transgenic mice than in non-transgenic mice, but was not significantly different. These results suggested that additive HCV-induced ROS production was unlikely to be the cause of the significantly increased ROS production after ovariectomy in the transgenic mice. The other possibility is HCV-associated attenuation of antioxidant potential against ovariectomy-induced oxidative stress. In this respect, OVX transgenic mice had a lower ratio of BAP to dROM than OVX non-transgenic mice and the expression of SOD2 and GPx1 in the liver was not increased. These results suggest that HCV protein attenuated antioxidant potential against ovariectomy-induced oxidative stress.

Proliferator-activated receptor-γ co-activator-1α is required for the induction of many ROS-detoxifying enzymes upon oxidative stress.[26] SIRT3 has been shown to function as a downstream target gene of PGC-1α and mediate the PGC-1α-dependent induction of ROS-detoxifying enzymes.[27] Additionally, AMPK, which is a crucial cellular energy sensor, regulates PGC-1α activity through both modulation of PGC-1α transcription and phosphorylation of the PGC-1α protein.[28,37] Thus, AMPK/PGC-1α signaling is one of the important pathways that protect cells from oxidative stress through the induction of several key ROS-detoxifying enzymes. Recent evidence indicating that HCV replication inhibits AMPK activity[29] prompted us to investigate whether the antioxidant potential against ovariectomy-induced oxidative stress in FL-N/35 transgenic mice was attenuated through inhibition of this signaling pathway. As expected, upon ovariectomy, AMPK was activated in non-transgenic mice, but not in transgenic mice. This, in turn, led to the lower expression of PGC-1α in the nuclear fraction of the liver in OVX transgenic mice than in OVX non-transgenic mice, resulting in the absence of significant induction of SIRT3 in the mitochondrial fraction of the liver in the OVX transgenic mice. Thus, ROS production in the liver in OVX transgenic mice was increased by attenuation of the antioxidant potential through inhibition of AMPK/PGC-1α signaling. However, it remains unknown why the expression of PGC-1α in the nuclear fraction was significantly increased in OVX transgenic mice regardless of the lack of activation of AMPK. Various kinases other than AMPK and post-translational modifications other than phosphorylation have been shown to regulate PGC-1α expression.[28] Therefore further investigations are required to clarify this issue.

Of particular concern is the relevance of the present results to HCC development in patients with HCV-associated chronic liver diseases. A recent study from Japan demonstrated a higher proportion of females, especially among elderly patients with HCV-related HCC, suggesting that the sex disparity in HCC development becomes less distinct as the patient's age at HCC diagnosis increases.[6] In general, ROS production creates a pro-carcinogenic environment under which chromosomal damage is likely to occur. The present findings that OVX transgenic mice have increased hepatic ROS production compared with that in OVX non-transgenic mice may indicate one of the mechanisms by which women with HCV infection are at high risk for HCC development when some period has passed after menopause, even though we need to clinically ascertain the increased hepatic oxidative stress in HCV-infected menopausal women with HCC.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THIS RESEARCH WAS supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (B) (no. 23390201) and a Grant-in-aid for Exploratory Research (no. 25670374) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, a Health and Labor Sciences Research Grant for Research on Hepatitis from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan, and Research Project Grant P2 from Kawasaki Medical School.

REFERENCES

1 Chen DS, Locarnini S, Wait S *et al.* Report from a Viral Hepatitis Policy Forum on implementing the WHO framework for global action on viral hepatitis in North Asia. *J Hepatol* 2013. doi: 10.1016/j.jhep.2013.06.029.
2 Bruno S, Silini E, Crosignani A *et al.* Hepatitis C virus genotypes and risk of hepatocellular carcinoma in cirrhosis: a prospective study. *Hepatology* 1997; **25**: 754–8.
3 Degos F, Christidis C, Ganne-Carrie N *et al.* Hepatitis C virus related cirrhosis: time to occurrence of hepatocellular carcinoma and death. *Gut* 2000; **47**: 131–6.
4 Bosch FX, Ribes J, Diaz M, Cleries R. Primary liver cancer: worldwide incidence and trends. *Gastroenterology* 2004; **127**: S5–S16.
5 Naugler WE, Sakurai T, Kim S *et al.* Gender disparity in liver cancer due to sex differences in MyD88-dependent IL-6 production. *Science* 2007; **317**: 121–4.
6 Kumada T, Toyoda H, Kiriyama S *et al.* Characteristics of elderly hepatitis C virus-associated hepatocellular carcinoma patients. *J Gastroenterol Hepatol* 2013; **28**: 357–64.
7 Farinati F, Cardin R, De Maria N *et al.* Iron storage, lipid peroxidation and glutathione turnover in chronic anti-HCV positive hepatitis. *J Hepatol* 1995; **22**: 449–56.
8 Barbaro G, Di Lorenzo G, Asti A *et al.* Hepatocellular mitochondrial alterations in patients with chronic hepatitis C:

ultrastructural and biochemical findings. *Am J Gastroenterol* 1999; **94:** 2198–205.
9 Tanaka H, Fujita N, Sugimoto R *et al.* Hepatic oxidative DNA damage is associated with increased risk for hepatocellular carcinoma in chronic hepatitis C. *Br J Cancer* 2008; **98:** 580–6.
10 Moriya K, Nakagawa K, Santa T *et al.* Oxidative stress in the absence of inflammation in a mouse model for hepatitis C virus-associated hepatocarcinogenesis. *Cancer Res* 2001; **61:** 4365–70.
11 Furutani T, Hino K, Okuda M *et al.* Hepatic iron overload induces hepatocellular carcinoma in transgenic mice expressing the hepatitis C virus polyprotein. *Gastroenterology* 2006; **130:** 2087–98.
12 Ji H, Zheng W, Menini S *et al.* Female protection in progressive renal disease is associated with estradiol attenuation of superoxide production. *Gend Med* 2007; **4:** 56–71.
13 Borras C, Sastre J, Garcia-Sala D, Lloret A, Pallardo FV, Vina J. Mitochondria from females exhibit higher antioxidant gene expression and lower oxidative damage than males. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2003; **34:** 546–52.
14 Beard MR, Abell G, Honda M *et al.* An infectious molecular clone of a Japanese genotype 1b hepatitis C virus. *Hepatology* 1999; **30:** 316–24.
15 Lerat H, Honda M, Beard MR *et al.* Steatosis and liver cancer in transgenic mice expressing the structural and nonstructural proteins of hepatitis C virus. *Gastroenterology* 2002; **122:** 352–65.
16 Bligh EG, Dyer WJ. A rapid method of total lipid extraction and purification. *Can J Biochem Physiol* 1959; **37:** 911–7.
17 Lowry OH, Rosebrough NJ, Farr AL, Randall RJ. Protein measurement with the Folin phenol reagent. *J Biol Chem* 1951; **193:** 265–75.
18 Nishina S, Hino K, Korenaga M *et al.* Hepatitis C virus-induced reactive oxygen species raise hepatic iron level in mice by reducing hepcidin transcription. *Gastroenterology* 2008; **134:** 226–38.
19 Harrison-Findik DD, Schafer D, Klein E *et al.* Alcohol metabolism-mediated oxidative stress down-regulates hepcidin transcription and leads to increased duodenal iron transporter expression. *J Biol Chem* 2006; **281:** 22974–82.
20 Cesarone MR, Belcaro G, Carratelli M *et al.* A simple test to monitor oxidative stress. *Int Angiol* 1999; **18:** 127–30.
21 Park CH, Valore EV, Waring AJ, Ganz T. Hepcidin, a urinary antimicrobial peptide synthesized in the liver. *J Biol Chem* 2001; **276:** 7806–10.
22 Nemeth E, Tuttle MS, Powelson J *et al.* Hepcidin regulates cellular iron efflux by binding to ferroportin and inducing its internalization. *Science* 2004; **306:** 2090–3.
23 Fenton HJH. Oxidation of tartaric acid in presence of iron. *J Chem Soc* 1894; **65:** 899–910.
24 Pietrangelo A, Dierssen U, Valli L *et al.* STAT3 is required for IL-6-gp130-dependent activation of hepcidin in vivo. *Gastroenterology* 2007; **132:** 294–300.
25 Kelly DP, Scarpulla RC. Transcriptional regulatory circuits controlling mitochondrial biogenesis and function. *Genes Dev* 2004; **18:** 357–68.
26 St-Pierre J, Drori S, Uldry M *et al.* Suppression of reactive oxygen species and neurodegeneration by the PGC-1 transcriptional coactivators. *Cell* 2006; **127:** 397–408.
27 Kong X, Wang R, Xue Y *et al.* Sirtuin 3, a new target of PGC-1alpha, plays an important role in the suppression of ROS and mitochondrial biogenesis. *PLoS ONE* 2010; **5:** e11707.
28 Fernandez-Marcos PJ, Auwerx J. Regulation of PGC-1alpha, a nodal regulator of mitochondrial biogenesis. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2011; **93:** 884S–90.
29 Mankouri J, Tedbury PR, Gretton S *et al.* Enhanced hepatitis C virus genome replication and lipid accumulation mediated by inhibition of AMP-activated protein kinase. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2010; **107:** 11549–54.
30 Hawley SA, Boudeau J, Reid JL *et al.* Complexes between the LKB1 tumor suppressor, STRAD alpha/beta and MO25 alpha/beta are upstream kinases in the AMP-activated protein kinase cascade. *J Biol* 2003; **2:** 28.
31 Rogers NH, Perfield JW 2nd, Strissel KJ, Obin MS, Greenberg AS. Reduced energy expenditure and increased inflammation are early events in the development of ovariectomy-induced obesity. *Endocrinology* 2009; **150:** 2161–8.
32 Pighon A, Gutkowska J, Jankowski M, Rabasa-Lhoret R, Lavoie JM. Exercise training in ovariectomized rats stimulates estrogenic-like effects on expression of genes involved in lipid accumulation and subclinical inflammation in liver. *Metabolism* 2011; **60:** 629–39.
33 Hong J, Stubbins RE, Smith RR, Harvey AE, Nunez NP. Differential susceptibility to obesity between male, female and ovariectomized female mice. *Nutr J* 2009; **8:** 11.
34 Kamada Y, Kiso S, Yoshida Y *et al.* Pitavastatin ameliorated the progression of steatohepatitis in ovariectomized mice fed a high fat and high cholesterol diet. *Hepatol Res* 2013; **43:** 401–12.
35 Korenaga M, Wang T, Li Y *et al.* Hepatitis C virus core protein inhibits mitochondrial electron transport and increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) production. *J Biol Chem* 2005; **280:** 37481–8.
36 Okuda M, Li K, Beard MR *et al.* Mitochondrial injury, oxidative stress, and antioxidant gene expression are induced by hepatitis C virus core protein. *Gastroenterology* 2002; **122:** 366–75.
37 Hardie DG, Ross FA, Hawley SA. AMPK: a nutrient and energy sensor that maintains energy homeostasis. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 2012; **13:** 251–62.

OPEN ACCESS Freely available online

PLOS ONE

Identification of a Functional Variant in the *MICA* Promoter Which Regulates *MICA* Expression and Increases HCV-Related Hepatocellular Carcinoma Risk

Paulisally Hau Yi Lo[1], Yuji Urabe[1,2], Vinod Kumar[1], Chizu Tanikawa[1], Kazuhiko Koike[3], Naoya Kato[4], Daiki Miki[2,5], Kazuaki Chayama[2,5], Michiaki Kubo[5], Yusuke Nakamura[1,6], Koichi Matsuda[1]*

1 Laboratory of Molecular Medicine, Human Genome Center, Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, **2** Departments of Medical and Molecular Science, Division of Frontier Medical Science, Programs for Biomedical Research, Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Hiroshima University, Hiroshima, Japan, **3** Department of Gastroenterology, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, **4** Unit of Disease Control Genome Medicine, The Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan, **5** Center for Genomic Medicine, The Institute of Physical and Chemical Research (RIKEN), Kanagawa, Japan, **6** Departments of Medicine and Surgery, and Center for Personalized Therapeutics, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois, United States of America

Abstract

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is the major cause of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in Japan. We previously identified the association of SNP rs2596542 in the 5′ flanking region of the *MHC class I polypeptide-related sequence A* (*MICA*) gene with the risk of HCV-induced HCC. In the current study, we performed detailed functional analysis of 12 candidate SNPs in the promoter region and found that a SNP rs2596538 located at 2.8 kb upstream of the *MICA* gene affected the binding of a nuclear protein(s) to the genomic segment including this SNP. By electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) and chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay, we identified that transcription factor Specificity Protein 1 (SP1) can bind to the protective G allele, but not to the risk A allele. In addition, reporter construct containing the G allele was found to exhibit higher transcriptional activity than that containing the A allele. Moreover, SNP rs2596538 showed stronger association with HCV-induced HCC ($P = 1.82 \times 10^{-5}$ and OR = 1.34) than the previously identified SNP rs2596542. We also found significantly higher serum level of soluble MICA (sMICA) in HCV-induced HCC patients carrying the G allele than those carrying the A allele ($P = 0.00616$). In summary, we have identified a functional SNP that is associated with the expression of MICA and the risk for HCV-induced HCC.

Citation: Lo PHY, Urabe Y, Kumar V, Tanikawa C, Koike K, et al. (2013) Identification of a Functional Variant in the *MICA* Promoter Which Regulates *MICA* Expression and Increases HCV-Related Hepatocellular Carcinoma Risk. PLoS ONE 8(4): e61279. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279

Editor: Erica Villa, University of Modena & Reggio Emilia, Italy

Received September 24, 2012; **Accepted** March 11, 2013; **Published** April 11, 2013

Funding: This work was supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of the Japanese government, the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of the Japanese government. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: koichima@ims.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the common cancers in the world. It is well-known to be associated with the chronic infection of Hepatitis B (HBV) and Hepatitis C (HCV) viruses. In Japan, nearly 70% of HCC patients are infected with HCV [1]. The annual rate of developing HCC among patients with HCV-related liver cirrhosis in Japan is estimated to be about 4–8 percent [2]. Recent analyses have identified various genetic factors that are related with viral induced liver diseases [3–5]. In our previous two-stage genome-wide association study (GWAS) using a total number of 1,394 cases and 5,486 controls, a SNP rs2596542 located on chromosome 6p21.33 was shown to be significantly associated with HCV-induced HCC ($P = 4.21 \times 10^{-13}$ and OR = 1.39) [6]. This SNP is located within the class I major histocompatibility complex (MHC) region and is at about 4.8 kb upstream of *MHC class I polypeptide-related sequence A* (*MICA*) gene. We also identified that the risk A allele of SNP rs2596542 was strongly associated with the low expression of soluble MICA (sMICA) in the serum of HCV-related HCC patients [6].

MICA is a membrane protein which is up-regulated in various tumor cells and also induced in response to various cellular stresses such as infection, hypoxia, and heat shock [7]. It is an important component of the innate immune response, as MICA can bind to the NKG2D receptor and subsequently activate natural killer (NK) cells, CD8+ cells, and γδ T cells [8,9]. Moreover, membrane MICA can be shed by metalloproteinases, including MMP9, ADAM10, and ADAM17, and secreted into serum as a soluble form [10,11]. Since these metalloproteinases are often activated in HCC, the expressions of both membrane-bound MICA and sMICA are increased [12,13]. SNP rs2596542 was found to be associated with the progression from chronic hepatitis C (CHC) to HCC and also with serum sMICA level. Hence, both rs2596542 and sMICA would be possible prognostic biomarkers for CHC patients. However, their underlying molecular mechanisms were not fully elucidated so far.

We hypothesize that *MICA* variations could affect sMICA level by either one or both of the following two possible mechanisms: (1) the genetic variation(s) in the coding region affecting the protein stability and (2) the transcriptional regulation. Previously, variable

numbers of tandem repeats (VNTRs) in exon 5 of *MICA* were identified to affect MICA subcellular localization and serum MICA level [14]. The exon 5 of *MICA* encodes the transmembrane domain and the insertion of an extra G nucleotide in the domain would result in a premature stop codon that would generate MICA protein without a transmembrane domain and subsequently affect sMICA level [14]. However, our previous results indicated that MICA VNTR was not significantly associated with the sMICA level or HCC risk [6]. Therefore, in the current study, we have tried to investigate whether the *MICA* variations would affect the *MICA* transcription in the liver cancer cells. Through the functional analysis of genetic variations in the *MICA* promoter region, we here report a causative SNP rs2596538 that increases the binding affinity of the transcription factor Specificity Protein 1 (SP1) and the risk of progression of the disease.

Materials and Methods

Samples and genotyping

DNA samples for direct sequencing (50 HCV-related HCC cases), imputation analysis (721 HCV-related HCC cases and 5,486 HCV-negative controls), and serum samples for sMICA ELISA (246 HCV-related HCC) were obtained from BioBank Japan [15,16]. Genotyping of SNPs from 1,394 HCC patients and measurement of sMICA expression by ELISA were performed in the previous study [6]. Genotyping of SNP rs2596542 in 1,043 CHC was performed previously in RIKEN using Illumina HumanHap610-Quad BeadChip [17]. All CHC subjects had abnormal levels of serum alanine transaminase for more than 6 months and were positive for both HCV antibody and serum HCV RNA. The SNP rs2596542 in liver cirrhosis samples without hepatocellular carcinoma from BioBank Japan (n = 420) and the University of Tokyo (n = 166) were genotyped using Illumina HumanHap610-Quad BeadChip or invader assay [18]. All subjects were either subjected to liver biopsy or diagnosed by non-invasive methods including hepatic imaging, biochemical data, and the presence/absence of clinical manifestations of portal hypertension [18]. The samples used in the current project were listed in Table S1. Case samples with HBV co-infection were excluded from this study. The subjects with cancers, chronic hepatitis B, diabetes or tuberculosis were excluded from non-HCV controls. All subjects were Japanese origin and provided written informed consent. This research project was approved by the ethical committees of the University of Tokyo and RIKEN.

Imputation study

The imputation study was performed by using a hidden Markov model programmed in MACH [19] and haplotype information from 1000 genomes database [20]. The imputation results were confirmed by direct DNA sequencing in 50 randomly selected samples.

Cell culture

Human liver cancer cell lines HLE and HepG2 were purchased from JHSF (Osaka, Japan) and ATCC. These cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Invitrogen) with 10% fetal bovine serum. Cells were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO_2.

EMSA

HLE cells were grown in 15 cm culture plate until they reached 95% confluency. The plate was then sealed with parafilm and immersed in a water bath at 42.5°C for 1.5 hours [21]. Nuclear extracts from these cells were prepared according to the standard protocol [22]. EMSA was carried out using DIG Gel Shift Kit, 2nd Generation (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The sequences of the 12 probes were listed in the Table S2. In brief, 30 fmol of labeled probes were hybridized with 5 μg nuclear extract for 15 minutes at room temperature. The mixtures were then loaded into a 6% TBE gel, separated by electrophoresis at 4°C and transferred onto a nylon membrane. The membrane was then hybridized with anti-digoxigenin-AP antibody and developed by CSPD solution. For competition study, nuclear extracts were incubated with non-labeled oligonucleotides first before adding labeled probe. For supershift assay, SP1 antibody (SC-59X, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) was added into the nuclear extract and incubated on ice for 30 minutes first before adding labeled probe. The mixtures were then separated by electrophoresis using 4% TBE gel. All EMSAs were repeated twice for reconfirmation of the results.

ChIP

The HLE cells (G allele homozygote) and HepG2 cells (heterozygote) were used in the ChIP assay. The plasmid pCAGGS-SP1 was transfected into both cells by using FuGENE6 Transfection Reagent (Roche). The ChIP assays were carried out using Chromatin Immunoprecipitation Assay Kit (Millipore) according to the manufacturer's protocol. In brief, the cells were treated with formaldehyde to crosslink DNA-protein complexes at 48 hours post-transfection. DNA-protein complexes were then sheared by sonication and immunoprecipitated by rabbit polyclonal anti-SP1 antibody (SC-59X, Santa Cruz Biotechnology). The resulting DNAs were analyzed by PCR (Table S2). In order to determine the binding specificity of SP1 to the SNP rs2596538 allele, the PCR products from HepG2 cells were further subcloned into pCR 2.1 vector and sequenced to assess G to A ratio in both input DNA and immunoprecipitant.

Dual luciferase reporter assay

Three copies of 31 bp DNA fragments equivalent to the EMSA oligonucleotides of SNP rs2596538 were cloned into pGL3-promoter vector (Promega). The plasmids were co-transfected with pCAGGS-SP1 and pRL-TK plasmids (Promega) into HLE cells by FuGENE6 Transfection Reagent (Roche). The pCAGGS-SP1 plasmid provided the expression of transcription factor SP1, and pRL-TK plasmid served as internal control for transfection efficiency [23]. The cells were lysed at 48 hours post-transfection, and relative luciferase activities were measured by Dual Luciferase Assay System (Toyo B-Net).

Western blotting

Cancer cell lysates were prepared by using pre-chilled RIPA buffer, and 25 μg of each lysate was loaded into the gel and separated by SDS-PAGE. Western blotting was performed according to the standard protocol. Rabbit anti-MICA antibody (ab63709, abcam: 1/1000) and rabbit anti-SP1 antibody (17-601, Upstate Biotechnology: 1/500) were used in the experiment.

Statistical analysis

The case-control association was analyzed by Student's *t*-test and Fisher's exact test as appropriate. The association of allele dependent sMICA expression was studied by Kruskal-Wallis test using R statistical environment version 2.8.1. The LD and coefficients (D' and r^2) were calculated by Haploview version 4.2 [24].

Table 1. Association of rs2596542 with the progression from CHC to LC and HCC.

	Case MAF	Control MAF	P*	OR	95% C.I.
LC vs CHC	0.3797	0.3442	0.04842	1.166	1.01–1.35
HCC vs LC	0.4012	0.3797	0.20296	1.094	0.95–1.26

MAF, minor allele frequency; OR, odds ratio for minor allele. C.I., confidence interval. SNP rs2596542 was analyzed in 1,043 chronic hepatitis C (CHC), 586 liver cirrhosis without hepatocellular carcinoma (LC) and 1,394 HCV-induce hepaticellular carcinoma patients (HCC). *calculated by Armitage trend test.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.t001

Results

Analyses of SNP rs2596542 in HCV-infected patients at different disease stages

Since the development of HCC consists of multiple steps, we investigated the role of SNP rs2596542 with disease progression. SNP rs2596542 was genotyped in patients at three different disease categories of CHC (chronic hepatitis C) without liver cirrhosis (LC) or HCC, LC without HCC, and HCC. The statistical analysis indicated that SNP rs2596542 was significantly associated with disease progression from CHC to LC with P-value of 0.048 and odds ratio of 1.17 (Table 1). The risk allele frequency among HCC patients (40.1%) was higher than that among LC patients (38.0%), but the association was not statistically significant (P-value of 0.203 and odds ratio of 1.09). These results suggested the involvement of *MICA* with both liver fibrosis and hepatocellular carcinogenesis.

HCV-HCC risk is not associated with MICA copy number variation

A previous report has indicated the deletion of the entire *MICA* locus in 3.2% of Japanese population [25] and this deletion was shown to be associated with the risk of nasopharyngeal carcinoma (NPC), especially in male [26]. To identify the functional SNP that may affect *MICA* mRNA expression, we analyzed the relation between the *MICA* copy number variation (CNV) and the HCC susceptibility. We quantified this CNV by real-time PCR in 375 HCV-related HCC patients and 350 HCV-negative controls. As shown in Table S3, we found no difference in the copy numbers between HCC cases and controls, indicating that this CNV is unlikely to be causative genetic variation for the risk of HCC.

Direct sequencing of 5′ flanking region of *MICA*

We then focused on the variations in the 5′ flanking region of the *MICA* gene which may be associated with its promoter activity. We had conducted direct DNA sequencing of the 5-kb promoter region which included the marker SNP rs2596542 using genomic DNAs of 50 HCC subjects and identified 11 SNPs showing strong linkage disequilibrium with the marker SNP rs2596542 (D'>0.953 and r^2>0.832) (Fig. S1, Table 2).

Allele specific binding of nuclear protein to genomic region including SNP rs2596538

To investigate whether these genetic variations would affect the binding affinity of some transcription factors, we had conducted the electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) using the nuclear extract of HLE human hepatocellular carcinoma cells. Since MICA is a stress-inducible protein [21], we first treated the cells with heat shock treatment at 42°C for 90 minutes and confirmed significant induction of MICA expression as shown in Fig. 1a. Then we performed EMSA using 24 labeled-oligonucleotides corresponding to each allele of the 12 candidates' SNPs. The results of EMSA demonstrated that an oligonucleotide corresponding to a G allele of SNP rs2596538 exhibited stronger binding affinity to a nuclear protein(s) than that to an A allele (Fig. 1b). We then confirmed the specific binding of nuclear proteins to the G allele by competitor assay using non-labeled oligonucleotides (Fig. 1c). The self (G allele) oligonucleotides inhibited the formation of DNA-protein complex in a dose-dependent manner, but the non-self (A allele) oligonucleotides showed no inhibition effect. Taken together, some nuclear protein(s) in hepatocellular carcinoma cells would interact with a DNA fragment including the G allele of SNP rs2596538.

Table 2. Linkage disequilibrium between 11 candidate SNPs and SNP rs2596542.

SNP ID	Relative position[a]	A1	A1 frequency	D'	r^2
rs2596542	−4815	A	0.36		
rs2428475	−4788	G	0.36	1	1
rs28366144	−4586	T	0.36	1	1
rs2428474	−4387	G	0.39	1	0.88
rs2251731	−4045	A	0.39	1	0.88
rs2844526	−3703	C	0.38	1	0.918
rs2596541	−3572	A	0.38	1	0.918
rs2523453	−3285	G	0.38	1	0.918
rs2544525	−3259	C	0.38	1	0.918
rs2523452	−2870	G	0.34	0.953	0.832
rs2596538	−2778	A	0.34	0.953	0.832
rs2844522	−2710	C	0.34	0.953	0.832

Note: Direct DNA sequence of 5-kb promoter region of MICA from 50 HCV-HCC subjects. D' and r^2 were calculated by comparing the genotypes of these SNPs to the marker SNP rs2596542 by Haploview. A1, minor allele; [a]Relative position to exon 1 of the *MICA* gene.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.t002

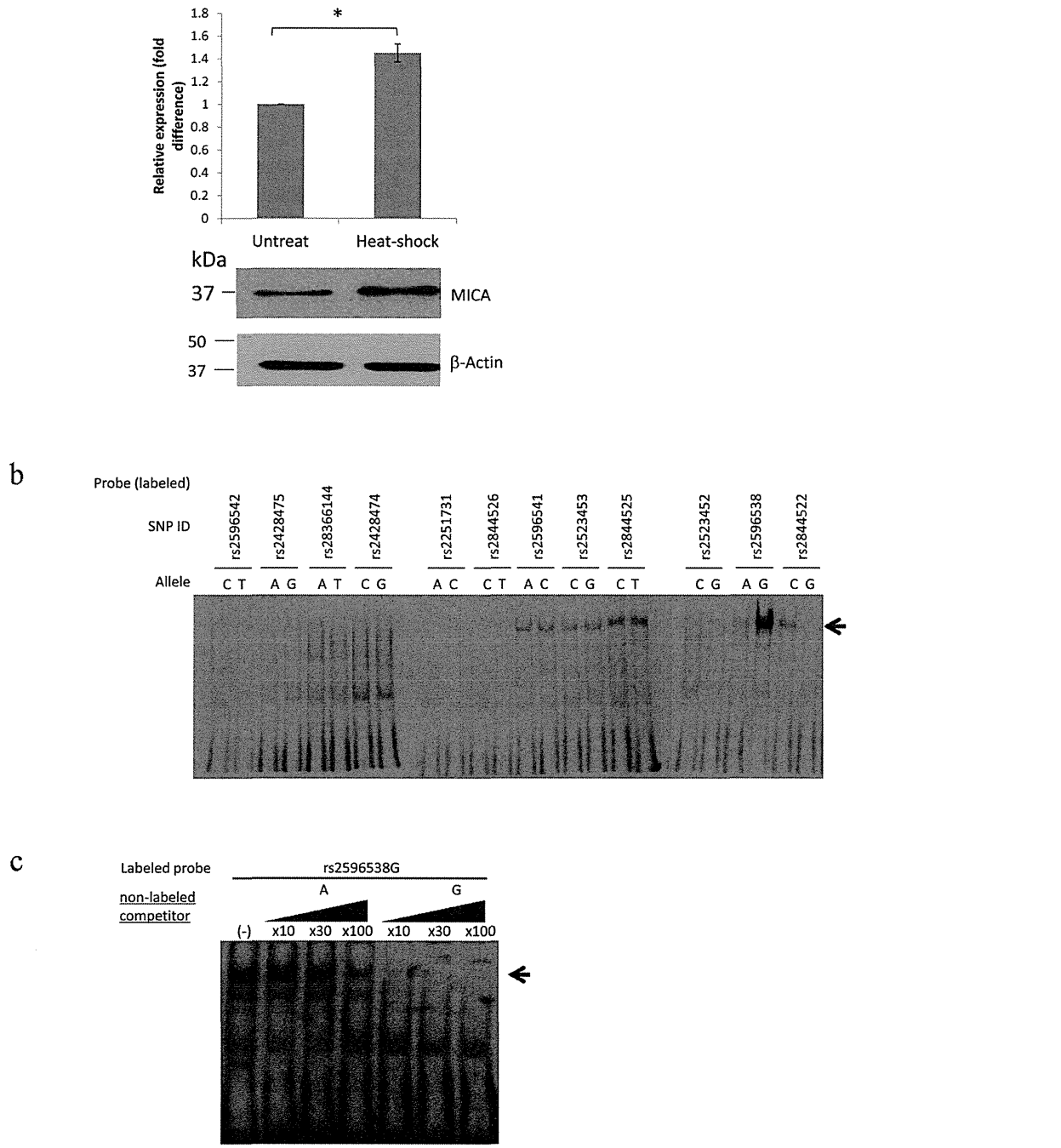

Figure 1. SNP rs2596538 affects the binding affinity of nuclear proteins. (**A**) Real-time quantitative PCR (upper) and Western blotting (lower) of MICA before and after heat shock treatment in HLE cells. *B2M* and β-actin are served as internal and protein loading control. (**B**) EMSA using 31 bp labeled probes flanking each SNP located within the 4.8 kb region upstream of *MICA* transcription start site. A black arrow indicates the shifted band specific to G allele of SNP rs2596538. (**C**) EMSA using the labeled G allele of SNP rs2596538 and nuclear extract from heat treated HLE cells. Non-labeled A or G allele of SNP rs2596538 at different concentrations are used as competitors. Pointed arrow indicates shifted band. *$P<0.05$ by Student's *t*-test.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.g001

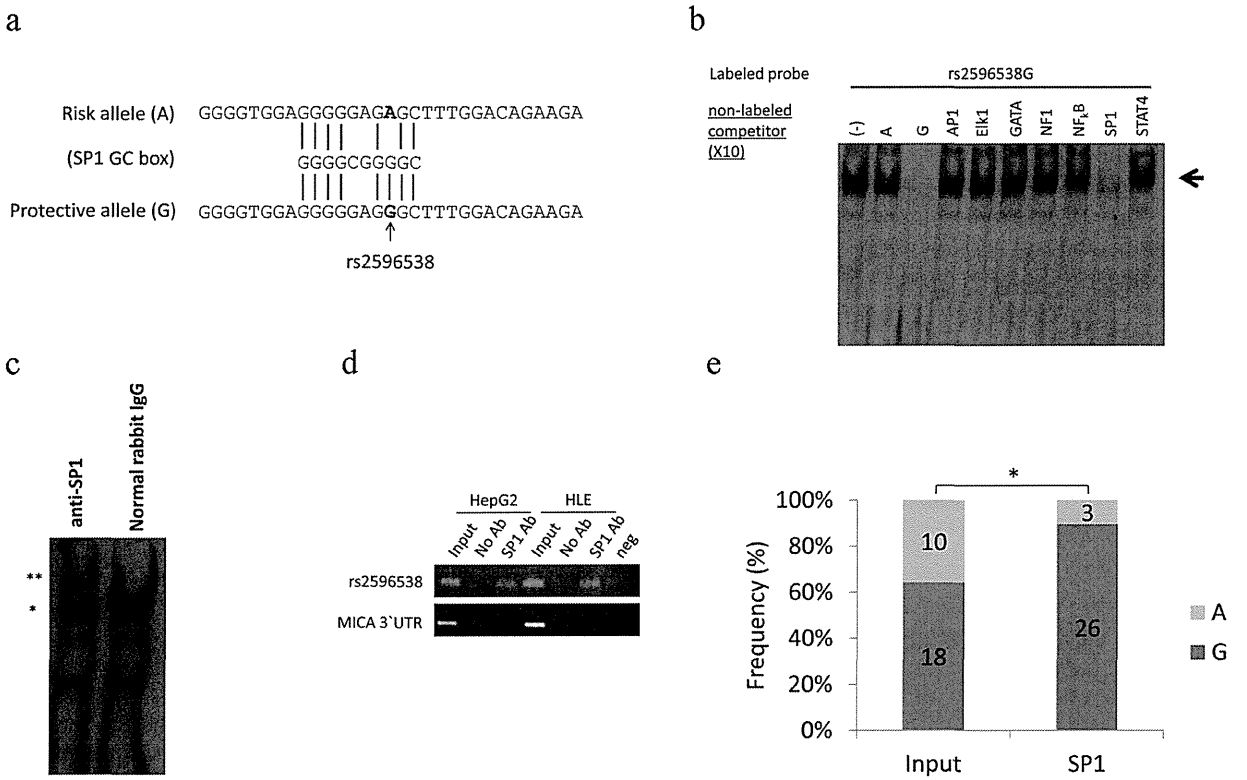

Figure 2. Binding of transcription factor SP1 to G allele of SNP rs2596538. (**A**) Multiple alignment of a GC box and DNA sequence of A or G probe of SNP rs2596538 used in EMSA. (**B**) EMSA using the labeled G allele of SNP rs2596538 and nuclear extract from heat treated HLE cells. Non-labeled consensus oligonucleotides of seven transcription factors are used as competitors. Pointed arrow indicates shifted band. (**C**) EMSA using the labeled G allele of SNP rs2596538 and nuclear extract from heat shock treated HLE cells in the presence of anti-SP1 antibody or normal rabbit IgG. Asterisks on the left side indicate the shifted (*) and super-shifted bands (**). Normal rabbit IgG serves as a negative control. (**D**) ChIP assay using HepG2 and HLE cell lines were ectopically expressed with SP1 protein. DNA-protein complex was immunoprecipitated with anti-SP1 antibody followed by PCR amplification using a primer pair flanking SNP rs2596538. DNAs precipitated without antibody are served as a negative control. PCR primers flanking the 3′ UTR region of *MICA* are served as a negative control. (**E**) Genotype distribution at SNP rs2596538 in PCR fragment amplified from the input genomic DNA and DNA-protein complex immunopurified from HepG2 cells by using anit-SP1 antibody. *$P<0.05$ by Student's *t*-test.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.g002

SNP rs2596538 regulates the binding of SP1

Since *in silico* analysis identified a putative GC box in a protective G allele but not in a risk A allele (Fig. 2a), the transcription factor SP1 might preferentially bind to the G allele. Base on this information, we further performed competitor assay using non-labeled oligonucleotides (Table S2) and found that among seven tested oligonucleotides, only SP1-consensus oligonucleotides could effectively inhibit the binding of the nuclear protein(s) to the labeled G allele (Fig. 2b). In addition, we identified that the addition of anti-SP1 antibody caused a supershift of a band corresponding to the DNA-protein complex while control IgG did not cause the band shift (Fig. 2c). This result clearly indicated that the SP1 protein is very likely to be a component of the DNA-protein complex.

Furthermore, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay to confirm the binding of SP1 to this genomic region *in vivo*. We had used two cell lines with different genetic backgrounds at SNP rs2596538 locus: HLE cells carrying the only G allele, while HepG2 cells harboring both A and G alleles. After the introduction of SP1 expression vector (pCAGGS-SP1) into these cell lines, the cell extracts were subjected to ChIP assay using anti-SP1 antibody (Fig. 2d). Subsequent PCR experiments indicated that SP1 bound to a genomic fragment containing the G allele of SNP rs2596538 *in vivo*, while 3' UTR region of *MICA* (negative control) was not immunoprecipitated with anti-SP1 antibody. To further evaluate the binding ability of SP1 to each allele *in vivo*, we sub-cloned the DNA fragment that amplified from genomic DNA of HepG2 cells before and after immunoprecipitation by anti-SP1 antibody. The subsequent sequencing results showed that 26 out of 29 tested clones contained the G allele, demonstrating the preferential binding of SP1 to the G allele (Fig. 2e).

SP1 over-expression preferentially up-regulates MICA expression at G allele

To further investigate the physiological role of the interaction between SP1 and this genomic region, we performed reporter gene assay. Three copies of 31-bp DNA fragments flanking the candidate functional SNP rs2596538 were subcloned into the multiple cloning sites of the pGL3 promoter vector. The relative luciferase activity of the plasmid including the G allele was significantly higher than that including the A allele (Fig. 3a). Furthermore, over-expression of SP1 in the cells could significantly enhance the luciferase activity of the G-allele vector, while the enhancement of the A-allele vector was relatively modest (Fig. 3a).

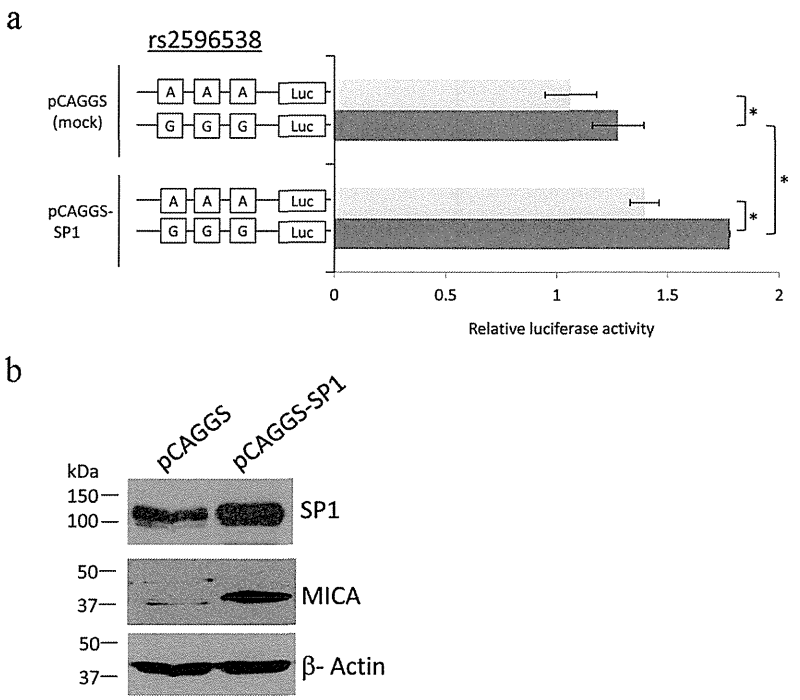

Figure 3. Transcriptional regulation of MICA by SP1 through genomic region including SNP rs2596538. (**A**) Reporter assay using constructs including 3 copies of 31 bp DNA fragment flanking SNP rs2596538. Reporter constructs are transfected into HLE cells with pRL-TK and pCAGGS or pCAGGS-SP1 vector. The value of relative luciferase activity was calculated as the firefly luciferase intensity divided by the renilla luciferase intensity. The data represent the mean ± SD value of 4 independent studies. (*$P<0.05$, Student's *t*-test) (**B**) MICA expression in HLE cells after transfection with pCAGGS or pCAGGS-SP1 vector. β-actin is served as a protein loading control.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.g003

We also evaluated the effect of ectopically expressed SP1 on the MICA expression in HLE cells. Western-blot analysis showed that MICA protein expression was significantly increased after the SP1 over-expression (Fig. 3b). These results provided a strong evidence that the G allele has higher transcriptional potential that can be inducible by SP1.

Association of SNP rs2596538 with HCC risk and sMICA level in HCV-induced HCC patients

To further investigate the role of SNP rs2596538 in human carcinogenesis, we investigated the association of SNP rs2596538 with HCV-induced HCC in 721 HCV-HCC cases and 5,486 HCV-negative controls that had been genotyped using Illumina HumanHap610-Quad Genotyping BeadChip in our previous study [6]. We performed imputation analysis by using haplotype data from 1000 genome database [20] and found that an A allele of SNP rs2596538 was considered to be a risk allele for HCV-related HCC (Table 3, odds ratio = 1.343, $P = 1.82\times10^{-5}$). The functional SNP rs2596538 exhibited a stronger association with the HCC risk than the marker SNP rs2596542 (2.46×10^{-5}). We also analyzed the relationship between the SNP rs2596538 and the sMICA level among 246 HCV-induced HCC patients and found a significant association with the P-value of 0.00616 (Fig. 4). These results were concordant with our functional analyses in which the G allele exhibited a higher affinity to SP1 and revealed a higher transcriptional activity.

Table 3. Association of SNP rs2596542 and SNP rs2596538 with HCV-induced HCC.

SNP ID	Relative position[a]	A1	OR	*P* value
rs2596542	−4815	A	1.339	2.46×10^{-5}
rs2596538	−2778	A	1.343	1.82×10^{-5}

Note: Genotype data of 721 HCV-HCC cases and 5,486 HCV-negative controls were imputed using 1000 genomes as reference. A1, risk allele; OR, odds ratio for the risk allele calculated by considering the protective allele as a reference.
[a]Relative position to exon 1 of the *MICA* gene.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.t003

Discussion

Approximately 160 million people (2.35% of the worldwide population) are estimated to have HCV infection [27]. Since HCV carriers have an increased risk to develop liver cirrhosis and subsequent HCC [28,29], the prediction of cancer risk is especially important for CHC patients. In our previous study, we have identified that SNP rs2596542 located in the upstream of *MICA* gene was significantly associated with the risk of HCC development among CHC patients as well as the serum level of sMICA [6]. In this study, we found that the genetic variant at SNP rs2596538 strongly affected the binding affinity of SP1. Over-expression of SP1 remarkably induced *MICA* expression in cells carrying the G allele that has a higher affinity to the SP1 binding. These findings are concordant with higher serum sMICA level among HCC patients with the G allele at SNP rs2596538. SP1 is a

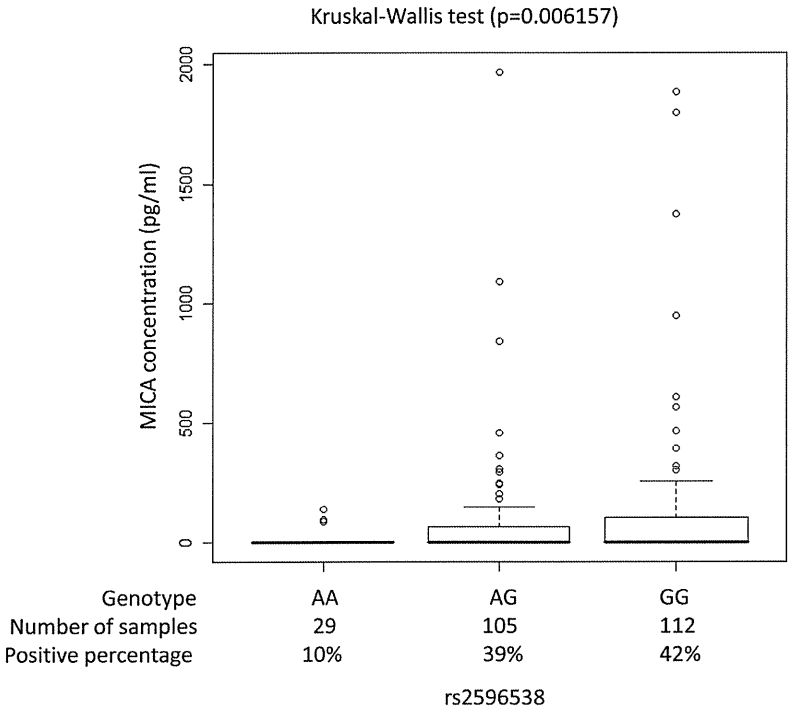

Figure 4. Association between the soluble MICA levels and SNP rs2596538 genotype. The samples were classified into 3 groups according to rs2596538 genotype. The sMICA levels measured by ELISA are indicated in y-axis. The numbers of samples and the proportion of sMICA positive subjects from each group are shown in x-axis. The percentage of the positive sMICA expression in each group are AA = 10%, AG = 39%, and GG = 42%. Statistical significance was determined by Kruskal-Wallis test.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0061279.g004

ubiquitously expressed transcription factor which binds to the GC-rich decanucleotide sequence (GC box) and activates the transcription of various viral and cellular genes [30,31]. Phosphorylation of SP1 was shown to be induced by HCV core protein and exhibited higher binding affinity to the promoter region of its downstream targets [32]. From our previous study, we showed a significant difference of sMICA expression between non-HCV individuals and CHC patients. This indicated that sMICA expression was induced after HCV infection [6]. Hence, we here propose the following hypothesis. After HCV infection, the virus core protein enhances the SP1 phosphorylation in hepatocytes, and the phosphorylated SP1 binds to the DNA segment corresponding to the G allele of SNP rs2596538 and then induces *MICA* expression. The membrane-bound MICA (mMICA) serves as a ligand for NKG2D to activate the immune system and results in the elimination of viral-infected cells by NK cells and CD8+ T cells [8,9]. Eventually, HCV-infected individuals with higher MICA level may cause stronger immune response to the infected cells and hence result in a reduced risk for HCC progression. Moreover, the mMICA is then shed by metalloproteinases that are often over-expressed in cancer tissues and convert mMICA to sMICA. This resulted in a significantly increase of sMICA level in the serum of HCV infected patients.

In contrast to HCV-induced HCC, our group had previously identified that higher sMICA level was associated with poor prognosis in HBV-induced HCC patients [33]. Such an opposite effect of *MICA* would be attributable to the difference in downstream pathway between HBV and HCV. HBV virus encodes hepatitis B virus X protein (HBx) that is pathogenic and promotes tumor formation. It had been reported that HBx protein was associated with an elevated expression of MT1-MMP, MMP2, and MMP3 [34,35]. HBx was also shown to transactivate MMP9 through ERKs and PI-3K-AKT/PKB pathway and suppress TIMP1 and TIMP3 activities [36,37]. The activation of metalloproteinases would induce the shedding of mMICA into sMICA, which promotes the tumor formation through the inhibitory effect of sMICA on NK cells. This can explain why high sMICA expression is a marker of poor prognosis for HBV-induced HCC. On the other hand, HCV infection was not associated with metalloproteinases activation, although the expression of sMICA was shown to be proportional to mMICA level. Therefore individuals with high MICA expression are likely to activate natural killer cells and CD8+ T cells to eliminate virus infected cells.

SP1 was previously identified as a transcriptional regulator of both *MICA* and *MICB* [7,9,38]. A polymorphism in the *MICB* promoter region was found to be associated with *MICB* transcription level [7]. To our knowledge, this is the first report showing that *MICA* transcription is directly influenced by functional variant. Moreover, this functional SNP is significantly associated with HCV-induced HCC. Our findings provide an insight that *MICA* genetic variation is a promising prognostic biomarker for CHC patients.

Supporting Information

Figure S1 Pairwise LD map between marker SNP and 11 candidates SNP. Black color boxes represent regions of high pairwise r^2 value. The LD was determined by direct DNA

sequencing of *MICA* promoter region from 50 randomly selected HCV-HCC patients.
(TIF)

Table S1 Characteristics of samples and methods used in this study.
(DOCX)

Table S2 The sequences of each oligo used in the EMSA and ChIP assay.
(DOCX)

Table S3 Copy number variation between HCV-HCC and control samples.
(DOCX)

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: PHYL YN KM. Performed the experiments: PHYL YU VK. Analyzed the data: PHYL YU CT. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: KK NK DM KC MK. Wrote the paper: PHYL KM.

References

1. Umemura T, Ichijo T, Yoshizawa K, Tanaka E, Kiyosawa K (2009) Epidemiology of hepatocellular carcinoma in Japan. J Gastroenterol 44 Suppl 19: 102–107.
2. Fassio E (2010) Hepatitis C and hepatocellular carcinoma. Ann Hepatol 9 Suppl: 119–122.
3. Mbarek H, Ochi H, Urabe Y, Kumar V, Kubo M, et al. (2011) A genome-wide association study of chronic hepatitis B identified novel risk locus in a Japanese population. Hum Mol Genet 20: 3884–3892.
4. Kamatani Y, Wattanapokayakit S, Ochi H, Kawaguchi T, Takahashi A, et al. (2009) A genome-wide association study identifies variants in the HLA-DP locus associated with chronic hepatitis B in Asians. Nat Genet 41: 591–595.
5. Zhang H, Zhai Y, Hu Z, Wu C, Qian J, et al. (2010) Genome-wide association study identifies 1p36.22 as a new susceptibility locus for hepatocellular carcinoma in chronic hepatitis B virus carriers. Nat Genet 42: 755–758.
6. Kumar V, Kato N, Urabe Y, Takahashi A, Muroyama R, et al. (2011) Genome-wide association study identifies a susceptibility locus for HCV-induced hepatocellular carcinoma. Nat Genet 43: 455–458.
7. Rodríguez-Rodero S, González S, Rodrigo L, Fernández-Morera JL, Martínez-Borra J, et al. (2007) Transcriptional regulation of MICA and MICB: a novel polymorphism in MICB promoter alters transcriptional regulation by Sp1. Eur J Immunol 37: 1938–1953.
8. Bauer S, Groh V, Wu J, Steinle A, Phillips JH, et al. (1999) Activation of NK cells and T cells by NKG2D, a receptor for stress-inducible MICA. Science 285: 727–729.
9. Zhang C, Wang Y, Zhou Z, Zhang J, Tian Z (2009) Sodium butyrate upregulates expression of NKG2D ligand MICA/B in HeLa and HepG2 cell lines and increases their susceptibility to NK lysis. Cancer Immunol Immunother 58: 1275–1285.
10. Sun D, Wang X, Zhang H, Deng L, Zhang Y (2011) MMP9 mediates MICA shedding in human osteosarcomas. Cell Biol Int 35: 569–574.
11. Waldhauer I, Goehlsdorf D, Gieseke F, Weinschenk T, Wittenbrink M, et al. (2008) Tumor-associated MICA is shed by ADAM proteases. Cancer Res 68: 6368–6376.
12. Jinushi M, Takehara T, Tatsumi T, Kanto T, Groh V, et al. (2003) Expression and role of MICA and MICB in human hepatocellular carcinomas and their regulation by retinoic acid. Int J Cancer 104: 354–361.
13. Kohga K, Takehara T, Tatsumi T, Ohkawa K, Miyagi T, et al. (2008) Serum levels of soluble major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I-related chain A in patients with chronic liver diseases and changes during transcatheter arterial embolization for hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer Sci 99: 1643–1649.
14. Ota M, Katsuyama Y, Mizuki N, Ando H, Furihata K, et al. (1997) Trinucleotide repeat polymorphism within exon 5 of the MICA gene (MHC class I chain-related gene A): allele frequency data in the nine population groups Japanese, Northern Han, Hui, Uygur, Kazakhstan, Iranian, Saudi Arabian, Greek and Italian. Tissue Antigens 49: 448–454.
15. Nakamura Y (2007) The BioBank Japan Project. Clin Adv Hematol Oncol 5: 696–697.
16. Tanikawa C, Urabe Y, Matsuo K, Kubo M, Takahashi A, et al. (2012) A genome-wide association study identifies two susceptibility loci for duodenal ulcer in the Japanese population. Nat Genet 44: 430–434, S431–432.
17. Miki D, Ochi H, Hayes CN, Abe H, Yoshima T, et al. (2011) Variation in the DEPDC5 locus is associated with progression to hepatocellular carcinoma in chronic hepatitis C virus carriers. Nat Genet 43: 797–800.
18. Urabe Y, Ochi H, Kato N, Kumar V, Takahashi A, et al. (2013) A genome-wide association study of HCV induced liver cirrhosis in the Japanese population identifies novel susceptibility loci at MHC region. J Hepatol.
19. Scott LJ, Mohlke KL, Bonnycastle LL, Willer CJ, Li Y, et al. (2007) A genome-wide association study of type 2 diabetes in Finns detects multiple susceptibility variants. Science 316: 1341–1345.
20. Consortium GP (2010) A map of human genome variation from population-scale sequencing. Nature 467: 1061–1073.
21. Venkataraman GM, Suciu D, Groh V, Boss JM, Spies T (2007) Promoter region architecture and transcriptional regulation of the genes for the MHC class I-related chain A and B ligands of NKG2D. J Immunol 178: 961–969.
22. Andrews NC, Faller DV (1991) A rapid micropreparation technique for extraction of DNA-binding proteins from limiting numbers of mammalian cells. Nucleic Acids Res 19: 2499.
23. Hata J, Matsuda K, Ninomiya T, Yonemoto K, Matsushita T, et al. (2007) Functional SNP in an Sp1-binding site of AGTRL1 gene is associated with susceptibility to brain infarction. Hum Mol Genet 16: 630–639.
24. Barrett JC (2009) Haploview: Visualization and analysis of SNP genotype data. Cold Spring Harb Protoc 2009: pdb.ip71.
25. Komatsu-Wakui M, Tokunaga K, Ishikawa Y, Leelayuwat C, Kashiwase K, et al. (2001) Wide distribution of the MICA-MICB null haplotype in East Asians. Tissue Antigens 57: 1–8.
26. Tse KP, Su WH, Yang ML, Cheng HY, Tsang NM, et al. (2011) A gender-specific association of CNV at 6p21.3 with NPC susceptibility. Hum Mol Genet 20: 2889–2896.
27. Negro F, Alberti A (2011) The global health burden of hepatitis C virus infection. Liver Int 31 Suppl 2: 1–3.
28. Cabibbo G, Craxì A (2010) Epidemiology, risk factors and surveillance of hepatocellular carcinoma. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci 14: 352–355.
29. McGlynn KA, London WT (2011) The global epidemiology of hepatocellular carcinoma: present and future. Clin Liver Dis 15: 223–243.
30. Kadonaga JT, Tjian R (1986) Affinity purification of sequence-specific DNA binding proteins. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 83: 5889–5893.
31. Suske G (1999) The Sp-family of transcription factors. Gene 238: 291–300.
32. Lee S, Park U, Lee YI (2001) Hepatitis C virus core protein transactivates insulin-like growth factor II gene transcription through acting concurrently on Egr1 and Sp1 sites. Virology 283: 167–177.
33. Kumar V, Yi Lo PH, Sawai H, Kato N, Takahashi A, et al. (2012) Soluble MICA and a MICA Variation as Possible Prognostic Biomarkers for HBV-Induced Hepatocellular Carcinoma. PLoS One 7: e44743.
34. Ou DP, Tao YM, Tang FQ, Yang LY (2007) The hepatitis B virus X protein promotes hepatocellular carcinoma metastasis by upregulation of matrix metalloproteinases. Int J Cancer 120: 1208–1214.
35. Yu FL, Liu HJ, Lee JW, Liao MH, Shih WL (2005) Hepatitis B virus X protein promotes cell migration by inducing matrix metalloproteinase-3. J Hepatol 42: 520–527.
36. Chung TW, Lee YC, Kim CH (2004) Hepatitis B viral HBx induces matrix metalloproteinase-9 gene expression through activation of ERK and PI-3K/AKT pathways: involvement of invasive potential. FASEB J 18: 1123–1125.
37. Kim JR, Kim CH (2004) Association of a high activity of matrix metalloproteinase-9 to low levels of tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinase-1 and -3 in human hepatitis B-viral hepatoma cells. Int J Biochem Cell Biol 36: 2293–2306.
38. Andresen L, Jensen H, Pedersen MT, Hansen KA, Skov S (2007) Molecular regulation of MHC class I chain-related protein A expression after HDAC-inhibitor treatment of Jurkat T cells. J Immunol 179: 8235–8242.

Research Article

EASL EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF THE LIVER | JOURNAL OF HEPATOLOGY

The transcription factor SALL4 regulates stemness of EpCAM-positive hepatocellular carcinoma

Sha Sha Zeng[1], Taro Yamashita[1,2,*], Mitsumasa Kondo[1], Kouki Nio[1], Takehiro Hayashi[1], Yasumasa Hara[1], Yoshimoto Nomura[1], Mariko Yoshida[1], Tomoyuki Hayashi[1], Naoki Oishi[1], Hiroko Ikeda[3], Masao Honda[1], Shuichi Kaneko[1]

[1]*Department of Gastroenterology, Kanazawa University Hospital, Kanazawa, Ishikawa, Japan;* [2]*Department of General Medicine, Kanazawa University Hospital, Kanazawa, Ishikawa, Japan;* [3]*Department of Pathology, Kanazawa University Hospital, Kanazawa, Ishikawa, Japan*

Background & Aims: Recent evidence suggests that hepatocellular carcinoma can be classified into certain molecular subtypes with distinct prognoses based on the stem/maturational status of the tumor. We investigated the transcription program deregulated in hepatocellular carcinomas with stem cell features.

Methods: Gene and protein expression profiles were obtained from 238 (analyzed by microarray), 144 (analyzed by immunohistochemistry), and 61 (analyzed by qRT-PCR) hepatocellular carcinoma cases. Activation/suppression of an identified transcription factor was used to evaluate its role in cell lines. The relationship of the transcription factor and prognosis was statistically examined.

Results: The transcription factor SALL4, known to regulate stemness in embryonic and hematopoietic stem cells, was found to be activated in a hepatocellular carcinoma subtype with stem cell features. SALL4-positive hepatocellular carcinoma patients were associated with high values of serum alpha fetoprotein, high frequency of hepatitis B virus infection, and poor prognosis after surgery compared with SALL4-negative patients. Activation of SALL4 enhanced spheroid formation and invasion capacities, key characteristics of cancer stem cells, and up-regulated the hepatic stem cell markers *KRT19*, *EPCAM*, and *CD44* in cell lines. Knockdown of SALL4 resulted in the down-regulation of these stem cell markers, together with attenuation of the invasion capacity. The SALL4 expression status was associated with histone deacetylase activity in cell lines, and the histone deacetylase inhibitor successfully suppressed proliferation of SALL4-positive hepatocellular carcinoma cells.

Conclusions: SALL4 is a valuable biomarker and therapeutic target for the diagnosis and treatment of hepatocellular carcinoma with stem cell features.

Keywords: Cancer stem cell; Hepatocellular carcinoma; Gene expression profile; Chemosensitivity.

Received 15 March 2013; received in revised form 27 August 2013; accepted 28 August 2013; available online 6 September 2013

* Corresponding author. Address: Department of General Medicine/Gastroenterology, Kanazawa University Hospital, 13-1 Takara-Machi, Kanazawa, Ishikawa 920-8641, Japan. Tel.: +81 76 265 2042; fax: +81 76 234 4281.

E-mail address: taroy@m-kanazawa.jp (T. Yamashita).

Abbreviations: CSC, cancer stem cell; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; EpCAM, epithelial cell adhesion molecule; AFP, alpha fetoprotein; HpSC-HCC, hepatic stem cell-like HCC; MH-HCC, mature hepatocyte-like HCC; SALL4, Sal-like 4 (Drosophila); qRT-PCR, quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction; HDAC, histone deacetylase; SAHA, suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid; SBHA, suberic bis-hydroxamic acid; NuRD, nucleosome remodeling and deacetylase.

Introduction

Cancer is a heterogeneous disease in terms of morphology and clinical behavior. This heterogeneity has traditionally been explained by the clonal evolution of cancer cells and the accumulation of serial stochastic genetic/epigenetic changes [1]. The alteration of the microenvironment by tumor stromal cells is also considered to contribute to the development of the heterogeneous nature of the tumor through the activation of various signaling pathways in cancer cells, including epithelial mesenchymal transition programs [2].

Recent evidence suggests that a subset of tumor cells with stem cell features, known as cancer stem cells (CSCs), are capable of self-renewal and can give rise to relatively differentiated cells, thereby forming heterogeneous tumor cell populations [3]. CSCs were also found to generate tumors more efficiently in immunodeficient mice than non-cancer stem cells in various solid tumors as well as hematological malignancies [4]. CSCs are also more metastatic and chemo/radiation-resistant than non-CSCs and are therefore considered to be a pivotal target for tumor eradication [5,6].

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is a leading cause of cancer death worldwide [7]. Recently, we proposed a novel HCC classification system based on the expression status of the hepatic stem/progenitor markers epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EpCAM) and alpha fetoprotein (AFP) [8]. EpCAM-positive ($^+$) AFP$^+$ HCC (hepatic stem cell-like HCC; HpSC-HCC) is characterized by an onset of disease at younger ages, activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling, a high frequency of portal vein invasion and poor

Cancer

prognosis after radical resection, compared with EpCAM$^-$ AFP$^-$ HCC (mature hepatocyte-like HCC; MH-HCC) [9]. *EPCAM* is a target gene of Wnt/β-catenin signaling, and EpCAM$^+$ HCC cells isolated from primary HCC and cell lines show CSC features including tumorigenicity, invasiveness, and resistance to fluorouracil [9,10]. Thus, EpCAM appears to be a potentially useful marker for the isolation of liver CSCs in HpSC-HCC. However, key transcriptional programs responsible for the maintenance of EpCAM$^+$ CSCs are still unclear.

In this study, we aimed to clarify the transcriptional programs deregulated in HpSC-HCC using a gene expression profiling approach. We found that the *SALL4* gene encoding Sal-like 4 (*Drosophila*) (SALL4), a zinc finger transcriptional activator and vertebrate orthologue of the *Drosophila* gene spalt (*sal*) [11], was up-regulated in HpSC-HCC. In adults, *SALL4* is known to be expressed in hematopoietic stem cells and their malignancies, but its role in HCC has not yet been fully elucidated [12–14]. We therefore investigated the role of SALL4 in the regulation and maintenance of EpCAM$^+$ HCC.

Materials and methods

Clinical HCC specimens

A total of 144 HCC tissues and adjacent non-cancerous liver tissues were obtained from patients who underwent hepatectomy for HCC treatment from 2002 to 2010 at Kanazawa University Hospital, Kanazawa, Japan. These samples were formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded, and used for immunohistochemistry (IHC). A further 61 HCC samples were obtained from patients who underwent hepatectomy from 2008 to 2011; these were freshly snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and used for RNA analysis. Of these 61 HCCs, 8 and 36 cases were defined as HpSC-HCC and MH-HCC, respectively, according to previously described criteria [8].

27 HCC cases were included in both the IHC cohort (n = 144) and quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) cohort (n = 61), and SALL4 gene and protein expression were compared between these cases. An additional fresh HpSC-HCC sample was obtained from a surgically resected specimen and immediately used for preparation of a single-cell suspension. All experimental and tissue acquisition procedures were approved by the Ethics Committee and the Institutional Review Board of Kanazawa University Hospital. All patients provided written informed consent.

Microarray analysis

Detailed information on microarray analysis is available in the Supplementary Materials and methods.

Cell culture and reagents

Human liver cancer cell lines HuH1, HuH7, HLE, and HLF were obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources (JCRB), and Hep3B and SK-Hep-1 were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC). Single-cell suspensions of primary HCC tissue were prepared as described previously [15]. Detailed information is available in the Supplementary Materials and methods. The histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor suberic bis-hydroxamic acid (SBHA) and suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA) were obtained from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, MI). Plasmid constructs pCMV6-SALL4 (encoding *SALL4A*), pCMV6-SALL4-GFP, and 29mer shRNA constructs against human SALL4 (No. 7412) were obtained from OriGene Technologies, Inc. (Rockville, MD). These constructs were transfected using Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Western blotting

Whole cell lysates were prepared using RIPA lysis buffer. Nuclear and cytoplasmic proteins were extracted using NE-PER Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Extraction Reagents (Pierce Biotechnology Inc., Rockford, IL). Mouse monoclonal antibody to human Sall4 clone 6E3 (Abnova, Walnut, CA), rabbit polyclonal antibodies to human Lamin B1 (Cell Signaling Technology Inc., Danvers, MA), and mouse monoclonal anti-β-actin antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) were used. Immune complexes were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence (Amersham Biosciences Corp., Piscataway, NJ) as described previously [15,16].

Quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR)

Detailed information on qRT-PCR is available in the Supplementary Materials and methods.

IHC and immunofluorescence (IF) analyses

IHC was performed using an Envision+ kit (Dako, Carpinteria, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Anti-SALL4 monoclonal antibody 6E3 (Abnova, Walnut, CA), anti-EpCAM monoclonal antibody VU-1D9 (Oncogene Research Products, San Diego, CA), and anti-CK19 monoclonal antibody RCK108 (Dako Japan, Tokyo, Japan) were used for detecting SALL4, EpCAM, and CK19, respectively. Anti-Sall4 rabbit polyclonal antibodies (ab29112) (Abnova) and vector red (Vector Laboratories Inc., Burlingame, CA) were used for double color IHC analysis. Samples with >5% positive staining in a given area were considered to be positive for a particular antibody. For IF analyses, Alexa 488 fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG) (Life Technologies) was used as a secondary antibody.

Cell proliferation, spheroid formation, invasion, and HDAC activity assay

Detailed information on this topic is available in the Supplementary Materials and methods.

Statistical analyses

Student's *t* tests were performed with GraphPad Prism software 5.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA) to compare various test groups assayed by cell proliferation assays and qRT-PCR analysis. Spearman's correlation analysis and Kaplan-Meier survival analysis were also performed with GraphPad Prism software 5.0 (GraphPad Software).

Results

Activation of SALL4 in HpSC-HCC

To elucidate the transcriptional programs deregulated in HpSC-HCC, we performed class-comparison analyses and identified 793 genes showing significant differences in differential expression between HpSC-HCC (n = 60) and MH-HCC (n = 96) (p <0.001), as previously described [9]. Of them, 455 genes were specifically up-regulated in HpSC-HCC, and we performed transcription factor analysis using this gene set to identify their transcriptional regulators by MetaCore software. We identified four transcription factor genes, *SALL4*, *NFYA*, *TP53*, and *SP1*, that were potentially activated in HpSC-HCC (Fig. 1A). Involvement of *TP53* and *SP1* in the stemness of HCC has previously been described [17,18], but the roles of *SALL4* and *NFYA* were unclear.

We investigated the interaction networks affected by *SALL4* and *NFYA* using the MetaCore dataset. We showed that *SALL4* might be a regulator of Akt signaling (*SP1*), Wnt signaling (*TCF7L2*), and epigenetic modification (*JARID2*, *DMRT1*, *DNMT3B*) [19], and could potentially regulate two other transcriptional regulators, *SP1* and *NFYA*, through Akt and Myb signaling pathways (Fig. 1B). As a recent study indicated that *SALL4* is a direct target of the Wnt signaling pathway [20], which is dominantly activated in HpSC-HCC [9], we focused on the expression of *SALL4* in HpSC-HCC, and confirmed its up-regulation in HpSC-HCC compared

A

Transcription factors	*p* value	z-score
SALL4	0.0005708	3.958
NFYA	0.002483	3.267
TP53	3.923E-05	4.25
SP1	2.917E-11	6.942

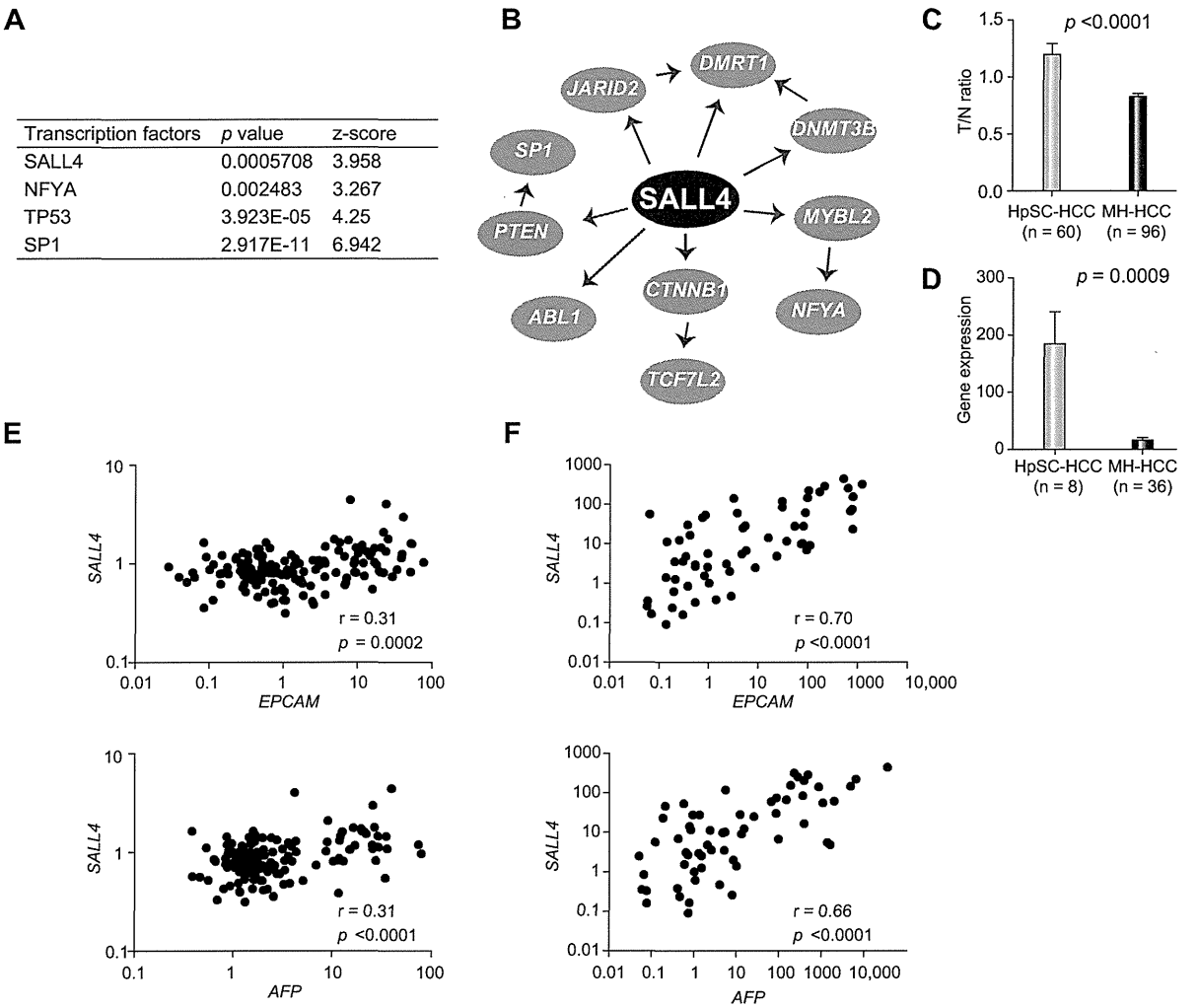

Fig. 1. Transcription factors potentially activated in HpSC-HCC. (A) Transcription factor analysis. Transcription factors regulating genes up-regulated in HpSC-HCC are listed with their *p* values and z-scores as calculated by MetaCore software. (B) Interaction network analysis. Seven genes (*ABL1*, *DMRT1*, *DNMT3B*, *JARID2*, *NFYA*, *SP1*, and *TCF7L2*, indicated in orange) shown to be up-regulated in HpSC-HCC were identified as potential target genes regulated by *SALL4* (indicated in red). (C) *SALL4* gene expression evaluated by microarray analysis. Tumor/non-tumor (T/N) ratios of microarray data in HpSC-HCC (n = 60) and MH-HCC (n = 96). (D) *SALL4* gene expression evaluated by qRT-PCR. Gene expression of *SALL4* in HpSC-HCC (n = 8) and MH-HCC (n = 36) samples. (E) Scatter plot analysis. Gene expression levels of *EPCAM* (upper panel) and *AFP* (lower panel) were positively correlated with those of *SALL4* in microarray data (n = 238, T/N ratios), as shown by Spearman's correlation coefficients. (F) Scatter plot analysis. Gene expression levels of *EPCAM* (upper panel) and *AFP* (lower panel) were positively correlated with those of *SALL4* in qRT-PCR data (n = 61), as shown by Spearman's correlation coefficients. (This figure appears in colour on the web.)

with MH-HCC as evaluated by microarray data (Fig. 1C). We validated this using an independent HCC cohort evaluated by qRT-PCR (Fig. 1D). We further examined the expression of *SALL4*, *EPCAM*, and *AFP* using microarray data of 238 HCC cases (Fig. 1E) and qRT-PCR data of 61 HCC cases (Fig. 1F). For the tumor/non-tumor ratios, we identified a weak positive correlation between *SALL4* and *EPCAM* ($r = 0.31$, $p < 0.0001$) and between *SALL4* and *AFP* ($r = 0.31$, $p = 0.0003$) in the microarray cohort. We further evaluated expression of these genes in HCC tissues by qRT-PCR, and we validated the strong positive correlation between *SALL4* and *EPCAM* ($r = 0.70$, $p < 0.0001$) and between *SALL4* and AFP ($r = 0.66$, $p < 0.0001$) in the independent cohort.

Next we performed IHC analysis of 144 HCC cases surgically resected at Kanazawa University Hospital. We first confirmed the nuclear accumulation of SALL4 stained by an anti-human SALL4 antibody (Fig. 2A). We further confirmed the concordance of SALL4 protein expression evaluated by IHC, and *SALL4* gene expression evaluated by qRT-PCR using the same samples (Fig. 2B). We detected the nuclear expression of SALL4 in 43 of 144 HCC cases (Table 1). After evaluating the clinicopathological characteristics of SALL4-positive and -negative HCC cases, we identified that SALL4-positive HCCs were associated with a significantly high frequency of hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection and significantly high serum AFP values. We further identified that

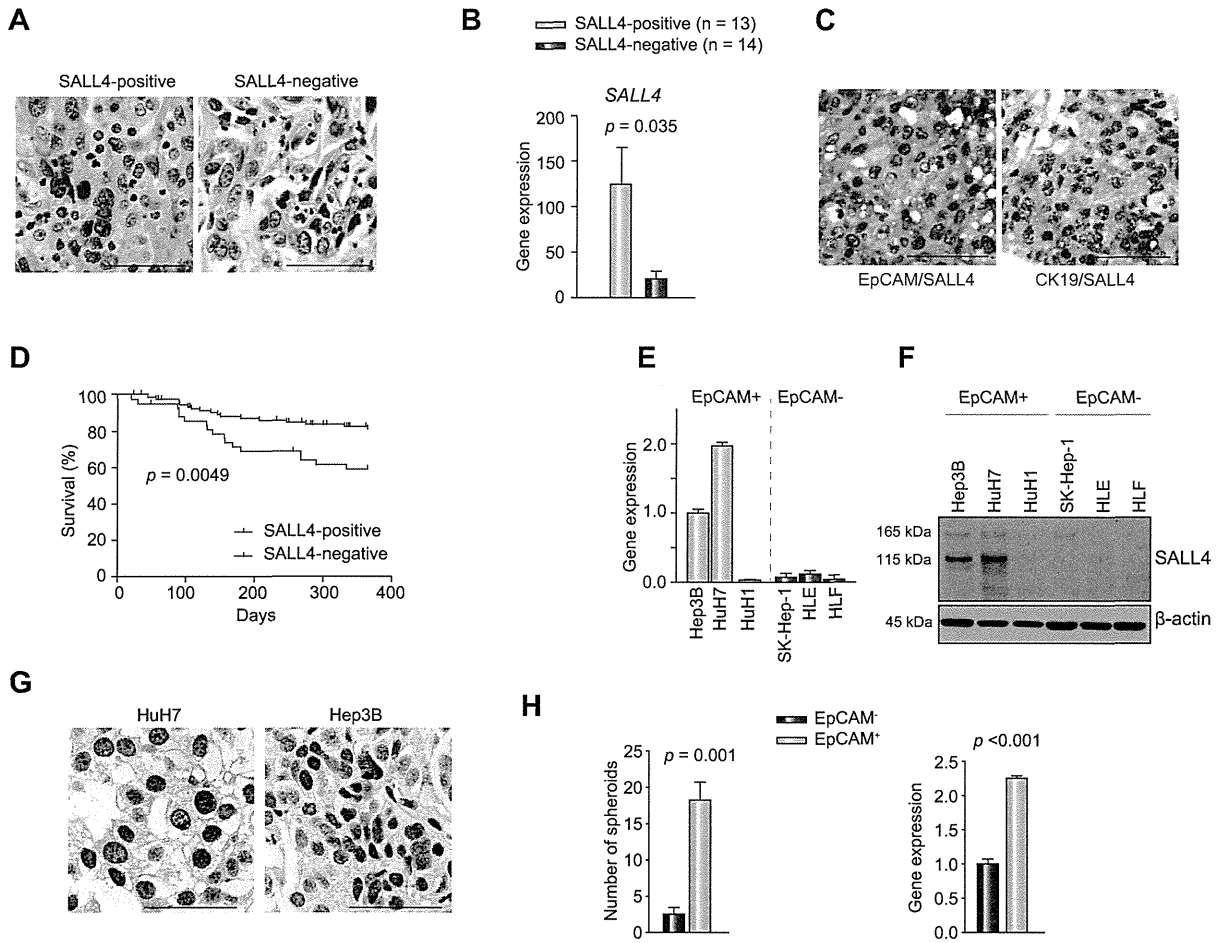

Fig. 2. SALL4 expression in human primary HCCs and cell lines. (A) Representative images of SALL4-positive and -negative HCC immunostaining (scale bar, 100 μm). (B) Gene expression of *SALL4* in SALL4-positive (n = 13) and -negative HCCs (n = 14) as shown by IHC (mean ± SD). (C) Double color IHC analysis of HCC stained with anti-SALL4 and anti-EpCAM or anti-CK19 antibodies (scale bar, 100 μm). (D) Kaplan-Meier survival analysis with Log-rank. Recurrence-free survival of SALL4-positive (n = 43) and -negative (n = 101) HCCs was analyzed. (E) *SALL4* expression in EpCAM$^+$ (Hep3B, HuH7, and HuH1) and EpCAM$^-$ (SK-Hep-1, HLE, and HLF) HCC cell lines evaluated by qRT-PCR. (F) SALL4 expression in EpCAM$^+$ and EpCAM$^-$ HCC cell lines evaluated by Western blotting. (G) IHC analysis of SALL4 expression in subcutaneous tumors obtained from EpCAM$^+$ (HuH7 and Hep3B) HCC cell lines xenografted in NOD/SCID mice. (H) Spheroid formation capacity of sorted EpCAM$^+$ and EpCAM$^-$ cells obtained from a primary HCC. Number of spheroids obtained from 2000 sorted cells is indicated (n = 3, mean ± SD). Gene expression of *SALL4* in sorted EpCAM$^+$ and EpCAM$^-$ cells obtained from a primary HCC (n = 3, mean ± SD). (This figure appears in colour on the web.)

SALL4-positive HCCs were associated with expression of the hepatic stem cell markers EpCAM and CK19. Co-expression of SALL4, EpCAM, and CK19 was confirmed by double color IHC analysis (Fig. 2C). Evaluation of the survival outcome of these surgically resected HCC cases by Kaplan-Meier survival analysis indicated that SALL4-positive HCCs were associated with significantly lower recurrence-free survival outcomes within one year compared with SALL4-negative HCCs ($p = 0.0049$) (Fig. 2D).

Because SALL4 expression was positively correlated with EpCAM and AFP expression in primary HCC cases, we evaluated the expression of SALL4 in EpCAM$^+$ AFP$^+$ and EpCAM$^-$ AFP$^-$ HCC cell lines. Consistent with the primary HCC data, two of three EpCAM$^+$ AFP$^+$ HCC cell lines (Hep3B and HuH7) abundantly expressed SALL4, as shown by qRT-PCR (Fig. 2E) and Western blotting (Fig. 2F). We identified the expression of two isoforms of SALL4 proteins with molecular weights of 165 kDa (SALL4A) and 115 kDa (SALL4B), and SALL4B was found to be the dominant endogenous isoform in HCC cell lines. All EpCAM$^-$ AFP$^-$ HCC cell lines (SK-Hep-1, HLE, and HLF) and one EpCAM$^+$ AFP$^+$ cell line (HuH1) did not express SALL4. Nuclear accumulation of SALL4 in Hep3B and HuH7 cells was confirmed by IHC using subcutaneous tumors developed in xenotransplanted NOD/SCID mice (Fig. 2G). We further evaluated the expression of *EPCAM* and *SALL4* using single cell suspensions derived from a surgically resected primary HCC. EpCAM$^+$ and EpCAM$^-$ cells were separated by magnetic beads, and we revealed a strong spheroid formation capacity of sorted EpCAM$^+$ cells compared with EpCAM$^-$ cells (Fig. 2H, left panel). Interestingly, when comparing the expression of *SALL4* in these sorted cells, we identified a high expression of *SALL4* in sorted EpCAM$^+$ cells compared with EpCAM$^-$ cells (Fig. 2H, right panel), indicating that SALL4 is activated in EpCAM$^+$ liver CSCs.

Table 1. Clinicopathological characteristics of SALL4-positive and -negative HCC cases used for IHC analyses.

Parameters	SALL4-positive (n = 43)	SALL4-negative (n = 101)	*p* value*
Age (yr, mean ± SE)	60.8 ± 1.8	64.6 ± 1.0	0.13
Sex (male/female)	27/16	70/18	0.06
Etiology (HBV/HCV/B + C/other)	21/14/0/8	20/63/3/15	0.0014
Liver cirrhosis (yes/no)	21/22	61/40	0.27
AFP (ng/ml, mean ± SE)	13,701 ± 9292	175.5 ± 55.0	<0.0001
Histological grade**			
I-II	3	18	
II-III	33	68	
III-IV	7	15	0.24
Tumor size (<3 cm/>3 cm)	17/26	57/44	0.071
EpCAM (positive/negative)	27/16	29/72	0.0002
CK19 (positive/negative)	12/31	12/89	0.027

*Mann-Whitney U-test or χ^2 test.
**Edmondson-Steiner.

SALL4 regulates stemness of HpSC-HCC

To explore the role of SALL4 in HpSC-HCC, we evaluated the effect of its overexpression in HuH1 cells which showed little expression of SALL4 irrespective of EpCAM$^+$ and AFP$^+$ HpSC-HCC phenotype. We transfected plasmid constructs encoding SALL4 (pCMV6-SALL4) or control (pCMV7), and we similarly identified the expression of two isoforms by using this construct (Fig. 3A). Evaluation of the subcellular localization of GFP-tagged SALL4 (pCMV6-SALL4-GFP) showed that it could be detected in both the cytoplasm and nucleus (Fig. 3B). We observed strong up-regulation of the hepatic stem cell marker *KRT19*, modest up-regulation of *EPCAM* and *CD44*, and down-regulation of the mature hepatocyte marker *ALB* in HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV6-SALL4 compared with the control (Fig. 3C). Up-regulation of CK19 by SALL4 overexpression was also confirmed at the protein level by IF analysis (Fig. 3D). Phenotypically, SALL4 overexpression in HuH1 cells resulted in the significant activation of spheroid formation and invasion capacities with activation of *SNAI1*, which induces epithelial-mesenchymal transition, compared with the control (Fig. 3E and F, Supplementary Fig. 1A).

We further investigated the effect of SALL4 knockdown in HuH7 cells, which intrinsically expressed high levels of SALL4. Expression of *SALL4* was decreased to 50% in HuH7 cells transfected with SALL4 sh-RNA compared with the control when evaluated by qRT-PCR (Fig. 4A). However, the reduction of SALL4 protein was more evident when evaluated by Western blotting, suggesting that this sh-RNA construct might work at the translational as well as the transcriptional level (Fig. 4B). Knock down of *SALL4* resulted in a compromised invasion capacity and spheroid formation capacity with decreased expression of *EPCAM* and *CD44* in HuH7 cells (Fig. 4C and D, Supplementary Fig. 1B and C).

SALL4 and HDAC activity in HpSC-HCC

The above data suggested that SALL4 is a good target and biomarker for the diagnosis and treatment of HpSC-HCCs. However, it is difficult to directly target *SALL4* as no studies have investigated the inhibition of its transcription using chemical or other approaches [21]. We therefore re-investigated the interaction networks associated with *SALL4*, and found that SALL4 activation appeared to induce epigenetic modification (Fig. 1B). In particular, a recent study suggested that SALL4 forms a nucleosome remodeling and deacetylase (NuRD) complex with HDACs and potentially regulates HDAC activity [22]. We therefore confirmed that *SALL4* knock down resulted in the reduced activity of total HDAC in HuH7 cells (Fig. 4E). We also evaluated the effect of the overexpression of SALL4 in HuH1 and HLE cells, which do not express SALL4 endogenously, and SALL4 overexpression was found to result in a modest increase of HDAC activity and mild enhancement of chemosensitivity to an HDAC inhibitor SBHA in both cell lines (Supplementary Fig. 2A and B). We further investigated HDAC activity in two SALL4-positive (Hep3B, HuH7) and two SALL4-negative (HLE, HLF) HCC cell lines. Interestingly, high HDAC activities were detected in SALL4-positive compared with SALL4-negative HCC cell lines (Fig. 4F). The HDAC inhibitor SBHA was found to inhibit proliferation of SALL4-positive HCC cell lines at a concentration of 10 μM. By contrast, SBHA had little effect on the proliferation of SALL4-negative HCC cell lines at this concentration (Fig. 4G). SBHA treatment suppressed the expression of SALL4 gene/protein expression in SALL4-positive HuH7 and Hep3B cell lines (Supplementary Fig. 3A and B). We further investigated the effect of SAHA, an additional HDAC inhibitor, in these HCC cell lines, and SAHA was found to more efficiently suppress the cell proliferation of SALL4-positive cell lines compared with SALL4-negative cell lines (Supplementary Fig. 3C).

Taken together, our data suggest a pivotal role for the transcription factor SALL4 in regulating the stemness of HpSC-HCC. SALL4 was detected in HpSC-HCCs with poor prognosis, and inactivation of SALL4 resulted in a reduced invasion/spheroid formation capacity and decreased expression of hepatic stem cell markers. The HDAC inhibitors inhibited proliferation of SALL4-positive HCC cell lines with a reduction of SALL4 gene/protein expression, suggesting their potential in the treatment of SALL4-positive HpSC-HCC.

Discussion

Stemness traits in cancer cells are currently of great interest because they may explain the clinical outcome of patients according to the malignant nature of their tumor. Recently, we

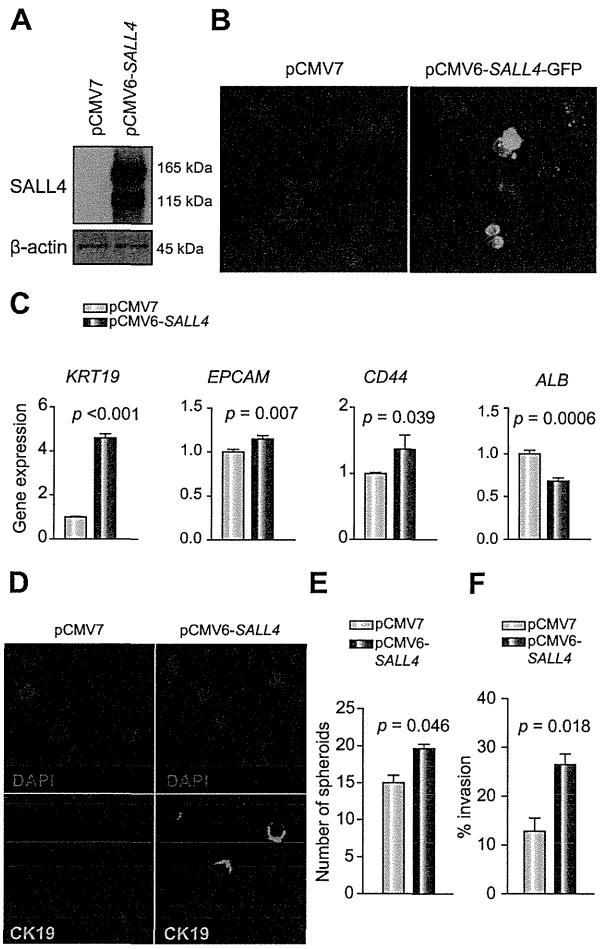

Fig. 3. Effect of SALL4 overexpression. (A) Western blots of cell lysates with anti-SALL4 antibodies. HuH1 cells were transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4* and incubated for 72 h. (B) IF analysis of HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4* and incubated for 72 h. (C) qRT-PCR analysis of *KRT19*, *EPCAM*, *CD44*, and *ALB* in HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4* and incubated for 48 h. (D) IF analysis of HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4*, incubated for 72 h and stained with anti-CK19 antibodies, evaluated by the confocal laser scanning microscopy. (E) Spheroid formation assay of HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4*. Number of spheroids obtained from 2000 cells is indicated (n = 3, mean ± SD). (F) Invasion assay of HuH1 cells transfected with pCMV7 or pCMV6-*SALL4* (n = 3, mean ± SD). *(This figure appears in colour on the web.)*

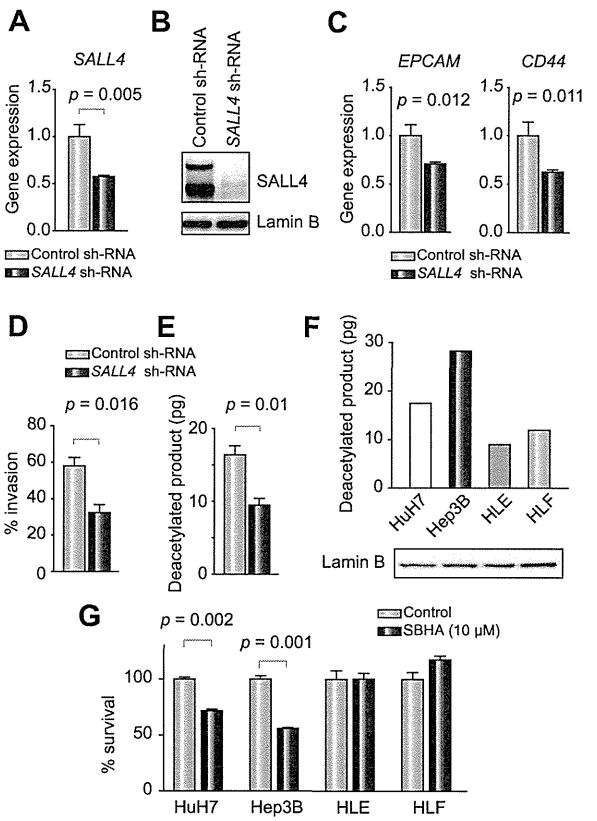

Fig. 4. Effect of *SALL4* knockdown and HDAC activity. (A) qRT-PCR analysis of *SALL4* in HuH7 cells transfected with control or *SALL4* sh-RNAs (n = 3, mean ± SD). (B) Western blots of lysates obtained from HuH7 cells transfected with control or *SALL4* sh-RNAs with anti-SALL4 antibodies. (C) qRT-PCR analysis of *EPCAM* and *CD44* in HuH7 cells transfected with control or *SALL4* sh-RNAs (n = 3, mean ± SD). (D) Invasion assay of HuH7 cells transfected with control or *SALL4* sh-RNAs (n = 3, mean ± SD). (E) HDAC activity of nuclear extracts obtained from HuH7 cells transfected with control or *SALL4* sh-RNAs. (F) HDAC activity of nuclear extracts obtained from each cell line. HDAC activity was measured in duplicate and average amounts of deacetylated products are indicated (upper panel). Lamin B included in the nuclear extracts loaded for HDAC activity assays was measured by Western blotting (lower panel). (G) Cell proliferation assay of HCC cell lines. Each cell line was treated with control DMSO or 10 μM SBHA and cultured for 72 h (n = 4, mean ± SD).

proposed an HCC classification system based on the stem/maturation status of the tumor by EpCAM and AFP expression status [8]. These HCC subtypes showed distinct gene expression patterns with features resembling particular stages of liver lineages. Among them, HpSC-HCC was characterized by a highly invasive nature, chemoresistance to fluorouracil, and poor prognosis after radical resection, warranting the development of a novel therapeutic approach against this HCC subtype [9].

In this study, we showed that the transcription factor SALL4 was activated in HpSC-HCC and that SALL4 might regulate HCC stemness, as characterized by the activation of EpCAM, CK19, and CD44 with highly tumorigenic and invasive natures. Furthermore, we identified that SALL4-positive HCC cell lines tended to show high HDAC activity and chemosensitivity to the HDAC inhibitors SBHA and SAHA. This study reveals for the first time the utility of SBHA for the treatment of HCC with stem cell features.

SALL4 is a zinc finger transcription factor originally cloned based on sequence homology to *Drosophila sal* [11]. *SALL4* mutations are associated with the Okihiro syndrome, a human disease involving multiple organ defects [23,24]. SALL4 plays a fundamental role in the maintenance of embryonic stem cells, potentially through interaction with Oct4, Sox2, and Nanog [25–30]. Furthermore, knockdown of SALL4 significantly reduces the efficiency of induced pluripotent stem cell generation [31]. *SALL4* is also expressed in hematopoietic stem cells and leukemia cells, where it regulates their maintenance [14,32]. SALL4 is known to encode two isoforms (SALL4A and SALL4B), and a recent study

suggested the important role of SALL4B on maintaining the stemness of embryonic stem cells [25]. Interestingly, our data indicated that SALL4B is also a dominant form in HpSC-HCC cell lines. It is unclear how SALL4 isoform expression is regulated in cancer, and future studies are required to explore the mechanisms of SALL4 isoform regulation.

In the liver, SALL4 is expressed in fetal hepatic stem/progenitors but not in adult hepatocytes, and a mouse study demonstrated that inhibition of SALL4 in hepatic stem/progenitors contributes to their differentiation [33]. Interestingly, recent studies indicated that AFP-producing gastric cancer expresses SALL4, suggesting that SALL4 might play a role in the hepatoid differentiation of gastric cancer [34]. Consistently, our data indicated a positive correlation between *SALL4*, *AFP*, and *EPCAM* expression in two independent HCC cohorts. Strikingly, SALL4 was recently shown to be expressed in a subset of human liver cancers with poor prognoses, while modification of SALL4 expression resulted in the alteration of cell proliferation *in vitro* and tumor growth *in vivo*, consistent with our current study [35]. A recent study reported the expression of SALL4 in 46% of HCC cases, which is almost comparable to our present study [36]. Furthermore, a very recent study of two independent large cohorts demonstrated that SALL4 is a marker for a progenitor subclass of HCC with an aggressive phenotype [37]. It is still unclear how SALL4 expression is regulated and which target genes are directly activated by SALL4 binding. Future studies using next generation sequencing are required to fully understand the mechanisms of SALL4 regulation of HCC stemness.

In this study, we demonstrated that SALL4-positive HCC cell lines have high HDAC activity and chemosensitivity against the HDAC inhibitors SBHA and SAHA compared with SALL4-negative HCC cell lines. SALL4 was recently found to directly connect with the epigenetic modulator NuRD complex [22], thereby possibly affecting the histone modification associated with stemness. The NuRD complex is a multiunit chromatin remodeling complex containing chromodomain-helicase-DNA-binding proteins and HDACs that regulate histone deacetylation [38]. Its role in cancer is still controversial, while its function in HCC has not yet been determined.

Our data suggest that SALL4 plays a role in controlling HDAC activity and contributing to the maintenance of HCC with stem cell features. Consistently, HDAC inhibitors might be useful for the eradication of SALL4-positive HCC cells through their inhibitory effects on histone deacetylation by NuRD [39]. Encouragingly, a recent study demonstrated the utility of a SALL4-binding peptide to inhibit its binding to phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10 (PTEN) through interaction with HDAC, thereby targeting leukemia cells [21]. Further studies are required to understand the relationship between SALL4, the NuRD complex, and the maintenance of stemness in HCC.

Financial support

This study was supported by a Grant-in-Aid from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan (23590967), a grant from the Japanese Society of Gastroenterology, a grant from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, and a grant from the National Cancer Center Research and Development Fund (23-B-5), Japan.

Conflict of interest

The authors who have taken part in this study declared that they do not have anything to disclose regarding funding or conflict of interest with respect to this manuscript.

Acknowledgments

We thank Ms. Masayo Baba and Ms. Nami Nishiyama for excellent technical assistance.

Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2013.08.024.

References

[1] Nowell PC. The clonal evolution of tumor cell populations. Science 1976;194:23–28.
[2] Hanahan D, Weinberg RA. Hallmarks of cancer: the next generation. Cell 2011;144:646–674.
[3] Jordan CT, Guzman ML, Noble M. Cancer stem cells. N Engl J Med 2006;355:1253–1261.
[4] Clarke MF, Dick JE, Dirks PB, Eaves CJ, Jamieson CH, Jones DL, et al. Cancer stem cells–perspectives on current status and future directions: AACR Workshop on cancer stem cells. Cancer Res 2006;66:9339–9344.
[5] Dean M, Fojo T, Bates S. Tumour stem cells and drug resistance. Nat Rev Cancer 2005;5:275–284.
[6] Visvader JE, Lindeman GJ. Cancer stem cells in solid tumours: accumulating evidence and unresolved questions. Nat Rev Cancer 2008;8:755–768.
[7] Jemal A, Bray F, Center MM, Ferlay J, Ward E, Forman D. Global cancer statistics. CA Cancer J Clin 2011;61:69–90.
[8] Yamashita T, Forgues M, Wang W, Kim JW, Ye Q, Jia H, et al. EpCAM and alpha-fetoprotein expression defines novel prognostic subtypes of hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer Res 2008;68:1451–1461.
[9] Yamashita T, Ji J, Budhu A, Forgues M, Yang W, Wang HY, et al. EpCAM-positive hepatocellular carcinoma cells are tumor-initiating cells with stem/progenitor cell features. Gastroenterology 2009;136:1012–1024.
[10] Yamashita T, Budhu A, Forgues M, Wang XW. Activation of hepatic stem cell marker EpCAM by Wnt-beta-catenin signaling in hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer Res 2007;67:10831–10839.
[11] de Celis JF, Barrio R. Regulation and function of spalt proteins during animal development. Int J Dev Biol 2009;53:1385–1398.
[12] Aguila JR, Liao W, Yang J, Avila C, Hagag N, Senzel L, et al. SALL4 is a robust stimulator for the expansion of hematopoietic stem cells. Blood 2011;118:576–585.
[13] Yang J, Chai L, Gao C, Fowles TC, Alipio Z, Dang H, et al. SALL4 is a key regulator of survival and apoptosis in human leukemic cells. Blood 2008;112:805–813.
[14] Yang J, Chai L, Liu F, Fink LM, Lin P, Silberstein LE, et al. Bmi-1 is a target gene for SALL4 in hematopoietic and leukemic cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2007;104:10494–10499.
[15] Yamashita T, Honda M, Nio K, Nakamoto Y, Takamura H, Tani T, et al. Oncostatin m renders epithelial cell adhesion molecule-positive liver cancer stem cells sensitive to 5-fluorouracil by inducing hepatocytic differentiation. Cancer Res 2010;70:4687–4697.
[16] Yamashita T, Honda M, Takatori H, Nishino R, Minato H, Takamura H, et al. Activation of lipogenic pathway correlates with cell proliferation and poor prognosis in hepatocellular carcinoma. J Hepatol 2009;50:100–110.
[17] Woo HG, Wang XW, Budhu A, Kim YH, Kwon SM, Tang ZY, et al. Association of TP53 mutations with stem cell-like gene expression and survival of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. Gastroenterology 2011;140:1063–1070.
[18] Ji J, Wang XW. Clinical implications of cancer stem cell biology in hepatocellular carcinoma. Semin Oncol 2012;39:461–472.

[19] Yang J, Corsello TR, Ma Y. Stem cell gene SALL4 suppresses transcription through recruitment of DNA methyltransferases. J Biol Chem 2012;287: 1996–2005.
[20] Bohm J, Sustmann C, Wilhelm C, Kohlhase J. SALL4 is directly activated by TCF/LEF in the canonical Wnt signaling pathway. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2006;348:898–907.
[21] Gao C, Dimitrov T, Yong KJ, Tatetsu H, Jeong HW, Luo HR, et al. Targeting transcription factor SALL4 in acute myeloid leukemia by interrupting its interaction with an epigenetic complex. Blood 2013;121:1413–1421.
[22] Lu J, Jeong HW, Kong N, Yang Y, Carroll J, Luo HR, et al. Stem cell factor SALL4 represses the transcriptions of PTEN and SALL1 through an epigenetic repressor complex. PLoS One 2009;4:e5577.
[23] Al-Baradie R, Yamada K, St Hilaire C, Chan WM, Andrews C, McIntosh N, et al. Duane radial ray syndrome (Okihiro syndrome) maps to 20q13 and results from mutations in SALL4, a new member of the SAL family. Am J Hum Genet 2002;71:1195–1199.
[24] Kohlhase J, Heinrich M, Schubert L, Liebers M, Kispert A, Laccone F, et al. Okihiro syndrome is caused by SALL4 mutations. Hum Mol Genet 2002;11:2979–2987.
[25] Rao S, Zhen S, Roumiantsev S, McDonald LT, Yuan GC, Orkin SH. Differential roles of Sall4 isoforms in embryonic stem cell pluripotency. Mol Cell Biol 2010;30:5364–5380.
[26] Tanimura N, Saito M, Ebisuya M, Nishida E, Ishikawa F. Stemness-related factor sall4 interacts with transcription factors oct-3/4 and sox2 and occupies oct-sox elements in mouse embryonic stem cells. J Biol Chem 2013;288:5027–5038.
[27] Wu Q, Chen X, Zhang J, Loh YH, Low TY, Zhang W, et al. Sall4 interacts with nanog and co-occupies nanog genomic sites in embryonic stem cells. J Biol Chem 2006;281:24090–24094.
[28] Yang J, Chai L, Fowles TC, Alipio Z, Xu D, Fink LM, et al. Genome-wide analysis reveals Sall4 to be a major regulator of pluripotency in murine-embryonic stem cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2008;105:19756–19761.
[29] Yang J, Gao C, Chai L, Ma Y. A novel SALL4/OCT4 transcriptional feedback network for pluripotency of embryonic stem cells. PLoS One 2010;5:e10766.
[30] Zhang J, Tam WL, Tong GQ, Wu Q, Chan HY, Soh BS, et al. Sall4 modulates embryonic stem cell pluripotency and early embryonic development by the transcriptional regulation of Pou5f1. Nat Cell Biol 2006;8:1114–1123.
[31] Tsubooka N, Ichisaka T, Okita K, Takahashi K, Nakagawa M, Yamanaka S. Roles of Sall4 in the generation of pluripotent stem cells from blastocysts and fibroblasts. Genes Cells 2009;14:683–694.
[32] Yang J, Liao W, Ma Y. Role of SALL4 in hematopoiesis. Curr Opin Hematol 2012;19:287–291.
[33] Oikawa T, Kamiya A, Kakinuma S, Zeniya M, Nishinakamura R, Tajiri H, et al. Sall4 regulates cell fate decision in fetal hepatic stem/progenitor cells. Gastroenterology 2009;136:1000–1011.
[34] Ikeda H, Sato Y, Yoneda N, Harada K, Sasaki M, Kitamura S, et al. Alpha-Fetoprotein-producing gastric carcinoma and combined hepatocellular and cholangiocarcinoma show similar morphology but different histogenesis with respect to SALL4 expression. Hum Pathol 2012;43:1955–1963.
[35] Oikawa T, Kamiya A, Zeniya M, Chikada H, Hyuck AD, Yamazaki Y, et al. SALL4, a stem cell biomarker in liver cancers. Hepatology 2013;57:1469–1483.
[36] Gonzalez-Roibon N, Katz B, Chaux A, Sharma R, Munari E, Faraj SF, et al. Immunohistochemical expression of SALL4 in hepatocellular carcinoma, a potential pitfall in the differential diagnosis of yolk sac tumors. Hum Pathol 2013;44:1293–1299.
[37] Yong KJ, Gao C, Lim JS, Yan B, Yang H, Dimitrov T, et al. Oncofetal gene SALL4 in aggressive hepatocellular carcinoma. N Engl J Med 2013;368: 2266–2276.
[38] Lai AY, Wade PA. Cancer biology and NuRD: a multifaceted chromatin remodelling complex. Nat Rev Cancer 2011;11:588–596.
[39] Marquardt JU, Thorgeirsson SS. Sall4 in "stemness"-driven hepatocarcinogenesis. N Engl J Med 2013;368:2316–2318.

OPEN ACCESS Freely available online

PLOS ONE

Genetic Association of Human Leukocyte Antigens with Chronicity or Resolution of Hepatitis B Infection in Thai Population

Nawarat Posuwan[1,3,4], Sunchai Payungporn[2,3], Pisit Tangkijvanich[2,3], Shintaro Ogawa[1], Shuko Murakami[1], Sayuki Iijima[1], Kentaro Matsuura[1], Noboru Shinkai[1], Tsunamasa Watanabe[1], Yong Poovorawan[4], Yasuhito Tanaka[1]*

1 Department of Virology and Liver Unit, Nagoya City University Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Nagoya, Japan, **2** Research Unit of Hepatitis and Liver Cancer, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand, **3** Department of Biochemistry, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand, **4** Center of Excellence in Clinical Virology, Faculty of Medicine, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract

Background: Previous studies showed that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the *HLA-DP*, *TCF19* and *EHMT2* genes may affect the chronic hepatitis B (CHB). To predict the degree of risk for chronicity of HBV, this study determined associations with these SNPs.

Methods: The participants for this study were defined into 4 groups; HCC (n = 230), CHB (n = 219), resolved HBV infection (n = 113) and HBV uninfected subjects (n = 123). The *HLA-DP* SNPs (rs3077, rs9277378 and rs3128917), *TCF19* SNP (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* SNP (rs652888) were genotyped.

Results: Due to similar distribution of genotype frequencies in HCC and CHB, we combined these two groups (HBV carriers). The genotype distribution in HBV carriers relative to those who resolved HBV showed that rs3077 and rs9277378 were significantly associated with protective effects against CHB in minor dominant model (OR = 0.45, $p<0.001$ and OR = 0.47, $p<0.001$). The other SNPs rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888 were not associated with HBV carriers.

Conclusions: Genetic variations of rs3077 and rs9277378, but not rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888, were significantly associated with HBV carriers relative to resolved HBV in Thai population.

Citation: Posuwan N, Payungporn S, Tangkijvanich P, Ogawa S, Murakami S, et al. (2014) Genetic Association of Human Leukocyte Antigens with Chronicity or Resolution of Hepatitis B Infection in Thai Population. PLoS ONE 9(1): e86007. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0086007

Editor: Man-Fung Yuen, The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong

Received *September 9, 2013*; **Accepted** *December 4, 2013*; **Published** *January 23, 2014*

Funding: This work was supported by grants from The JSPS RONPAKU (Dissertation PhD) Program; the Ratchadapiseksompotch Endowment Fund of Chulalongkorn University [RES560530155-AM and RES560530093-HR); Higher Education Research Promotion and National Research University Project of Thailand Office of the Higher Education Commission [HR1155A-55 and HR1162A-55]; Thailand Research Fund [DPG5480002 and BRG5580005]; Chulalongkorn University, Integrated Innovation Academic Center, Chulalongkorn University Centenary Academic Development Project [CU56-HR01]; King Chulalongkorn Hospital and the Office of the National Research Council of Thailand (NRCT); grant-in-aid from the Ministry of Health, Labour, and Welfare of Japan and the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: ytanaka@med.nagoya-cu.ac.jp

Introduction

The hepatitis B virus (HBV) is one of the most common causes of chronic hepatitis B (CHB), liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Globally more than 2 billion people have been infected with HBV and 378 million are suffering from chronic hepatitis. Over 600,000 people die each year because of HBV infection. In high prevalence areas such as the central Asian republics, Southeast Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa and the Amazon basin over 8% of the population may be HBV carriers [1]. The main route of HBV infection is vertical transmission from mother to infant and horizontal transmission between children, whereby 90% will develop chronic hepatitis as infants or in early childhood and never clear the virus [1–3]. In contrast, 15% of HBV infections in adulthood develop into chronic hepatitis with viral persistence.

The frequency of HBV infection which develops into chronic hepatitis depends on the age at which the person is infected [1,2]. However, the factors determining HBV persistence or clearance are not clearly understood [4–6]. Risk factors for viral persistence include the following: virological factors (viral load, genotype, viral gene mutations and co-infection with another virus), host factors (age at infection, gender, immune status and genetic variability) and extrinsic factors (e.g. alcohol consumption and chemotherapy) [7]. Whether viral infection results in acute or chronic infection also depends on cellular immune responses influenced by human leukocyte antigen (*HLA*) class I and II molecules which must present the viral antigens to CD8+ T cells and CD4+ T cells, respectively [8]. The genes encoding *HLA* are the most

polymorphic in the human genome, presumably in order to be able to respond to all potential foreign antigens [9].

Recently, many genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been performed to seek associations between human genetic variation and the outcome of HBV infection [10–15]. Studies in the Japanese population showed that 11 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) located within or around the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* loci are significantly associated with the occurrence of CHB. Of these 11 SNPs, the most strongly associated with the outcome of HBV infection were rs9277535 and rs3128917 in *HLA-DPB1* and rs3077 in *HLA-DPA1* [10].

Thereafter, GWAS studies in the Korean population confirmed the presence of these host factors related to HBV outcome and reported two new SNPs significantly associated with CHB within the *HLA* region, namely rs1419881 and rs652888 in transcription factor 19 (*TCF19*) and euchromatic histone-lysine methyltransferase 2 (*EHMT2*), respectively [16]. *TCF19* (or transcription factor SC1) is a *trans*-activating factor that mainly influences the transcription of genes required for late growth regulation at the G1-S checkpoint and during S phase [17]. *EHMT2* is a histone methyltransferase responsible for mono- and di-methylation of H3K9 (lysine at 9th residue of histone subunit 3) in euchromatin [18], which modifies the conformation of chromatin from its tightly packed form, heterochromatin, and thus influences gene repression or transcriptional silencing [19].

In the present study, we determined associations between the SNPs of *HLA-DPA1* (rs3077), *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378 and rs3128917), *TCF19* (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* (rs652888) in HBV infected patients compared to those with resolved infections and those who had never been infected.

Materials and Methods

Ethics Statement

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Faculty of Medicine, University (Bangkok, Thailand) code IRB.455/54. Written informed consent was obtained from each patient and all samples were anonymized.

Sample Collection

All blood samples were negative for hepatitis C virus and human immunodeficiency virus. Subjects were defined into 4 groups: 230 hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg)-positive HCC, and 219 CHB who had been HBsAg-positive for at least 6 months were recruited at the King Chulalongkorn Memorial Hospital, whereas patients with resolved HBV and uninfected subjects were from the Thai Red Cross Society and from the north-eastern part of Thailand (age>40 years) which had been screened by Immunoassay (Architect i2000SR, Abbott, USA.) for HBsAg, antibody to hepatitis B surface antigen (anti-HBs) and antibody to hepatitis B core protein (anti-HBc). Of these subjects, 113 were negative for HBsAg but positive for anti-HBc and/or positive for anti-HBs after resolution of infection, while 123 uninfected subjects were all negative for HBsAg, anti-HBc and anti-HBs. All samples in this study were collected from subjects who have lived at the same area in Thailand, suggesting that the genetic background would be balanced between a case and control.

Genotyping assays

DNA was extracted from peripheral blood mononuclear cell using phenol-chloroform DNA extraction. The concentration of DNA was determined by NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE). We determined SNPs of *HLA-DPA1* (rs3077), *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378 and rs3128917), and the genes *TCF19* (rs1419881) and *EHMT2* (rs652888) by commercial TaqMan PCR assays (Applied Biosystems, USA). In this study we investigated *HLA-DPB1* (rs9277378) because this SNP had a high level of linkage disequilibrium with rs9277535 ($D' = 1.00$, $R^2 = 0.954$) [20] and was clearly detectable by the TaqMan assay rather than rs9277535.

Statistical analyses

In this study, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was performed on each SNP. The Chi-square test of independence and Odds Ratio (OR) from two-by-two tables for comparisons between case and control groups was performed using Microsoft Excel. Statistical significance was defined by $P<0.05$. The calculated of possibility level was established using Chi-square contingency table analysis.

Results

Subjects were defined into 4 groups: group 1) HCC (age = 58.2±12 years, 190/230 (82.6%) male); group 2) CHB (age = 46.6±10 years, 144/219 (65.7%) male); group 3) those with resolved HBV (age = 48.2±6 years, 83/113 (73.5%) male); and group 4) HBV uninfected subjects (age = 46.7±6 years, 73/123 (59.3%) male). The details are given in Table 1. To find the genetic factor associated with chronicity of HBV infection, however, the two groups (group 1 and 2) were combined (designated "HBV carriers"). Indeed, according to the frequencies of minor alleles of the SNPs in the *HLA-DP*, *TCF19* and *EHMT2* genes listed in Table 2, the frequencies of minor alleles of these 5 SNPs in HCC and CHB were similar (data shown in Table S1). The composite HBV carriers group had a minor allele frequency for rs3077 and rs9277378 lower than in groups 3 and 4 (OR = 0.57, 95% CI = 0.42–0.78, $p<0.001$ and OR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.47–0.85, $p = 0.008$ for rs3077, OR = 0.59, 95% CI = 0.44–0.81, $p = 0.001$ and OR = 0.56, 95% CI = 0.42–0.75, $p<0.001$ for rs9277378, respectively). In contrast, the minor allele frequency for rs1419881 in HBV carriers was similar to group 3 (OR = 0.80, 95% CI = 0.60–1.08, $p = 0.142$) but lower than in group 4 (OR = 0.64, 95% CI = 0.48–0.85, $p = 0.002$). Moreover, minor allele frequency for rs3128917 and rs652888 in HBV carriers was comparable to groups 3 and 4 (OR = 1.14, 95% CI = 0.85–1.53, $p = 0.371$ and OR = 1.06, 95% CI = 0.80–1.41, $p = 0.673$ for rs3128917; OR = 1.14, 95% CI = 0.84–1.55, $p = 0.400$ and OR = 1.12, 95% CI = 0.83–1.50, $p = 0.471$ for rs652888, respectively).

The results of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium analysis of each SNPs were shown in Table 3. All data were over 0.01 ($p>0.01$), indicating that the frequencies did not deviate from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The genotype distribution in HBV carriers compared to subjects with HBV resolution showed that both rs3077 and rs9277378 were significantly associated with protective effects against CHB in minor dominant model (OR = 0.45, 95% CI = 0.30–0.69, $p<0.001$ for rs3077 and OR = 0.47, 95% CI = 0.31–0.72, $p<0.001$ for rs9277378, are described in Table 3), suggesting that major homozygous genotypes were risk factors with the chronicity of HBV. The other SNPs rs3128917, rs1419881 and rs652888 were not associated against HBV carrier status (OR = 1.22, 95% CI = 0.76–1.97, $p = 0.413$ for rs3128917, OR = 0.67, 95% CI = 0.42–1.06, $p = 0.084$ for rs1419881 and OR = 1.31, 95% CI = 0.87–2.00, $p = 0.198$ for rs652888, respectively).

The genotype frequencies for 5 SNPs are shown in Table 3. Comparing HBV carriers with uninfected subjects showed that rs3077, rs9277378 and rs1419881 were all protectively associated with chronic HBV infection (OR = 0.63, 95% CI = 0.42–0.95,