection than in healthy controls or in patients with cirrhosis or HCC, suggesting an association with HBV infection, but notably miR-22 expression was comparatively higher in chronic HBV infection than miR-122 (Fig. 6). Measuring expression levels of one or both of these microRNAs may aid in assessment of disease severity [Waidmann et al., 2012].

In this study, miR-122 and miR-22 levels were both associated with HBV replication and liver injury. This suggests the need for a more systematic approach to examining multiple microRNAs under various chronic hepatitis B conditions and possibly in HBV-associated hepatocellular carcinoma. Further study is needed to establish a system to evaluate various disease conditions or prognoses in chronic HBV infection using microRNA biomarkers. It may also be of interest to determine the mechanism underlying the strong linear correlation between HBsAg and miR-122 levels to improve understanding of HBV virology.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Natsumi Wakai, Yukari Yamamoto, and Tomoko Imai for their excellent technical assistance. Part of this work was carried out at the Analysis Center of Life Science, Hiroshima University. This work was supported in part by Grants-in-Aid for scientific research and development from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare and Ministry of Education Culture Sports Science and Technology, Government of Japan.

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Arch. Immunol. Ther. Exp.
DOI 10.1007/s00005-012-0214-x

REVIEW

Multi-Step Regulation of Interferon Induction by Hepatitis C Virus

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Received: 30 June 2012 / Accepted: 20 December 2012

Abstract Acute hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection evokes several distinct innate immune responses in host, but the virus usually propagates by circumventing these responses. Although a replication intermediate double-stranded RNA is produced in infected cells, type I interferon (IFN) induction and immediate cell death are largely blocked in infected cells. In vitro studies suggested that type I and III IFNs are mainly produced in HCV-infected hepatocytes if the MAVS pathway is functional, and dysfunction of this pathway may lead to cellular permissiveness to HCV replication and production. Cellular immunity, including natural killer cell activation and antigen-specific CD8 T-cell proliferation, occurs following innate immune activation in response to HCV, but is often ineffective for eradication of HCV. Constitutive dsRNA stimulation differs in output from type I IFN therapy, which has been an authentic therapy for patients with HCV. Host innate immune responses to HCV RNA/proteins may be associated with progressive hepatic fibrosis and carcinogenesis once persistent HCV infection is established in opposition to the IFN system. Hence, innate RNA sensing exerts pivotal functions against HCV genome replication and host pathogenesis through modulation of the IFN system. Molecules participating in the RIG-I and Toll-like receptor 3 pathways are the main targets for HCV, disabling the anti-viral functions of these IFN-inducing molecules. We discuss the mechanisms that abolish type I and type III IFN production in HCV-infected cells, which may contribute to understanding the mechanism of virus persistence and resistance to the IFN therapy.

Keywords Hepatitis C virus · TLR3 · TICAM-1 (TRIF) · MAVS (IPS-1, Cardif, VISA) · Interferon-inducing pathway · Double-stranded RNA

Abbreviations

BMDC	Bone marrow-derived dendritic cells
CTL	Cytotoxic T lymphocytes
DAMP	Damage-associated molecular pattern
DC	Dendritic cell
dsRNA	Double-stranded RNA
IFN	Interferon
LD	Lipid droplet
MAM	Mitochondrial-associated endoplasmic reticulum membranes
MAVS	Mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein
Mf	Macrophages
mRNA	Messenger RNA
NK	Natural killer
NS	Non-structural
RIG-I	Retinoic acid-inducible gene I
RIP	Receptor-interacting protein
STING	Stimulator of IFN genes
TICAM-1	Toll-IL-1-homology domain-containing adaptor molecule-1
TLR	Toll-like receptor
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor
TNFR1	TNF-α receptor 1

MAVS has been identified as the adaptor for RIG-I and MDA5 by four independent groups, and then also known as IPS-1, Cardif or VISA (Kawai and Akira 2009). TICAM-1 has been identified as the adaptor for TLR3 and TLR4 by two independent groups, and thus also described as TRIF (Oshiumi et al. 2003). In accordance with the HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee-approved nomenclature, here we refer to these adaptor molecules as MAVS and TICAM-1, respectively.

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Published online: 05 January 2013