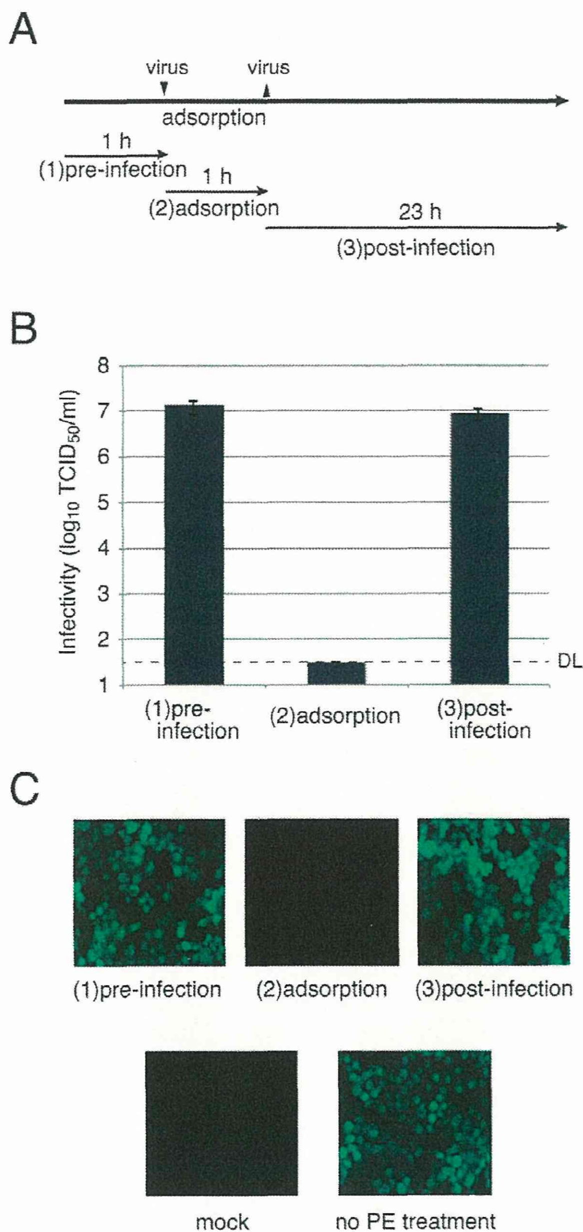

Figure 4. Effects of PE on influenza virus and SeV in different steps of infection. For determining the infectivity of influenza virus H3N2 by the standard TCID$_{50}$ method, MDCK(+) cells were incubated with 0.025% PE before virus infection for 1 h [A, (1)], during virus adsorption for 1 h [A, (2)], or after virus infection for 23 h [A, (3)]. (B) Virus infectivities measured are plotted in a graph. Error bars indicate standard deviations. DL, detection limit of virus infectivity with the method. (C) In SeV-EGFP infection at an input multiplicity of infection of 5, LLC-MK$_2$ cells were treated with 0.025% PE as in (A), and GFP fluorescence was observed after 24 h.
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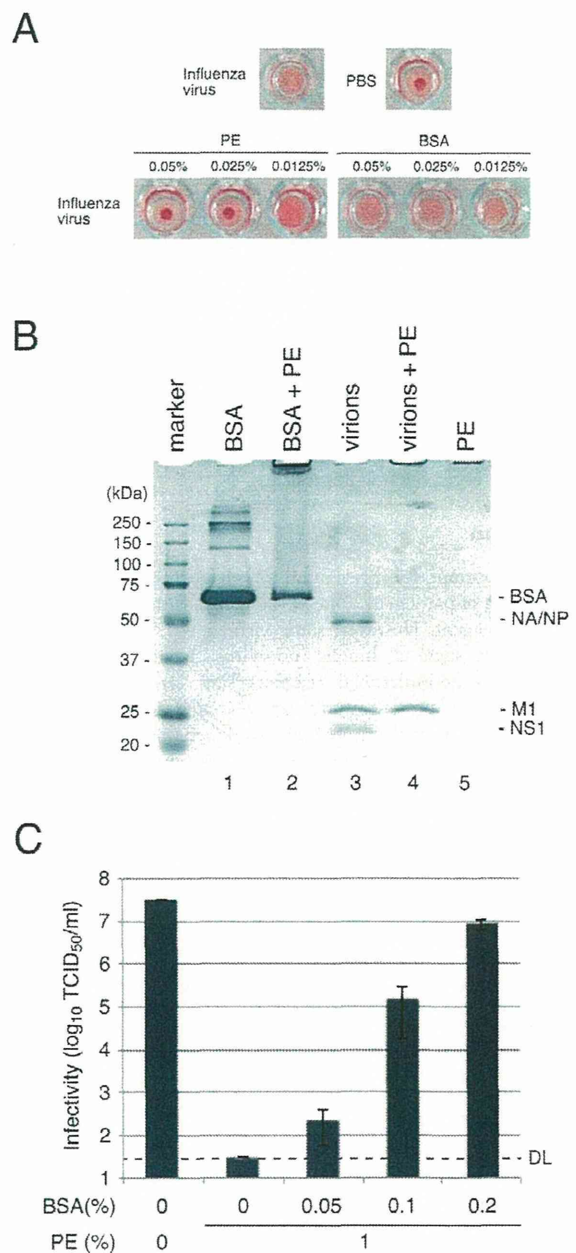

Figure 5. Interaction of PE with influenza virus proteins. (A) Hemagglutination inhibition by PE. Influenza virus H3N2 was reacted with different concentrations of PE in a round-bottom 96-well plate, followed by addition of chicken red blood cells in PBS. Hemagglutination was assessed after 1 h. Bovine serum albumin (BSA) was used instead of PE as a control. (B) Protein aggregation induced by PE. Purified influenza virions or BSA were incubated with PE, and proteins were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and Coomassie brilliant blue staining. Migrating positions of proteins and molecular weights of protein size markers are shown on the sides of the gel panel. (C) Abrogation of PE effects by BSA. Influenza virus and PE were incubated in the presence of different concentrations of BSA. Average infectivities of three independent experiments are shown in the graphs and error bars indicate standard deviations. DL, detection limit of virus infectivity with the method.
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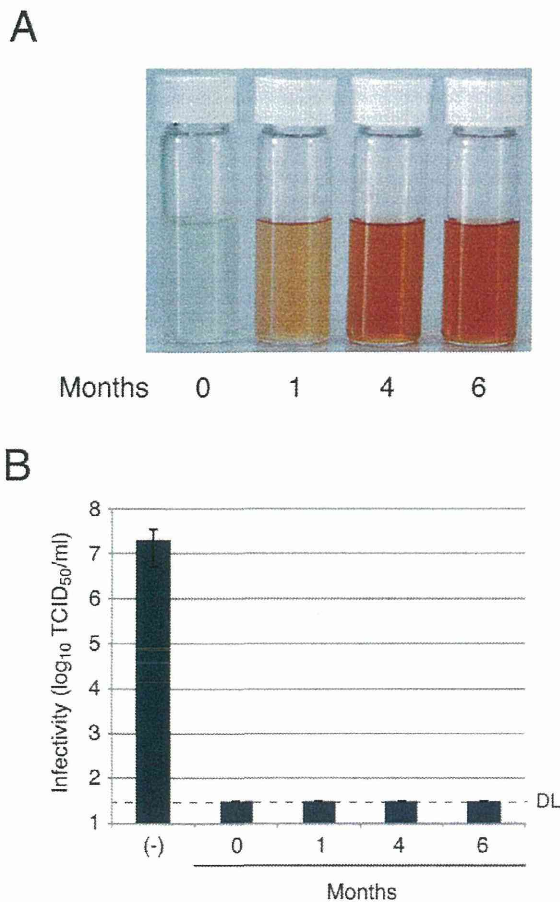

Figure 6. Accelerated aging of PE and its anti-viral effects. (A) 1% PE solution underwent accelerated aging under high temperature and humidity conditions for 6 month. Samples were photographed. (B) Accelerated aged PE samples were diluted to 0.5% and used for anti-virus assay by using influenza virus H3N2. Average infectivities of three independent experiments are shown in the graphs and error bars indicate standard deviations. DL, detection limit of virus infectivity with the method.
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tannin may also interact with molecules on the cell surface.

SDS-PAGE analysis showed that PE induced aggregation of purified virions or BSA probably through association with proteins. Epigallocatechin gallate was previously shown to inactivate herpes simplex virus, and SDS-PAGE analysis demonstrated a complex formation of purified viral glycoproteins by the catechin [7]. Not only persimmon tannins but also other tannins have the potential to induce viral protein aggregation. At the concentrations and under the conditions of electrophoresis used in this study, however, only PE induced aggregation. The high ability of protein aggregation of PE may be related to its strong and broad range anti-viral activity.

Green tea extracts (GTE) contain hydrolyzable tannins and the main ingredients are (−)-epicatechin, (−)-epigallocatechin, (−)-epicatechin-3-gallate and (−)-epigallocatechin-3-gallate [24]. Persimmon extracts contain condensed tannins and its main ingredients are epicatechins similar to those of GTE [25], but they condense and form a higher structure [26–28]. The molecular weight of persimmon tannin is 13,800 or more, whereas molecular weights of hydrolyzable tannins are thought to be 500–3,000 [6,28]. It is thus presumed that the ability of interaction of a higher structure of persimmon tannins caused intense binding with proteins and potent anti-virus effects.

In summary, the present study revealed that PE has inhibitory effects on the broadest range of viruses among the seven representative plant-derived tannin preparations. Investigation of the inhibitory mechanism of influenza virus and SeV suggested that persimmon tannins interacted with virion proteins and restricted virus adsorption to the cells. Due to the rapidly elicited anti-viral effect of persimmon tannins and their stability and safety, persimmon tannins can be utilized as anti-virus reagents to prevent virus infection. Especially, PE may be useful for inactivation of norovirus, which is a major cause of foodborne gastroenteritis, on hard surface.

Supporting Information

Figure S1 Effects of PE on virus attachment and virus invasion were separately investigated. (2a) To investigate the effect of PE treatment on virus attachment, influenza virus H3N2 was mixed with an equal volume of 0.5% PE and incubated for 3 min. After 10-fold serial dilution, 50 µl/well of the diluted virus inoculum was applied to pre-chilled cells and kept at 4°C for 1 h. Cells were then washed with 50 µl/well of pre-chilled PBS three times, incubated in 50 µl of pre-warmed DMEM and kept for 1 h at 37°C. (2b) To investigate the effect of PE treatment on virus invasion, influenza virus H3N2 was applied to pre-chilled cells MDCK cells and kept at 4°C for 1 h. Then the cells were then washed with 50 µl/well of pre-chilled PBS three times and supplemented with pre-chilled DMEM containing PE. The temperature was then increased to 37°C, which causes endocytosis and membrane fusion (virus invasion), and the temperature was maintained at 37°C for 1 h. In both cases, cells were further washed with PBS three times and incubated in 100 µl/well of DMEM containing 20 µg/ml trypsin, followed by infectivity measurement by the $TCID_{50}$ method.
(TIF)

Figure S2 An equal volume of purified H3N2 virions (10 µg/µl) was mixed with a reagent as indicated in the figure and kept for 3 min. The samples were further mixed with an equal volume of 2× SDS sample buffer (0.5 M Tris-HCl [pH 6.8], 10% SDS, 20% glycerol, one grain of bromophenol blue, 1.7 M β-mercaptoethanol) and kept at 50°C for 20 min. Proteins were analyzed by 12% SDS-PAGE and Coomassie brilliant blue staining. Circle indicates proteins probably stacked at the bottom of a loading well of the PE sample.
(TIF)

Acknowledgments

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: TS YN. Performed the experiments: KU RK. Analyzed the data: KU RK TS YN. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: TI YT. Wrote the paper: TS TI.

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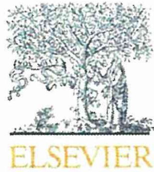

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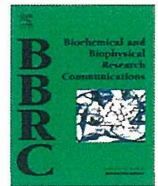

A novel TK-NOG based humanized mouse model for the study of HBV and HCV infections

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ABSTRACT

The immunodeficient mice transplanted with human hepatocytes are available for the study of the human hepatitis viruses. Recently, human hepatocytes were also successfully transplanted in herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase (TK)-NOG mice. In this study, we attempted to infect hepatitis virus in humanized TK-NOG mice and urokinase-type plasminogen activator-severe combined immunodeficiency (uPA-SCID) mice. TK-NOG mice were injected intraperitoneally with 6 mg/kg of ganciclovir (GCV), and transplanted with human hepatocytes. Humanized TK-NOG mice and uPA/SCID mice were injected with hepatitis B virus (HBV)- or hepatitis C virus (HCV)-positive human serum samples. Human hepatocyte repopulation index (RI) estimated from human serum albumin levels in TK-NOG mice correlated well with pre-transplantation serum ALT levels induced by ganciclovir treatment. All humanized TK-NOG and uPA-SCID mice injected with HBV infected serum developed viremia irrespective of lower replacement index. In contrast, establishment of HCV viremia was significantly more frequent in TK-NOG mice with low human hepatocyte RI (<70%) than uPA-SCID mice with similar RI. Frequency of mice spontaneously in early stage of viral infection experiment (8 weeks after injection) was similar in both TK-NOG mice and uPA-SCID mice. Effects of drug treatment with entecavir or interferon were similar in both mouse models. TK-NOG mice thus useful for study of hepatitis virus virology and evaluation of anti-viral drugs.

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1. Introduction

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infections are serious health problems worldwide. More than 350 and 170 million people are infected with HBV and HCV, respectively [1,2]. Both types of hepatitis viruses result in the development of chronic liver infection and potentially death due to liver failure and hepatocellular carcinoma [3]. Although the chimpanzee is a useful animal model for the study of HBV and HCV infection, there are ethical restrictions and hampered by the high financial cost on the use of this animal. The immunodeficient mice with a urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) transgene [4,5] or a targeted disruption of the murine fumaryl acetoacetate hydrolase (FAH) [6–10] were shown to be excellent recipients for human hepatocyte. These small animal models are available for hepatitis viruses infection [4,11], and are useful for the study of HBV and HCV biology [12–14]. However, there are disadvantages that limit the utility of this model for many applications, including excessive mortality [9].

Recently, human hepatocytes were successfully transplanted into severely immunodeficient NOG mice with the herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase (HSVtk) expressing in mouse hepatocytes (TK-NOG) [15]. Mouse liver cells expressing HSVtk

Abbreviations: ALT, alanine aminotransferase; GCV, ganciclovir; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HSA, human serum albumin; HSVtk, herpes simplex virus type-1 thymidine kinase; IFN, interferon; PegIFN-alpha, pegylated interferon-alpha; RI, repopulation index; RT-PCR, reverse transcript-polymerase chain reaction; SCID, severe combined immunodeficiency; uPA, urokinase-type plasminogen activator.

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were ablated after a brief exposure to ganciclovir (GCV), and transplanted human hepatocytes were stably maintained within the mouse liver without exogenous drug administration [15]. The analyses of drug interactions and pharmacokinetics have previously been reported using TK-NOG mice transplanted with human hepatocytes [15–18]. In the present study, we succeeded in infecting human hepatocyte-transplanted TK-NOG mice with HBV and HCV and showed that this mouse model is as useful as the uPA/SCID model for the study of hepatitis viruses.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animal treatment

TK-NOG mice were purchased from Central Institute for Experimental Animals (CIEA, Kawasaki, Japan). Eight-weeks-old mice were injected intraperitoneally with 6 mg/kg of GCV twice a day. After two days, mice were re-injected with the same amount of GCV. Seven days after 1st GCV injection, mice were transplanted with 1 or 2 $\times$ 10^6 of human hepatocytes obtained from human hepatocyte transplanted uPA–SCID chimeric mice by collagenase perfusion method by intra-splenic injection. Transplanted human hepatocytes used in this study were obtained from a same donor. One week after the first GCV treatment, serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) levels were measured (Fuji DRI-CHEM, Fuji Film, Tokyo, Japan). Infection, extraction of serum samples, and sacrifice were performed under ether anesthesia. Mouse serum concentration of human serum albumin (HSA), which correlated with the human hepatocyte repopulation index (RI) [15], was measured as previously described [5]. Generation of the uPA/SCID mice and transplantation of human hepatocytes were performed as described previously [5,12,19]. The experimental protocol was approved by the Ethics Review Committee for Animal Experimentation of the Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Hiroshima University.

2.2. Human serum samples

Human serum samples containing high titers of either genotype C HBV (5.3 $\times$ 10^6 copies/mL) or genotype 1b HCV (2.2 $\times$ 10^6 copies/mL) were obtained from patients with chronic hepatitis who provided written informed consent. The individual serum samples were divided into small aliquots and stored separately in liquid nitrogen until use. Mice were injected intravenously with 50 μL of either HBV- or HCV-positive human serum. The study protocol conforms to the ethical guidelines of the 1975 Declaration of Helsinki and was approved a priori by the institutional review committee.

2.3. Quantitation of HBV and HCV

DNA and RNA extraction and quantitation of HBV and HCV by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) were performed as described previously [12,13,19]. Briefly, DNA was extracted using SMITEST (Genome Science Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan) and dissolved in 20 μL H_2O, and RNA was extracted from serum samples using SepaGene RVR (Sankojunyaku, Tokyo, Japan) and reverse transcribed with a random hexamer and a reverse transcriptase (ReverTraAce; TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan) according to the instructions provided by the manufacturer. Quantitation of HBV DNA and HCV RNA was performed using Light Cycler (Roche Diagnostic, Japan, Tokyo). The lower detection limits of real-time PCR for HBV DNA and HCV RNA are 4.4 and 3.5 log copies/mL, respectively.

2.4. Histochemical analysis of mouse liver

Liver specimens of HBV-infected TK-NOG mice were fixed with 10% buffered-paraformaldehyde and embedded in paraffin blocks for histological examination. Hematoxylin-eosin and immunohistochemical staining using antibodies against HSA (Bethyl Laboratories Inc., Montgomery, TX) and hepatitis B core antigen (HBc-Ag) (DAKO Diagnostika, Hamburg, Germany) were performed as described previously [12].

2.5. Treatment with antiviral agents

Mice were treated with antiviral agents eight weeks after HBV or HCV infection, by which time stable viremia had developed. HBV-infected mice were administered either food containing 0.3 mg of entecavir/kg of body weight/day or daily intramuscular injections with 7000 IU/kg of IFN-alpha (Otsuka Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). HCV-infected mice were administered intramuscular injection with either 1000 IU/kg of IFN-alpha daily or 10 μg/kg of PegIFN-alpha-2a (Chugai Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) twice a week for three weeks.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Differences in HSA levels between TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice, and incidence of infection between highly and poorly repopulated mice were examined for statistical significance using the Mann–Whitney *U*-test.

3. Results

3.1. Correlation between serum ALT level after GCV administration and the human hepatocyte index in TK-NOG mice

We analyzed the correlation between serum ALT levels after GCV injection and the human hepatocyte RI using 194 TK-NOG mice. Seven days after GCV injection when serum ALT levels had reached maximum levels [15], mice were transplanted with human hepatocytes. After transplantation of human hepatocytes, serum concentrations of HSA increased and reached plateau at 6–8 weeks. Serum ALT levels one week after GCV administration and HSA levels 8 weeks after hepatocyte transplantation showed a positive correlation, indicating that the higher serum ALT level, the higher the RI (Fig. 1A). HSA levels 8 weeks after human hepatocyte transplantation in TK-NOG mice were lower than in uPA–SCID mice (Fig 1B), which indicates that mice livers were more efficiently replaced with human hepatocytes in uPA–SCID mice than in TK-NOG mice.

3.2. Infection with hepatitis viruses in humanized TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice

Eight weeks after human hepatocyte transplantation, TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice with HSA levels over 1.0 mg/mL were inoculated with either HBV- or HCV-positive human serum samples. Eight weeks after injection, the frequency of the development of viremia was compared between the mice with lower (<70%) and higher (⩾70%) human hepatocyte RI. 70% of RI corresponds to 5.4 and 6.3 mg/dl of serum HAS in TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice, respectively [5,15]. All humanized TK-NOG and uPA–SCID mice inoculated with HBV developed viremia 8 weeks after injection, irrespective of the RI (Fig. 2A). Incidence of HCV viremia was also high in TK-NOG mice regardless of the RI. In contrast, the frequency of HCV viremia was much lower in uPA–SCID mice with the RI. Only 20% (1 of 5) of uPA–SCID mice with low RI became

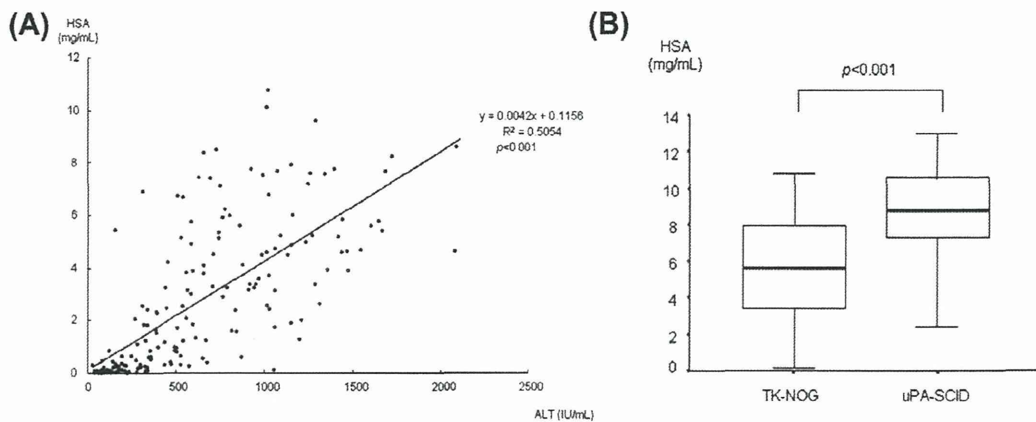

Fig. 1. Human hepatocyte repopulation index in humanized mice. Serum alaninaminotransferase (ALT) levels in TK-NOG mice were measured one week after ganciclovir treatment. Human serum albumin (HSA) levels were measured eight weeks after transplantation of human hepatocytes. (A) Correlation between serum ALT level after ganciclovir administration and human hepatocyte repopulation index in TK-NOG mice. Points represent single mouse measurements. r (Spearman rank) and P value are shown. (B) HSA levels in TK-NOG mice and uPA-SCID mice. In these box-and-whisker plots, lines within the boxes represent median values; the upper and lower lines of the boxes represent the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively; and the upper and lower bars outside the boxes represent the 90th and 10th percentiles, respectively.

positive for HCV, whereas 94.3% (50 of 53) of mice with high RI became positive ($p = 1.07 \times 10^{-6}$). Serum viral titers gradually increased in mice that developed viremia. Eight weeks after infection, HBV DNA and HCV RNA titers increased to approximately 8 and 6 log copies/mL, respectively in both TK-NOG and uPA–SCID mice (Fig. 2B). Viremia levels were slightly higher in uPA–SCID mice than TK-NOG mice, probably due to higher human hepatocyte RI (HSA levels) in uPA–SCID mice. In HBV-infected TK-NOG mice, histological analysis showed that hepatocytes positive for HSA were also positive for HB core antigen (Fig. 2C), which is in line with our previous findings using uPA–SCID mice [12].

3.3. The effect of antiviral agents on hepatitis virus-infected humanized mice

We analyzed the effect of antiviral agents on HBV- and HCV-infected humanized mice. Eight weeks after HBV-infection, 2 humanized TK-NOG mice were orally administrated 0.3 mg/kg day of entecavir, and 2 other mice received intramuscular injections with 7000 IU/g of IFN-alpha daily for 3 weeks. Both treatments resulted in a rapid reduction of mouse serum HBV DNA titers (Fig. 3A). Two HCV-infected humanized TK-NOG mice were administrated IFN-alpha daily, and 2 other mice received PegIFN-alpha-2a injections twice a week for 3 weeks. Both treatments resulted in a reduction of HCV RNA titers in mouse serum. The effects of these antiviral agents on HBV and HCV in TK-NOG mice were similar to those in uPA-SCID mice (Fig. 3B).

3.4. Incidence of unexpected death

The incidence of unexpected death is high in human hepatocyte chimeric uPA–SCID mice [20]. Incidence of unexpected death in the early stages of viral infection (within 8 weeks of viral infection) was similar between TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice (6.3% vs 10.6%, $p = 0.465$) (Fig. 4).

4. Discussion

Human hepatocyte chimeric mice are valuable tool for hepatitis virology and drug assessment [12–14]. To establish human hepatocyte chimerism, two conditions are necessary: immunodeficiency and mouse-specific liver cell damage. For immune deficiency, SCID mice [4,5,12–14,20], NOG mice [8,21] and RAG-2 deficient mice [6,9,10] have been reported. We previously reported that the level of immunodeficiency in SCID mice, which are the most weakly immunodeficient of the three types, is sufficient to prevent rejection of transplanted human hepatocytes [5]. However, preventive treatments for human liver cell rejection via mice NK cells, such as an anti-asialo GM1 antibody, are necessary in SCID mice [5].

To evoke mouse liver cell injury, uPA and FAH transgene techniques were used [4–10]. Recently, successful human liver cell transplantation to TK-NOG mice in the absence of ongoing drug treatment after a brief exposure to a non-toxic dose of GCV has been reported [15]. We thus attempted to use TK-NOG mice to establish high levels of replacement with human hepatocytes and tried to infect hepatitis viruses.

In this study, we transplanted human hepatocytes to 194 TK-NOG mice and analyzed whether elevated serum ALT levels, which results from liver damage caused by GCV exposure, reflects HSA levels, as it is known that HSA levels are correlated with the human hepatocyte RI and can serve as a surrogate measure [15]. We found a positive correlation between ALT and HSA levels (Fig. 1A), indicating that higher levels of liver damage are associated with establishment of higher levels of repopulation of the liver with human hepatocytes. As the human hepatocyte RI obtained in this study using TK-NOG mice is lower than in uPA–SCID mice (Fig 1B), dose escalation of GCV or alternative treatment timing might result in more highly repopulated mice.

We infected humanized TK-NOG mice with hepatitis viruses and compared infection rates and serum viral titers with humanized uPA–SCID mice. HBV inoculation resulted in development of viremia without regard for the human hepatocyte replacement index in both TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice (Fig. 2A). Incidence of HCV viremia was also high in TK-NOG mice regardless of HSA levels, whereas HCV viremia was infrequent in uPA–SCID mice with low HSA levels. These results are consistent with those of Vanwolleghem et al. [20] who showed, using a large number of human hepatocyte chimeric uPA–SCID mice, that an HSA level well above 1 mg/mL is important for successful HCV infection. The reason for the higher infection rate in TK-NOG mice with low human hepatocyte RI in this study is unknown. Although the level of immunodeficiency is higher in TK-NOG mice, it is difficult to conclude that this difference in immunodeficiency alone is responsible for the enhanced HCV infection rate. Although some studies have

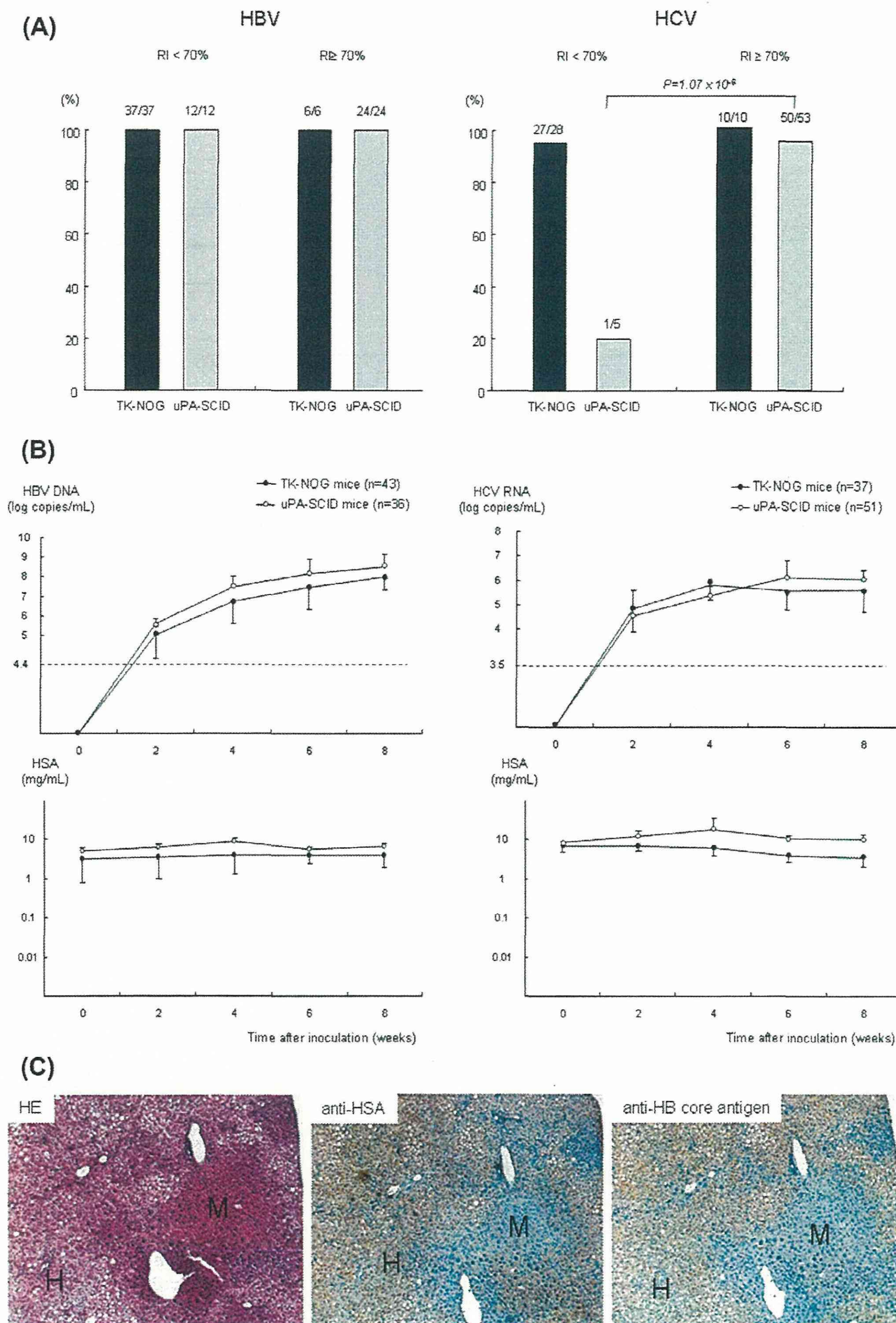

Fig. 2. Hepatitis viruses infection in chimeric mice. (A) Eight weeks after human hepatocyte transplantation, mice with serum HSA level over 1 mg/mL were inoculated with HBV- or HCV-positive human serum samples. Percentages of mice that became positive for HBV DNA (left panel) or HCV RNA (right panel) 8 weeks after inoculation according to human hepatocyte repopulation index (RI) in TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice are shown. 70% of RI corresponds to 5.4 and 6.3 mg/dl of serum HAS in TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice, respectively. (B) Changes in serum titers of HBV DNA (left panel) and HCV RNA (right panel) (upper panels) and HSA levels (lower panels) of TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice. The horizontal dashed lines represent the lower detection limit of HBV DNA and HCV RNA (4.4 and 3.5 log copies/mL, respectively). (C) Histochemical analysis of liver samples obtained from HBV-infected TK-NOG mice. Hematoxylin-eosin staining (HE) and immunohistochemical staining using monoclonal antibodies against HSA and HB core antigen are shown. Regions are shown as human (H) and mouse (M) hepatocytes, respectively (Original magnification 100×).

reported structural differences between wild type and chimeric mice [22,23], the influence of such structural differences on HCV infectivity remains to be determined.

Human hepatocyte transplanted uPA–SCID mice are useful for evaluating antiviral agents [12–14]. In this study, we analyzed the efficacy of antiviral agents such as entecavir, IFN-alpha and

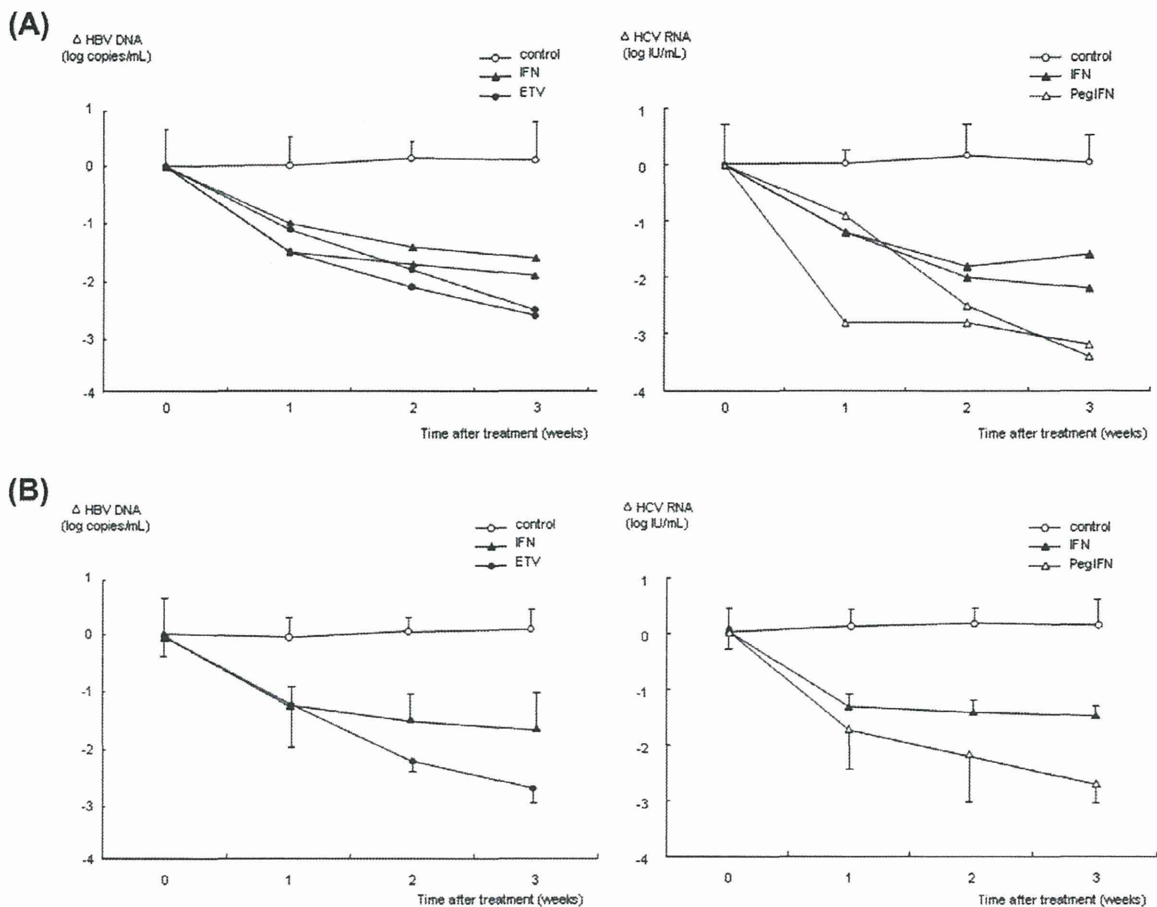

Fig. 3. Reduction of serum viral titers in mice treated with anti-viral agents. (A) HBV- (left panel) or HCV-infected (right panel) TK-NOG mice were treated with entecavir, interferon (IFN)-alpha or PegIFN-alpha-2a. Control: HBV- and HCV-infected mice without antiviral treatment. (B) HBV- (left panel) or HCV-infected (right panel) uPA–SCID mice were treated with entecavir, IFN-alpha or PegIFN-alpha-2a. Data are shown using the mean ± SD ($n = 4$).

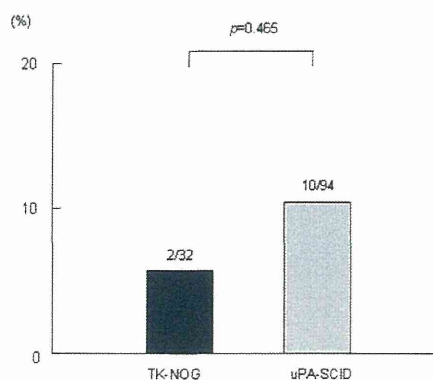

Fig. 4. Frequency of unexpected death within 8 weeks in mice. The numbers of sudden deaths occurring within 8 weeks of viral infection in TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice are shown as bars.

PegIFN-alpha using HBV- and HCV-infected TK-NOG mice and compared them with uPA–SCID mice (Fig. 3). The results showed that both mouse models are equally useful for evaluation of anti-viral drugs.

Human hepatocyte chimeric uPA–SCID mice are weak and prone to unexpected death [20], and this limitation appears to apply to TK-NOG mice as well. Incidence of unexpected death in the early stages of viral infection was not significantly different between TK-NOG mice and uPA–SCID mice (Fig. 4). The cause of these unexpected deaths is unknown. Further study is necessary to develop a more robust and easy to manipulate animal model.

In summary, we established a hepatitis virus infection mouse model using the human hepatocyte transplanted TK-NOG mouse. This model is useful for the study of hepatitis virology and evaluation of antiviral agents.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Serum HBV RNA and HBeAg are useful markers for the safe discontinuation of nucleotide analogue treatments in chronic hepatitis B patients

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Abstract

Background Treatment for chronic hepatitis B has improved drastically with the use of nucleot(s)ide analogues (NAs). However, NA therapy typically fails to eliminate Hepatitis B virus (HBV) completely, and it is difficult to discontinue these therapies. We previously demonstrated that NA therapy induced immature viral particles, including HBV RNA in sera of chronic hepatitis B patients. In the study reported here, we analyzed the association between HBV RNA titer and the recurrence rate of hepatitis after discontinuation of NA therapy.

Methods The study cohort comprised 36 patients who had discontinued NA therapy. Serum HBV DNA or DNA plus RNA levels were measured by real time PCR and statistical analyses were performed using clinical data and HBV markers.

Results At 24 weeks after discontinuation of NA therapy, HBV DNA rebound was observed in 19 of the 36 patients (52.8 %), and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) rebound was observed in 12 of 36 patients (33.3 %). Multivariate statistical analysis was used to identify factors predictive of HBV DNA rebound. The HBV DNA + RNA titer following 3 months of treatment was significantly associated with HBV DNA rebound [$P = 0.043$, odds ratio (OR) 9.474, 95 % confidence interval (CI) 1.069–83.957)]. Absence of hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg) at the end of treatment was significantly associated with ALT rebound ($P = 0.003$, OR 13.500, 95 % CI 2.473–73.705). In HBeAg-positive patients, the HBV DNA + RNA titer after 3 months of treatment was marginally associated with ALT rebound ($P = 0.050$, OR 8.032, 95 % CI 0.997–64.683).

Conclusions Monitoring of serum HBV DNA + RNA levels may be a useful method for predicting re-activation of chronic hepatitis B after discontinuation of NA therapy.

Keywords HBV · HBV RNA · Nucleotide analogue · HBV replication

Abbreviations

ADV Adefovir dipivoxil
ETV Entecavir

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