

FIG 9 miR-27a is upregulated by HCV infection. (A) Kinetics of HCV replication and induction of miR-27a. Huh-7.5 cells were transfected with JFH-1 RNA or infection-incompetent JFH-1ΔE1E2 RNA (20). At 12, 24, 48, and 72 h posttransfection, HCV RNA (left) and miR-27a (right) levels were quantified by RTD-PCR ($n = 6$). (B) Induction of miR-27a and UV-irradiated HCV particles. Huh-7.5 cells were infected with infectious HCV (multiplicity of infection [MOI] of 0.2, 0.5, or 1) or UV-inactivated HCV. At 72 h postinfection, HCV RNA (left) and miR-27a (right) were quantified by RTD-PCR ($n = 6$). *, $P < 0.01$; **, $P < 0.005$; ND, not detected. (C) Induction of miR-27a and IFN- α treatment. Huh-7.5 cells were treated with different doses of IFN- α . At 24 h posttreatment, OAS2 (left) and miR-27a (right) were quantified by RTD-PCR ($n = 6$). All experiments were performed in duplicate and repeated three times. Values are means \pm standard errors.

Several reports have demonstrated the importance of apolipoproteins, including the major components of VLDL and LDL apoE3 (36) and apoB100 (11), in the production of infectious HCV particles. More recently, the functional relevance of ApoA1 in HCV replication and particle production has been reported (37). Here the expression of apoA1, apoB100, and apoE3 was repressed by pre-miR-27a and increased by anti-miR-27a, suggesting that miR-27a regulates the expression of apolipoproteins to reduce the production of infectious HCV particles (Fig. 8F).

Regulation of miR-27a expression through C/EBP α . miR-27a forms a gene cluster with miR-23a and miR-24-2, and both of these miRNAs are regulated by the same promoter (38). However, no detailed analysis of the regulation of this promoter has been

carried out. Because the expression of miR-27a was upregulated more in CH-C liver than CH-B liver, it could be speculated that HCV infection induces the expression of miR-27a. To examine this, we evaluated the expression of miR-27a during HCV infection (Fig. 9). The expression of miR-27a increased, correlating with the increase in JFH-1 RNA, while infection-incompetent JFH-1ΔE1E2 did not induce miR-27a expression (Fig. 9A). In addition, UV-irradiated HCV particles did not induce miR-27a expression (Fig. 9B). However, IFN- α treatment did not induce the expression of miR-27a (Fig. 9C). Thus, HCV infection was essential for induction of miR-27a expression.

We identified a C/EBP α binding site (−614 to −606), a key regulator of adipocyte differentiation, in the promoter region of miR-27a. Interestingly, H77Sv2 Gluc2A and tunicamycin

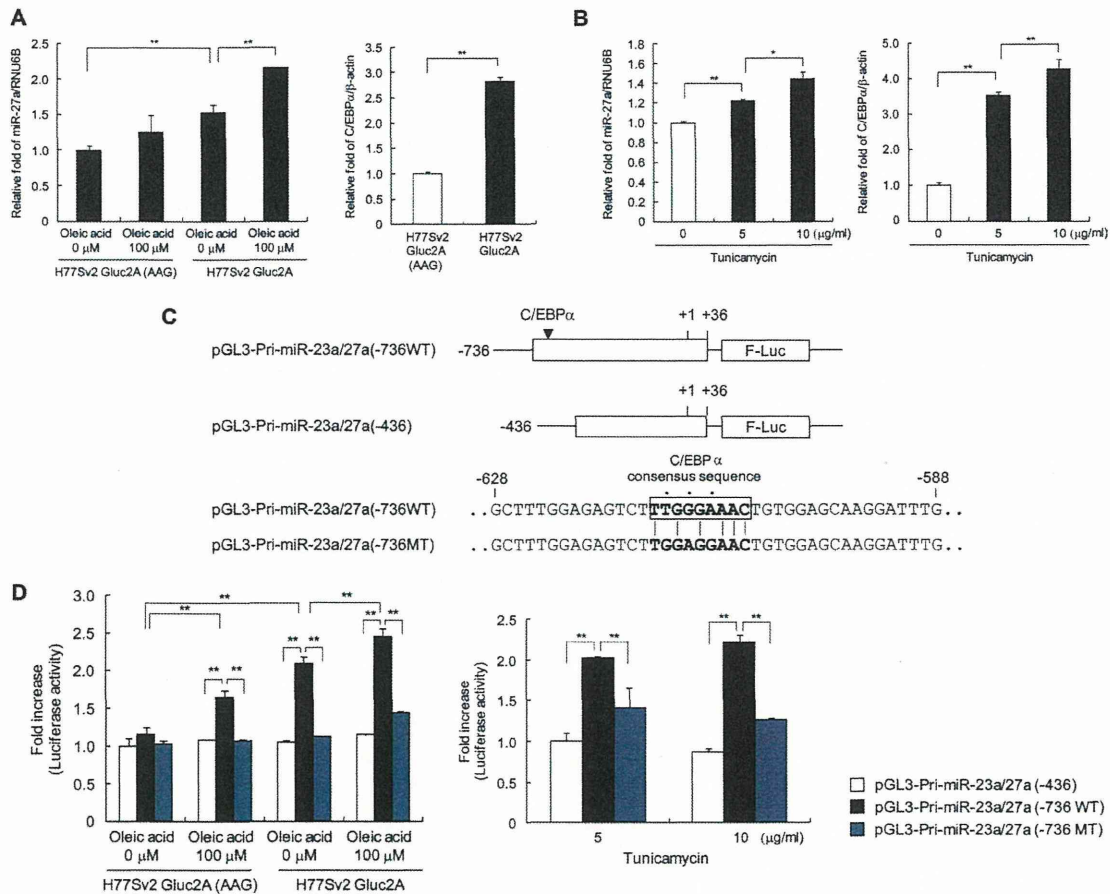


FIG 10 miR-27a is regulated by the adipocyte differentiation factor C/EBPα. (A) Induction of miR-27a and C/EBPα expression by oleic acid and HCV replication. Huh-7.5 cells were transfected with H77Sv2 Gluc2A RNA or H77Sv2 Gluc2A (AAG) RNA. At 24 h posttransfection, oleic acid (100 μM) was added to the culture medium. At 72 h after oleic acid treatment, miR-27a (left) and C/EBPα (right) levels were quantified by RTD-PCR ($n = 6$). (B) Induction of miR-27a and C/EBPα expression by tunicamycin. Huh-7.5 cells were treated with different doses of tunicamycin. At 24 h after tunicamycin treatment, miR-27a (left) and C/EBPα (right) levels were quantified by RTD-PCR ($n = 6$). (C) miR-27a promoter luciferase constructs. pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736WT) includes -700 to +36 bp relative to the transcription initiation site of pri-miR-23a~27a~24-2. pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a (-436) includes -400 to +36 bp relative to the transcription initiation site of pri-miR-23a~27a~24-2, which lacks the consensus C/EBPα binding site. pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736MT) has mutations at the -736WT C/EBPα binding site. (D) miR-27a promoter activity in Huh-7.5 cells following HCV infection and oleic acid (left) or tunicamycin (right) treatment. Reporter constructs lacking the C/EBPα binding site did not respond to any of these conditions ($n = 6$). All experiments were performed in duplicate and repeated three times. Values are means ± standard errors. *, $P < 0.01$; **, $P < 0.005$.

significantly induced the expression of miR-27a and C/EBPα (Fig. 10A and B). To analyze the induction of miR-27a through C/EBPα, we constructed a Luc reporter construct that included the upstream promoter region (-736) of miR-27a [pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736WT)] together with a short promoter construct (-436) lacking the C/EBPα binding site [pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-436)]. In addition, three nucleotide mutations were introduced into the C/EBPα consensus binding site to construct pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736MT) (Fig. 10C). The activity of pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736WT), but not that of pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-736MT) or pGL3-Pri-miR-23a/27a(-436), which both lack a C/EBPα binding site, was induced by HCV replication, lipid overload, and tunicamycin treatment (Fig. 10D). These results indicate that the regulation of miR-27a by HCV replication, lipid overload, and ER stress is mediated through C/EBPα.

Pre-miR-27a enhances IFN signaling through the reduction of lipid storage. Finally, we assessed whether miR-27a influences

IFN signaling. IFN-α treatment stimulated IFN signaling in a dose-dependent manner by increasing p-STAT1 expression in Huh-7.5 cells (Fig. 11A). Oleic acid impaired this induction of p-STAT1, while pre-miR-27a restored the expression of p-STAT1 and anti-miR-27a impaired this induction by oleic acid. These findings were observed in both HCV-replicating and non-HCV-replicating cells (Fig. 11A).

HCV replication deduced from Gluc activity is shown in Fig. 11B. IFN sensitivity could be estimated by the relative fold changes in Gluc activity from the baseline activity (in the absence of IFN). The results demonstrated that oleic acid reduced IFN sensitivity, while pre-miR-27a increased IFN sensitivity under either condition with or without oleic acid (Fig. 11B).

These findings were further studied with clinical samples. The expression of miR-27a was evaluated in liver biopsy specimens obtained from 41 patients who received pegylated IFN (Peg-IFN) and ribavirin (RBV) combination therapy (Fig. 12A). Interestingly, the expression of miR-27a was significantly higher

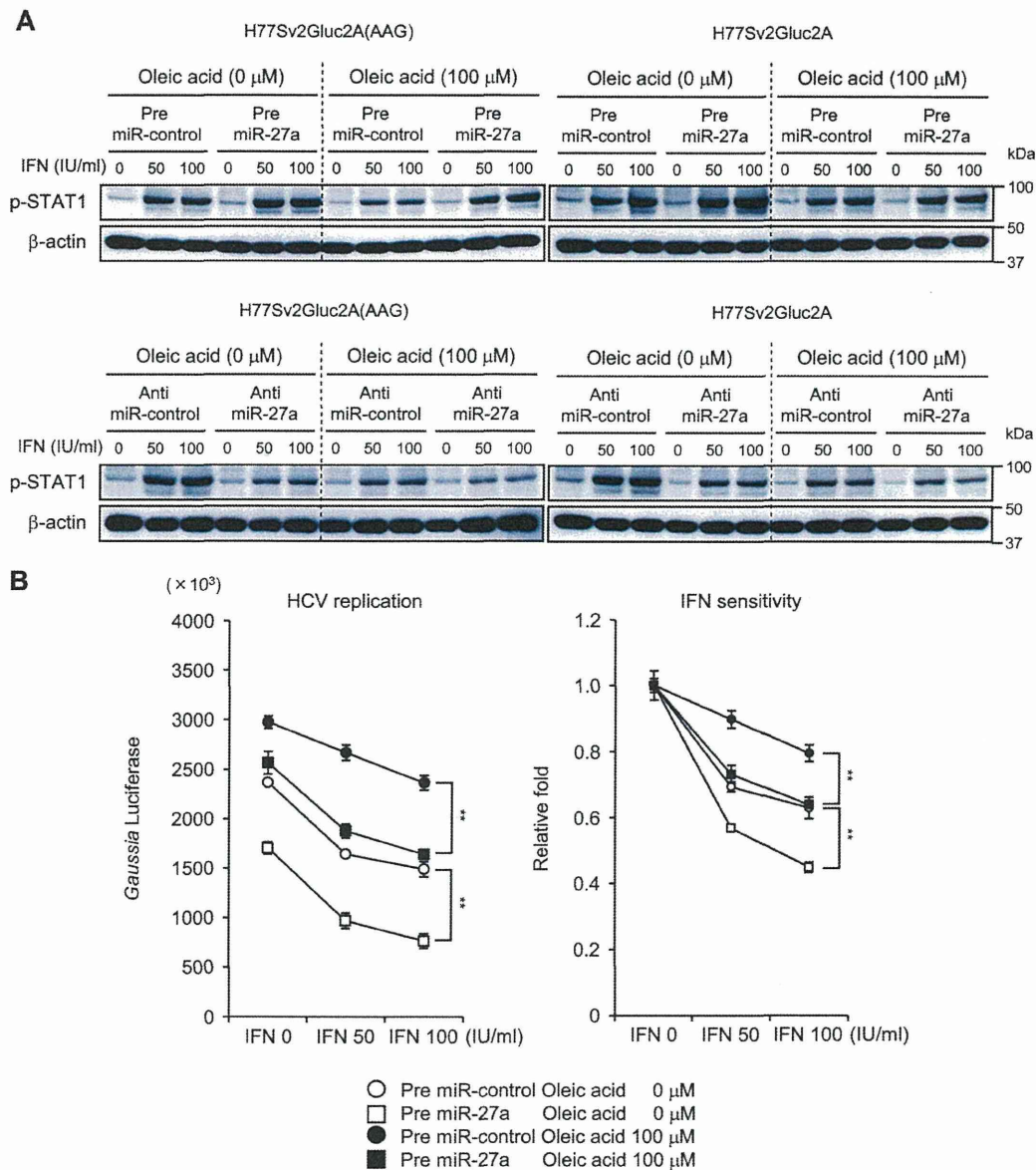


FIG 11 miR-27a restores IFN signaling impaired by lipid overload. (A) Induction of p-STAT1 expression by miR-27a. Huh-7.5 cells were transfected with H77Sv2 Gluc2A RNA or H77Sv2 Gluc2A (AAG) RNA and pre- or anti-miR-control or pre- or anti-miR-27a. At 24 h posttransfection, oleic acid (100 μM) was added to the culture medium. At 48 h after oleic acid treatment, the cells were treated with different doses of IFN-α. At 24 h after IFN treatment, p-STAT1 expression levels were determined by Western blotting. Experiments were repeated three times. (B) Absolute values of Gluc activity (left) and *n*-fold changes in Gluc activity (right) indicate IFN sensitivity (*n* = 6). Experiments were performed in duplicate and repeated three times. Values are means ± standard errors. *, *P* < 0.01; **, *P* < 0.005.

in patients with severe steatosis (grade 3 or 4) than in those with mild steatosis (grade 1 or 2) (Fig. 12B). Importantly, patients with a favorable response to treatment (sustained virological response or transient response) expressed higher miR-27a levels than patients with a poor response (nonresponse) (Fig. 12C). Although there was no significant difference in miR-27a expression according to the interleukin-28B (IL-28B) genotype (Fig. 12D and E), 17 patients had a treatment-resistant IL-28 genotype (TG at rs8099917) (39–41) and 6 of these with a favorable response to treatment expressed significantly higher miR-27a levels than the 11 with a poor response

(Fig. 12E). These data suggest that miR-27a enhances IFN signaling and increases the response to IFN treatment.

DISCUSSION

Previously, we examined miRNA expression in HCC and noncancerous background liver tissue infected with HBV and HCV and showed the presence of infection-specific miRNAs that were differentially expressed according to HBV or HCV infection, but not according to the presence of HCC (2). In this study, we pursued the functional analysis of these miRNAs. Among 19 infection-specific miRNAs, we first focused on 6 that were upregulated by

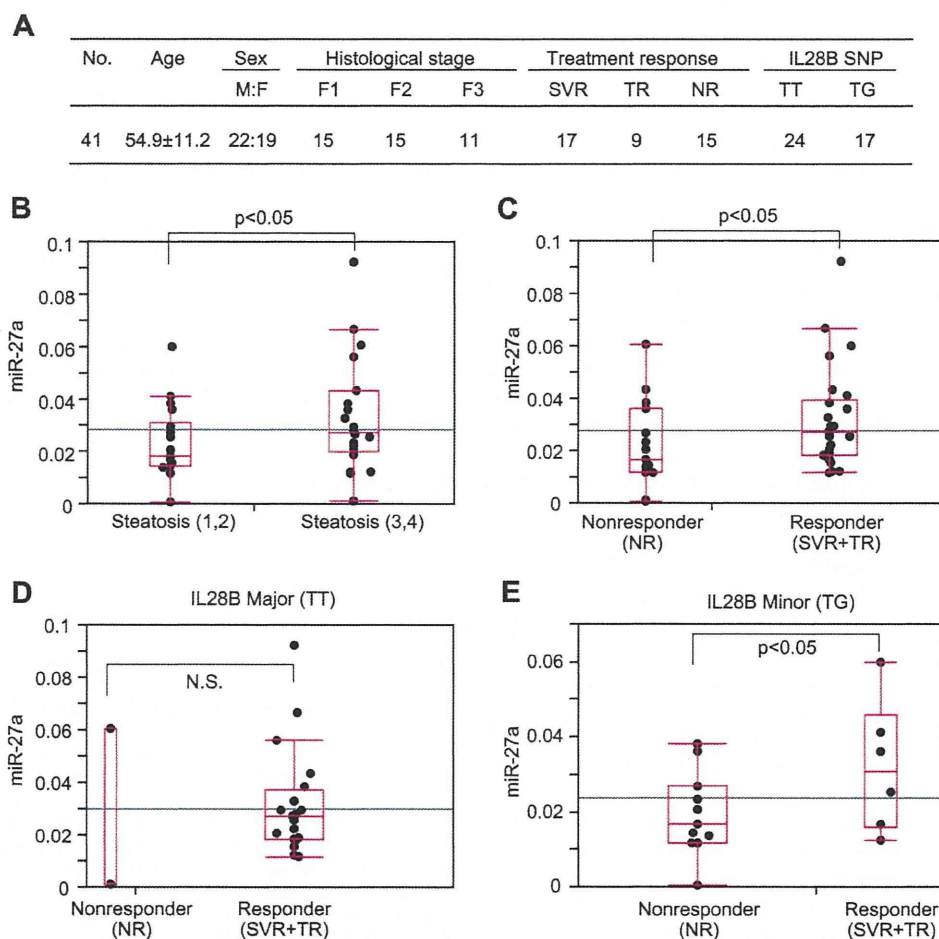


FIG 12 Expression of miR-27a in clinical samples. (A) Clinical characteristics of 41 patients who received Peg-IFN and RBV combination therapy. M:F, male/female ratio; SVR, sustained virological response; TR, transient response; NR, nonresponse; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism. (B) Significant upregulation of miR-27a expression in the livers of patients with severe steatosis. Steatosis grades 1 and 2, $n = 19$; steatosis grades 3 and 4, $n = 22$. (C) Significant upregulation of miR-27a expression in the livers of patients with a favorable response to treatment (SVR or TR). Nonresponders, $n = 15$; responders, $n = 26$. (D) No significant difference in miR-27a expression between nonresponders and responders of the IL-28B major genotype (treatment-sensitive genotype) was observed. Nonresponders, $n = 3$; responders, $n = 21$. N.S., not significant. (E) Significant upregulation of liver miR-27a was observed in responders of the IL-28B minor genotype (treatment-resistant genotype). Nonresponders, $n = 11$; responders, $n = 6$.

HCV infection, as they were expected to have a positive role in HCV replication. However, inhibition experiments with a series of specific anti-miRNAs showed an unexpected increased in HCV replication. Closer examination clarified that miR-27a had a negative effect on HCV replication. Interestingly, profiling of gene expression in Huh-7.5 cells in which miR-27a was inhibited or overexpressed showed that miR-27a could target lipid metabolism signaling pathways. In support of these findings, the lipid content (TG and TCHO) of Huh-7.5 cells was significantly increased by anti-miR-27a and repressed by pre-miR-27a (Fig. 2 and 3). More importantly, miR-27a was involved in HCV particle formation, as demonstrated by iodixanol gradient centrifugation (Fig. 4). Anti-miR-27a reduced the buoyant density of HCV particles and increased HCV replication and infectivity, while pre-miR-27a decreased HCV replication and dramatically repressed HCV infectivity. In the buoyant-density experiment, the infectious HCV peaks were identical to the RNA peak and the lower infectious virus peak was not observed. We cannot explain this discrep-

ancy from other studies; however, the method used to purify the virus particles could be one reason.

miR-27a regulated many lipid metabolism-related transcription factors, such as RXR α , PPAR α , PPAR γ , FASN, SREBP1, and SREBP2 (Fig. 5 and 6). We also confirmed that miR-27a targets RXR α in human Huh-7.5 cells, which is concordant with a previous study showing that miR-27a targets RXR α in rat hepatic stellate cells (32). Moreover, we newly demonstrated that the gene for the lipid transporter ABCA1 is a target of miR-27a. ABCA1 mediates the efflux of TCHO and phospholipids to the lipid-poor apolipoproteins ApoA1 and ApoE, which then form nascent HDLs (34, 35). It also mediates the transport of lipids between the Golgi apparatus and the cell membrane. Recently, the knockdown of ABCA1 in rat hepatoma cells increased TG secretion to the culture medium and decreased the cellular levels of FFA (29), while liver-specific ABCA1 knockout mice fed a high-fat diet showed increased plasma TG concentrations and decreased TG and TCHO contents in the liver (42). Thus, ABCA1 regulates the lipid content

of hepatocytes, as well as HDL synthesis. In this study, we confirmed that the repression of ABCA1 decreased cellular TG and TCHO levels in Huh-7.5 cells and, importantly, decreased HCV replication and strikingly repressed HCV infection (Fig. 8).

LXR/RXR α was previously shown to activate the ABCA1 promoter (34), but we clearly demonstrated here that miR-27a directly targets ABCA1. Pre-miR-27a repressed the Luc activity of a reporter construct fused with the ABCA1 3' UTR, while anti-miR-27a increased it. We also found that miR-27a regulates the expression of ABCA1 in a 3' UTR sequence-specific manner, as a series of mutations introduced into putative miR-27a binding sites abrogated its regulation (Fig. 7). In addition to these findings, we showed that miR-27a repressed the expression of the apolipoproteins ApoA1, ApoB100, and ApoE3, which were recently shown to play important roles in the production and formation of infectious HCV particles (Fig. 8) (11, 36, 37). Thus, miR-27a may regulate lipid metabolism by reducing lipid synthesis and increasing lipid secretion from cells.

As the expression of miR-27a was upregulated more in CH-C liver than in CH-B liver, it is speculated that miR-27a expression is induced by HCV infection. Indeed, we clearly demonstrated that miR-27a expression was induced by HCV infection, lipid overload, and tunicamycin-induced ER stress (Fig. 9). Furthermore, the adipocyte differentiation-related transcription factor C/EBP α was involved in this regulation. A central role for C/EBP α in the development of adipose tissue has been suggested, as it was found to be sufficient to trigger the differentiation of preadipocytes into mature adipocytes (43). Thus, HCV infection might trigger lipogenesis in hepatocytes by inducing C/EBP α , as shown in this study. Conversely, the induction of C/EBP α expression by miR-27a had a negative effect on lipogenesis and HCV replication. Therefore, miR-27a might play a negative feedback role in HCV infection-induced lipid storage in hepatocytes. Moreover, HCV replication might be hampered by HCV-induced miR-27a, which would partially explain the low HCV titer in CH-C liver.

Besides the anti-HCV effect of miR-27a observed in this study, an antiviral effect against murine cytomegalovirus (MCMV) infection was observed previously (44, 45). MCMV replication was initiated by miR-27a degradation from a viral transcript, while miR-27a had a negative effect on MCMV replication. It was also reported that miR-27a was the target of *Herpesvirus saimiri* U-rich RNAs and was downregulated in transformed T lymphocytes (46). Therefore, the functional relevance of miR-27a in transformed T cells should be explored in a future study. In this study, miR-27a was upregulated by HCV infection, which is in sharp contrast to MCMV and *H. saimiri* infection. Therefore, the differences in antiviral action and host cell interactions also need to be explored further.

Our assessment of miR-27a expression in patients receiving Peg-IFN and RBV combination therapy showed that those with high miR-27a levels had a more favorable treatment response (Fig. 12). Moreover, miR-27a significantly enhanced IFN signaling (Fig. 11), suggesting that it might have therapeutic benefits in combination with IFN therapy, especially in patients with the IFN-resistant IL-28B genotype, who show a more severe steatosis than those with the IFN-sensitive IL-28B genotype (39–41). Further studies should be performed to confirm these findings with more clinical samples.

Although miR-27a has been shown to be upregulated in cancers of the breast, kidney, ovary, and gastric region, its

downregulation has been reported in colorectal cancer, malignant melanoma, oral squamous cell carcinoma, and acute promyelocytic leukemia (47). However, its importance in HCC remains controversial, with one report observing its upregulation compared with the level in normal liver tissue (48), while another showed lower miR-27a expression in HCC than in paired nontumor tissues (49). Moreover, our previous findings on HBV-related and HCV-related HCC showed no miR-27a upregulation compared with the level in the paired background liver (1.14-fold, $P = 0.49$).

In summary, we have revealed the important role of miR-27a in HCV replication for the first time. These findings will be applicable in the improvement of the therapeutic effects of anti-HCV therapy, especially in patients showing treatment resistance and severe hepatic steatosis.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

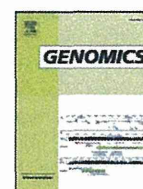
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We have no potential competing interests to declare.

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Gene expression profiling of hepatitis B- and hepatitis C-related hepatocellular carcinoma using graphical Gaussian modeling[☆]

Teruyuki Ueda^a, Masao Honda^{a,b,*}, Katsuhisa Horimoto^c, Sachiyo Aburatani^c, Shigeru Saito^c, Taro Yamashita^a, Yoshio Sakai^a, Mikiko Nakamura^a, Hajime Takatori^a, Hajime Sunagozaka^a, Shuichi Kaneko^a

^a Department of Gastroenterology, Graduate School of Medicine, Kanazawa University, Kanazawa, Takara-Machi 13-1, Kanazawa 920-8641, Japan

^b Department of Advanced Medical Technology, Kanazawa University Graduate School of Health Medicine, Kanazawa, Takara-Machi 13-1, Kanazawa 920-8641, Japan

^c Biological Network Team, Computational Biology Research Center, National Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology, Aomi 2-4-7, Koto-ku, Tokyo 135-0064, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Background & aims: Gene expression profiling of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) and background liver has been studied extensively; however, the relationship between the gene expression profiles of different lesions has not been assessed.

Methods: We examined the expression profiles of 34 HCC specimens (17 hepatitis B virus [HBV]-related and 17 hepatitis C virus [HCV]-related) and 71 non-tumor liver specimens (36 chronic hepatitis B [CH-B] and 35 chronic hepatitis C [CH-C]) using an in-house cDNA microarray consisting of liver-predominant genes. Graphical Gaussian modeling (GGM) was applied to elucidate the interactions of gene clusters among the HCC and non-tumor lesions.

Results: In CH-B-related HCC, the expression of vascular endothelial growth factor-family signaling and regulation of T cell differentiation, apoptosis, and survival, as well as development-related genes was up-regulated. In CH-C-related HCC, the expression of ectodermal development and cell proliferation, wnt receptor signaling, cell adhesion, and defense response genes was also up-regulated. Many of the metabolism-related genes were down-regulated in both CH-B- and CH-C-related HCC. GGM analysis of the HCC and non-tumor lesions revealed that DNA damage response genes were associated with AP1 signaling in non-tumor lesions, which mediates the expression of many genes in CH-B-related HCC. In contrast, signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 and phosphatase and tensin homolog were associated with early growth response protein 1 signaling in non-tumor lesions, which potentially promotes angiogenesis, fibrogenesis, and tumorigenesis in CH-C-related HCC.

Conclusions: Gene expression profiling of HCC and non-tumor lesions revealed the predisposing changes of gene expression in HCC. This approach has potential for the early diagnosis and possible prevention of HCC.

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1. Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most common malignancies worldwide with a particularly poor patient outcome [1]. It often develops as a result of chronic liver disease associated with hepatitis B

(HBV) or hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection or with other etiologies such as long-term alcohol abuse, autoimmunity, and hemochromatosis [2]. HBV and HCV infections are the leading cause of HCC in the world [3]. In Japan, approximately 85% of patients with HCC are positive for the HBV surface antigen or anti-HCV antibody. Approximately 7% of patients with HCV-related liver cirrhosis develop HCC [4] and 3% of patients with HBV-related liver cirrhosis develop HCC [5].

Gene expression analysis of HCC has revealed from previous work, the activation of the wnt/ β -catenin, pRb, p53, transforming growth factor- β , mitogen-activated protein kinase, and Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription pathways, stress response signaling, and epidermal growth factor receptor [6–8]. In addition, we have previously reported that the gene expression profiles in the livers of patients with chronic hepatitis B (CH-B) and chronic hepatitis C (CH-C) were different. Pro-apoptotic and DNA repair responses were predominant in CH-B, while inflammatory and anti-apoptotic phenotypes were predominant in CH-C [9,10]. Furthermore, we optimized

Abbreviations: CH-B, chronic hepatitis B; CH-C, chronic hepatitis C; CLL, cells in liver lobules; CPA, cells in the portal area; EF, early fibrosis; EGR1, early growth response protein 1; ESR1, estrogen receptor 1; GGM, graphical Gaussian modeling; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; hTERT, human telomerase reverse transcriptase; LCM, laser capture microdissection; LF, late fibrosis; PCCM, partial correlation coefficient matrix; PTEN, phosphatase and tensin homolog; SD, standard deviation; SHC, src homology 2 domain containing; STAT1, signal transducer and activator of transcription 1; TCA, tricarboxylic acid cycle; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor.

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* Corresponding author at: Department of Gastroenterology, Graduate School of Medicine, Kanazawa University, Takara-Machi 13-1, Kanazawa 920-8641, Japan. Fax: +81 76 234 4250.

E-mail address: mhonda@m-kanazawa.jp (M. Honda).

the laser capture microdissection (LCM) method to isolate cells in liver lobules (CLL) and cells in the portal area (CPA) for detailed gene expression analysis [10,11]. However, it is still unknown how cancer signaling pathways are activated in HCC. As HCC frequently develops from a cirrhotic liver, analyzing the relationship of signaling pathways between HCC and non-cancerous liver tissue might be a useful approach for revealing the mechanism that ultimately leads to the development of HCC.

Graphical Gaussian modeling (GGM) is utilized widely to infer or test the relationships between multiple variables [12–14]. Previously, we developed a method that combines cluster analysis with GGM to infer a genetic network on the basis of expression profile data. Analysis of the expression profile of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* revealed a model of its genetic network, and the accuracy of the inferred network was confirmed by its agreement with the cumulative results of experimental studies [15]. Therefore, GGM has the potential to be a useful analytical tool to identify the relationship between the gene expression profiles of HCC and non-cancerous liver tissue.

In the present study, we extended the analysis of gene expression in HCC and applied GGM analysis [15,16]. Indeed, our procedure inferred the relationships between gene groups defined by clustering, and its application enabled us to elucidate the framework of the gene clusters in relation to the hepatocellular carcinogenesis of CH-B and CH-C.

2. Results

2.1. Expressed genes in CH-B-related HCC

The gene expression profiles of whole liver biopsy specimens and surgically resected liver were obtained from 36 patients with CH-B, 17 with CH-B-related HCC, 35 with CH-C, and 17 with CH-C-related HCC. The clinical characteristics of the patients are shown in Supplemental Tables A and B. We categorized the F1 and F2 fibrosis stages as early fibrosis (EF; $n = 13$ for CH-B and $n = 12$ for CH-C) and the F3 and F4 fibrosis stages as late fibrosis (LF; $n = 22$ for CH-B and $n = 23$ for CH-C).

The 783 differentially expressed genes in CH-B-related HCC were identified across 20 clusters, of which 4 (Nos. 8, 9, 11, and 20) were up-regulated and 12 (No. 1–7, 12–14, 16, and 17) were down-regulated (Fig. 1 and Supplemental Table C). The up-regulated clusters were comprised angiogenesis, cell cycle, apoptosis, and survival-related genes. Placental growth factor, vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-related protein, SUMO-activating enzyme subunit 2, cyclin E1, and baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 5 were up-regulated (Nos. 8, 9, and 11). In addition, oncogene-related proteins, such as v-myc myelocytomatosis viral-related oncogene (No. 9), telomerase-associated protein 1, and stathmin 1/oncoprotein 18 (No. 8), tumor marker genes, such as glypican 3, and growth factors, such as midkine (No. 9), were also up-regulated. In cluster No. 20, the proliferation and invasiveness-related gene and protein tyrosine kinase 2 were up-regulated.

Down-regulation was prominent in many metabolism-related genes including ornithine aminotransferase, insulin receptor substrate 1, glutamate dehydrogenase 2, acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 2, and acetyl-coenzyme A acyltransferase 2, as well as many cytochrome P450 family genes, suggesting impaired xenobiotic, amino acid, and lipid metabolism (Nos. 6, 7, 12, 13, 16, and 17). The characteristic genes expressed in CH-B-related HCC are shown in Table 1.

2.2. Expressed genes in CH-C-related HCC

The 668 differentially expressed genes in CH-C-related HCC were identified across 18 genetic clusters, of which 5 (Nos. 10, 12, 14, 15, and 18) were up-regulated and 11 (Nos. 1–7, 11, 13, 16, and 17) were down-regulated (Fig. 2 and Supplemental Table D). Cluster No. 12 comprised immune defense response genes, such as chemokine (the C-C motif) ligand 19, natural killer cell transcript 4, major

histocompatibility complex class I B, major histocompatibility complex class II DQ beta 1, and ubiquitin-specific protease 8. Cluster No. 14 comprised cytoskeleton-associated, cell cycle, mitosis-related, and MAPKKK cascade-related genes, such as tubulin, src homology 2 domain containing (SHC) transforming protein 1, sterile alpha motif domain containing 9, S100 calcium binding protein A10, annexin A2, cyclin B1, platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase, isoform 1b, and vimentin. In cluster No. 15, glypican 3, aldo-keto reductase family 1, member B10, ATP citrate lyase, farnesyl diphosphate synthase, serine protease inhibitor, and Kazal type 1 were up-regulated. Cluster No. 15 included many candidate tumor markers of HCC. Interestingly, LCM analysis revealed that many of the up-regulated genes in clusters Nos. 12, 14, and 15 were preferentially expressed in CPA. Cluster No. 18 comprised regulation of G1/S checkpoint, signal transduction, and ectoderm development-related genes, such as bone morphogenetic protein 4, cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2A, fibroblast growth factor 9, and ornithine decarboxylase 1. Similar to CH-B-related HCC, many of the metabolism-related genes, including glucose, lipid, and amino acid genes, were down-regulated. The unique feature of lipid metabolism in CH-C-related HCC was the up-regulation of cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis genes and down-regulation of cholesterol metabolism and β oxidation genes. It was characterized by the up-regulation of stearoyl-CoA desaturase, farnesyl diphosphate synthase (No. 14), and ATP citrate lyase (No. 15), and down-regulation of acetyl-coenzyme A acetyltransferase 1. The characteristic genes expressed in CH-C-related HCC are shown in Table 2. Representative gene expression levels confirmed by TaqMan PCR are shown in Supplemental Fig. C1.

Pathway analysis of the combined up- and down-regulated clusters is shown in Supplemental Fig. D and Supplemental Table E. In CH-C-related HCC, immune response- and cytoskeleton-related genes, such as actin, tubulin, and vimentin, were up-regulated, while in CH-B-related HCC, cell matrix interaction genes, such as collagen IV and matrix metalloproteinase, were up-regulated. Immune-related genes were shown to be down-regulated in both CH-C- and CH-B-related HCC by MetaCore™ database analysis (Thomson Reuters, New York, NY) (Supplemental Fig. D). Gene annotation by DAVID Bioinformatics Resources 6.7 (<http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/>) [17] showed that oxidative phosphorylation and ATP synthesis coupled electron transport were up-regulated more in CH-C-related HCC than in CH-B-related HCC (Supplemental Table E).

2.3. Expressed genes in CH-B and CH-C

Differentially expressed genes in CH-B or CH-C were identified by backward selection, which did not include genes that were differentially expressed in CH-B- or CH-C-related HCC. As HCC frequently develops in the LF stage of liver disease, gene expression was evaluated in this stage. A total of 352 genes were differentially expressed in the LF stage of CH-B and classified into 21 clusters, of which 7 (Nos. 2, 3, 9, 10, 15, 16, and 18) were up-regulated and 11 (No. 5–7, 8, 11–14, 17, 20, and 21) were down-regulated (Supplemental Fig. B and Supplemental Table F).

In the CH-B fibrotic liver, genes involved in apoptosis, survival, and response to stress, as well as chemokine- and cytokine-related genes and wnt beta-catenin and angiogenesis-related genes, were up-regulated. Interestingly, these genes were already up-regulated in the EF stage of CH-B. In contrast, metabolism-related genes, such as those for pyruvate, cholesterol, and retinol metabolism and the mitochondrial tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, were down-regulated.

In total, 214 genes were differentially expressed in the LF stage of CH-C and classified into 7 gene clusters, of which 1 was up-regulated (No. 1) and 3 were down-regulated (Nos. 3, 5, and 6) (Supplemental Fig. B and Supplemental Table G). In CH-C, genes involved in the interferon signaling pathway, leukocyte chemotaxis, and immune response were preferentially up-regulated. These genes were expressed at a significantly higher level in CPA than in CLL in the liver (No. 1). Conversely, many metabolism and liver function-related genes were down-regulated (Nos. 3, 5, and 6). These genes were expressed at significantly higher levels in CLL compared to CPA in the liver.

HBV related HCC



Table 1
Characteristic genes expressed in CH-B-related HCC.

Genes	Symbol	GenBank ID	Cluster No.	Up- or down-regulated	GO
Placental growth factor, vascular endothelial growth factor-related protein	PGF	NM_002632	8	Up	Angiogenesis
Telomerase-associated protein 1	TEP1	NM_007110	8	Up	Telomere maintenance
Stathmin 1/oncoprotein 18	STMN1	J04991	8	Up	Microtubule depolymerization
SUMO-1 activating enzyme subunit 2	UBA2	NM_005499	9	Up	Protein modification process
Cyclin E1	CCNE1	NM_001238	9	Up	Cell cycle
V-myc myelocytomatosis viral related oncogene	MYCN	NM_005378	9	Up	Regulation of transcription from RNA polymerase II promoter
Glypican 3	GPC3	NM_004484	9	Up	Anatomical structure morphogenesis
Midkine (neurite growth-promoting factor 2)	MDK	NM_002391	9	Up	Cell differentiation
Collagen, type IV, alpha 1	COL4A1	NM_001846	9	Up	Extracellular matrix structural constituent
Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) A receptor	GABRE		11	Up	ion transport
Thrombospondin 2	THBS2	NM_003247	11	Up	Cell adhesion
Transferrin receptor (p90, CD71)	TrF1	AW025110	11	Up	Cellular iron ion homeostasis
Baculoviral IAP repeat containing 5 (Survivin)	BIRC5	NM_001168	11	Up	cytokinesis
Ornithine aminotransferase	OAT	NM_000274	12	Down	Transaminase activity
Insulin receptor substrate 1	IRS1	NM_005544	12	Down	Positive regulation of mesenchymal cell proliferation
Glutamate dehydrogenase 2	GLUD2	NM_012084	12	Down	Cellular amino acid metabolic process
Acyl-CoA oxidase 2	ACOX2	NM_003500	12	Down	Lipid metabolic process
Insulin-like growth factor 2 receptor	IGF-2R	AL353625	13	Down	Transport
Leukocyte cell-derived chemotaxin 2	LECT2, IL-9	AC002428	13	Down	System development
Hydroxysteroid (11-beta) dehydrogenase 1	HSD11B1	NM_181755	13	Down	Lipid metabolic process
Diablo, IAP-binding mitochondrial protein	DIABLO	NM_019887	13	Down	Induction of apoptosis
Cytochrome P450, family 39, subfamily A, polypeptide 1	CYP39A1	NM_016593	13	Down	Bile acid biosynthetic process
N-acetyltransferase 2	NAT-2	NM_000015	13	Down	Metabolic process
Solute carrier family 39 (zinc transporter), member 14	SLC39A14	NM_015359	13	Down	Ion transport
Acetyl-coenzyme A acyltransferase 2	ACAA2	NM_006111	16	Down	Lipid metabolic process

2.4. Framework of gene clusters in relation to hepatocarcinogenesis of CH-B using GGM

We used GGM to examine the relationship between non-cancerous and HCC gene clusters. The partial correlation coefficient matrix (PCCM) generated by GGM is shown in Supplemental Tables H and I. The frame networks of genetic clusters are shown in Fig. 3. The blue lines indicate a negative partial correlation and the black lines indicate a positive partial correlation. Multiple correlations were observed within the non-cancerous and HCC clusters. In addition, some interesting correlations between non-cancerous and HCC clusters were noted. In CH-B (Fig. 3A), non-cancerous cluster No. 3 was up-regulated and correlated with HCC cluster Nos. 8 and 18. Non-cancerous cluster No. 3 was composed of wnt signaling and oxidative stress-related genes, HCC cluster No. 8 was composed of VEGF family signaling-related genes, and HCC cluster No. 18 was composed of estrogen receptor 1 (ESR1) regulation of G1/S transition-related genes. Moreover, non-cancerous cluster No. 16 correlated positively with HCC cluster No. 11 and negatively with HCC cluster No. 18. Non-cancerous cluster No. 16 was composed of cytokine production and apoptosis-related genes, while HCC cluster No. 11 was composed of apoptosis and survival-related genes. The down-regulated non-cancerous cluster No. 13 in CH-B correlated negatively with HCC cluster No. 8. Non-cancerous cluster No. 13 was composed of hepatic functional genes, such as those related to cholesterol metabolism and the TCA cycle.

The correlations between these clusters were further confirmed by examining individual gene interactions with reference to the MetaCore database (Fig. 4A). Eight genes in non-cancerous cluster Nos. 3 and 16 were directly associated with AP1 in HCC cluster No. 18. These genes

are related to development and the DNA damage response. In HCC cluster No. 18, many of the cell cycle, development, immune system, and metabolism-related genes were regulated by AP1 [18–20]. In addition, it is interesting to note that the HBV transcript clustered in HCC cluster No. 18 (Fig. 1). The up-regulated HCC cluster No. 11 was associated with AP1 [21]. In addition, the down-regulated HCC cluster No. 13, which included many liver function-related genes, was also associated with AP1 [22,23]. Thus, in CH-B, the DNA damage response might trigger the signaling pathway of HCC, while AP1 in HCC is likely the key regulator of HBV-related HCC.

2.5. Framework of genetic clusters in relation to hepatocarcinogenesis of CH-C using GGM

In CH-C (Fig. 3B), the up-regulated non-cancerous cluster No. 1 correlated negatively with HCC cluster No. 9 and positively with HCC cluster No. 2. Non-cancerous cluster No. 1 was composed of interferon alpha/beta signaling pathway and leukocyte chemotaxis genes. HCC cluster No. 9 was composed of signal transduction and regulation of cell proliferation genes and associated directly with HCC cluster No. 18. HCC cluster Nos. 15 and 18 were composed of development process and wnt signaling pathway genes. HCC cluster Nos. 12 and 14 were composed of immune development, cell adhesion, and defense response genes. These clusters were directly and indirectly associated with HCC cluster No.9. HCC cluster No. 2 was composed of liver function genes, including those for lipid metabolism and iron ion transport. Non-cancerous cluster No. 7, which was composed of immune response, G-protein signaling, and regulation of lipid metabolism genes, correlated positively with HCC cluster No. 18.

Fig. 1. One way hierarchical clustering of 783 differentially expressed genes in CH-B-related HCC. A total of 783 genes were differentially expressed in CH-B-related HCC. Up-regulated genes are shown in red, down-regulated genes are shown in green, and unchanged genes are shown in white.