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MicroRNAs as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers for gastric cancer: Current insights and future perspectives

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Abstract

Non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers may contribute to an early identification of gastric cancer (GC) and improve the clinical management. Unfortunately, no sensitive and specific screening biomarkers are available yet and the currently available approaches are limited by the nature of the disease. GC is a heterogenic disease with various distinct genetic and epigenetic events that occur during the multifactorial cascade of carcinogenesis. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are commonly deregulated in gastric mucosa during the *Helicobacter pylori* infection and in stepwise manner from chronic gastritis, through preneoplastic conditions such as atrophic gastritis and intestinal metaplasia, to early dysplasia and invasive cancer. Identification of miRNAs in blood in 2008 led to a great interest on miRNA-based diagnostic, prognostic biomarkers in GC. In this review, we provide the most recent systematic review on the existing studies related to miRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers for GC. Here, we systematically evaluate 75 studies related to differential expression of circulating miRNAs in GC patients and provide novel view on various heterogenic aspects of the existing data and summarize the methodological differences. Finally, we highlight several important aspects crucial to improve the future translational and clinical research in the field.

Key words: MicroRNA; Biomarkers; Screening; Stomach; Gastric cancer; Systematic review; Blood; Serum; Plasma

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Core tip: Over the past years, large amount of data to microRNAs (miRNAs) in gastric cancer (GC) has been

published. We aimed to provide the critical, first of its kind in depth overview of existing studies to the miRNAs diagnostic biomarkers in GC. For this, we systematically reviewed published literature and identified 75 studies related specifically to microRNAs as blood-related non-invasive diagnostic biomarker in GC. This work provides a critical compendium to 106 studied microRNAs and summarizes the technical and methodological differences in reported studies. Furthermore, we highlight several aspects that need careful attention in future studies.

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INTRODUCTION

Gastric cancer (GC) is a deadly disease with a great challenge in clinical management despite of a steady decline of the cancer incidence^[1,2]. Despite of increasing understanding of genetic and epigenetic cancer events, the absence of non-invasive methods or biomarkers for early identification of GC is one of the biggest difficulties in GC. With an ongoing technical revolution, there is a great hope to find an appropriate way to solve this limitation. Non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) and specifically microRNAs (miRNAs) have entered the "cancer-arena" for now more than 10 years ago^[3] and much research has been done over the past decade. For several years we performed systematic analysis and reviewed the role of miRNAs in GC and potential of miRNAs as a biomarker in gastrointestinal cancers^[4,5]. Since then, huge amount of data has been gained, making impossible to keep an overview of existing research. In this work, we performed a systematic search and reviewed published papers related to miRNAs as non-invasive biomarkers in GC. Because of the overwhelming amount of published data, we focused solely on miRNAs as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers in GC and excluded the data to functional alterations, prognostic and predictive role. In the first part, we will briefly review the specific and unique issues related to GC crucial for understanding the disease, provide the compiling data showing the current stand of the research and highlight the need for the future development and new directions in the field.

GC - HETEROGENIC DISEASE

GC is a multifactorial heterogenic disease with unique cascade of genetic and epigenetic events leading to the cancer. There are multiple factors that, in more or less fashion, responsible for the clinical and biologically-relevant tumor heterogeneity, which may substantially impact an identification of potential diagnostic

biomarkers. Those factors include geographical differences in prevalence of the risk factors, genetic background of the population, environmental factors and probably nutrition. For instance, the prevalence of GC in Asian countries and Russia is higher than in United States, Canada and northern Europe. Interestingly, geographical differences correlate with anatomical localization of primary gastric tumors. Tumors in corpus-distal subtype are predominant in Asian countries and junctional-proximal subtype in Europe. Among the most important etiological factors that may influence the tumor biology at least during the process of carcinogenesis is the *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infection, which is now acknowledged as an infectious disease with all the consequences of prevention and treatment^[6]. For in depth review of the role of *H. pylori* in GC development, we refer to several recent publications^[7,8]. Briefly, *H. pylori* is a chronic infectious diseases that causes almost always an active chronic inflammation of the gastric mucosa^[6]. The persistent chronic inflammation of gastric mucosa causes different range of molecular alterations with increasing loss and accumulation of changes that leads to the phase of atrophic gastritis (AG) with intestinal metaplasie (IM) and dysplasia, which may further progress to GC and is known as Correa's cascade^[9]. AG and IM are well acknowledged preneoplastic stages of GC with an increased GC risk^[10]. Close endoscopic follow up of patients with preneoplastic conditions and lesions is recommended^[11]. The risk of *H. pylori*-related GC development may be associated with severity of mucosal inflammation and be partially dependent on bacterial virulence factors such as cytotoxin-associated gene A (CagA) and vacuolating cytotoxin A (VacA)^[12]. We and others have recently shown that VacA is probably one of the most important bacterial factors that correlate with mucosa inflammation^[13] and is strongly associated with anti-CagA-IgG production^[14]. *H. pylori* eradication is suggested as the most effective way in GC reduction in high-prevalence regions^[15]; however, its value is beneficial mainly for primary and secondary GC prevention without strong diagnostic value in GC screening.

Historically, GC is divided based on the Lauren's classification into 2 histologic subtypes: intestinal and diffuse^[16]. Lauren's classification is of the remarkable value in treatment decisions and has prognostic and predictive value. With an advance of high throughput technologies, the value of Lauren's classification has been questioned. The landmark work from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) has provided a new molecular classification subdividing GC in chromosomal instable (CIN), genomically stable (GS), microsatellite instable (MSI) and Epstein-Barr-Virus positive (EBV) tumor groups^[17]. GS group shows relatively strong overlap with Lauren's diffuse type tumors. Hence, one of the main advantages of TCGA molecular classification may be in further subdivision of intestinal subtype of GC tumors in CIN, MSI and EBV. Those tumor subtypes carry not only unique molecular patterns relevant for understanding

the etiology but have potential predictive value for implementation of individualized novel therapeutic strategies.

CURRENTLY AVAILABLE BIOMARKERS FOR GC

To date, different molecules have been analyzed as potential biomarkers in patients with GC; however, as of 2018, there are no single blood-based biomarker that have sufficient sensitivity or specificity for implementation in GC screening routinely^[8]. Several well-known antigens including carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA), cancer antigen 19-9 (CA19-9) and cancer antigen 72-4 (CA72-4) have been investigated in relation to GC^[18]. Although the concentration of those antigens may be increased in some GC patients, the overall sensitivity of individual or combined CEA, CA19-9 and CA72-4 levels remains of insufficient discriminative power necessary for GC screening^[18]. Besides typical "tumor-based" biomarkers, an effort has been made to establish a "functional" test for gastric mucosa also called "serological biopsy"^[15]. Pepsinogen I and II (PG I and PG II) concentration correlate with AG, which is the preneoplastic condition of intestinal type of GC is intestinal type of GC, and is frequently used in Asian countries. In Europe the PGI and PG II panels is expanded by the use of Gastrin-17 (G17). G17 is produced by the G-cells and stimulates the hydrochloric acid and pepsinogen production and therefore is part of the same physiological cascade as PGI. Unfortunately, the use of G17 is hampered by the stability of the peptide and the net benefit in addition to PGI and II is a matter of ongoing research^[19]. According to the recent systemic reviews and meta-analysis the sensitivity for AG identification is up to 70%^[20,21]. Thus, PGI and PG II may be helpful for serological identification of patients with probability of AG in regions with limited resources and availability of endoscopy. However, upper GI endoscopy with careful assessment of the gastric mucosa and targeted biopsies remains the gold-standard for GC screening and identification of patients at risk. One's upper GI endoscopy is performed, there is no additional diagnostic benefit of PGI/PG II/G17 for instance in GC screening or risk assessment^[22].

MiRNAs have gathered a lot of scientific attention during the past 10 years. As we have mentioned above, miRNAs are unique subgroup of ncRNAs with crucial role in multiple biological processes. MiRNAs are involved in regulation of different molecular pathways including cell differentiation, cell cycle progression or apoptosis through post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression^[23]. Deregulation of miRNAs can influence carcinogenesis through mRNA targets encoding tumor suppressor genes or oncogenes^[24]. Due to its unique biogenesis, miRNAs have several features that make them an attractive group of molecules in biomarker research field. MiRNAs are very stable and are easily and reproducibly retrieved from different biological material including tissues,

blood, feces, saliva, ascites and even paraffin embedded blocks^[25-32]. Due to those properties, miRNAs carry a huge potential as biomarkers and have been recently extensively explored in GC. For detailed information we kindly refer to our recent reviews^[4,5].

MIRNA ALTERATIONS IN GC AND FUNCTIONAL ROLE

Multiple studies have demonstrated the differential expression of miRNAs in GC tissues and its functional role in GC has been suggested^[4]. It is believed that miRNA alterations appear early in the cascade of the preneoplastic events. For instance, differential expression of miRNAs is identified in subjects with *H. pylori* infection and expression of miR-155 and miR-223 showed gradual increase in correlation to Correa's cascade both in antrum and corpus mucosa^[25]. TCGA group has shown that different molecular subtypes of GC have unique miRNA expression profiles^[17], which is in support of several other profiling studies^[26,33]. Understanding of the mechanisms of miRNA expression such as CpG island promoter methylation, provides valuable information for biomarker research. For example, miR-137 was implicated in GI cancers showing differential methylation in colorectal cancer (CRC) and GC patients, although the magnitude of changes was superior in CRC^[34]. MiR-29c expression is reduced early in gastric carcinogenesis and has been suggested as a diagnostic and therapeutic biomarker for patients with GC^[35]. The interplay of the two transcription factors HNF4 γ and NR2F2 and their coordinated regulation by miR-30 and miR-194, respectively, may represent a miRNA related network responsible for expression regulation of intestinal transcripts in the development of intestinal metaplasia^[36].

Another growing field of miRNA research in GC is related to the analysis of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in miRNA genes. Variation in miRNA-sequences may lead to the expression differences and modify regulatory function of miRNAs^[37,38]. To date, both gene sequences encoding precursor miRNAs^[39,40] as well as variations in miRNA binding regions of target genes^[41] have been extensively explored in cancer studies. The most investigated SNPs in GC are related to miR-27a, miR-146a, miR-421, miR-449a; miR-196a-2, miR-492 and miR-608^[42]. Although some associations between the risk of GC development and miRNA-related SNPs have been suggested, none of the identified associations is ready to be applied in clinical settings in particular in GC screening.

MIRNAS AS BIOMARKERS

Having shown the miRNA changes in tumor tissues, multiple research groups simultaneously evaluated the potential of miRNAs as non-invasive biomarkers in various specimens. Three publications related to large B-cell lymphoma, prostate and lung cancer appeared in 2008

strongly suggesting miRNAs as potential biomarkers for cancer^[43–45]. This knowledge has been further extended to systematic analysis in feces in CRC^[28], pancreatic cancer^[29], and other diseases and specimens. Recently, it has been shown that miRNAs can be reproducibly measured in peritoneal fluid and ascites from cancer patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis and ascites^[31,46]. It seems that basically any kind of body fluids (breast milk, urine, synovial fluids etc.) have measurable expression of miRNAs, which may potentially reflect a normal condition or be associated with pathophysiological alterations and therefore used as a biomarkers^[5]. With existence of the overwhelming data to miRNAs in GC, we provide in the next chapter the most comprehensive summary of the exiting published data to miRNAs as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers in GC.

METHODS AND LITERATURE SEARCH

To identify all available papers, we performed a systematic search with following steps: (1) Identify papers in MEDLINE/PUBMED using following criteria: gastric cancer, stomach cancer, microRNA, miRNA, biomarkers, plasma, serum, blood (until 30th November 2017); (2) We further screened all available abstracts manually one by one and excluded following papers: reviews, duplicates, retracted work, paper primarily related to miRNAs in tissues, *in vitro* or as prognostic or predictive biomarkers, papers without confirmed GC at the time point of the analysis or missing control group for direct comparison; (3) in January 2018 we updated the list including the papers published in December 2017 by applying more stringed criteria: diagnostic biomarkers, GC, plasma, serum. Overall, we obtained 75 original papers analyzing the expression of miRNAs in blood/serum/plasma between GC patients and controls. Among those, 18 papers refer to profiling of circulating miRNAs in GC compared to controls. Seventy-four full text papers and 1 abstract were systematically reviewed and the data were entered into the database. GraphPad Prism 7 (La Jolla, CA, United States) was used to create the figures.

MIRNA AS DIAGNOSTIC BIOMARKERS IN GC: TIMELINE AND PUBLICATION TRENDS

The first data to potential of miRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers in GC appeared in 2010 only two years after the first reports to detection of circulating miRNAs. We identified 75 publications from 2010 to 2017 where miRNA expression was studied in blood of GC patients and controls independently to the primary aim of the study. Over the period of 8 years, as shown in the Figure 1, we observed an increasing number of publication per year with maximum of 21 papers published in 2015 suggesting an increasing interest to the topic during the last years. To access the regional differences, we evaluated the origin of the used specimens as a surrogate. Majority of GC specimens and according published papers ori-

ginate from China (55/75 or 73.3%) followed by Japan, Taiwan, Korea and others, further suggesting the regional difference in priority of the research topic and potential clinical relevance (Figure 1B).

SCIENTIFIC EVIDENCE AND REPORTING QUALITY

As next, we aimed to systematically assess the reporting quality and translational potential of the published work. For this, we created 4 internal quality measures: (1) how many samples from GC patients was used; (2) is TNM-Stage reported; (3) is Lauren's classification reported; and (4) proportion of patients with TNM I/II in total amount of GC tumors. Figure 1C shows the number of GC samples used among the 75 published papers. The median number included in the study was 57 (range 3–285) and total 5699 specimens were analyzed. Among those, 5 reports included over 200 samples each with highest number of included samples published by Qiu *et al.*^[47].

As we have shown in the introduction part, the Lauren's classification is among the most valuable tools to assess the histological subtype, which further correlates with molecular subtype^[17]. Unfortunately, the data to Lauren's classification were available only for 16% (12/74) of the studies. TNM staging was used as another reporting quality surrogate as it correlated with prognosis and potential biomarkers need to be able to identify early cancers. Interestingly, TNM staging was reported only in 69% (51/74) of studies, which may substantially limit the quality assessment of the published work (Figure 1D). Among the studies with reported TNM staging, the proportion of GC with relatively early stages (TNM I/II) was quite heterogenic between the studies (Figure 1E). Only two studies focused solely on samples from GC patients with TNM stage I and II, while 68.8% (35/51) of studies had more than 50% of samples from patients with metastatic GC (lymph node or distant metastases).

TECHNICAL DIFFERENCES AMONG THE STUDIES

Among the identified papers, 38 papers studied the expression of miRNAs in plasma, 32 studies in serum, 3 studies in blood and only 2 reports for peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) (Figure 2). For miRNA extraction, the mirVana, Trizol and miRNeasy were the most frequently used kits. There were substantial differences between the methods for detection/analysis. SYBR Green-based method was applied in 57% (42/74) more frequently used as TaqMan-based method (Figure 2C).

As next, we focused on the data to internal normalization of circulating miRNAs (Figure 2D). In several previous publications, RNU6b has been clearly criticized for unsuitability for normalization of blood samples as it shows different biogenesis, stability and may not reflect biogenesis of miRNAs^[5]. Nevertheless, almost

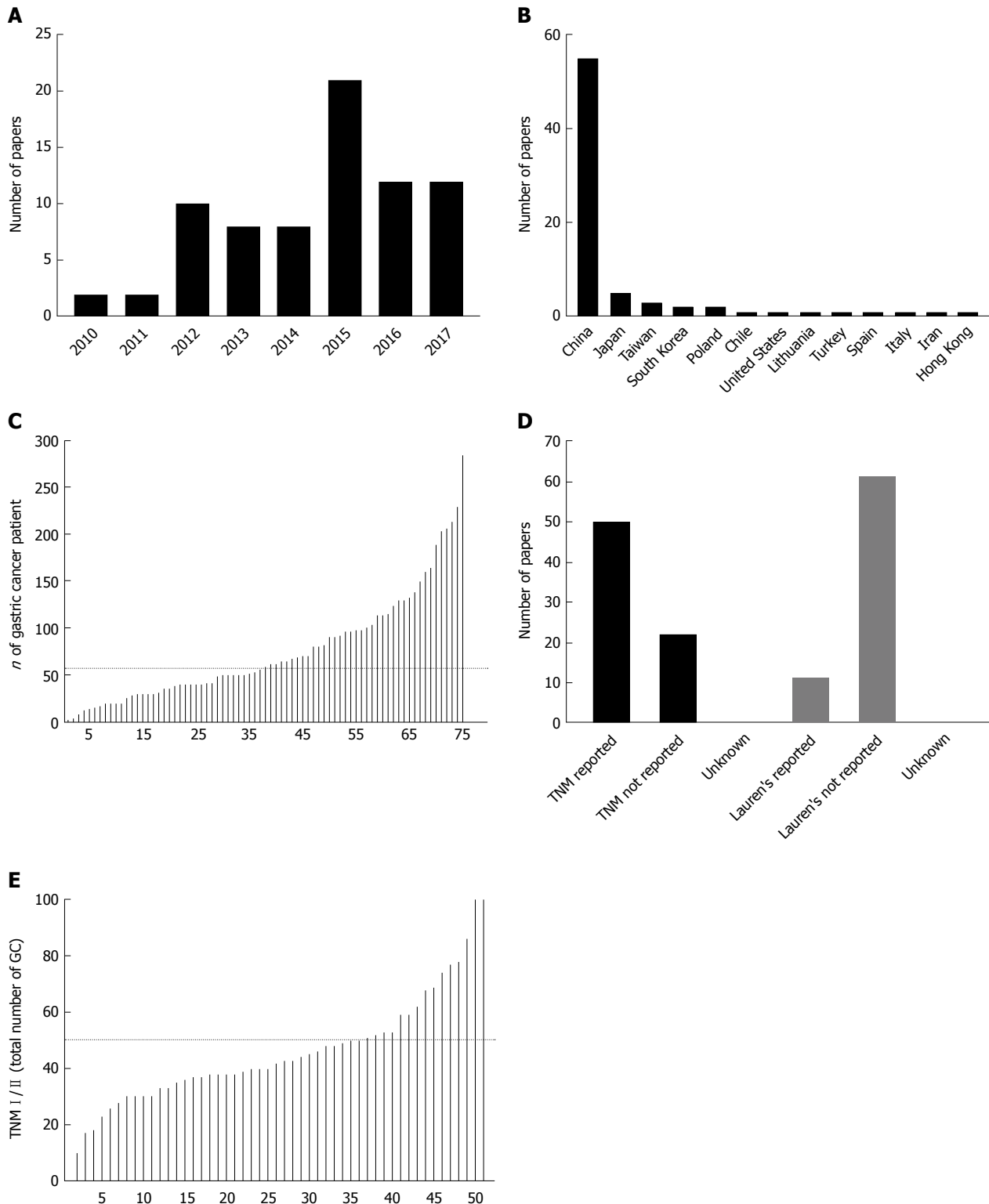


Figure 1 Characteristics of the studies to microRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers in gastric cancer. In total we have identified 75 studies. A: Time trends in number of published papers starting 2010 to 2017. B: Number of papers dependent on the origin of GC tumor specimens studied. C: Total number of specimens per publication/analysis from GC patients studied. D: Number of papers reporting or not reporting TNM staging or Lauren's classification. E: Proportion of patients with early (TNM stage I and II) to total number of GC specimen's studied. GC: Gastric cancer.

60% of studies used the RNU6b-method for internal normalization of blood specimens. In similar fashion, 15% of papers applied miR-16-based method (alone or in combination with other methods), although an increasing evidence suggests that miR-16-based method may not

be the best way for normalization of circulating miRNAs. Spiked-in-based method (most frequently cel-miR-39) is still considered as the most appropriate currently available methods for miRNAs normalization in blood and was used in up to 26% of studies, even though, it may

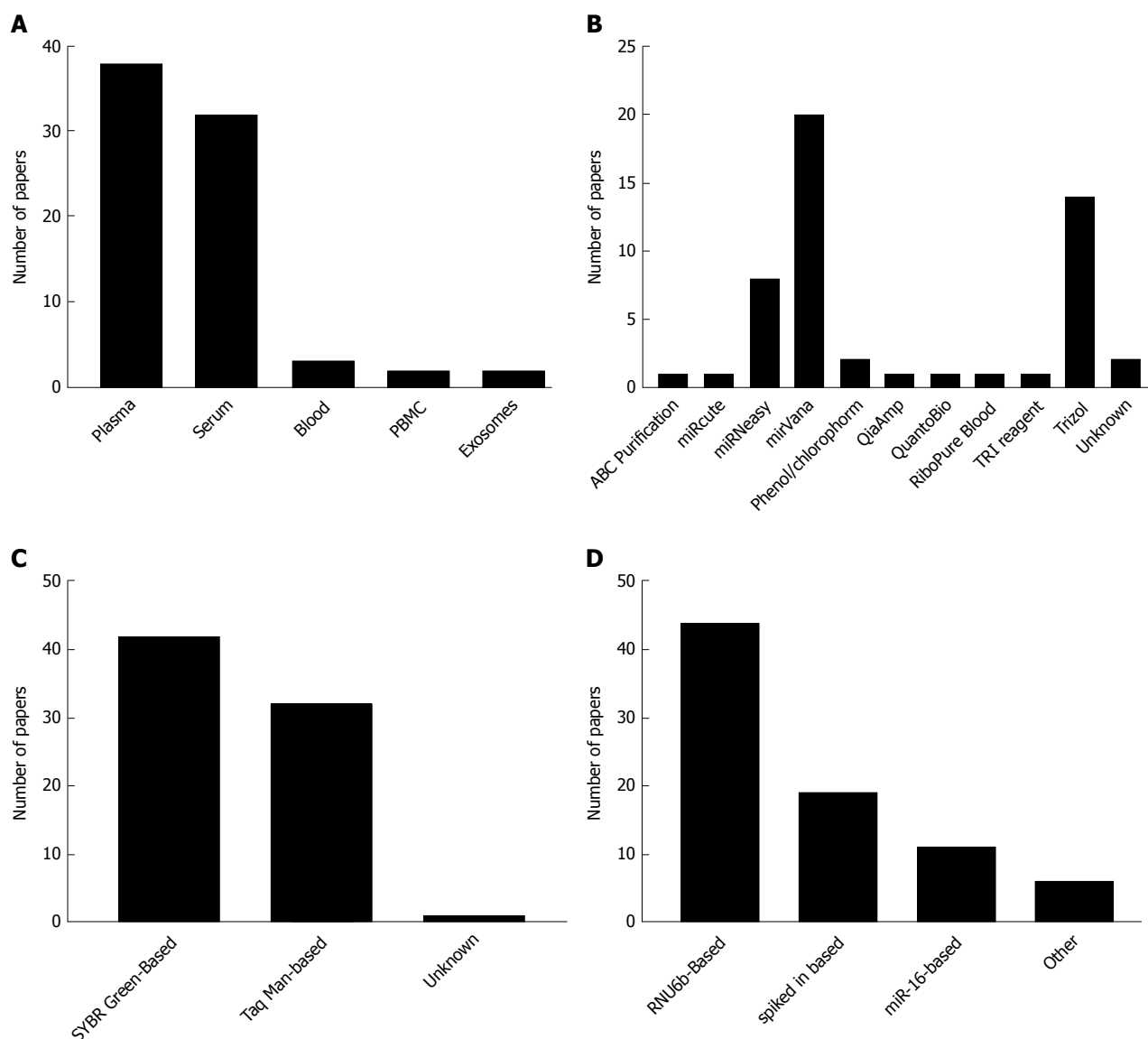


Figure 2 Characteristics of the studies to microRNAs as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers in gastric cancer based on technical characteristics. A: Number of studies based on the used blood specimens. B: Number of papers using various extraction kits. C: Number of papers with various method for miRNA analysis. D: Number of studies using different normalization methods for miRNA analysis. Since several studies used one or several methods, the total number may exceed 75.

probably not be the perfect long-term solution for miRNA normalization.

Challenges with normalization of circulating miRNAs may probably be the most disappointing issue related to this topic. Several papers deal with the normalization issues and compare several methods, most frequently miR-16 and RNU6b. For instance, Song *et al.*^[48] studied the expression of several miRNAs in blood and showed that there is quite a large degree of variation among miRNAs. In particular, the expression of miR-21 was higher in stage IV GC patients; however, only if the samples were normalized to miR-16, miR-93 or miR-16 and miR-93 together. This was not the case if normalization was done based on the volume^[48]. Interestingly, both miR-16 and miR-93 showed substantial variation and lower expression in healthy controls arguing against its usefulness as a normalizer. Peng *et al.*^[49] studied the expression of miR-191 and miR-425 in serum of 57

GC patients. No difference was found if the authors used RNU6b, while miR-16-based normalization led to significantly higher values of miR-191. In another study, Shiotani *et al.*^[50] also compared different normalization methods in GC samples from GC patients after endoscopic submucosal dissection. The authors conclude that only normalization to miR-16, but not RNU6b, led to the higher expression of miR-106b and let-7. According to our search (Table 1)^[26,47,48,51-120], there are 3 reports to differential expression of miR-16 in GC with 399 studies samples^[51-53]. Two reports show up- and one report downregulation of miR-16 in plasma and sera samples, further questioning the usefulness of miR-16 for normalization of circulating miRNAs.

The approach of miR-16-based normalization may be also called as a "proportional normalization" as rather the proportion between certain miRNAs (in comparison to miR-16) and not the absolute value of studied

Table 1 Differentially expressed circulating microRNAs in gastric cancer

microRNA	Changes in GC	Changes in GC tissue	Controls (n)	GC (n)	TNM reported	ROC	Validation	Source (PI/BI/Se)	qPCR	Normalization (qPCR)	Ref.
let-7a	↓	↓	30	69	Yes		Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[56]
	↓	↓	45	80	Yes			Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[57]
	↔		30	30	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
let-7c	↔		202	214	No			Serum	SYBR	standard curve	[59]
let-7e	↑		82	82	No	0.7	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
let-7f	↔		30	30	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
	↑		202	214	No			Serum	SYBR	standard curve	[59]
let-7g	↔		30	30	No			Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
let-7i	↑		202	214	No			Serum	SYBR	standard curve	[59]
miR-1	↑		127	164	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	volume	[62]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
miR-100	↑		47	50	Yes	0.71		Serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[52]
miR-103	↑		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
	↔		50	50	No	0.548		Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[65]
miR-106a	↑		30	69	Yes		Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[56]
	↑		27	41	No	0.684		PBMC	SYBR	RNU6b	[66]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑	↑	22	48	NA			Serum	NA	NA	[67]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[68]
	↑		130	130	No	0.786	Yes	Serum+ Exosomes	TaqMan	miR-191-5p cel-miR-39	[69]
miR-106b	↑	↑	30	69	Yes	0.721	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[56]
	↑		90	90	Yes	0.773	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 RNU6b	[71]
	↓		36	40	Yes	0.856		Serum	SYBR	QuantoEC	[72]
	↑		65	65	Yes	0.898		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[73]
miR-107	↑	↑	36	36	No	0.63		Serum	SYBR	5srRNA	[74]
	↑		14	14	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[75]
	↔		50	50	No	0.563		Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[65]
miR-10b-5p	↑	↑	167	203	Yes	0.627	Yes	Serum+ Exosomes	SYBR	cel-miR-39 miR-16	[76]
miR-122	↔		36	96	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	ath-miR-159a	[77]
miR-1233	↓		3	3	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[78]
miR-130a	↑	↑	41	41	No	0.905		Serum	SYBR	RNU6B	[79]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-132-3p	↑	↑	167	203	Yes	0.652	Yes	Serum+ Exosomes	SYBR	cel-miR-39 miR-16	[76]
miR-139	↓	↑	18	25	No	0.940		Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[80]
miR-140-5p	↑		50	50	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
miR-141	↓		3	3	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[78]
	↓		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-142-3p	↓		285	285	Yes	0.839	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[47]
miR-143-3p	↔		73	206	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[82]
miR-144	↓	↓	40	96	Yes	0.821		Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[83]
miR-146a	↔		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↔		73	206	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[82]
	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-146b	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-148a	↔		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↓		285	285	Yes	0.842	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[47]
	↓	↓	39	38	Yes	0.349		Plasma	TaqMan	miR-16-5p	[26]
miR-151-5p	↑		130	230	Yes	0.625	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
miR-155	↑		20	30	No		Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[84]
	↔		15	15	No			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[85]
miR-15b-5p	↑	↑	100	100	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[86]
miR-16	↑		106	160	Yes	0.768-0.925	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[51]
	↑		47	50	Yes	0.90		Serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[52]
	↓		129	189	Yes	0.772	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-16-5p	[53]

miR-17	↑		27	41	No	0.743		PBMC	SYBR	RNU6b	[66]
	↓		36	40	Yes	0.879		Serum	SYBR	QuantoEC	[72]
	↑		30	69	Yes		Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[56]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↔		20	20	No			Serum+	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[69]
								Exosomes			
miR-181a	↑	↑	18	25	No	0.882		Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[80]
miR-181b	↓		89	92	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
miR-181c	↑	↑	60	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[87]
miR-185	↑	↑	109	133	Yes	0.65	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39 RNU6b	[88]
	↑	↔	167	203	Yes	0.637	Yes	Serum+	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[76]
								Exosomes		miR-16	
miR-187-3p	↑		61	61	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[89]
miR-18a	↑		50	50	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
	↑	↑	65	104	Yes	0.805		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[90]
miR-191	↑		82	82	No	0.63	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↑		58	57	Yes	0.849		Serum	TaqMan	miR-16	[49]
miR-192	↔		36	96	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	ath-miR-159a	[77]
miR-194	↑		3	3	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[78]
	↔		50	50	No	0.512		Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[65]
miR-195	↓		285	285	Yes	0.765	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[47]
	↓	↓	36	62	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[91]
	↓		190	20	No			Plasma	(TaqMan)	global mean	[92]
	↑	↔	167	203	Yes	0.683	Yes	Serum+	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[76]
								Exosomes		miR-16	
mir-196a	↓	↑	14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
	↑	↑	126	98	Yes	0.864		Plasma	SYBR	miR-16	[93]
miR-196b	↑	↑	126	98	Yes	0.811		Plasma	SYBR	miR-16	[93]
miR-198	↔		30	30	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
miR-199a-3p	↑		70	80	Yes	0.818	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[94]
	↑		130	230	Yes	0.837	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
miR-19a	↑		50	50	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[68]
	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	miR-191-5p	
miR-19b	↑									cel-miR-39	[68]
	↑		3	3	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[78]
	↓		129	189	Yes	0.749	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39,	[53]
	↑		130	130	No	0.769	Yes	Serum+	TaqMan	miR-16-5p	
								Exosomes		cel-miR-39	[69]
miR-200b	↓		14	17	no			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-200c	↑		15	52	Yes	0.715		Blood	SYBR	RNU6b	[95]
										5SrRNA	
miR-203	↑		100	98	Yes			Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[96]
	↓		89	92	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
	↓		22	130	Yes	0.707	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[97]
miR-204	↓		40	115	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[98]
miR-206	↓		150	150	Yes	0.89		Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[99]
miR-20a	↑		127	164	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	volume	[62]
	↑		90	90	Yes	0.859	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑	↑	30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[100]
	↑	↑	109	133	Yes	0.67	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39 RNU6b	[88]
	↑	↑	28	28	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[101]
	↑	↔	167	203	Yes	0.637	Yes	Serum+	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[76]
								Exosomes		miR-16	
	↑		12	12	No			Serum	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[102]
miR-21	↑		30	69	Yes		Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[56]
	↑		20	53	Yes	0.853		Blood	SYBR	RNU6b	[103]
	↑		70	70	Yes	0.794	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[104]
	↑		39	30	Yes	0.81		Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[105]
	↑		20	40	Yes			Serum	All-in-one	Volume miR-16,	[48]
										miR-93	
	↔		90	90	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↔		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↔		15	15	No			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[85]
	↑		50	50	Yes	0.912		Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[106]
	↑		50	50	Yes	0.898		PBMC	SYBR	RNU6b	[106]
	↑	↑	14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
	↑		89	92	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[68]
										miR-191-5p	

miR-210	↑	↑	109	133	Yes	0.75	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39 RNU6b	[88]
miR-212	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-218	↓		70	70	Yes	0.743	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[104]
	↓		56	68	Yes			Serum	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[107]
miR-220	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-221	↑		82	82	No	0.7	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↑		90	90	Yes	0.796	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-222	↑		82	82	No	0.65	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↑		56	114	Yes	0.85		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[108]
miR-223	↑		70	70	Yes	0.91	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[104]
	↑		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↑		47	50	Yes	0.85		Serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[52]
	↑	↑	50	50	Yes	0.81		Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[109]
	↑		3	3	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[78]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39 miR-191-5p	[68]
	↑	↑	20	15	Yes			Plasma	NCode	cel-miR-39/-54/-238; miR-16	[110]
miR-23a	↑	↑	39	38	Yes	0.671		Plasma	TaqMan	miR-16-5p	[26]
	↑		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-23b	↑		50	138	Yes	0.80		Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[111]
miR-25	↔		10	10	No			Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[104]
	↑		106	160	Yes	0.694-0.925	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[51]
	↑	↑	20	20	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; RNU6b	[71]
	↑	↑	109	133	Yes	0.65	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39; RNU6b	[88]
	↔	↑	70	70	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[112]
	↑		14	14	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[75]
	↑		65	65	Yes	0.817		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[73]
miR-26a	↓		285	285	Yes	0.882	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[47]
miR-26b	↔		30	30	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
miR-27a	↑		127	164	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	volume	[62]
	↑		82	82	No	0.67	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↔		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↑	↑	35	35	Yes	0.70	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[85]
miR-27b	↑		82	82	No	0.66	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
miR-296	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
	↑	↑	167	203	Yes	0.652	Yes	Serum+ Exosomes	SYBR	cel-miR-39 miR-16	[76]
miR-30a-5p	↔		20	20	No			Serum+ Exosomes	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[69]
miR-30c	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-31	↓		89	92	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
miR-32	↑	↑	40	40	No			Plasma	SYBR	RNU6b	[113]
miR-323-3p	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-331	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-335	↓	↓	7	4	No			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[114]
miR-34	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
miR-346	↓		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-34a	↑		127	164	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	volume	[62]
miR-365	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-370	↑	↑	12	40	Yes	0.79		Plasma	TaqMan	miR-16	[115]
miR-371-5p	↑		61	61	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[89]
miR-374	↑	↑	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-375	↓	↓	20	20	No	0.835		serum	TaqMan	RNU6b	[116]
	↓	↓	39	38	Yes	0.32		Plasma	TaqMan	miR-16-5p	[26]
miR-376a	↔	↑	108	65	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[117]
miR-376c	↑		82	82	No	0.71	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑	↑	108	65	Yes	0.77		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[117]

miR-378	↑	↓	61	61	Yes	0.861	Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[89]
	↔		30	30	No			plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↓		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-421	↑		17	40	Yes	0.773		PBMC	SYBR	RNU6b	[118]
	↑		50	50	No		Yes	Serum (?)	SYBR	RNU6b	[119]
	↑		90	90	No	0.779		Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[120]
miR-423-5p	↑		90	90	No	0.821		PBMC	SYBR	RNU6b	[120]
	↑		127	164	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	volume	[62]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
miR-425	↔		58	57	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	miR-16	[49]
miR-433	↔		15	31	Yes			Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[70]
	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-451	↑	↓	30	56	Yes	0.96	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[54]
	↔		90	90	Yes			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-484	↑		106	160	Yes	0.790-0.850	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[51]
	↔		73	206	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[82]
	↓	↓	14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
miR-486	↑	↓	30	56	Yes	0.92	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[54]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
miR-501-3p	↑		106	160	Yes	0.779-0.863	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[51]
	↓		14	17	No			Plasma	SYBR	Sp6	[64]
	↔		73	206	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	RNU6b	[82]
miR-518d	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
										cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-518f	↑	↔	20	20	Yes		Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; miR-191-5p	[68]
miR-627	↑	↑	111	123	Yes	0.937	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
miR-629	↑	↑	111	123	Yes	0.912	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
miR-652	↑	↑	111	123	Yes	0.918	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	RNU6B	[81]
miR-720	↔		30	30	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[58]
miR-744	↑		82	82	No	0.74	Yes	Serum	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[60]
	↔		30	30	No			Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39	[63]
miR-92a	↑		106	160	Yes	0.732-0.913	Yes	Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39	[51]
	↓		89	92	Yes		Yes	Serum	SYBR	miR-16	[61]
miR-92b	↑	↑	109	133	Yes	0.69	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	cel-miR-39; RNU6b	[88]
										cel-miR-39; RNU6b	[71]
miR-93	↑	↑	20	20	Yes			Plasma	TaqMan	cel-miR-39; RNU6b	[71]
miR-940	↑		65	65	Yes	0.756		Plasma	TaqMan	RNU6b	[73]
	↓	↓	105	115	Yes	0.96	Yes	Plasma	SYBR	miR-16	[55]

GC: Gastric cancer; phen/chlor: Phenol-chloroform method; SYBR: SYBR Green; NA: Non available.

miRNAs is used. This has been implemented by multiple studies and has been shown of potential diagnostic benefit independently to its scientific objectivity and validity. For instance, we analyzed miRNAs expression in ascites and showed that miR-21 was upregulated in patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis compared to control group^[31]. However, also patients with peritonitis demonstrated similar increase as patients with peritoneal carcinomatosis. To overcome this limitation, we used the proportion of miR-21 (cancer-associated) and miR-223 (inflammation-associated) to differentiate the groups^[31]. For miR-16, the very high values of miR-16 in erythrocytes strongly suggest that other factors such as tumor anemia or hemolysis may have an additional impact on the results. Nevertheless, this does not necessarily mean that miR-16 is not suitable, but rather that we need to know the influential factors and to know exact biogenesis of miR-16 in circulation. Further studies are needed to provide the comprehensive view on patients-related factors.

An alternative normalization way has been proposed

where multiple miRNAs can be used simultaneously. For instance, miRCURY LNA Universal RT microRNA PCR System offers internal standard including miR-103a-3p, miR-191-5p, miR-423-3p and -5p and miR-451. However, we strongly doubt the usefulness of this method, as every single of those selected miRNAs have been reported as deregulated in cancer and in particular GC (Table 1). Furthermore, miR-451 is highly dependent on hemolysis and may provide some unexpected bias in analysis. Thus, in similar way as addressed for miR-16, additional studies are needed to confirm the usefulness, biological suitability and stability of the methods.

DIFFERENTIALLY EXPRESSED CIRCULATING MIRNAS IN GC PATIENTS

In the Table 1, we have summarized the miRNAs that have been analyzed for the differential expression between GC patients and controls. According to our search, we identified 106 miRNAs that were studied in different studies. Among those, 13 miRNAs such as let-

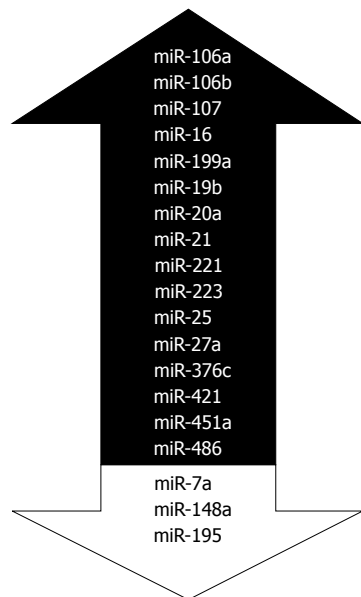


Figure 3 Schematic presentation of most frequently deregulated microRNAs in gastric cancer. Selection was made using following criteria: at least 3 reports with at least 2 reports with either up or downregulation.

7c, let-7g, miR-143-3p, miR-122, miR-192, miR-198 etc. showed no significant changes. As shown in Table 1, multiple miRNAs have conflicting results showing differential expression in one cohort while no changes found in another. In the Figure 3 we summarize the most frequently deregulated miRNAs. Those were selected using two criteria: (1) at least 3 publications and (2) at least two with reproducible report on increased or decreased expression. Among the most consistent miRNAs are the miR-20a, miR-223 and miR-421. Among the most studied is the miR-21 with total 13 reports. Summarizing the data to miR-21 expression, three reports showed no differences while 10 reports show an upregulation of miR-21 both in sera and in plasma of GC patients. As shown in the Table 1, multiple groups used samples from independent cohorts to confirm the results, which substantially contributes to the quality of the reports.

To estimate the diagnostic potential of miRNAs as biomarkers in GC, multiple studies provided receiver operator curves (ROC) values. For instance, Konishi *et al.*^[54] reported the diagnostic accuracy for miR-451 reaching 0.96 with calculated sensitivity of 96% and specificity of 100%. Liu *et al.*^[55] studied miR-940 and reported the ROC value of 0.96 although with slightly lower sensitivity 81.2% and specificity 98.6%. Although those results are striking, we need to keep in mind that validation of the results from independent groups or cohorts in prospective studies are still to come. We believe that the data from our summary table will be helpful for the future search, validation and discussion of the results.

PROFILING OF CIRCULATING MIRNAS IN GC PATIENTS

It is well known that the most promising way to identify

the potential biomarkers is the unbiased profiling of the samples. This approach was applied in the pivotal work by Chen *et al.*^[45] in 2008 in lung cancers, where the authors used multiple pooled samples for profiling and performed independent validation using qPCR. As shown in the Table 2^[47,51,53-55,58,60,62,64,68,76,78,81,82,88,92,121], this approach was very intensively used for miRNA-profiling in GC patients. Among the total eighteen miRNA-profiling studies, 50% (9/18) reported the use of the pooled samples. Majority of studies used single technical pooled profiling from 5-40 samples for GC and controls. Although, this may be an appropriate way for proof-of-principle studies, it has several limitations where inappropriate changes of miRNAs in few subjects may create very strong deviation and bias and therefore independent validation is mandatory. Among the 18 profiling studies (Table 2), 11 reports studied miRNA in plasma, 6 in sera and 1 in blood samples. From the technical perspective there was substantial variation in use of extraction kits and profiling platforms used for analysis. Similar to the overall data in total cohort (Table 1), researches from China with 12 profiling studies provided the most overwhelming data. Remaining work comes from Poland, Japan, Turkey, Hong-Kong and United States. The first studies tend to use relatively small number of samples while more recent studies provide increasing number of samples and include an impressive number of samples for validation analysis as well^[68,76].

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this review, we systematically summarized and analyzed the existing data to miRNAs as non-invasive biomarkers for GC. There is no doubt that further studies with an improved study design will follow and it is a matter of time until the miRNA-based biomarkers will enter the clinical studies either in oncologic patients or patients with other diseases. However, following our critical review of the existing papers we would like to provide several cautionary notes for improvement.

Quality of reports

The era of proof-of-principle studies in GC has passed and with 75 published data it is time to improve the quality of the work. There are several ways that may be considered: (1) description of patient's cohort including Lauren's Classification, TNM staging and precise number of patients is necessary; (2) reporting of the methodological steps (extraction kits, measurements, reproducibility, validation etc.) need to be carefully reviewed and reported; (3) for primary research an independent cohort of samples need to be included; and (4) reporting of ROC/AUC values, sensitivity and specificity are currently used in quite biased way in proportion of GC patients to controls mostly in 1:1; however, in real-life settings the proportion will be at least 100-1000:1. Unless the prospective study is done it is clear that the real-life settings are not possible to achieve and additional effort is needed to increase the number of

Table 2 Profiling of circulating microRNAs in gastric cancer

Ref.	Year	Source	Extraction Kit	Platform	Sample Origin	GC (number of technical runs)	Controls (number of technical runs)	pooled samples	GC (number of pooled samples)	Controls (number of pooled samples)
Liu <i>et al</i> ^[62]	2011	Serum	phen/chlor	Solexa	China	1	1	Yes	20	20
Song <i>et al</i> ^[60]	2012	Serum	miRNeasy	qPCR-array	China	1	1	Yes	14	14
Liu <i>et al</i> ^[89]	2012	Serum	mirVana	Agilent	China	7	10	No		
Konishi <i>et al</i> ^[54]	2012	Plasma	mirVana	microarray	Japan	3	3	No		
Gorur <i>et al</i> ^[92]	2013	Plasma	high-pure miRNA Isolation	TaqMan Array	Turkey	1	1	Yes	20	190
Shah <i>et al</i> ^[121]	2013	Blood	miRNeasy	Geniom Biochip	Poland	1	1	Yes	8	19
Li <i>et al</i> ^[38]	2013	Plasma	mirVana	Agilent	China	20	20	No		
Zhu <i>et al</i> ^[51]	2014	Plasma	miRNeasy	TaqMan Array	China	1	1	Yes	40	40
Zhang <i>et al</i> ^[53]	2015	Plasma	mirVana	Agilent	China	16	18	No		
Zhou <i>et al</i> ^[88]	2015	Plasma	mirVana	Exiqon	China	3	1	Yes	30	10
Shin <i>et al</i> ^[81]	2015	Plasma	Trizol	miRCURY LNA	China	5	5	No		
Zhang <i>et al</i> ^[78]	2015	Plasma	miRNeasy	Agilent	China	3	3	No		
Liu <i>et al</i> ^[55]	2016	Plasma	miRNeasy	miRCURY LNA	Hong-Kong	5	5	No		
Qiu <i>et al</i> ^[47]	2016	Plasma	miRNeasy	Agilent	China	1	1	Yes	5	5
Treece <i>et al</i> ^[64]	2016	Plasma	miRCURY	GastroGenus miR Panel	United States	17	14	No		
Jiang <i>et al</i> ^[82]	2017	Serum	unknown	miSeq	China	2	1	Yes	20	10
Huang <i>et al</i> ^[76]	2017	Serum	mirVana	Exiqon	China	3	1	Yes	30	10
Sierzeza <i>et al</i> ^[68]	2017	Serum	miRNA ABC Purification	TaqMan Array	Poland	20	20	No		

GC: Gastric cancer; phen/chlor: Phenol-chloroform method.

control sample.

Technical comparison between the studies

In the present review of the studies, there is a substantial technical heterogeneity among the studies: various extraction kits, qPCR methods and most importantly normalization. We have just recently published our data showing the differences between various extraction kits and miRNA expression in ascites^[31]. Those results need to be taking to account and an independent validation of the primary samples will be needed. As we have recently reviewed^[5], use of serum and plasma will probably have an independent effect on recovery and stability of miRNAs. Besides, contamination with various parts of circulating cells (erythrocytes, thrombocytes) may also provide an additional bias and caution in interpreting of miRNA data is necessary. As reviewed above, one of the largest differences among the studies is related to the choice of reference genes for normalization of miRNAs. Here we would like to caution the use of RNU6b for normalization of miRNAs and also probably reduce the use of miR-16 for normalization of circulating miRNAs unless additional studies provide the evidence for the objectivity of measurements.

High-risk patients

Taking to account the unique biology of GC, further focus should be made to identify the high-risk patients with the highest risk of GC development. For instance, patients with moderate to severe AG or IM are at increased risk for development of intestinal type of GC. Here, much

more effort needs to be done to characterize the miRNA changes not only in GC but also in patients with preneoplastic conditions or lesions. It would be extremely interesting to know the cascade of changes in miRNA expression in subjects with hereditary diffuse GC.

GC-heterogenic disease

In currently available studies, all GC subtypes are pooled together and most effort is made to identify "all fits one" biomarkers for GC. This is definitely the most desirable way, where all GC patients could be diagnosed with the same biomarkers; however, we need also keep in mind that GC is a heterogenic disease with unique molecular alterations^[17]. Since GC shows subtype-unique miRNA alterations, it may be very likely that circulating miRNAs, at least partly, may behave differently between intestinal and diffuse types of GC. With the knowledge of TCGA molecular classification, it would also very exciting to see if different molecular subtypes have characteristic circulating miRNA expression pattern.

Beyond miRNAs: Value of isomiR's in GC

High throughput genomic data sequencing showed that conventional miRNAs may differ both in length of the molecule and its' sequence^[122,123]. These variant miRNA-sequences are now being referred to as isoforms of miRNAs or isomiR's. Up to date, the role of these molecules in GC remains largely unexplored. Nevertheless, increasing number of studies point out important deregulation patterns of isomiR's in cancer. For instance, in a recent study, we identified 219 deregulated isomiR's

s between gastrointestinal stromal tissue and tumor adjacent tissues^[124]. To our knowledge, the only study that investigated isomiR's in GC found that certain isomiR-types preferentially occur in normal gastric tissue but other types prefer GC tissue^[122]. Although these data may be available, no published data is available to isomiR's changes in blood samples of GC patients and may be focus of future studies.

Circulating tumor cells and miRNA analysis

As discussed in above, multiple studies have shown that circulating miRNAs may serve as diagnostic biomarkers for GC; however, the origin of these molecules is not fully clear. Using profiling data from sera and tumor tissues, Sierzega *et al.*^[68] identified differences in expression pattern in GC patients; however, miRNA expression data analysis did not support the conclusion that circulating miRNA originate primarily from the tumor tissue. Hence, it remain open if exosomal miRNAs or even certain blood-cells-related miRNAs may be more promising to study^[27]. Furthermore, flow-cytometry or microfluidic-based single-cell or cell-type specific sequencing analysis may provide more specific transcription patterns with higher diagnostic and prognostic value^[125]. Therefore, additional studies employing single-cell based analysis from blood samples of GC patients are needed in order to identify more sensitive and specific biomarkers.

CONCLUSION

During the past 7 years, large amount of data has been gathered to support the need for intensive research on miRNA-based biomarkers in GC. In this review, we systematically summarized the data to miRNAs as non-invasive diagnostic biomarkers in GC. Meticulous analysis of the published work revealed relatively high level of heterogeneity not only in methodological and technical aspects, but also in reporting quality of the studies. At present, no miRNA-based biomarkers are ready to be implemented for GC-screening other than in research studies; however, the provided data clearly highlight the potential of miRNAs as diagnostic biomarkers and also highlight the need for the further improvement. We hope that this first of its kind comprehensive review with critical points may lead to a "next wave" of "second generation" comprehensive studies that take into account not only technical aspects of miRNA research but also unique aspects of GC biology.

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Nutritional issues in patients with obesity and cirrhosis

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Abstract

Obesity and metabolic syndrome are considered as responsible for a condition known as the non-alcoholic fatty liver disease that goes from simple accumulation of triglycerides to hepatic inflammation and may progress to cirrhosis. Patients with obesity also have an increased risk of primary liver malignancies and increased body mass index is a predictor of decompensation of liver cirrhosis. Sarcopenic obesity confers a risk of physical impairment and disability that is significantly higher than the risk induced by each of the two conditions alone as it has been shown to be an independent risk factor for chronic

liver disease in patients with obesity and a prognostic negative marker for the evolution of liver cirrhosis and the results of liver transplantation. Cirrhotic patients with obesity are at high risk for depletion of various fat-soluble, water-soluble vitamins and trace elements and should be supplemented appropriately. Diet, physical activity and protein intake should be carefully monitored in these fragile patients according to recent recommendations. Bariatric surgery is sporadically used in patients with morbid obesity and cirrhosis also in the setting of liver transplantation. The risk of sarcopenia, micronutrient status, and the recommended supplementation in patients with obesity and cirrhosis are discussed in this review. Furthermore, the indications and contraindications of bariatric surgery-induced weight loss in the cirrhotic patient with obesity are discussed.

Key words: Obesity; Cirrhosis; Sarcopenia; Malnutrition; Bariatric surgery

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Core tip: Obesity is a frequent cause of chronic liver disease that can progress to cirrhosis. Cirrhotic patients with obesity frequently have alterations in specific aspects of nutritional status, such as poor protein intake and micronutrient deficiencies. Diet, physical activity and protein intake should be carefully monitored. Bariatric surgery may be an option in the management of patients with morbid obesity and cirrhosis also in the setting of liver transplantation but scientific evidence is still scarce.

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INTRODUCTION

Liver cirrhosis and obesity: Definitions and epidemiology

Obesity is associated with many adverse consequences for health and is closely related to insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, and hypertension. Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) represents the hepatic manifestation of metabolic syndrome and is intimately related to the chronic intrahepatic inflammation that, in turn, is linked to adiposity and insulin resistance. Defined as a fatty infiltration of the liver exceeding 5% at histology in the absence of previous or ongoing significant alcohol consumption^[1] and/or drug and/or virus infection, NAFLD includes a wide spectrum of histopathological alterations ranging from simple steatosis (Figure 1A) to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) (Figure 1B) and cirrhosis (Figure 1C) with end-stage liver disease. Furthermore, NAFLD has been also shown to increase the risk of primary liver malignancies such as hepatocellular carcinoma

(HCC)^[2-4]. However, the vast majority of patients with NAFLD will not progress as only a minority of those with NASH (3%-5%)^[5] are at a high risk of developing chronic liver disease complications. In patients with NASH, 11% develop cirrhosis and approximately 40% of patients die within 15 years from any cause (of which 7.3% are due to liver-related complications, especially in those with advanced fibrosis or cirrhosis)^[6]. Obesity and the chronic inflammation associated with it also have a negative effect on health. Excessive adipose tissue leads to an increased production of adipokines (such as IL-6, TNF α , monocyte chemoattracting protein-1, and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1) with proinflammatory, pro-fibrogenic, pro-angiogenic, and pro-oxidant effects on several tissues. Few data exist regarding the epidemiological and clinical impact of obesity in patients with pre-existent liver disease, however, obesity is considered an independent risk factor for the presence of severe fibrosis, fibrosis progression, and cirrhosis^[7,8]. Several population-based studies have identified obesity as an independent risk factor for alcohol-induced liver damage. Indeed, ethanol influences the adipose tissue production of hormones and cytokines, and excess adiposity induces an exacerbation of the proinflammatory state. However, it is still unclear whether the hepatotoxic consequences of obesity and ethanol ingestion are additive or synergistic. The DIONYSOS study clearly showed a synergistic effect between alcohol consumption and elevated body mass index (BMI) on hepatic steatosis in a large cohort of subjects in Northern Italy^[9]. The prevalence of hepatic steatosis determined by ultrasonography was increased to 46% in subjects with a daily intake of > 60 g of alcohol and to 76% in patients with obesity compared to lean controls who only revealed hepatic steatosis in 16% of cases. Moreover, in individuals with obesity drinking > 60 g of alcohol per day, steatosis was found at an even higher level of 95% and the relative risk of cirrhosis increased more than six-fold in women with obesity and alcohol consumption (> 150 g/wk) vs normal weight and drinking < 70 g/wk women. Ekstedt *et al.*^[10] found an accelerated progression of fibrosis in patients with NAFLD who drank moderate amounts of alcohol (up to 140 g/wk). Liu *et al.*^[11] analyzed more than 1 million middle-aged women in the UK and reported that in women with obesity who drank > 150 g of alcohol/week, the relative risk of cirrhosis increased more than six fold.

In patients with chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV)-related liver disease and severe liver fibrosis or compensated cirrhosis, up to 43% had obesity, and 32% were overweight. Each quartile increase in BMI is associated with a 14% increase in the risk of clinical events in the follow-up (worsening of liver fibrosis or decompensation of cirrhosis over 3.5 years of follow-up)^[12]. Among obesity-related variables, the severity of insulin resistance and the histological grade of steatosis appeared as the factors more tightly associated with the progression of liver disease. Contrarily, weight loss is indeed beneficial in patients with advanced chronic liver disease, reducing the progression of fibrosis and cirrhosis^[13,14].

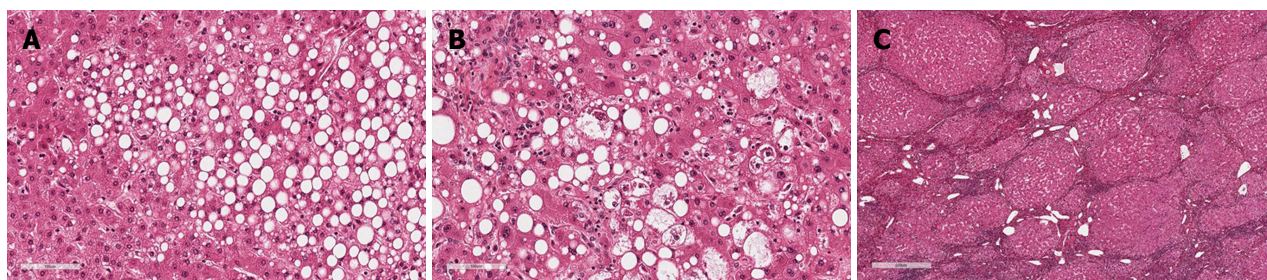


Figure 1 Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and hepatic histopathological alterations. NAFLD includes a wide spectrum of histopathological alterations ranging from simple steatosis (A) to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (B) and cirrhosis (C). NAFLD: Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.

Berzigotti *et al.*^[13,14] demonstrate that increased BMI is a strong predictor of decompensation in patients with compensated cirrhosis of various etiologies, independent of other previously described predictors such as albumin and portal hypertension. More specifically, clinical decompensation of cirrhosis (ascites, encephalopathy, or jaundice) developed in 14% of patients with normal weight, in 31% of overweight patients, and in 43% of patients with obesity. Obesity also negatively impacts portal hypertension. Indeed, when comparing the results after a 1-year course of timolol or a placebo, portal hypertension was reduced only in patients who were of normal weight or overweight, whereas patients with obesity showed a significant increase.

Even in patients with end-stage liver disease and, therefore, awaiting liver transplantation (LT), obesity could worsen the prognosis. Recent data suggest that in these patients, obesity increases substantially (HR = 13.1), independently and significantly ($P = 0.016$) the risk of portal vein thrombosis^[15], which may render the transplantation technically more difficult and increase the risk of portal thrombosis recurrence. Indeed, obesity is considered as a risk factor for venous thromboembolism as well as thrombosis of the hepatic artery^[16]. The proinflammatory, prothrombotic, and hypofibrinolytic milieu patients with obesity may be responsible for the local thrombophilia that favors portal vein thrombosis. Concerning perioperative LT complications, operative time, blood product usage, length of stay in the intensive care unit, infectious complications, and biliary complications requiring intervention have been shown to be higher in recipients with obesity^[17]. Despite the increased technical operative challenges and medical complexities associated with recipients with obesity, morbid obesity in itself should not be an absolute contraindication to LT as these patients have reasonable long-term outcomes. Although the complex interplay between obesity and cirrhosis is far from elucidated, undoubtedly alcohol, viral hepatitis, and obesity appear to be a dangerous combination. General impact of obesity on liver pathophysiology are summarized in Table 1.

RISK OF SARCOPENIA IN PATIENTS WITH OBESITY AND CIRRHOSIS

Sarcopenia is a syndrome characterized by progressive

and generalized loss of skeletal muscle mass and strength with a risk of adverse outcomes such as physical disability, poor quality of life, and death^[18]. The profound negative clinical impact of low skeletal muscle mass and function was originally described in the elderly, but its role is now unequivocally emerging in many chronic progressive diseases, such as chronic kidney disease, chronic heart failure, chronic pulmonary insufficiency, and type 2 diabetes^[18]. Recent evidence suggests that low muscle mass and function may have a similar negative impact in obesity despite the potential difficulties in identifying and defining muscle changes within the obese phenotype^[19]. Whatever the definition, the coexistence of sarcopenia and obesity in the same patient, now indicated as "sarcopenic obesity", confers a risk of physical impairment and disability that is significantly higher than the risk induced by each of the two conditions alone^[19-21]. The precise determination of body muscle and body mass fat requires the use of dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA), but an estimation can be obtained at the clinical level with the use of bioimpedance analysis (BIA) or anthropometric measurements^[18]. In this section, the role of sarcopenic obesity as a prognostic factor in patients with liver chronic disease will be briefly elucidated. The problem will be analyzed according to two different perspectives. First, the possible role played by sarcopenia as an independent risk factor for the occurrence of liver diseases in patients with obesity will be discussed and, second, the significance of sarcopenia as a negative prognostic marker for disease progression and death in patients with obesity and advanced liver disease will be addressed.

Sarcopenia as an independent risk factor for chronic liver disease in patients with obesity

As already mentioned above, NAFLD is today the most common liver disorder in Western countries and it is becoming the leading cause of chronic liver disease and cirrhosis^[22]. Visceral obesity and related metabolic disorders, insulin resistance, in particular, are considered the most relevant risk factors for NAFLD occurrence and progression^[22]. Recent evidence suggests, however, that the prevalence of NAFLD and its severity could be independently and negatively affected also by the coexistence of sarcopenia in the clinical picture, with sarcopenic obesity being both an independent risk factor for NAFLD and a marker for its progression to the more

Table 1 Impact of obesity on liver pathophysiology

Pathologies	Obesity
Hepatic steatosis ^[9]	Increased ¹
Cirrhosis ^[11]	Increased ¹
Hepatotoxicity ^[9]	Increased ¹
Liver primary tumors (as hepatocarcinoma) ^[2-4]	Increased ²
Chronic hepatitis C progression ^[12]	Increased
Decompensation of cirrhotic patients ^[13,14]	Increased
Portal hypertension ^[13,14]	Increased
³ Risk of post-operative complications after LT ^[15-17]	Increased

¹Mostly if associated to alcohol ingestion; ²Mostly if associated to non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD); ³Thromboembolism, infectious and biliary complications. LT: Liver transplantation.

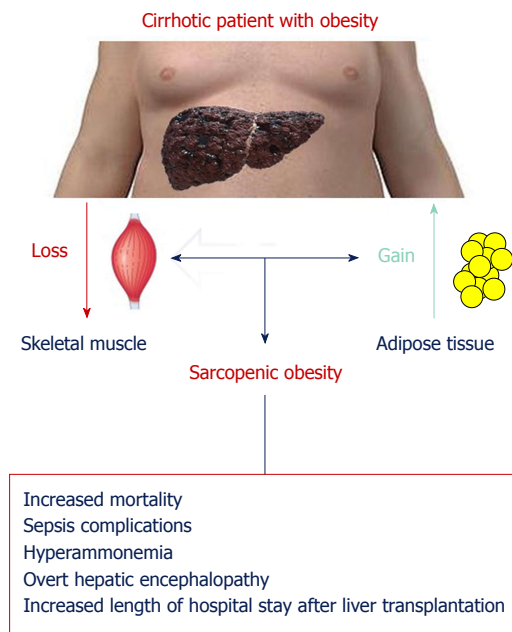


Figure 2 Sarcopenia as a prognostic negative marker in the cirrhotic patient with obesity. Cirrhotic patients with obesity frequently have a combined loss of skeletal muscle and gain of adipose tissue, culminating in the condition known as “sarcopenic obesity”. Sarcopenia in cirrhotic patients has been associated with increased mortality, sepsis complications, hyperammonemia, overt hepatic encephalopathy, and an increased length of hospital stay after liver transplantation.

advanced stages and cirrhosis^[23].

Significant information about the role of sarcopenia in chronic liver disease was produced in an analysis of data from the Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (KNHANES). KNHANES includes a nationwide cross-sectional cohort with a representative sample of the Korean population and is conducted annually to assess health and nutritional status. Hong *et al.*^[24], by analyzing 452 apparently healthy adults in the Korean Obesity Sarcopenic Study, demonstrated a higher risk of NAFLD in individuals with lower muscle mass compared to a control group. Individuals with sarcopenia had more body fat mass, more components of the metabolic syndrome, and higher levels of low-grade systemic inflammation compared with those of people

with normal muscle mass. Moreover, the association between sarcopenia retained its significance also after adjustment for all these potential confounding factors^[24]. More recently, Lee *et al.*^[25] tested the association between sarcopenia and progression of NAFLD by analyzing the degree of liver fibrosis in the KNHANES population. NAFLD was identified in 2761 (28.5%) of 9676 subjects and sarcopenia was identified in 337 of the subjects with NAFLD (12.2%). In subjects with NAFLD, sarcopenia was significantly and independently associated with a higher level of liver fibrosis. The authors concluded that sarcopenia was associated with significant liver fibrosis in subjects with NAFLD, and this association was independent of obesity and insulin resistance^[25].

The independent and additive role of reduced skeletal muscle mass and increased visceral fat mass in increasing the risk of the onset of NAFLD, and in serving as important factors involved in the progression from simple steatosis to liver fibrosis, has been recently confirmed in an independent Japanese sample^[26]. Taking into consideration the limitation of these studies and the caveats in extrapolating these data to the Caucasian population, the association of sarcopenia with visceral obesity and insulin resistance is now considered an important risk factor for NAFLD, which further accelerates its progression to more advanced life-threatening stages.

Sarcopenia as a prognostic negative marker in the cirrhotic patient with obesity

As shown in Figure 2, cirrhotic patients with obesity frequently have a combined loss of skeletal muscle and gain of adipose tissue, culminating in the condition known as “sarcopenic obesity.” Sarcopenia in cirrhotic patients has been associated with increased mortality, sepsis complications, hyperammonemia, overt hepatic encephalopathy (HE), and an increased length of hospital stay after LT^[27]. The prognostic impact of the coexistence of sarcopenia and obesity in patients with chronic liver disease has been analyzed recently in a few studies. Montano-Loza *et al.*^[28] evaluated the frequencies of sarcopenia and sarcopenic obesity in a cohort of 457 cirrhotic patients evaluated for LT, aiming to establish the impact of these muscular abnormalities on the prognosis of cirrhotic patients. In this sample, sarcopenia was present in 43% and sarcopenic obesity in 20% of patients. Both patients with sarcopenia and with sarcopenic obesity had worse median survival than patients without muscular abnormalities^[28]. Hara *et al.*^[29] evaluated the independent prognostic impact of skeletal muscle mass and visceral fat accumulation in 161 patients with cirrhosis. Patients with sarcopenia or sarcopenic obesity both had a poor prognosis, and this difference was pronounced in the subset of patients classified as Child-Pugh class A. However, the group with the worst prognosis was represented by patients having sarcopenic obesity^[29]. This latter observation seems to confirm that the coexistence of visceral obesity and sarcopenia could be considered the worst clinical

situation for a patient with cirrhosis. Muscle wasting and fatty muscle infiltration in cirrhotic patients are part of the frailty complex present in these patients, characterized as decreased reserve and resistance to stressors, resulting from cumulative declines across multiple physiologic systems and predisposition to poor outcomes^[28].

The prognostic negative role of sarcopenia and obesity could have an impact also in LT. Sarcopenia and sarcopenic obesity are seen in a significant number of patients with cirrhosis undergoing liver transplant evaluation, particularly in patients with NASH^[30]. Pre-transplant sarcopenia is widely recognized as associated with short-term survival after living donor LT^[31]. The question of whether the coexistence of obesity and sarcopenia could impose additional risk after LT over that imposed by sarcopenia alone is still debated. Hammad *et al.*^[32] evaluated 200 patients undergoing adult-to-adult living donor LT and classified them into four subgroups: sarcopenic overweight, sarcopenic non-overweight, non-sarcopenic overweight, and non-sarcopenic non-overweight. Sarcopenic patients had a higher incidence of postoperative bacteremia and major postoperative complications, and poorer overall post-transplant survival than non-sarcopenic patients. Overweight recipients had a significantly higher overall survival rate than non-overweight patients. In contrast, sarcopenic non-overweight subjects had a higher incidence of postoperative bacteremia, and major postoperative complications compared with the sarcopenic overweight subgroup and possessed the poorest overall survival among the four recipient subgroups. Thus, this study indicates that a preoperative sarcopenic overweight status does not confer additional significant morbidity or mortality risks than the stand-alone sarcopenia in living donor LT. The study was however mostly confined to patients who were overweight and does not address specifically the impact of obesity itself^[32]. On the other hand, obesity presents important medical and surgical challenges during and after a liver transplant. Specifically, obesity is associated with an increased incidence of wound infections, wound dehiscence, biliary complications, and overall infection^[33].

Sarcopenic obesity could represent an important clinical problem also for long-term survival after LT. Sarcopenia tends to persist after transplantation^[30,31], possibly as the consequence of insufficient physical exercise or use of immunosuppressive agents that impair skeletal muscle growth and protein accretion^[30], whereas body fat normally increased as a result of better nutrition and the regression of the hypermetabolic state related to the pre-transplant chronic disease state^[34]. This double phenomenon paves the way to sarcopenic obesity. Schütz *et al.*^[35] analyzed body composition in patients after liver and kidney transplantation and patients with liver cirrhosis or on chronic hemodialysis and demonstrated that, despite excellent graft function, many long-term liver or kidney transplant survivors exhibit a phenotype of sarcopenic obesity with increased fat but low muscle mass^[35]. Choudhary *et al.*^[36] evaluated

82 living donor liver transplant recipients with at least 12 mo of follow-up. Post-transplant sarcopenic obesity was present in 88%, and metabolic syndrome was present in 52% of recipients with no significant difference among liver failure etiologies. Patients with sarcopenic obesity had a significantly higher BMI and significantly higher prevalence of metabolic syndrome when compared to patients without sarcopenic obesity^[36]. Thus, the weight gain frequently observed after LT could contribute to the creation of a novel group of patients with sarcopenic obesity and associated metabolic derangements.

MICRONUTRIENT STATUS AND RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTATION IN PATIENTS WITH OBESITY AND CIRRHOSIS

Micronutrient deficiencies of fat-soluble and water-soluble vitamins as well as minerals are highly common in end-stage liver disease. Therefore, a periodical nutritional and clinical assessment should be performed to test micronutrient serum levels, estimating adequate nutritional intake and paying attention to clinical signs of vitamins and minerals deficiencies. Fat-soluble vitamin (A, D, E, and K) deficiencies and other free radical scavengers, such as carotenoids are likely to develop in liver disease due to reduced oral intake, malabsorption, and/or hepatic effects involving the reduced synthesis of carrier and transfer proteins, cholestasis and bacterial overgrowth^[37,38].

Deficiencies in water-soluble vitamins, leading to neuropsychiatric symptoms, may stem from diminished hepatic storage, inadequate diet, alcoholism, medications, and chronic renal failure^[37]. The most prevalent and significant deficiencies are discussed below, beginning with vitamin D deficiency, which is almost universal and also related with obesity.

Vitamin D deficiency (VDD, < 50 nmol/L; < 20 ng/mL) is a worldwide pandemic, reported in more than half of the general adult population^[39-42]. Specifically, VDD is widespread among patients with chronic liver disease, with prevalence described between 70%-90%^[40,43-49], while the prevalence of vitamin D insufficiency (< 75 nmol/L; < 30 ng/mL) is almost universal^[49]. For example, among 202 adults before LT, 84% were 25(OH)D deficient and 77% had low 1,25(OH)2D, whereas 3 mo following transplantation, both increased significantly but to a lesser extent for 1,25(OH)2D^[50]. Moreover, the severity of VDD is positively correlated with the severity of liver disease^[44-47]. In cirrhotic patients, significant correlations were found between vitamin D levels and the degree of liver dysfunction, whether expressed as Child-Pugh stages A-C, MELD score, or liver stiffness evaluated by transient elastography^[44,45]. In epidemiologic studies, VDD has been demonstrated to be a predictor of liver disease morbidity and mortality. In a Danish population-based sample of over 2500 middle-

aged subjects followed prospectively for a median follow-up period of 16.5 years, lower serum 25(OH)D levels were independently associated with higher incidence of fatal and non-fatal liver disease^[51]. Similarly, in another prospective study with 22 years follow-up^[52], those with a higher serum 25(OH) vitamin D had lower chronic liver disease mortality. Among cirrhotic patients, VDD was found to be an independent risk factor for mortality^[43,45]. With the increasing prevalence of obesity and NAFLD-related cirrhosis, attention should be paid to the cirrhotic patient with obesity. An association between VDD and obesity has also been suggested. Since vitamin D is a lipophilic molecule it is selectively deposited in subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue. This sequestration leads to a reduction of its availability for hydroxylation^[40,41,53,54]. In addition, an independent association was also observed between VDD and insulin resistance^[55,56], the metabolic syndrome as a whole^[57], and type 2 diabetes or prediabetes, after adjusting for multiple confounders including BMI^[55,56,58,59]. In contrast, some studies failed to show such associations once adiposity is adjusted for^[60,61] or any significant association between markers of insulin resistance and 25(OH)D serum levels^[62,63]. NAFLD by itself has been suggested to be associated with VDD, but the independence of this association from body fat mass is controversial. The association between a diagnosis of NAFLD and lower serum 25(OH)D levels compared to healthy controls was demonstrated in several studies^[64-67], however, NAFLD was biopsy-proven in only two of the studies^[64,65]. In addition, significantly higher levels of 25(OH)D were observed among patients with steatosis compared to patients with NASH^[64,65]. In partial agreement, another study, describing a sub-analysis of the NASH Clinical Research Network (CRN) cohort, found that VDD was independently associated with NASH and the presence of fibrosis, but not with the degree of steatosis^[68]. However, while most studies adjusted for BMI or waist circumference, a study carefully adjusting for adiposity (evaluated by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry), suggests that there is no relationship between vitamin D levels and the amount of liver fat (by Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy and liver biopsy) or the severity of NASH^[69].

To summarize, a few possible mechanisms could explain VDD among cirrhotic patients with obesity: (1) NAFLD as the undelaying cause of cirrhosis; (2) Sedentary lifestyle or long standing chronic illness leading to reduced exposure to sunlight; (3) Consumption of high-caloric "empty" foods, low in mineral and vitamin content; (4) Increased fat mass which enables sequestration of vitamin D in the adipose tissue compartment thus lowering plasma concentration; and (5) Hepatocellular dysfunction in chronic liver disease which may disturb the formation of the active metabolite of vitamin D as well as vitamin D-binding proteins.

Due to the high prevalence of VDD among cirrhotic patients, especially those with advanced disease, NAFLD, or cholestatic liver diseases^[70], it is reasonable to assess

serum 25(OH)D levels^[71]. The main sources of vitamin D are sunlight exposure, food naturally enriched or artificially fortified with vitamin D, and oral supplements. The adequate sunlight exposure is 5-15 min during the daytime (10:00 AM-15:00 PM) on a daily basis^[40]. However, after exposing healthy individuals with obesity (BMI > 30 kg/m²) and matched lean control subjects (BMI < 25 kg/m²) to whole-body ultraviolet radiation, the subjects with obesity showed a 57% lower increase in circulating concentrations of vitamin D3, 24 h after irradiation^[53]. Vitamin D3 can be found abundantly in egg yolk and oily fish (e.g. salmon, mackerel, tuna, sardines) and vitamin D2 mainly in mushrooms^[40,49]. Industrial products such as bread, margarine, cereals, or milk may be fortified with either vitamin D2 or vitamin D3. Oral supplements may contain vitamin D2 or D3 depending on the manufacturer and brand^[40,49]. However, most studies that have evaluated NAFLD and high-dose vitamin D supplementation, failed to show improvement in liver fat, NASH histology, or liver enzymes^[72,73]. Oral high-dose vitamin D supplementation administered to subjects with NAFLD and type-2 diabetes for 24 wk, did not lead to significant change in hepatic steatosis, HOMA-IR, or liver enzymes^[74]. Similarly, in a pilot prospective study, administration of high-dose oral vitamin D3 supplementation (25000 IU/wk) for 24 wk to 12 non-cirrhotic patients with biopsy-proven NASH resulted in no significant impact on liver histology, liver enzymes, insulin resistance, or adipocytokine profile^[73]. Conversely, some studies, not specific for NAFLD but mostly prediabetic patients, demonstrated improvement in insulin sensitivity with vitamin D supplementation^[75-77]. Findings are also conflicting with regard to the effect of vitamin D supplementation in the case of advanced liver disease. In a cohort of advanced decompensated cirrhotic patients (Child-Pugh C, score of ≥ 10) randomly assigned to vitamin D treatment or a control receiving standard care and followed for 6 mo, the survival, as well as Child-Pugh and MELD scores, were comparable between the groups^[48]. Nevertheless, supplementation of high-dose oral vitamin D resulted in several clinical improvements such as an anti-depressant effect among patients with chronic liver disease (mainly women)^[78], and 60% risk reduction for acute rejection among patients after LT^[79]. In a Cochrane review of vitamin D supplementation for chronic liver diseases in adults, including 15 randomized clinical trials (RCT) with 1034 participants^[80], vitamin D supplementation had no beneficial or harmful effects on all-cause mortality (OR = 0.69; 95%CI: 0.09 to 5.40), and the authors concluded that there is no convincing evidence that vitamin D supplementation has a therapeutic impact in chronic liver disease.

There are no guidelines or clear recommendations regarding vitamin D supplementation for cirrhotic patients with obesity. One authoritative paper^[49] recommended vitamin D status assessment in all patients with chronic liver disease and initiation of supplementation with 1000-4000 IU/d of vitamin D3 when 25(OH)D levels are under < 50 nmol/L or < 20 ng/mL. The

guidelines of a consensus workshop supported by the British Association for the Study of the Liver and the British Liver Trust, recommends supplementation of 1 g calcium and 800 IU/D vitamin D to patients with chronic liver disease (especially patients with cirrhosis or severe cholestasis) as a general preventive treatment for osteoporosis along with adequate nutrition monitoring^[81]. The European Association for the Study of the Liver (EASL) recommendation includes supplementation with calcium (1000-1200 mg/d) and vitamin D (400-800 IU/d) in all patients with cholestatic liver disease for bone loss reduction, although the evidence to support this is low^[70]. Interestingly, in a small study of NAFLD patients, daily supplementation with 2000 IU cholecalciferol for 6 mo did not correct hypovitaminosis D in the majority of patients with NASH compared to those with steatosis, thus a higher dose may be needed in NASH or NASH-cirrhosis patients but this finding needs further confirmation^[82].

Vitamin E (tocopherol) is an inexpensive and well-tolerated molecule with antioxidant properties. In vitro and animal studies have shown that vitamin E ameliorates liver necrosis and fibrosis^[83], and prevents hepatic stellate cell activation^[84]. Relevantly for patients with obesity and liver disease, high-dose (800 IU/d) long-term (24 mo) vitamin E treatment among nondiabetic NASH patients led to improvement in NASH versus placebo but not fibrosis. However, cirrhotic patients were excluded from this RCT^[85], and thus vitamin E cannot be recommended for NASH-cirrhosis or cryptogenic cirrhosis patients^[86]. Vitamin E status, expressed as serum vitamin E/total serum cholesterol ratio, is lower among patients with primary biliary cholangitis and primary sclerosing cholangitis compared to patients with either cryptogenic or alcoholic cirrhosis, probably due to reduced gastrointestinal absorption^[87]. Indeed, a reduced concentration of vitamin E and low vitamin E/total cholesterol ratio has been demonstrated in 44% and 64% of patients with primary biliary cholangitis and 32% and 43% of patients with other chronic cholestatic liver diseases, respectively. Serum vitamin E concentration and vitamin E/total cholesterol ratio were restored to normal by oral or intramuscular supplements of the vitamin, but not in patients with severe deficiency of vitamin E (less than 5 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ and less than 1 $\mu\text{mol/mmol}$ total cholesterol)^[88]. Generally, carotenoids, as well as tocopherols, are major natural protective agents against free radical-mediated liver damage. Interestingly, it has been demonstrated that patients with cirrhosis (of mixed etiologies) have extremely low hepatic levels of carotenoids and tocopherols, compared with controls, even in the presence of normal serum levels^[89]. Similarly, retinol, α -tocopherol, and carotenoid plasma levels in patients with chronic cholestatic liver disease (primary biliary cholangitis and primary sclerosing cholangitis) were demonstrated to be significantly lower compared to the general population, despite comparable nutritional intake, suggesting a role for the malabsorption of fat-soluble vitamins^[38]. Clinical manifestations of vitamin E deficiency may include increased platelet aggre-

gation, decreased red blood cell survival, hemolytic anemia, decreased serum creatinine with creatinuria, and neuronal degeneration^[37], but these are not common^[38,87,88].

Zinc is the second most prevalent trace element in the body, playing a central role in several metabolic, anti-inflammatory and immune response pathways, with more than 300 enzymes having zinc ions within their catalytic domains^[90]. Dietary zinc is prevalent in foods which are rich in protein (*i.e.* red meat, lamb, pork, oysters, *etc.*) and its absorption can be inhibited by high consumption of foods rich in phytate, certain dietary fibers, and calcium^[91,92]. The recommended dietary allowance (RDA) of zinc is 8 mg/d for women and 13 mg/d for men over 19 years old^[93]. The liver is the main organ of zinc metabolism, however, in chronic liver disease, metabolism is altered by inadequate dietary intake, protein and amino acid metabolism alterations, diminished hepatic extraction, portosystemic shunts, impaired absorption (mostly in advanced liver disease), and an increase in various inflammatory cytokines^[90,94]. Moreover, cirrhosis is a catabolic state resulting in muscle catabolism leading to increased zinc loss in the urine. This urinary loss of zinc is aggravated by the prevalent use of diuretics in order to treat edema and ascites^[95]. Zinc deficiency has many clinical implications in cirrhotic patients. One of the major complications in cirrhotic patients is HE, presented in 30%-40% of the patients as overt encephalopathy (OHE) and in 60%-80% as mild cognitive dysfunction (minimal hepatic encephalopathy, MHE)^[96]. Zinc deficiency results in impaired nitrogen metabolism due to the reduced enzymatic activity of urea cycle enzymes and decreased muscle glutamine synthesis. Furthermore, zinc levels were found to be negatively correlated with ammonia serum levels^[97,98]. These impaired metabolic pathways can be corrected by supplementing zinc. In a small preliminary double-blind, placebo-controlled trial among patients with cirrhosis, hyperammonemia, and hypozincemia, zinc acetate preparation at a dose of 150 mg/d for 3 mo decreased blood ammonia levels^[99]. Indeed, Marchesini *et al.*^[100] demonstrated in patients with advanced cirrhosis, that long-term treatment with zinc supplementation accelerated and improved hepatic conversion of amino acids to urea compared with matched controls receiving standard treatment. This biochemical improvement was associated with a clinical improvement measured by the performance in psychometric tests and Child-Pugh score. Similar results were observed in an RCT comparing zinc supplementation on top of standard treatment vs. standard treatment alone (protein-restricted diet, branched-chain amino acids, and lactulose) for 6 mo. Zinc supplementation improved the physical component scale and neuropsychological tests and decreased HE grade, Child-Pugh score and blood ammonia levels^[101]. A significant improvement in neuropsychological tests and Child-Pugh score along with ammonia was also reported in patients with only MHE after 3 mo of lactulose, antioxidant and zinc therapy vs lactulose therapy

alone^[102]. Additionally, zinc is a crucial co-factor in the process of wound healing since it activates the synthesis of collagen and metabolism of nucleic acids. Thus, zinc is an essential factor in the restoration of liver parenchyma after liver injury or resection and is required in large amounts over a short period of time^[90,103]. In terms of clinical signs for zinc deficiency, skin lesions are very prominent, usually an erythematous rash or scaly plaques. A unique manifestation is necrolytic acral erythema (NAE), associated with zinc deficiency in patients with HCV infection^[104], expressed on the dorsal aspects of the feet and extending to the toes. The treatment of NAE must combine oral zinc supplementation and HCV eradication. For more than 70 years, hypozincemia has also been associated with impaired night vision, initially in alcoholic cirrhosis and later on in various liver cirrhosis etiologies^[103]. Importantly, one of the disturbing manifestations of zinc deficiency is an alteration in taste and smell. This may further exacerbate malnutrition due to reduced intake in the cirrhotic patient^[37,105,106]. According to expert opinion, zinc supplementation can be administered as a long-term treatment or at least until zinc blood level is within normal range with a recommended dose of 50 mg elemental zinc (220 mg zinc sulfate) once daily, in order to avoid copper malabsorption^[37,103].

Magnesium is one of the most prevalent intracellular cations, secondary only to potassium. It has been demonstrated that chronic alcohol consumption impairs magnesium homeostasis affecting the brain, skeletal muscles, heart, and liver^[107]. In addition, alcohol abuse can decrease nutritional intake and increase excretion of magnesium by an indirect effect on renal tubules^[107]. Other factors that might lead to hypomagnesemia in cirrhotic patients are the poor absorption of magnesium in the distal jejunum, exacerbation of magnesium urinary excretion due to elevated aldosterone, growth hormone, and glucagon blood levels, and chronic administration of loop diuretics^[108]. The association between magnesium serum levels and the presence of cirrhosis or its severity is questionable. Two studies have found that magnesium concentration was not significantly different between patients with and without liver cirrhosis and no significant correlation was found with the Child-Pugh score^[109,110]. One study found magnesium levels were significantly lower in cirrhotic patients compared to controls, but there was no difference between compensated and decompensated patients^[111]. Conversely, another study demonstrated a negative correlation between serum magnesium and Child-Pugh score, and lower levels of magnesium among patients with cirrhosis compared to controls^[112]. This disagreement can result from the different disparity of etiologies for the liver disease. Nangliya *et al.*^[112] reported that the prevalence of alcoholic liver disease was over 40%, however, Agarwal *et al.*^[110] excluded chronic alcohol abuse. Another explanation is that magnesium is a cellular cation and perhaps its serum level does not reflect its true concentration. Koivisto *et al.*^[113] argued that serum magnesium concentrations

may be normal despite intracellular depletion and that a true estimation of magnesium depletion is through a magnesium loading test, since magnesium uptake is increased in the condition of magnesium depletion. In their study, 10 cirrhotic patients were compared to six healthy controls. No difference was found between pre-loading magnesium levels, but the uptake of magnesium (calculated as the delta between the IV administered dose and the amount excreted in 24-h urine) was more than four-fold higher among cirrhotics compared to controls^[113]. Due to scarce data and conflicting evidence, there are no clear clinical practice recommendations regarding magnesium supplementation in cirrhotic patients.

While all patients with chronic liver disease are at risk for depletion of various fat-soluble, water-soluble vitamins and trace elements, the most well-recognized micronutrient deficiencies related to alcohol overuse are vitamin B12 (cyanocobalamin), vitamin A, vitamin D, thiamine (B1), folate (B9), pyridoxine (B6), and zinc^[114,115]. Following supplementation, when needed, an annual check-up once stable levels are achieved may be recommended^[116]. Administration of B-complex vitamins such as thiamine, folate, and pyridoxine is needed to prevent Wernicke encephalopathy^[114], Korsakoff's syndrome, megaloblastic anaemia and neuropathies^[116]. Moreover, and regardless of the etiology of cirrhosis, a consensus paper by the International Society for Hepatic Encephalopathy and Nitrogen Metabolism stated that since vitamin status is not easily assessed and since multivitamin supplementation is cheap and generally safe, use of short-term (2-wk course) oral vitamin supplements could be justified in patients with decompensated cirrhosis or at risk of malnutrition, and clinically apparent vitamin deficiencies should be treated specifically^[117].

PROTEIN AND CALORIE INTAKE IN PATIENTS WITH OBESITY AND CIRRHOSIS

Decreased muscle mass and function are more prevalent among cirrhotic patients with either MHE or OHE compared to no HE, and protein malnutrition is an independent risk factor for both OHE (OR = 3.4; 95%CI: 1.4-6.9; $P < 0.001$) and MHE (OR = 2.15; 95%CI: 1.1-4.1; $P = 0.002$)^[118]. In the late 90s, the recommendations for caloric intake were near-normal for patients with well-compensated liver cirrhosis [25-35 kcal/(kg·d)] and up to 30-40 kcal/(kg·d) in malnourished or critically ill cirrhotic patients^[119]. The ESPEN currently recommends a daily caloric intake of 35-40 kcal/(kg·d) for all cirrhotic patients regardless of their liver disease etiology or degree of liver function compensation^[120], without a specific reference for cirrhotic patients with obesity, which may still be malnourished. However, weight loss should be encouraged in patients with obesity and well-compensated cirrhosis,

Table 2 Nutritional recommendations for cirrhotic patients with obesity

Nutrient	Recommendation
¹ Daily energy intake ^[117]	25-35 kcal/(kg•d) in patients with BMI 30-40 kg/m ² 20-25 kcal/(kg•d) in patients with BMI > 40 kg/m ²
² Protein intake ^[119]	1.2-1.5 g/(kg•d)
³ Micronutrients	Identify and correct micronutrient deficiencies
Fiber	25-45 g/d

¹The recommended dietary pattern is for small, frequent meals evenly distributed throughout the day (every 3-6 h) with a late evening snack containing at least 50 g of complex carbohydrate. ²Vegetable-protein based diets can also be beneficial in terms of caloric and fiber intake among overweight patients with cirrhosis who are attempting to lose weight. In addition, plant-based proteins are rich in branched-chain amino acids (BCAA)^[117,127,128]. ³Cirrhotic patients with obesity are at high risk for depletion of various fat-soluble, water-soluble vitamins and trace elements and should be supplemented appropriately. BMI: Body mass index.

nevertheless, over-restriction will result in endogenous muscle breakdown. Indeed, in later guidelines, Amodio *et al.*^[117] recommend careful monitoring alongside increased physical activity and caloric intake of 25-35 kcal/(kg•d) in patients with obesity (30-40 kg/m²) and not less than 20-25 kcal/(kg•d) in patients with morbid obesity (> 40 kg/m²). The recommended dietary pattern is for small, frequent meals evenly distributed throughout the day (every 3-6 h) with a late evening snack containing at least 50 g of complex carbohydrate^[117].

The attitude toward daily protein intake has also changed. In the past, the daily protein intake of cirrhotic patients was tightly restricted to less than 0.8 g/(kg•d) due to concerns about the increased risk for HE. However, the tolerance of proteins in cirrhotic patients has been shown to be higher than previously believed^[117,121], and the importance of substantial daily protein intake for sustaining adequate muscle mass is becoming more and more clear^[117]. Córdoba *et al.*^[121] showed that administration of a low-protein diet [0.5 g/(kg•d)] worsened HE and exacerbated protein breakdown compared to a daily protein intake of 1.2 g/(kg•d).

Currently, the recommended daily protein intake is 1.2-1.5 g/(kg•d)^[120]. For cirrhotic patients with obesity, a moderately hypocaloric diet must include an adequate amount of proteins [1.2-1.5 g/(kg•d)] in order to accomplish weight loss without muscle or lean mass depletion^[117]. In cirrhotic patients, there is variable tolerance to different dietary proteins according to their source. Some uncontrolled studies have shown a better tolerance to vegetable proteins over meat proteins and to dairy proteins over mixed source proteins^[122-124]. Interestingly, a 14-d casein-vegetable, high-protein, high-calorie diet was shown to improve mental performance and to decrease ammonia levels in 150 patients with overt HE^[125]. The advantages of vegetable proteins may stem from the fact that they are rich in dietary fiber with prebiotic properties, which result in decreased transit time and intraluminal pH leading to increased fecal ammonia excretion. Moreover, vegetable proteins are rich in ornithine and arginine, that can facilitate clearance of ammonia through the urea cycle^[126,127]. Vegetable-protein based diets can also be beneficial in terms of caloric and

fiber intake among overweight patients with cirrhosis who are attempting to lose weight. In addition, plant-based proteins are rich in branched-chain amino acids (BCAA)^[117,128,129]. In hepatic decompensation, there is a shift toward aromatic amino acids (AAA) (phenylalanine, tyrosine, and tryptophan) rather than BCAAs (isoleucine, leucine, and valine), however, AAA are assumed to cross the blood-brain barrier, act as false neurotransmitters, and induce HE^[130,131]. BCAA supplementation can induce tolerability to meat protein and enable adequate protein intake^[132]. Moreover, substituting meat with dairy or vegetable proteins along with BCAA supplements is better than reducing total proteins intake^[117]. In a meta-analysis of 16 RCTs, BCAAs were found to have a beneficial effect on HE compared to placebo or best supportive care (diet, lactulose, or neomycin), however, no conclusions could be drawn regarding nutritional effects^[133]. General nutritional recommendations in the cirrhotic patients with obesity are summarized in Table 2.

BARIATRIC SURGERY-INDUCED WEIGHT LOSS IN PATIENTS WITH OBESITY AND CIRRHOSIS: INDICATIONS AND CONTRAINDICATIONS

In recent years, parallel to the rapid and sharp increase in the prevalence of obesity^[134], bariatric surgery has reached a rapid and deep penetration, as it is the only therapeutic means leading to long-term weight loss with consequent improvement of obesity-related comorbidities and patients' quality of life^[135]. NAFLD has become an extremely frequent condition in recent years due to the obesity epidemic^[136]. While NAFLD includes a spectrum of histologic features ranging from simple liver steatosis to steatohepatitis (NASH), liver fibrosis has been shown to be the main determinant of mortality linked to NASH in the long-term^[137,138]. Obesity has been shown to be associated with an increased risk of primary liver cancer in several large epidemiological studies. Potential mechanisms responsible for this increased risk include the occurrence of NAFLD and type 2 diabetes^[139]. Furthermore, there is evidence that the probability of clinical decompensation of liver cirrhosis is significantly

increased in the presence of obesity compared to overweight and lean subjects^[140].

As a consequence, LT surgeons are faced more and more frequently with candidates for LT with morbid obesity^[141]. Traditionally obesity has been considered a main risk factor for postoperative morbidity and mortality in the context of major and complex surgical procedures^[142,143]. However, obesity is a heterogeneous disease including different conditions sharing a common denominator represented by an increased BMI. Indeed, there is clear epidemiological evidence that the presence of obesity has a protective effect against postoperative mortality and morbidity in the range of BMI below 35 kg/m². This phenomenon, known as the obesity paradox, has been attributed to the increased reserve of energy due to obesity that may confer an advantage in a condition of stress such as that after a major surgical procedure^[144]. Furthermore, the presence of metabolic syndrome, which is associated with obesity but not obesity alone, is significantly associated with an increased risk of postoperative morbidity and mortality after major abdominal surgery. In spite of this, in many LT centers the presence of obesity, defined only on the basis of a BMI above 35 or 40 kg/m², is considered as a contraindication to LT^[145]. Interestingly, the use of simple diagnostic tools such as anthropometric measures that include the psoas muscle diameter and visceral fat measure coupled with the presence of metabolic comorbidities may help to identify suitable candidates for LT among individuals with obesity without the need for massive weight loss^[146,147].

Losing weight before LT remains an important goal but there is no consensus on how best to achieve it, especially in patients with obesity and cirrhosis. Many non-surgical methods can be used to allow patients to reach the desired BMI and be finally listed for LT, including increased physical activity, diet, and behavioral therapy as well as intragastric balloon^[33]. Spengler *et al.*^[33] recently suggested the use of diet and lifestyle modifications in patients with compensated cirrhosis. For patients with compensated cirrhosis, bariatric surgery has also been proposed in preparation for LT^[145-147]. Although this strategy may seem legitimate, bariatric surgery may lead to severe postoperative complications that a patient with a compromised liver function may not tolerate. Indeed, only patients with compensated cirrhosis are potential candidates for bariatric surgery as mortality in patients with decompensated cirrhosis would be unacceptable^[148]. There is also evidence that bariatric surgery is associated with a significantly lower morbidity and mortality if an LT program is also present in the same hospital. This underlines the complexity of the patients that need multidisciplinary care from specialists in both hepatology and bariatrics.

The timing of surgery

The timing of bariatric surgery in LT candidates is imperative. While it has been suggested that bariatric

surgery-induced weight loss may increase the candidacy for LT, only patients with compensated liver cirrhosis are potential candidates to bariatric surgery because the risk of mortality is too high in the setting of decompensated cirrhosis^[148]. The primary indication for LT in patients with a conserved liver function is represented by HCC. While international guidelines for access to bariatric surgery include a disease-free interval of at least five years after the radical treatment of any malignancy, a different strategy to access a curative treatment such as LT for this specific category of patients seems to be legitimate. Only patients with the best chances of long-term survival should then be selected for this ambitious therapeutic strategy, which includes bariatric surgery to lose weight and control metabolic comorbidities followed by LT. Endovascular and/or percutaneous interventional radiology techniques should be concomitantly used to obtain temporary local control of HCC. Several preoperative scores such as the alpha-fetoprotein score^[149], the Milan criteria, and Metroticket 2.0 may be useful tools to guide the selection of patients in order to obtain long-term survival rates after LT comparable to those obtained for patients with non-tumoral disease^[150].

The option of performing bariatric surgery after LT offers several advantages including normal liver function with normal prothrombin time, the restoration of normal portal pressure, the possibility to optimize the nutritional status and the choice of procedure in relation to the presence or absence of metabolic syndrome. The presence of adhesions linked to transplantation is not a formal contraindication to the laparoscopic approach nor is the use of immunosuppressive drugs^[151].

As obesity recurs often after LT, affecting the graft with NASH recurrence and patient survival with metabolic comorbidities, some authors evoked the seducing possibility of performing a bariatric procedure, namely sleeve gastrectomy (SG), at the same time as the LT^[152]. However, a panel of argument still stands against this policy, these include: the potentially disastrous consequences of the most feared complication of SG, a leak at the top of the staple line in the setting of immunosuppressive treatment in a freshly transplanted patient; the reduced amount of calories that the transplanted patient would be able to assume with the diet spontaneously for several months after surgery; the impact of the two procedures on the body composition with the risk of excessive fatty free mass loss.

The choice of procedure

The presence of portal hypertension may render any bariatric procedure difficult and lead to life-threatening bleeding. The choice of the procedure should then take into account the risk of bleeding. A transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt (TIPS) may be considered in patients with signs of portal hypertension such as platelets below 100000, a large spleen on CT scan, the presence of collateral circulation on the abdomen or on CT scan and esophageal varices. In case of doubt,

Table 3 Main factors involved in the choice of the bariatric procedure in the setting of liver transplantation

Factors to consider	SG	RYGB
Bleeding risk of bleeding ¹	Increased	Low
Endoscopic access to the biliary tree	Conserved	Impossible
Risk of portal vein thrombosis	Increased	Not affected
Risk of bariatric surgery induced liver failure	Absent	Low
Absorption of immunosuppressive drugs	Poorly affected	Decreased
Etiology of liver cirrhosis (NASH <i>vs</i> others)	Effective	Very Effective

¹Consider measuring of portal pressure and use of transjugular intrahepatic portosystemic shunt in case of bariatric surgery before liver transplantation. SG: Sleeve gastrectomy; RYGP: Roux-en-Y gastric bypass; NASH: Non-alcoholic steato hepatitis.

a direct measure of the portal pressure should be obtained. It should be considered that in the case of large spontaneous portosystemic shunts (larger than 1 cm), the TIPS might be inefficacious. The possibility to access the biliary tree endoscopically after LT should also be considered. Procedures with an intestinal bypass definitely limit the endoscopic access to the bile duct. Furthermore, some patients may need a biliodigestive reconstruction on a Roux-en-Y loop that should be then fashioned in addition to the intestinal bypass of the bariatric procedure. There is a risk of portal vein thrombosis in any abdominal procedure and bariatric surgery has been shown to increase this risk. The potential risk of liver complications due to the intestinal bypass is another point that needs attention. It is well recognized that bariatric procedures including an intestinal bypass may lead to liver failure. Although the mechanisms underlying this complication have not been completely elucidated, the abnormal intestinal microbiota derived from bacterial overgrowth may cause intestinal permeability defects that expose hosts to noxious gut-derived factors such as bacterial lipopolysaccharide, other toll-like receptor ligands, and toxic bile acids^[153]. Interestingly, most, if not all, cases of liver failure reported in the literature include patients with a biliopancreatic diversion, in which the length of the bypassed intestine is very long, and the jejuno-ileal bypass, whereas only a few cases of liver failure in patients with Roux-en-Y gastric bypass (RYGP) have been reported^[154]. The jejuno-ileal bypass was proscribed several decades ago and nowadays the Scopinaro's procedure is rarely performed. This is in line with the hypothesis that an altered microbiota may be a major determinant of increased intestinal permeability as the more distal is the bypass the more altered is the intestinal flora.

The absorption of immunosuppressive drugs should also be considered when choosing the most appropriate bariatric procedure. The absorption of drugs may not only be altered by the presence of an intestinal bypass but also by the changes in the intestinal pH linked to the suppression of hydrochloric acid secretion^[155]. Finally, the etiology of liver disease (namely NASH *vs* viral infections and alcohol abuse), the presence of metabolic syndrome, and NASH recurrence on the graft in cases of patients that have already been transplanted are key factors to consider when choosing the type of bariatric procedure.

The three most common bariatric procedures currently performed worldwide are laparoscopic adjustable gastric banding (LAGB), the SG, and RYGP. Several factors are involved in the choice of the bariatric procedure in the setting of LT (Table 3). Although the LAGB has the advantage of being the easiest procedure with the lowest risk of bleeding, it also has the worse results in terms of weight loss with the highest rate of failure. Furthermore, the presence of foreign material around the mesogastric junction, especially in patients with esophageal varices, may cause problems. The SG is currently the most performed procedure^[156,157] that offers several advantages, including the fact that no intestinal bypass is done, leaving the whole digestive tract accessible to endoscopic exploration, avoiding intestinal bypass related interference with the absorption of immunosuppressive drugs, and leaving the possibility to fashion a Roux-en-Y loop in the event of biliary complications after LT or in cases where a biliodigestive reconstruction is indicated such as in primary biliary cholangitis. However, in cases of portal hypertension, the division of the greater curvature vessels may expose to the risk of bleeding especially if portal pressure is increased and no TIPS has been put in place. Bleeding may be then difficult to control and should be feared as a life-threatening complication. The use of buttressing material for the division of the stomach may reduce significantly the risk of bleeding in these patients and should be used^[158].

Of note is also the fact that the SG is followed by an extreme decrease in hydrochloric acid secretion, resulting in an altered pH, which may consequently interfere with immunosuppressive drug absorption^[155]. Although short and medium-term results of SG on weight loss and control of metabolic syndrome indicate equivalent efficacy between the SG and the RYGP^[159], long-term results of SG are still too scarce to drive definite conclusions on the equivalence of efficacy between the two procedures, especially in a NASH setting^[160].

The RYGP has the advantage of a reduced risk of bleeding, as only the lesser curvature of the stomach, where bleeding may occur, needs to be dissected before gastric division. It is also more effective against metabolic complications of obesity that may be either present before or after LT^[161]. Strong evidence in support of the preventive effect of RYGP against the occurrence of type

2 diabetes has come from several studies^[162,163]. Recently Safwan *et al.*^[164] reported a series of 11 patients with a previous history of bariatric surgery that underwent LT and showed that biliary complications could be successfully addressed with a second Roux-en-Y loop in patients with an RYGP. One additional technical point concerns the use of the endoluminal tube to guide the shaping of the gastric pouch or sleeve. If the preoperative endoscopy has shown the presence of esophageal varices, in spite of appropriate endoscopic eradication, the orogastric tube may eventually injure the varices causing bleeding. For this reason, it should be better avoided as far as possible especially in patients with a low prothrombin time and platelet count. SG is also associated with an increased risk of portal thrombosis compared to RYGP in non-cirrhotic patients^[165]. This may be a further concern, as liver cirrhosis is a risk factor for portal thrombosis in itself. The occurrence of portal thrombosis may further complicate the access to LT. The risk of dumping syndrome and hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia may be further concerns of the RYGP.

In conclusion, with all of the potential that bariatric surgery has candidates to LT with morbid obesity, well-designed studies are still necessary to gain widespread acceptance from clinicians. Several points need to be clarified, including the most appropriate methods for accurate patient evaluation and selection, the optimal surgical procedure and its timing to maximize the efficiency of bariatric surgery in liver recipients with obesity. Only when this research is furthered to the point where the effectiveness of bariatric surgery is no longer in doubt, the latter will be included in the care of liver recipients with obesity for mainstream use. In the meantime, the policy of a case-by-case discussion involving a multi-disciplinary team, including hepatologists and both LT and bariatric surgeons, seems to be justified.

CONCLUSION

With the recent epidemic of obesity, the coexistence of liver cirrhosis and obesity has become very frequent. The complex interplay between obesity and the liver especially in the setting of liver cirrhosis is a formidable challenge for current medicine that goes from the prevention of liver complications of obesity, screening for these complications in patients at risk to the management of patients with sarcopenia and end-stage liver disease. Bariatric surgery has shown promising results although evidence is still scarce.

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Host genetic factors affecting hepatitis B infection outcomes: Insights from genome-wide association studies

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Abstract

The clinical outcome of Hepatitis B Virus (HBV) infection depends on the success or failure of the immune responses to HBV, and varies widely among individuals, ranging from asymptomatic self-limited infection, inactive carrier state, chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma, to liver failure. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) identified key genetic factors influencing the pathogenesis of HBV-related traits. In this review, we discuss GWAS for persistence of HBV infection, antibody response to hepatitis B vaccine, and HBV-related advanced liver diseases. HBV persistence is associated with multiple genes with diverse roles in immune mechanisms. The strongest associations are found within the classical human leukocyte antigen (HLA) genes, highlighting the central role of antigen presentation in the immune response to HBV. Associated variants affect both epitope binding specificities and expression levels of HLA molecules. Several other susceptibility genes regulate the magnitude of adaptive immune responses, determining immunity *vs* tolerance. HBV persistence and nonresponse to vaccine share the same risk variants, implying overlapping genetic bases. On the other hand, the risk variants for HBV-related advanced liver diseases are largely different, suggesting different host-virus dynamics in acute *vs* chronic HBV infections. The findings of these GWAS are likely to pave the way for developing more effective preventive and therapeutic interventions by personalizing the management of HBV infection.

Key words: Genome-wide association studies; Hepatitis B infection; Hepatocellular carcinoma; Cirrhosis; Antigen

presentation; Immune response to hepatitis B virus

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Core tip: Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have proven to be very useful in uncovering the host genetic factors that influence the clinical outcomes of hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection. Both class I and class II human leukocyte antigen (HLA) genes were implicated in persistence of HBV infection; associated variants affected antigen-binding specificities and expression levels of HLA molecules. HBV persistence and vaccine nonresponse were associated with the same HLA-DP alleles, suggesting a critical role for the surface antigen in HBV pathogenesis. These findings might be exploited for development of potent vaccines based on alternative epitopes. GWAS for HBV-related pathologies identified many other immune-related genes, and provided genetic markers to detect the individuals at high risk for HBV-related diseases.

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) is the most common viral pathogen of the human liver, and is a prominent cause of acute and chronic hepatitis, liver failure, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Around 257 million people, or 3.5% of the global population, are estimated to have chronic HBV infection^[1], and more than 800 thousands people lose their life annually due to HBV-related complications^[2]. Perinatal and childhood infections are very common in regions with high endemicity, and mostly result in life-long persistence, whereas infections at adulthood are mostly self-limited^[3]. Chronic HBV carriers are at a high risk of developing end-stage liver diseases, such as cirrhosis and HCC^[4]. Indeed, HBV infection is responsible for 27% of cirrhosis and 53% of HCC cases worldwide^[5]. Hepatitis B vaccine effectively prevents new infections, while antiviral medicines suppress progression of HBV-related liver damage. However, vaccination, safe healthcare practices, and access to treatment do not have full population coverage, and HBV infection still remains a major public health problem^[6].

HBV is generally considered to be non-cytopathic *per se*; the liver injury associated with HBV infection is immune-driven. The clinical outcome of HBV infection varies greatly among individuals, ranging from asymptomatic self-limited infection, inactive carrier state, chronic hepatitis to end-stage liver diseases with life-threatening complications^[3,7-9]. Viral, host and environmental factors affect these outcomes. Viral core/pre-core mutations,

certain viral genotypes (e.g., genotype C in comparison to genotype B), high viral load, early-life (perinatal and childhood) infections, male sex, host genetic factors (e.g., HLA class II homozygosity), suppressed immune status, co-existing metabolic diseases, and exposure to hepatotoxic substances (e.g., aflatoxin, alcohol) are associated with worse prognosis^[7,10]. A complete understanding of these factors is crucial for developing more tailored and effective preventive and therapeutic interventions to reduce the burden of HBV-related complications.

The contribution of host genetic factors to the variation in HBV infection outcomes was most notably evidenced by twin studies^[11], which reported higher concordance rates in monozygotic twins than in same-sex dizygotic twins for HBV carrier status^[12] and for antibody titers in response to hepatitis B vaccine^[13,14]. The host genetic factors were investigated in association studies whereby the frequencies of genetic variants were compared between case and control groups, using candidate gene and whole genome approaches^[15-18]. Candidate gene studies focused on polymorphisms in immunologically relevant genes, especially the classical human leukocyte antigen (HLA) genes^[19-21]. HLA genes encode the molecules that present antigens to T lymphocytes, and polymorphisms in these genes may alter the specificity and strength of antigen binding, affecting the T cell-mediated immune responses. In accordance with this paradigm, HLA typing studies found an ample amount of HLA allelic variations associated with the clinical outcomes of HBV infection^[15]. However, the associations reported in these studies were largely inconsistent, even within the same ethnicity, with few exceptions. The validity of these studies were undermined by inappropriately small sample sizes, lack of replication in an independent cohort, ambiguous allele assignments, genotyping confined to only one or two exons that show the highest genetic variability, low population coverage, and weak statistical evidences^[11,15].

The development of high-throughput genotyping technologies (e.g., microarrays) and the construction of a detailed map of common genetic polymorphisms in humans enabled genome-wide investigation of genetic variants for association to complex traits and diseases. In contrast to candidate gene-based studies, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) test hundreds of thousands to millions of common SNPs across the genome, providing an unbiased method to investigate genetic risk loci, and allowing the discovery of novel disease-relevant genes. Several GWAS were conducted to identify the risk loci that predisposes to persistence of HBV infection, non-response to hepatitis B vaccine, and progression of liver disease in chronic HBV infections. In this review, we discuss the findings of these GWAS, and we emphasize how GWAS has driven the research on the genetic basis of variability in HBV-related pathologies.

GWAS FOR HBV INFECTION PERSISTENCE

The first GWAS to identify the genetic risk factors for

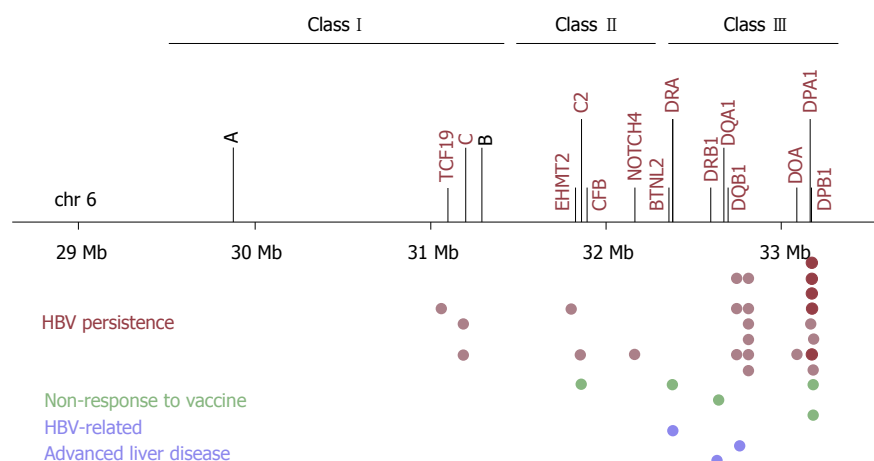


Figure 1 Associations within the human leukocyte antigen locus identified by genome-wide association studies for hepatitis B virus-related traits. GWAS hits for HBV-related pathologies are concentrated on the HLA region. Top SNPs in each GWAS are demonstrated in rows in the chronological order of publication; red for HBV persistence, green for Hepatitis B vaccine non-response, and blue for advanced HBV-related liver diseases. The nearest genes for the identified SNPs are colored in red; *HLA-A* and *HLA-B* are also marked. GWAS: Genome-wide association studies; HLA: Human leukocyte antigen; HBV: Hepatitis B virus; SNPs: Single nucleotide polymorphisms.

susceptibility to HBV infection persistence was performed in a Japanese population, and published in 2009^[22]. Seven hundred and eighty-six chronic hepatitis B (CHB) cases and 2201 HBsAg seronegative controls were used in the discovery phase. This GWAS detected significantly associated SNPs within the *HLA-DP* locus. rs3077 in *HLA-DPA1* 3'UTR and rs9277535 in *HLA-DPB1* 3'UTR were selected, and further replicated in independent Japanese and Thai samples^[22]. The same group employed a second GWAS using additional Japanese case-control samples where they confirmed the associations of *HLA-DP* variants, and, additionally, detected significant associations around the *HLA-DQ* locus^[23]. The *HLA-DQ* SNPs, rs2856718 and rs7453920, were not in LD with the *HLA-DP* SNPs, and their associations remained significant after adjusting for the effect of rs9277535. These findings revealed that *HLA-DP* and *HLA-DQ* variants were independently associated with chronic HBV infection. rs2856718 tagged an LD block comprising *HLA-DQA1* and *HLA-DQB1*, which produce the functional HLA-DQ molecules. rs7453920 was located in *HLA-DQB2*, which, along with *HLA-DQA2*, is thought to be nonfunctional. The association of rs7453920 with functional *HLA-DQ* alleles was shown later^[24].

Additional GWAS for HBV persistence were performed in Japanese^[25], Korean^[26], Han Taiwanese^[27], and Han Chinese populations^[28-30] (Table 1, Figure 1). These GWAS repeatedly mapped the strongest signals within the *HLA-DP* and/or *HLA-DQ* loci, replicating the associations of rs3077, rs9277535, rs7453920 and rs2856718. Furthermore, independent studies genotyping the same SNPs validated these associations with high consistency in diverse Asian populations, including Chinese^[31-39], Japanese^[40], Thai^[41], Indonesians^[42], Tibetans and Uyghurs (Asian-Caucasian mix)^[43]. A meta-analysis of 62050 subjects from 29 case-control studies, mostly from Asian populations, further validated the associations of rs3077 and rs9277535^[44]. Replication studies were also

conducted in non-Asian populations, including Caucasians in Germany^[45], European Americans, African Americans^[46], Saudi Arabians population^[47], and multiethnic Argentine populations (Native American-European Caucasian mix)^[48]. With few exceptions and inconsistencies, probably due to different allele frequencies and LD structures in these populations, the associations of *HLA-DP* (rs3077 and rs9277535) and *HLA-DQ* (rs7453920 and rs2856718) SNPs were validated in these populations, too.

Most of the subsequent GWAS also revealed additional susceptibility loci for HBV persistence. To begin with, a GWAS in Korean chronic HBV carriers and non-infected healthy individuals identified two novel loci within the HLA region^[26]. These two loci, marked by rs652888 in *EHMT2* and rs1419881 in *TCF19*, had independent effects on HBV persistence. *EHMT2* is a histone lysine methyltransferase involved in gene expression regulation, and plays roles in immune cell development and differentiation^[49]. *TCF19* is a transcription factor necessary for cell survival and proliferation^[50]. A previous GWAS associated a non-synonymous SNP in *TCF19* with blood cell counts, including lymphocyte and monocyte (macrophage precursor) cell counts^[51], suggesting a potential mechanism by which *TCF19* variants affected immune mechanisms. However, the associations of rs652888 (*EHMT2*) and rs1419881 (*TCF19*) were not replicated in Chinese and Thai populations, probably due to different genetic structures^[24,30,41]. Additional replication studies are, therefore, necessary for both loci.

Another GWAS in Han Chinese used chronic HBV carriers as cases and individuals who naturally cleared HBV infection as controls, and revealed two additional loci^[28]. The first locus was marked by the lead SNP rs3130542, located near *HLA-C* within the HLA region. Conditional analysis showed that the effect of rs3130542 was independent of *HLA-DP* and *HLA-DQ* variants. Therefore, both class I and class II variants were detected by GWAS for HBV persistence. The second

Table 1 Results of genome-wide association studies for persistence of hepatitis B virus infection

Ref.	Study population	SNP ID	Minor/major alleles	Risk allele	P	OR	Location	Nearest gene	Functional class
Kamatani <i>et al</i> ^[22]	Japanese, Thai (n = 6387) ¹	rs3077	A/G	G	2.31 × 10 ⁻³⁸	0.56	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
		rs9277535	A/G	G	6.34 × 10 ⁻³⁹	0.57	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR
Mbarek <i>et al</i> ^[23]	Japanese (n = 9163) ¹	rs3077	A/G	G	1.57 × 10 ⁻⁶¹	1.87	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
		rs9277535	A/G	G	2.55 × 10 ⁻⁵⁴	1.77	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR
		rs2856718	A/G	A	3.99 × 10 ⁻³⁷	1.56	6p21.32	HLA-DQB1, HLA-DQA2	Intergenic
		rs7453920	A/G	G	5.98 × 10 ⁻²⁸	1.81	6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
Nishida <i>et al</i> ^[25]	Japanese (n = 1793) ²	rs3077	A/G	G	4.40 × 10 ⁻¹⁹	0.46	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
		rs9277542	A/G	G	1.28 × 10 ⁻¹⁵	0.5	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	Exon
Kim <i>et al</i> ^[26]	Korean (n = 4309) ²	rs3077	A/G	G	3.74 × 10 ⁻⁴⁰	0.53	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
		rs9277535	A/G	G	5.25 × 10 ⁻³⁹	0.53	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR
		rs2856718	A/G	A	1.78 × 10 ⁻²⁴	1.6	6p21.32	HLA-DQB1, HLA-DQA2	Intergenic
		rs7453920	A/G	G	6.71 × 10 ⁻²⁶	0.5	6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
		rs652888	G/A	G	7.07 × 10 ⁻¹³	1.38	6p21.33	EHMT2	Intron
		rs1419881	G/A	A	1.26 × 10 ⁻¹⁸	0.73	6p21.33	TCF19	3'UTR
Hu <i>et al</i> ^[28]	Chinese (n = 11791) ³	rs7453920	A/G	G	4.93 × 10 ⁻³⁷	0.53	6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
		rs3130542	A/G	A	9.49 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	1.33	6p21.33	HLA-C	Intergenic
		rs4821116	A/G	G	1.71 × 10 ⁻¹²	0.82	22q11.21	UBE2L3	Intron
		rs3077	A/G	G	6.50 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	0.75	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
Chang <i>et al</i> ^[27]	Han Taiwanese (n = 2688) ²	rs9277535	A/G	G	4.87 × 10 ⁻¹⁴	1.59	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR
		rs7453920	A/G	G	6.66 × 10 ⁻¹⁵	2.31	6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
Jiang <i>et al</i> ^[29]	Chinese (n = 18371) ¹	rs12614	T/C	C	1.28 × 10 ⁻³⁴	1.89	6p21.33	CFB	Exon
		rs422951	G/A	A	5.33 × 10 ⁻¹⁶	1.27	6p21.32	NOTCH4	Exon
		rs378352	T/C	T	1.04 × 10 ⁻²³	1.26	6p21.32	HLA-DOA	Exon
		rs2853953	A/G	G	5.06 × 10 ⁻²⁰	1.47	6p21.33	HLA-C	Intergenic
		rs1883832	T/C	T	2.95 × 10 ⁻¹⁵	1.19	20q13.12	CD40	5'UTR
		rs2856718	G/A	A	7.35 × 10 ⁻²⁸	1.28	6p21.32	HLA-DQB1, HLA-DQA2	Intergenic
		rs7453920	A/G	G	1.28 × 10 ⁻⁶⁰	2	6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
		rs9277535	A/G	G	9.84 × 10 ⁻⁷¹	1.52	6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR
		rs3077	A/G	G	1.15 × 10 ⁻⁵³	1.45	6p21.32	HLA-DPA1	3'UTR
Li <i>et al</i> ^[30]	Chinese (n = 9569) ³	rs7000921	C/T	T	3.20 × 10 ⁻¹²	0.78	8p21.3	INTS10	Intergenic
		rs7453920	A/G	G			6p21.32	HLA-DQB2	Intron
		rs9277535	A/G	G			6p21.32	HLA-DPB1	3'UTR

Participant phenotypes: ¹CHB *vs* Non-infected; ²Chronic HBV carriers *vs* Non-infected; ³Chronic HBV carriers *vs* Spontaneously recovered. OR: Odds ratio.

locus was marked by the lead SNP rs4821116, located in *UBE2L3* on chromosome 22. *UBE2L3* encodes an ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme, which enhances NFκB activation upon CD40 stimulation in B cells and TNF stimulation in monocytes^[52]. The protective variant of rs4821116 was associated with higher *UBE2L3* mRNA levels in peripheral blood monocytes^[53]. Moreover, *UBE2L3* was implicated in multiple autoimmune diseases; the risk variants correlated with higher *UBE2L3* expression in B cells and monocytes, enhanced NFκB activation, enhanced B cell proliferation and activation^[52]. Thus, hyperactivity of *UBE2L3*-related immune mechanisms conferred protection from infections on the one hand, but predisposed to autoimmunity on the other hand.

The GWAS with the largest sample size (2514 chronic HBV carriers and 1130 healthy controls of Chinese ethnicity in the discovery phase) was published in 2015, revealing five new SNPs independently associated with HBV persistence^[29]. Four of these SNPs, rs12614 in *CFB*, rs422951 in *NOTCH4*, rs2853953 near *HLA-C*, and rs378352 in *HLA-DOA* were located within the HLA region, whereas the other SNP, rs1883832, was located in *CD40*

on chromosome 20. rs12614_T/C in *CFB* represents a non-synonymous amino acid polymorphism (R32W) in complement factor B. The complement system is part of the innate immune response against viral infections, and is also involved in enhancing adaptive immune responses^[54]. Chronic HBV carriers and individuals with the risk genotype CC for rs12614 had significantly lower plasma CFB protein levels^[29]. rs422951 in *NOTCH4* also causes a non-synonymous amino acid change (T320A). Notch signaling regulates immune cell development and T-cell mediated immune responses^[55]. rs2853953 tagged *HLA-C* gene; however it was not in LD with the previously reported *HLA-C* tagging SNP rs3130542. Indeed, these two SNPs marked different *HLA-C* alleles; rs2853953 marked *HLA-C*06:02*, whereas rs3130542 marked *HLA-C*07:02*. rs378352 is located in exon 4 of *HLA-DOA*, causing a synonymous codon change. *HLA-DOA* encodes the α chain of the HLA-DO molecule, which, along with HLA-DM, regulates peptide loading to class II molecules. Whether or how this polymorphism affects HLA-DO function is currently unknown. Lastly, rs1883832_T/C is located in the Kozak sequence of

Table 2 Human leukocyte antigen classical alleles associated with hepatitis B virus persistence in more than one study

HLA gene	Associated alleles	Effect on HBV persistence	Study population	Ref.
<i>HLA-C</i>	*07:02	Protective	Chinese	[24,28,29]
<i>HLA-DPA1</i>	*01:03	Protective	Japanese, Korean, Chinese, Thai	[22,24,58]
	*02:02	Susceptible	Japanese, Korean, Chinese	[22,24,58]
<i>HLA-DPB1</i>	*04:01	Protective	Japanese, Chinese	[22,28,58]
	*04:02	Protective	Japanese, Korean	[22,58]
	*02:01	Protective	Chinese, Japanese	[28,58]
	*05:01	Susceptible	Japanese, Korean, Chinese	[22,24,58,59]
	*09:01	Susceptible	Japanese, Chinese	[22,24,58,59]
<i>HLA-DQA1</i>	*06:01	Susceptible	Chinese	[24,28,30]
<i>HLA-DQB1</i>	*03:02	Protective	Japanese, Chinese	[24,28,30,59]
	*03:01	Susceptible	African American, Chinese	[18,28,30]
	*06:01	Susceptible	Japanese	[23,59]
<i>HLA-DRB1</i>	*13:02	Protective	Japanese, Chinese, Gambian, Korean, Germany, European Americans	[24,59,68]

CD40, and was previously shown to affect its translational efficiency^[56]. The risk genotype TT for rs1883832 correlated with lower CD40 levels in the serum in both cases and controls^[29]. CD40 is a co-stimulatory receptor protein found on antigen-presenting cells. Its engagement with CD40 ligand (CD40L) on T cells initiates and promotes humoral and cellular adaptive immune responses^[57]. Intriguingly, rs1883832_T was previously associated with protection against multiple autoimmune diseases^[56]. Thus, CD40 plays an important role in regulating the magnitude of immune responses, and determining immunity vs tolerance. So far, the associations of rs12614 (*CFB*) and rs1883832 (*CD40*) were validated by independent studies in Han Chinese^[24,30]. Additional validation and functional studies are required to establish the roles of other genes and genetic variants in HBV persistence.

The most recent GWAS identified another novel locus (tagged by rs7000921) on chromosome 8 using persistently infected cases and spontaneously recovered controls in a Chinese population^[30]. rs7000921 was an eQTL for the nearby *INTS10* gene; the protective allele was associated with elevated *INTS10* expression in liver. *INTS10* encodes a subunit of the Integrator complex, which has multiple roles in transcriptional regulation. Subsequent analysis showed that *INTS10* was involved in suppressing HBV replication in hepatocyte cell lines, likely through an interferon-dependent mechanism^[30].

To sum up, GWAS for HBV infection persistence revealed many candidate genes with diverse functions in immune responses, improving our understanding of the molecular mechanisms leading to the success or failure of HBV clearance.

CLASSICAL HLA GENE VARIANTS AT THE INTERFACE OF HBV CLEARANCE AND PERSISTENCE

GWAS association signals within the *HLA-DP*, *HLA-DQ* and *HLA-C* loci implicated variable efficiencies in

presenting immunodominant HBV epitopes to T cells. Thus, in the next step after GWAS, the respective HLA genes were typed by direct sequencing or imputation (on the basis of typed SNPs from the study populations and haplotypes from the genetic reference populations), and classical HLA alleles with significant effects on HBV persistence were determined (Table 2). *HLA-DP* susceptible alleles (*DPA1**02:02; *DPB1**05:01, *09:01) and protective alleles (*DPA1**01:03; *DPB1**02:01, *04:01, *04:02) were identified with a high degree of consistency in multiple Japanese, Korean and Chinese populations^[22,24,28,30,58,59]. Moreover, *DPB1**01:01 and *DPB1**04:01 were identified as the most susceptible and the most protective *DPB1* allele, respectively, in European Americans and African Americans^[46]. Alleles with consistent effects in more than one population were also found for *HLA-DQ* and *HLA-C* genes; *DQB1**03:02 was revealed as a protective allele^[24,28,30,59], whereas *DQA1**06:01, *DQB1**03:01, *DQB1**06:01, and *HLA-C**07:02 were revealed as susceptible alleles^[23,24,28-30,59]. Systematic epitope discovery studies are warranted to identify the HBV-derived peptides efficiently presented by protective allotypes, but not by susceptible allotypes. The results of such studies might form the basis for epitope-specific therapeutic interventions.

A major distinction between *DPB1* protective alleles (*02:01, *04:01, *04:02) and *DPB1* susceptible alleles (*01:01, *05:01, *09:01) was in their amino acid residues at positions 84-87. Protective alleles encoded Gly/Gly/Pro/Met (GGPM), while susceptible alleles encoded Asn/Glu/Ala/Val (DEAV) at 84-87. These residues corresponded to the pocket-1 of the antigen-binding groove, an anchor region that determines the binding specificity of DP molecules^[60,61]. Epitope binding studies revealed that DP molecules with 84GGPM87 strongly bound aromatic and hydrophobic residues in their hydrophobic pocket-1, whereas DP molecules with 84DEAV87 also preferred positively charged residues, owing to the acidic residues at 84 and 85^[61,62]. These distinct binding motifs of DP allotypes likely form the basis of HBV chronicity as multiple risk-associated DP allotypes ineffectively present a common epitope motif

and lead to the failure of viral elimination. The identities of HBV peptides with this motif and their immunogenic properties remain to be determined by further functional assays.

It should be noted that the contribution of HLA-DP allotypes to HBV chronicity might also involve previously unprecedented mechanisms. It was recently shown that Gly-84 residue in DP molecules prevents the binding of the invariant chain *via* its CLIP region on the antigen-binding groove^[63]. CLIP binding is necessary to block endogenous peptide binding to class II molecules till they reach the MHC compartment where exogenous peptide loading takes place. Therefore, DP^{84Gly} molecules are able to present both intracellular and extracellular peptides^[63]. Whether or how this contributes to immunity against HBV needs to be examined in functional studies.

The HLA locus is characterized by high gene density, high genetic diversity and extensive LD structure, limiting the ability to pinpoint the causal variants^[64]. Some class II associations might not reflect primary effects given the strong LD between *DQ* and *DR* loci, and the weak LD between *DQ-DR* and *DP* loci. Hence, uncovering the LD patterns between the *DP*, *DQ* and *DR* alleles in the study population, rather than examining the alleles at a single locus, would help detecting the alleles with primary effects^[59]. Fine mapping studies in which associated loci are interrogated with many more variants than in GWAS prove to be useful in pinpointing the causal variants and revealing potential mechanisms. An interrogation of the entire HLA locus with 5375 variants, including 4356 SNPs, 849 amino acid polymorphisms and 170 classical alleles, in 1888 Chinese case-control individuals (from a previous HBV-persistence GWAS^[28]) identified four independently associated loci by stepwise conditional analysis^[24]. HLA-DPB1 amino acid polymorphisms at positions 84-87 were the strongest association, whereas HLA-C Leu-15 was the second strongest association, conferring the effect of *HLA-C*07:02*. The two other associated loci were novel; *HLA-DRB*13* allele and rs400488. *HLA-DRB*13* was associated with protection against HBV chronicity, and was in partial LD with the CFB-tagging SNP rs12614. *HLA-DRB*13* allele is distinct from other *DRB1* alleles by the presence of Glu-71 in pocket-4, an anchor region for epitope binding of DR molecules, implying a specific binding motif. Remarkably, *HLA-DRB*13* was one of the few classical HLA alleles identified in the pre-GWAS era with highly reproducible associations across different ethnicities^[65-68]. On the other hand, the biological relevance of rs400488, an eQTL for the pseudogene *HLA-J*, is currently unknown^[24].

The effects of associated SNPs on HLA gene expression were also investigated. An eQTL analysis showed that the risk alleles of rs3077 and rs9277535 were associated with lower *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* mRNA levels, respectively, in normal liver tissues^[69]. Furthermore, allelic expression imbalance assays for both SNPs confirmed that the risk alleles were expressed less abundantly than the protective alleles in liver and blood monocyte samples from heterozygous individuals^[69].

Two separate genome-wide gene expression association studies previously found similar trends for the *HLA-DQ* SNP rs7453920 and the *HLA-C* SNP rs3130542. The risk variant of rs7453920 was associated with lower *HLA-DQ* mRNA levels in peripheral blood monocytes^[53], while the risk variant of rs3130542 was associated with lower *HLA-C* mRNA in lymphoblastoid cell lines derived from European subjects^[70]. Moreover, the susceptible *HLA-C*07:02* allele, tagged by rs3130542, have an intact mir-148a binding site, and a low expression due to RNA interference^[71]. These results suggested that reduced expression of HLA-DP and HLA-DQ molecules in antigen-presenting cells, and reduced expression of HLA-C molecule in hepatocytes might result in ineffective antigen presentation to T cells, leading to inability to clear HBV infection, and thus, HBV persistence. However, a discrepant result was noted for rs9277534_A/G, the most significant *HLA-DPB1* SNP in European Americans and African Americans^[46]. The risk allele rs9277534_G correlated with higher HLA-DPB1 surface protein levels in lymphoid cell lines and higher *HLA-DPB1* mRNA levels in B lymphocytes isolated from healthy donors. This conflicting result can be reconciled with the previous findings by taking into account that rs9277534_G was also in strong LD with the most susceptible *HLA-DPB1* allele (**01:01*) in these populations. Thus, the risk-conferring effect of *HLA-DPB1*01:01* probably prevailed over the protective effect of its increased expression.

To sum up, polymorphisms marking the classical HLA genes influence immune responses by altering the antigen-binding properties of HLA molecules and the expression levels thereof. The relative contributions of these effects to susceptibility to HBV persistence vary among populations depending on the allele frequencies of variants and LD relationships among them.

GWAS FOR IMMUNE RESPONSE TO HEPATITIS B VACCINE

The standard 3 doses of hepatitis B vaccine (based on recombinant HBs antigen) have been implemented as part of the routine infantile vaccination program in more than 160 countries, as a result of which substantial declines in the prevalence of chronic HBV carriers and in the incidence of childhood HBV-related liver diseases have been observed^[6,72]. However, there is a large natural variation in the antibody response to hepatitis B vaccine. Post-vaccination antibody titers range from undetectable levels to higher than 2000 mIU/mL^[73]. Anti-HBs titers above 100 mIU/mL are referred to as successful vaccination, whereas anti-HBs titers below 10 mIU/mL as non-protective. Individuals that mount an antibody response below this threshold, *i.e.*, non-responders, are at a high risk of HBV infection. Booster vaccination can trigger an antibody response at protective levels in a subset of non-responders^[74].

Three GWAS were implemented to date to identify the genetic factors that underlie the variation in the

Table 3 Results of genome-wide association studies for non-response to hepatitis B vaccine

Ref.	Study population	SNP ID	Minor/major alleles	Risk allele	P	OR	Location	Nearest gene	Functional class
Png <i>et al</i> ^[73]	Indonesian (n = 3614) ¹	rs3135363	C/T	C	6.53×10^{-22}	1.53	6p21.32	<i>BTNL2</i> , <i>HLA-DRA</i>	Intergenic
		rs9277535	A/G	G	2.91×10^{-12}	0.72	6p21.32	<i>HLA-DPA1</i>	3'UTR
		rs9267665	T/C	T	1.24×10^{-17}	2.05	6p21.33	<i>STK19</i>	Intron
		rs477515	T/C	T	2.63×10^{-19}	2.05	6p21.32	<i>HLA-DRB1</i>	Intergenic
Pan <i>et al</i> ^[76]	Chinese (n = 1944) ²								
Wu <i>et al</i> ^[81]	Taiwanese (n = 285) ³	rs7770370	A/G	G	1.20×10^{-48}	0.33	6p21.32	<i>HLA-DPB1</i>	Intergenic

Participant phenotypes: ¹Low, intermediate and high responders to primary vaccine (ordinal groups); ²High responders to primary vaccine *vs* non-responders to booster vaccine; ³Non-responders *vs* responders to booster vaccine.

immune response to hepatitis B vaccine (Figure 1, Table 3). The first GWAS was conducted in Indonesians by grouping vaccine recipients into three classes (*i.e.*, low, intermediate and high) on the basis of their post-vaccination antibody titers^[73]. Stepwise conditional analysis revealed three independently associated haplotype blocks within the HLA region. The first haplotype block, tagged by rs3135363, encompassed *HLA-DRA* and *BTNL2*. *HLA-DRA* encodes the sole α chain for HLA-DR molecules, and *BTNL2* encodes a transmembrane protein involved in the negative regulation of T cell activation. *BTNL2* was previously associated with autoimmune diseases^[75]. The second haplotype block, tagged by rs9277535, encompassed *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes, suggesting that *HLA-DP* variants contribute to both HBV persistence and non-response to vaccine. A shared genetic basis for these traits is conceivable given that anti-HBs antibody production is a marker for both successful immune response to vaccine and clearance of HBV infection^[3]. Lastly, the third haplotype block, tagged by rs9267665, was located within the class III region, consisting of many genes found in strong LD. Therefore, further research is needed to pinpoint the causal genes^[73].

The second GWAS for vaccine nonresponse used Chinese adults with marginal phenotypes: non-responders (< 10 mIU/mL) after booster vaccination *vs* high-responders (> 1000 mIU/mL) after primary vaccination^[76]. The strongest associations (led by rs477515) were detected within the *HLA-DR* locus, and *HLA-DRB1**07:01 was significantly associated with nonresponse to hepatitis B vaccination^[76]. Numerous studies previously associated *DRB1**07:01 with both vaccine non-response and persistent HBV infection in multiple ethnic populations^[77-79]. Furthermore, *DRB1**07 was also associated with decreased risk of HBV-related cirrhosis in a Turkish population^[80], implicating a *DRB1**07-associated hypo-immune profile against HBV.

The third GWAS used subjects with detectable and undetectable (> or < 1 mIU/mL, respectively) post-booster antibody titers from a cohort of booster vaccine recipient Taiwanese adolescents who had not responded to primary vaccination as infants^[81]. Significant associations were mapped to the *HLA-DP* locus. The lead

SNP rs7770370 was in strong LD with rs9277535. *HLA-DPB1* alleles *02:01, *02:02, *03:01, *04:01 and *14:01 (encoding 84GGPM87) were associated with vaccine response, whereas *05:01 and *09:01 (encoding 84DEAV87) were associated with vaccine nonresponse^[74,81]. These associations were further confirmed in a Japanese population^[82]. Hence, *HLA-DPB1* alleles influenced the outcome of vaccine response in the same manner as of HBV persistence, corroborating further that the ability to present the same HBs epitopes is critical in both traits. In line with this, *HLA-DP* SNPs (*e.g.*, rs7770370, rs9277535 and rs3077) were also associated with vaccine nonresponse in independent replication studies in Korean infants^[83] and Japanese medical students^[84]; and vaccine nonresponse-associated rs477515 (*HLA-DRB1*) also correlated with HBV persistence in a Chinese population^[30]. However, *HLA-DQ* SNPs (rs2856718 and rs7453920) were not associated with vaccine responsiveness^[84]. Therefore, the genetic bases of HBV persistence and nonresponse to hepatitis B vaccine overlap considerably, but not completely.

GWAS FOR HBV-RELATED ADVANCED LIVER DISEASES

Host genetic variation underlying the clinical heterogeneity of chronic HBV infections has been the topic of GWAS, too (Figure 1, Table 4). A GWAS used 648 HBV-infected Saudi Arabian subjects, comprising 343 inactive carriers, 249 patients with CHB, and 76 patients with end-stage liver diseases (*i.e.*, cirrhosis and HCC), to study liver disease progression in chronic HBV infection^[85]. The strongest association, rs2724432, was obtained using cases with end-stage liver diseases and controls with inactive HBV infection. rs2724432 was located upstream of *FDX1*, the product of which is involved in electron transfer from NADH to cytochrome P450. *FDX1* plays a role in steroid and vitamin D synthesis in the adrenals, and bile acid synthesis in the liver^[85]. Further functional assays are necessary to confirm the association of rs2724432 and the underlying molecular mechanisms. Some of the GWAS for HBV persistence contained in their case groups chronic HBV carriers with and without

Table 4 Results of genome-wide association studies for hepatitis B virus-related advanced liver diseases

Ref.	Study population	Participant phenotypes	SNP ID	Minor/major alleles	Risk allele	P	OR	Location	Nearest gene	Functional class
Al-Qahtani <i>et al</i> ^[85]	Saudi Arabian (n = 693)	LC/HCC vs Inactive ¹	rs2724432	T/C	T	4.29×10^{-08}	3.01	11q22.3	<i>FDX1</i>	Intergenic
Zhang <i>et al</i> ^[88]	Chinese (n = 4107)	HCC vs Non-HCC ²	rs17401966	G/A	A	3.40×10^{-19}	0.62	1p36.22	<i>KIF1B</i>	Intron
Chan <i>et al</i> ^[91]	Chinese (n = 1420)	HCC vs Non-HCC ²	rs12682266	A/G	G	3.76×10^{-05}	1.38	8p12	Expressed sequenced tag	Intergenic
Li <i>et al</i> ^[89]	Chinese (n = 12159)	HCC vs Non-HCC ²	rs9272105	A/G	A	5.24×10^{-22}	1.28	6p21.32	<i>HLA-DQA1</i> , <i>HLA-DRB1</i>	Intergenic
Jiang <i>et al</i> ^[90]	Chinese (n = 11799)	HCC vs Non-HCC ²	rs455804 rs7574865 rs9275319	A/C T/G G/A	C G A	5.24×10^{-10} 2.48×10^{-10} 2.72×10^{-17}	0.84 1.21 1.49	21q21.3 2q32.2-2q32.3 6p21.32	<i>GRIK1</i> <i>STAT4</i> <i>HLA-DQB1</i> , <i>HLA-DQA2</i>	Intron Intron Intergenic
Tan <i>et al</i> ^[86]	Chinese (n = 3387)	ACLF vs Inactive ³	rs3129859	C/G	C	2.64×10^{-20}	1.83	6p21.32	<i>HLA-DQB1</i> , <i>HLA-DRA</i>	Intergenic

¹HBV carriers with LC or HCC vs inactive chronic carriers; ²Chronic HBV carriers with HCC vs chronic HBV carriers without HCC; ³Acute-on-chronic liver failure vs inactive chronic HBV carriers. LC: Liver cirrhosis; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; HBV: Hepatitis B virus.

end-stage liver diseases. At least one GWAS employed a secondary genome-wide analysis using these subgroups^[25], however, failed to identify any significant association, possibly due to small sample size.

A GWAS in Han Chinese investigated the risk loci for acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF) in chronic HBV carriers, a life-threatening condition that develops as a result of sudden acute exacerbation of chronic infection^[86]. rs3129859 within the *HLA-DR* locus was associated with HBV-related ACLF. Subsequent in silico genotyping of *HLA* alleles and conditional association analysis showed that the effect of rs3129859 was dependent on the *HLA-DRB1**12:02 allele^[86]. Concordant with this finding, *HLA-DRB1**12 was previously associated with the development of HBV-related cirrhosis and HCC in Han Chinese^[87].

To find the genetic risk loci for HBV-related HCC, several GWAS were implemented using HBV carriers with HCC as cases and HCC-free HBV carriers as controls^[88-92] (Table 4). All of these GWAS used Chinese cohorts, exploiting the facts that more than half of HCC cases were found in China, and 80% of HCC incidences were attributable to HBV^[93]. The first GWAS identified rs17401966, located in *KIF1B* on chromosome 1^[88]. *KIF1B* encodes a kinesin protein involved in organelle and vesicle transport, and is a putative tumor suppressor^[94]. The protective variant of rs17401966 significantly correlated with higher KIF1B protein levels in tumor-adjacent tissues, but not in HCC tissues^[88]. The haplotype block tagged by rs17401966 also encompassed the entire *PGD* gene and the 3' end of *UBE4B* gene. The products of these genes are involved in pentose phosphate metabolism and multiubiquitin chain assembly, respectively. Additional studies are necessary to identify the causal gene in this locus. Another GWAS identified rs9272105 within the HLA region and rs455804

on chromosome 21^[89]. rs9272105 was located in the intergenic region between *HLA-DQA1* and *HLA-DRB1*. *HLA-DRB1* alleles *04:05 and *09:01 only partially accounted for the association of rs9272105, implying additional risk variants in LD with this SNP. rs455804 was located in intron 1 of *GRIK1*, which encodes an ionotropic glutamate receptor, suggesting involvement of glutamate signaling in hepatocarcinogenesis. Two additional risk loci were revealed in another GWAS: rs7574865 and rs9275319^[90]. rs7574865 tagged *STAT4* on chromosome 2. *STAT4* is a transcription factor with important roles in the regulation of antiviral immune responses; it induces IFN- γ production in response to stimulation by interleukin-12 and type I interferons (IFN- α and IFN- β)^[95]. HCC risk-associated variant of rs7574865 correlated with lower *STAT4* mRNA expression in both HCC and non-tumor tissues^[90]. rs9275319 tagged *HLA-DQB1* and *HLA-DQA2*, and its effect on HCC risk was only partially accounted for by *DQB1**04:01 and *DQA1**03:03 alleles, indicating other risk variants in the associated locus.

SNPs identified in GWAS for HBV-related HCC were further investigated in replication studies. Intriguingly, no evidence was found for the association of rs17401966 (*KIF1B*) with HCC risk in chronic HBV carriers in subsequent GWAS and other replication studies in Chinese^[36,96], Japanese^[97], Korean^[97], and Thai populations^[98]. Moreover, rs17401966 was also not associated with HBV infection persistence in Chinese^[99], Japanese^[23] and Saudi Arabian populations^[100]. Comparable allele frequencies were detected between different subgroups of chronic carriers (namely, inactive carriers, active carriers, cirrhosis and HCC) in Saudi Arabian and Chinese populations^[100,101]. These results indicated that rs17401966 was a risk factor neither for HBV infection persistence nor for advancement of liver disease.

Replication studies for rs7574865 (*STAT4*) produced inconsistent results. The association of rs7574865 with HBV-related HCC was validated in Vietnamese^[102] and Korean^[103] populations, but not in two separate Chinese populations^[38,96]. The effect of rs7574865_T/G on susceptibility to persistent HBV infection was also examined. HCC risk allele rs7574865_G was significantly associated with chronic HBV infection in Koreans^[103] and Chinese^[104]. However, this association was not reproduced in another Chinese population^[38]. Lastly, rs7574865_G was also significantly associated with the risk of HBV-related cirrhosis in a Chinese population^[101]. Overall, these results supported a role for *STAT4* polymorphisms in HBV infection outcomes in a population specific manner.

The associations of the two HBV-related HCC risk SNPs within the *HLA-DQ/DR* locus (rs9275319 and rs9272105) were validated by an independent replication study in Chinese subjects^[105], whereas two separate studies in Koreans^[103] and in Chinese^[106] failed to replicate the association of rs9275319. rs9275319 was also associated with susceptibility to HBV persistence in the original GWAS^[90], and in other replication studies performed in Korean^[103] and Chinese populations^[30,106]. Moreover, rs9275319 was associated with increased risk of cirrhosis in Chinese HBV carriers^[101]. Therefore, it might be speculated that rs9275319 was associated with an ineffective immune profile against HBV that is too weak to clear HBV infection, yet strong enough to maintain a state of basal liver necroinflammation leading to advanced liver diseases. On the other hand, the effect of rs9272105 on HBV persistence is not yet clear. HCC risk-associated variant of rs9272105 conferred susceptibility to chronic HBV infection in one Chinese population^[30], and protection against chronic HBV infection in another Chinese population^[89]. These conflicting results indicated that rs9272105 did not have a primary effect on HBV persistence.

To fully explore whether the genetic bases of HBV persistence and HBV-related liver diseases overlap, SNPs identified in GWAS for HBV persistence were also examined for possible effects on the development of advanced liver diseases. Most studies showed that *HLA-DP* variants (rs3077 and rs9277535) were associated neither with progression from inactive carrier state to disease-active states^[35,37,39,45], nor with development of end-stage liver diseases^[31,35,38,39,47]. Similar results were found for *HLA-DQ* variants (rs2856718 and rs7453920) regarding the development of end-stage liver diseases^[38,39,47]. Only few studies reported significant associations of these SNPs with HBV-related HCC risk^[36,89,107]. A meta-analysis with 4864 HBV-positive HCC cases and 29790 HBV-infected controls also failed to associate rs3077 and rs9277535 with HCC risk^[44]. Lastly, none of the 13 HBV persistence risk SNPs that were identified hitherto in GWAS were found to be associated with HBV-related HCC in a population of 1161 cases and 1353 controls^[29]. Therefore, SNPs that were associated with HBV persistence/clearance had minimal, if any, ef-

fects on progression of liver disease in chronic carriers. These results implied that distinct immune mechanisms might be critical at different stages of HBV infection, probably reflecting the evolving dynamics between HBV and the host immune system during chronic infections.

CONCLUSION

It is important to have a comprehensive understanding of the mechanisms of failure to clear HBV infection, and translate this knowledge into effective therapies to prevent the development of chronicity and other adverse outcomes. With this motive, many GWAS were performed to dissect the genetic basis of HBV-related traits. These GWAS provided novel insights into the pathogenesis of HBV persistence and non-response to hepatitis B vaccine. For instance, the association of *HLA-DPB1* with HBV persistence was unknown before GWAS. *DPB1* gene was neglected in previous candidate gene-based association studies, mainly because it was less polymorphic than *DQB1* and *DRB* genes^[46]. In addition to the classical HLA genes *HLA-DP*, *HLA-DQ* and *HLA-C*, GWAS for HBV persistence provided candidate genes including non-classical HLA genes (*EHMT2*, *TCF19*, *CFB*, *NOTCH4*) and non-HLA genes (*UBE2L3*, *CD40*, *INTS10*), indicating that genetic susceptibility to HBV persistence is determined by regulation of immune responses at multiple levels. Many of these candidate genes had known roles in immune responses, whereas some were novel. Besides improving our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying HBV-related pathologies, GWAS findings are likely to have other immediate and long-running clinical implications. For instance, genetic markers provided by GWAS can be used to predict the individuals that are at a higher risk for worse prognosis, demanding a closer medical surveillance. Furthermore, identification of novel protective HLA allotypes might be exploited for the development of more effective vaccines based on alternative epitopes.

Despite their initial success, some of these GWAS also had certain limitations, including small sample sizes, lack of information on age at first infection, transmission route, maternal status and HBV genotype, unknown infection history of controls, unknown infection status for HCV and HIV, and imperfect match of age, gender and genetic background among some case-control groups. GWAS for HBV-related advanced liver diseases additionally suffered from the stochasticity of disease pathogenesis. For instance, the randomness of HBV DNA integration events in the host genome adds to the heterogeneity of HBV-related HCC^[108]. Cirrhosis and HCC typically occur more than 20 years after the initial infection^[109]. Smoking, alcohol consumption, aflatoxin exposure, obesity, diabetes, and treatment interventions during this period are strong confounders that also lead to clinical heterogeneity^[110]. The lack of consistent associations in GWAS for HBV-related advanced liver diseases might be due to these confounders. Hence, these GWAS must be designed in a better way to ac-

count for each of these factors^[111,112].

Interestingly, the susceptible alleles in the *HLA-DP/DQ* locus are more frequent in Asian populations than in Caucasians, which might be one of the causes for higher prevalence of chronic HBV infections in Asia^[22,113]. However, most of these susceptible alleles are not frequent in Africa, too, even though chronic hepatitis B is as prevalent in Africa as in Asia. Given that the predominant mode of transmission and HBV genotypes are different in Asia and Africa (vertical vs horizontal; B, C vs A, D, E; respectively), the genetic architecture for predisposition to chronic HBV infection also varies among these populations^[7,113]. Hence, allele frequency distributions across human populations might give important insights into human-HBV co-evolution.

GWAS for HBV-related traits have almost exclusively been implemented in Asian populations. So far, there is no GWAS in Africans, and only one GWAS in Saudi Arabians, where the dominant HBV genotype is D^[7]. Populations with different ancestries harbor different haplotype structures and allele frequencies; therefore, implementing GWAS in other populations might also help narrow down the associated loci. This is especially desirable for fine mapping studies. Fine mapping studies on the HLA locus, where extensive LD structure hampers the detection of causal variants, are of utmost importance since immune-related genes are concentrated in this region. The findings of such studies would reveal novel insights into the pathogenesis of HBV-related traits. Therefore, additional GWAS and fine mapping studies, implemented with more refined case-control designs, larger samples, and in other ethnic populations, would further improve our understanding of HBV infection pathophysiology.

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Current guidelines for the management of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease: A systematic review with comparative analysis

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Abstract

The current epidemic of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is reshaping the field of hepatology all around the world. The widespread diffusion of metabolic risk factors such as obesity, type2-diabetes mellitus, and dyslipidemia has led to a worldwide diffusion of NAFLD. In parallel to the increased availability of effective anti-viral agents, NAFLD is rapidly becoming the most common cause of chronic liver disease in Western Countries, and a similar trend is expected in Eastern Countries in the next years. This epidemic and its consequences have prompted experts from all over the world in identifying effective strategies for the diagnosis, management, and treatment of NAFLD. Different scientific societies from Europe, America, and Asia-Pacific regions have proposed guidelines based on the most recent evidence about NAFLD. These guidelines are consistent with the key elements in the management of NAFLD, but still, show significant difference about some critical points. We reviewed the current literature in English language to identify the most recent scientific guidelines about NAFLD with the aim to find and critically analyse the main differences. We distinguished guidelines from 5 different scientific societies whose reputation is worldwide recognised and who are representative of the clinical practice in different geographical regions. Differences were noted in: the definition of NAFLD, the opportunity of NAFLD screening in high-risk patients, the non-invasive test proposed for the diagnosis of NAFLD and the identification of NAFLD patients with advanced fibrosis, in the follow-up protocols and, finally, in the treatment strategy (especially in the proposed pharmacological management). These difference have been discussed in the light of the possible evolution of the scenario of

NAFLD in the next years.

Key words: Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; Metformin; Liver steatosis; Liver biopsy; Non-invasive diagnosis; Pioglitazone; Clinical guidelines

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Core tip: Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is becoming the most common cause of chronic liver disease. As such, an increasing number of scientific reports are investing this condition. To translate these evidence into clinical practice, international scientific societies have proposed guidelines for the management of NAFLD. In this review, we will critically analyse both the converging and diverging points in the current clinical guidelines of NAFLD, with a particular focus on the diagnostic and therapeutic aspects.

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INTRODUCTION

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) includes a spectrum of disorders ranging from the simple fatty liver to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, with increasing fibrosis leading to cirrhosis^[1]. The prevalence of NAFLD is alarmingly growing worldwide in adult and children/adolescent populations, with a bidirectional association between NAFLD and metabolic syndrome^[2]. Obesity, insulin resistance, type 2 diabetes mellitus, and dyslipidemia are the most relevant metabolic conditions related to this spectrum of diseases^[1,2].

Clinicians and researchers from several scientific Associations worldwide put significant efforts into increasing knowledge and developing high-quality International Guidelines to improve the management of NAFLD patients in clinical practice. Multidisciplinary panels of experts in different continents have performed systematic analysis and review of the literature on specified topics in the last years. These efforts have led to the creation and publication of various Guidelines.

This paper aims to review and compare the most recently published International Guidelines for the diagnosis and the management of NAFLD in adult populations, to critically evaluate similarities and discrepancies. In particular, we tried to analyse some critical questions and challenges for clinicians in real life.

LITERATURE SEARCH

We performed a database search on PubMed selecting

papers published between January 2016 and January 2018 in the English language. The following keywords and terms were considered: (1) Fatty liver disease (("fatty liver"[MeSH Terms] OR ("fatty"[All Fields] AND "liver"[All Fields]) OR "fatty liver"[All Fields]) AND ("disease"[MeSH Terms] OR "disease"[All Fields])) AND guideline ("guideline"[Publication Type] OR "guidelines as topic"[MeSH Terms] OR "guideline"[All Fields]) AND management ("organization and administration"[MeSH Terms] OR ("organization"[All Fields] AND "administration"[All Fields]) OR "organization and administration"[All Fields] OR "management"[All Fields] OR "disease management"[MeSH Terms] OR ("disease"[All Fields] AND "management"[All Fields]) OR "disease management"[All Fields]); (2) Fatty liver disease AND recommendation (("fatty liver"[MeSH Terms] OR ("fatty"[All Fields] AND "liver"[All Fields]) OR "fatty liver"[All Fields]) AND ("disease"[MeSH Terms] OR "disease"[All Fields])) AND recommendation[All Fields]; (3) Fatty liver disease and position paper (("fatty liver"[MeSH Terms] OR ("fatty"[All Fields] AND "liver"[All Fields]) OR "fatty liver"[All Fields]) AND ("disease"[MeSH Terms] OR "disease"[All Fields])) AND (position[All Fields] AND ("paper"[MeSH Terms] OR "paper"[All Fields])).

According to this criteria, 119 papers were identified. As a second step, we excluded papers which were not pertinent to any of the following criteria: (1) Clinical Guidelines related to diagnosis and management of NAFLD in the adult population; (2) clinical Guidelines published by Governmental agencies and Scientific Associations.

According to the selection criteria, out of 119 results of PubMed research, 5 Guidelines were finally included in this analysis. These guidelines are strictly focused on the topic of diagnosis and management of NAFLD in adult, excluding pediatric populations and special groups. In detail, the five selected papers included (from the oldest to the newest date of publication): (1) "EASL-EASD-EASO Clinical Practice Guidelines for the management of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease" by the European Association for the Study of The Liver (EASL), published in 2016^[3]; (2) "Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): Assessment and management" by the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE), published in 2016^[4]; (3) "Asia-Pacific Working Party on Non-Alcoholic Fatty Liver Disease guidelines" published in 2017^[5,6]; (4) Italian Association for the Study of the Liver (AISF). AISF position paper on nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD): Updates and future directions, published in 2017^[7]; (5) "The diagnosis and Management of Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease: Practice Guidance From the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases" published in 2018^[8].

OPEN QUESTIONS

Definition, classification, and diagnostic criteria of NAFLD

Definition and classification: A definition of NAFLD

Table 1 Diagnostic criteria for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease according to the various guidelines

	EASL	NICE	Asia-Pacific	AISF	AASLD
Required criteria	Steatosis in > 5% of hepatocytes by either imaging or histology No other causes of steatosis Insulin resistance	Excessive fat in the liver No other causes of steatosis No significant alcohol consumption	Hepatic steatosis by either imaging or histology No other causes of steatosis No significant alcohol consumption	Hepatic steatosis on either imaging or histology No other causes of steatosis No significant alcohol consumption	Evidence of hepatic steatosis either by imaging or histology No other causes of steatosis No significant alcohol consumption No coexisting chronic liver disease
Alcohol consumption threshold (men)	30 g/d	30 g/d	2 standard drink/d 140 g/wk	30 g/d	21 standard drink/wk 294 g/wk
Alcohol consumption threshold (women)	20 g/d	20 g/d	1 standard drink/d 70 g/wk	20 g/d	14 standard drink/wk 196 g/wk

EASL: European Association for the Study of the Liver; NICE: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; AISF: Italian Association for the study of the Liver; AASLD: American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases; MRI: Magnetic resonance imaging.

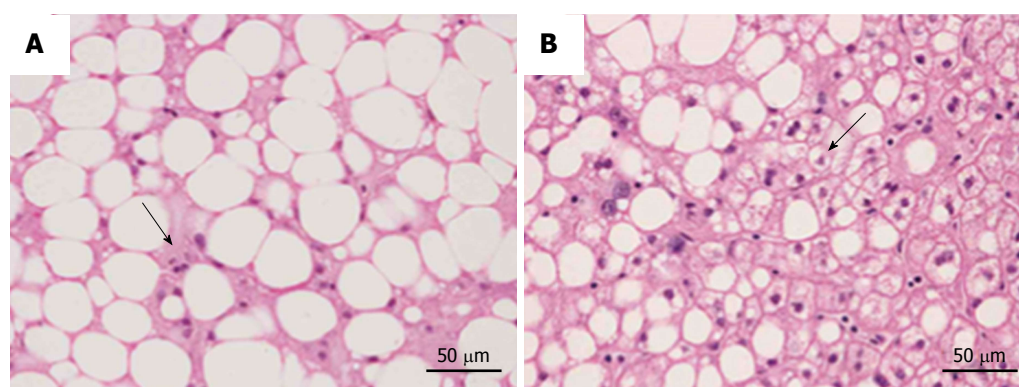


Figure 1 Main difference between non-alcoholic fatty liver and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. A: Non-alcoholic fatty liver; B: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. NAFL is characterized by minimal inflammatory infiltrate without hepatocyte ballooning (arrow). Instead, NASH is associated with lobular inflammatory infiltrate and hepatocyte degeneration (arrow). NAFL: Non-alcoholic fatty liver; NASH: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis.

is reported in all Guidelines (Table 1). The characteristic points of NAFLD definition include (1) the evidence of excessive hepatic fat accumulation in the liver parenchyma (detected by imaging techniques or histology); (2) the absence of other secondary causes of hepatic fat. Out of them, to strictly define NAFLD patients a significant ongoing or recent alcohol consumption have to be excluded in all recommendation^[3-8].

All recommendations identify some different clinical-pathological entities, according to the progression of hepatic histological changes. Simple steatosis and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) are defined in all guidelines^[3-8]. In detail simple steatosis, also called non-alcoholic fatty liver (NAFL) includes all of the case characterized by steatosis with minimal or absent lobular inflammation. On the contrary, NASH is characterized by hepatocyte ballooning degeneration, diffused lobular inflammation and fibrosis (Figure 1)

Additionally, EASL Asia-Pacific Guidelines and AISF position paper also underline the problem of NAFLD-related HCC, potentially occurring in patients with NAFLD but without cirrhosis^[9,10].

Diagnostic criteria: The role of alcohol: The agreement between the different guidelines is not complete when defining the threshold dose of alcohol consumption. As shown in Table 1, EASL^[3], NICE, and AISF guidelines^[3,4,7] consider as significant an alcohol consumption > 30 g/d in men and > 20 g/d in women. The AASLD guidance^[8] indicate the reasonable threshold for significant alcohol consumption > 21 standard drink on average per week in men and > 14 in women. For Asia-Pacific Guidelines^[5] a significant alcohol intake was considered > 7 standard alcoholic drinks/week (70 g ethanol) in women and > 14 (140 g) in men.

Who should be screened for NAFLD?

According to the screening programs adopted for other diseases, systematic screening has to be performed for significant health problem with available diagnostic facilities and accepted treatment. Also, there should be recognisable latent or early symptomatic stage, identifiable with sensitive tests. To adequately perform a screening program, the natural history of the disease should be understood, and the economic burden should

Table 2 Comparative analysis of the recommendations regarding the screening for non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

	EASL	NICE	Asia-Pacific	AISF	AASLD
Systematic screening	No	No	No	No	No
Screening in high-risk groups	Yes Obesity Metabolic syndrome Abnormal liver enzymes	Yes Obesity Type II Diabetes	Yes Obesity Type II Diabetes	Not mentioned	No ¹
Screening modality	Yes liver enzymes	No liver enzymes Yes ultrasonography	No liver enzymes Yes ultrasonography Yes transient elastography		

¹"Active surveillance" (but not screening) suggested for patients with type II diabetes mellitus. EASL: European Association for the Study of the Liver; NICE: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; AISF: Italian Association for the Study of the Liver; AASLD: American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases.

be suitable.

The international guidelines partially diverge about this topic. This disagreement derives from essential considerations regarding natural history, special groups, diagnosis, and therapy: (1) NAFLD in a common cause of chronic liver disease in general population but cause severe liver disease in a small proportion of affected people^[1]; (2) Type II diabetes patients have higher prevalence of NAFLD, NASH and advanced fibrosis^[11-13]; (3) There is a current lack of effective drug treatment; (4) Liver biopsy is a procedure with related risks; (6) Few cost-effective analysis are available^[14].

All these considerations imply a different approach to screening in NAFLD by the Scientific Societies. Only EASL, NICE Asia-Pacific Guidelines^[3-5] recommend screening respectively in particular, "high-risk" groups (Table 2). On the contrary, AASLD guidelines emphasise that, to date, there is no evidence of cost-effectiveness to support a NAFLD screening in adults even if they have several metabolic risk factors, instead suggesting a concept of "vigilance" in these populations^[8].

Which noninvasive test(s) should be used to diagnose NAFLD?

Worldwide guidelines agree that, whenever NAFLD is suspected, the initial diagnostic workup should include a noninvasive imaging examination to confirm the presence of steatosis and general liver biochemistry^[3-8]. Non-invasive assessment should aim first of all to identify NAFLD among patients with metabolic risk factors, and then to monitor disease progression and treatment response, identifying patients with the worst prognosis^[3].

Imaging: There is a consensus for using abdominal ultrasound (US) as the first-line examination to identify liver steatosis in patients with increased liver blood exams or suspected NAFLD, in daily clinical practice (Figure 2). The main advantages of US derive from its broad availability and low cost. However, its sensitivity among morbidly obese patients (BMI > 40 kg/m²) is low, and it may miss the diagnosis when the liver hepatic fat content is < 20%^[15,16]. Despite these limitations, EASL and AISF underline how ultrasound can significantly assess moderate and severe steatosis, even if an observ-

er dependency remains^[15]. NICE guidelines propose to use liver ultrasound to detect hepatic steatosis for children with metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes and to retest it every three years if the first examination is negative^[4].

On the other hand, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), either by proton density fat fraction (¹H-MRS) or spectroscopy, remains the gold standard to assess and quantify hepatic steatosis, detecting the amount of liver fat as low as 5%-10%, its use in the clinical practice is still limited. In fact, despite its robust accuracy, its limited availability, high costs and a long time of execution, make the procedure not recommended in the daily clinical setting^[17]. Asia-Pacific guidelines specify that ¹H-MRS is the best option to quantify even moderate changes in liver fat content in clinical trials, considering its high sensitivity compared to histological-proven liver fat reversal. Similarly, EASL guidelines highlight its role, primarily as screening imaging examination for clinical trials and experimental studies^[3].

Another imaging technique used to quantify liver fat content is the ultrasonography-based transient elastography (TE) using continuous attenuation parameter (CAP). This promising tool has shown a good sensitivity, measuring simultaneously liver stiffness, potentially evaluating NAFLD severity at the same setting^[13]. However, despite its low cost and rapidity of execution, its role in the clinical practice has still to be defined. In fact, EASL guidelines specify that TE has never been compared with hepatic steatosis measured by ¹H-MRS and there are limited data about its ability to discriminate different histological patterns^[3]. On the other hand, Asia-Pacific guidelines propose CAP as a useful screening tool for NAFLD diagnosis, as well as for demonstrating improvement in hepatic steatosis after lifestyle intervention and body weight reduction^[5].

Conventional liver biochemistry: Although NAFLD may present by standard laboratory liver tests, frequently a slight increase of aspartate aminotransferase (AST) or alanine aminotransferase (ALT) or gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase (GammaGT) is observed. However, all the guidelines agree that normal levels of liver enzymes may not exclude NAFLD, being a not sensitive screening

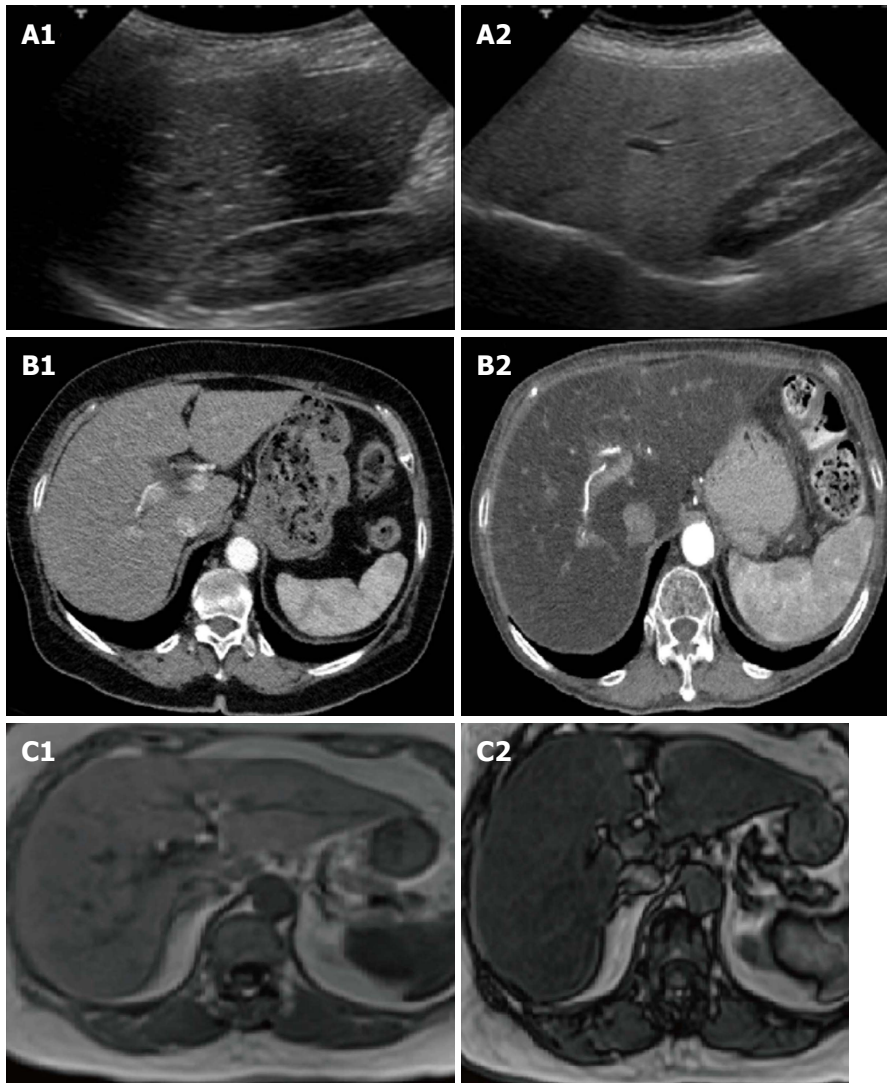


Figure 2 Aspects of liver steatosis according to the different imaging techniques. In normal ultrasound examination liver parenchyma is isoechoic to the renal parenchyma in normal conditions (A1), becoming hyperechoic in presence of liver steatosis (A2). In comparison to a normal liver (B1), a fatty liver appears hypodense compared to the spleen and to the hepatic veins (B2) in computed tomography scans. Finally, in the setting of a severe steatosis, the magnetic resonance signal has a clear fall from in phase (C1) to out phase sequencings (C2).

test^[3-8].

Moreover, laboratory alterations may hide another cause of liver disease, in which steatosis is a coexisting condition. On the other hand, detection of abnormalities of laboratory exams (such as ferritin or autoantibodies) not always reflects the presence of another liver disease, but could be an epiphenomenon of NAFLD with no further clinical significance.

In particular, AASLD guidelines underline that elevate serum ferritin and low titers of autoimmune antibodies (especially antinuclear and anti-smooth muscle antibodies) are common features among NAFLD patients^[18,19], and may not automatically indicate the presence of hemochromatosis or autoimmune liver disease^[8].

Which is the role of diagnostic and prognostic scores?

Noninvasive predictor biomarkers and scores of steatosis and steatohepatitis: The current absence of a highly specific and sensitive noninvasive marker

predicting inflammation and fibrosis is leading to a considerable interest in the identification of new markers of disease progression and to the development of clinical scores of disease severity.

To assess the presence of steatosis, EASL, Asia-Pacific, and Italian guidelines mention the Fatty Liver Index (FLI)^[20] and the NAFLD liver fat score^[21]. Both of these scores are easily calculated using common blood exams and simple clinical information. In detail, FLI is calculated from serum triglyceride, body mass index, waist circumference, and gamma-glutamyltransferase^[20], while NAFLD liver fat score is calculated evaluating the presence/absence of metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes, fasting serum insulin, and aminotransferases^[21]. They have been validated in a cohort of severely obese patients and the general population, reliably predicting the presence of steatosis, but not its severity^[22]. On the contrary, the AASLD guidelines underline that only inflammation and fibrosis dictate the prognosis of NAFLD patients and, consequently, highlight the lack of evidence

of the usefulness of quantifying hepatic steatosis in the routine clinical setting. Instead, AASLD guidelines underline that the simultaneous presence of several metabolic diseases is the most potent predictor of hepatic inflammation and adverse outcome in patients with NAFLD.

The cytokeratin-18 fragment is currently the most studied biomarker to assess the presence of inflammation. Its circulating levels have been largely investigated as a signal of hepatocellular apoptotic activity and therefore as a characteristic feature of NASH^[23]. Its role is addressed both by Asia-Pacific and EASL guidelines, which agree that the current evidence does not support its use in clinical practice and that more studies are needed^[3,5]. In particular, Asia-Pacific guidelines highlight how increased levels of cytokeratin-18 have good predictive value for NASH vs normal livers but do not differentiate NASH vs simple steatosis^[24,25]. On the other hand, EASL guidelines specify that has been demonstrated that cytokeratin-18 serum levels decrease parallel with histological improvement, but its predictive value is not better than ALT in identifying histological responders^[26].

To conclude, guidelines agree that noninvasive tests for detecting NASH and distinguishing it from simple steatosis are not currently available and that liver biopsy remains necessary to detect hepatocyte ballooning and lobular inflammation^[3-8].

Noninvasive assessment of advanced fibrosis: Liver fibrosis is considered the leading prognostic factor among patients with NAFLD because of its strong correlation with survival rate and liver-related outcomes^[27]. Therefore, NAFLD patients with advanced fibrosis need a closer monitoring and a rigorous adherence to treatment. However, to date, no methods easily performed in daily clinical practice and with a high predictive value for differentiating grades of liver fibrosis have been identified.

Different tools have been investigated at this purpose, including noninvasive scores (NAFLD fibrosis score, Fibrosis 4 calculator, AST/ALT ratio index), serum biomarkers (ELF panel, Fibrometer, Fibrotest, Hepascore) and imaging techniques, such as transient elastography, magnetic resonance elastography (MRE) and shear wave elastography^[28].

According to the NICE guideline, the enhanced liver fibrosis (ELF) blood test has shown the best cost-effectiveness in identifying patients with advanced fibrosis stages^[29] and therefore should be offered to all patients with an incidental diagnosis of NAFLD^[4]. On the other hand, EASL and Italian guidelines suggest the use of NAFLD fibrosis score (NFS) and Fibrosis 4 calculator (FIB-4) as noninvasive scores to identify patients with different risk of advanced fibrosis^[3,7]. These two scores have been validated in various ethnically NAFLD patients, predicting liver and cardiovascular-related mortality^[30]. Moreover AASLD guidelines highlight that in a recent study both NFS and FIB-4 have shown the best predictive value for advanced fibrosis among

histological proven NAFLD patients in comparison with other scores^[28]. EASL guidelines underline that NFS has a stronger negative predictive value for advanced fibrosis than the corresponding positive predictive value^[30]. Hence, it should be used for excluding the presence of advanced fibrosis better than stratifying NAFLD patients on different fibrosis stages^[3].

Transient elastography has been recently approved by US Food and Drug Administration to investigate adult and pediatric patients with liver disease. Its cut-off value for advanced fibrosis for adults with NAFLD has been established to 9.9 KPa with 95% sensitivity and 77% specificity^[31]. In particular, elastography score has been shown to have good diagnostic accuracy for the presence of clinically significant fibrosis, with an AUROC of 0.93 (95%CI: 0.89-0.096) for advanced fibrosis (\geq F3) and cirrhosis, and with a negative predictive value of 90% in ruling out cirrhosis when using a cut-off of 7.9 kPa. However, the ability in differentiating between F2 and F3 fibrosis seems less robust. Because of this high rate of false-positive results, EASL and Asia-Pacific guidelines point out that its low specificity limits its use in daily practice in diagnosing advanced grade of fibrosis and cirrhosis, as well as by a high failure rate^[5]. Moreover considering the unreliable results among patients with high BMI and thoracic fold thickness, EASL guidelines highlight that it should not be used alone as first-line detection tool to identify advanced fibrosis or cirrhosis^[3]. In this setting, its poor performance can be improved by using M or XL-probe, increasing the success rate^[32,33].

American guidelines underline the vital role of magnetic resonance elastography (MRE) in identifying different degrees of fibrosis in patients with NAFLD, performing better than transient elastography for recognising intermediate stage of fibrosis, but showing a same predictive value for advanced fibrosis stages^[34]. Therefore AASLD guidelines conclude that MRE and transient elastography are both useful tools for identifying NAFLD patients with advanced liver fibrosis.

On the other hand, shear wave elastography, in the same way as transient elastography, seems to be inappropriate to discriminate between intermediate stages of fibrosis and provide reliable results only in 73% of patients with BMI \geq 30 kg/m²^[35].

Which are the best diagnostic algorithms and follow-up strategies?

The optimal strategy for stratifying NAFLD patients and follow disease progression has not been yet established. According to EASL and Italian guidelines, the combination of noninvasive scores (NFS and FIB-4) and transient elastography should be used to identify patients at low risk of advanced liver disease and for clinical decision-making. Moreover, this combination may instead identify patients who should undergo a liver biopsy to confirm advanced fibrosis, and in whom a more intensive approach is needed^[3,7]. Noninvasive serum scores should be calculated for every patient with

NAFLD to exclude the presence of significant fibrosis. If it cannot be ruled out, then transient elastography should be performed. Hence, if advanced fibrosis is suspected, liver biopsy should be performed for final diagnosis^[3,7]. Moreover, a clinical, laboratory and instrumental follow-up for noninvasive monitoring of fibrosis, is suggested every two years for NAFLD patients with normal liver enzymes and low risk of advanced fibrosis. Patients with evidence of NASH or fibrosis should be screened annually and those with cirrhosis every six months, to perform HCC surveillance^[3,7].

Similarly, the AASLD guidelines consider NFS, FIB-4, transient elastography, and MRE as the first-line examination to detect patients with advanced fibrosis^[8]. Differently from the EASL guidance, however, no diagnostic algorithms or follow up strategies are provided.

The Asia-Pacific guidelines also agree that combined use of serum tests and imaging tools may offer more reliable information than using either method alone^[6]. However, they do not specify which noninvasive test is best.

According to the NICE guidelines, every patient with an incidental finding of NAFLD should be screened for advanced fibrosis by ELF blood test. If negative, it should be repeated every three years for adults and two years for children. Moreover, children and young people with type 2 diabetes mellitus or metabolic syndrome, but without steatosis at ultrasound examination, should be reevaluated every three years^[4].

Who should undergo liver biopsy?

To date, liver biopsy is the gold standard for diagnosing NASH and staging liver fibrosis, despite several limitations such as sampling error, variability in interpretation by pathologists, high cost and patient discomfort^[36]. The "NAFLD Activity Score" (NAS)^[37] and the "Steatosis Activity Fibrosis" (SAF) scoring system^[38] are recommended to assess disease activity^[8].

Except for the NICE guidelines (which do not provide specific indications about which patients should undergo liver biopsy), all of the remaining guidelines substantially agree that confirmatory liver biopsy should not be performed in every NAFLD patients. Instead, it should be reserved for the following two situations: (1) Uncertain diagnosis; (2) suspect of NAFLD-related advanced liver disease.

The AASLD guidelines suggest to perform liver biopsy in patients with metabolic syndrome who are at increased risk of liver inflammation, or when NFS, FIB-4 or liver stiffness measured by transient elastography or MRE suggest the presence of advanced liver fibrosis. In that case, patients would benefit the most from diagnosis, obtaining crucial prognostic information^[8].

Similarly, EASL and Italian guidelines recommend performing a liver biopsy when both serum and imaging noninvasive tools show a medium/high risk of advanced liver disease, with the aim to confirm the presence of

advanced liver fibrosis. Furthermore, they underline that in selected NAFLD patients at high risk of disease progression, the repetition of liver biopsy should be considered case-by-case every five years^[3,7]. On the other hand, the Asia-Pacific guidelines recommend biopsy only when a competing aetiology of chronic liver disease cannot be excluded just by laboratory exams and personal anamnesis, or results of noninvasive tests are inconclusive^[5,6].

How to treat NAFLD?

Lifestyle changes: Lifestyle modification consisting of diet, exercise, and weight loss has been advocated to treat patients with NAFLD in all guidelines (Tables 3 and 4). Indeed, weight loss has been reported as a keystone element in improving the histology features of NASH^[39,40].

According to the AISF position paper^[7], the best therapeutic approach is an adequate lifestyle change focused on weight loss and achieved by physical activity (aerobic activities and resistance training) and healthy diet. In particular, an energy restriction obtained with a low calorie (1200-1600 kcal/d), low fat (less than 10% of saturated fatty acid), low carbohydrate diet (< 50% of total kcal) is suggested. A Mediterranean diet is recommended as the most effective dietary option to induce a weight loss together with beneficial effects on all cardio-metabolic risk factors associated with NAFLD^[7].

The Asia-Pacific guidelines agree with a lifestyle intervention strategy for the treatment of NAFLD, focusing the attention on the timing of weight loss that should be gradual because of the deleterious effect of crash diets on NASH. Very low-calorie diets are considered unsustainable, and any specific regimen is preferred over the others^[6].

Also, the EASL^[3], NICE^[4], and AASLD^[8] guidelines recommend structured programmes aimed at lifestyle changes towards a healthy diet and habitual physical activity. According to all of these guidelines, a 7%-10% weight loss is the target of most lifestyle interventions.

Pharmacological treatment: (1) Who to treat: According to the EASL guidelines^[3], pharmacological therapy should be reserved for: Progressive NASH (bridging fibrosis and cirrhosis); early-stage NASH at high risk for disease progression (age > 50 years, metabolic syndrome, diabetes mellitus or increased ALT)^[41]; active NASH with high necroinflammatory activities^[42]. Similarly, in the AASLD and Asia-Pacific guidelines, a pharmacological approach is recommended only for patients with NASH and fibrosis^[8]. In the NICE guidance, just people with an advanced liver fibrosis (ELF test > 10.51) are proposed for pharmacological treatment^[4]. In the AISF position paper, drug therapy is suggested for patients who are at high risk for disease progression^[7]. (2) Pharmacologic treatment: Currently, no drugs have been approved for the treatment of NASH by the US Food and Drug Administration or by the European Medicines Agency. All guidelines acknowledge that any medicines

Table 3 Comparison of recommendations about non-invasive evaluation of fibrosis and follow up strategies

	EASL	NICE	Asia-Pacific	AISF	AASLD
Non-invasive evaluation	NFS and FIB-4 upon diagnosis. If inconclusive, perform transient elastography	ELF blood test	Combination of serum tests and imaging tools (no specification about the preferred tests)	NFS + FIB-4 upon diagnosis. If inconclusive, perform transient elastography	NFS, FIB-4 and transient elastography (or MRE) upon diagnosis
Follow up	Negative markers > reassess every 2 yr; Fibrosis or abnormal liver enzymes > reassess every year; Cirrhosis-> surveillance every 6 mo	Negative ELF test, > reassess every 3 yr; Positive ELF test > liver biopsy	No information provided	Negative markers > reassess every 2 yr; Fibrosis or abnormal liver enzymes > reassess every year; Cirrhosis > surveillance every 6 mo	No information provided

EASL: European Association for the Study of the Liver; NICE: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; AISF: Italian Association for the study of the Liver; AASLD: American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases; NFS: NAFLD fibrosis score; FIB-4: Fibrosis-4; ELF: Enhanced Liver Fibrosis; MRE: Magnetic resonance elastography.

Table 4 Guidance statements about lifestyle interventions

	EASL	NICE	Asia-Pacific	AISF	AASLD
Dietary restrictions	500-1000 kcal deficit; weight loss of 500-1000 g/wk with a 7%-10% total weight loss	Main recommendations on diet of NICE's obesity and preventing excess weight gain guidelines	500-1000 kcal deficit	1200-1600 kcal/d; fat-low (< 30% of total calories); carbohydrate-low (< 50% of total calories)	500-1000 kcal deficit
Physical activity	Aerobic and resistance training (150-200 min/wk in 3-5 sessions)	Main recommendation of on physical activity of NICE's obesity and preventing excess weight gain guidelines	Aerobic and resistance training	Aerobic and resistance training	Aerobic and resistance training (> 150 min/wk)
Gold standard diet	Low-to-moderate fat and moderate-to-high carbohydrate intake Low-carbohydrate ketogenic diets or high-protein Mediterranean diet	No specific suggestions	All, excluding very low-calorie diets	Mediterranean diet	No specific suggestions

EASL: European Association for the Study of the Liver; NICE: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; AISF: Italian Association for the Study of the Liver; AASLD: American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases.

prescribed explicitly for NAFLD should be considered as an off-label treatment and that the decision should be discussed with the patient, carefully balancing the benefits and the safety. However, the guidelines are widely discordant about possibly helpful drugs (Table 5).

Metformin: Due to the evidence of its limited efficacy in improving the histological features of NAFLD^[43-45], metformin is not recommended by any guidelines to specifically treat NAFLD^[3-8].

Pioglitazone: Pioglitazone, a thiazolidinedione, is a peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) gamma agonist with insulin-sensitising effects. Treatment with pioglitazone improves insulin sensitivity, amino-transferases, steatosis, inflammation, and ballooning in patients with NASH and prediabetes or T2DM^[46]. The PIVENS trial (a large multicenter RCT) compared low dose pioglitazone (30 mg/d) vs vitamin E (800 IU/d) vs placebo for two years in patients without overt diabetes. Pioglitazone improved all histological features (except for fibrosis) and achieved resolution of NASH more often than placebo^[47]. The histological benefit occurred

together with ALT improvement and partial correction of insulin resistance. The main side effects of glitazones are weight gain^[48-51], and bone fractures in women^[52]. The use of pioglitazone for the treatment of NAFLD is endorsed both by the NICE and AASLD guidelines, with significant limitations. In the first case, pioglitazone should be prescribed only in second and third level centres, after a careful evaluation^[4]. In the latter case, pioglitazone is reserved for patients with biopsy-proven NASH^[8]. The EASL guidelines are more cautious, generically suggesting to consider pioglitazone for the treatment of diabetes in patients with a concurrent NAFLD^[3]. Even the Asia-Pacific and the Italian guidelines acknowledge the potential benefits of pioglitazone, however, suggest that more evidence should be available before a firm recommendation can be made^[6,7].

Vitamin E: Vitamin E is an anti-oxidant and has been investigated to treat NASH. In the PIVENS trial, vitamin E at a dose of 800 IU/d of α -tocopherol for 96 wk was associated with a decrease in serum aminotransferases and histological improvement in steatosis, inflammation,

Table 5 Recommendations about pharmacological treatment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

	EASL	NICE	ASIA-PACIFIC	AISF	AASLD
Metformin	Insufficient evidence	Not beneficial	Not beneficial	Not mentioned	Not beneficial
Vitamin E	Insufficient evidence	Consider use regardless of diabetes	Not beneficial	Insufficient evidence	Consider use in non-diabetic, biopsy-proven NASH
PPAR-gamma agonists	Consider use in selected diabetic patients	Consider pioglitazone in adults regardless of diabetes	Insufficient evidence in Asian	Insufficient evidence, potentially useful	Pioglitazone indicated in biopsy-proven NASH (regardless of diabetes)
PUFA	Not beneficial	Insufficient evidence	Not beneficial	Not mentioned	Not beneficial
Pentoxifylline	Insufficient evidence	Not mentioned	Not beneficial	Not mentioned	Not mentioned
GLP-1 analogues	Insufficient evidence, potentially useful	Insufficient evidence	Insufficient evidence in Asian patients	Insufficient evidence, potentially useful	Insufficient evidence
UDCA	Not beneficial	Not beneficial	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	Not beneficial
Obetolic acid	Scarce evidence	Not mentioned	waiting for ongoing RCT results	Waiting for ongoing RCT results	Insufficient evidence
Silymarin	Not mentioned	Not mentioned	insufficient evidence, potentially useful	Not mentioned	Not mentioned
Statins	Safe but not beneficial	Safe but not beneficial	Safe but not beneficial	Safe but not beneficial	Safe but not beneficial

EASL: European Association for the Study of the Liver; NICE: National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; AISF: Italian Association for the Study of the Liver; AASLD: American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases; PPAR: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors; PUFA: Poly-unsaturated fatty acids; GLP-1: Glucagon-like peptide-1.

and ballooning and resolution of steatohepatitis in adults with NASH^[47]. Long-term safety of vitamin E is under dispute, with two different meta-analyses leading to conflicting results when analysing the all-cause mortality in patients treated with doses of > 800 IU/d^[51,52]. Similarly to pioglitazone, vitamin E is recommended by the NICE and AASLD guidelines (limited to biopsy-proven NASH in the latter case)^[4,8]. EASL and AISF guidelines call for more evidence before any recommendation^[3,7], while Asia-Pacific guidelines advice against the use of vitamin E which is described as not beneficial by the current evidence^[6].

Glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) analogues: Incretin-mimetics, acting on the glucose-insulin interplay have shown favourable results in pre-marketing studies on liver enzymes^[53]. Also, in a published randomised, placebo-controlled trial consisting of 52 patients with biopsy-proven NASH, liraglutide administered subcutaneously once-daily for 48 wk was associated with greater resolution of NASH and less progression of fibrosis^[54]. Both the AASLD and NICE recommendations state that there is still too few evidence to support the use of GLP-1 analogues to specifically treat liver disease in patients with NAFLD^[4,8]. The remaining guidelines also agree on this point, however also state that further evidence may prove the efficacy of these drugs. In particular, the APASL guidelines consider some more elements in their recommendations. On the one hand, GLP-1 agonists appeared to reduce glycated haemoglobin more efficiently in Asian patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus^[55]. On the other hand, there has been no study on Asian NASH patients, even if the pharmacokinetics of GLP-1 agonists do not appear to differ between Asian and non-Asian patients according to preliminary evidence^[56,57].

Statins: Historically, the use of statins in patients with

chronic liver diseases has been considered as potentially troublesome due to the risk of hepatotoxicity. At the same time, a considerable portion of NAFLD patients usually receives statins because of their multiple cardiovascular risk factors. Consequently, the primary concern of the guidelines is the safety of statins. In this regard, a recent review underlined the safety of statin and their efficacy in reducing the associated cardiovascular morbidity in patients with NAFLD, including those with slightly elevated alanine transaminases (up to 3 × reference upper limit)^[58]. All of the guidelines agree about the safety of prescribing statins (or continuing an ongoing statin therapy) in patients with NAFLD, even with compensated cirrhosis. However, routine prescription of a statin is not recommended in patients with decompensated cirrhosis and acute liver failure^[59,60].

Silymarin: Silymarin is a complex mixture of six major flavonolignans (silybins A and B, isosilybins A and B, silychristin, and silydianin), as well as other minor polyphenolic compounds^[61]. In a randomised, double-blinded, placebo-controlled study on patients with biopsy-proven NASH, silymarin dosage of 700 mg three times daily for 48 wk resulted in a significantly higher percentage of fibrosis reduction compared with placebo (22.4% vs 6.0%, $P = 0.023$)^[62]. The dosage was safe and well tolerated^[62]. Silymarin is mentioned as a potentially useful treatment for NASH in Asia-Pacific guidelines only. However, optimal dose and duration still require further studies before a full recommendation^[6].

Bariatric surgery: In patients unresponsive to lifestyle changes and pharmacotherapy, bariatric surgery is an option for reducing weight and metabolic complications, with stable results in the long-term^[63]. Bariatric surgery can also improve liver histology, both regarding steatosis and ballooning^[64,65] and fibrosis^[65]. However, the presence

of established cirrhosis is associated with peri-operative risks. In particular, in the analysis performed from the Nationwide Inpatient Sample (1998-2007), mortality was higher in patients with compensated cirrhosis (0.9%) and much higher in those with decompensated cirrhosis (16.3%)^[66]. No robust data on the comparative effects of different bariatric procedures on liver fat are available in the literature.

Based on the evidence as mentioned earlier, the EASL guidelines consider bariatric surgery an option in patients unresponsive to lifestyle changes and pharmacotherapy, for reducing weight and metabolic complications^[3]. Guidance statements by the AASLD also consider a role of foregut bariatric surgery in otherwise eligible obese individuals with NAFLD or NASH^[8].

The Asia-Pacific recommendation limits the role of bariatric surgery only to patients with class II obesity (BMI > 32.5 kg/m² in Asians and 35 kg/m² in Caucasians)^[6]. AISF and NICE guidelines do not mention bariatric surgery.

Liver transplantation: NASH is becoming the most common indication to liver transplantation in Western Countries^[67]. Because of the high prevalence of obesity, sarcopenia, cardiovascular disease and chronic kidney disease among patients with NASH, there is a higher frequency of post-transplant complications and increased graft loss^[68,69]. Because of the risk of prolonged ventilation, poor wound healing, higher rate of primary graft non-function, and increased infectious complications, patients with severe obesity (BMI > 40 kg/m²) may even be considered unfit for liver transplantation, unless efforts are made preoperatively to reduce body weight with individualized plans of lifestyle modifications^[70].

AISF and NICE guidance do not mention liver transplantation. All of the remaining guidelines agree that liver transplantation is an acceptable procedure in NASH patients with an end-stage liver disease, with the same indications adopted for other etiologies of liver disease^[3-8].

CONCLUSION

The comparative analysis of the most recent international guidelines for the management of NAFLD showed some common orientation between the different recommendations, as well as diverging points. The most notable differences involved: the identification of the alcohol threshold defining NAFLD, the screening strategies in high-risk populations, the preferred non-invasive biomarkers for the assessment of advanced fibrosis, and the pharmacological treatment. These differences should not be necessarily seen as a limitation, but rather an expression of the geographical differences in genetic predisposition to NAFLD, lifestyle habits, healthcare systems. Arguably, the similarity in the recommendations could greatly help in ensuring homogenous management of NAFLD all over the world, with favourable repercussions both in clinical practice and in clinical trials. In

the next years, we might see a trend toward more homogenous guidelines thanks to the increasing body of evidence. In particular, the advancements in the imaging technologies could lead to new and widely accepted noninvasive methods to assess advanced liver fibrosis. Moreover, some clinical trials are investigating potentially effective drugs. If positive, the currently diverging pharmacological recommendations may reach a higher concordance. NAFLD is becoming a leading field of research in hepatology: new evidence is destined to change the current landscape of knowledge, prompting greater benefits to the patients as well as changes in the recommendations for clinical practice.

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Form confers function: Case of the 3'X region of the hepatitis C virus genome

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Abstract

At the 3' end of genomic hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA there is a highly conserved untranslated region, the 3' X-tail, which forms part of the 3'UTR. This region plays key functions in regulation of critical processes of the viral life cycle. The 3'X region is essential for viral replication and infectivity. It is also responsible for regulation of switching between translation and transcription of the viral RNA. There is some evidence indicating the contribution of the 3'X region to the translation efficiency of the viral polypeptide and to the encapsidation process. Several different secondary structure models of the 3'X region, based on computer predictions and experimental structure probing, have been proposed. It is likely that the 3'X region adopts more than one structural form in infected cells and that a specific equilibrium between the various forms regulates several aspects of the viral life cycle. The most intriguing explanations of the structural heterogeneity problem of the 3'X region came with the discovery of its involvement in long-range RNA-RNA interactions and the potential for homodimer formation. This article summarizes current knowledge on the structure and function of the 3'X region of hepatitis C genomic RNA, reviews previous opinions, presents new hypotheses and summarizes the questions that still remain unanswered.

Key words: Hepatitis C virus; 3'UTR; 3'X-tail; 3'X region; 3'X RNA; RNA structure

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Core tip: Several different secondary structure models of the 3'X region have been proposed. It is likely that the 3'X region adopts more than one structural form in infected cells and that a specific equilibrium between the various forms regulates several aspects of the viral life cycle. This article summarizes current knowledge of the structure and function of the 3'X region of hepatitis C genomic RNA,

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) belongs to the family *Flaviviridae*, a member of the genus *hepaciviruses*. HCV was identified in 1989 as one of the viruses capable of causing viral hepatitis, in addition to the previously known hepatitis A and B viruses (HAV, HBV)^[1]. There are seven major HCV genotypes that differ in virulence and their geographic distribution^[2]. Currently, it is estimated that worldwide more than 185 million people are infected with HCV, which represents 2.8% of the world's population^[3]. Infection usually takes place in the absence of obvious clinical symptoms, and the resulting inflammation of the liver often progresses to become chronic, usually lasting for years. In time, the chronic inflammation can lead to cirrhosis of the liver and ultimately liver failure or to the development of primary liver cancer^[4]. Although the virus replicates mainly in hepatocytes, it also occurs in peripheral blood mononuclear and central nervous system microglia^[5,6]. In people with simultaneous infection with HIV (human immunodeficiency virus), HCV replication was also observed in other tissues^[7]. Sometimes HCV enters cells of the immune system, leading to very long-lasting effects which are extremely difficult to treat effectively^[8].

While progress has been made in the treatment of some other common viral infections, HCV infection remains an important health problem in the world. Current standard treatment methods have the desired therapeutic effect on 40%-60% of patients^[4]. The new highly effective drug, grazoprevir, is able to cure patients with 93% effectivity^[9], unfortunately, the treatment is still very expensive and out of reach for the majority of the infected individuals, many of whom live in Third World countries. So far, no HCV vaccine has been developed, which is due to the high genetic variability of the virus, comparable to the genetic variability of HIV. In the absence of widely accessible conventional drugs and vaccines, numerous attempts have been made to design inhibitors of viral proteins, inhibitory oligomers of the antisense and ribozyme type, and more recently also of RNA interference tools directed against viral RNA^[4,10,11].

HCV is a small, enveloped virus with a diameter of 40-60 nm, whose genome is a single-stranded, positive-sense RNA of about 9.6 kb in length^[6,10,12]. In the viral replication process, the positive-sense RNA strand is transcribed into negative-sense counterpart, the replication intermediate, which serves as the template for the RNA

synthesis of progeny genomes. The HCV genome has one very long open reading frame (ORF). It encodes a precursor polypeptide, which is digested in a series of cleavage processes to finally produce proteins: C, E1, E2, p7, NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A and NS5B^[13]. The coding sequence of the HCV genome is flanked by two untranslated regions: the 5'UTR and the 3'UTR (5' and 3' untranslated regions). Both these regions play key functions in regulating HCV life cycle and determine its expression level. The 5'UTR contains a highly structured regulatory element, an IRES (internal ribosome entry site), that enables cap-independent translation. The 3'UTR is engaged in the replication process and in the regulation of translation. In addition, control of other processes as, for example, assembly of virions and switching between different developmental phases takes place with the participation of the structural RNA elements present at the very 3' end of the HCV genome.

This article presents the current state of knowledge about the structure and functions of the most terminal section of the 3'UTR of hepatitis C virus, the 3'X-tail.

STRUCTURE OF THE 3'UTR REGION

HCV 3'UTR has a variable length of 170 to 250 nucleotides (Figure 1). Three characteristic sections have been recognized in this region: immediately after the stop codon there is a variable region about 25-130 nucleotides in length, characterized by high sequence heterogeneity between various genotypes, but conserved within the same genotype of the virus. Next there is a poly-pyrimidine segment of varying length, independent of the type, or even a subtype of virus, ranging from about 30 to 130 nucleotides. At the very end of the genome, there is an 3'X region, discovered 6 years after cloning of the virus, which is 98 nucleotides long and is an almost absolutely conserved sequence^[6].

Within the first, variable region of 3'UTR, two sequence motifs are present that are found in all genotypes of HCV. These are: the ACACUCC section, which represents a seed-region for miR-122^[14], and the UG dinucleotide located at the very end of the region, directly upstream the poly (U/UC) section^[6]. The stop codon is located in the apical loop of the stem-loop motif, named 5BSL3.4 or SL9360, which is created partly from the terminal nucleotides of the ORF encoding the NS5B protein and partly from non-coding nucleotides. The poly-pyrimidine section can be divided into a two poly (UC) parts uneven in length, which are separated by the one poly (U) region. The poly-pyrimidine segment is heterogeneous, not only in terms of length, but also in nucleotide sequence. In genotypes 2a, 3a, 3b there are several conserved adenosine residues in this region that are missing in genotypes 1b and 2b^[6]. Individual guanosine residues are also observed on rare occasions.

3'X-tail

Initially, it was suspected that at the 3' terminus of the HCV genome a poly (U) or poly (A) sequence was

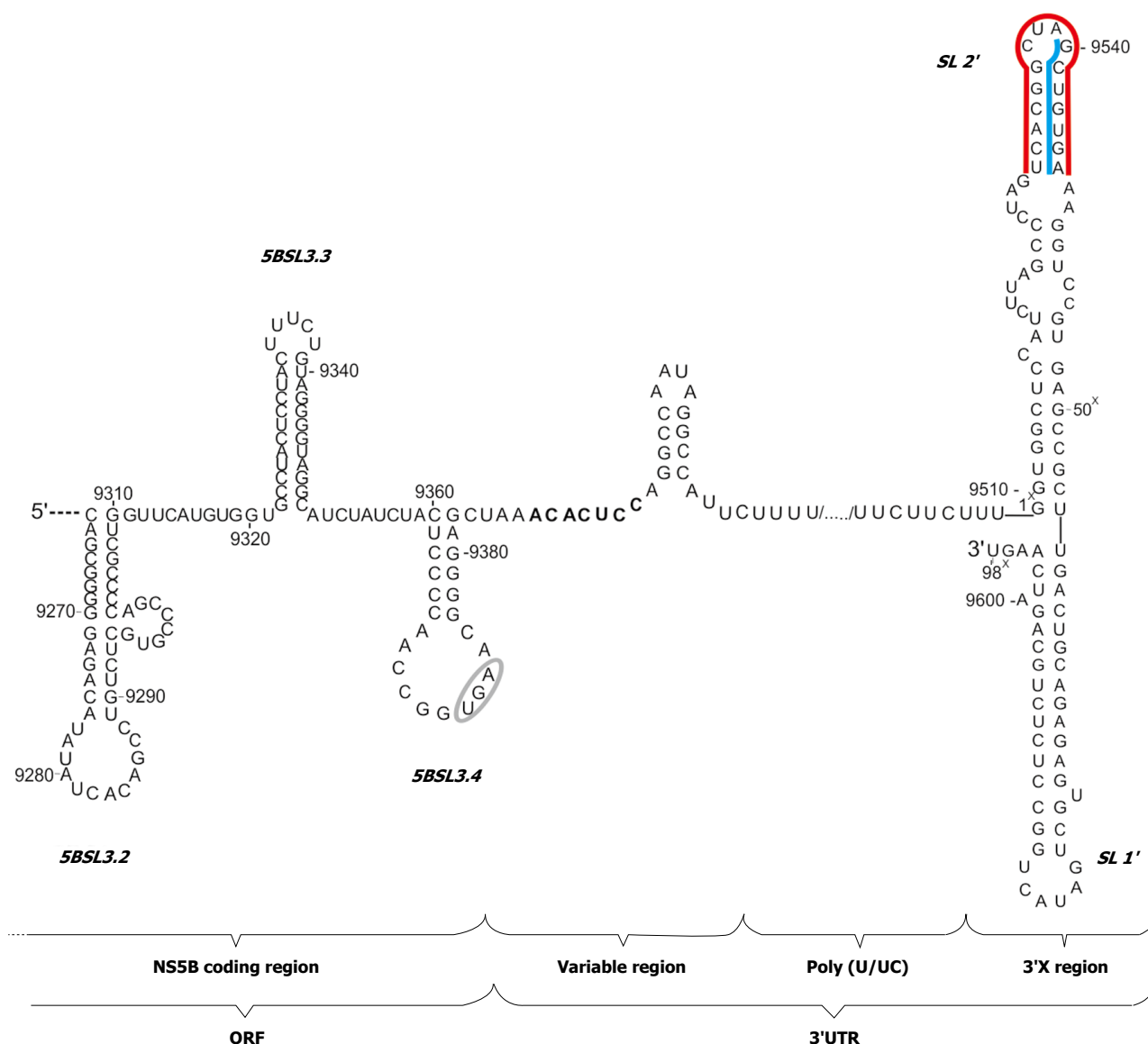


Figure 1 Secondary structure model of the 3'UTR of hepatitis C virus genome with adjacent 3' terminal sequence of the coding region. The stop codon is indicated by a gray ellipse. The regions involved in the kissing-interactions are marked with blue lines; the region involved in dimerization is indicated by a red line; the seed region for miR122 is highlighted in bold.

present. The existence of the 98-nt long 3'X region was discovered by Tanaka and colleagues in 1995^[15]. Almost simultaneously the presence of the 3'X at the end of the HCV genome identified Kolykhalov *et al.*^[16]. Comparison of the sequence of this RNA segment in different viral isolates indicated 96%-100% sequence conservation of the 3'X region, with only single substitutions in the 3' terminal 46-nt sequence^[6]. This is an unusual feature for this dynamically changing virus, that suggests its extremely important function.

Several different secondary structure models of the 3'X region were proposed, based on computer predictions and experimental structure probing by chemical modification, enzyme digestion, RNA cleavage induced by Pb²⁺ ions, NMR (nuclear magnetic resonance) and SAXS (small angle X-ray scattering). A stable structure of the SL1 hairpin was proposed for the 3' part of the 3'X RNA, which is common to different structural models (Figure

2)^[17-21]. The 52-nucleotide segment making up the 5' part of the 3'X region could not be assigned an unambiguous structure based on the experimental results obtained. The proposed models were only partially confirmed by the results of experimental studies^[6,17,18]. Poor ordering of this fragment or formation of more than one structural form have been suggested^[17,18,20].

One of the first structural models of the 3'X region suggested the presence of three hairpin motifs: SL1, SL2, and SL3 (Figure 2A)^[17,18]. Another structural model suggested a set of four hairpins: SL1, SL2a, SL2b and SL3, where SL1 and SL3 did not differ from the first model, but two shorter hairpins replaced the SL2 motif^[20]. The main reason for the proposed change was the observation of strong DMS modifications, as well as Pb²⁺ ion-induced cleavages, in the middle of the SL2 double-stranded stem (C44-C45), which indicated a single-stranded or highly flexible region there. In this four

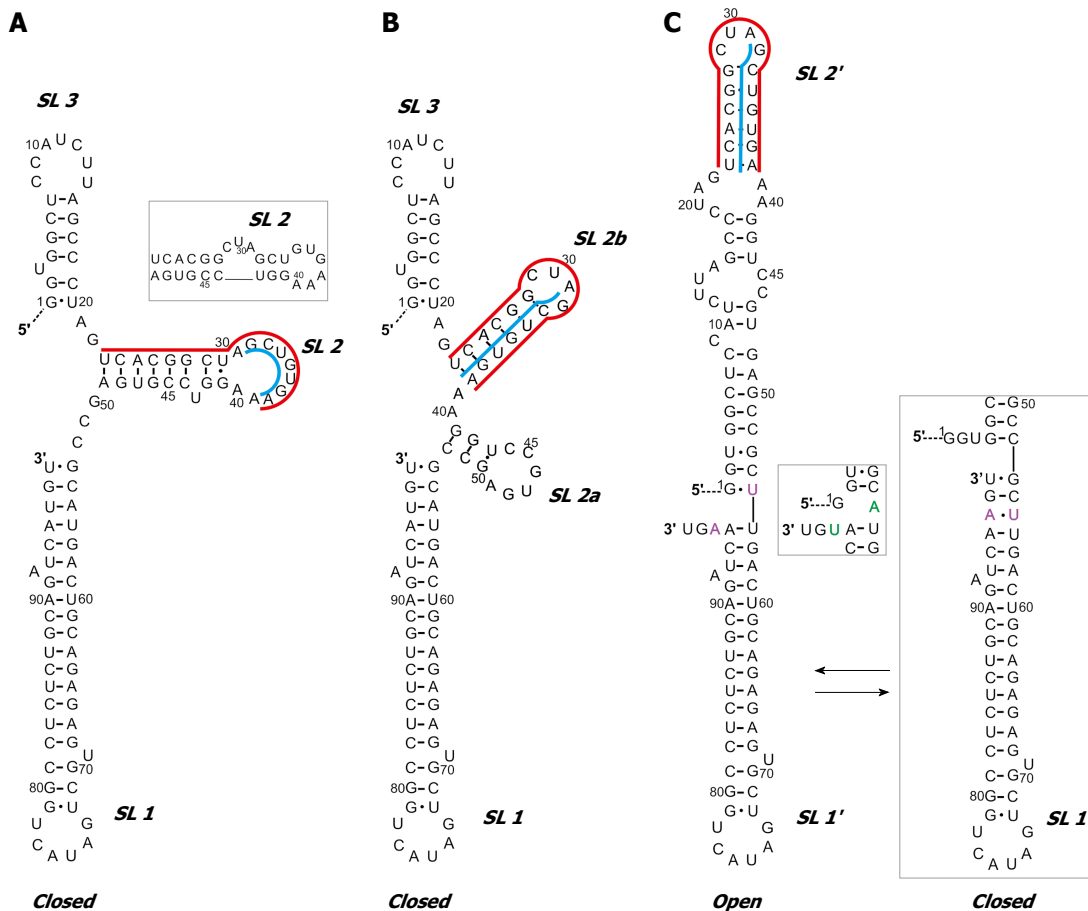


Figure 2 Diverse secondary structure models proposed for the 3'X region of hepatitis C virus genome. A: The 3xSL model^[17,18]; B: The 4xSL model^[20]; C: The 2xSL model^[21]. The region involved in the kissing-interactions is indicated with blue line, the region involved in dimerization is marked with red line; possible alternative folding of separate fragments are displayed as gray rectangles.

stem-loop model (4xSL), the reactive cytidine residues are located in the apical loop of the short SL2b motif (Figure 2B). In addition, it was noted that the SL2a and SL2b hairpins have the potential to create a pseudoknot after rearrangement of their base pairing^[20]. However, discovery of functionally important long-range kissing interactions between a sequence located in the apical loop of the SL2 hairpin and the upstream sequence in the region encoding NS5B^[22] (see next section), seemed to support the three- (3xSL), but not the four- (4xSL) stem-loop model for the 3'X region. Thus, the 3xSL structure model of the 3'X-tail became the favored idea during the following decade.

Recently, based on NMR and SAXS studies, a two-hairpin model (2xSL) has been proposed for the 3'X region, consisting of the SL1 and SL2' (named elsewhere also SL2/3) (Figure 2C)^[21,23,24]. In addition, in this model the SL1 hairpin may fold in two different ways: the closed structure - SL1 or the open one - SL1', differing by the three terminal base-pairs of the hairpin being paired or unpaired, respectively (Figure 2C)^[21,23,25]. In the 2xSL model the previously identified flexible cytosine residues (C44-C45) are located within the internal loop of the SL2' motif. The closed conformation of SL1 is associated with long-range kissing interactions with another part of the

genome, while the open conformation, SL1' with the 3' overhang is associated with dimerization (described in the next section).

The role of selected metal ions was investigated regarding its influence on the structure of the 3'X-tail but it seems that neither magnesium, nor sodium ion concentration determine its folding, within the range of normal physiological conditions^[26]. However, at higher ionic strength, extended homodimers are preferentially formed over 2xSL monomers^[24]. A chaperone role of the viral C protein (core protein), has also been suggested^[23,27]. Long-range RNA-RNA interactions with 5' sequences in the genome or with a second genomic RNA molecule seems to influence the structure of the 3'X region more than the presence of specific metal ions.

It is very likely that the 3'X region can adopt more than one structural form in infected cells and that a specific equilibrium between these forms regulates several processes of the viral life cycle. These different structural forms may be favored by distinct viral genotypes what can help to explain their differential virulence and drug resistance^[28,29].

Long range RNA-RNA interactions

Previous investigation of genomic HCV RNA and a con-

struct containing only 5'UTR and 3'UTR did not show any interaction of the X region with other regions of the molecules studied. This suggested the structural independence of these two regions of viral RNA from each other^[17]. Later tertiary^[30-32] interactions at the 3' end of the HCV genomic strand were proposed by Friebe *et al.*^[22]. The kissing interactions between the absolutely conserved "k" segment of the X region: 32^X-GCUGUGA-38^X and the "k'" segment of the NS5B coding sequence: 9281-UCACAGC-9287 do not require a protein chaperone. These sequence stretches are located within apical parts of SL elements called SL2 or SL2' and 5BSL3.2, which is one of the domains in the CRE (*cis*-acting replication element) (Figure 1)^[22,28,31,33]. It is easy to imagine that kissing interactions could be initiated by any complementary stretch of nucleotides located within two apical loops of RNA hairpins. This scenario was previously suggested for the 3xSL model of the 3'X-tail^[22,28,31,33]. However, recent studies with the use of mutagenesis, NMR and SAXS methods, indicate that before kissing-interactions are formed, the "k"- sequence in the X region is involved in base pairing within the SL2' element^[21,24]. How the 5BSL3.2 element is able to induce the conformational transition from SL2' to SL2, or more globally: from 2xSL to 3xSL form of the 3'X, remains unclear. The next great challenge is to elucidate step by step how this transition occurs.

Two replicon systems, Con1b and JF-H1, have been investigated with a SHAPE method, which is based on a chemical modification of single-stranded RNA residues. The replicons are constructed on the basis of two different viral genotypes 1b and 2a, respectively. The experimental results showed that the proposed kissing interactions were detectable only for replicon JF-H1 (genotype 2a). The results obtained for replicon Con1b were in agreement with data obtained for the genotype 1a (strain H) of the virus and favors the open conformation of SL1'. In this open conformation the very 3' end of the SL' remains single-stranded, and that is associated with an increase in the efficiency of RNA synthesis initiation. In fact, subtype 1b is more virulent and resistant to interferon-based therapy than other genotypes, including subtype 2a^[29,34]. This suggests how virus virulence and drug response is significantly influenced by the long-range kissing interactions, which likely cause changes in the base-pairing character of the very 3' terminal nucleotides.

Dimerization

Another intriguing set of tertiary interactions were proposed for the 3'X region of HCV genome by Ivanyi-Nagy *et al.*^[23]. Primarily *in vitro* investigations showed that the apical part of the SL2 hairpin in the 3xSL model, 29^X-CUAG-32^X, is able to interact with the respective palindromic sequence in the second 3'X RNA molecule thus inducing the formation of a homodimer^[35]. The 16-nt palindromic sequence, called also DLS (dimerization leading stretch) is absolutely conserved among all

HCV genotypes^[36]. The homodimer, consisting of two isolated 3'X-RNA molecules, was characterized *in vitro* by NMR and SAXS. It was proposed that the resulting homoduplex could involve shorter (SL2) or extended (SL2') sequence fragments (Figure 3)^[21,23-25,35]. The core protein supports the formation and stabilizes the extended homodimer^[24].

The dimerization of the HCV genome still remains unproved *in vivo* and its function remains to be elucidated. It was suggested that the dimerization could be helpful in ensuring that only full-length progeny RNA molecules are encapsidated^[24]. Moreover, the unwinding of the 3'-end of the genome, could greatly facilitate the minus RNA synthesis^[37]. Masante *et al.*^[38] suggested that the homodimeric genome operates as a preferred template for the HCV polymerase (NS5B). Additionally, dimerization might enhance the rate of RNA recombination between two homologue RNA strands (resumed in^[39]). The equilibrium between 2xSL monomers and dimers would likely also be tuned by the local concentration of RNA and the presence of core protein^[24].

FUNCTIONS OF THE 3'UTR REGION

Hepatitis C virus can only infect humans and chimpanzees; there is no experimental model of its infectivity among small animals. For this reason, very few studies on the spread of the virus have been carried out *in vivo*. An experiment was carried out by Yanagi *et al.*^[40], in which a number of viral constructs containing deletions within the 3'UTR were injected into the liver of the chimpanzee at time intervals, and then the animal was examined for the presence of HCV RNA, anti-HCV antibodies and liver enzymes in its serum. Viral mutants lacking the entire 3'X region or parts thereof (nt: 1-50 and 57-98) were not able to replicate. Also viral infection was not observed when a mutant containing no poly (U/UC) segment was used. Only the construct devoid of 24 nucleotides within the variable region turned out to be infectious, indicating that this region is not essential for the viral life cycle under these conditions^[40]. A similar experiment was carried out by Kolykhalov *et al.*^[41], and the obtained results were in line with previous observations of Yanagi *et al.*^[40].

One of the possible explanations of 3'X region function was its influence on genomic RNA stability. This has been shown *in vitro* but is not equally important for all genotypes of the virus^[42].

Replication process

The information on the involvement of individual parts of the 3'UTR in the life cycle of the virus presented in the previous section was confirmed in research with the replicating Huh7 and HeLa cell systems^[19,22,42,43]. Namely, constructs devoid of the entire poly (U/UC) section, were not able to replicate^[42,43], and the minimum length of the polypyrimidine segment was 50 nt in one study^[43], and only 26 nt in the other^[42]. In contrast, the deletion of the

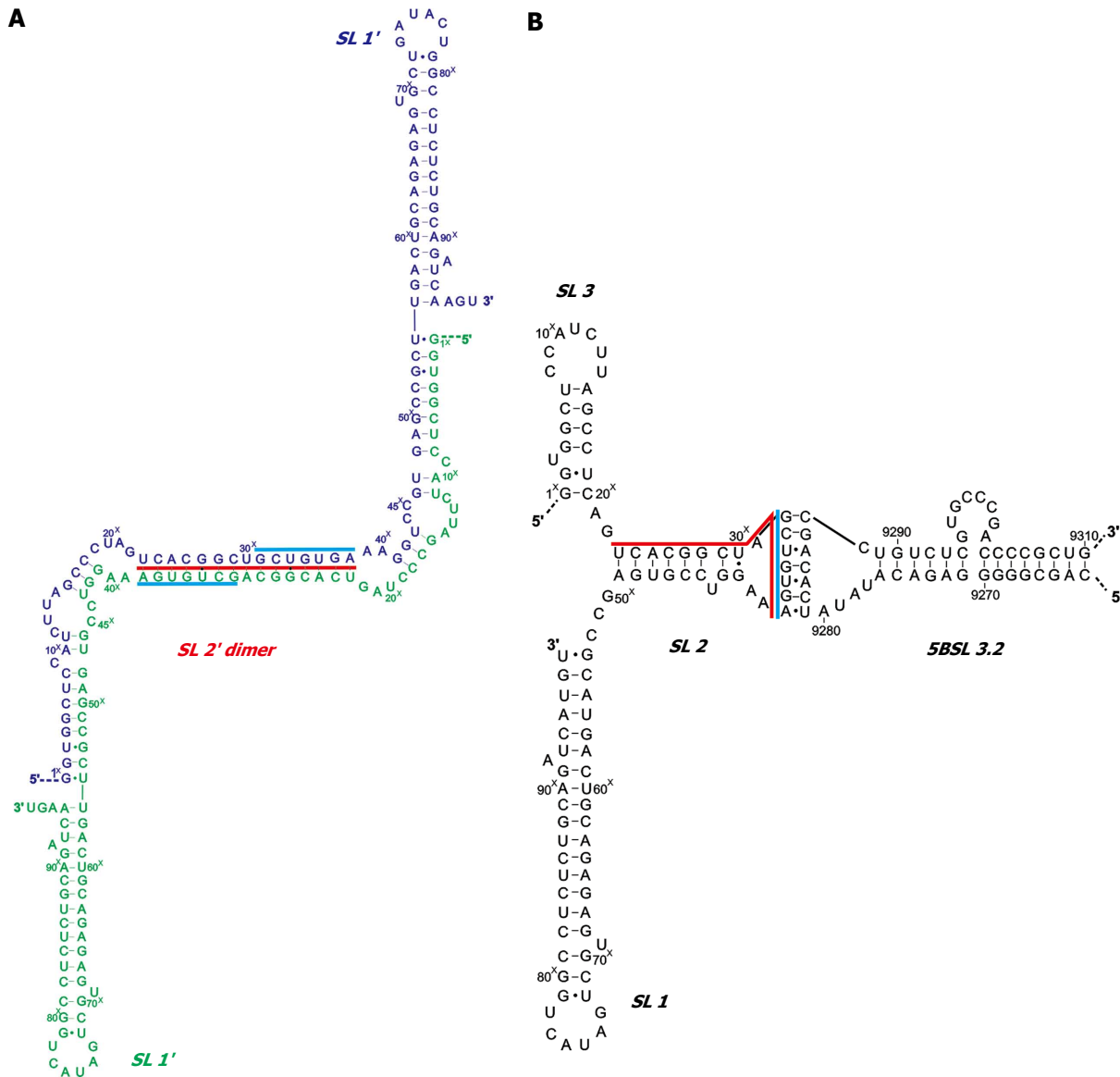


Figure 3 Long-range RNA-RNA interactions proposed for the 3'X region of hepatitis C virus genome. A: The homodimeric interactions between two 3'X regions embedded into two RNA molecules, model according to Cantero-Camacho *et al.*^[24]; B: The kissing-interactions with SL5B3.2^[22,28,31,33]. Nucleotide sequence involved in dimerization is additionally indicated with red line, while those involved in the kissing-interactions are marked with blue lines.

3'X region or any one of its parts, SL1, SL2 or SL3, led to a complete failure to replicate^[42,43] and only few point mutations in this region were tolerated^[19,43]. In turn, the removal of the variable region from the 3'UTR of the viral genome only reduced the efficiency of the process leading to decrease in the rate of replication^[22,42,43]. In addition, it has been shown that the region directly upstream the stop codon plays a key role in viral replication^[22].

The site of the NS5B polymerase attachment within region 3'X has been mapped to be within the SL2 sequence and within the SL1^[44]. They are protected against digestion with RNase T1 at guanosine residues at positions 41, 42, 50 and 53. The direct interaction of the 3'X RNA with the NS5B protein has been found in studies conducted *in vitro*^[6,12,44-46]. The specificity of the viral polymerase to the model RNA template is relatively

low and the presence of the 3'X region is not always necessary for RNA synthesis^[6,12,37,45]. However, in the case of matrices containing genomic or subgenomic RNA, the presence of the 3'X region is necessary for the efficiency and the specificity of the process. It has been shown that the lack of this sequence, or a part thereof, almost completely inhibits replication, and in the case of deletion of nucleotides in positions 31-40, the product is too long^[12,44].

The NS5B polymerase catalytic center probably only interacts with a single-stranded RNA fragment. The initiation of replication seems to take place in the SL1 loop, 21 nucleotides from the 3' end of the 3'X RNA^[12]. However, another research group, Kim *et al.*^[46] indicates that the process begins near the 3' terminus, in a region rich in purines. However, in studies carried out in a cellular system, it has been shown that the presence

of the 3' terminal GU dinucleotide is preferred in the reaction^[19]. Similar preferences of the replicase for the U at the 3'-end of the template RNA were observed by Shimm *et al.*^[47] in the *in vitro* system. Also, Kao *et al.*^[37] postulate that the enzyme requires a stable secondary template structure and at least one unpaired cytidine residue at its 3' end to initiate RNA synthesis. Butcher *et al.*^[48] proposed a replication initiation scenario, one common to various polymerases, in which the synthesis of a new strand of RNA begins with a nucleotide complementary to the penultimate of the 3' end of the nucleotide of the template molecule. Secondly, a complementary nucleotide is added to the remainder of the template at the 3' end, and only after the synthesis of this dinucleotide-primer is the complementary strand of viral RNA synthesized. Many observations suggest that NS5B is a non-specific enzyme, *i.e.* it can recognize more than one nucleotide sequence. The presence of specific I -, II - and tertiary structures at the 3'-end of the template RNA may allow modulation of the specificity of the enzyme for better yield and/or greater precision in the selection of the origin. In addition, both viral and host proteins can be involved in the replication process^[6,49].

In summary, it should be noted that this replication phase of the life cycle of the virus has not yet been precisely understood. In addition to interacting with the viral polymerase, the 3'X region also interacts with other proteins one of them being the NS3 viral protein^[49]. Acting as a helicase, it is probably a very important component of the replication complex, because the NS5B polymerase tends to detach from the RNA template when it encounters very stable RNA secondary structures^[50]. The specific interaction between NS3 and the HCV 3'UTR probably involves a large part of this region containing the sequence 3'X and the poly (U/UC) section, since none of these elements alone is sufficient to form a stable complex with this protein^[49].

Translation process

One of the earliest known cellular proteins interacting with HCV 3'UTR was the PTB protein. The interaction of PTB with the 3'X region may be related to the regulation of the translation process. The proposed site of PTB binding is 21 nucleotides from the 5' end of the 3'X region (SL3), containing a part of the consensus sequence recognized by this protein^[18]. Similar results are presented by Tsuchihara *et al.*^[51] suggesting that the region involved in the interaction with PTB is 19 nucleotides from the 5' end of the 3'X region and extends 7 nucleotides upstream this sequence. The mutagenesis data showed that both secondary structure and the nucleotide sequence in the SL2 and SL3 regions are important for this interaction^[18,51].

The 3'UTR has been ascribed as a translation enhancer^[52-56]. One of mechanisms proposed by which enhancing the process is achieved, is the interaction between the 5' and 3' ends of the HCV genome, mediated by the PTB protein and another, hypothetical Y

protein^[57]. The effect of enhancing translation through genome cyclization is observed in many viruses^[58]. However, not all results indicate PTB enhances HCV translation, sometimes the protein seems to be even inhibitory^[59]. There is also no consensus on the impact of the 3'UTR on the efficiency of translation. For example, Murakami *et al.*^[59] observed that in an *in vitro* system, deletion of SL3 in the 3'X region and/or the poly (U/UC) section resulted in an increase in the amount of protein produced. A possible explanation for this observation would be that these sequence fragments, by interacting with other protein factors, inhibit the translation process. In other studies, however, it was observed that the presence of 3'UTR had no effect on the increase of the product amount and the efficiency of the polyprotein cleavage process^[43,60]. It appears the choice of the experimental model plays a key role in this kind of research. For example, while in the lysate from rabbit reticulocytes no effect of 3'UTR on translation efficiency is observed^[42,53], in HeLa cells, hepatocytes and in an *in vivo* mouse model the presence of the 3'UTR stimulates this process^[53]. Recently, the role of 3'UTR in enhancing translational efficiency has been reported both in the rabbit reticulocyte lysate and in Huh7 cells^[61].

Finally, it has been shown that the region X interacts with the ribosomal proteins L22, L3, S3 and mL3^[62]. Similar viral RNA - L22 protein interactions have been observed for EBV (Epstein-Barr virus) and HPV-1 (human type 1 papilloma virus), showing a positive effect of L22 on translational efficiency^[62]. Meanwhile, in the case of Q β virus, ribosomal host proteins are involved in the formation of the viral replication complex^[62]. It is unclear whether the interaction of ribosomal proteins with the HCV X region is related to the replication or translation process, or to both of these processes. The demonstrated ability of HCV protein NS5B to bind to the ribosome^[63] is reminiscent of the strategy used by the Q β virus, which uses ribosomal proteins to build its replication complex.

CONCLUSION

The most intriguing feature of the 3'X region is its extremely high sequence conservation. The maintenance of a 98-nt long stretch of RNA at over 95% conservation places severe constraints on such a fast-mutating RNA virus. Apparently almost any change to this stretch result in progeny incapable of reproducing which rapidly disappear from the population.

The high sequence conservation might be explained by existence of different structural forms of the 3'X region. Within one structure there is usually a way to neutralize point mutations by adaptive mutations in another structure, thus restoring important base-pairing. Simultaneous compensation of mutations in two (or more) different structures/forms is much less probable. However, instead of several different structural forms of the X-region, the long-range RNA-RNA interactions with the involvement of that region could explain its high

sequence conservation.

Evidence indicates the 3'X region is involved in a number of interactions including kissing 5BSL3.2 (required for replication), an interaction with the second RNA molecule carrying the X-region sequence (homodimerization), binding of the NS5B protein (for initiation of RNA synthesis), an interaction with NS3 helicase (for elongation of RNA synthesis), binding of PTB (for proposed translation regulation). Is it possible that one structural form of the 3'X region supports such different interactions? The answer is: yes, it is possible, but unlikely. On the other hand, it is easy to imagine that different structural forms of this region are responsible for different processes and interactions. For instance: 2xSL - structure for dimerization and enhanced RNA synthesis, 3xSL - structure for kissing interactions that supports translation.

Hopefully in-depth *in vivo* structure mapping of the 3'X-region at the various replication stages, in different cellular compartments will answer these questions to give us a better understanding of the virus and lead to additional means to control it.

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Basic Study

Herb-partitioned moxibustion alleviates colon injuries in ulcerative colitis rats

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Abstract

AIM

To observe the effect of herb-partitioned moxibustion (HPM) on expression of colonic cytokines in ulcerative colitis (UC) rats.

METHODS

A UC rat model was established by protein immunization in combination with topical chemical stimulation. Rats in the HPM group ($n = 8$) received HPM at bilateral Tianshu (ST25) points. The gross injury and pathological scores of the colon were recorded. The expression profile of colonic cytokines was assayed using the protein microarray technique. Specific differential cytokines were selected and verified by ELISA. The corresponding UniProt Accessions of the differentially expressed cytokines were retrieved in the UniProt database. The pathways involved were analyzed with the help of the KEGG PATHWAY database. The DAVID database was used for functional cluster and pathway analysis.

RESULTS

HPM improved colon injuries in UC rats, manifested by accelerated repair of ulcers and alleviation of inflammation, and the gross injury and pathological scores both significantly decreased ($P < 0.01$). Fold change > 1.3 or < 0.77 was taken as the screening standard. There were 77 down-regulated and 9 up-regulated differentially expressed colonic cytokines in the HPM group compared with the model group, and expression of 20 differed significantly ($P < 0.05$). Twelve of the 20 significantly differentially expressed cytokines [β -catenin, interleukin-1 receptor 6 (IL-1R6), IL-1 β , B7-1, nerve growth factor receptor, AMP-activated protein kinase- α 1, neuropilin-2, orexin A, adipocyte differentiation-related protein, IL-2, Fas and FasL] were up-regulated in the model group ($n = 3$, compared with the normal group) but down-regulated in the HPM group ($n = 3$, compared with the model group). Functional cluster analysis showed that the differentially expressed colonic cytokines in the HPM group regulated apoptosis and protein phosphorylation. KEGG pathway analysis showed that 52 down-regulated and 7 up-regulated differentially expressed colonic cytokines in the HPM group had pathways. The pathways that interacted between the cytokines and their receptors accounted for the largest proportion (28 of the down-regulated and 5 of the up-regulated cytokines).

CONCLUSION

HPM promotes the repair of colon injuries in UC rats, which is related to the regulation of several abnormally expressed cytokines.

Key words: Cytokine expression profile; Ulcerative colitis; Protein microarray; Rats; Herb-partitioned moxibustion

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Core tip: Herb-partitioned moxibustion (HPM) has been

shown to be effective in treating ulcerative colitis (UC) in recent years as a non-drug external therapy. In this study, we observed its effect on the expression profile of cytokines in UC rat colon. By protein functional cluster analysis and KEGG pathway analysis, we can conclude that the effect of HPM in promoting the repair of colon injuries of UC rats is plausibly related to the regulation of multiple abnormally-expressed cytokines, and the regulation of the signal pathways interacting between the cytokines and their receptors may be its significant immunological mechanism.

Zhang D, Ren YB, Wei K, Hong J, Yang YT, Wu LJ, Zhang J, Shi Z, Wu HG, Ma XP. Herb-partitioned moxibustion alleviates colon injuries in ulcerative colitis rats. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3384-3397 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3384.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i30.3384>

INTRODUCTION

As two major types of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's disease (CD) are both mainly characterized by chronic nonspecific inflammation of the colon. The incidence of UC is higher than that of CD, and it is increasing annually, with an incidence of 24.3/100000 in Europe and America, and 2.22/100000 in Guangzhou, which is the highest in China^[1-3]. As a commonly encountered digestive disorder, UC is often recurrent and persistent, manifested by abdominal pain, diarrhea and bloody or purulent stools, and has an adverse effect on quality of life. Long-term medical treatment may also incur a high cost^[4-8]. Immune dysfunction in the intestinal lining is recognized as the biological mechanism in the development of UC. In patients with UC, a large number of immunocytes (T cells, B cells, macrophages and dendritic cells) and cytokines [proinflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interferon (IFN)- γ , interleukin (IL)-6, IL-12, IL-17, IL-21, IL-23, and integrin; anti-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-10, transforming growth factor (TGF)- β and IL-35] are abnormally expressed in the colon^[9]. The imbalance of cytokines modulated by activated immunocytes should be the initial factor that causes diffuse superficial inflammatory injuries in UC^[10,11]. Regulation of the activity of immune cells and expression of cytokines is beneficial to healing the colonic lining and alleviation of inflammation in UC patients^[12,13].

During recent years, acupuncture-moxibustion at Qihai (CV6) and bilateral Tianshu (ST25) has been shown to significantly improve symptoms, quality of life and immune homeostasis in the colon of UC patients^[14-16]. Acupuncture-moxibustion is characterized by moderate therapeutic effect, content treatment perception and rapid action, and is especially effective in mitigating abdominal pain and diarrhea in UC patients^[17]. Compared with oral medications, acupuncture-moxibustion, as a

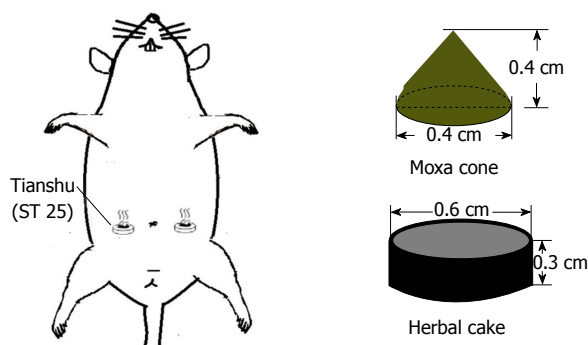


Figure 1 Illustration of herb-partitioned moxibustion. An herbal cake was placed on Tianshu (ST25) point with a moxa cone on the top to ignite. This point is located at the lower 1/3 between the xiphoid process and the midpoint of the pubic symphysis, 0.5 cm away.

nondrug external therapy, can also promote colonic blood circulation and intestinal peristalsis, heal damaged colonic lining, regulate colonic immune reactions, enhance self-healing and reduce relapse^[18]. Although the efficacy of acupuncture-moxibustion in treating UC in both the short- and long-term is well recognized, their mechanism of action is still vague. Therefore, it is important to discover how acupuncture-moxibustion works in treating UC, and this will boost its application in the treatment of UC.

Protein microarray is an important tool in profiling the protein expression in IBD and screening new drugs. This technique is known for its high throughput, high sensitivity and high precision, and thoroughly and quantitatively analyzes the genre, number and correlation of proteins, by which complicated network and possible regulatory mechanisms are investigated^[19-21]. Protein microarray has been gradually applied to research into traditional Chinese medicine (TCM), such as pharmacodynamics and toxicology of Chinese medications^[22-24], yet it has rarely been used in the study of acupuncture-moxibustion therapy.

The present study established experimental UC rats and adopted the protein microarray technique to investigate the effect of herb-partitioned moxibustion (HPM) on the expression profile of colonic cytokines, to select those most associated with the therapeutic action of HPM. We used the UniProt and KEGG PATHWAY databases, as well as DAVID pathway and functional cluster analysis to study the immunopathogenesis of experimental UC and its treatment with HPM from the angle of cytokine expression profile.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental animals

Twenty-seven male Sprague-Dawley rats weighing 160 ± 20 g were provided by the Experimental Animal Center of Shanghai University of Traditional Chinese Medicine (SCXK (Hu) 2007-0005). The rats were housed for 3 d under controlled conditions (22 ± 2 °C, relative humidity 64%) before the experiment

started. All procedures for animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the International Guiding Principles for Biomedical Research Involving Animals recommended by the World Health Organization and were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of Shanghai University of Traditional Chinese Medicine. All rats were randomly divided into three groups as normal group, model group and HPM group, with nine rats per group.

Reagents and equipment

The following reagents and equipment were used: Freund's adjuvant (Sigma, St Louis, MO, United States), refined moxa wool (Nanyang Hanyi Moxa Co. Ltd., He'nan, China), Fugui formula 1 (Huaji Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd., Shanghai, China), hematoxylin and eosin (HE) staining kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Technology Co. Ltd., Nanjing, China), self-made cone-like copper moxa-cone mold, self-made columnar copper herbal cake mold, biotin label-based rat antibody array (90 rat proteins, RayBiotech, Norcross, GA, United States), ELISA kits for rat Fas/TNFRSF6, FasL/TNFSF6, IL-1R6 (IL-1Rrp2) and IL-1 β (Bio-Techne, Minneapolis, MN, United States), phosphatase/protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Basel, Switzerland), RIPA lysis buffer, phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) (Beyotime, Jiangsu, China), microplate reader (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, United States), scanner (Qinghua Ziguang, Beijing, China), ScanAlyze image analysis software (Stanford University, CA, United States), pathological analysis system (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany), and light microscope and imaging system (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Rat model of UC

The rat model of UC was established using immunization plus topical stimulation with formalin^[25,26]. After modeling, each group contributed one rat for histopathological observation to verify the success of the UC model.

HPM

Rats in the HPM group were treated with HPM at bilateral Tianshu (ST25) points (Figure 1) by using a rat fixator. An herbal cake was placed on each point with a moxa cone on the top. The moxa cone was ignited, with two cones for each point as one session. The intervention was conducted once every other day, for four sessions and 8 d in total. Rats in the model group did not receive any interventions except the same grasping and fixing as in the HPM group. Rats in the normal group did not receive any modeling operation or interventions except for the same grasping and fixing.

Each moxa cone was made of 90 mg refined moxa wool by a copper mold, 0.4 cm in diameter and 0.4 cm in height. Guifu formula 1 was used to make herbal cakes, consisting of *Radix aconiti lateralis preparata*, *Cortex cinnamon*, *Radix salvia miltiorrhizae*, *Flos carthami* and *Radix Aucklandiae* (ratio: 10:2:3:3:1). The herbal powder was mixed with yellow rice wine immediately

before HPM treatment and then made into cakes of the same size using a specific mold (0.6 cm in diameter and 0.3 cm thickness).

Colon sample preparation

After the treatment, the rats were euthanized by an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (150 mg/kg). Colons (6–8 cm, cut at 2 cm away from the anus) were collected and opened longitudinally to observe and score gross injuries under a microscope. The scoring standard is shown in Supplementary Table 1. The colons were then cut into 2 pieces. The proximal part was stored at -80°C and the distal part was fixed in 10% neutral-buffered formalin.

Morphological observation of the colon

After fixation in 10% neutral-buffered formalin overnight, colons were dehydrated, embedded in paraffin, sliced ($3\text{--}5\ \mu\text{m}$) and baked (60°C) using the Leica pathological analysis system, followed by dewaxing and dehydration by dimethylbenzene and graded ethanol. The specimens were stained with hematoxylin for 10 min, differentiated by 1% HCl and ethanol, stained blue by 1% ammonia solution, stained by 0.5% eosin for 3 min, dehydrated through 70%, 85%, 95% and 100% ethanol, made transparent by dimethylbenzene, and sealed in neutral resin. Finally, the colon tissues were observed under a light microscope and scored. The scoring standard is shown in Supplementary Table 2.

Total protein extraction in the colon

Three colon samples were selected from each of the three groups to extract total protein. Lysis buffer containing protease inhibitor was added at 1 mL/250 mg (1 mL RIPA was mixed with 5 μL protease inhibitor solution, 5 μL PMSF and 5 μL phosphatase/protease inhibitor cocktail), and homogenized at a low speed (3000 rpm) for complete lysis of colon tissues. The colonic lysate was centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 15 min. The supernatant was collected to determine the concentration of total protein by bicinchoninic acid method.

Cytokine detection in colon

The protein chips were put into the reaction chamber of the chemiluminescent protein microarray kit from RayBiotech. A total of 2 mL blocking buffer was added into the reaction chamber, interacting for 30 min at room temperature. The protein chips were incubated with 1 mL sample supernatant (content of total proteins 50–500 μg), streptavidin antibody and horseradish-peroxidase-labeled anti-streptavidin antibody in sequence for 2 h at each step. After thorough washing, 500 μL chemiluminescent solution was added to the reaction chamber, which was incubated for 2 min at room temperature. The solution was then removed, and the protein chips were taken for imaging. Ninety kinds of cytokines are detailed in Supplementary Table 3.

Image and data analysis

The images were scanned and saved in .tiff format.

ScanAlyze was used to transform the images into data that were then input into Microsoft Excel for normalization and analysis. Normalized result = [Original value - Blank (average)]/Positive (average). First, the protein abundance of rat colonic cytokines in each group was described. Second, intergroup fold change in normalized protein abundance was calculated. Fold change > 1.3 or < 0.77 were taken as the standard to define upregulation and downregulation of a cytokine, respectively.

UniProt accession and KEGG pathway analysis

Accessions of the differentially expressed cytokines were retrieved in the UniProt database to understand their protein structure and physicochemical properties. The corresponding pathways of the cytokines were sought in the KEGG PATHWAY database and then underwent functional cluster and pathway analysis with DAVID.

Validation of differentially expressed proteins in the colon

ELISA was used to verify the specific differentially expressed colonic cytokines. The appropriate amount of diluent samples, standard products and 10 μL avidin and 50 μL enzyme-labeled reagent were added to a 96-well dish and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. When the above solutions were washed off, 50 μL chromogenic reagents A and B were added successively and mixed. The dish was kept at 37°C for 15 min in the dark to allow developing. Finally, 50 μL stop solution was added to terminate the reaction. A microplate reader from Thermo Fisher was used to determine OD_{450} . The protein concentration was positively correlated with the OD value. The standard curve was drawn to reflect the cytokine concentration.

Statistical analysis

SPSS version 18.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY, United States) was used for statistical analysis. Measurement data including body weight, gross colon injury score, histopathological score, and expression of the 90 cytokines and differentially expressed cytokines, which completely or substantially conformed to a normal distribution and homogeneity of variance, were expressed as means \pm SD. Body weight, gross colon injury score, histopathological score and expression of colonic differentially expressed cytokines were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by least significant difference test. An independent *t*-test was used for the between-group comparison of the expression of the 90 cytokines. $P < 0.05$ was considered to indicate statistical significance.

RESULTS

General condition

Rats in the normal group were vigorous and had normal intake of food, defecation, ruddy anus and steady increase of body weight. On the contrary, rats in the model group were weak and irritable, with reduced food intake, soft or loose stool sometimes with blood or pus, stained anus, and slower increase of body weight ($P < 0.01$). Compared with the model group, rats in the HPM

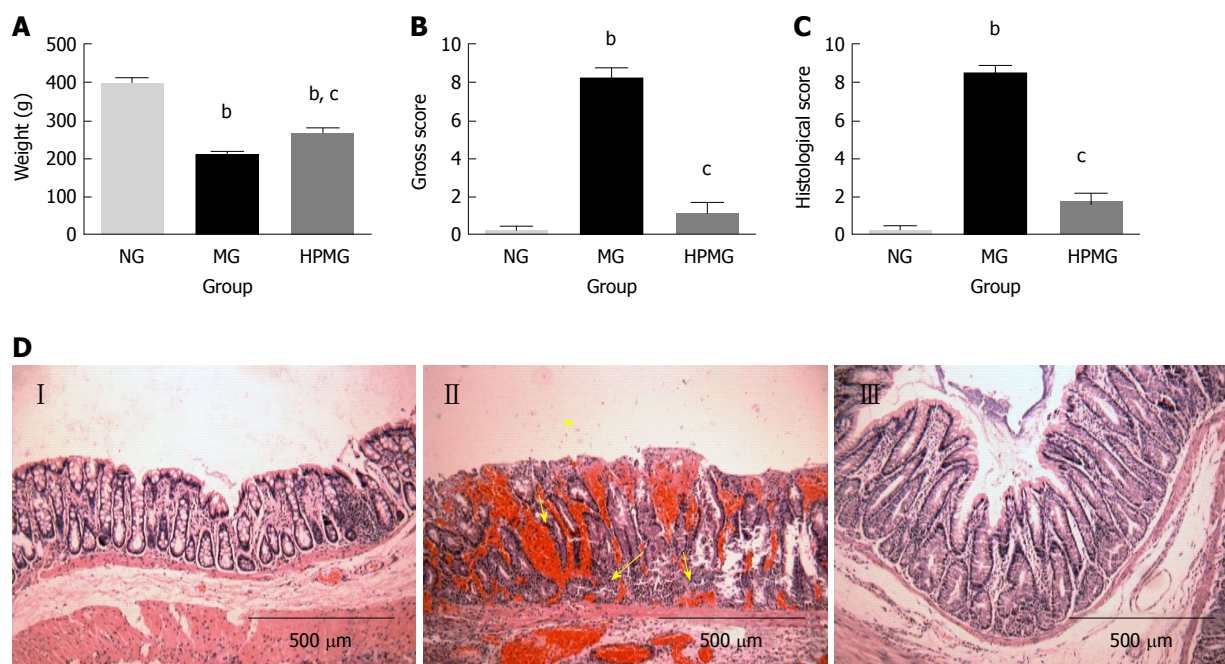


Figure 2 General condition, morphological observation and injury score of colon tissues in each group. A: Weight change of rats in each group; B: Gross injury score of rat colon in each group; C: Histological score of rat colon in each group; D: Histological and morphological structure under microscope by hematoxylin-eosin staining (Amplification $\times 100$). NG (I): Normal group; MG (II): Model group; HPMG (III): Herb-partitioned moxibustion group. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD, $n = 8$ per group. ^b $P < 0.01$ (vs normal group); ^c $P < 0.01$ (vs model group).

group showed improvements in dieting, stool pattern and spiritual state, and body weight increased more significantly ($P < 0.01$) (Figure 2A).

Gross colon injury score

Compared with the normal group, colons in the model group were harder and darker, with thickened intestinal walls, less smooth lining with significant congestion and scattered ulcers covered by discharge, and the gross injury score was significantly higher ($P < 0.01$). Compared with the model group, colons in the HPM group showed notable improvement in colon injuries, presenting with soft pink intestines, slightly thickened intestinal walls, smooth and complete lining without visible ulcers, and the gross injury score was significantly lower ($P < 0.01$) (Figure 2B).

Morphological changes in the colon

Compared with the normal group, the model group had a significantly higher histopathological score for colon injuries ($P < 0.01$) and presented with disconnected colon lining, colonic gland necrosis or missing, disorganized crypts, atrophy in some colonic glands, and infiltration of the lamina propria and submucosa by many inflammatory cells such as neutrophils, eosinophils and mononuclear cells. Compared with the model group, rats in the HPM group showed significant improvements in colon injuries, manifested by substantially complete lining without noticeable ulcers but obvious growth of well-structured colonic glands, coupled with inflammatory polyps, alleviated inflammation in the lamina propria and submucosa, and a significantly lower histopathological score ($P < 0.01$), (Figure 2C and D).

Analysis of cytokine expression profiles

Compared with the normal group, 30 cytokines in colon tissues ($n = 3$) showed > 1.3 fold change in the model group (Table 1 and Figure 3A), among which 22 cytokines were significantly differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$); 34 cytokines showed < 0.77 fold change (Table 2, Figure 3A, and Figure 4), and 4 of them were significantly differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$).

Compared with the model group, 77 colonic cytokines showed < 0.77 fold change in the HPM group (Table 3, Figure 3B, and Figure 4), and 14 of them were significantly differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$); 9 cytokines showed > 1.3 fold change (Table 4 and Figure 3B), and 6 of them were significantly differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$).

Further analysis discovered that 12 cytokines that were upregulated (> 1.3 fold change) in the model group compared with those in the normal group were downregulated (< 0.77 fold change) after HPM intervention (Figure 5): e.g., β -catenin, IL-1 receptor 6 (IL-1R6), B7-1, IL-1 β , nerve growth factor receptor, AMP-activated protein kinase- α 1, neuropilin-2, orexin A, adipocyte differentiation-related protein, IL-2, Fas and FasL. However, no cytokines that were downregulated (< 0.77 fold change) in the model group compared with those in the normal group were upregulated (> 1.3 fold change) after the intervention with HPM.

Functional cluster of the differentially expressed cytokines

Compared with the normal group, the differentially expressed cytokines in the model group regulated apoptosis, protein phosphorylation and modification,

Table 1 Cytokines associated with the development of ulcerative colitis (up-regulated)

Cytokine (up)	FC (M/N)	P value	Cytokine (up)	FC (M/N)	P value
FGF-BP	1.362082	0.02	FADD	2.012878	0.15
IL-5	1.383255	0.12	B7-1	2.121888	< 0.00
MIG-6	1.502947	0.01	Fas	2.133077	0.03
IL-10	1.538953	0.04	E-Selectin	2.193775	0.35
Fractalkine	1.562316	0.01	SPP1	2.286921	0.02
PDGF-AA	1.621171	0.05	IL-2	2.298734	0.01
β -Catenin	1.63583	< 0.000	Activin A	2.328823	0.01
FSL1	1.645565	0.004	IL-3	2.356267	0.08
AMPK α 1	1.747397	0.001	ADFP	2.429592	< 0.00
RAGE	1.778351	0.02	Fas Ligand	2.476364	0.02
BDNF	1.800268	< 0.00	Neuropilin-2	2.742889	0.02
IC-1	1.812053	0.39	NGFR	3.519845	< 0.00
Insulin	1.917783	0.03	IL-1Rrp2/IL-1R6	3.668512	< 0.00
ACTH	1.919645	0.15	Orexin A	4.768017	0.01
PK1	1.956145	0.08	IL-1 β	5.017418	< 0.000

FC: Fold change; M/N: Average of normalized result in the model group/average of normalized result in the normal group.

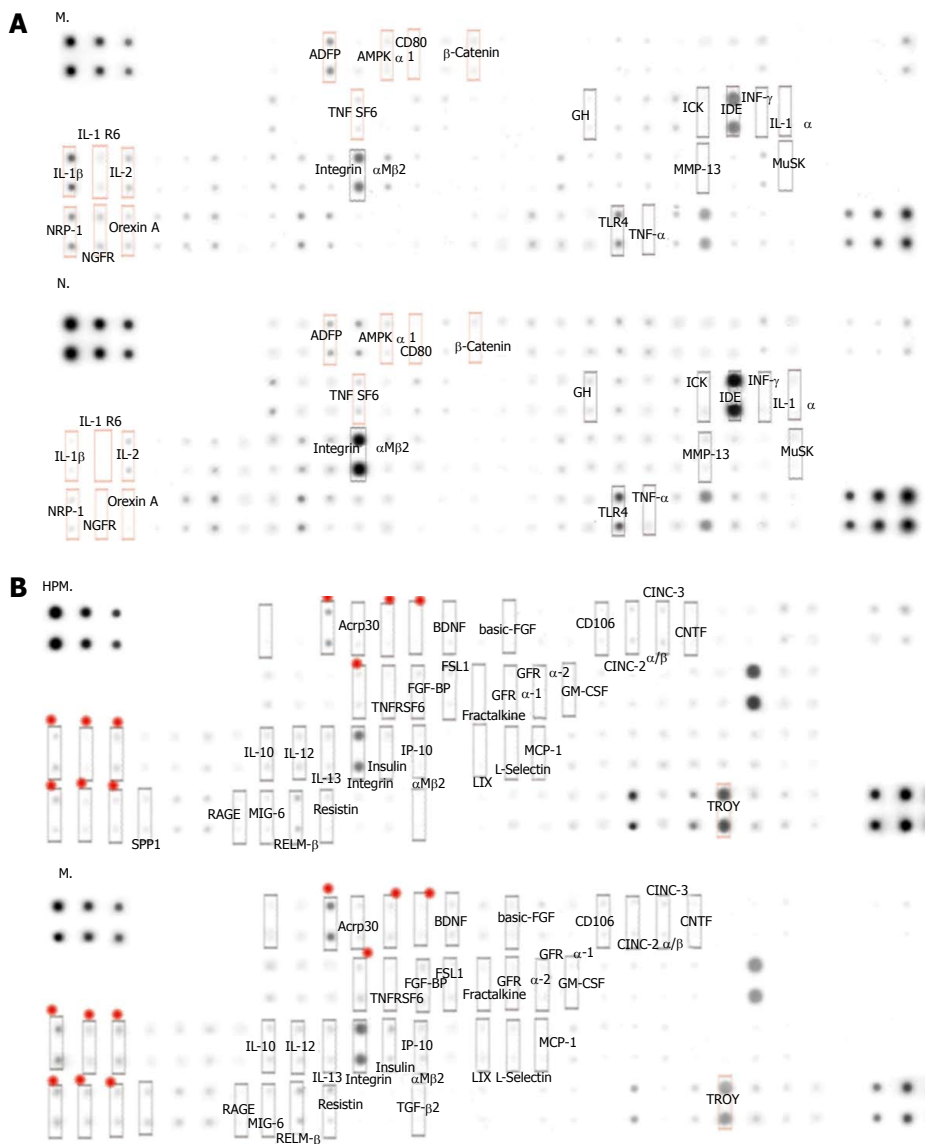


Figure 3 Protein abundances of colonic cytokines in each group. A: MG vs NG in comparing the change in mean protein abundance, and the cytokines with an obvious change are shown in the figure; B: HPMG vs MG in comparing the change in mean protein abundance, and the cytokines with an obvious change are shown in the figure. The significantly down-regulated proteins are marked in red (the focus of this study). NG: Normal group; MG: Model group; HPMG: Herb-partitioned moxibustion group.

Table 2 Cytokines associated with the development of ulcerative colitis (down-regulated)

Cytokine (down)	FC (M/N)	P value	Cytokine (down)	FC (M/N)	P value
MuSK	0.025485	0.26	GM-CSF	0.558641	0.01
MMP-13	0.191098	0.50	TRAIL	0.561294	0.73
ICK	0.206558	0.99	GH	0.583295	0.11
IFN- γ	0.210272	0.60	TLR4	0.605775	0.09
TNF- α	0.232403	0.54	CCR4	0.614899	0.15
IL-1 α	0.283395	0.64	VEGF	0.630412	0.62
MIP-3 α	0.297499	0.82	TIMP-2	0.636711	0.48
EGFR	0.362763	0.82	TGF- β 1	0.644985	0.19
MMP-2	0.366125	0.94	CD106	0.6635	0.04
MIF	0.441963	0.52	ICAM-1	0.701176	0.3
MIP-1 α	0.446228	0.69	Thrombospondin	0.708378	0.09
Ubiquitin	0.485159	0.59	IDE	0.711151	0.27
TIMP-3	0.489656	0.65	β -NGF	0.727731	0.13
MIP-2	0.513305	0.68	IC-3	0.748519	0.66
TIE-2	0.528072	0.81	MDC	0.749424	0.13
TGF- β 3	0.550782	0.08	VEGF-C	0.768934	0.42
Growth hormone R	0.553239	0.50	CNTF	0.769193	0.02

FC: Fold change; M/N: Average of normalized result in the model group/average of normalized result in the normal group.

proliferation of white blood cells, lymphocytes and mononuclear cells, migration of white blood cells and vascular endothelial cells, activation of chemokines, and modulation of transcription factors of nuclear factor- κ B and angiogenesis (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). Compared with the model group, the differentially expressed cytokines in the HPM group regulated apoptosis, protein phosphorylation, cell migration, protein metabolism, activation and chemotaxis of neutrophils, activation of lymphocytes and transcription factors, migration of vascular endothelial cells, and secretion of cytokines (Supplementary Tables 6 and 7).

KEGG pathway analysis

Compared with the normal group, 18 of the up-regulated differentially expressed cytokines in the model group involved 18 signaling pathways. Eleven of them were pathways that interacted between cytokines and their receptors. The rest were pathways mainly involved in allotransplantation reactions, autoimmune thyroid disorders, type 1 diabetes, network of intestinal immunoglobulins, apoptosis, mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling pathway, graft vs host reaction, Janus kinase/signal transducer and activator of transcription (JAK/STAT) signaling pathway and Toll-like receptor (TLR) signaling pathway (Figure 6). Twenty-seven of the down-regulated differentially expressed cytokines in the model group involved 21 signaling pathways. Thirteen of them were pathways for the interaction between cytokines and their receptors. The rest were pathways mainly involved in the MAPK signaling pathway, TGF- β signaling pathway, natural killer (NK)-cell-mediated cytotoxicity, JAK/STAT signaling pathway, and apoptosis (Figure 6).

Compared with the model group, 52 of the 77 down-regulated differentially expressed cytokines in the HPM group were involved in 28 signaling pathways. The rest were involved in the JAK/STAT signaling pathway, cancer pathways, network of immunoglobulin A, MAPK

signaling pathway, immunological rejection, TLR signaling pathway, chemokine signaling pathway, apoptosis, inter-cellular adhesion, graft vs host reaction, Fc ϵ RI and TGF- β signaling pathways, T-cell receptor pathways, mammalian target of rapamycin signaling pathway, NOD-like receptors and NK-cell-mediated cytotoxicity (Figure 7). There were ten pathways associated with the up-regulated cytokines that were differentially expressed in the HPM group compared with the model group (seven of the nine differentially expressed cytokines involved ten pathways). Five of them were for interactions between cytokines and receptors. The rest were mainly involved in the MAPK signaling pathway, graft vs host reaction, transplantation rejection, apoptosis, and TGF- β and TLR signaling pathways (Figure 7).

Verification of specific differential cytokines IL-1 β , IL-1R6, Fas and FasL

Based on the protein microarray and functional cluster and pathway analysis, specific differential cytokines IL-1 β , IL-1R6, Fas and FasL were selected for further verification by ELISA. Compared with the normal group, there were significant increases in expression of IL-1 β , IL-1R6, Fas and FasL in the colon tissues of model group rats ($P < 0.01$, Figure 8). Compared with the model group, expression of IL-1 β , IL-1R6, Fas and FasL decreased significantly in the HPM group ($P < 0.01$, Figure 8).

DISCUSSION

Although the development and application of oral medications or biological agents for UC have progressed, the treatment results have differed individually, not to mention that adverse effects have often been reported. Some research has proposed the use of more than two drugs together as a multitarget treatment to boost the efficacy, but more research is needed^[27]. Conventional acupuncture-moxibustion therapy can produce a multi-

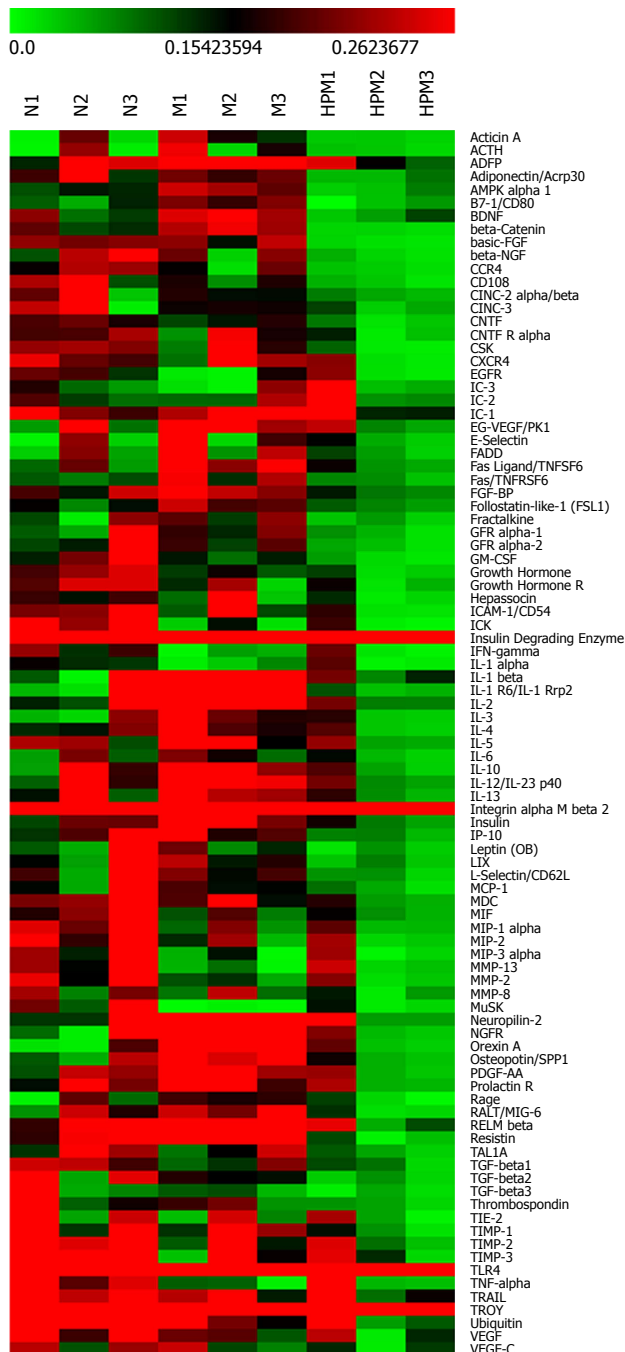


Figure 4 Clustering heatmap of colonic cytokines in each group. Red stands for those higher than the average density (marked in dark); green for those lower than the average density. $n = 3$ rats per group. N: Normal group; M: Model group; HPM: Herb-partitioned moxibustion group.

system, multitarget and multidirectional effect, without causing notable adverse reactions. For all these merits, it is recommended as an effective therapeutic approach for UC. Establishment of the mechanism of action of HPM in treating UC could provide important evidence to promote its application in treating IBD. The present study was a pilot study that used high-throughput protein microarray to elucidate the mechanism of action of HPM in the treatment of UC. Here, 86 differentially expressed cytokines in the colon were triggered by HPM. They

mostly regulated apoptosis, protein phosphorylation, lymphocyte activation and chemotaxis, protein metabolism, and activation of transcription factors. This indicates that the effect of HPM in promoting the repair of colon injuries in UC rats is possibly linked to the effective regulation of several abnormal cytokines. According to KEGG pathway analysis, 38 pathways were related to these differentially expressed cytokines. The high number suggests a plausible relationship between the immunological action of HPM and the regulation of cytokines, their receptors and the involved pathways in treating UC.

Despite the unclear picture of the pathogenesis of UC, it is widely accepted that chronic nonspecific inflammation in the colon is its cardinal feature. A large number of immunocompetent cells presenting with excessive chemotaxis and abnormally expressed cytokines have been found in the colon of UC patients. Cytokines and their receptors, as well as the factors regulating signaling pathways, mainly serve to regulate the molecular network of colonic epithelial cells, immunocytes in lamina propria, and bacteria. Therefore, abnormal cytokines are possibly a crucial factor in causing immune disorders and colon injuries in UC^[28,29]. Cytokines form a complicated network, interacting with immunocytes both as cause and effect, but their mechanism of action is still unclear. According to previous studies, the cytokines related to UC are comparatively precise, mainly focused on inflammatory factors, anti-inflammatory factors, chemokines and lymphocyte-activating factors, with a limited quantity for measurement. The present study has made up for the previous studies in genre and quantity of cytokines by examining important factors involved in apoptosis, cell proliferation, signaling pathway regulation, protein modification, tumor, and intestinal immune network. Besides the focus on inflammation, this study also used UniProt and KEGG pathway databases to further explore the possible pathogenesis of UC, providing new insights and foundations for UC and clinical intervention studies in the future.

HPM integrates moxibustion and Chinese herbal medicine and produces both pharmaceutical effects on the skin and physical thermal effects. It has been shown that HPM can exert definite effects in treating mild-to-moderate UC, by boosting colon healing and relief of inflammation; thus it is well accepted by patients^[17]. Compared with oral medication and surgery, HPM is simple to operate, gentle in action, consistent in efficacy and extensive in regulation. It can significantly improve quality of life and restore intestinal function^[30-32]. More and more cytokine antibodies have been approved for treatment of IBD, such as anti-TNF (e.g., infliximab, etanercept and adalimumab) and anti-IL-12/23 p40 (e.g., ustekinumab), indicating that regulation of cytokines is practical and essential in treating colitis^[33]. How does HPM exert its effect on UC? Is it also related to the regulation of cytokines, and what else is involved? In this study, protein microarrays revealed that 12 cytokines

Table 3 Cytokines associated with the action of herb-partitioned moxibustion (down-regulated)

Cytokine (down)	FC (H/M)	P value	Cytokine (down)	FC (H/M)	P value
basic-FGF	0.0978	0.70	MCP-1	0.322376	0.71
β-Catenin	0.099918	0.03	PDGF-AA	0.329641	0.13
IL-1Rrp2/IL-1R6	0.157933	0.03	TGF-β3	0.335626	0.50
Resistin	0.165169	0.45	FADD	0.338264	0.33
B7-1/CD80	0.165526	0.02	Prolactin R	0.352073	0.57
Activin A	0.169884	0.23	IL-10	0.353484	0.23
IL-1β	0.181118	0.01	IL-3	0.354765	0.15
NGFR	0.205767	0.02	FSL1	0.374421	0.06
β-NGF	0.206263	0.52	PK1	0.374728	0.22
ACTH	0.206715	0.50	CINC-2 α/β	0.375162	0.76
AMPKα1	0.218363	0.01	FGF-BP	0.378172	0.21
CSK	0.220766	0.54	ICAM-1	0.379167	0.45
GFRα-2	0.222922	0.65	TAL1A	0.379464	0.52
CCR4	0.229987	0.26	CNTF Rα	0.380412	0.57
MIG-6	0.234297	0.22	IL-13	0.381048	0.52
Neuropilin-2	0.23433	0.04	IL-12	0.395678	0.55
Fractalkine	0.238117	0.39	CXCR4	0.397749	0.92
CD106	0.238859	0.32	IL-4	0.400025	0.30
GFRα-1	0.248202	0.66	CINC-3	0.404805	0.89
Orexin A	0.256555	0.01	MDC	0.417278	0.50
GM-CSF	0.259198	0.16	IL-5	0.41803	0.33
TGF-β2	0.261203	0.58	E-Selectin	0.424327	0.43
LIX	0.270135	0.91	Hepassocin	0.428314	0.61
BDNF	0.270917	0.06	GH	0.441903	0.02
RAGE	0.27422	0.24	Integrin αMβ2	0.458492	0.03
Leptin (OB)	0.276614	0.79	IL-6	0.47843	0.60
SPP1	0.278682	0.07	TGF-β1	0.511556	0.12
TIMP-1	0.280948	0.88	MMP-8	0.525606	0.65
L-Selectin	0.283725	0.91	GH R	0.581019	0.17
Fas	0.289612	0.06	TIMP-2	0.581976	0.31
RELMβ	0.290633	0.47	VEGF-C	0.610166	0.54
ADFP	0.290674	0.01	IC-1	0.639561	0.12
Acrp30	0.291541	0.81	IDE	0.678174	0.01
IP-10	0.295663	0.88	TIMP-3	0.69365	0.16
IL-2	0.298121	0.03	MIP-2	0.713848	0.13
Insulin	0.305481	0.09	MIF	0.725496	0.18
CNTF	0.310717	0.10	Ubiquitin	0.73656	0.09
Fas Ligand	0.319733	< 0.05	MIP-1α	0.761068	0.09
Thrombospondin	0.322261	0.55	VEGF	0.765926	0.13

FC: Fold change; H/M: Average of normalized result in the herb-partitioned moxibustion group/average of normalized result in the model group.

Table 4 Cytokines associated with the action of herb-partitioned moxibustion (up-regulated)

Cytokine (up)	FC (H/M)	P value	Cytokine (up)	FC (H/M)	P value
EGFR	1.335106	0.13	TNF-α	1.937065	0.04
TROY	1.34044	0.31	IFN-γ	2.000647	0.01
TLR4	1.511846	0.04	MMP-13	2.19335	0.04
IC-3	1.664604	0.74	MuSK	12.24563	0.02
IL-1α	1.845212	0.01			

FC: Fold change; H/M: Average of normalized result in the herb-partitioned moxibustion group/average of normalized result in the model group.

upregulated (fold change > 1.3) in the model group compared with the normal group were downregulated (fold change < 0.77) after HPM intervention. These cytokines are involved in the modulation of inflammation, apoptosis, adhesion, activation of co-stimulatory signals, metabolism, and nervous regulation. The pathway analysis also suggested an association between the effect of HPM in healing colon injuries of UC and the down-regulation of several abnormally expressed cytokines.

Hence, regulation of signaling pathways of cytokines and their receptors is possibly an important immunological mechanism. So far, we have seen that HPM has several regulatory effects on colonic cytokines. However, it remains a question whether this non-drug therapy can compare with oral or venous application of antibodies, immunosuppressive agents, steroidal and anti-inflammatory drugs.

We showed that HPM significantly downregulated

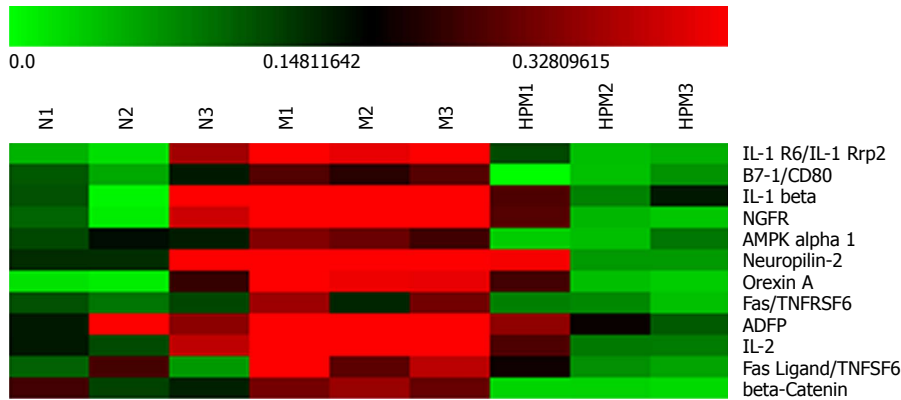


Figure 5 Clustering heatmap of the specific differential cytokines in each group. Red stands for those higher than the average density (marked in dark); green for those lower than the average density. $n = 3$ rats per group. N: Normal group; M: Model group; HPM: Herb-partitioned moxibustion group.

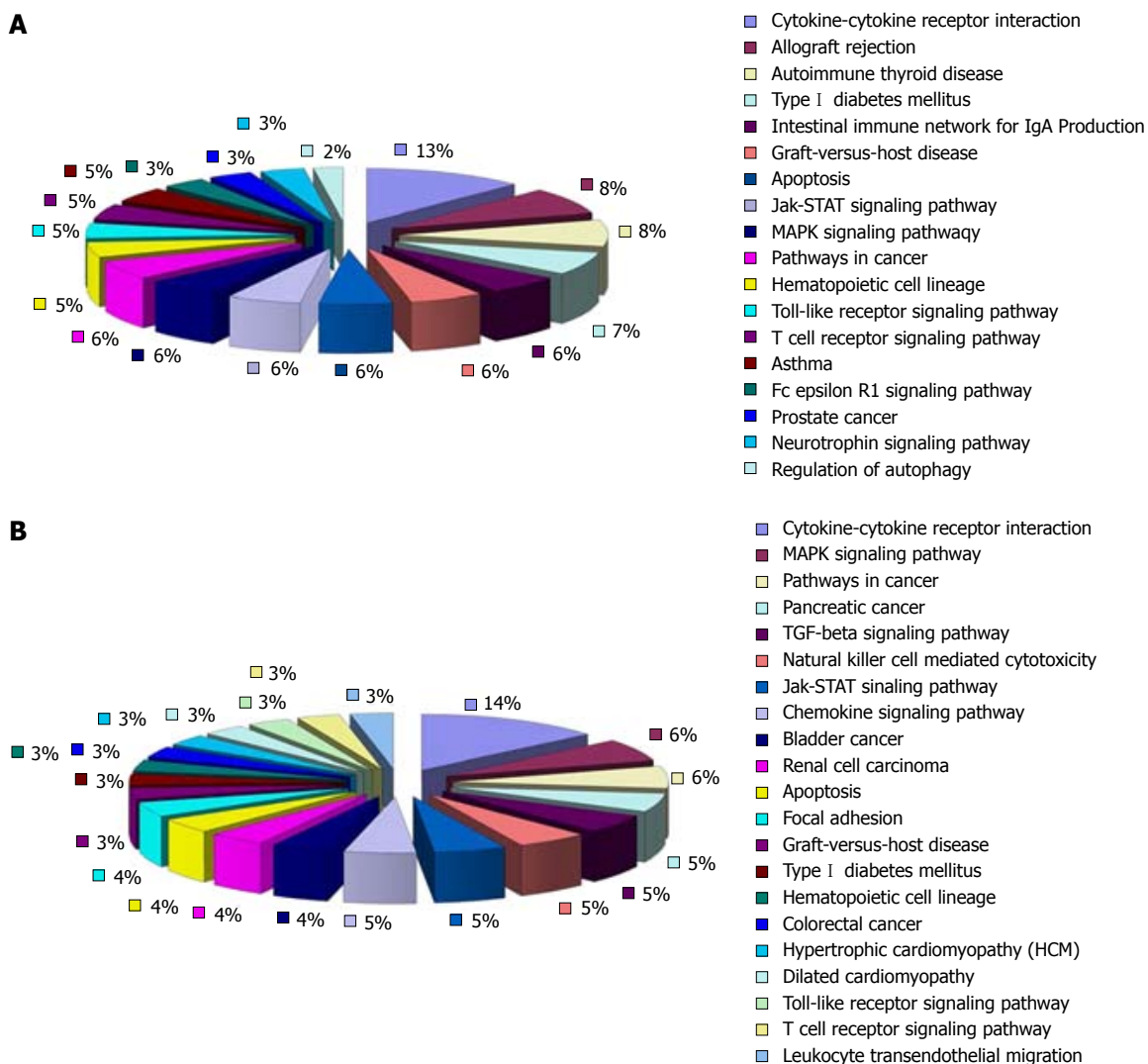


Figure 6 KEGG pathway analysis of the cytokines related to the development of ulcerative colitis. A: Eleven of all the major signaling pathways of the up-regulated cytokines in the model group (compared with the normal group) are involved in the interaction between cytokines and their receptors (36.7%); B: Of the major signaling pathways of the down-regulated cytokines in the model group (compared with the normal group), 13 pathways regulate the interaction between cytokines and their receptors (39.4%) (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5).

the expression of IL-1 β , IL-1R6, Fas and FasL, which agreed with previous studies^[16,34-40]. We demonstrated

that inflammatory infiltration and apoptosis in the colonic epithelium, controlled by cytokines and their network,

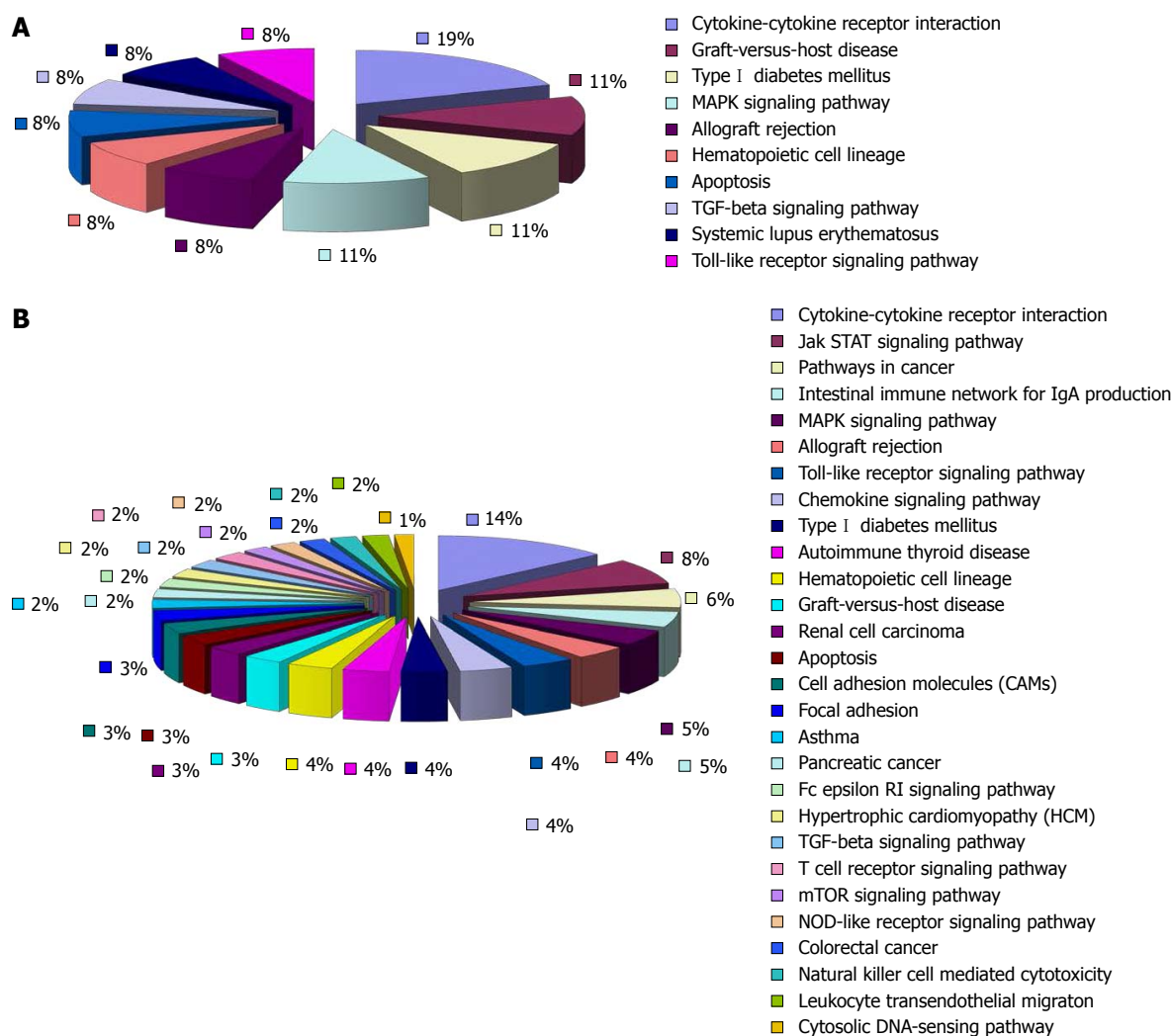


Figure 7 KEGG pathway analysis of the cytokines related to the action of herb-partitioned moxibustion. A: Among the major signaling pathways related to the up-regulated cytokines in the herb-partitioned moxibustion group (compared with the model group), five pathways were involved in the interaction between cytokines and their receptors (55.6%); B: Of the major signaling pathways related to the down-regulated cytokines in the herb-partitioned moxibustion group (compared with the model group), 27 pathways were involved in the interaction between cytokines and their receptors (38%) (Supplementary Tables 6 and 7).

are crucial factors in the pathogenesis of UC. We also discovered that the proinflammatory factor IL-1 β was significantly upregulated, while the immunoregulatory factor TGF- β was down-regulated in UC. This caused an imbalance between proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory factors, which also agreed with previous studies. However, in our study, the proinflammatory factors TNF- α and IFN- γ were downregulated, although without significance, which differed from the previous results. The UC modeling method could have accounted for this difference. IL-1 β originates from the innate intestinal immune system, while TNF- α and IFN- γ are produced by T helper cells of the acquired immune system. Our study used immunological and chemical stimulation to establish the UC model, which may have a different mechanism of injury from that induced by bacteria^[41,42]. By using protein microarray, we systematically discussed the pathogenesis of UC and possible action mechanism of HPM and hope to inspire more studies to further verify the findings.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

The imbalance of cytokines modulated by activated immunocytes has been verified as an initial factor inducing inflammatory injuries in ulcerative colitis (UC). Herb-partitioned moxibustion (HPM), a non-drug external therapy, produces valid efficacy in treating UC, but its potential mechanism is still unclear.

Research motivation

The action mechanism of HPM was explored by using high throughput analysis of cytokine expression profiles in the colon and their network effects in our research.

Research objectives

By identifying the key cytokines in the action of HPM and analyzing their signal pathways, our research aimed to provide research ideas and crucial targets for further elaboration of the anti-inflammation mechanism of HPM in treating UC.

Research methods

A UC rat model was established by protein immunization in combination with topical chemical stimulation. Rats in the HPM group received HPM at bilateral Tianshu (ST25) points. The expression profile of colonic cytokines was assayed

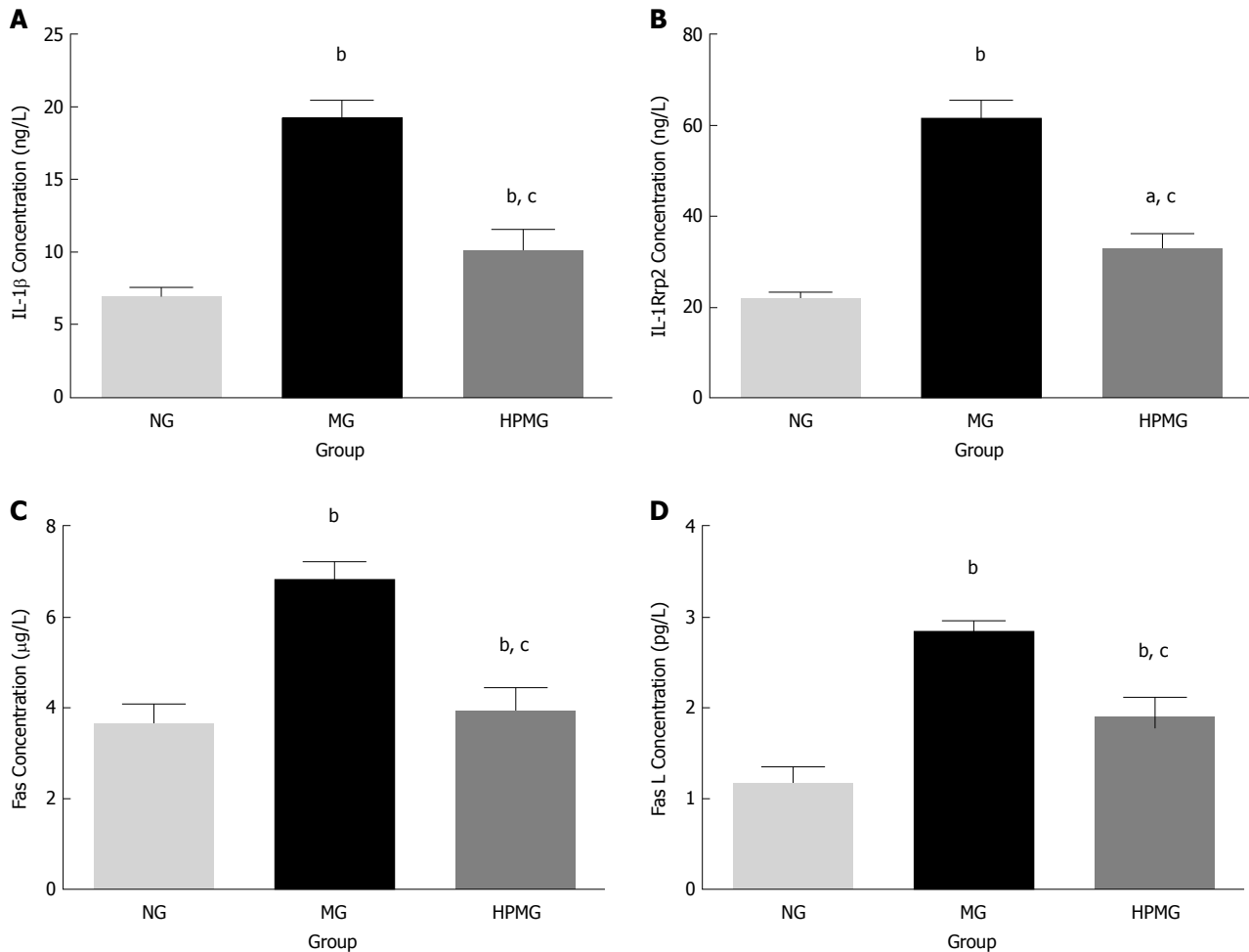


Figure 8 Validation of the specific differential cytokines. A: Expression of IL-1β protein in colon; B: Expression of IL-1Rrp2/IL-1R6 protein in colon; C: Expression of Fas protein in colon; D: Expression of FasL protein in colon. Data are presented as the mean ± SD, *n* = 8 rats per group. ^b*P* < 0.01, ^a*P* < 0.05, (vs normal group); ^c*P* < 0.01 (vs model group). NG: Normal group; MG: Model group; HPMG: Herb-partitioned moxibustion group.

using the protein microarray technique.

Research results

Seventy-seven down-regulated and nine up-regulated differentially-expressed colonic cytokines were found in the HPM group. Functional cluster analysis showed that the differentially-expressed colonic cytokines in the HPM group regulated apoptosis and protein phosphorylation. KEGG pathway analysis showed that the pathways interacting between the cytokines and their receptors accounted for the largest proportion (28 of 52 down-regulated cytokines and 5 of 7 up-regulated cytokines).

Research conclusions

HPM promotes the repair of colon injuries in UC rats, which is related to the regulation of several abnormally-expressed cytokines.

Research perspectives

By functional cluster and KEGG pathway analyses, this study selected specific differential cytokines in HPM treatment of UC, which can provide potential targets for targeted therapy in the future and also research ideas for further elaboration of signal pathways in the action of HPM for UC. The results showed that the signal pathways interacting between cytokines and their receptors were closely related to the action of HPM, and the MAPK signaling pathway and JAK/STAT signaling pathway were possibly involved in the anti-inflammation process of HPM for colitis. A focus on this field may help better understand the mechanism of moxibustion in treating UC.

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Basic Study

Novel sericin-based hepatocyte serum-free medium and sericin's effect on hepatocyte transcriptome

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Abstract

AIM

To develop a novel hepatocyte serum-free medium based on sericin, and to explore the effect of sericin on the hepatocyte transcriptome.

METHODS

A controlled trial comparing novel serum-free medium and other media: C3A cells were cultured in our novel serum-free medium, HepatoZYME, complete medium (DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS), and DMEM/F12, and

then cell attachment, proliferation, and function as well as the biocompatibility of the media were assessed. A comparative study of serum-free media with or without 2 mg/mL sericin: the effect of sericin on C3A growth was assessed by cell viability and proliferation, the effect of sericin on C3A cell cycle distribution was determined by flow cytometry, and the effect of sericin on the C3A transcriptome was assessed by gene-chip array and RT-qPCR.

RESULTS

More C3A cells attached to the plate containing our serum-free medium than to those containing HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 at 24 h post-seeding. Both the viability and proliferation rate of C3A cells in sericin-based serum-free medium were superior to those of cells in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 ($P < 0.001$). The content of albumin and urea in our serum-free medium was significantly higher than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 throughout the whole culture period ($P < 0.001$) and was similar to that in complete medium at day 3, 4, and 5. In part 2, cell viability and proliferation were greater in the presence of 2 mg/mL sericin ($P < 0.001$), as was the proportion of cells in S phase ($16.21\% \pm 0.98\%$ vs $12.61\% \pm 0.90\%$, $P < 0.01$). Gene-chip array analysis indicated that the expression of *CCR6*, *EGFR*, and *FOS* were up-regulated by 2 mg/mL sericin, and RT-qPCR revealed that the expression of *CCR6*, *EGFR*, *FOS*, *AKT1*, *JNK1*, *NFκB1*, *MMP-9*, *MEK2*, *ERK1/2* and *MYC* was up-regulated by 2 mg/mL sericin ($P < 0.05$).

CONCLUSION

We developed a novel hepatocyte serum-free medium. Sericin probably enhances cell attachment through the CCR6-Akt-JNK-NF-κB pathway and promotes cell proliferation through CCR6-mediated activation of the ERK1/2-MAPK pathway.

Key words: Sericin; Serum-free medium; MAPK pathway; Bioartificial liver support system; *CCR6*

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Core tip: In recent decades, few studies have focused on the development of hepatocyte serum-free medium. In this study, we developed a novel hepatocyte serum-free medium suitable for *in vitro* culture of C3A cells and applied an advanced method, gene-chip array, to explore the effect of sericin on the hepatocyte transcriptome. We found that sericin probably enhanced cell attachment through the CCR6-Akt-JNK-NF-κB pathway and promoted cell proliferation through CCR6-mediated activation of the ERK1/2-MAPK pathway. These findings inspired the following study on the mechanism by which sericin promotes cell attachment and proliferation.

Huang Y, Peng Q, Li HY, Jia ZD, Li Y, Gao Y. Novel sericin-based hepatocyte serum-free medium and sericin's effect on hepatocyte transcriptome. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3398-3413 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/>

INTRODUCTION

The bioartificial liver support system (BALSS) is a novel and ideal therapy for hepatic insufficiency, which can provide additional liver function for patients with acute liver injury and end-stage liver failure^[1]. During the BALSS operation, hepatocytes in the bioreactor perform various functions such as albumin synthesis, ammonia elimination, and bilirubin metabolism, which can decrease the symptoms of liver failure^[2].

The BALSS is mainly composed of a hepatocyte culture module and an extracorporeal circulation device^[3]. At the present time, the cells used in BALSS are mainly primary porcine hepatocytes^[4] and immortalized cells, such as HepG2 and C3A^[5]. C3A is a human hepatocellular carcinoma cell line, with high albumin production and excellent ability of ammonia elimination. Therefore, C3A is selected as the hepatocyte in the extracorporeal liver assist device (ELAD), which has proven to be effective in liver support and biocompatible in patients in clinical trials^[6].

Normally, *in vitro* culture of hepatocytes requires serum of animal-origin. However, the serum possesses several shortcomings, including immunogenicity, allergenicity and exposure to microorganisms^[7]. During the operation of the BALSS, the hepatocyte culture medium is in contact with the patient's plasma in the bioreactor, resulting in the potential for a variety of adverse reactions such as anaphylaxis and bacteremia. Therefore, serum-free medium suitable for hepatocyte culture in the BALSS has been needed within recent decades. However, few studies have focused on this topic.

HepatoZYME-SFM, the most popular of all hepatocyte serum-free media, is a serum-free medium for the long-term maintenance of hepatocyte phenotypic expression including the active and inducible forms of cytochrome P450 and active phase II enzymes^[8]. However, it is mainly used for serum-free primary hepatocyte culture, and serum is required for the adherence of hepatocytes at the early stage of serum-free culture with HepatoZYME.

Generally, serum-free medium comprises nutrients, growth factors, adherence-promoting factors, hormones, and trace elements. Advanced DMEM/F-12 (Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium/Ham's F-12) is a widely used basal medium that allows the culture of mammalian cells with reduced (10-50 mL/L) fetal bovine serum (FBS) supplementation, so it is often selected as the basal medium of the serum-free medium. Growth factor is the key component of serum-free culture medium, as it promotes cell growth. Hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) is a key ligand that elicits G1/S progression of epithelial cells, including hepatocytes, by up-regulating cyclin-E1 via the proline-mTOR pathway^[9]. Epidermal growth factor (EGF) is not only a promoter of the growth of epithelial cells but also an important regulator that promotes

CYP3A4 expression in hepatocytes^[10]. Dexamethasone affects the growth of hepatocytes in a dose-dependent manner. HGF-induced DNA synthesis and proliferation in primary cultures of adult rat hepatocytes are promoted by dexamethasone at the concentration of 10^{-10} mol/L, but are inhibited at the concentration of 10^{-8} mol/L^[11]. Furthermore, dexamethasone effectively induces gluconeogenesis in malignant hepatocytes both *in vitro* and *in vivo* by up-regulating PEPCK and G6Pase expression^[12].

Sericin, a silk-derived protein that constitutes 20%-30% of silk, is soluble in the water and envelops the fibroin fibers on the surface of silk. Sericin is widely used in the garment industry, cosmetics, pharmaceuticals, and biomedical engineering because of its moisture-regulating ability, ultraviolet (UV) resistance, and antibacterial, anticancer, and anticoagulant properties^[13-15]. It is well known that sericin has the ability to promote the attachment and proliferation of several mammalian cells^[16], and as a consequence, sericin has been widely used in cell cultures. In DMEM containing 100 mL/L FBS, cell viability and proliferation of normal animal cells, tumor cells, hybridoma cells and normal mouse fibroblast L929 cells were improved by adding sericin at a certain concentration^[17].

Along with the development of culture technology, sericin has also been used for 3D cell culture. Mandal *et al.*^[18] reported that a novel biopolymeric matrix fabricated by chemically cross-linking polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) with silk sericin was superior to PVA with respect to swellability, mechanical strength and flexibility, and cell attachment and viability. In another study, a silk sericin/gelatin 3-D scaffold showed enhanced mechanical strength, and higher compressibility, swellability, and porosity than a 2-D film. Moreover, improved cell attachment and viability, and low immunogenicity have suggested that a sericin/gelatin 3-D scaffold may be an ideal biomedical material^[19]. Sericin has also been used for hepatocyte culture and cryopreservation, the glucose consumption, urea secretion rate, and intracellular albumin content of HepG2 cells were increased in sericin-alginate-chitosan microcapsules^[20]. Miyamoto *et al.*^[21] demonstrated that a serum-free solution containing sericin and maltose improved the attachment capability of cryopreserved primary hepatocytes.

Although sericin has been shown to promote cell attachment, viability, and proliferation, the mechanism has been clarified. It is probably that the promotion of viability and proliferation is based on enhanced cell attachment. Aramwit *et al.*^[22] showed that sericin had the capability to improve the production of type-I collagen in the mouse fibroblast cell line L929 and that sericin increased the production of collagen in a dose-dependent manner within the range of 0.2-1.0 mg/mL.

Despite the advantages of sericin, it has not been used in the development of serum-free medium. The purpose of this study was to develop a novel serum-free medium suitable for *in vitro* hepatocyte culture based on sericin, growth factors, and other additives. In addition, the effects of sericin on the gene expression of

hepatocytes were also investigated using a gene-chip array in order to explore the mechanism by which sericin promotes cell viability and proliferation.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

There were two parts to this study. Part 1 was a controlled trial comparing the novel serum-free medium to other media. Part 2 was a comparative study between serum-free medium with or without sericin.

Materials

Sericin, insulin-transferrin-sodium selenite liquid media supplement (ITS), and 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Advanced DMEM/F12, HepatoZYME, L-glutamine, FBS, and phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Penicillin-streptomycin and 2.5 g/L trypsin-EDTA solution were purchased from Leagene. HGF, EGF, and dexamethasone were purchased from R&D Systems. Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was purchased from MP Biomedicals. A Live/Dead kit (calcein AM/PI) was purchased from Dojindo. SYBR Green qPCR SuperMix (a qPCR kit) was purchased from Invitrogen. TRIzol reagent and the RNeasy Plus Mini kit (reagents for extracting RNA from cells) were purchased from Ambion and Qiagen, respectively. An Olympus phase-contrast microscope and fluorescence microscope were used for cell observation. A Bio-Tek ELx800 absorbance reader was used for the MTT assay. An Aeroset automated biochemistry analyzer was used for the measurement of albumin and urea. A Bio-Photometer plus (Eppendorf) and an ABI PRISM®7500 Sequence Detection System (Thermo Fisher Scientific) were used for RT-qPCR. A BD FACSVerser was used for flow cytometry.

Preparation of medium

Sericin, HGF, and EGF were dissolved into PBS, and dexamethasone (Dex) was dissolved into DMSO at a certain concentration to create stock solutions, respectively. DMEM/F12 and HepatoZYME were employed as the basal medium for their corresponding group. The medium for each group in part 1 of the study was prepared by adding the supplements into the basal medium as shown in Table 1. In part 2, the medium used for group A was the same medium used for group A in part 1, while the medium used for group B was sericin knock-out (Table 2).

Cell lines and culture

The human hepatocellular carcinoma cell line C3A was obtained from ATCC (ATCC® CRL-10741). C3A cells were inoculated into 25 cm² flasks after thawing and cultured in DMEM containing FBS (100 mL/L) and penicillin-streptomycin (100 U/mL) under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C. The medium was changed every two days. Once the cells reached confluence, they were harvested using 2.5 g/L trypsin-EDTA, followed by the addition of fresh culture medium to create a new single-cell suspension for further

Table 1 Medium formula of each group in part 1

Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D
DMEM/F12	HepatoZYME	DMEM/F12	DMEM/F12
ITS 10 mL/L	L-Glutamine 2 μ mol/mL	FBS 100 mL/L	PEN-SM 100 U/mL
HGF 20 ng/mL	PEN-SM 100 U/mL	PEN-SM 100 U/mL	
EGF 10 ng/mL			
Dex 1 nmol/mL			
Sericin 2 mg/mL			
PEN-SM 100 U/mL			

ITS: Insulin-transferrin-sodium; HGF: Hepatocyte growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; Dex: Dexamethasone; PEN-SM: Penicillin-streptomycin; FBS: Fetal bovine serum.

Table 2 Medium formula of each group in part 2

Group A (sericin)	Group B (control)
DMEM/F12	DMEM/F12
ITS 10 mL/L	ITS 10 mL/L
HGF 20 ng/mL	HGF 20 ng/mL
EGF 10 ng/mL	EGF 10 ng/mL
Dex 1 nmol/mL	Dex 1 nmol/mL
Sericin 2 mg/mL	PEN-SM 100 U/mL
PEN-SM 100 U/mL	

ITS: Insulin-transferrin-sodium; HGF: Hepatocyte growth factor; EGF: Epidermal growth factor; Dex: Dexamethasone; PEN-SM: Penicillin-streptomycin; FBS: Fetal bovine serum.

incubation. The concentration of FBS was gradually reduced from 100 mL/L to 50 mL/L, then to 20 mL/L, and finally to 10 mL/L. After stable growth was achieved in DMEM containing 10 mL/L FBS, the cells were cultured in the corresponding medium for each group.

Live/dead fluorescence microscopy assay

Cell attachment after inoculation was evaluated by fluorescence microscopy using a Live/Dead kit. This method allows the simultaneous detection of both live and dead cells with calcein acetoxymethyl (calcein AM) and propidium iodide (PI) dyes. Calcein AM is a nonfluorescent and permeable reagent, which is converted by intracellular esterases to the intensely green fluorescent calcein. Propidium iodide enters dead cells through damaged membranes and produces a bright red fluorescence when bound to nucleic acids.

The cells were inoculated into 24-well plates at a density of 1×10^5 cells/well, and then cultured in the respective medium. Twenty-four hours later, the medium was discarded, and the cells were washed three times with PBS and incubated with calcein AM and PI under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C for 15 min. The morphology and quantity of the cells were observed using a fluorescence microscope at the wavelengths of 490 nm and 545 nm, respectively. The number of live cells in each photo was counted using the ImageJ software.

Cell growth curves

Cell growth was investigated every 24 h for seven days. Briefly, the cells were inoculated into 12-well plates

at a density of 1×10^5 cells/well, and cultured in the respective medium under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C. Every 24 h, the medium was changed, and the cells in each group were counted using a phase-contrast microscope in triplicate.

Cell viability and proliferation assessment

The viability and the proliferation capacity of the cells were quantitatively assessed by MTT assay. This assay is based on the reduction of MTT (a tetrazolium salt solution) to purple formazan by metabolically active cells. For this analysis, 5×10^3 cells were inoculated into each well of 96-well plates, and subsequently cultured in the respective medium under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C for seven days. Every 24 h, the cells were incubated with 1 mg/mL MTT for 4 h. After solubilization in DMSO for 10 min, the concentration of the formazan produced by the metabolically active cells was quantified at 490 nm with a Bio-Tek ELx800 absorbance reader in quintuplicate.

Cell function assessment

Cell function was assessed by the amount of albumin and urea produced by metabolically active cells. The cells were inoculated into 24-well plates at a density of 1×10^5 cells/well and cultured in the respective medium under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C for seven days. The supernatant was collected every 24 h for quantitative testing of albumin and urea using an Aeroset automated biochemistry analyzer in triplicate.

Biocompatibility assessment for mediums

The biocompatibility of the media was evaluated by aspartate transaminase (AST) and lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), which were released into the culture medium by the cells through damaged membranes after suffering an acute injury. Their concentrations in the culture media are correlated with membrane damage and the biocompatibility of the medium.

Every 24 h post-seeding, the supernatant was harvested for quantitative testing of AST and LDH using an Aeroset automated biochemistry analyzer in triplicate for seven days.

Cell cycle analysis

Cells were inoculated into 6-well plates at a density of 5×10^5 cells/well, and cultured in the respective medium

under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C. Seventy-two hours later, the cells were detached by trypsinization, centrifuged, and the pellet of cells was immediately fixed with ice-cold 700 mL/L ethanol. Afterwards, cells were washed three times with cold PBS to remove the ethanol, and finally stained with PI using a standard method^[23]. Cells were analyzed by flow cytometry using BD FACSVerse.

Gene chip array

The differences in the transcriptomes of the cells cultured in the presence of sericin were quantitatively assessed using the GeneChip® PrimeView™ Human Gene Expression Array. The cells were inoculated into 6-well plates at a density of 1.5×10^6 cells/well, and subsequently cultured in the respective medium under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C. Seventy-two hours post seeding, the cells were harvested and total RNA was extracted using a Qiagen RNeasy Plus Mini kit. After the quality was verified using a Thermo Nanodrop 2000 and Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer, the RNA was analyzed using GeneChip® PrimeView™ to reveal the differentially expressed genes related to proliferation. The expression differences of up-regulated genes were presented as fold-change (group A/group B ratio), and differences between samples were considered statistically significant at a value of fold-change > 1.5.

Real time quantification of gene expression

RT-qPCR was used to distinguish the differences of genes related to hepatocyte function in each group of part 1, and to verify the differentially expressed genes in the gene chip array of part 2. The cells were inoculated into 6-well plates at a density of 1.5×10^6 cells/well, and subsequently cultured in the respective medium under 50 mL/L CO₂ at 37 °C. At each set time point, the cells were harvested and total RNA was extracted using a Qiagen RNeasy Plus Mini kit. After RNA quality verification, RT-qPCR was performed using an ABI PRISM®7500 Sequence Detection System and SYBR Green qPCR SuperMix. The genes related to hepatocyte function were assessed two, four, and six days after seeding, and included uridinediphosphate-glucuronosyl transferase (UGT: The enzyme catalyzing the conversion of unconjugated bilirubin into conjugated bilirubin), glutathione S-transferase (GST: The enzyme catalyzing the conjugation of the reduced form of glutathione to xenobiotic substrates for the purpose of detoxification), glutamate-ammonia ligase (GLUL: The key enzyme in glutamine synthesis), glucose-6-phosphatase (G6P: The key enzyme in gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis), albumin, carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I (CPS1: The key enzyme in the production of urea), and cytochrome P-450 (CYP3A4, CYP2D6: the oxidizing enzymes in drug metabolism). The genes screened by the gene chip array were assessed one, two, three, and four days after seeding. The relative expression of each gene was presented as the value of $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$.

Statistical analysis

The statistical analyses of the data in parts 1 and 2

were performed using one-way ANOVA and a *t*-test, respectively, with SPSS version 20.0 software. The results were expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD) using GraphPad Prism Software. Differences between samples were considered statistically significant at a value of $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Part 1

In part 1, group A is our novel serum-free medium, group B is HepatoZYME, group C is the complete medium (DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS), and group D is DMEM/F12 (Table 1).

Live/dead fluorescence microscopy assay: Cell behavior in terms of attachment and viability was qualitatively investigated after 24 h of culture under standard conditions by fluorescence microscopy, based on the simultaneous staining of live (green-labeled) and dead (red-labeled) cells (Figure 1).

The density of attached living cells in group A was obviously higher than those in group B and group D, and almost approached that of group C. C3A cells in group A possessed a greater attachment capability than those in group B and group D ($P < 0.01$).

Cell growth curves: Cell growth was directly measured by counting the cell number in each group with standard hemocytometry every 24 h. During the seven days post-seeding, the cell number in each group increased gradually at different rates (Figure 2A). Within three days post-seeding, the difference in the cell numbers among groups A, B and C were not significant. Beginning on the fourth day post-seeding, the cell number in group A was significantly higher than those in group B and group D at each time point ($P < 0.001$). Although the daily cell number in group A was lower than that in group C starting on the fifth day post-seeding ($P < 0.001$), they were close in number during the first four days of culture.

Cell viability and proliferation assessment: To examine cell viability and the proliferation rate, the MTT assay was employed in which the number of metabolically active cells is linearly associated with the absorbance at 490 nm within a certain range. During the whole culture period, the curve of each group rose gradually at different rates (Figure 2B). Within three days post-seeding, the cell viability and proliferation of group A were similar to group C. Afterwards, the number of metabolically active cells in group A was less than that in group C ($P < 0.001$), and reached the maximum at day 5. The viabilities of groups A, B and D declined after day 5. Nevertheless, the daily number of metabolically active cells in group A was significantly greater than those in group B and group D during the whole culture period ($P < 0.001$).

Cell function assessment: Cell function was assessed by the quantity of albumin and urea produced by C3A

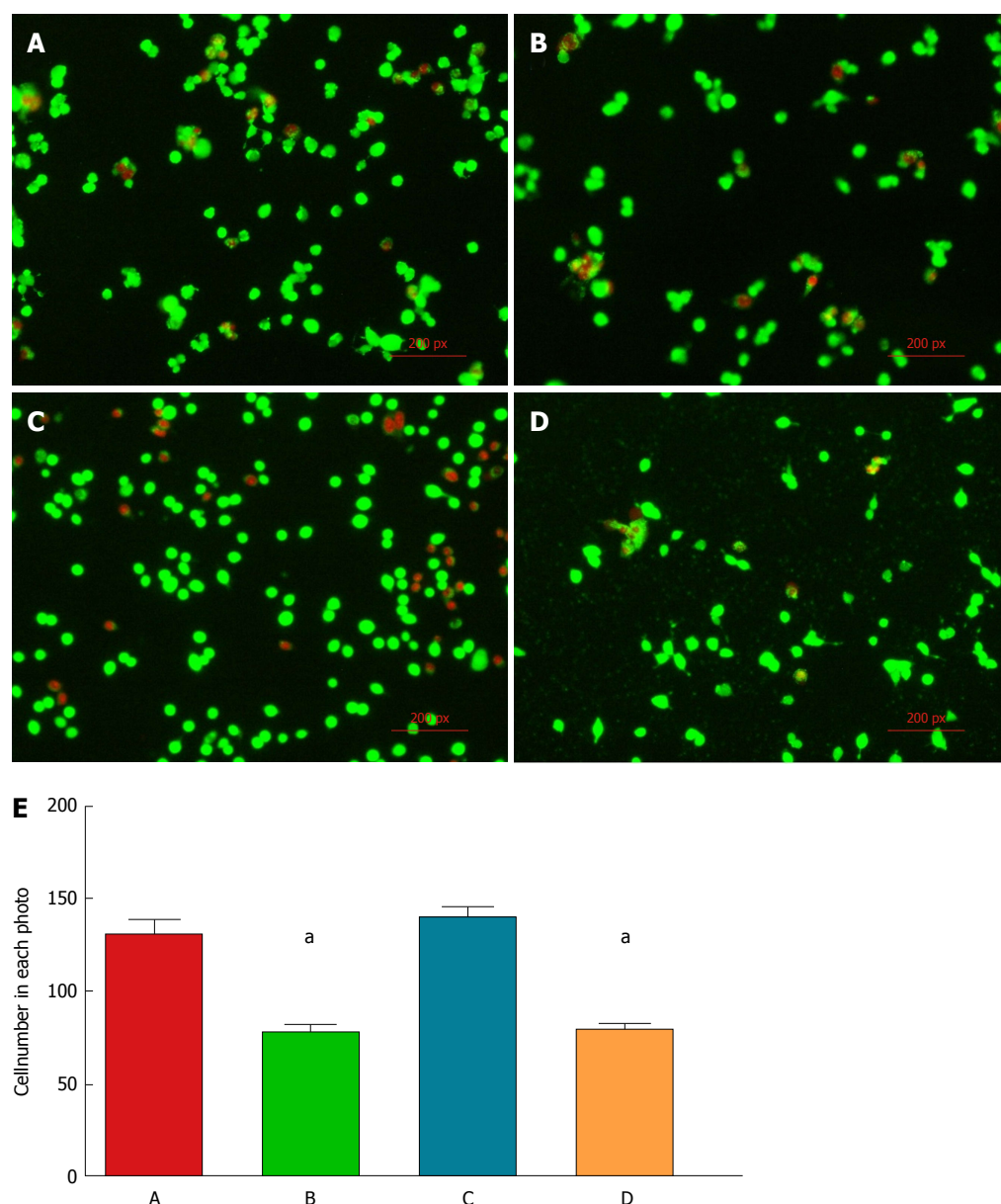


Figure 1 Fluorescence microscopy assessment of live (green-labeled) and dead (red-labeled) C3A cells at 24 h post-seeding in each group. A: Serum-free medium; B: HepatoZYME; C: DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS; D: DMEM/F12; and E: comparison of cell number from photos in each group: (group A) serum-free medium, (group B) HepatoZYME, (group C) DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS, and (group D) DMEM/F12. Data are expressed as mean ± SD ($n = 3$). ^a $P < 0.05$. FBS: Fetal bovine serum.

cells. With respect to albumin (Figure 2C), the curves of group A and group C showed a slightly declining trend throughout the whole culture period. On days 1, 2, 6, and 7, the albumin in the supernatant of group A was lower than that in group C ($P < 0.001$), but there was no significant difference on days 3, 4, and 5. Throughout the culture process, the quantity of albumin secreted by C3A cells in group A was greater than that in group B and group D at each time point ($P < 0.001$). With respect to urea (Figure 2D), the content of urea in the supernatant of each group decreased gradually during the culture period. At each time point, the urea synthesized by the C3A cells in group A was lower than that in group C ($P < 0.001$), but it was significantly greater than that in group B and group D ($P < 0.001$).

Biocompatibility assessment for media: As they reflect hepatocyte injury, AST and LDH were selected to assess the biocompatibility of each medium with C3A cells. With respect to AST leakage (Figure 2E), there were no differences among the groups during the first 24 h. Beginning on day 2, AST leakage in groups A, C, and D was similar until day 6, and significantly lower than that in group B at each time point ($P < 0.001$). AST leakage in group A was lower than that in all the other groups on day 7 ($P < 0.001$). With respect to LDH leakage (Figure 2F), on days 1, 2, 5, and 6, LDH leakage in group A was greater than that in group C, but they shared a similar level at the other time points. During the whole culture period, LDH leakage in group B was significantly greater than that in group A and group C (P

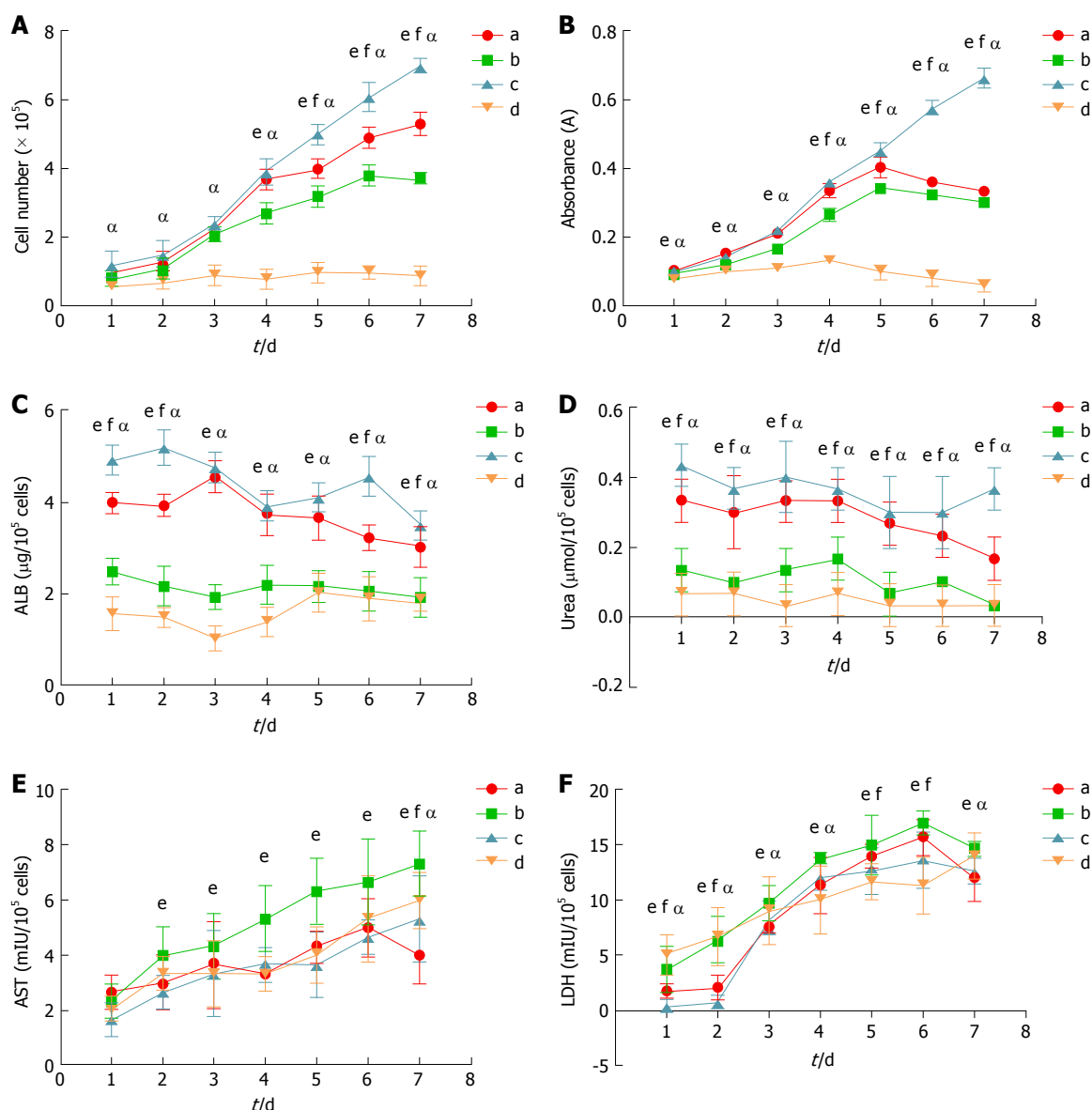


Figure 2 Comparison on (A) cell growth, (B) cell viability, (C) ALB secretion, (D) urea production, (E) AST leakage and (F) LDH leakage in each group. (group a) Serum-free medium, (group b) HepatoZYME, (group c) DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS, (group d) DMEM/F12. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD ($n = 5$ in B and 3 in the others). e: Significant difference between group A and group B at the same incubation time. f: Significant difference between group A and group C at the same incubation time. α : Significant difference between group A and group D at the same incubation time. $P < 0.05$. AST: Aspartate transaminase; LDH: Lactate dehydrogenase; FBS: Fetal bovine serum.

< 0.001). In the early stage of culture, the LDH content in the supernatant of group D was greater than that in group A and group C, and unexpectedly, LDH levels in group D was the lowest from day 4 to day 6 ($P < 0.001$).

Expression of genes related to hepatocyte functions: The differences in gene expression related to hepatocyte functions were estimated by using RT-qPCR, a highly sensitive and effective method to detect the expression of specific genes. Uridinediphosphate-glucuronosyl transferase (*UGT*) (Figure 3A): On day 2 and day 6, the relative expression in group A was lower than that in group C, but higher than that in group B and group D ($P < 0.001$). On day 4, the relative expression in group A was slightly lower than that in group B and

group C, but still higher than that of group D ($P < 0.001$). Glutathione S-transferase (*GST*) (Figure 3B): At each time point, the relative expression of group A was lower than that of group B and group C, but greater than that of group D ($P < 0.001$). Glutamate-ammonia ligase (*GLUL*) (Figure 3C): The relative expression in group C was higher than that in the other groups at all time points. The relative expression in group A was lower than that in group B at day 2 and 4, but significantly higher at day 6 ($P < 0.002$). Glucose-6-Phosphatase (*G6P*) (Figure 3D): At each time point, the expression in group A was lower than that in group B and group C, but higher than that in group D ($P < 0.001$). Albumin (Figure 3E): The relative expression in group A was lower than that in group C, but significantly higher than that in the other

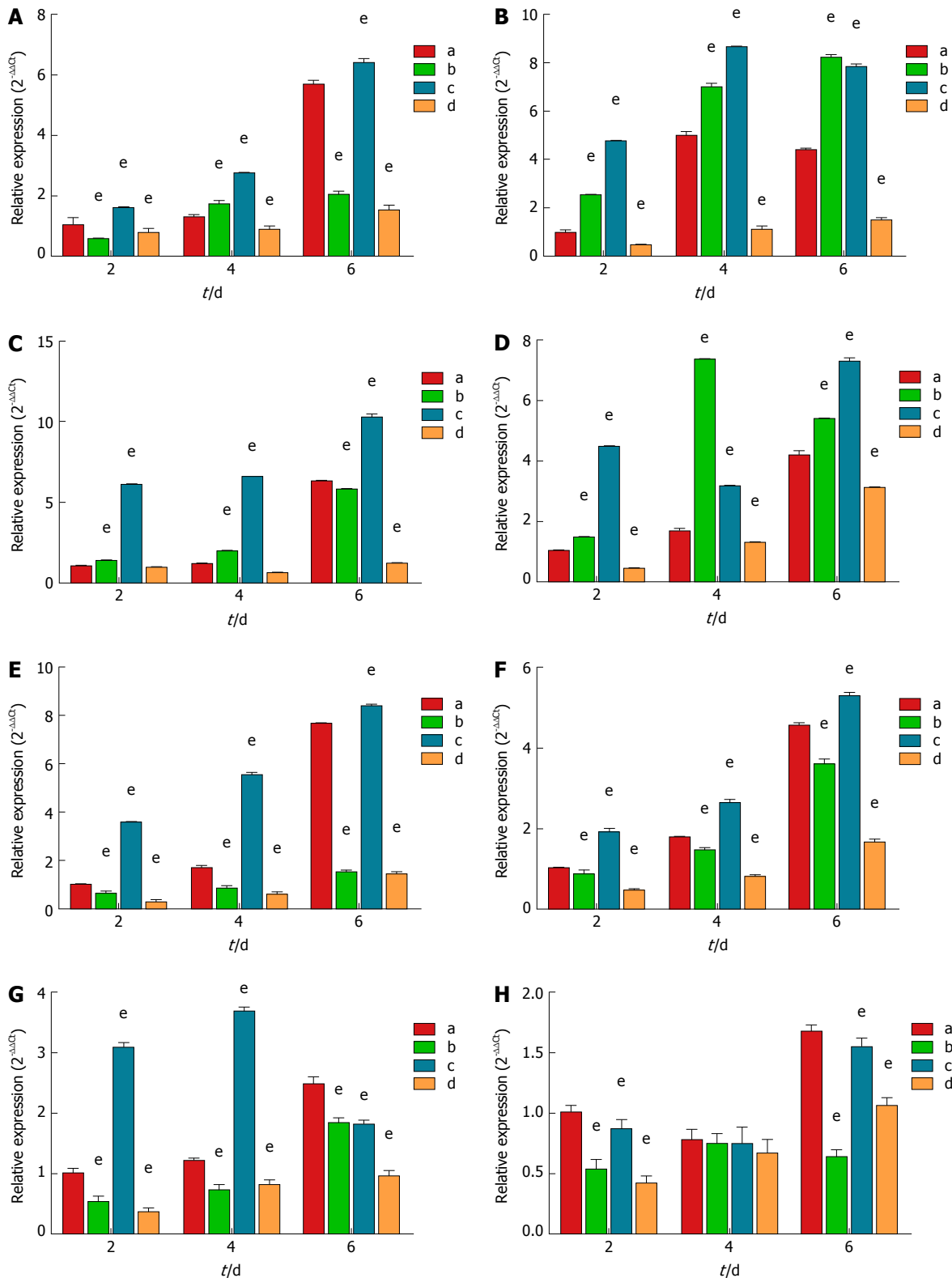


Figure 3 Relative expression of genes related to hepatocyte function. A: UGT; B: GST; C: GLUL; D: G6P; E: albumin; F: CPS1; G: CYP3A4; and H: CYP2D6 in each group. (group a) Serum-free medium, (group b) HepatoZYME, (group c) DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS, (group d) DMEM/F12. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD ($n = 3$). * $P < 0.05$, significant difference from group a at the same incubation time. UGT: Uridinediphosphate-glucuronosyl transferase; GLUL: Glutamate-ammonia ligase; CPS1: Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase I; G6P: Glucose-6-phosphatase; CYP3A4: Cytochrome P3A4; CYP2D6: Cytochrome P2D6; FBS: Fetal bovine serum.

groups ($P < 0.001$). Carbamoyl phosphate synthetase 1 (CPS1) (Figure 3F): The expression in group A was greater than that in group B and group D, although lower

than that in group C ($P < 0.001$). Cytochrome P 3A4 (CYP3A4) (Figure 3G): At each time point, the expression in group A was greater than that in group B and group D (P

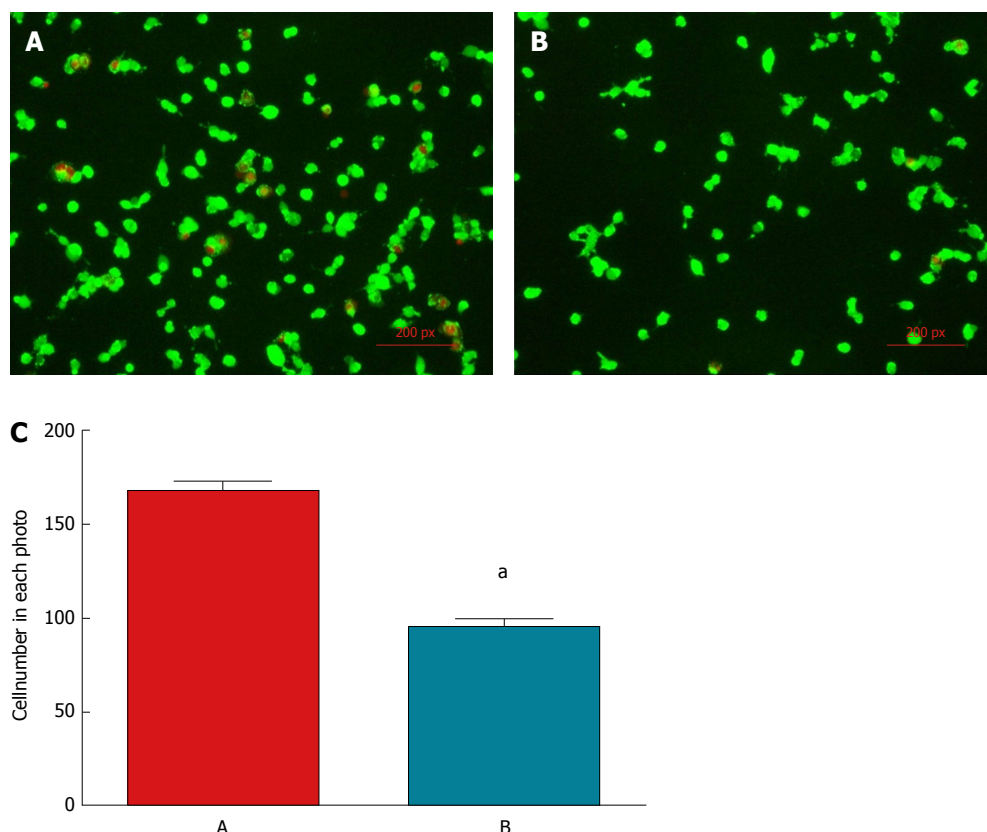


Figure 4 Fluorescence microscopy assessment of live (green-labeled) and dead (red-labeled) C3A cells 24 h post-seeding in each group. (A) serum-free medium containing 2 mg/mL sericin, (B) serum-free medium without sericin, (C) Comparison of cell number from photos in each group: (group A) Serum-free medium containing 2 mg/mL sericin, (group B) serum-free medium without sericin. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD ($n = 3$). ^a $P < 0.05$, significant difference between group A and group B at the same incubation time.

< 0.001). The expression in group A was lower than that in group C on days 2 and 4, but higher than that in the other groups on day 6 ($P < 0.001$). Cytochrome P 2D6 (CYP2D6) (Figure 3H): On day 2 and 6, the expression in group A was significantly higher than that in the other groups ($P < 0.001$); however, there were no significant differences on day 4.

Part 2

Live/dead fluorescence microscopy assay: The attachment capability of C3A cells was evaluated by the amount of live cells adhering to the plate (green-labeled) 24 h post-seeding. In the presence of sericin, a larger number of cells adhered to the surface ($P < 0.01$), and afterwards proceeded with proliferation as well as normal physiological functions (Figure 4).

Cell growth curves: Daily cell counting revealed that the cell growth curves of both groups rose gradually in the early stage of culture, then reached a plateau at day 5 (Figure 5A). At every time point, the cell growth in group A was superior to that in group B ($P < 0.001$).

Cell viability and proliferation assessment: The absorbance curves in both groups rose gradually within four days post-seeding (Figure 5B). On day 5, the viability of group A reached a peak value and then

declined slightly, while that of group B reached a plateau. Over the whole culture period, there were more metabolically active cells in group A than in group B ($P < 0.001$).

Cell cycle analysis: The cell cycle was divided as G0/G1, S, and G2/M phase, and S phase was the DNA synthesis period. Therefore, the percentage of cells in S phase of the whole cell population was used to evaluate cell proliferation. The cell cycle analysis indicated that the proportion of cells in S phase in group A was $16.21\% \pm 0.98\%$, while that in group B was $12.61\% \pm 0.90\%$ ($P = 0.009$) (Figure 6). These results indicated that the cells in group A possessed a stronger proliferative capability than those in group B.

Gene chip array: Since the previous experiments verified that the attachment and proliferative capabilities of C3A cells were significantly enhanced by 2 mg/mL sericin, we decided to proceed with exploring the impact of sericin on the C3A transcriptome. The differential gene expression profile between the two groups was analyzed by gene chip array, and the expression differences in up-regulated genes were presented as fold-change (group A/group B ratio). A cut-off of > 1.5 -fold increase was applied, and the results revealed that a total of 250 genes were significantly up-regulated by sericin.

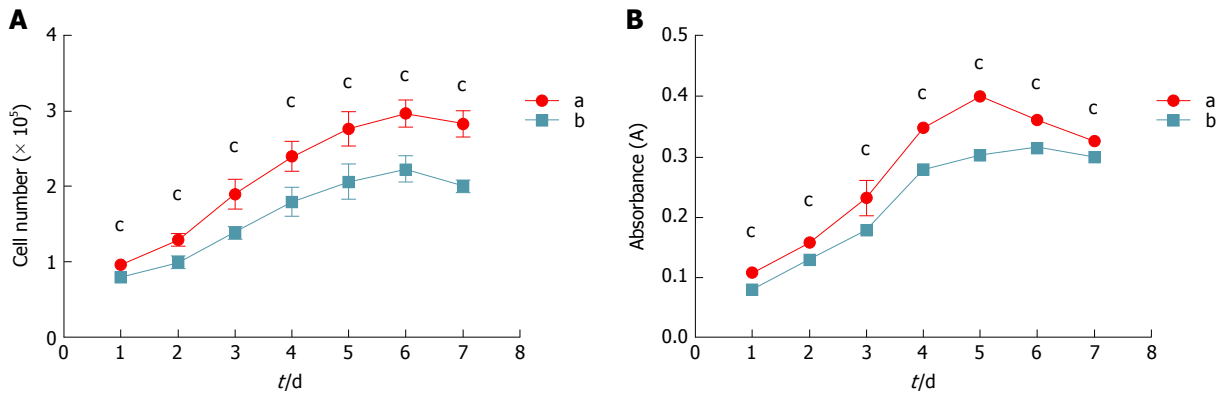


Figure 5 Comparison of (A) cell growth curve and (B) cell viability curve of each group. (group a) Serum-free medium containing 2 mg/mL sericin, (group b) serum-free medium without sericin. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD ($n = 3$ and 5 , respectively). $^*P < 0.05$, significant difference between group a and group b at the same incubation time.

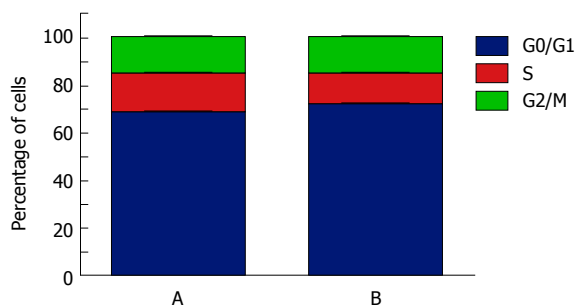


Figure 6 Cell cycle distribution of each group. (group A) Serum-free medium containing 2 mg/mL sericin and (group B) serum-free medium without sericin. Data are expressed as mean \pm SD ($n = 3$). The portion of cells in S phase in group A ($16.21\% \pm 0.98\%$) was significantly higher than that in group B ($12.61\% \pm 0.90\%$) ($P = 0.009$).

To characterize the signaling pathways modulated by sericin in C3A cells, a pathway enrichment analysis was conducted using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) according to the KEGG and BIOCARTA databases. The top significantly enriched pathways modulated by sericin were determined (Figure 7), among which KEGG-pathways in cancer and the MAPK signaling pathway were associated with cell proliferation. The genes related to cell proliferation were *COL4A6*, *MAX*, *EGFR*, *FOS*, *CDC42*, *FGF12*, and *SLC2A1* within the pathways in cancer, and *EGFR*, *FOS*, and *MAPK13* within the MAPK signaling pathway. The classic MAPK signaling pathway is included in the pathways in cancer, so the genes included in both pathways, *EGFR* and *FOS* (Table 3), were considered to be the genes affecting the proliferation of C3A cells with the most potential.

Subsequently, the other significantly up-regulated genes in group A in comparison with group B were screened by literature review to determine the genes related to proliferation. It has been demonstrated that *CCR6* and the MAPK pathway are associated with the migration and proliferation of breast epithelial cells. Thus, RT-qPCR was used to verify the gene expressions of *CCR6*, *EGFR*, and *c-FOS*, as well as the molecules in the MAPK pathway, including *Src*, *PI3K*, *AKT1*, *JNK1*, *NFkB1*, *MMP-9*, *GRB2*,

SHC2, *K-RAS*, *RAF1*, *MEK2*, *ERK1/2*, *c-myc* and *cyclinE1*.

mRNA expression of CCR6 and the MAPK pathway:

The early stage is the key period for attachment and proliferation, so RT-qPCR was performed on the samples at days 1, 2, 3, and 4 post-seeding. The expression difference at each time point was presented as fold-change [fold-change = $2^{-(\Delta\text{Ct group A} - \Delta\text{Ct group B})}$] in Table 4. *CCR6*: The expression of *CCR6* in group A was greater than that in group B from inoculation until day 3 ($P < 0.02$), and *CCR6* showed a 2.36-fold increase in group A compared to group B on day 3. *EGFR*: The expression in group A was greater at all time points ($P < 0.01$), and the increases of *EGFR* in group A were 7.71- and 2.34-fold compared to group B on days 2 and 4, respectively. *FOS*: On day 1 and day 3, the expression in group A was higher than that in group B ($P < 0.001$). *Src*: Beginning on day 2, the mRNA expression in group A was significantly higher than that in group B ($P < 0.001$), and the increases of *Src* in group A were 2.44- and 3.67-fold compared to group B on days 2 and 4, respectively. *PI3K*: The significant increases in expression in group A ranged from 3.00- to 3.10-fold compared to group B on days 1, 2 and 4 ($P < 0.001$). *AKT1*: At each time point, the expression in group A was greater than that in group B ($P < 0.01$), and the increase of *AKT1* in group A was 2.04-fold compared to group B on day 3. *JNK1*: In the early stage of culture, the expression of the two groups was similar, but the expression in group A significantly increased 2.69- and 2.09-fold compared to group B on days 3 and 4 ($P < 0.001$). *NFkB1*: The expression in group A was greater than that in group B on days 2 and 3 ($P < 0.001$). *MMP-9*: The expression was greater in group A at all time points except on day 2 ($P < 0.006$). *GRB2*: On days 2 and day 3 the expression was significantly greater in the presence of sericin ($P < 0.001$). *SHC2*: Beginning on day 3, the expression was greater in group A ($P < 0.001$). *K-RAS*: The expression in group A was higher than that in group B at each time point except on day 1 ($P < 0.01$). *RAF1*: Beginning on day 2, the expression in group A was greater than that

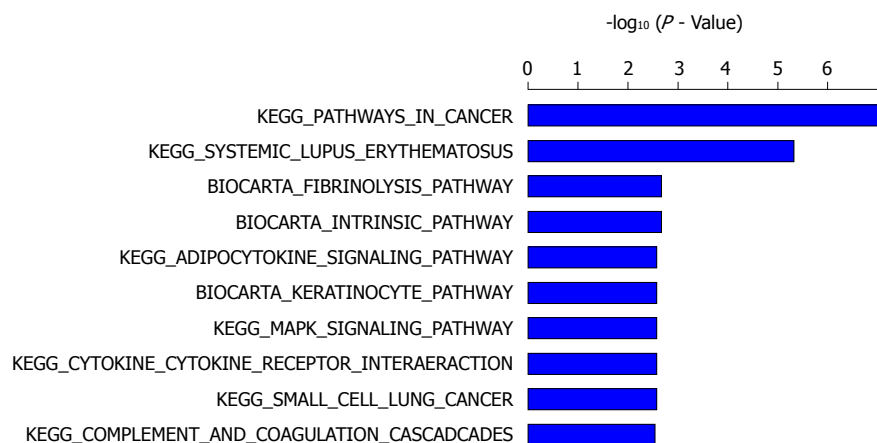
Table 3 Up-regulated genes associated with cell proliferation

Up-regulated genes	Pathways involved	Fold change
<i>CCR6</i>	Cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction	1.99
<i>EGFR</i>	Pathways in cancer, MAPK signaling pathway	1.55
<i>FOS</i>	Pathways in cancer, MAPK signaling pathway	1.59

Table 4 Comparison of *CCR6* expression and genes in the MAPK pathway

Genes	FC in gene chip	FC1	FC2	FC3	FC4
<i>CCR6</i>	1.99	1.36 ± 0.09 ¹	1.40 ± 0.01	2.36 ± 0.04 ¹	0.75 ± 0.01
<i>EGFR</i>	1.55	1.76 ± 0.04 ¹	7.71 ± 0.49 ¹	1.46 ± 0.13 ¹	2.34 ± 0.24 ¹
<i>FOS</i>	1.59	1.22 ± 0.09 ¹	0.96 ± 0.07	1.77 ± 0.05 ¹	0.96 ± 0.01
<i>Src</i>	1.15	0.84 ± 0.16 ¹	2.44 ± 0.08 ¹	1.93 ± 0.70 ¹	3.67 ± 0.40 ¹
<i>PI3K</i>	1.24	3.00 ± 0.27 ¹	3.01 ± 0.39 ¹	1.43 ± 0.15	3.10 ± 0.14 ¹
<i>AKT1</i>	1.13	1.22 ± 0.04 ¹	1.21 ± 0.05 ¹	2.04 ± 0.10 ¹	1.59 ± 0.06 ¹
<i>JNK1</i>	1.09	0.98 ± 0.07	1.07 ± 0.11	2.69 ± 0.09 ¹	2.09 ± 0.04 ¹
<i>NFκB1</i>	1.03	0.97 ± 0.07	1.51 ± 0.02 ¹	1.77 ± 0.04 ¹	0.84 ± 0.02
<i>MMP-9</i>	1.22	1.38 ± 0.15 ¹	1.10 ± 0.06	1.51 ± 0.04 ¹	1.56 ± 0.04 ¹
<i>GRB2</i>	1.05	1.04 ± 0.10	1.48 ± 0.03 ¹	1.34 ± 0.01 ¹	1.06 ± 0.05
<i>SHC2</i>	1.30	0.98 ± 0.03	1.13 ± 0.06	1.39 ± 0.21 ¹	1.47 ± 0.17 ¹
<i>K-RAS</i>	1.09	1.16 ± 0.05	1.21 ± 0.08 ¹	1.42 ± 0.04 ¹	1.53 ± 0.01 ¹
<i>RAF1</i>	1.01	1.09 ± 0.10	1.24 ± 0.02 ¹	1.48 ± 0.02 ¹	1.22 ± 0.03 ¹
<i>MEK2</i>	1.02	5.86 ± 1.22 ¹	4.61 ± 1.11 ¹	2.38 ± 1.05 ¹	8.45 ± 1.00 ¹
<i>ERK1</i>	1.07	1.80 ± 0.62 ¹	1.29 ± 0.03 ¹	1.02 ± 0.26	1.19 ± 0.02
<i>ERK2</i>	1.18	2.58 ± 0.21 ¹	2.52 ± 0.62 ¹	5.15 ± 0.26 ¹	1.63 ± 0.06 ¹
<i>c-myc</i>	1.17	2.32 ± 0.21 ¹	1.67 ± 0.27 ¹	1.41 ± 0.30 ¹	0.06 ± 0.01 ¹
<i>cyclinE1</i>	1.04	1.04 ± 0.13	1.52 ± 0.03 ¹	2.21 ± 0.02 ¹	1.48 ± 0.01 ¹

¹Significant difference between group A and group B at the same incubation time ($P < 0.05$). FC1, FC2, FC3, FC4 was the fold change (group A/group B) of gene expression measured by RT-qPCR on days 1, 2, 3, 4, respectively. Data are expressed as mean ± SD ($n = 3$).

**Figure 7** Pathway enrichment in the gene chip array.

in group B ($P < 0.001$). *MEK2*: The significant increase in expression in group A ranged from 2.38- to 8.45-fold compared to group B ($P < 0.001$). *ERK1*: The expression of *ERK1* in group A was greater than that in group B on the first two days ($P < 0.001$). *ERK2*: The expression was greater in group A at every time point ($P < 0.001$), and the fold change ranged from 1.63 to 5.15. *c-myc*: In the first three days, the mRNA expression of *c-myc* was higher in the presence of sericin ($P < 0.001$), and the fold change on day 1 was 2.32. *cyclinE1*: The expression in group A was greater except on day 1 ($P < 0.001$), and the fold change on day 3 was 2.21.

DISCUSSION

Serum is a necessary supplement for the *in vitro* culture of mammalian cells, because of its capability to simulate a suitable microenvironment similar to that of *in vivo* culture. However, serum is always removed from the culture for certain purposes, such as avoiding the impacts of serum on the experiment results and immunological rejection in heterogeneous animal *in vivo* experiments. To maintain normal attachment, proliferation, synthesis, and other cellular physiological processes, serum-free medium needs to contain a number of essential factors

including basic nutrients, attachment promoters, growth factors, trace elements, and hormones^[24,25].

In previous experiments, we selected several biomaterials including sericin, HGF, EGF, and dexamethasone as supplements in serum-free medium, followed by exploring their optimal concentrations in the serum-free medium. Finally, the most suitable serum-free medium was successfully prepared for subsequent controlled trials, and included HepatoZYME, DMEM/F12 and DMEM/F12 supplemented with 100 mL/L FBS (complete medium).

Sericin, the “glue” on the surface of the silk fibers, has been proven to be one of the perfect substitutes for serum^[26]. Sericin has the ability to promote the attachment and proliferation of mammalian cells^[27]. Our experiment exploring the best concentration of sericin in serum-free culture medium indicated that C3A cells proliferated at the highest rate in the medium containing 2 mg/mL sericin. In contrast, the C3A cells in the medium containing 5 mg/mL sericin exhibited growth arrest. This result corresponded to that reported by Terada *et al.*^[16], which demonstrated that an overload of sericin was harmful to the cells.

In this study, cell attachment, cell viability and proliferation, hepatocyte function, biocompatibility of the medium with the cells, and the expression of genes related to hepatocyte functions were examined in the different media. For hepatocytes, attachment to a carrier is necessary for biological processes. During the first 24 h after inoculation, a larger number of C3A cells adhered to the surface of the plate in our serum-free medium compared with HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12. In addition, the adherence approached that observed for a complete medium. The excellent adherence of C3A cells in our serum-free medium can be mostly attributed to the attachment-promoting capability of sericin, which has been shown in a number of other studies. Akturk *et al.*^[28] demonstrated that a sericin/collagen membrane had the ability to enhance the initial attachment of keratinocytes 24 h post-seeding, and adhesion proteins such as collagen, laminin, and fibronectin were also present in their sericin/collagen membrane, which even contained the arginine-glycine-aspartic (RGD) acid sequence recognized by the cell surface receptors integrins.

During the culture period, the daily cell number in our serum-free medium was similar to that in the complete medium in the early period, and greater than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 during the whole culture period. Furthermore, this result was consistent with the cell viability and proliferation assessment. As previously mentioned, sericin promotes cell proliferation, making our serum-free medium superior to other media with respect to cell growth. Although HGF and EGF are also mitogens for hepatocytes, the results of the experiments in part 2 indicated that sericin was the dominant growth promoter in our serum-free medium. However, in the later stage of culture, the viability of hepatocytes in the serum-free medium declined slightly, indicating that the promotion of proliferation by the serum-free medium on

hepatocytes was a short-term (within the first four-five days of culture) effect.

Biocompatibility with the cells, tissues, and organs is an important evaluation standard for biomaterials. Sericin has been proven to be a biocompatible material for a variety of cells, as it does not cause cell cycle arrest and it releases few inflammatory mediators^[19,29]. AST and LDH concentrations in the supernatant are commonly employed as indicators of acute hepatocyte damage because of their leakage from hepatocytes after injury. In this study, the AST concentration in our serum-free medium and the complete medium were similar during almost the whole culture period, and significantly lower than that in HepatoZYME at each time point. Similarly, LDH leakage in the serum-free medium was less than that in HepatoZYME. These results indicated that there was excellent biocompatibility of our serum-free medium with hepatocytes. However, low AST leakage should be attributed to not only the excellent biocompatibility of sericin but also the protection of HGF. Glanemann *et al.*^[30] demonstrated that pretreatment with HGF significantly reduced AST leakage in rat hepatocytes and reactive oxygen intermediate formation by increasing glutathione synthesis during inflammation.

As the core of the BALSS, the hepatocyte functions attract the most attention. In this study, biochemical assays and RT-qPCR were employed to evaluate hepatocyte functions. The albumin synthesis in the serum-free medium was similar to that in the complete medium in the middle of the culture period, and greater than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 at every time point. This result was consistent with the mRNA expression of albumin assessed by RT-qPCR. However, during long-term culture, the albumin synthesized by C3A cells was on a downward trend. In other words, the hepatocytes used in BALSS should be replaced every four-five days in order to ensure persistent albumin synthesis. The exiguous ALB synthesis was associated with HGF in our serum-free medium, as shown by Hou *et al.*^[31]. Hou *et al.*^[31] manufactured a HGF/heparin-immobilized collagen system as a synthetic extracellular matrix for hepatocyte culture, in which albumin synthesis was greater than that in heparin-immobilized collagen, revealing that HGF promotes albumin synthesis in hepatocytes.

Though lower than that in complete medium, urea production in our serum-free medium was significantly greater than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12, as indicated by both the quantitative detection of urea and the mRNA expression of *CPS1*.

UGT is the primary phase II enzyme catalyzing the conjugation of glucuronic acid to the xenobiotics, with polar groups facilitating their clearance^[32]. The *UGT* expression in our serum-free medium was greater than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12, and approached that in complete medium. CYP450 are phase I enzymes responsible for the metabolism of at least 90% of drugs^[33], among which CYP3A4 and CYP2D6 are the most important. Our study showed excellent CYP450 expression in the serum-free medium, close to

and even sometimes superior to that in the complete medium. Dexamethasone is considered an inducer of CYP3A4^[34]. In sheep small intestine, dexamethasone caused a significant enhancement of CYP3A apoprotein level in the duodenal mucosa^[35]. Thus, we suggest that dexamethasone played an important role in the excellent CYP450 expression in the serum-free medium. Although it was shown that dexamethasone could effectively up-regulate G6Pase expression^[12], the result in our study was the opposite, probably because of the different concentration of dexamethasone used in the studies.

Compared with HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12, our serum-free medium exhibited advantages in C3A cell attachment, proliferation, functions, and biocompatibility, making it a perfect medium for serum-free hepatocyte culture.

Since the C3A cells exhibited excellent proliferation in our serum-free medium, the key factor, sericin, became the focus of the study. In part 2, we designed a controlled trial with two groups: the serum-free medium with or without sericin. Twenty-four hours after inoculation, more C3A cells were attached to the surface of the plate in the presence of 2 mg/mL sericin, followed by better proliferation and viability during the whole culture period, which corroborated the conclusions of other studies^[19,20,36]. Based on its positive effects on cell proliferation, sericin has been added to antimicrobial creams and wound dressings to ameliorate wound healing^[28,37].

Considering that sericin promotes cell proliferation, the experiments in part 2 were designed to explore the underlying mechanisms. As a key cyclin for liver regeneration^[38], cyclinE1 is an important regulator of G1/S progression in hepatocytes. Up-regulated cyclinE1 could prompt cells to proceed from G1 phase to S phase, when DNA is synthesized in a large amount for the subsequent mitosis^[9]. Our study clarified that the percentage of S phase cells was elevated in the presence of sericin, while that of cells in G0/G1 phase was reduced accordingly. In addition, the expression of *cyclinE1* was significantly higher in the presence of sericin, indicating that the promotion of sericin for cell proliferation might result from active G1/S progression mediated by cyclinE1.

To explore the mechanism by which sericin promotes cell proliferation, we performed gene chip array analysis to distinguish the differences in the transcriptome between the two groups. Among the most significantly up-regulated genes, *CCR6*, *EGFR*, and *FOS* were implicated in cell proliferation.

Chemokine receptor 6 (CCR6) is the unique receptor of chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 20 (CCL20), which has been proven to promote the proliferation of malignant cells^[39]. The up-regulation of *CCR6* promotes spontaneous intestinal tumorigenesis^[40]. Brand *et al.*^[41] demonstrated that *CCR6* mediated the activation of *Akt*, *ERK-1/2*, and *SAPK/JNK* MAP kinases, resulting in increased intestinal epithelial cell migration and proliferation. In breast epithelial cells, CCL20/CCR6 binding promotes cell migration and proliferation by activating the

MAPK pathway^[42]. Fujii *et al.*^[43] also reported that CCL20 enhanced the growth of HuH7 cells *via* phosphorylation of p44/42 MAPK *in vitro*. As signaling molecules in the MAPK pathway, up-regulated *EGFR* and *c-FOS* have been demonstrated to be promoters of proliferation. EGFR is the receptor for EGF, the phosphorylation and activation of which induces proliferation of several cells^[44,45]. Mitogenic effects of many substances are mediated by *c-FOS*^[46], and its overexpression could increase the proliferation of human hepatocytes by stabilizing nuclear Cyclin D1^[47], while its blockage inhibits the proliferation and invasion of cancer cells^[48].

Based on the gene chip array results and conclusion of the other studies, we assessed *CCR6* and molecules in the MAPK pathway by RT-qPCR to identify differential expression between the two groups. As a transmembrane receptor, the expression of *CCR6* was up-regulated in the early post-seeding period, resulting in increased expression of molecules in the MAPK pathway at different time points. At the transcription level, it was speculated that sericin promoted attachment and proliferation by two pathways: *CCR6* on the C3A cell membrane was activated in the presence of sericin; subsequently the signal was transduced through the activation of *Src*, *PI3K*, *AKT1*, *JNK1* and *NFkB1*, and finally *MMP-9* was up-regulated. *MMP-9* is associated with cell migration because of its capability to remodel the extracellular matrix^[49]. *MMP-9* up-regulation through a *Src*-dependent pathway is consistent with previous studies showing that oleic acid and denatured type-IV collagen induced *MMP-9* secretion and invasion in breast cancer cells^[50,51]. The enhanced attachment of C3A cells by sericin was supposed to result from the increased migration. On the other hand, the CCL20/CCR6 binding transactivated the EGFR on the membrane, leading to a chain up-regulation of *GRB2*, *SHC2*, *K-RAS*, *RAF1*, *MEK2* and *ERK1/2*. Furthermore, ERK1/2 translocates into the nucleus and enhances transcription of early-response genes including *c-myc* and *c-FOS*^[52]. Subsequently, the up-regulation of *c-myc* and *c-FOS* increased the expression of *cyclinE1*, promoting the G1/S progression and proliferation of C3A cells. However, this inference has not been proven by protein expression, so more effort should be made to clarify the mitogenic mechanism of sericin.

There are some limitations in this study. Although it is proven that our serum-free medium is suitable for *in vitro* culture of C3A cells, and sericin promotes the attachment and proliferation of C3A cells, it is still not clear whether the results obtained are restricted to C3A cells. In the further study, we are going to verify whether this serum-free medium is suitable for other hepatocytes, and determine the effect of sericin on other hepatocytes, such as HepG2, HuH7 and primary porcine hepatocytes. Hyperammonemia and hyperbilirubinemia are the clinical features of patients with liver failure. However, the urea production under an overload of NH₄⁺ and the ability to convert non-conjugated bilirubin into conjugated bilirubin of hepatocytes were not assessed in this study. These functions of hepatocytes will be assessed in the further

study.

In summary, a novel serum-free medium for hepatocytes was developed in this study, and it exhibits excellent biocompatibility, and an enhanced capability of promoting cell attachment and proliferation, and provides a suitable microenvironment for hepatocyte functioning. It raises the possibility of large-scale serum-free culture of hepatocytes in the BALSS. In addition, the mechanism by which sericin promotes cell proliferation was explored, and it is speculated that sericin enhances cell attachment through the CCR6-Akt-JNK-NF- κ B pathway, and promotes cell proliferation through CCR6-mediated activation of the ERK1/2-MAPK pathway.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

A serum-free medium suitable for hepatocyte culture in the bioartificial liver support system (BALSS) has been needed within recent decades, but few studies have focused on the development of hepatocyte serum-free medium. Sericin was proven to promote cell attachment and proliferation, but the mechanism is not clarified.

Research motivation

Poor adherence and proliferation were often observed in the serum-free culture. Sericin has the ability to promote the attachment and proliferation of several mammalian cells, so it was selected as a key supplement in our serum-free medium. The mechanism how sericin promotes the attachment and proliferation of hepatocytes was not clarified. So, the effect of sericin on the hepatocyte transcriptome was explored in this study.

Research objectives

To develop a novel serum-free hepatocyte medium and to clarify the effect of sericin on the hepatocyte transcriptome.

Research methods

Part 1 is a controlled trial comparing the novel serum-free medium and other media: C3A cells were cultured in our novel serum-free medium, HepatoZYME, complete medium (DMEM/F12 with 100 mL/L FBS), and DMEM/F12, then cell attachment, proliferation, and function as well as the biocompatibility of the media were assessed. Part 2 is a comparative study of serum-free media with or without 2 mg/mL sericin: The effect of sericin on C3A growth was assessed by cell viability and proliferation, the effect of sericin on C3A cell cycle distribution was determined by flow cytometry, and the effect of sericin on the C3A transcriptome was assessed by gene-chip array and RT-qPCR.

Research results

More C3A cells attached to the plate containing our serum-free medium than to those containing HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 at 24 h post-seeding. Both the viability and proliferation rate of C3A cells in sericin-based serum-free medium were superior to those of cells in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12. The content of albumin and urea in our serum-free medium was significantly higher than that in HepatoZYME and DMEM/F12 throughout the whole culture period, and was similar to that in complete medium at day 3, 4, and 5. In part 2, cell viability and proliferation were greater in the presence of 2 mg/mL sericin, as was the proportion of cells in S phase. Gene-chip array analysis indicated that the expression of *CCR6*, *EGFR*, and *FOS* were up-regulated by 2 mg/mL sericin, and RT-qPCR revealed that the expression of *CCR6*, *EGFR*, *FOS*, *AKT1*, *JNK1*, *NF κ B1*, *MMP-9*, *MEK2*, *ERK1/2* and *C-MYC* was up-regulated by 2 mg/mL sericin.

Research conclusions

We developed a novel serum-free hepatocyte medium in this research and demonstrated that sericin probably enhances cell attachment through the

CCR6-Akt-JNK-NF- κ B pathway and promotes cell proliferation through CCR6-mediated activation of the ERK1/2-MAPK pathway.

Research perspectives

In future studies, we will use the novel serum-free hepatocyte medium in large scale hepatocyte culture in the BALSS and assess the biocompatibility, immunogenicity and allergenicity in animal and clinical experiments. To clarify the mechanism of promotion of sericin on cell attachment and proliferation, we are going to study the protein level expression of CCR6-Akt-JNK-NF- κ B pathway and ERK1/2-MAPK pathway components.

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Basic Study

Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* suppresses epithelial-mesenchymal transition *via* interfering transforming growth factor- β 1 signaling in Crohn's disease intestinal fibrosis

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Abstract**AIM**

To explore the role and mechanism of total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* (TFA) on epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) progress of Crohn's disease (CD) intestinal fibrosis.

METHODS

First, CCK-8 assay was performed to assess TFA on the viability of intestinal epithelial (IEC-6) cells and select the optimal concentrations of TFA for our further studies. Then cell morphology, wound healing and transwell assays were performed to examine the effect of TFA on morphology, migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells treated with TGF- β 1. In addition, immunofluorescence, real-time PCR analysis (qRT-PCR) and western blotting assays were carried out to detect the impact of TFA on EMT progress. Moreover, western blotting assay was performed to evaluate the function of TFA on the Smad and MAPK signaling pathways. Further, the role of co-treatment of TFA and si-Smad or MAPK inhibitors has been examined by qRT-PCR, western blotting, morphology, wound healing and

transwell assays.

RESULTS

In this study, TFA promoted transforming growth factor- β 1 (TGF- β 1)-induced (IEC-6) morphological change, migration and invasion, and increased the expression of epithelial markers and reduced the levels of mesenchymal markers, along with the inactivation of Smad and MAPK signaling pathways. Moreover, we revealed that si-Smad and MAPK inhibitors effectively attenuated TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells. Importantly, co-treatment of TFA and si-Smad or MAPK inhibitors had better inhibitory effects on TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells than either one of them.

CONCLUSION

These findings could provide new insight into the molecular mechanisms of TFA on TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells and TFA is expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis.

Key words: Crohn's disease; Intestinal fibrosis; Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition; Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; Transforming growth factor- β 1/Smad signaling; Transforming growth factor- β 1/non-Smad signaling

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Core tip: Regulating transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) and its downstream signaling pathways, mediating the epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) process and restoring the biological function of abnormally activated intestinal fibroblasts, may be an important way to seek drug therapy for Crohn's disease (CD) intestinal fibrosis. Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* (TFA) can inhibit TGF- β 1-induced morphological change, migration, invasion of rat intestinal epithelial cells, and promote induction of EMT partially by inhibiting TGF- β 1-activated Smad and non-Smad signaling pathways. Therefore, TFA is expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis, and its continued advancement may open the door to a new class of treatment for CD intestinal fibrosis.

Yang BL, Zhu P, Li YR, Xu MM, Wang H, Qiao LC, Xu HX, Chen HJ. Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* suppresses epithelial-mesenchymal transition *via* interfering transforming growth factor- β 1 signaling in Crohn's disease intestinal fibrosis. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3414-3425 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3414.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i30.3414>

INTRODUCTION

Crohn's disease (CD) is a chronic relapsing inflammation of the gut, which causes significant impairment of quality of life with a rising incidence and prevalence during recent decades^[1,2]. Although the clinical manifestations and

pathologic progress of CD are different, fibrosis of intestinal organization and strictures induced by transmural inflammation will eventually cause intestinal obstruction, which is the characteristic clinical manifestation^[3-5]. In addition, more than 1/3 of CD patients need at least one intestinal operation in their lives, while 70% of the CD patients with fibrosis strictures need partial resection of the intestinal tract within 10 years of disease progression, and 70%-90% patients will have a recurrence of anastomotic strictures and over 50% patients will form new strictures^[6,7]. Moreover, a large number of clinical and experimental results have confirmed that the main drugs for treatment of CD, such as glucocorticoids, immune agents and biological agents, can effectively inhibit intestinal inflammation, but do not have positive activity in preventing the further progress of intestinal fibrosis^[8,9]. Thus, there is still a lack of drugs that can effectively inhibit or reverse CD intestinal fibrosis.

The process of intestinal fibrosis in CD patients involves a variety of cells and multiple molecular signaling pathways^[10,11]. Due to the continuous role of chronic intestinal inflammation, activated T and B cells will produce large amounts of pro-inflammatory cytokines and pro-fibrogenic factors, and induce fibroblast, epithelial cells, endothelial cells and stellate cells to migrate, proliferate, activate and differentiate into myofibroblasts, which finally results in excessive proliferation of myofibroblasts and excessive deposition of extracellular matrix (ECM), leading to the formation of intestinal fibrosis^[12-14]. Studies have shown that even if inflammation of the intestinal tract is effectively controlled, the process of fibrosis will continue and eventually lead to intestinal stenosis^[15]. Epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) plays an important role in the activation of fibroblasts^[16]. Epithelial cells will lose epithelial polarity and epithelial phenotype contacted with basement membrane and produce fibroblasts to repair tissue injury caused by trauma and inflammatory reactions through the EMT progress^[17]. In physiological states, when the inflammatory reaction is relieved, the transformation process stops spontaneously. However, in the case of continuous activation of the inflammatory reaction, the EMT process will also continue to exist, and eventually cause organ fibrosis. Under pathophysiologic conditions, when the inflammatory reaction is relieved, the transformation process will stop spontaneously. However, in the case of continuous activation of inflammatory response, the EMT process will also exist continuously, and eventually cause organ fibrosis^[18,19]. Nowadays, although the role and regulation mechanism of EMT in CD intestinal fibrosis has not been fully understood, the transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β)/Smad/MAPK signaling pathway has been confirmed to play an important role in regulating EMT in organs such as lung, liver, kidney and so on^[20-22]. Therefore, studying the role of EMT in the formation of intestinal fibrosis based on the TGF- β /Smad/MAPK signaling pathway, may provide a new target for the treatment of CD intestinal fibrosis.

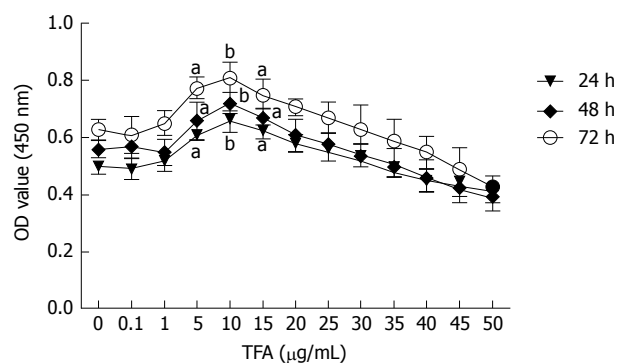


Figure 1 Effect of total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* at different concentrations on IEC-6 cell viability. IEC-6 cell viability after treatment with TFA at increasing concentrations was examined by CCK-8 at 24, 48 and 72 h. The results were expressed as the mean \pm SD of three independent experiments, and each was performed in triplicate. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$ compared with that of non-TFA treated group. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*.

Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* L. Medic (TFA), as the main components of the water extract of traditional Chinese medicine *Abelmoschus manihot* (L.), has been reported to play an important role in the improvement of renal inflammation, nephrotic syndrome, purpura nephritis, IgA nephropathy, membranous nephropathy and diabetic nephropathy (DN) effectively in the clinical trial^[23-26]. Further, our previous research has shown that TFA could significantly inhibit the release of the intestinal inflammatory cytokines tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α and interferon (IFN)- γ in a CD rat model induced by 2,4,6-trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS), improve the model animal survival rate, and effectively improve intestinal inflammation. Moreover, immunohistochemical staining showed that the expression of TGF- β , alpha-smooth muscle actin (α -SMA) and matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2) were obviously reduced after intervention of TFA. Further, Masson staining confirmed that collagen fibrils of the mucosa and lamina propria of the colon were markedly decreased, indicating that TFA had positive inhibitory effects on CD intestinal fibrosis, which may be related to the EMT mechanism mediated by TGF- β . Thus, we hypothesized that TFA could inhibit or reverse the CD intestinal fibrosis *via* regulation of EMT based on TGF- β and its downstream Smad and MAPK signaling pathways. Therefore, this study was designed to focus on the influence of EMT on CD intestinal fibrosis and to further explore the role and mechanism of TFA on the progress of CD intestinal fibrosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of TFA

Abelmoschus Manihot L. Medic was collected from Jiangyan of Jiangsu province, China. TFA was extracted from the flowers of *Abelmoschus Manihot* by the Jiangsu Province Hospital of TCM, Nanjing, China. A total of 500 g of *Abelmoschus Manihot* flowers was immersed in 8000 mL 75% ethanol for 1 h. The mixture was refluxed

for 1 h at 90 °C and filtered by analytical filter paper. The extracts were evaporated by rotary evaporation under vacuum at 60 °C^[27]. For cell experiments, TFA was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide.

Cell culture

Rat intestinal epithelial (IEC-6) cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, United States). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco, United States) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Invitrogen, CA, United States), 2 mmol/L GlutaMAX-I (Invitrogen, CA, United States), 100 U/mL penicillin, and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Invitrogen) in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at 37 °C.

TFA working concentration

The concentration of TFA for further study was evaluated based on cell viability. Cell viability was determined by Cell Counting Kit-8 assay (CCK-8, Sigma Chemical Co, St Louis, MO, United States). Briefly, IEC-6 cells with a density of 1×10^4 cells/well in 100 µL of complete culture medium were seeded in 96-well plates. After culturing for 24 h, the medium was replaced with serum-free media or serum-free media containing TFA at concentrations ranging from 0.1 µg/mL to 50 µg/mL, and incubated in a humidified incubator at 37 °C for 24, 48 or 72 h. After incubation, 10 µL CCK-8 was added to each well for 2 h at 37 °C. The optical density (OD) was recorded at 450 nm using a microplate reader (Dojindo Molecular Technology, Rockville, MD, United States).

Based on the results in Figure 1A, 5, 10, and 15 µg/mL TFA represented the optimal working concentrations and were used in our subsequent experiments.

Gene silencing with siRNAs

Cells were transfected with non-targeting negative control siRNA (Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO, United States) or Smad2/3 (Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO, United States) using LipoRNAiMax according to the manufacturer's protocol. The cells were maintained for 72 h and then subjected to protein extraction. The antisense and sense oligo template sequences for these siRNAs were: Smad2 siRNA antisense: AAGAGGAGTGCCTTATATTACCTGTCTC, sense: AATAATATAAGCGCACTCCTCCCTGTCTC; Smad3 siRNA antisense: AATATCCAGAAACCCACCCCTGTCTC, sense: AAGGGTGGGGTT TCTGGAATACCTGTCTC.

Wound healing assay

IEC-6 cells were seeded into 6-well plates at a density of 6×10^5 cells per well, and were cultured in fresh culture media to full confluence. After that, we created a wound using a plastic scraper. After being washed with PBS, the medium was replaced with 10 ng/mL TGF- β ^[14] and TFA, and incubated at 37 °C for 48 h. The cell migration images were photographed at 0 and 48 h following scraping. Three to four different fields were visualized and photographed under a microscope (Nikon, Tokyo,

Japan).

Trans-well invasion assay

The cell invasion assay was performed using Trans-well chambers (8 μ m pore-size, Corning, United States). Matrigel was purchased from BD Biosciences and stored at -20 °C. After thawing at 4 °C overnight, the matrigel was diluted in serum-free medium, and 30 μ L of the diluted matrigel were evenly inoculated into the upper chamber to form a gel at 37 °C. Cells (1×10^5) suspended in 300 μ L of serum-free medium were seeded into the upper compartments and treated with 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 and TFA for 48 h, and the lower compartments were filled with 600 μ L of medium with 20% FBS. After incubation, the non-invasive cells were removed from the upper surface of the membrane by scrubbing. The cells that invaded to the lower surface of the membrane were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and stained in 10% crystal violet. Cells were counted under a microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Real-time PCR analysis (qRT-PCR)

IEC-6 cells were incubated in a 6-well plate with a density of 6×10^5 cell per well. When cells reached 60% confluence, 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 and TFA (0, 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL) were added to the plates and incubated for 48 h. Total RNA was extracted from the cultured cells using Trizol reagent (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions and reversed transcribed into cDNA using the TaqMan microRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, United States). The qRT-PCR reactions were performed using the Fast Start Universal SYBR Green Master (Rox) (Roche Applied Science) on a 7500 Real-time system (Applied Biosystems, United States) according to the manufacturer's protocols. Primer sequences used were designed as follows: E-cadherin forward, 5'-GAGGTCTACATTCCTGGTG-3', E-cadherin reverse, 5'-TCTGTAGACATTTGAATCGG-3', ZO-1 forward, 5'-CCATCTTGGACCGATTGCTG-3', ZO-1 reverse, TAATGCCCCGAGCTCCGATG-3', Vimentin forward, 5'-CCGACACTCCT ACAAGATTTAGA-3', Vimentin reverse, 5'-CAAAGATTTATTGAAGCAGAACC-3', N-cadherin forward, 5'-ATCCTACTGGACGGTTTCG-3', N-cadherin reverse, 5'-TTGGCTAATGGCACTTGA-3', GAPDH forward, 5'-GGACCTGACCTGCCGTCTAG-3', GAPDH reverse, 5'-GTAGCCCAGGATG CCCTTGA-3'. GAPDH was used as an internal standard.

Western blotting assay

IEC-6 cells were plated into 6-well plates at a density of 3×10^5 cells/mL. When cells reached 60% confluence, 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 and TFA (0, 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL) were added to the plates and incubated for 48 h. Each concentration group was performed in triplicate. Protein lysates were prepared using RIPA lysis buffer. Lysates were then subjected to SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to PVDF membranes. After blocking with non-fat milk, blots

were incubated overnight at 4 °C with the indicated antibodies. After incubation for 24 h, membranes were washed and incubated for 2 h at room temperature with corresponding secondary antibodies. For protein detection, membranes were developed with SuperSignal west femto maximum sensitivity substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL, United States) and the Gel-Pro Analyzer 6.0 software was applied for image analysis. E-cadherin (1:500), ZO-1 (1:500), Vimentin (1:500), N-cadherin (1:500), p-ERK (1:500), ERK (1:500), p-p38 (1:500), p38 (1:500), p-JNK (1:500), JNK (1:500) and GAPDH (1:1000) antibodies were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, and anti-mouse secondary antibodies were obtained from Proteintech (Chicago, IL, United States).

Immunofluorescence assay

IEC-6 cells were plated into 6-well plates at a density of 3×10^5 cells/mL. When cells reached 60% confluence, 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 and TFA (0, 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL) were added to the plates and incubated for 48 h. After that, IEC-6 cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde. After blocking cells with 3% BSA for 2 h at room temperature, the cells were incubated with the anti-E-cadherin (1:50) antibody or anti-Vimentin (1:50) antibody at room temperature for 2 h. After washing three times with PBS, the second antibody conjugated with FITC was incubated on these cells for 1 h at room temperature. The nuclei were counterstained with DAPI for 5 min. Cells were imaged using a Nikon Eclipse TE2000-U fluorescence microscope.

Statistical analysis

Graph Pad Prism 5.0 statistical software was utilized to analyze the above experimental data. Measurement data were represented as $X \pm SD$ ($n = 3$); One-way analysis of variance was applied to compare differences between multiple groups. When only two groups were compared, Student's *t*-test was conducted. A value of $P < 0.05$ indicated that the difference was statistically significant.

RESULTS

Effect of TFA on IEC-6 cell viability

In order to observe the effect of TFA on the EMT progress of IEC-6 cells mediated by TGF- β 1, a CCK-8 assay was performed to assess the effect of TFA on the viability of IEC-6 cells and to select the optimal concentrations of TFA for our further studies. IEC-6 cells were treated with increasing concentrations of TFA ranging from 0.1 to 50 μ g/mL at different time points (24, 48 and 72 h). From the results of Figure 1, we found that TFA had the positive activities on viability of IEC-6 cells with the concentrations of 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL compared to the control group (TFA 0 μ g/mL). Further, the TFA-treated group at 10 μ g/mL displayed the maximum proliferative rate at 24, 48 and 72 h. Therefore, 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL TFA were chosen to be the optimal concentrations for our further studies.

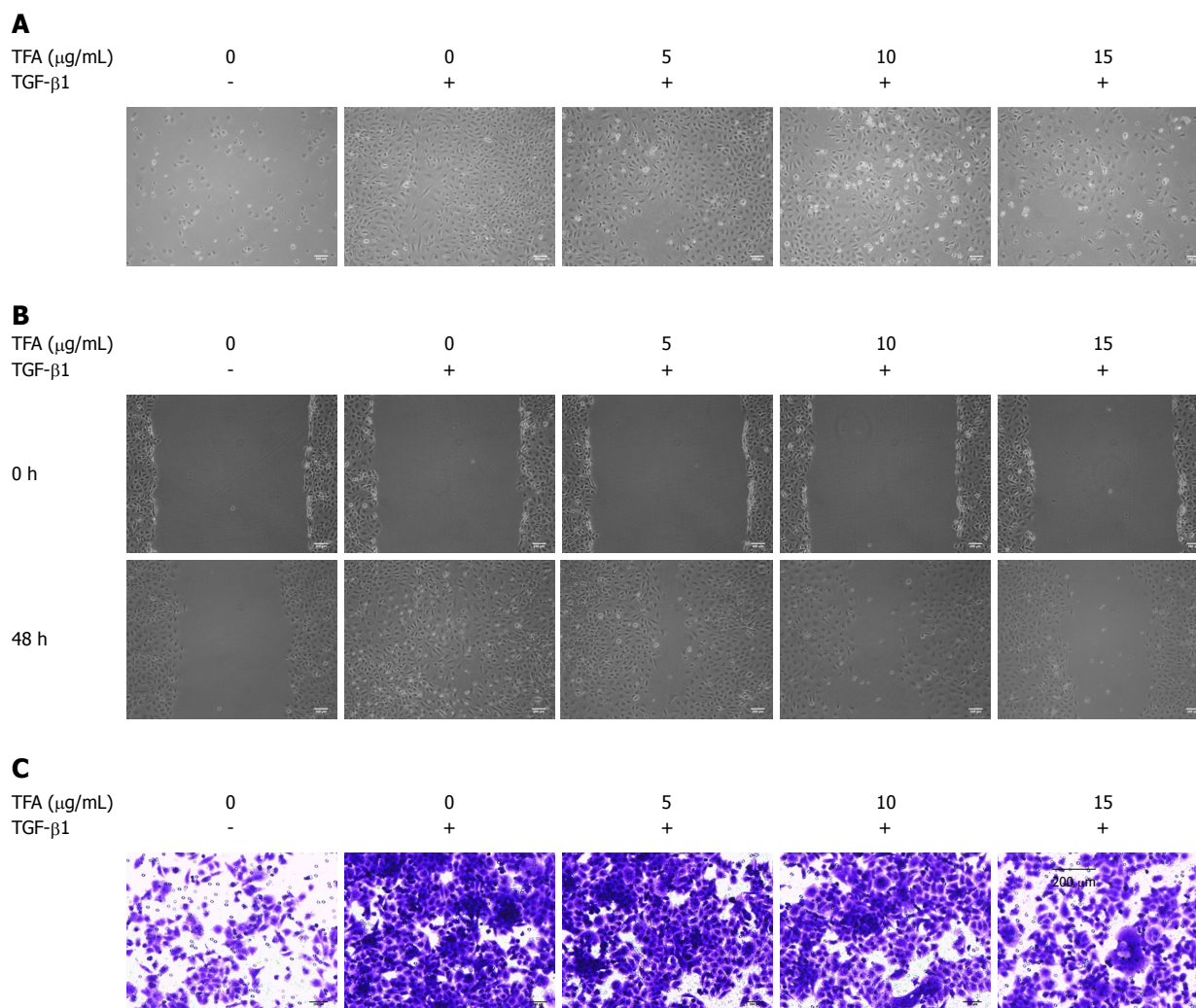


Figure 2 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* inhibited transforming growth factor- β 1 induced migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells. A: The inhibitory effect of TFA (5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL) on TGF- β 1-induced morphological changes at 48 h was observed by phase contrast microscopy; B: The representative image of the wound healing assay; C: The representative image of transwell assay. The tendency is concomitant with the wound healing assay. TGF- β 1 induced the migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells, whereas TFA suppressed this phenomenon. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.

TFA inhibited TGF- β 1 induced migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells

The EMT process is characterized by alteration of cell morphology, migration and invasion capacity, as well as epithelial and mesenchymal markers expression. In the morphology assay, 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 in the medium for 48 h led to significant morphological changes from cuboidal epithelial cells to fibroblast-like spindle-shaped cells when compared with the control group. Interestingly, TFA effectively suppressed TGF- β 1-induced morphological changes of IEC-6 cells in a dose dependent manner (Figure 2A). Moreover, for wound healing assays, 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 could promote the migration of IEC-6 cells compared with the control group, while TFA obviously reduced the TGF- β 1-induced migration of IEC-6 cells in a dose dependent manner (Figure 2B). In addition, we examined the effects of TFA on TGF- β 1-induced invasion, and we found that 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1 in the medium for 48 h induced IEC-6 cells across the membrane, and addition of 5, 10 and 15 μ g/mL TFA

decreased the number of IEC-6 cells that passed through the Matrigel (Figure 2C). The results indicated that TFA could significantly suppress the morphological change, migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells induced by TGF- β 1.

TFA inhibited TGF- β 1-induced EMT

To examine the alterations of EMT markers, as shown in Figure 3A, the expression of epithelial marker E-cadherin was decreased along with the increasing expression of the mesenchymal marker Vimentin after treatment with 10 ng/mL TGF- β 1. However, TFA effectively inhibited this induction, especially at higher concentrations. Besides, western blotting and qRT-PCR were carried out to examine the alterations of EMT markers, and we found that the protein levels of epithelial markers, including E-cadherin and ZO-1, were markedly increased by TFA treatment. On the contrary, TFA treatment obviously decreased the expression levels of mesenchymal proteins, including Vimentin and N-cadherin (Figure 3B). Likewise, similar changes were observed for mRNA

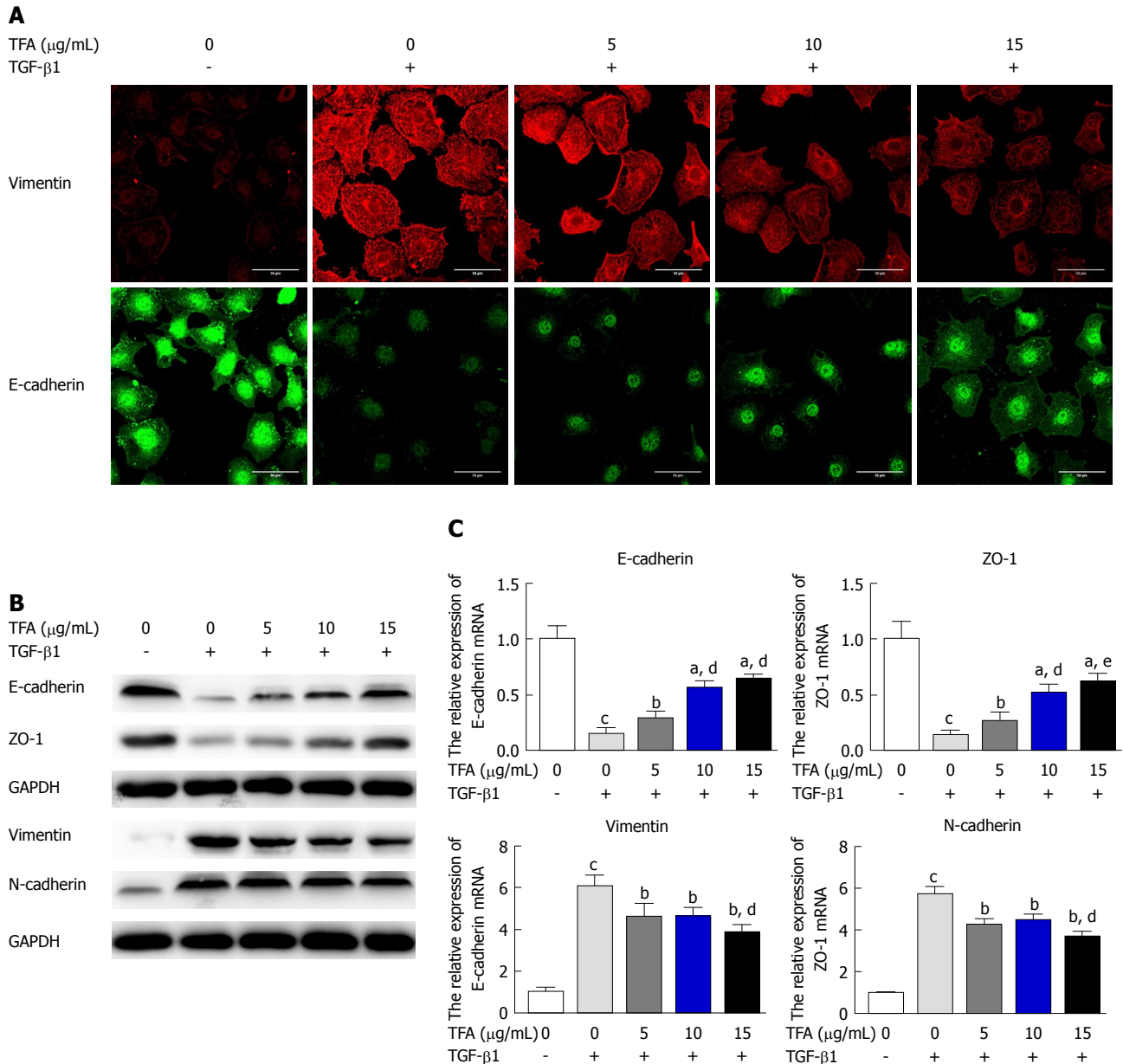


Figure 3 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* inhibited transforming growth factor- β 1-induced epithelial-mesenchymal transition. A and B: The EMT-related label proteins were measured by immunocytochemistry (A) and western blotting (B) assays when IEC-6 cells were treated with TGF- β 1 (10 ng/mL) alone or in combination with TFA (5, 10 and 15 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) for 48 h; C: The inhibitory effect of TFA (5, 10 and 15 $\mu\text{g/mL}$) on TGF- β 1-induced EMT-related mRNAs was detected by qRT-PCR assay. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$, ^c $P < 0.001$ compared with the non-TFA treated group, ^d $P < 0.05$, ^e $P < 0.01$ compared with the TGF- β 1 (10 ng/mL) treated group. EMT: Epithelial-mesenchymal transition; TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.

expression of epithelial and mesenchymal markers in TFA-treated TGF- β 1-induced IEC-6 cells (Figure 3C). Together, these results demonstrated that TFA could attenuate TGF- β 1-induced EMT of IEC-6 cells.

TFA inhibited TGF- β 1-induced activation of the Smad signaling pathway

The activation of phosphorylated Smad2/3 plays an important role in the TGF- β 1-mediated EMT progress^[28]. The status of the Smad pathways was determined in TGF- β 1-treated IEC-6 cells following TFA treatment with the concentrations of 5, 10 and 15 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ for 48 h, and the results have shown that TFA remarkably inhibited

the level of phosphorylated Smad 2/3 in a dose dependent manner (Figure 4A). Next, we examined the role of Smad in TGF- β 1-mediated IEC-6 cells. In IEC-6 cells, western blotting analysis demonstrated that Smad2/3 expression was inhibited after transfection of si-Smad2/3 (Figure 4B). Moreover, our results revealed that si-Smad2/3 could diminish TGF- β 1-triggered EMT in IEC-6 cells and inhibit the TGF- β 1-elicited changes in the expression of EMT markers, as measured by western blotting and qRT-PCR assays (Figure 4B and C). Besides, si-Smad2/3 suppressed TGF- β 1-mediated mesenchymal-like morphological changes in IEC-6 cells as shown in Figure 5A. Wound healing and trans-well

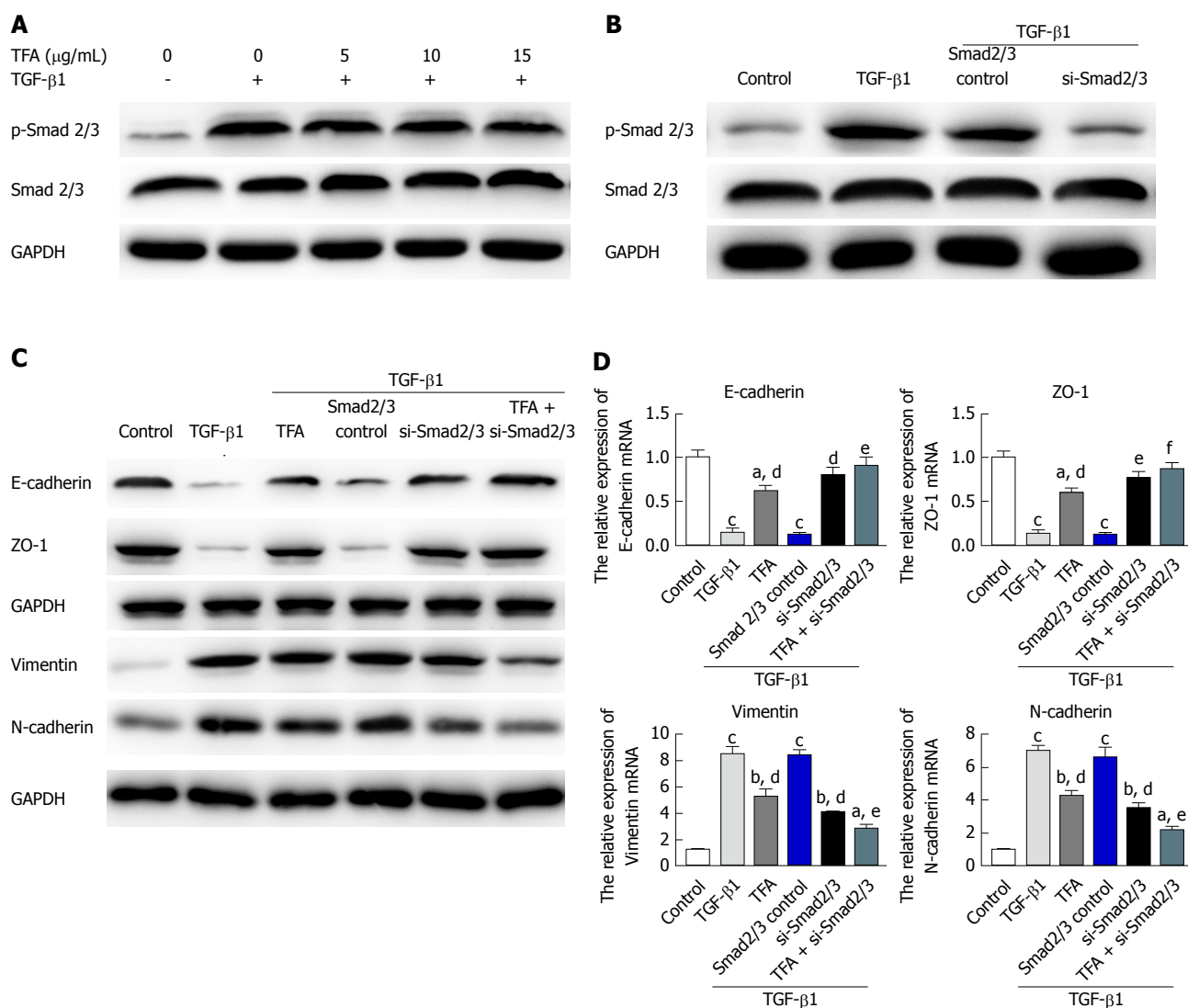


Figure 4 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* inhibited transforming growth factor-β1-induced activation of the Smad signaling pathway. A: The effects of TFA on TGF-β1-induced activation of Smad signaling were evaluated by western blotting; B: The expression of Smad signaling was examined by western blotting after transfection of si-Smad2/3; C and D: The effect of si-Smad or TFA combined with si-Smad2/3 on TGF-β1-induced activation of Smad signaling was evaluated by western blotting (C) and qRT-PCR (D) assays. ^a*P* < 0.05, ^b*P* < 0.01, ^c*P* < 0.001 compared with that of non-TFA treated group, ^d*P* < 0.01, ^e*P* < 0.001 compared with that of TGF-β1 (10 ng/mL) treated group. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.

assays also showed that si-Smad2/3 suppressed the migration and invasion capacities of IEC-6 cells triggered by TGF-β1 (Figure 5B and C). Furthermore, 15 μg/mL TFA combined with si-Smad2/3 could further restrain TGF-β1-mediated EMT progress in IEC-6 cells. These results suggested that TFA might reverse EMT induced by TGF-β1 *via* Smad inactivation in IEC-6 cells.

TFA inhibited TGF-β1-induced activation of the non-Smad signaling pathway

In addition to the Smad2/3 signaling pathway, TGF-β has been reported to activate other signaling molecules, such as MAPKs, which include extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) 1/2, c-Jun NH2-terminal kinase (JNK), and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (p38 MAPK)^[29]. To explore the involvement of non-Smad signaling in the anti TGF-β1-induced EMT activity of TFA, we tested whether TFA could inhibit the TGF-β1-induced

activation of p38, JNK and ERK1/2 by western blotting, and we found that TGF-β1 could significantly activate the expressions of p-p38, p-JNK and p-ERK1/2, while TFA at the concentrations of 5, 10 and 15 μg/mL obviously suppressed the TGF-β1-induced increase in p-p38, p-JNK and p-ERK1/2 levels in IEC-6 cells in a dose dependent manner (Figure 6A). Thus, in order to further explore the role of MAPKs in TGF-β1-treated IEC-6 cells, ERK1/2 inhibitor (PD98059, 5 μmol/L), p38 inhibitor (SB203580, 5 μmol/L) and JNK inhibitor (SP600125, 2 μmol/L) were used to treat IEC-6 cells mediated by TGF-β1. From the results in Figure 6A, we found that PD98059, SB203580 and SP600125 could significantly inhibit the activation of p-p38, p-JNK and p-ERK, respectively. Besides, PD98059, SB203580 and SP600125 could promote the changes in EMT markers by western blotting and qRT-PCR assays (Figure 6B and C). In addition, PD98059, SB203580 and SP600125 treatment inhibited TGF-β1-induced men-

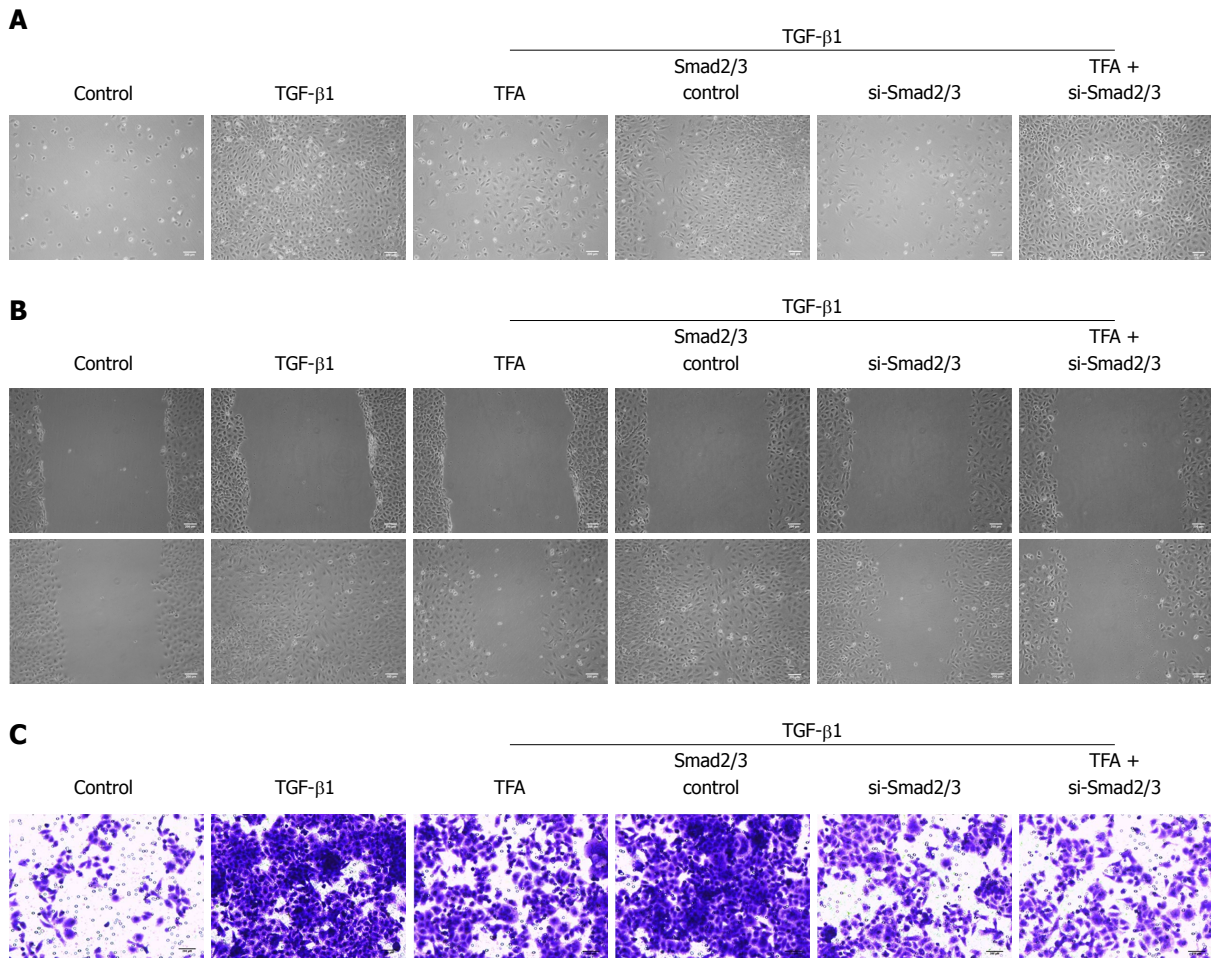


Figure 5 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* (TFA) combined with si-Smad2/3 had synergistic role in inhibiting transforming growth factor-β1-induced migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells. A: The inhibitory effect of si-Smad or TFA (15 μg/mL) combined with si-Smad2/3 on TGF-β1-induced morphological changes at 48 h was observed by phase contrast microscopy; B and C: The migration and invasion abilities of si-Smad or TFA (15 μg/mL) combined with si-Smad2/3 were examined by wound healing (B) and transwell (C) assays. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.α

senchymal-like morphological changes in IEC-6 cells, as shown in Figure 7A. Moreover, PD98059, SB203580 and SP600125 inhibited the migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells mediated by TGF-β1 *via* wound healing and transwell assays (Figure 7B and C). Importantly, co-treatment of TFA with PD98059, SB203580 or SP600125 had better inhibitory effects on TGF-β1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells than either one of them. Taken together, these results indicated that TFA might exert its role in reversing TGF-β1-mediated EMT *via* non-Smad inactivation in IEC-6 cells.

DISCUSSION

CD intestinal fibrosis is characterized by activation of myofibroblasts, resulting in abnormal ECM deposition, which eventually leads to tissue stiffness and progressive intestinal dysfunction^[30]. In addition to interstitial cells such as fibroblasts and smooth muscle cells, the differentiation of epithelial cells through EMT is a major source of intestinal fibrotic cells^[18]. EMT refers to the transformation of epithelial cells with polar cells to the interstitial cells under a specific physiological and

pathological condition. The most important features of EMT are the loss of epithelial cell phenotype and the acquisition of interstitial properties, as reflected in the down-regulation of E-cadherin and ZO-1, resulting in loss of adhesion between cells or between cells and matrix, over-expression of N-cadherin and vimentin, leading to the acquisition of migration and invasion, and over-expression of EMT transcription factors^[31,32]. Moreover, EMT plays a key role in tissue formation, organ fibrosis and so on. Through EMT, epithelial cells lose cell polarity and epithelial phenotypes, such as connection to the basement membrane, while acquiring interstitial cell phenotypes with the functions of fibroblasts and myofibroblasts^[33-35]. Moreover, in the case of continuous activation of inflammatory response, the EMT process will also continuously exist and eventually cause organ fibrosis. Therefore, it will have a positive significance to search for a method for the treatment of CD intestinal fibrosis.

Our previous studies have found that TFA, a main component of the water extract of traditional Chinese medicine, could reduce the expression of TGF-β, α-SMA and MMP-2 and decrease collagen fibrils, which indi-

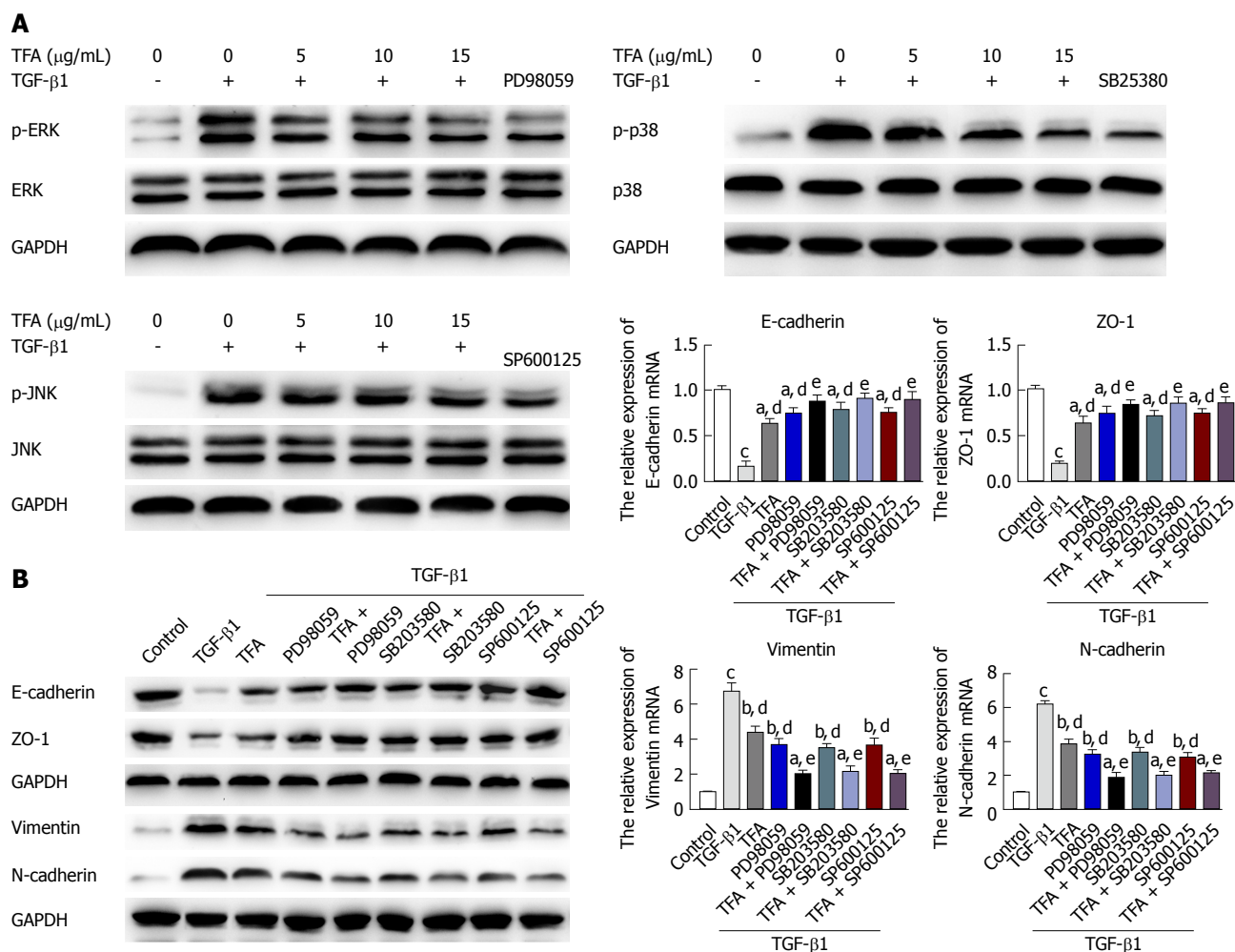


Figure 6 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* inhibited transforming growth factor-β1-induced activation of MAPK signaling pathway. A: The effect of TFA on TGF-β1-induced activation of MAPK signaling was evaluated by western blotting; B: The expression of MAPK signaling was examined by western blotting after transfection with MAPK inhibitors; B and C: The effects of MAPK inhibitors or TFA combined with MAPK inhibitors on TGF-β1-induced activation of Smad signaling were evaluated by western blotting (B) and qRT-PCR (C) assays. ^a*P* < 0.05, ^b*P* < 0.01, ^c*P* < 0.001 compared with that of non-TFA treated group, ^d*P* < 0.05, ^e*P* < 0.01 compared with that of TGF-β1 (10 ng/mL) treated group. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.

cated that TFA may inhibit or reverse EMT during CD intestinal fibrosis. Firstly, we used TGF-β1 to induce EMT of IEC-6 cells and chose the optimal concentrations of TFA to disrupt TGF-β1 activity in IEC-6 cells. From the results, we knew that TGF-β1 could obviously promote the progression of EMT, such as changing morphology from cuboidal epithelial cells to fibroblast-like spindle-shaped cells, and enhancing the abilities of migration and invasion. Despite this, TFA treatment could restrain the changes caused by TGF-β1 in a dose dependent manner.

Effective inhibition of CD intestinal inflammation does not play a positive role in preventing intestinal fibrosis and inhibiting the pro-fibrosis signaling pathway, resulting in persistence of the process of tissue fibrosis^[36,37]. Therefore, it is necessary to further study how to block the fibrotic signaling pathway and promote ECM decomposition to inhibit or reverse the process of fibrosis. TGF-β is the strongest inducer, playing an important role in EMT^[38]. The Smad signaling pathway induced by TGF-β can promote the expression of ECM and inhibit the transcriptional activity of matrix degradation

genes, resulting in ECM deposition in interstitial cells and leading to fibrosis^[39]. Actually, in our experiments, we found that 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 could significantly inhibit the expression of p-Smad2/3, while TFA remarkably reversed the phenomenon in a dose dependent manner in TGF-β1-treated IEC-6 cells. Blocking TGF-β/Smad signaling has become a hot spot to inhibit or even reverse fibrosis. It has been reported that silencing Smad 2/3 could block Smad signaling and reduce collagen synthesis and proliferation of fibroblasts^[40,41]. We silenced the expression of p-Smad2/3 and explored the role of Smad2/3 in TGF-β1-treated IEC-6 cells. We found that silencing Smad2/3 could effectively improve the EMT progression of IEC-6 cells induced by TGF-β1 no matter morphology, migration, invasion or EMT markers. Interestingly, when TFA was combined with si-Smad2/3, it had better inhibitory activities on EMT progression than either one of them alone, which suggested that TFA might exert its effects in reversing TGF-β1-mediated EMT via Smad inactivation in IEC-6 cells.

Recent researches have shown that the MAPK path-

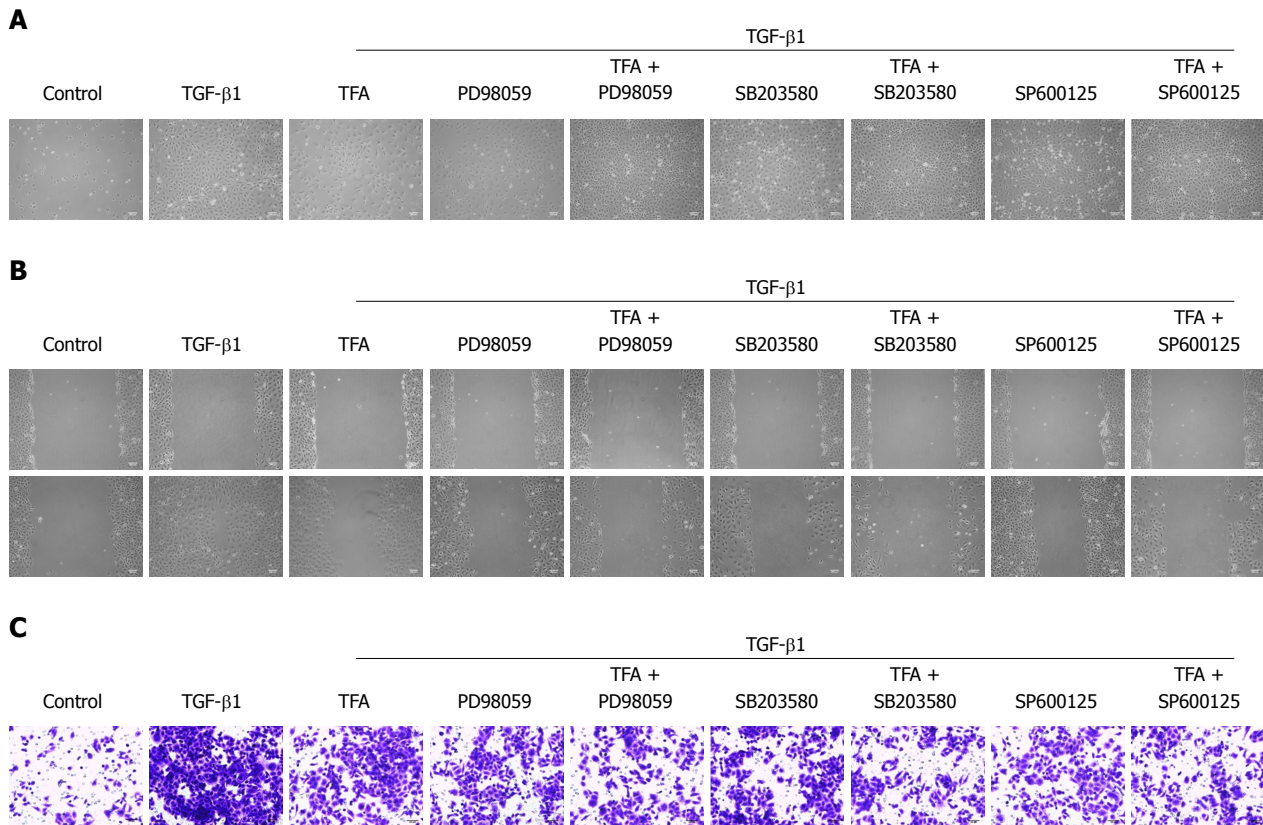


Figure 7 Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* combined with MAPK inhibitors had synergistic role in inhibiting transforming growth factor-β1-induced migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells. A: The inhibitory effect of MAPK inhibitors or TFA (15 μg/mL) combined with MAPK inhibitors on TGF-β1-induced morphological changes at 48 h was observed by phase contrast microscopy; B and C: The migration and invasion abilities of MAPK inhibitors or TFA (15 μg/mL) combined with MAPK inhibitors were examined by wound healing (B) and transwell (C) assays. TFA: Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot*; TGF: Transforming growth factor.

way, including p38, JNK and ERK1/2, is closely related to the regulation of TGF-β signaling pathway and fibrosis^[42]. TGF-β can not only carry out signal transduction through TGF-β/Smad, but can also activate p38, JNK and ERK signaling pathways, which indicates that regulation of MAPK signaling pathways can affect the TGF-β/Smad signal transduction pathway and play a role in inhibiting fibrosis^[43,44]. In this experiment, we found that 10 ng/mL TGF-β1 could significantly inhibit the expression of p-p38, p-JNK and p-ERK1/2, while TFA obviously suppressed the levels in a dose dependent manner in TGF-β1-treated IEC-6 cells. In addition, we also investigated the role of MAPK in TGF-β1-mediated EMT of IEC-6 cells. We used an ERK1/2 inhibitor (PD98059), p38 inhibitor (SB203580) and JNK inhibitor (SP600125) to inhibit the expression of p-p38, p-JNK and p-ERK1/2 in IEC-6 cells, respectively. We found that PD98059, SB203580 and SP600125 treatment could have positive inhibitory effects on EMT progress, similar to the si-Smad. Moreover, co-treatment of TFA combined with PD98059, SB203580 or SP600125 had better positive activities on inhibiting EMT progress in TGF-β1-mediated IEC-6 cells than either one of them alone, indicating that TFA might exert its role in reversing EMT induced by TGF-β1 *via* MAPK inactivation in IEC-6 cells.

Stated thus, regulating TGF-β and its downstream

Smad and MAPK signaling pathways, mediating the EMT process and restoring the biological function of abnormally activated intestinal fibroblasts, may be an important way to seek drug therapy for CD intestinal fibrosis. TFA is able to inhibit TGF-β1-induced morphological change, migration, invasion of IEC-6 cells. TFA promoted the induction of EMT partly by inhibiting TGF-β1-activated Smad signaling pathway and non-Smad signaling pathway. To conclude, TFA is expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis, and its continued advancement may open the door to a new class of treatment for CD intestinal fibrosis.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) is a crucial process in Crohn's disease (CD) intestinal fibrosis. Total flavone of *Abelmoschus manihot* (TFA) has been found as an effective component to reduce CD intestinal fibrosis *in vivo*. However, the role and mechanism of TFA on EMT progress of CD intestinal fibrosis have not been understood yet.

Research motivation

EMT is a crucial process in CD intestinal fibrosis. TFA has been found as an effective component to reduce CD intestinal fibrosis *in vivo*. However, the role and mechanism of TFA on EMT progress of CD intestinal fibrosis have not been understood yet. In the present study, we performed CCK-8, morphology, wound

healing, transwell, qRT-PCR, western blotting and immunofluorescence assays to explore the role and the underlying mechanisms of TFA on CD intestinal fibrosis, and the results indicated that TFA was expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis.

Research objectives

To explore the role and mechanism of TFA on EMT progress of CD intestinal fibrosis.

Research methods

First, a CCK-8 assay was performed to assess the effect of TFA on the viability of IEC-6 cells and to select the optimal concentrations of TFA for our further studies. Then cell morphology, wound healing and transwell assays were performed to examine the effect of TFA on morphology, migration and invasion of IEC-6 cells treated with transforming growth factor- β 1 (TGF- β 1). In addition, immunofluorescence, qRT-PCR and western blotting assays were carried out to detect the impact of TFA on EMT progress. Moreover, western blotting assay was performed to evaluate the function of TFA on the Smad and MAPK signaling pathways. Further, the role of co-treatment of TFA and si-Smad or MAPK inhibitors was examined by qRT-PCR, western blotting, morphology, wound healing and transwell assays.

Research results

In this study, TFA promoted TGF- β 1-induced IEC-6 cell morphological change, migration and invasion, and increased the expression of epithelial markers and reduced the levels of mesenchymal markers, along with the inactivation of Smad and MAPK signaling pathways. Moreover, we revealed that si-Smad and MAPK inhibitors effectively attenuated TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells. Importantly, co-treatment of TFA and si-Smad or MAPK inhibitors had better inhibitory effects on TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells than either one of them alone.

Research conclusions

These findings could provide new insight into the molecular mechanisms of TFA on TGF- β 1-induced EMT in IEC-6 cells, and TFA is expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis.

Research perspectives

TFA promoted the induction of EMT partly by inhibiting TGF- β 1-activated Smad signaling pathway and non-Smad signaling pathway. TFA is expected to advance as a new therapy to treat CD intestinal fibrosis, and its continued advancement may open the door to a new class of treatment for CD intestinal fibrosis.

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Basic Study

Identification of a five-long non-coding RNA signature to improve the prognosis prediction for patients with hepatocellular carcinoma

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Author contributions: Zhao QJ conceived the study, drafted and revised the manuscript; Zhang J and Xu L helped with the statistical analysis; Liu FF helped participated in data mining; all authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Data sharing statement: The datasets supporting the conclusions of this article are included within the article.

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Abstract

AIM

To construct a long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) signature for predicting hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) prognosis with high efficiency.

METHODS

Differentially expressed lncRNAs (DELs) between HCC specimens and peritumor liver specimens were identified using the edgeR package to analyze The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) LIHC dataset. Univariate Cox proportional hazards regression was performed to obtain the DELs significantly associated with overall survival (OS) in a training set. These OS-related DELs were further analyzed using a stepwise multivariate Cox regression model. Those lncRNAs fitted in the multivariate Cox regression model and independently associated with overall survival were chosen to build a prognostic risk formula. The prognostic value of

this formula was then validated in the test group and the entire cohort and further compared with two previously identified prognostic signatures for HCC. Gene ontology and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes pathway analyses were performed to explore the potential biological functions of the lncRNAs in the signature.

RESULTS

Based on lncRNA expression profiling of 370 HCC patients from the TCGA database, we constructed a 5-lncRNA signature (AC015908.3, AC091057.3, TMCC1-AS1, DCST1-AS1 and FOXD2-AS1) that was significantly associated with prognosis. HCC patients with high-risk scores based on the expression of the 5 lncRNAs had significantly shorter survival times compared to patients with low-risk scores in both the training and test groups. Multivariate Cox regression analysis demonstrated that the prognostic value of the 5 lncRNAs was independent of clinicopathological parameters. A comparison study involving two previously identified prognostic signatures for HCC demonstrated that this 5-lncRNA signature showed improved prognostic power compared with the other two signatures. Functional enrichment analysis indicated that the 5 lncRNAs were potentially involved in metabolic processes, fibrinolysis and complement activation.

CONCLUSION

Our present study constructed a 5-lncRNA signature that improves survival prediction and can be used as a prognostic biomarker for HCC patients.

Key words: Long non-coding RNA; Hepatocellular carcinoma; Prognosis; Survival prediction; Prognostic biomarker

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Core tip: In the present study, we developed a 5-long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) signature for predicting the prognosis of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) patients based on The Cancer Genome Atlas database. The signature was reproducible and robust in another independent large-scale HCC cohort, supporting its utility and effectiveness. In addition, the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature was independent of clinicopathological variables. When compared with two previously identified signatures for HCC survival prediction, this 5-lncRNA signature showed superior prognostic power. Our study indicates that the 5-lncRNA signature could improve survival prediction and could be used as a prognostic biomarker for HCC patients.

Zhao QJ, Zhang J, Xu L, Liu FF. Identification of a five-long non-coding RNA signature to improve the prognosis prediction for patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3426-3439 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3426.htm>

INTRODUCTION

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the sixth most commonly diagnosed cancer in the world^[1]. According to previous epidemiologic studies, the incidence of HCC varies strikingly worldwide and is particularly high in eastern Asian countries, including China, and sub-Saharan Africa^[2,3]. The 5-year overall survival rate for HCC is lower than 20%^[4], and the ratio of its mortality to morbidity is 0.95^[1]. Because of its poor prognosis, HCC ranks as the second leading cause of cancer-related deaths worldwide^[1]. An estimated 782500 new liver cancer cases and 745500 deaths occurred worldwide in 2012, among which 50% occurred in China^[3]. There are multiple risk factors related to HCC, including hepatitis B or C viral infection, chronic alcohol abuse, nonalcoholic fatty liver disease and smoking^[5,6]. Although treatment for HCC, including surgical resection, has improved over the past decades, the overall survival rate for this disease remains devastatingly high due to its high recurrence rate (50%-70% at 5 years)^[7-9]. Because HCC is a heterogeneous disease with substantially variable clinical outcomes, the search for effective biomarkers to predict recurrence and prognosis is indispensable. To date, no widely accepted molecular biomarkers for HCC aggressiveness are available. In the past 40 years, serum alpha fetoprotein (AFP) levels have been utilized for the diagnosis of HCC and for predicting its response to therapy. However, AFP levels can be influenced by tumor size and cancer stage, and they are not reliable in clinical applications^[10]. In addition, the American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases concluded that the use of AFP levels lacks sufficient sensitivity and specificity to effectively monitor or diagnose HCC^[11].

With the development of high-throughput sequencing technologies, it has become easy to acquire whole genome profiles for specific cancers and develop more reliable prognostic signatures. Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) are mRNA-like transcripts of more than 200 nucleotides (nt) with little or no protein-coding capacity^[12,13]. In the past, they were previously thought to be redundant segments of the genome, but in recent decades, emerging studies have indicated the importance of lncRNAs in cellular physiological and pathological processes^[14,15]. Increasing evidence suggests that dysregulated lncRNAs are associated with various human diseases, particularly the initiation and progression of various human cancers^[16,17]. Prognostic lncRNA signatures have been examined in many cancer types, including renal cancer, glioblastoma, colorectal cancer, lymphoma, and others^[18-21]. For HCC, most of the published gene signatures associated with prognosis have focused on mRNAs and microRNAs^[22-25]. To the

Table 1 Clinicopathological parameters of hepatocellular carcinoma patients in each cohort

Variables		Training group (<i>n</i> = 184)	Test group (<i>n</i> = 186)	Entire group (<i>n</i> = 370)
Age, yr	< 60	84	85	169
	≥ 60	100	101	201
Sex	Male	129	120	249
	Female	55	66	121
Weight, kg	< 70	92	85	177
	≥ 70	78	89	167
	NA	14	12	26
Child-Pugh grade	A	109	107	216
	B	9	12	21
	C	0	1	1
Fibrosis ishak score	NA	66	66	132
	0	32	42	74
	1-5	38	31	69
	6	36	33	69
Vascular tumor invasion	NA	78	80	158
	None	100	106	206
	Micro	45	46	91
	Macro	8	9	17
Serum FAP level, ng/mL	NA	31	25	56
	< 100	102	90	192
	≥ 100	37	48	85
	NA	45	48	93
Tumor grade	1	37	18	55
	2	82	95	177
	3 + 4	61	72	133
	NA	4	1	5
Pathologic stage	I	92	79	171
	II	43	42	85
	III + IV	37	53	90
	NA	12	12	24

best of our knowledge, very few lncRNA signatures have been developed for HCC prognosis prediction^[26]. Thus, it is necessary to identify a more effective lncRNA signature for HCC prognosis. In the present study, we aimed to construct a lncRNA signature capable of predicting HCC prognosis with high efficiency.

In this work, we analyzed a cohort of 370 HCC patients from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) to identify a potential lncRNA signature for predicting the survival of HCC patients. We identified a five-lncRNA prognostic signature from the TCGA dataset and determined that its prognostic value was independent from clinical factors. The identification of prognostic lncRNAs suggests the potential roles of lncRNAs in HCC pathogenesis and progression.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data and patients

Level 3 RNA-seq data (HTSeq-counts) from 374 HCC tumor specimens and 50 peritumoral liver specimens and their corresponding clinicopathological information were downloaded from the TCGA project (<https://cancergenome.nih.gov/>) on June 2, 2017. Because TCGA data are a community resource project, additional ethical approval was not acquired, and the present study adhered to TCGA publication guidelines and data access policies. After excluding the data without complete survival information, a total of 370 HCC

patients with complete follow up data were enrolled in our study and then randomly divided into a training set (*n* = 184) and test set (*n* = 186) using SPSS software (version 24.0). The clinicopathological parameters of the HCC patients in each group are listed in Table 1.

lncRNA expression profile in the TCGA LIHC cohort

Only lncRNAs with a description in NCBI or Ensemble were selected for further study in this paper. We obtained the expression profiles of 6929 lncRNAs from the RNA-seq data of the TCGA LIHC cohort. Differentially expressed lncRNAs (DELs) between the HCC specimens and peritumor liver specimens were identified with the edgeR package, using an adjusted *P* < 0.05 and log₂ |fold change| > 1. The expression level of each lncRNA was log₂ transformed for the downstream analyses.

Identification of prognostic lncRNAs and construction of the risk formula for overall survival prediction

Univariate Cox proportional hazards regression was performed to obtain the DELs that were significantly associated with the overall survival (OS) of HCC patients in the training group. After acquiring survival-related lncRNAs (*P* < 0.01), we excluded those not expressed in at least 10% of the samples. The remaining OS-related lncRNAs were then adjusted using the stepwise multivariate Cox regression model. Finally, those lncRNAs fitted in the multivariate Cox regression model and independently associated with OS were chosen. A

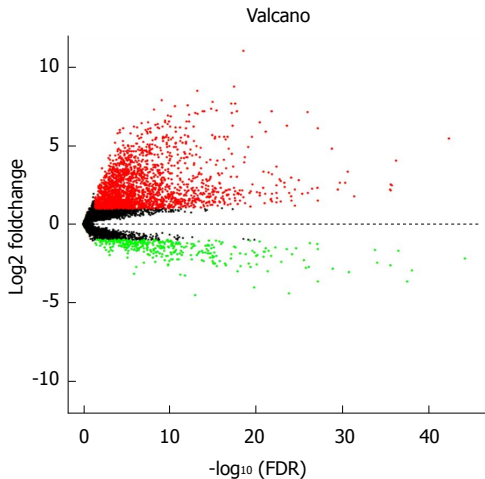


Figure 1 Volcano plot of the differentially expressed long non-coding RNAs between hepatocellular carcinoma tumor specimens and peritumoral liver specimens. The X-axis represents the adjusted FDR, and the Y-axis represents the value of the \log_2 fold change. Aberrantly expressed long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) were calculated using the EdgeR package. Red dots represent upregulated lncRNAs in the hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) tumor specimens, while green dots indicate downregulated lncRNAs compared with the peritumoral liver specimens. Black dots show the lncRNAs without significant differences between the HCC tumor and peritumoral liver specimens. Altogether, 2240 upregulated and 353 downregulated lncRNAs were found. This volcano plot was conducted using the ggplot2 package of R language.

prognostic risk formula was established based on a linear combination of the expression level of these lncRNAs multiplied by the regression coefficient derived from the multivariate Cox regression model as previously described^[18-21]. The subjects in each dataset were classified into a high-risk group and low-risk group according to the median risk score of the risk formula derived from the training set.

Statistical analysis

Univariate Cox proportional hazards regression was performed to obtain survival-related DELs, and the stepwise multivariate Cox regression model was performed for further selection. Overall survival analyses in the high-risk and low-risk groups were performed using Kaplan-Meier survival curves and a log-rank test. Receiver operating curve analyses were performed to assess the specificity and sensitivity of the prognosis prediction. The above analyses were performed using R (version 3.3.1). To verify the independence of the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature and clinicopathological parameters, univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses were performed using SPSS software (version 24.0). In the comparison study, Kaplan-Meier survival analysis and receiver operating curve (ROC) analysis were also performed using SPSS (version 24.0).

Functional enrichment analyses

To identify co-expressed lncRNA-mRNA pairs, we performed Person correlation analyses with R (version

3.3.1) for each of the five lncRNAs with protein-coding genes based on the RNA-seq data of the TCGA LIHC cohort. The protein-coding genes with a correlation coefficient > 0.5 and a $P < 0.01$ were considered to be significantly correlated genes. For functional enrichment analysis, the correlated protein-coding genes were subjected to gene ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway analyses using DAVID Bioinformatics Resources (version 6.8)^[27,28]. Significant functional categories were identified and limited to GO terms in the "Biological Process" (GOTERM-BP-DIRECT) and KEGG pathway categories, using the human whole genome as the background. Significantly enriched GO terms with similar functions were visualized using the EnrichmentMap plugin in Cytoscape (version 3.5.1)^[29].

RESULTS

Determining prognostic lncRNAs from the training set

Using the edgeR package, we identified a total of 2593 lncRNAs differentially expressed ($|\log_2|\text{fold change}| > 1$ and adjusted $P < 0.05$) between 374 HCC tumor specimens and 50 peritumor liver specimens, including 2240 upregulated and 353 downregulated lncRNAs (Figure 1). A total of 370 HCC samples with complete survival information were subjected to further analyses. For the training set, univariate Cox proportional hazards regression analyses revealed 82 lncRNAs significantly correlated with OS ($P < 0.01$) among the 2593 differentially expressed lncRNAs. Among the 82 OS-related lncRNAs, we further excluded those expressed in less than 10% of the HCC specimens, and the remaining 30 lncRNAs were subjected to further selection.

Construction of a lncRNA-based prognostic signature and validation in the training group

Stepwise multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression analyses were performed to identify the optimal prognostic lncRNAs among the 30 candidate lncRNAs. Based on this model, a final 5 lncRNAs were found to be significantly and independently related to prognosis. We then constructed a prognostic signature based on the expression levels of these 5 lncRNAs and their coefficients derived from the multivariable Cox model. The formula is as follows: risk score = $(-0.1900 \times \text{the expression level of AC015908.3}) + (0.1764 \times \text{the expression level of FOXD2-AS1}) + (0.3588 \times \text{the expression level of AC091057.3}) + (0.5615 \times \text{the expression level of TMCC1-AS1}) + (0.4877 \times \text{the expression level of DCST1-AS1})$. Detailed information for the 5 lncRNAs is listed in Table 2. The risk score for each patient in the training group was calculated using the formula. The training set was then divided into a high-risk group ($n = 92$) and a low-risk group ($n = 92$) according to the median risk score. Kaplan-Meier analysis revealed that the high-risk group had a significantly poorer prognosis than that of the low-

Table 2 The 5 long non-coding RNAs significantly associated with overall survival of hepatocellular carcinoma patients

Gene ID	Gene symbol	Coefficient	Hazard ratio	P value
ENSG00000264016	AC015908.3	-0.1900	0.7792	0.000305
ENSG00000237424	FOXD2-AS1	0.1764	1.2865	0.007317
ENSG00000269974	AC091057.3	0.3588	1.4682	0.000375
ENSG00000271270	TMCC1-AS1	0.5615	1.5417	0.000287
ENSG00000232093	DCST1-AS1	0.4877	1.3909	0.001632

risk group ($P = 1.3\text{e-}09$, log-rank test, Figure 2A). The median survival time for the high-risk group and the low-risk group was 2.096 and 6.811 years, respectively. Additionally, the 3- and 5-year survival rates of the high-risk group were 40% and 23.5%, whereas the corresponding survival rates were 90% and 71.8%, respectively, in the low-risk group. To evaluate the performance of the 5-lncRNA signature for predicting the prognosis of HCC patients, a time-dependent ROC analysis was conducted. The area under the ROC curve (AUC) for the 5-lncRNA signature was 0.857, which indicated good performance (Figure 2B). The risk scores of patients in the training group were also ranked, and survival status was plotted for each patient on a dot plot (Figure 2C). The mortality for patients in the high-risk group was much higher than that in the low-risk group. A heat map displays the expression profiles of these five lncRNAs in the samples from the training group; the expression profiles are ranked according to risk score (Figure 2D). Among the 5 lncRNAs, AC015908.3 showed a negative coefficient derived for the multivariate Cox regression model and seemed to be a protective factor, as its high expression predicts a low risk. The other 4 lncRNAs with positive coefficients, including FOXD2-AS1, AC091057.3, TMCC1-AS1 and DCST1-AS1, seemed to be risk factors and all were upregulated in the high-risk group compared to the low-risk group within the training set.

Validation of the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature for the test set and the entire cohort

To further verify the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature for HCC patients, risk scores for patients in the test group were calculated according to the constructed formula based on the expression of the 5 lncRNAs. The test group was also divided into high-risk ($n = 97$) and low-risk ($n = 89$) groups using the same cutoff as for the training group. Kaplan-Meier analysis revealed that the survival rate of the high-risk subgroup was much lower than that of the low-risk subgroup in the test set (median OS: 2.293 years vs 8.562 years; log-rank $P = 1.64\text{e-}05$) (Figure 3A). For the entire set, a similar result was obtained by Kaplan-Meier analysis. Among the entire cohort, the median survival of the high-risk group ($n = 189$) was 2.197 years, which was significantly lower than the median OS of 6.937 years for the low-risk group ($n = 181$) ($P = 2.69\text{e-}13$, Figure 4A). The AUC for the 5-lncRNA-based risk score of overall survival was 0.709 and 0.769 for

the test group (Figure 3B) and the entire group (Figure 4B), respectively, with both showing robust utility. In addition, ranked risk scores and survival status for each subject were plotted for the test group (Figure 3C) and the entire set (Figure 4C). Heatmaps display the expression profiles of the five lncRNAs for each subject in the test group (Figure 3D) and the entire cohort (Figure 4D), which were ranked according to risk score.

The prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature was independent of clinical characteristics

Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analyses were performed with the 5-lncRNA-based risk score and clinicopathological factors, including age, gender, weight, Child-Pugh grading, fibrosis extent, vascular tumor invasion, serum FAP levels, tumor grade and pathological stage as explanatory variables and overall survival as the dependent variable. The univariate Cox regression demonstrated that the 5-lncRNA signature-based risk score and pathologic stage were able to effectively predict the prognosis of HCC patients. In addition, in the training set and the entire set, patient age seemed to be related to survival, although this did not reach significance (Table 3). In contrast, none of the other clinicopathological parameters were associated with prognosis in either set. Multivariate Cox regression analysis revealed that after adjusting for other factors, age (only for the entire set), pathologic stage and the 5-lncRNA signature were the only factors significantly associated with overall survival (Table 2). Patients from the entire cohort were then stratified by age (Figure 5A) and pathological stage (Figure 5B). Each subgroup was then divided into a high-risk and low-risk group based on the 5-lncRNA risk score median derived from the training group. Kaplan-Meier analysis revealed that for all of the subgroups, the high-risk group had significantly poorer survival than the low-risk group. All of these results strongly suggest that the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA-based risk score is independent of clinicopathological factors.

Comparison of the 5-lncRNA signature with existing prognostic signatures for HCC

Two HCC-related prognostic signatures have recently been developed and reported, including a 3-gene signature by Binghua Li and a 4-lncRNA signature by Zhonghao Wang that were both derived from the TCGA dataset^[25,26]. To compare the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature developed in our present study

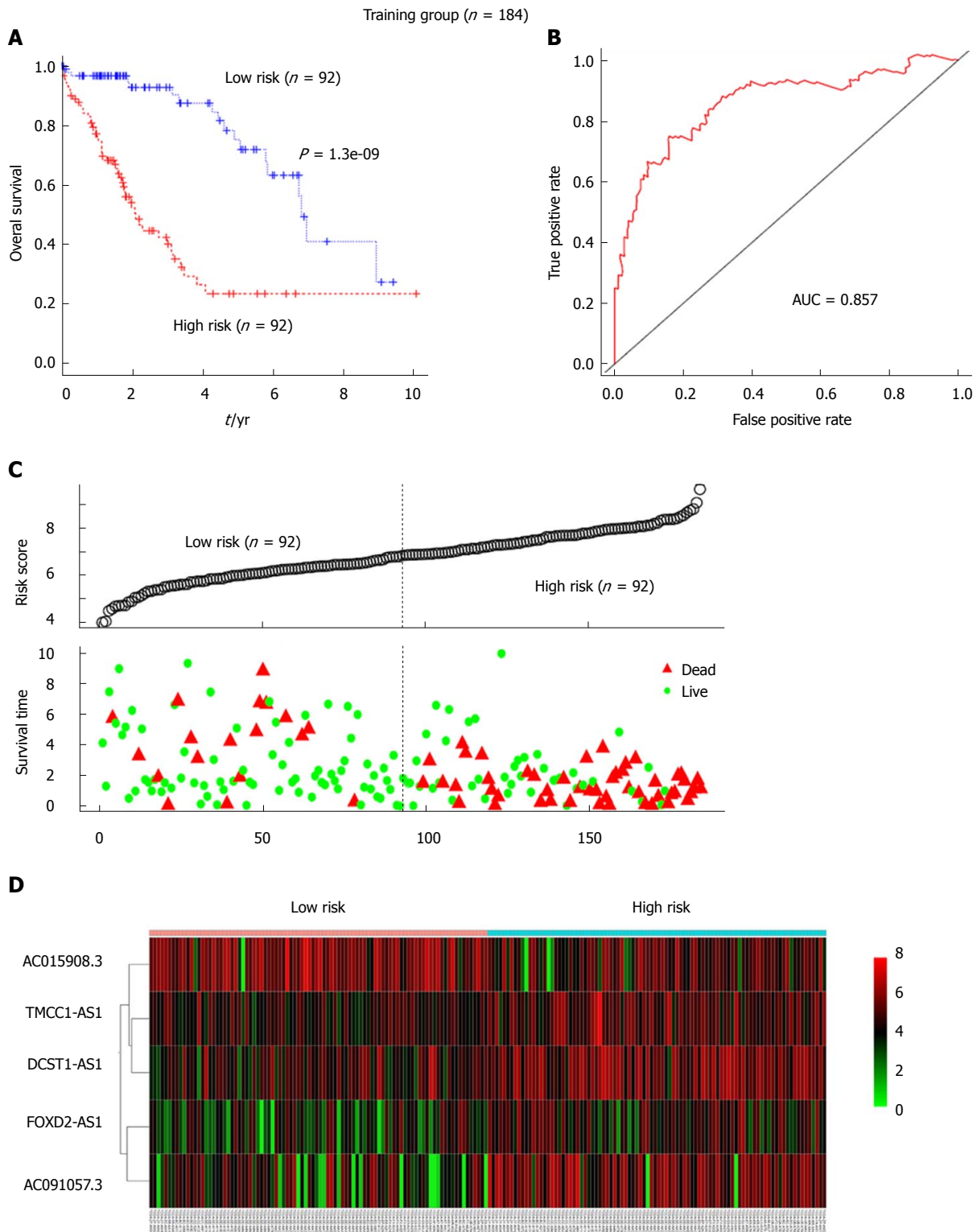


Figure 2 The 5-long non-coding RNA signature-based risk score predicted the overall survival of patients with hepatocellular carcinoma in the training set ($n = 184$). **A**: Kaplan-Meier analysis of patients' overall survival in the high-risk ($n = 92$) and low-risk ($n = 92$) subgroups of the training set; **B**: The receiver operating characteristic (ROC) analysis of the risk score for prediction the overall survival of the training set. The area under the curve was calculated for ROC curves; **C**: The 5-lncRNA-based risk score distribution, patient survival status; **D**: Heatmap of the 5-lncRNA expression profiles in the high-risk and low-risk subgroups for the training set.

(hereafter referred to as 5LncSig) with the existing 3-gene signature by Binghua Li (hereafter referred to as 3GeneSig) and the 4-lncRNA signature by Zhonghao Wang (hereafter referred to as ZhongSig), we calculated the risk scores of each patient in the entire cohort based on formulae derived from each of these signatures.

The 3GeneSig and ZhongSig both successfully and significantly predicted prognosis in the entire TCGA LIHC cohort (Figure 6A and B). Furthermore, comparison of the Kaplan-Meier curves revealed that patients in the high-risk group predicted by 5LncSig showed a dramatically poorer prognosis than those in the low-

Table 3 Univariate and multivariate Cox regression analysis of overall survival

Variables	Univariate analysis			Multivariate analysis		
	HR	95%CI of HR	P value	HR	95%CI of HR	P value
Training set (<i>n</i> = 184)						
Risk score	2.718	2.093-3.530	< 0.0001	2.830	2.091-3.831	< 0.0001
Age	1.018	0.998-1.038	0.073			
Sex (Male/Female)	1.022	0.619-1.690	0.931			
Weight	1.006	0.993-1.108	0.397			
Child-Pugh grade	0.845	0.253-2.827	0.195			
Fibrosis ishak score	0.685	0.756-1.283	0.910			
Vascular invasion (yes/no)	0.834	0.480-1.449	0.519			
FAP	0.805	0.932-1.056	0.805			
Tumor grade (G1 + G2/G3 + G4)	1.133	0.680-1.887	0.632			
Pathologic stage				1.900	1.098-3.288	0.022
I / II	0.604	0.303-1.203	0.152			
I / III + IV	0.298	0.163-0.543	< 0.0001			
Test set (<i>n</i> = 186)						
Risk score	1.603	1.270-2.024	< 0.0001	1.568	1.196-2.055	0.001
Age	1.006	0.987-1.026	0.522			
Sex (Male/Female)	1.420	0.856-2.356	0.174			
Weight	1.000	0.984-1.105	0.960			
Child-Pugh grade	0.475	0.195-1.157	0.101			
Fibrosis ishak score	1.640	0.706-3.813	0.250			
Vascular invasion (yes/no)	1.069	0.613-1.866	0.614			
FAP	1.035	0.981-1.093	0.210			
Tumor grade (G1 + G2/G3 + G4)	1.092	0.655-1.818	0.736			
Pathologic stage				2.103	1.193-3.707	0.010
I / II	0.865	0.426-1.757	0.688			
I / III + IV	0.445	0.250-0.793	0.006			
Entire set (<i>n</i> = 370)						
Risk score	1.957	1.646-2.327	< 0.0001	2.011	1.638-2.469	< 0.0001
Age	1.013	0.999-1.027	0.068	1.016	1.000-1.032	0.048
Sex (Male/Female)	1.166	0.817-1.664	0.396			
Weight	0.998	0.988-1.007	0.615			
Child-Pugh grade (A/B + C)	0.620	0.306-1.256	0.184			
Fibrosis ishak score	1.232	0.742-2.045	0.365			
Vascular invasion (yes/no)	0.962	0.650-1.424	0.846			
Serum AFP level	1.023	0.980-1.068	0.306			
Tumor grade (G1 + G2/G3 + G4)	1.119	0.780-1.604	0.542			
Pathologic stage				2.017	1.359-2.993	0.027
I / II	0.648	0.398-1.056	0.082			
I / III + IV	0.351	0.236-0.524	< 0.0001			

risk groups predicted by the 3GeneSig and ZhongSig (Figure 6A and B), and patients in the low-risk group predicted by 5LncSig had a much better prognosis than those in the high-risk group predicted by the other two signatures (Figure 6A and B). To compare the sensitivity and specificity of the 5LncSig for prognosis prediction with the other two existing signatures, we performed time-dependent ROC analysis. The AUC of overall survival for the 3GeneSig and the ZhongSig was 0.701 and 0.721, respectively (Figure 6C), both lower than that of the 5LncSig (0.769). Thus, the prognostic power of 5LncSig, developed in the present study, was superior to that of the previously developed 3-gene and 4-lncRNA signatures.

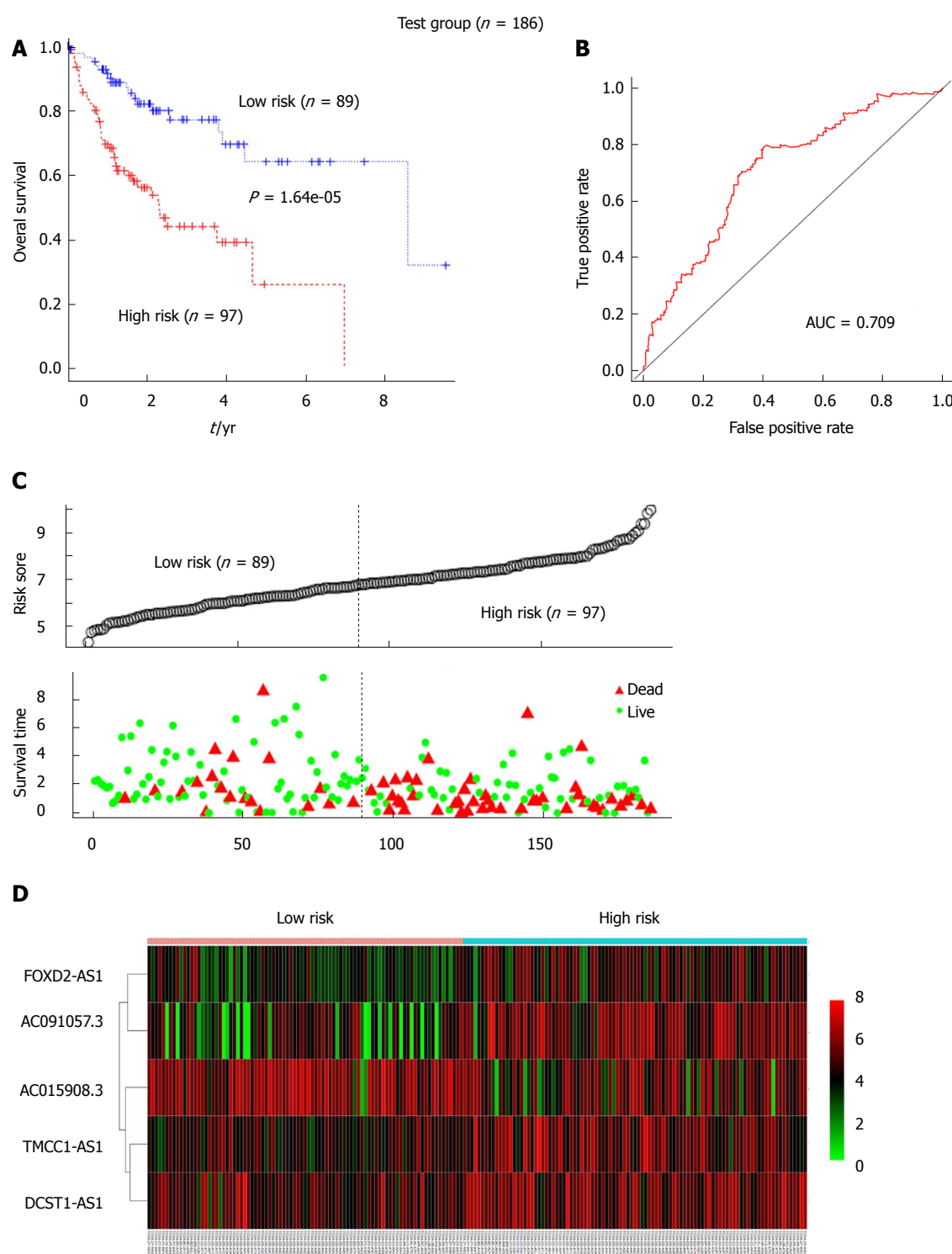
Functional characteristics of the five prognostic lncRNAs

To explore the functional implications of these 5 lncRNAs,

we performed Pearson correlation analyses between the 5 lncRNAs and protein-coding genes based on their expression levels in the TCGA LIHC cohort. The protein-coding genes that correlated with at least 1 of the 5 lncRNAs (Pearson coefficient > 0.5, $P < 0.01$) were considered to be correlated genes. We chose the 200 correlated genes with the highest Pearson coefficients for further analysis. Functional enrichment analysis revealed that these genes were primarily enriched in 32 GO terms (Benjamin P value < 0.1, Figure 7A) and 23 KEGG pathways ($P < 0.001$, Figure 7B). Further analysis revealed that these enriched GO functional terms are mostly involved in metabolic processes, fibrinolysis and complement activation (Figure 7A).

DISCUSSION

HCC is a heterogeneous disease with differential



prognoses and a high mortality. Until now, no biomarkers have been shown to effectively predict the survival of HCC patients, and thus, finding effective biomarkers for HCC is crucial.

Previous investigations of gene regulation and disease pathogenesis have mainly focused on protein-coding genes, which account for only a very small proportion

(2%) of transcribed genes in eukaryotic species^[13]. Recent developments in genome and transcriptome sequencing technologies have profoundly expanded our knowledge of non-coding RNAs, which are much more abundant than canonical protein-coding mRNAs^[30,31]. Multiple studies indicate that lncRNAs act not only as intermediaries between DNA and protein but also

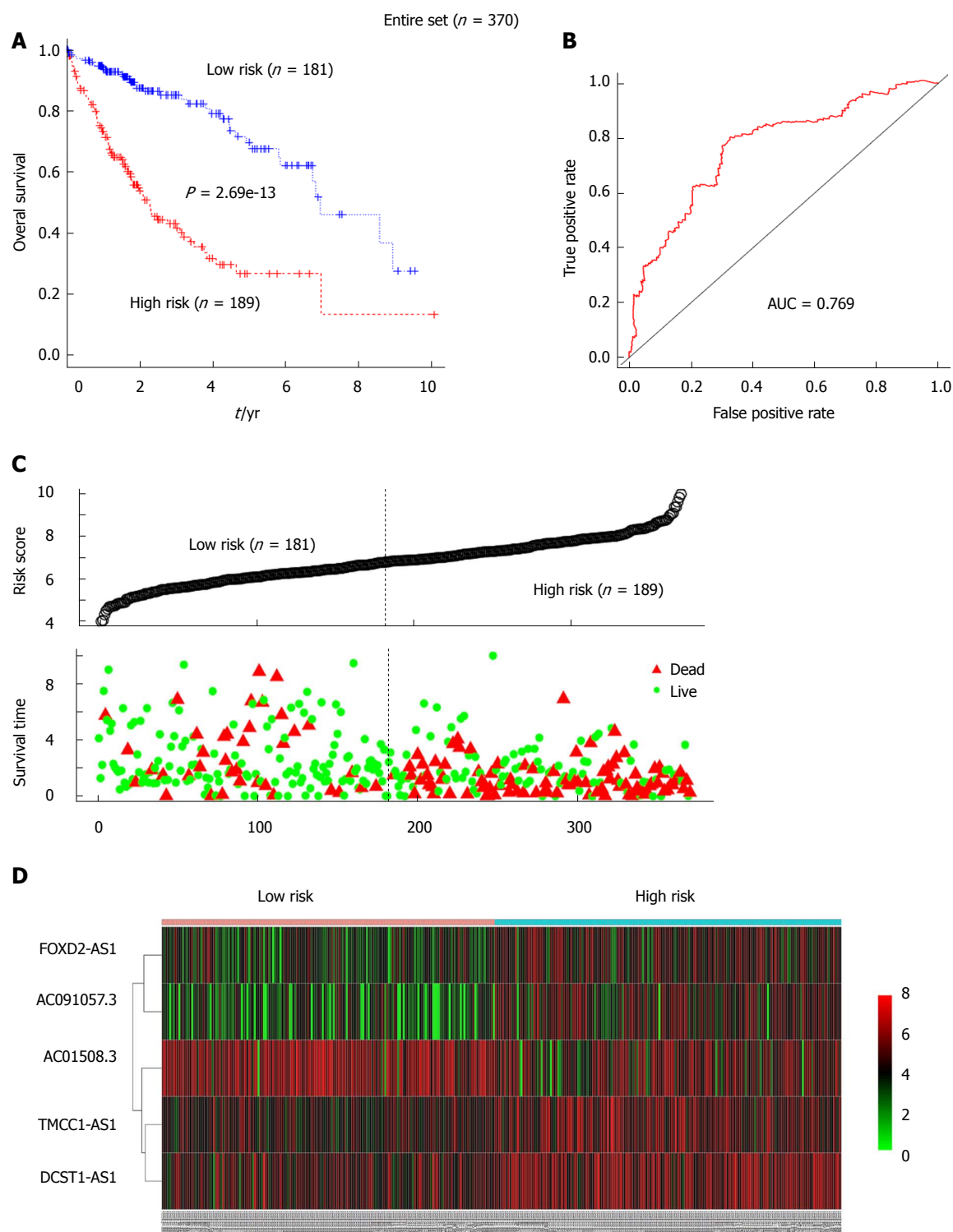


Figure 4 The prognostic value of the 5-long non-coding RNA signature for the hepatocellular carcinoma patients in the entire set ($n = 370$). A: Kaplan-Meier analysis of patients' overall survival in the high-risk ($n = 189$) and low-risk subgroups ($n = 181$) for the entire set; B: The receiver operating characteristic analysis of the risk score for predicting the overall survival of the test set; C: The 5-long non-coding RNA (5-lncRNA)-based risk score distribution, patient survival status; D: Heatmap of the 5-lncRNA expression profiles in the high-risk and low-risk subgroups for the entire set.

as important regulators of diverse cellular functions. lncRNAs have been shown to regulate the expression and function of protein-coding genes at the chromatin, transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels^[31]. Many studies have revealed the contribution of lncRNAs in cancer development, indicating their potential as novel biomarkers for cancer diagnosis and prognosis^[32-35].

lncRNA signatures for prognostic prediction prognoses have been developed for many cancers including renal cancer, glioblastoma, and colorectal cancer, among others^[18-21]. Regarding HCC, the existing gene signatures for survival prediction have focused mostly on mRNAs and microRNAs. Several potential lncRNA biomarkers associated with the progression and

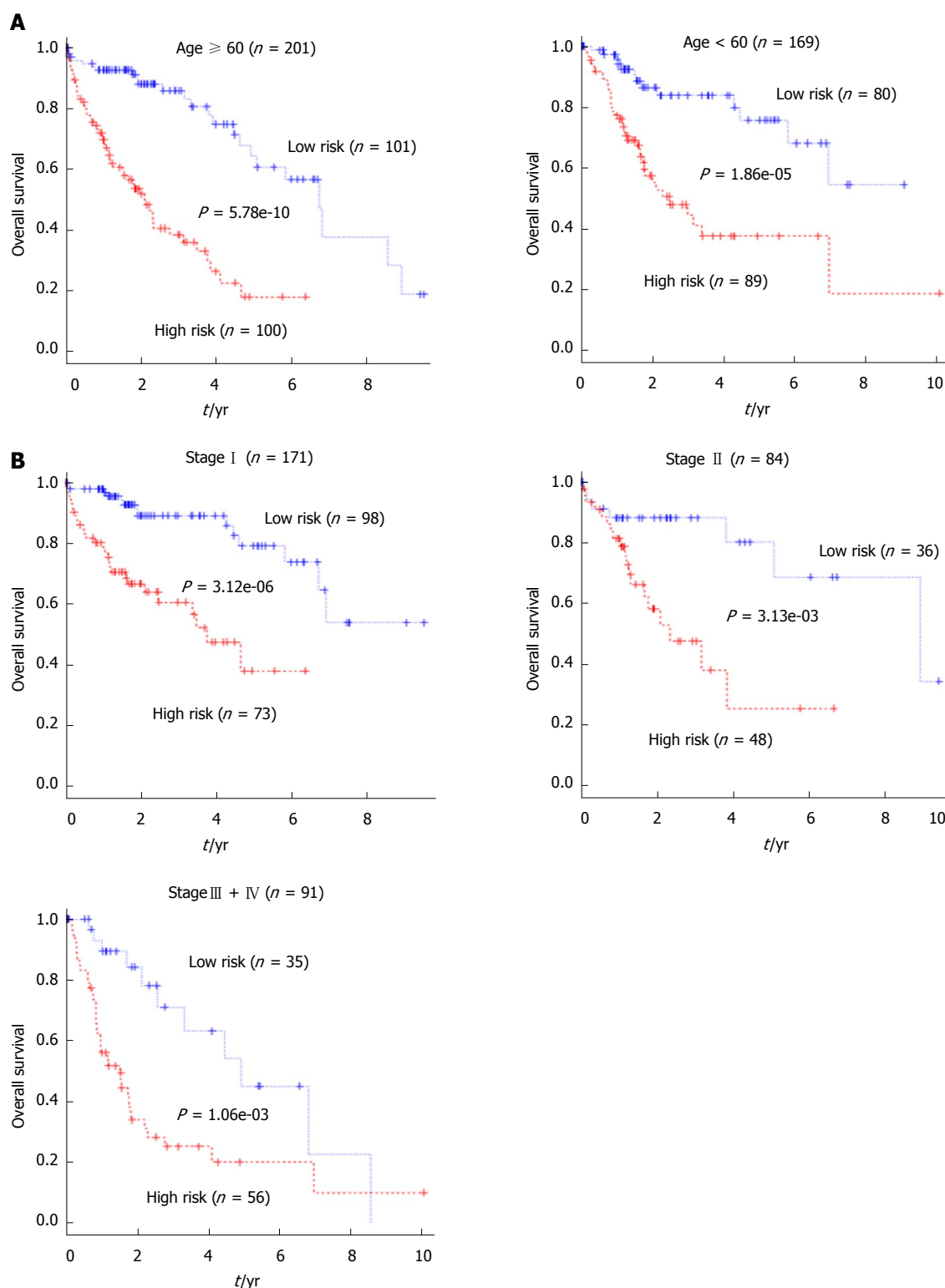


Figure 5 Stratification analyses of the prognostic value of the 5-long non-coding RNA signature-based risk score for all 370 hepatocellular carcinoma patients in the entire set. A: Kaplan-Meier analysis of the overall survival of hepatocellular carcinoma patients < 60 or ≥ 60 years old; B: Kaplan-Meier analysis of the overall survival of patients with different pathological stages.

prognosis of HCC have been identified, such as TSLNC8, HOXD-AS1 and CACS2^[36-38]. These lncRNAs are thought to impact HCC progression through their regulation of tumor cell proliferation, EMT, apoptosis and migration. Although many of these lncRNAs are closely associated

with the prognosis and survival of HCC patients, their prognostic value has been tested only in small-scale studies; they have not yet been validated in a large clinical cohort. Until now, relatively few comprehensive lncRNA signatures for the prediction of HCC survival

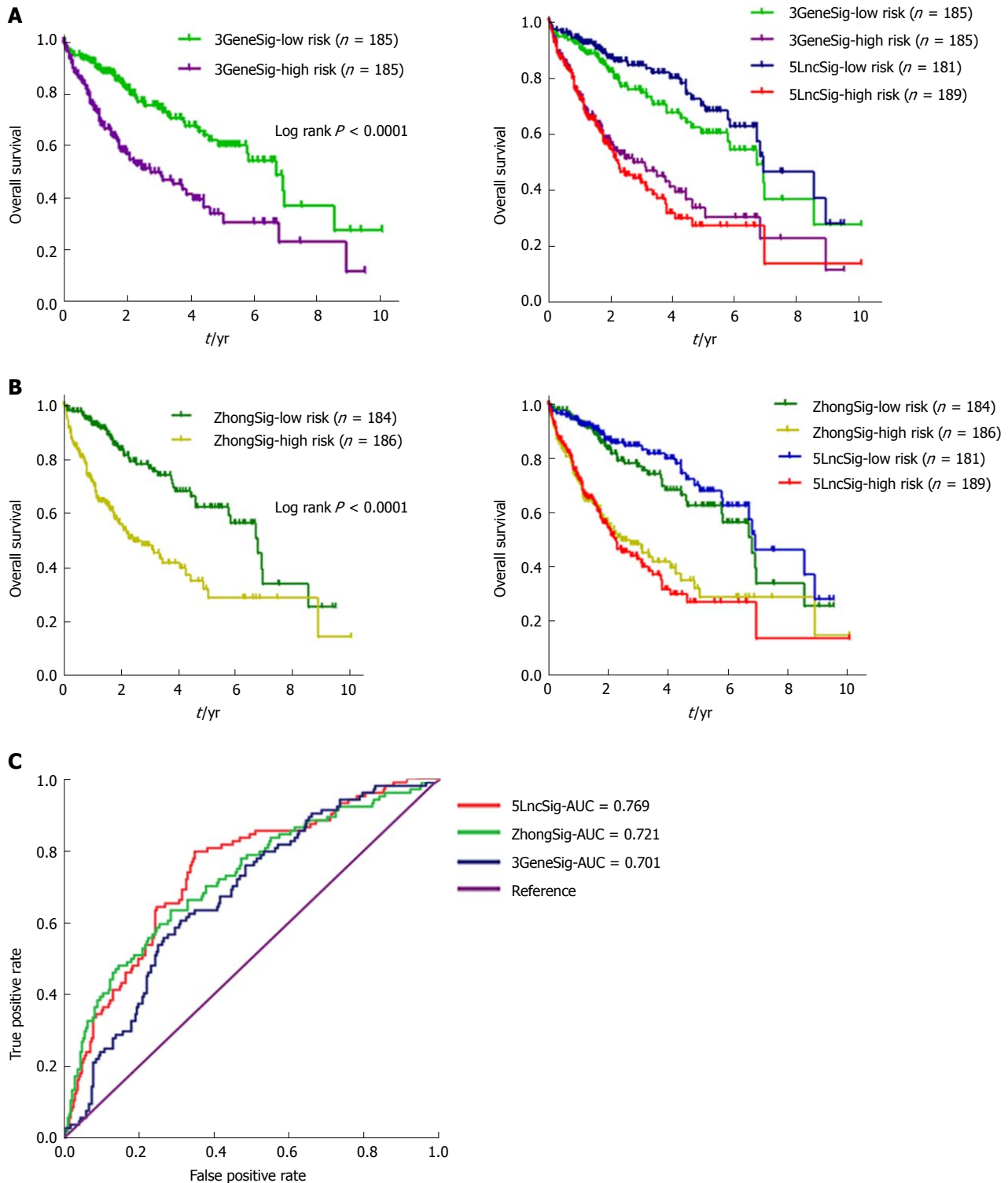


Figure 6 Comparison of the sensitivity and specificity for hepatocellular carcinoma survival prediction by the 5-long non-coding RNA signature and two existing signatures in the entire set. **A:** Kaplan-Meier analysis of patients' overall survival in the high-risk ($n = 185$) and low-risk ($n = 185$) subgroups based on the 3GeneSig in the entire set (left panel) and comparison of the survival difference based on the 5 long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) signature and the 3GeneSig by Kaplan-Meier analysis (right panel); **B:** Kaplan-Meier analysis of patients' overall survival in the high-risk ($n = 186$) and low-risk ($n = 184$) subgroups based on the ZhongSig in the entire set (left panel) and comparison of the survival difference based on the 5 lncRNA signature and the ZhongSig (right panel); **C:** The ROC analysis of overall survival for the 5-lncRNA signature, ZhongSig and 3GeneSig.

have been constructed^[26]. TCGA is an open-access database including samples from hundreds of patients with various malignancies. In the present study, we downloaded the RNA sequencing data of the TCGA LIHC

cohort and acquired lncRNA expression profiles for HCC patients in the dataset. Using univariate and stepwise multivariate Cox regression analyses, we developed a prognostic formula for HCC based on the expression

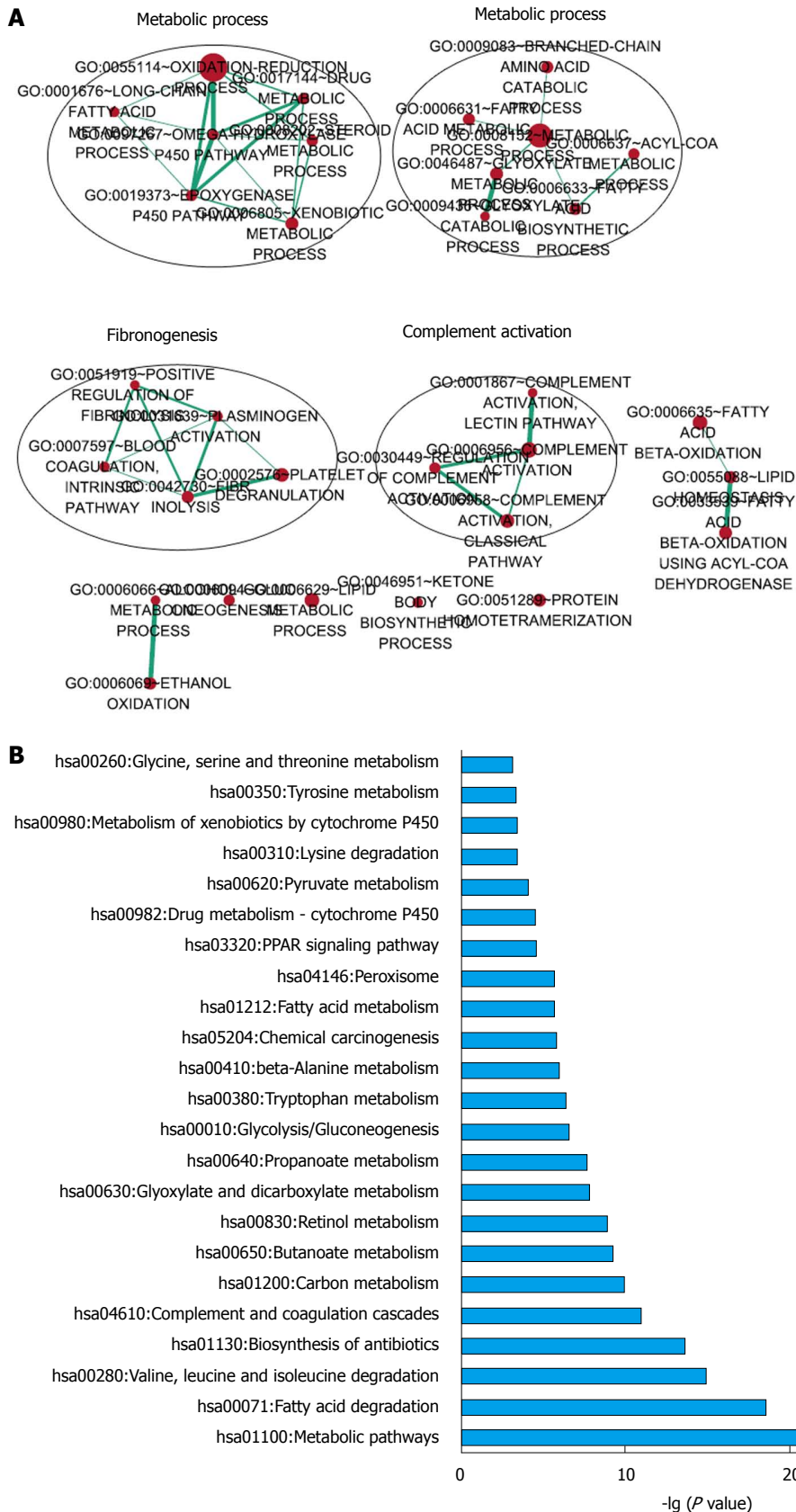


Figure 7 Functional enrichment analysis of the 5-long non-coding RNA based on their correlated protein-coding genes. A: Functional enrichment map of significantly enriched gene ontology terms; B: KEGG pathways significantly associated with the correlated protein-coding genes.

of 5 lncRNAs including AC015908.3, AC091057.3, TMCC1-AS1, DCST1-AS1 and FOXD2-AS1. In the

training set, HCC patients with high-risk scores based on the 5-lncRNA signature had a significantly reduced

survival time compared to those with low-risk scores. The prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature for HCC patients was further validated in the test group and the entire group, with robust and reproducible predictive indices. The results of these analyses suggest that the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA-based risk model is robust and reliable for predicting survival in HCC patients.

In the present study, when adjusted using multivariate Cox regression analyses, age (only for the entire set), pathological stage and the 5-lncRNA signature were shown to independently predict the survival of HCC patients. The results of stratification analyses demonstrated that the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature remained significant and robust in HCC subgroups stratified by age and pathological stage. In an attempt to further validate its prognostic value in other HCC cohorts, we downloaded data from several GEO datasets. Unfortunately, most of the 5 lncRNA probes could not be found. There are many existing prognostic signatures for HCC, and we therefore compared our 5-lncRNA signature with two recently developed signatures: a 3-gene signature and a 4-lncRNA signature. The results indicate that the predictive performance of the 5-lncRNA signature was superior to that of the other two signatures for HCC overall survival.

To the best of our knowledge, the functions of these 5 lncRNAs have not been reported. Functional enrichment analysis revealed that the protein-coding genes that were significantly correlated with these 5lncRNAs are enriched for metabolic processes, fibrinolysis and complement activation. KEGG pathway analysis revealed that these genes are enriched in pathways related to metabolism. These results suggest that the 5 lncRNAs may participate in the initiation and progression of HCC through these pathways. However, further studies are needed to investigate and validate the functions of these 5 lncRNAs.

In conclusion, our present study developed a 5-lncRNA signature for predicting the prognosis of HCC patients. The signature was reproducible and robust in a second independent large-scale HCC cohort, supporting its value and effectiveness. In addition, the prognostic value of the 5-lncRNA signature was independent of clinicopathological variables. Our study indicates that the 5-lncRNA signature could improve survival prediction and could be used as a prognostic biomarker for HCC patients.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the sixth most commonly diagnosed cancer in the world. Although treatment for HCC, including surgical resection, has improved over the past decades, its overall survival rate remains devastatingly high due to its high rate of recurrence. Because HCC is a heterogeneous disease with substantially variable clinical outcomes, the search for effective biomarkers to predict recurrence and prognosis is crucial.

Research motivation

Recent studies have demonstrated the importance of long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) in physiological and pathological cellular processes. Increasing evidence suggests that lncRNA dysregulation is associated with various human diseases, particularly the initiation and progression of various human cancers. For patients with HCC, most of the existing prognostic signatures have focused on mRNAs or microRNAs, and only a few lncRNA signatures have been developed. In the present study, we aimed to construct a lncRNA signature for the prediction of HCC prognosis with high efficiency.

Research objectives

To construct a lncRNA signature for the prediction of HCC prognosis with high efficiency.

Research methods

Differentially expressed lncRNAs (DELs) between HCC specimens and peritumor liver specimens were acquired from the The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) LIHC dataset using the edgeR package. Univariate Cox proportional hazards regression was performed to identify the DELs that were significantly associated with overall survival for the training set. The stepwise multivariate Cox regression model was applied. Those lncRNAs fitted in the multivariate Cox regression model and independently associated with overall survival were chosen to build a prognostic risk formula. The prognostic value of this formula was validated in the test group and the full cohort and further compared with two previously developed prognostic signatures for HCC.

Research results

We identified a five-lncRNA prognostic signature from the TCGA dataset and determined that its prognostic value was independent from clinicopathological factors. The signature was reproducible and robust in another independent large-scale HCC cohort, supporting its utility and effectiveness.

Research conclusions

This study constructed a 5-lncRNA signature that improves survival prediction, and can be used as a prognostic biomarker for HCC patients.

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Retrospective Study

Application of modified primary closure of the pelvic floor in laparoscopic extralevator abdominal perineal excision for low rectal cancer

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Author contributions: Wang YL and Dai Y designed the study; Wang YL, Zhang X and Dai Y performed the surgery; Mao JJ performed subject follow up and control subject data collection; Zhang WQ and Dong SH performed the statistical analysis; Zhang X, Zhang FP, Dong H and Zhang WJ wrote the manuscript; Wang YL, Zhang X, Mao JJ, Zhang WQ, Dong H, Zhang FP, Dong SH, Zhang WJ, Dai Y revised the manuscript for final submission.

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Conflict-of-interest statement: The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest related to this study.

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Abstract

AIM

To introduce a novel, modified primary closure technique of laparoscopic extralevator abdominal perineal excision (LELAP) for low rectal cancer.

METHODS

We retrospectively analyzed data from 76 patients with rectal cancer who underwent LELAP from March 2013 to May 2016. Patients were classified into the modified primary closure group (32 patients) and the biological mesh closure group (44 patients). The total operating time, reconstruction time, postoperative stay duration, total cost, postoperative complications and tumor recur-

rence were compared.

RESULTS

All surgery was successfully performed. The pelvic reconstruction time was 14.6 ± 3.7 min for the modified primary closure group, which was significantly longer than that of the biological mesh closure group (7.2 ± 1.9 min, $P < 0.001$). The total operating time was not different between the two groups (236 ± 20 min *vs* 248 ± 43 min, $P = 0.143$). The postoperative hospital stay duration was 8.1 ± 1.9 d, and the total cost was 9297 ± 1260 USD for the modified primary closure group. Notably, both of these categories were significantly lower in this group than those of the biological mesh closure group ($P = 0.001$ and $P = 0.003$, respectively). There were no differences observed between groups when comparing other perioperative data, long-term complications or oncological outcomes.

CONCLUSION

The modified primary closure method for reconstruction of the pelvic floor in LELAPE for low rectal cancer is technically feasible, safe and cost-effective.

Key words: Extralevator abdominoperineal excision; Rectal cancer; Pelvic floor; Laparoscopy

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Core tip: The modified primary closure approach requires laparoscopic closure of the pelvic peritoneum and layered closure of the perineal defect. By using this modified approach, the length of hospital stay and the total cost were decreased significantly, while other clinical outcomes did not differ, except for a relatively longer time for pelvic reconstruction (14.6 ± 3.7 min *vs* 7.2 ± 1.9 min). We conclude that the modified primary closure method for reconstruction of the pelvic floor in laparoscopic extralevator abdominal perineal excision for low rectal cancer is technically feasible, safe and cost-effective.

Wang YL, Zhang X, Mao JJ, Zhang WQ, Dong H, Zhang FP, Dong SH, Zhang WJ, Dai Y. Application of modified primary closure of the pelvic floor in laparoscopic extralevator abdominal perineal excision for low rectal cancer. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3440-3447 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3440.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i30.3440>

INTRODUCTION

To improve the oncological outcome of patients with low rectal cancer, extralevator abdominal perineal excision (ELAPE) has been introduced to reduce the rate of positive circumferential margin and intraoperative perforation^[1-4]. Assisted by laparoscopy, ELAPE can minimize physical invasion while ensuring oncological

benefits^[5,6]. However, the extended resection of ELAPE may increase the risk of severe perineal wound complications, including perineal hernia, with a reported incidence of 20%-26%^[7]. Thus, how to reconstruct the pelvic floor and close the perineum after massive resection has become a major concern and challenge in laparoscopic ELAPE (LELAPE). The established reconstruction methods include: primary perineal closure, omentoplasty, biological or synthetic mesh placement, myocutaneous flaps, and negative wound pressure therapy^[8-12]. These methods all have their own advantages as well as restrictions, and no consensus has been reached so far. In traditional abdominoperineal resection (APR), the pelvic peritoneum is usually closed prior to reconstruction of the pelvic floor, in order to separate the small intestine from the presacral operating field, which is technically challenging in LELAPE. We have recently modified the primary closure technique by adding the laparoscopic pelvic peritoneum suture procedure, and applied it to LELAPE. In the present study, we compare this method with biological mesh closure in the reconstruction of the pelvic floor after LELAPE, and evaluate its feasibility, safety and cost-effectiveness.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study design

We retrospectively analyzed the data from 76 patients with rectal cancer undergoing LELAPE from March 2013 to May 2016. Patients were classified into the modified primary closure group (32 patients) and the biological mesh closure group (44 patients). Total operating time, reconstruction time, postoperative stay duration, total cost, postoperative complications and tumor recurrence were compared. The protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Qilu Hospital, Shandong University, Jinan, China.

General procedure

We have described the LELAPE procedure in a previous report^[13]. The abdominal procedure was performed with the patient being placed in the Trendelenburg position, and the port placement was set up as shown in Figure 1A. After laparoscopic exploration, dissection and division of the pedicle of the inferior mesenteric vessels were performed. The sigmoid colon was mobilized from medial to lateral, and the rectum was mobilized following the total mesorectal excision principle. The sigmoid mesentery was trimmed at the rectosigmoid junction, where the rectum was transected with an endoscopic linear stapler (Figure 1B). The distal rectum and mesorectum were pushed down to the pelvic cavity (Figure 1C).

Modified primary closure

For modified primary closure, the pelvic peritoneum was closed with continuous suturing using a barbed suture (Covidien, Shanghai, China) (Figure 1D and E) before

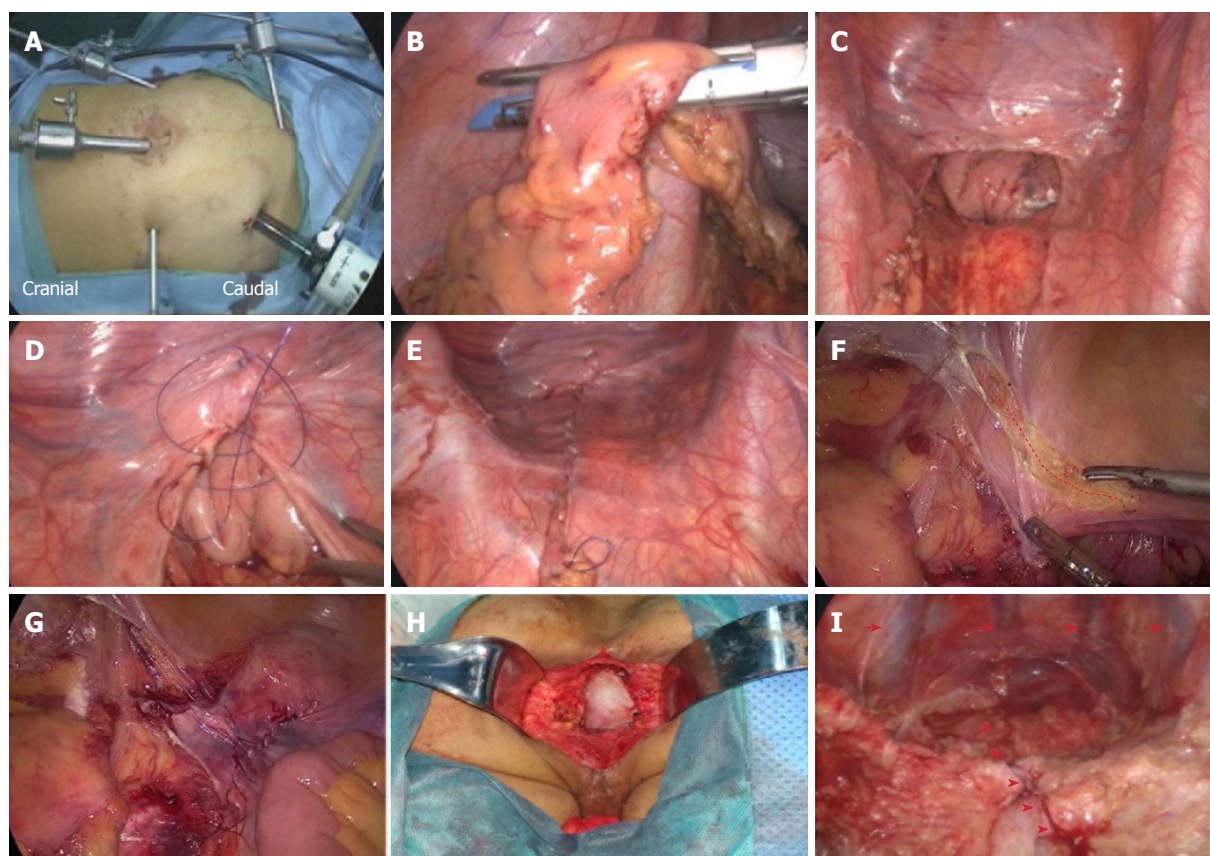


Figure 1 Surgical procedures. A: Port placement; B: Transection of the rectum at the rectosigmoid junction with an ENDO-GIA; C: Distal rectum pushed down to the pelvis; D: Closure of the pelvic peritoneum with a continuous suture using a barbed thread; E: Closure of the pelvic peritoneum; F: Tension reduction of the adjacent peritoneum (the dotted line shows the incised peritoneum); G: Closure of the peritoneum after tension reduction (the dotted line shows the incised peritoneum); H: Reconstruction of the pelvic floor with biological mesh; I: View of the closed peritoneum from the perineal wound in the prone position (the arrows show the presacral veins, and the arrowheads show the closed peritoneum).

creation of a colostomy. For tension-free suturing, the adjacent pelvic peritoneum was dissected to reduce tension if necessary (Figure 1F and G). The patient was turned over to the prone jackknife position. The levator ani was transected at its origin, and a cylindrical specimen was removed. The procedure was completed with both the placement of one negative-pressure drainage tube in the presacral space, and the layered closure of the ischiorectal fat and skin. The drainage tube was removed when the drainage fluid was clear and < 10 mL in volume. The coccyx was not routinely removed.

Biological mesh closure

For biological mesh closure, the patient was changed into a prone position for perineal dissection after creation of a colostomy. The levator ani was transected at its origin, and a cylindrical specimen was removed. A human acellular dermal matrix mesh (Ruinuo, Qingyuanweiyue Bio-Tissue Engineering Ltd., Beijing, China) was implanted and fixed to the tendinous arch by continuous prolene sutures (Covidien) for reconstruction of the pelvic floor (Figure 1H). The procedure was completed with both the placement of one negative-pressure drainage tube below the mesh, and the layered closure of the ischiorectal fat and skin. All the operations were finished

by the same surgical group.

Statistical analysis

Numerical data were expressed as mean \pm SD and analyzed with Student's *t* tests. Categorical data were analyzed with the χ^2 test or Fisher's exact test. Repeated measures analysis of variance was performed for postoperative drainage and temperature change. All analyses were performed using SPSS 19.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, United States). *P* < 0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

The baseline characteristics, including male/female ratio, age, body mass index, neoadjuvant therapy, distance to anal verge, and postoperative TNM staging, were comparable between the two groups (*P* > 0.05 each, Table 1). All patients were successfully followed up postoperatively for one year.

All operations were successfully performed without serious intraoperative complications. The pelvic reconstruction time was 14.6 ± 3.7 min for the modified primary closure group, which was significantly longer than that of the biological mesh closure group ($7.2 \pm$

Table 1 Baseline characteristics.

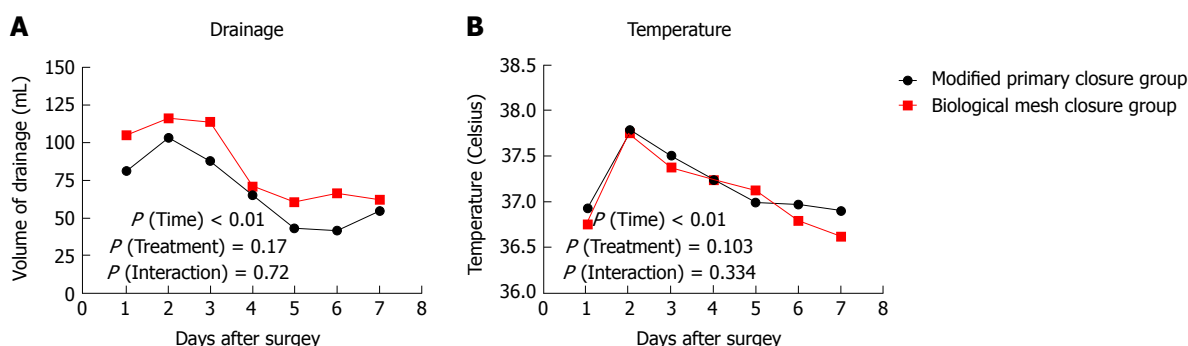
	Modified primary closure (<i>n</i> = 32)	Biological mesh closure (<i>n</i> = 44)	<i>P</i> value
Male/female	24/8	31/13	0.662
Age (yr)	52.8 ± 12.2	58.2 ± 12.5	0.137
BMI	26.8 ± 3.2	25.7 ± 2.7	0.097
Neoadjuvant therapy	8	7	0.326
Tumor location, Distance to anal verge (cm)	2.6 ± 0.8	2.8 ± 0.9	0.278
Postoperative TNM staging			
II	23	29	0.581
III	9	15	

BMI: Body mass index.

Table 2 Perioperative data.

	Modified primary closure (<i>n</i> = 32)	Biological mesh closure (<i>n</i> = 44)	<i>P</i> value
Reconstruction time (min)	14.6 ± 3.7	7.2 ± 1.9	< 0.001
Total operative time (min)	236 ± 20	248 ± 43	0.143
Intraoperative blood loss (mL)	165 ± 57	149 ± 52	0.242
Positive CRM	0	0	N/A
Bowel perforation	0	1	1.000
Recovery of bowel function (h)	22.8 ± 4.7	23.6 ± 5.0	0.475
Intestinal obstruction	0	1	1.000
Drainage removal (days after surgery)	6.6 ± 1.1	7.3 ± 2.0	0.094
Postoperative hospital stay (d)	8.1 ± 1.9	10.1 ± 2.8	0.001
Cost (USD)	9297 ± 1260	10719 ± 2360	0.003

CRM: Circumferential margin; USD: United States Dollar.

**Figure 2** Drainage and temperature changes. A: Postoperative drainage volumes in the two groups; B: Postoperative temperature changes in the two groups.

1.9 min, $P < 0.001$). The total operating time did not differ between the two groups (236 ± 20 min vs 248 ± 43 min, $P = 0.143$). One patient in the biological mesh closure group developed bowel perforation due to a large tumor within the anterior wall of the rectum. No positive circumferential margin was observed in either group. Intraoperative blood loss and recovery of bowel function were comparable between the two groups (both $P > 0.05$) (Table 2). The drainage tube was removed postoperatively at 6.6 ± 1.1 d in the modified primary closure group, which was earlier than in the biological mesh closure group (7.3 ± 2.0 d, $P = 0.094$). The volume of drainage fluid peaked at 2 d postoperatively and then decreased gradually, without any difference between the two groups (P treatment > 0.05, P interaction > 0.05)

(Figure 2A). The temperature changes after operation showed a similar pattern to drainage volume, with no difference between the groups (P treatment > 0.05, P interaction > 0.05) (Figure 2B). Postoperative hospital stay was 8.1 ± 1.9 d, and the total cost was 9297 ± 1260 USD for the modified primary closure group. Both of these categories in this group were significantly less than those of the biological mesh closure group ($P = 0.001$ and $P = 0.003$, respectively) (Table 2). One patient in the biological mesh closure group developed postoperative intestinal obstruction at 40 d. Conservative therapy did not work, and a laparoscopic exploration was performed at 42 d. The middle part of the ileum, approximately 100 cm to the ileocecal junction, adhered to the pelvic floor, leading to dilation of the proximal small intestine

Table 3 Follow-up data

	Modified primary closure (<i>n</i> = 32)	Biological mesh closure (<i>n</i> = 44)	<i>P</i> value
Normal perineal wound healing ¹			
10 d postoperatively	29	39	0.546
30 d postoperatively	27	41	0.270
60 d postoperatively	32	44	1.000
Perineal wound infection	5	5	0.734
Clear or haemoserous discharge	3	1	0.304
Pus/purulent discharge	1	2	1.000
Deep infection with or without tissue breakdown	1	2	1.000
Postoperative perineal hernia (12 mo)	0	0	N/A
Postoperative feeling of bulge (12 mo)	4	2	0.233
Postoperative chemotherapy	23	28	0.330
Postoperative radiotherapy	7	14	0.339
Postoperative local recurrence (12 mo)	0	1	1
Postoperative liver/lung metastasis (12 mo)	2	3	1
Postoperative death (12 mo)	0	0	N/A

¹Grade 0 or Grade I by the Southampton Wound Scoring System.

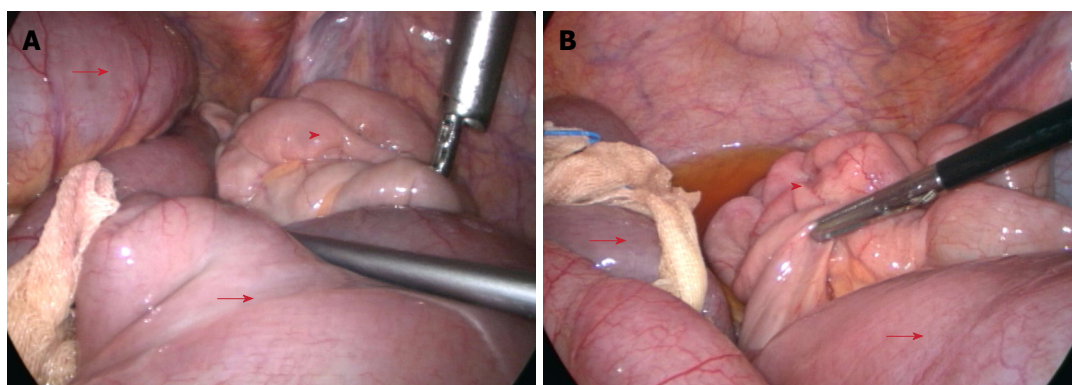


Figure 3 Laparoscopy. Laparoscopic exploration of the abdominal cavity in the patient with intestinal obstruction (the arrow shows the proximal dilated small intestine, and the arrowhead shows the distal normal small intestine).

(Figure 3). The patient was healed by decompression of the small intestine and intestinal rearrangement under laparotomy.

In the modified primary closure group, five patients had perineal wound infection. Within the first 10 d postoperatively, three patients had haemoserous discharge from the perineal wound, and were healed following potassium permanganate hip bath after 1 mo. At 12 d, one patient showed purulent discharge, which was solved after daily dressing change and thermal therapy. At 15 d, the perineal wound broke down in one female patient with type 2 diabetes. Debridement and secondary suturing were performed at 33 d after daily dressing change. Likewise, in the biological mesh closure group, five patients had perineal wound infection within the first 10 d (Table 3), and recovered within 60 d after appropriate treatment. No difference in infection rate or grade was found between the two groups ($P > 0.05$ each). Perineal hernia is theoretically expected to be more frequent without the placement of meshes. However, at 12 mo postoperatively, no perineal hernia occurred in either of the groups. Notably, four patients in the modified primary closure group and two in the

biological mesh group experienced the feeling of bulging. Computed tomography at 12 mo showed that in the modified primary closure group, the small intestine was kept in the pelvic cavity with a clear descent of the pelvic peritoneum. In the biological mesh group, without suturing the pelvic peritoneum, the small intestine was also kept in the presacral space. No obvious postoperative differences were detected in the computed tomography scans between the two groups at 12 mo (Figure 4).

Postoperative chemotherapy (the XELOX or FOLFOX regimen) and radiotherapy were given to 23 and seven patients in the modified primary closure group, as well as 28 and 14 patients in the biological mesh closure group, respectively ($P = 0.330$ and $P = 0.339$). In the biological mesh closure group, local recurrence occurred in one patient, who received only postoperative chemotherapy with the XELOX regimen, and the patient was subsequently treated with radiotherapy. Three patients had minor liver metastases and were cured with local ablative treatment. In the modified primary closure group, minor lung metastasis and minor liver metastases were found in two patients, respectively. Both of these

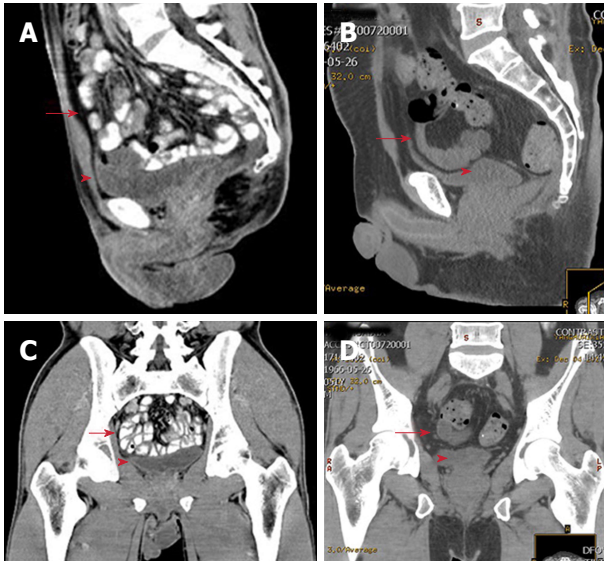


Figure 4 Postoperative magnetic resonance imaging. A: Twelve-month postoperative Sagittal CT scan in the modified primary closure group; B: Twelve-month postoperative Sagittal CT scan in the biological mesh closure group; C: Twelve-month postoperative Coronal CT scan in the modified primary closure group; D: Twelve-month postoperative Coronal CT scan in the biological mesh closure group (the arrow shows the small intestine, and the arrowhead shows the bladder). CT: Computed tomography.

patients received local ablative treatment. No patients died in either of the two groups.

DISCUSSION

The necessity of reconstruction of the pelvic floor after ELAPE has been widely accepted in order to avoid postoperative perineal complications^[14,15]. However, the feasibility and superiority of various methods proposed for this reconstruction remain to be investigated. In the present study, we compared two methods, modified primary closure and biological mesh closure, in 76 patients with lower rectal cancer undergoing LELAPE. The major findings were that modified primary closure required longer reconstruction time, shorter postoperative hospital stay and was more cost-effective when compared to biological mesh closure. No difference in other perioperative data, long-term complications or oncological outcomes was observed.

Various methods have been developed for perineal wound healing after ELAPE. Of these, perineal closure with myocutaneous flaps, biological or synthetic mesh placement, and omentoplasty with perineal closure are currently the most widely performed^[8-12]. Myocutaneous flaps can be obtained by various approaches, including gluteal rotation/advancement flaps^[16], inferior gluteal artery myocutaneous island transposition flaps (IGAM)^[17], transverse rectus/vertical rectus abdominis (TRAM/VRAM)^[18,19], and gracilis^[20]. Myocutaneous flaps have the benefit of delivering good perfusion and oxygenation, thus facilitating the healing process of large perineal defects. However, this approach requires plastic surgeons and may cause additional complications (e.g., a donor

site hernia)^[14]. Mesh repair has the advantage of reducing operative duration, and is therefore more cost-effective compared to myocutaneous flaps^[21]. However, it should be noted that the inertness of biomesh might be a reason for small bowel obstruction^[22], and synthetic mesh carries the potential for fistula formation^[23]. By contrast, omentoplasty with perineal closure represents a safer approach for the reconstruction of the pelvic floor. Owing to its rich lymphovascular supply, the mobilized omentum in the pelvic cavity inhibits regional fluid collection, and hence prevents small intestine adhesion to the pelvic floor, thus dramatically reducing related complications^[24]. For some patients, this technique may not apply when it is not technically feasible to mobilize the omentum to reach the pelvic cavity, or when the omentum has been resected previously.

The major strength of the modified primary closure method is the reconstruction of the pelvic peritoneum, which keeps the small intestine in the abdominal and pelvic cavities, thus avoiding adhesion to extraperitoneal tissues. In the present study, one case of intestinal obstruction in the biological mesh closure group appeared, which was caused by adhesion of the small intestine to the pelvic floor. However, the rate of postoperative intestinal obstruction did not show any difference between the two groups, which is likely due to insufficient study power. Compared with biological mesh closure, modified primary closure reduced postoperative hospital stay duration and total cost.

The pelvic floor is usually left open after APR due to the concern that incomplete closure of the pelvic floor may cause pelvic floor hernias and intestinal obstruction. However, APR is associated with clinically significant perineal hernias, albeit < 1% of the incidence^[23]. ELAPE requires extensive resection of the pelvic floor, and thus contributes to the development of perineal hernias, with an incidence of 2.8% vs 0.8% compared to traditional APR^[1]. As to LELAPE, perineal hernias could occur in nearly half of the patients without reconstruction of the pelvic floor^[25]. In LELAPE, closure of the pelvic peritoneum is more challenging because the distal rectum has not been removed at that time. When mobilizing the sigmoid and rectum, the peritoneum on both sides should be intentionally preserved for re-approximation of the pelvic peritoneum. One possible concern is that the intentionally preserved peritoneum may lead to compromised oncological outcomes. However, in the present study, the oncological outcomes did not show any difference between the two groups. The rectum should be transected at the sigmoidorectal junction area, or even lower if possible. A continuous suture with barbed thread is recommended to facilitate the procedure. In obese patients, the peripheral peritoneum should be dissected to reduce tension. The perineal wound was directly sutured in layers. No pelvic floor hernias and perineal hernias occurred in all of our patients, with a mean followup of 12 mo. With regard to patients with rigid peritoneums after neoadjuvant radiotherapy or large pelvic peritoneum defects, this procedure may not

be eligible and other reconstructive methods should be applied.

In conclusion, based on our preliminary experience, the modified primary closure method for reconstruction of the pelvic floor is technically feasible, safe and cost-effective. However, as the present study was retrospective, the safety and feasibility of this method still warrants high evidence-level research.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Laparoscopic extralevator abdominal perineal excision (LELAPE) was introduced to reduce the rate of positive circumferential margins and intraoperative perforation, however its extensive dissection requires reconstruction of the pelvic floor.

Research motivation

To introduce a novel modified primary closure technique of LELAPE for low rectal cancer.

Research objectives

To assess the feasibility, safety and cost-effectiveness of the newly introduced technique by comparing it with the traditional method.

Research methods

Data from 76 patients with rectal cancer undergoing LELAPE from March 2013 to May 2016 were retrospectively analyzed. Patients were classified into the modified primary closure group (32 patients) and the biological mesh closure group (44 patients). Total operating time, reconstruction time, postoperative stay duration, total cost, postoperative complications and tumor recurrence were compared.

Research results

The modified primary closure of the pelvic floor requires longer reconstruction time, but total operating time was not different compared with the biological mesh closure group. The postoperative length of hospital stay and the total cost were both less in the modified primary closure group. No differences in other perioperative data, long-term complications or oncological outcomes were observed.

Research conclusions

The modified primary closure method for reconstruction of the pelvic floor in LELAPE for low rectal cancer is technically feasible, safe and cost-effective.

Research perspectives

Future multicentered randomized controlled trials should be performed to confirm the conclusions made in the present study.

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Observational Study

Altered oral microbiota in chronic hepatitis B patients with different tongue coatings

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Author contributions: Hu YY designed the study; Zhao Y and Tang YS performed the tongue coating microbial experiments; Tang YS, Liu QH and Wang Y performed the tongue coating metabolic experiments; Tang YS, Feng Q and Peng JH performed the clinical trial; Mao YF and Ni MZ performed the statistical analyses; Zhao Y wrote the paper.

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Abstract

AIM

To elucidate tongue coating microbiota and metabolic differences in chronic hepatitis B (CHB) patients with yellow or white tongue coatings.

METHODS

Tongue coating samples were collected from 53 CHB

patients (28 CHB yellow tongue coating patients and 25 CHB white tongue coating patients) and 22 healthy controls. Microbial DNA was extracted from the tongue samples, and the bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene V3 region was amplified from all samples and sequenced with the Ion Torrent PGM™ sequencing platform according to the standard protocols. The metabolites in the tongue coatings were evaluated using a liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) platform. Statistical analyses were then performed.

RESULTS

The relative compositions of the tongue coating microbiotas and metabolites in the CHB patients were significantly different from those of the healthy controls, but the tongue coating microbiota abundances and diversity levels were not significantly different. Compared with the CHB white tongue coating patients, the CHB yellow tongue coating patients had higher hepatitis B viral DNA (HBV-DNA) titers (median 21210 *vs* 500, respectively, $P = 0.03$) and a significantly lower level of Bacteroidetes (20.14% *vs* 27.93%, respectively, $P = 0.013$) and higher level of Proteobacteria (25.99% *vs* 18.17%, respectively, $P = 0.045$) in the microbial compositions at the phylum level. The inferred metagenomic pathways enriched in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients were mainly those involved in amino acid metabolism, which was consistent with the metabolic disorder. The abundances of bacteria from Bacteroidales at the order level were higher in the CHB white tongue coating patients (19.2% *vs* 27.22%, respectively, $P = 0.011$), whereas Neisseriales were enriched in the yellow tongue coating patients (21.85% *vs* 13.83%, respectively, $P = 0.029$). At the family level, the abundance of Neisseriaceae in the yellow tongue patients was positively correlated with the HBV-DNA level but negatively correlated with the S-adenosyl-L-methionine level.

CONCLUSION

This research illustrates specific clinical features and bacterial structures in CHB patients with different tongue coatings, which facilitates understanding of the traditional tongue diagnosis.

Key words: 16S rRNA gene sequencing; Metabolomics; Chronic hepatitis B; Tongue diagnosis; Microbiota

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Core tip: Tongue diagnosis has important guiding significance for clinical syndrome differentiation and drug use in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM), but lacks scientific explanations. This study illustrates the existence of specific clinical features and bacterial structure in chronic hepatitis B (CHB) patients with different tongue coatings. Compared with the CHB white tongue coating patients, the yellow tongue coating patients had higher viral titers and a significantly lower level of Bacteroidetes and higher level of Proteobacteria in their microbial compositions at the phylum level. This study explores the micro-features

between different tongue coatings, which will promote our understanding of the TCM tongue diagnosis and facilitate therapeutic strategies for individualized treatment.

Zhao Y, Mao YF, Tang YS, Ni MZ, Liu QH, Wang Y, Feng Q, Peng JH, Hu YY. Altered oral microbiota in chronic hepatitis B patients with different tongue coatings. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3448-3461 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3448.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i30.3448>

INTRODUCTION

Tongue diagnosis is a characteristic diagnostic method of traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) with a long history. TCM believes that the tongue is an important window for changes in the body, which are closely related to the *zang* and *fu* (internal organs), meridians, *qi* and *xue* (blood) and *body fluids*. Therefore, changes of the tongue can help doctors distinguish syndromes and guide diagnoses, which has great significance for clinical treatment *via* TCM. Different tongue coating colors in TCM have different treatment principles. Tongue diagnosis has the advantages of convenience and intuitiveness and represents first-hand information for TCM doctors that should not be neglected. However, the physiological and pathological changes that contribute to the TCM tongue diagnosis have not been elucidated. According to TCM theory, the formation of tongue coating is closely related to *wei-qi* (spleen and stomach). Reports have noted that micro-ecological changes in the local flora are important manifestations of pathological tongue images^[1]. As part of the human microbiome, the oral microbiota can interfere with the gut microbiota and is associated with multiple diseases^[2]. The microbiota can produce metabolites and active ingredients that participate in the regulation of host metabolism and immunity and is closely related to the pathological processes of many diseases. Some reports have found abnormalities in the microbiota or metabolites in pathological tongue coatings^[3,4]. However, integrated analyses of the pathological tongue coating microbiotas and metabolites have rarely been reported. As an important diagnostic factor, elucidating the "intension" of the material basis of tongue coatings and providing the scientific basis for individualized treatment and clinical syndrome differentiation have great significance in TCM.

Chronic hepatitis B (CHB) is a major infectious disease that may lead to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). In China, CHB is a huge health burden, and 60% and 80% of China's liver cirrhosis and HCC patients, respectively, are infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV)^[5]. Intestinal bacteria are widely involved in the pathogenesis of chronic liver diseases, which can affect liver homeostasis based on energy absorption and storage, interfere with bile metabolism, participate in immune regulation and affect other processes^[6].

Some studies have shown that dysbiosis of the oral microbiota may be involved in the development of HBV-induced chronic liver disease. Moreover, key oral-derived phylotypes may invade the gut as opportunistic pathogens and alter the composition of the gut microbiota, and cirrhotic patients have a more limited salivary defenses and worse inflammation than healthy patients^[7]. In China, many patients with chronic liver disease are treated with TCM, which has been reported to decrease the incidence of liver cancer in a recent 15-year follow-up study of 21020 newly diagnosed CHB patients^[8]. Changes in the tongue are important for TCM diagnoses^[9,10], and CHB patients have different tongue coating phenotypes, which most commonly manifested as a yellow or a white tongue coating. These tongue coatings lead to different treatment strategies in TCM. Therefore, we speculate that microbiota differences may exist between CHB patients with different tongue coatings.

In this study, we characterize the microbiota and metabolic compositions of CHB patients with yellow or white tongue coatings and investigate the association between the tongue coating microbiotas, metabolites and host physiological indices to elucidate the differences between CHB patients with yellow and white tongue coatings. These results will contribute to our understanding of the relationship between the tongue coating appearance and the microbiota and metabolic micro-features differences.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

All samples from this study were collected at the Shanghai University of TCM-affiliated Shuguang Hospital in Shanghai, the Nanjing Second Hospital and the Huai'an Fourth People's Hospital in Jiangsu province, People's Republic of China, from 2013 to 2014. The criteria used for the diagnosis of CHB were from the "The Guidelines for the Prevention and Treatment of Chronic Hepatitis B (2010 version)" issued by the Chinese Society of Liver Diseases and the Chinese Society of Infectious Diseases. Healthy age- and gender-matched control subjects were recruited from the Shanghai University of TCM-affiliated Shuguang Hospital Medical Center. We excluded patients who had been on absorbable antibiotics within the past 3 mo; were undergoing periodontal disease treatment; had other viral liver hepatitis, liver cirrhosis, or HCC; were pregnant or lactating women; or had other severe primary diseases. Informed written consent was obtained before the participants' enrollment. This project was approved by the IRB of Shuguang Hospital, which was affiliated with the Shanghai University of TCM (Permit Number: 2012-206-22-01) and conformed to the ethical guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki (2008).

Sample collection

Each subject underwent serum and tongue coating

collection on the same day in the morning before breakfast. For tongue coating collection, all participants were required to rinse their mouth with physiological saline and then were photographed with the tongue diagnostic information acquisition system in a stable light source (Daosh Co., Shanghai, China). Sterile spoons scraped the fixed parts of the tongue surface twice to collect tongue coating samples, which were dissolved in sanitized Eppendorf tubes filled with 2 mL of physiological saline^[4]. Spare samples were stored in a -80 °C freezer. Blood samples were taken for clinical analyses after an overnight fast of at least 10 h.

Biochemical measurements

Clinical and biochemical indices were determined for each patient, including the following: (1) liver and kidney function, including serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), γ -glutamyl transpeptidase (GGT), total bilirubin (TBIL), direct bilirubin (DBIL), albumin (ALB), globulin (GLB), creatinine (Cr), blood urea nitrogen (BUN) and uric acid (UA); (2) lipid profiles, including triglycerides (TG), total cholesterol (TC), high-density lipoprotein (HDL) and low-density lipoprotein (LDL); (3) clotting function, including the prothrombin time (PT); and (4) virological indicators, including hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), hepatitis B surface antibody (HBsAb), hepatitis Be antigen (HBeAg), hepatitis Be antibody (HBeAb), hepatitis B core antibody (HBcAb) and the HBV-DNA titers were determined for each patient.

Tongue coating microbial diversity analysis

DNA extraction and PCR amplification: Microbial DNA was extracted from the tongue samples using a QIAGEN QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (50) according to manufacturer's protocols. The V3 region of the bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene was amplified by PCR (95 °C for 2 min, followed by 25 cycles at 95 °C for 30 s, 55 °C for 30 s and 72 °C for 30 s and a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min) using the primers 341F (5'-CCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG-3') and 518R (5'-ATTACCGGCTGCTGG-3'), which included a barcode that was an eight-base sequence unique to each sample. The PCR reactions were performed in triplicate with a 20 μ L mixture containing 4 μ L of 5 \times FastPfu buffer, 2 μ L of 2.5 mmol/L dNTPs, 0.8 μ L of each primer (5 μ mol/L), 0.4 μ L of KAPA HiFi Polymerase, and 10 ng of template DNA.

Ion Torrent PGM™ sequencing: Amplicons were extracted from 2% agarose gels, purified using the AxyPrep DNA Gel Extraction Kit (Axygen Biosciences, Union City, CA, United States) according to the manufacturer's instructions and then quantified using the Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen, United States). Purified amplicons were pooled at equimolar concentrations and sequenced on an Ion Torrent PGM™ platform according to standard protocols. The raw reads were deposited

into the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database (Accession Number: SRP127002).

Processing of sequencing data: Raw FASTQ files were demultiplexed and quality-filtered using the fastx_Toolkit (version 0.0.13.2) with the following criteria. The 200 bp reads were truncated at any site receiving an average quality score < 20, and truncated reads that were shorter than 50 bp were discarded. Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were clustered with 97% similarity cutoff using UCHIME (version 7.1 <http://drive5.com/uparse/>), with also identified and removed chimeric sequences. The taxonomy of each 16S rRNA gene sequence was analyzed using the RDP Classifier (<http://rdp.cme.msu.edu/>) against the SILVA (SSU123) 16S rRNA database with a confidence threshold of 70%^[11].

Metabolomic profiling of human tongue coating samples

Sample preparations: The tongue coating samples were thawed on ice, and quality control (QC) samples were made by mixing and blending equal volumes (20 μ L) of each sample. A 100 μ L aliquot of the samples was added to 500 μ L of 100% methanol, which was vibrated for 30 s and centrifuged at 15000 *g* for 10 min. The supernatant was dried in a vacuum centrifuge at 30 °C. The dried samples were dissolved in 300 μ L of water/methanol (1:1, 4 °C) and filtered through a 0.22 μ m membrane. A 3 μ L aliquot of tongue coating was injected for LC-MS analysis, and another 100 μ L was sampled for subsequent MS/MS identification.

LC-MS experiments: A Waters ACQUITY UPLC system analysis was performed on an ACQUITY UPLC® HSS T3 column (150 mm \times 2.1 mm, 1.8 μ m particle size; Waters Corporation, Milford, MA, United States) for separation of samples using a binary gradient mode. The sample was eluted with a gradient mobile phase composed of 0.1% (v/v) formic acid/water (A) and 0.1% (v/v) formic acid/acetonitrile (B) as follows: 0-1 min, 2% B; 1-11 min, linear increase from 2 to 50% B; 11-17 min, linear increase from 50 to 98% B; 17-18 min, 98% B; 18-19 min, linear decrease from 98 to 2% B and 19-20 min, 2% B. The flow rate was set to 0.3 mL/min. The column and sample-tray temperatures were maintained at 35 and 8 °C, respectively.

A Thermo Scientific™ LTQ XL™ mass spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA, United States) was combined with electrospray ionization (ESI) operating in both the negative and positive ion modes. The positive ionization mode was operated using a spray voltage of 4.8 kV, and the negative ionization mode used a spray voltage of 4.50 kV. The capillary temperature was 325 °C, and the sheath gas and auxiliary gas were set at flow rates of 45 and 10 L/min, respectively. The mass scanning range was set at 89-1000 *m/z* in positive ionization mode and 87-1000 *m/z* in negative ionization mode.

Data processing and metabolite identification: The raw LC-MS data files were converted into the mzXML

format and then analyzed by the XCMS program in the R statistical language (v3.1.1) for peak identification, filtering and alignment. For the subsequent multivariate linear regression analysis, the XCMS results were ultimately converted into two-dimensional data matrices that consisted of retention time (Rt)-*m/z* pairs and their peak area. The data were normalized by their sum peak areas, and 1043 positive ion mode variables and 540 negative ion mode variables were finally obtained for the subsequent analysis.

Metabolites driving the differences among the 3 groups were filtered with a variable importance (VIP) > 1, a correlation *P*(corr) > 0.4, and a threshold of 1 using the 7-fold cross-validated partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) model. By using retention time-*m/z* pairs as the identifiers for each ion, we examined and optimized the parameters individually. The possible identities of the metabolites were first confirmed based on their exact molecular weights (molecular weight error < 15 ppm), followed by the comparison of their exact molecular weight and MS/MS fragmentation patterns to entries in the Human Metabolome Database (HMDB) (<http://www.hmdb.ca>) and the METLIN (<https://metlin.scripps.edu>), MassBank (<http://www.massbank.jp>) and mzCloud (<https://www.mzcloud.org>) databases.

Statistical analysis

We compared the clinical difference among the 3 groups using the Kruskal-Wallis test and the Nemenyi test was used for post-pairwise comparisons. The HBV-DNA titers between the CHB yellow and white tongue coating patients and the metabolites differences between the CHB and the healthy controls were compared using the standard non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test. Unsupervised principal component analysis (PCA) and supervised PLS-DA analysis were performed using the Simca-P software (version 13.0, Umetrics, Umea, Sweden). The microbiota results were analyzed using Metastats analysis, the Kruskal-Wallis test and the linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) method was implemented in LEfSe v1.0^[12]. The functionality of the microbiota was assessed using PiCRUST^[13] and compared among the groups. The metabolomics enrichment analysis was performed using MetaboAnalyst 3.0^[14] (<http://www.metaboanalyst.ca>). We correlated the microbiota with clinical index and metabolites and visualized the results with a Spearman's correlation coefficient > 0.3 and *P* < 0.05 in Cytoscape (version 3.6.0).

RESULTS

Physiological characteristics

A total of 75 subjects, including 22 healthy subjects and 53 CHB patients, were enrolled in this study. Twenty-eight of the 53 CHB patients exhibited a yellow tongue coating, and 25 CHB patients exhibited a white tongue coating; their physiological characteristics are shown in Table 1. The ages, genders and body mass indices (BMIs) did not significantly differ among the groups. The CHB group had a significantly higher level of liver function,

Table 1 Physiological characteristics of the subjects

	Healthy	CHB patients		P value
		White tongue coating	Yellow tongue coating	
Age	34.09 ± 7.16	34.46 ± 9.92	38.08 ± 9.89	0.255
Gender, male/female	13/9	21/7	17/8	0.488
BMI (kg/m ²)	21.22 (16.61-25.56)	23.44 (18.42-31.64)	23.30 (18.37-45.67)	0.077
Antiviral drugs (%)	/	78.60%	64%	0.24
Chinese herbs (%)	/	17.90%	28%	0.378
TBIL (μmol/L)	14.87 (8.29-31.62)	12.85 (7.9-27.7)	17.27 (6.4-45.6)	0.27
DBIL (μmol/L)	3.065 (1.7-6.76)	3.9 (1.64-9.2)	4.8 (2.05-34.7) ^b	0.006
IDBIL (μmol/L)	11.6 (6.3-25.7)	8.95 (5-18.7)	10.2 (4.2-19.6)	0.282
ALT (IU/L)	15 (10-34)	28.75 (8.5-170) ^b	47 (11.1-533) ^c	< 0.001
AST (IU/L)	17.5 (11-31)	27 (12-133) ^b	38 (14.8-543) ^c	< 0.001
ALP (IU/L)	15.28 (9-52)	25.8 (10.01-98)	38 (8.6-274) ^c	< 0.001
GGT (IU/L)	70.5 (35-119)	72.7 (37.1-131)	76.3 (41.7-202)	0.62
ALB (g/L)	44.97 (40.89-50.77)	48.7 (43.1-56.3) ^{ad}	46 (36.6-50.1)	0.003
PT (s)	12.55 (11.3-13.9)	12.7 (11.1-16.4)	13.3 (11.3-16)	0.032
HBV-DNA (IU/mL)	/	500 (500-44830000) ^d	21210 (500-324100000)	0.03
BUN (mmol/L)	4.39 (2.97-6.39)	4.96 (2.96-8.9)	4.2 (2.4-7.28)	0.074
Gr (μmol/L)	72.355 (45.1-106.67)	70 (27.4-96.7)	69 (35.9-83)	0.449
UN (μmol/L)	305.5 (201-406)	325 (207-550)	294 (154-429)	0.204
FPG (mmol/L)	5.2 (3.96-5.63)	5.2 (4.29-7.09)	5.215 (4.07-15.54)	0.532
TC (mmol/L)	4.04 (0.37-6.34)	4.55 (3.15-6.52)	4.36 (3.1-6.74)	0.102
TG (mmol/L)	0.84 (0.37-1.91)	1.17 (0.58-3.31) ^a	1.11 (0.68-2.62) ^a	0.008
HDL (mmol/L)	1.14 (0.74-1.76)	1.145 (0.72-1.86)	1.07 (0.58-2.02)	0.779
LDL (mmol/L)	2.205 (1.38-5.04)	2.27 (1.47-3.8)	2.44 (1.12-3.73)	0.647
APOA-A (g/L)	1.175 (0.85-1.62)	1.08 (0.76-1.91) ^c	1.02 (0.71-1.42) ^c	0.013

Quantitative results are expressed as median with minimum and maximum into brackets. The *P* values indicate the significance of difference among groups, and the Kruskal-Wallis test for 3 groups and Nemenyi test were used for post pairwise comparisons. The HBV-DNA titers between the chronic hepatitis B (CHB) yellow and white tongue coating patients were compared using the standard non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test. The antiviral drugs usage and the Chinese herbs usage were compared between CHB yellow and white tongue coating patients using the Chi-square test. ^a*P* < 0.05 *vs* healthy controls, ^b*P* < 0.01 *vs* healthy controls, ^c*P* < 0.001 *vs* healthy controls, ^d*P* < 0.05 *vs* CHB yellow tongue coating patients.

including ALT, AST and GGT activity. The CHB yellow tongue coating patients had a trend toward higher TBIL, DBIL, ALT, AST, ALP, GGT and PT levels. Additionally, the HBV viral titer was significantly higher in yellow tongue coating patients than in the white coating patients (*P* = 0.03), whereas the ALB level was lower in the yellow tongue coating patients (*P* = 0.003).

Overview of tongue coating microbial differences among the patients

In this study, the qualified sequences were rarefied to 9300 sequences per sample for downstream analysis. A summary is shown in Supplementary Table 1, Good's coverage values were high in the three groups, indicating that the sequencing depth was sufficient for investigation. As shown in Figure 1A show, the oral microbiota abundance and diversity level did not significantly differ between the CHB patients and the healthy controls. A PCA plot based on the OTU distributions showed that the overall compositions of the tongue coating microbiota were not significantly shifted by age, gender, BMI and antiviral treatment (Supplementary Figure 1). However, the PLS-DA plot showed a clear separation between the CHB patients and the healthy groups, and the CHB yellow tongue coating and white tongue coating patients were also well separated (Figure 1B). A Venn diagram showed that 1569 OTUs were common in all samples and that 705 and 741 OTUs were unique to the

CHB yellow tongue coating and white tongue coating patients, respectively (Figure 1C). Most of the tongue coating microbiota were assigned to the Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria, Actinobacteria and Fusobacteria phyla (relative abundance > 1% of the total DNA sequences, Figure 2A). In total, 112 genera were classified, and most of the genera were present in low abundance in the oral microbiota samples.

A Metastats analysis was used to detect differentially abundant features at different taxon levels. Compared with the white tongue patients, the relative abundance of Bacteroidetes was decreased in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients, whereas the abundance of Proteobacteria and Gracilibacteria were increased (Figure 2B). At the family level, Neisseriaceae and Gracilibacterium_bacterium_oral_taxon_873 were dominant in the CHB yellow tongue coating and had prevalent differences compared with the abundances in the healthy controls and CHB white tongue coating patients, whereas SR1_bacterium_canine_oral_taxon_380 was decreased. At the genus level, *Neisseria* and *Gracilibacterium_bacterium_oral_taxon_873* were enriched in the CHB yellow tongue coating samples compared with the healthy controls and the CHB white tongue coating patients. The relative abundance of *Actinomyces*, *Porphyromonas*, *Bergeyella*, *Centipeda*, *Alysiella*, *Bulleidia*, *Candidatus_Saccharibacter*, *ia_bacterium_UB2523* and *Pseudoramibacter* in the CHB white tongue coating samples were significantly different

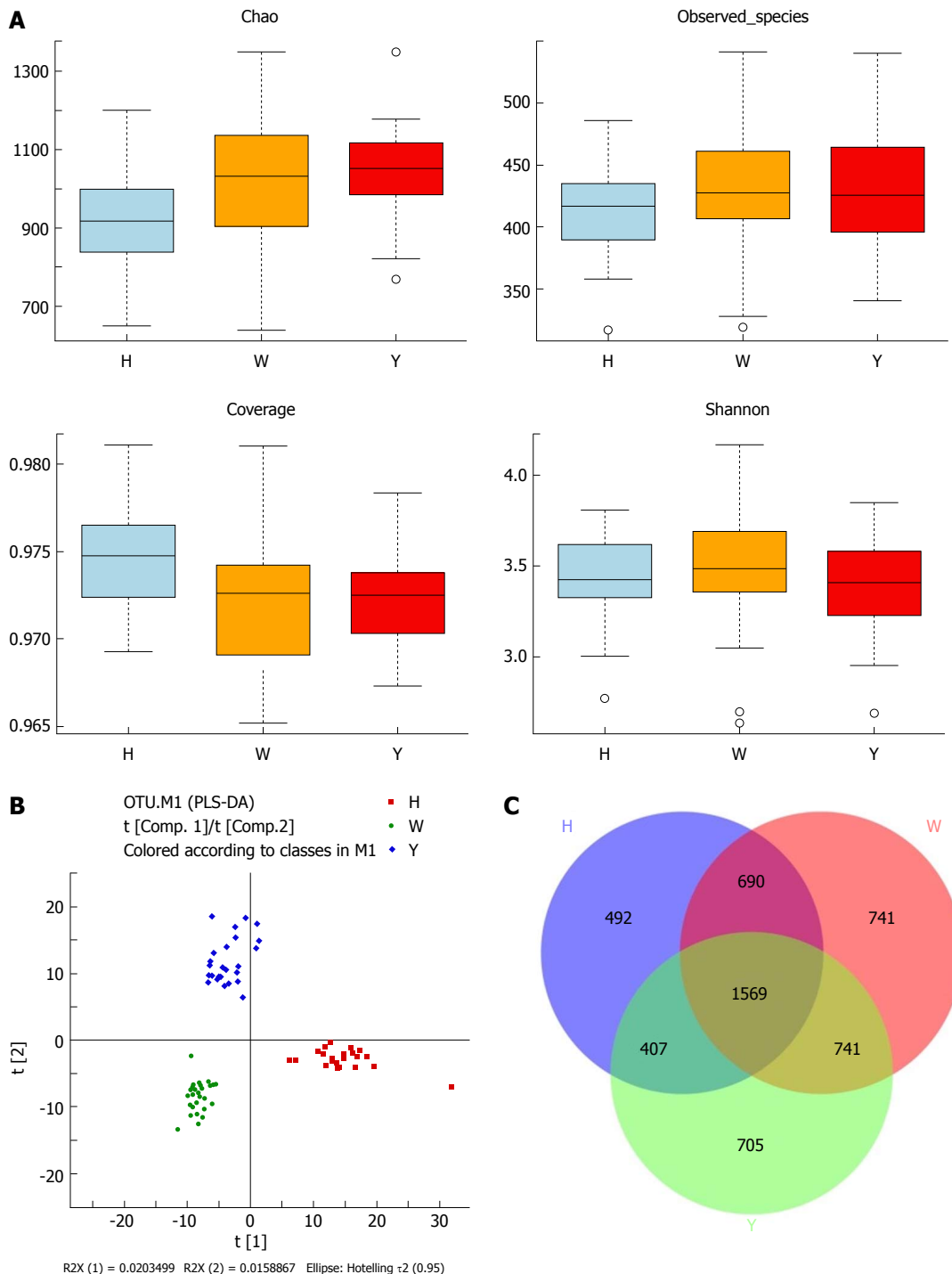


Figure 1 Overview of the tongue coating microbiota among groups. A: Detailed characteristics of alpha diversity; B: PLS-DA discriminant analysis plot; C: Venn diagram based on OTUs. PLS-DA: Partial least squares-discriminant analysis; OTUs: Operational taxonomic units.

from those of the healthy controls, but no differences were found compared to the abundances of the CHB yellow tongue coating patients (Figure 3A). We used LEfSe to identify the specific OTUs associated with each group. A cladogram representative of the structure of the tongue coating microbiotas in the CHB yellow tongue coating and CHB white tongue coating patients and the healthy controls is shown in Figure 3B. According to the LDA values ($\log_{10}^{\text{LDA score}} > 4$), the tongue coating bacteria with advantages in the CHB yellow tongue coating

were Betaproteobacteria, Neisseriales, Neisseriaceae, Proteobacteria and *Neisseria*, the CHB white tongue coating samples were dominated by Bacteroidia and Bacteroidales, and the healthy controls were dominated by Actinomycetaceae, Actinomycetales and *Actinomyces* (Figure 3C).

Predicted microbial function

The gene functions in the tongue coating microbiotas were predicted by PICRUSt, and the results were com-

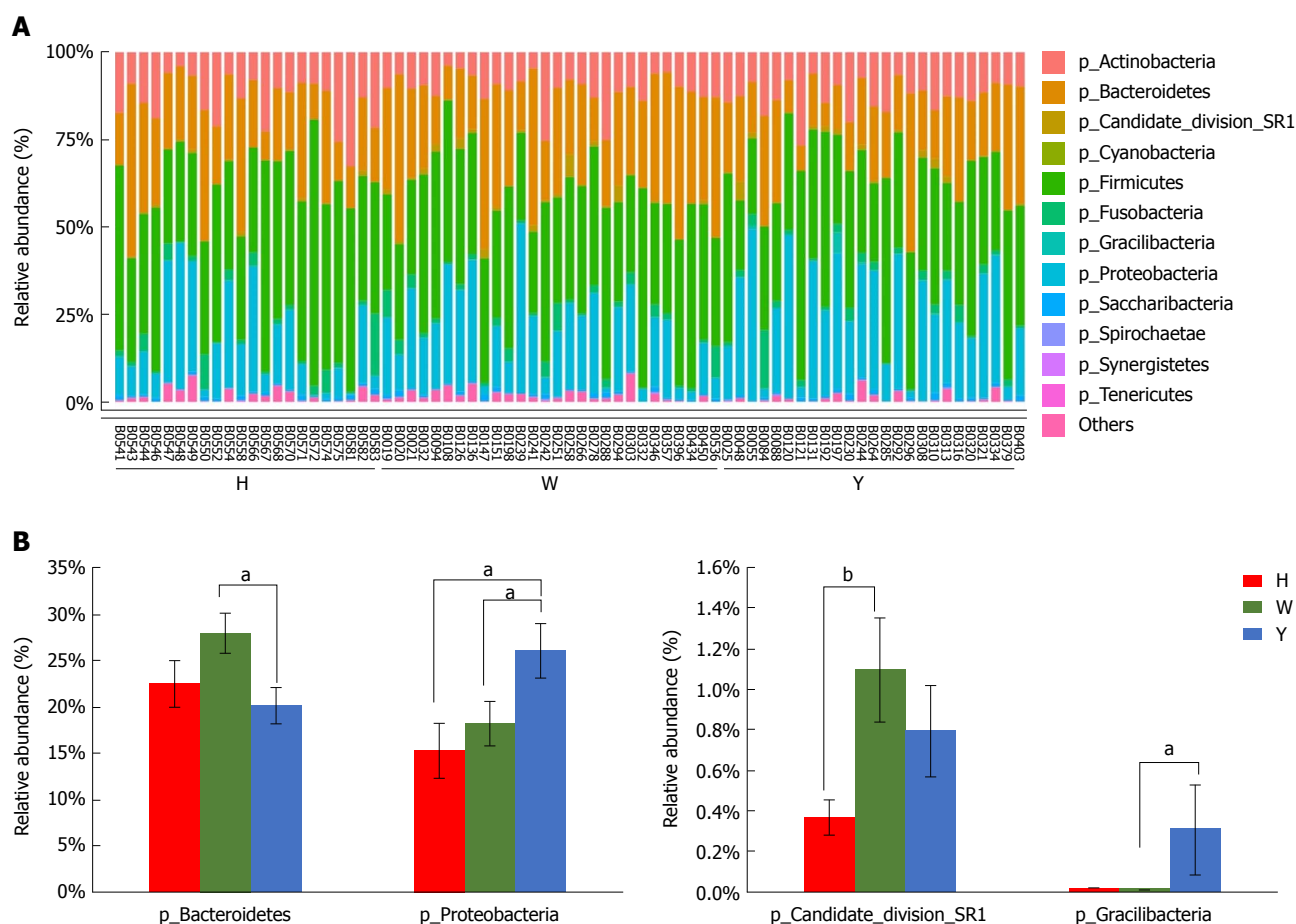


Figure 2 Taxonomic classification of the tongue coating microbiota at the phylum level. A: Taxonomic classification of the tongue-coating microbiota at the phylum level; B: Metastats analysis of differences in the relative proportions difference at the phylum level. ^a $P < 0.05$, ^b $P < 0.01$.

pared between groups (Figure 4). Microbes with greater relative abundances in the healthy controls had functions that were most related to carbohydrate metabolism (fructose and mannose metabolism). The microbiotas in the white tongue coatings were more likely than those in the yellow tongue coatings and healthy controls to have functionality related to genetic information processing, including the level-2 functionality of replication and repair (DNA replication proteins, homologous recombination and mismatch repair) and transcription (transcription machinery, ribosome and translation factors). In contrast, the microbiotas in the yellow tongue coatings were probably related to amino acid metabolism (alanine aspartate and glutamate metabolism, arginine and proline metabolism, cysteine and methionine metabolism, lysine biosynthesis, phenylalanine tyrosine and tryptophan biosynthesis, phenylalanine metabolism, tyrosine metabolism and valine leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis), membrane transport (bacterial secretion system and secretion system) and cell motility (bacterial motility proteins).

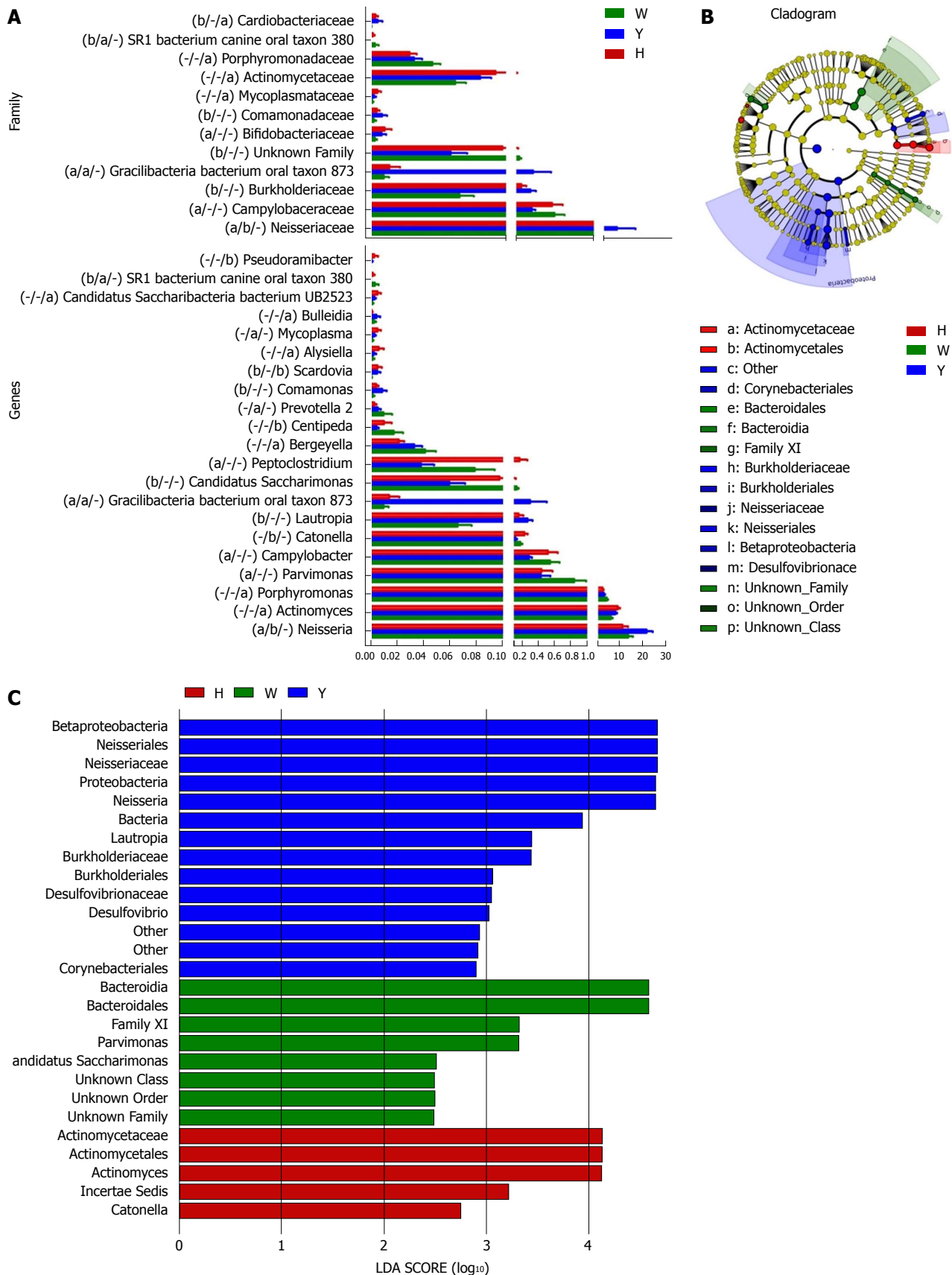
Metabolites in the tongue coatings

The typical total ion chromatograms (TICs) of the samples run in positive ion modes are shown in supplementary Figure 2A. Because the PCA did not distinguish

the groups well, the supervised PLS-DA model was used for further analysis and resulted in good separation of the CHB patients and healthy volunteers, however, the CHB yellow tongue coating and the white tongue coating patients were not completely distinguished (Supplementary Figure 2B). A total of 21 endogenous compounds were obtained with a VIP > 1 and $P(\text{corr}) > 0.4$ in the PLS-DA model (Table 2). The presence of 6 compounds differed between the CHB patients and healthy subjects ($P < 0.05$), and these compounds were mainly involved in histidine metabolism and methylhistidine metabolism ($P < 0.05$, Supplementary Figure 3). The metabolites were not significantly different between the CHB yellow and white tongue coating patients, but the number of amino acid metabolites was greater in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients than in the white tongue coating patients.

Associations of the tongue coating microbiotas with metabolites and clinical indices

To better understand the relationships among the tongue coating microbiota, metabolites and clinical indicators, we performed a correlation analysis of the differential microbiota at the family level with the metabolites and clinical indicators and constructed the related network ($|\text{correlation } r| > 0.3$, $P < 0.05$). The abundance of



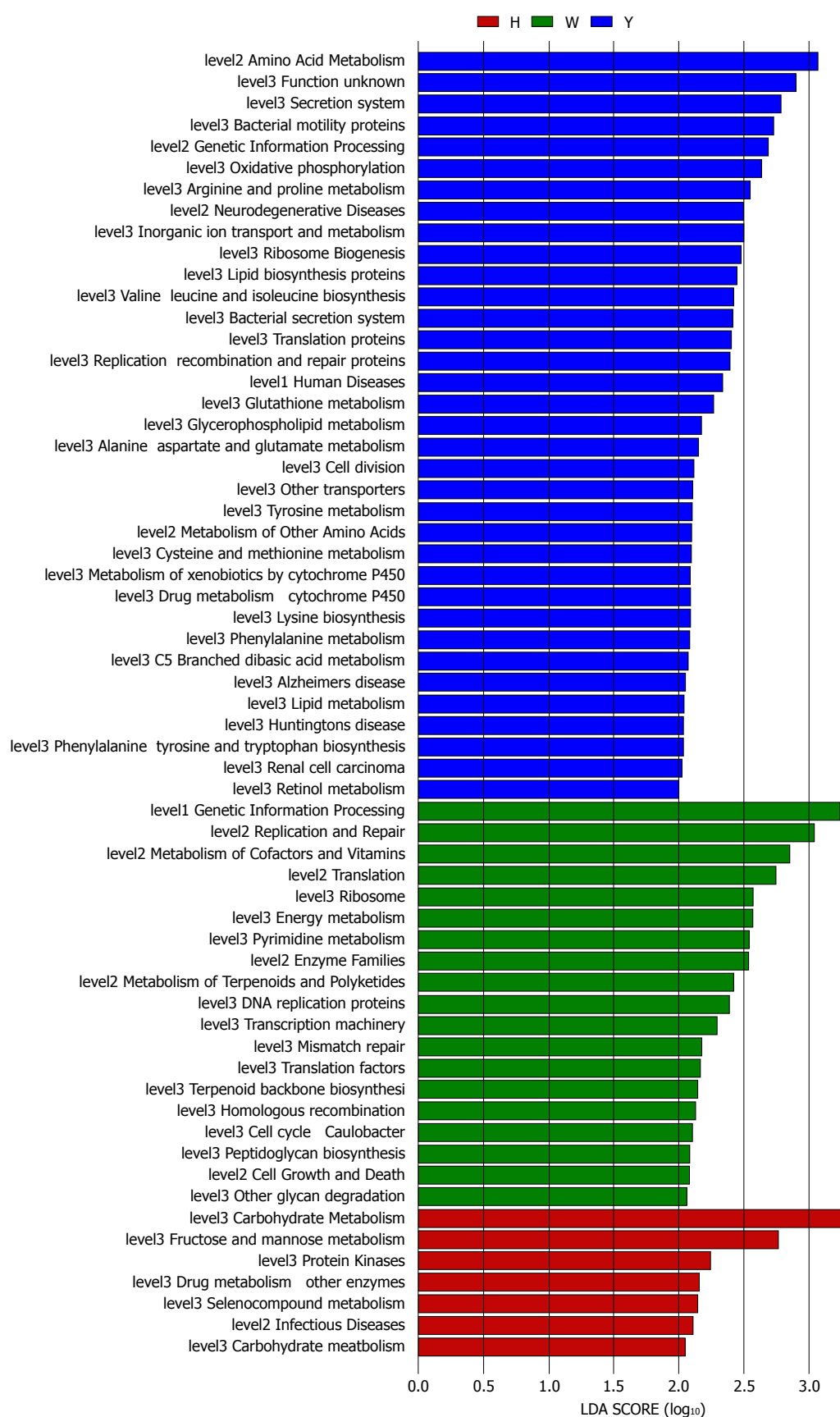


Figure 4 Linear discriminant analysis scores of the enriched microbial functions in the healthy-controls (Red), chronic hepatitis B white tongue coating patients (Green) and chronic hepatitis B yellow tongue coating patients (Blue). LDA: Linear discriminant analysis.

Table 2 Metabolites detected in the tongue coatings

Metabolites	Formula	Rt (min)	Type	KEGG compounds	VIP	P (corr)	CHB V/S H P value	FC	Healthy	CHB White tongue coating	CHB Yellow tongue coating
L-Proline	C ₅ H ₉ NO ₂	83.3392	[M+H] ⁺	C00148	1.04	-0.68	0.134	1.473	1.01 (0.13-12)	3 (0.16-20.14)	3.88 (0.09-15.28)
L-Valine	C ₆ H ₁₁ NO ₂	120.7915	[M+H] ⁺	C00183	1.07	-0.76	0.081	1.608	2.92 (0.82-17.97)	3.98 (1.13-38.65)	7.44 (1.08-31.3)
L-Isoleucine	C ₆ H ₁₃ NO ₂	194.3545	[M+H] ⁺	C00123	1.15	-0.81	0.069	1.641	5.55 (0.43-30.81)	7.23 (1.23-58.36)	13.28 (0.22-45.18)
L-Leucine	C ₆ H ₁₃ NO ₂	212.576	[M+H] ⁺	C00123	1.07	-0.81	0.029	1.715	8.9 (0.02-44.58)	14.65 (2.89-84.8)	21.6 (0.44-61.98)
Hypoxanthine	C ₅ H ₇ N ₄ O	154.305	[M+H] ⁺	C00262	1.07	-0.80	0.039	2.218	0.42 (0.01-6.93)	1.31 (0.05-17.87)	2.46 (0.01-14.33)
Urocanic acid	C ₆ H ₆ N ₂ O ₂	132.3225	[M+H] ⁺	C00785	1.00	-0.78	0.044	2.587	0.62 (0.07-4.46)	0.93 (0.08-12.84)	1.93 (0.08-13.92)
L-Lysine	C ₆ H ₁₁ N ₂ O ₂	64.124	[M+H] ⁺	C00047	1.01	-0.72	0.683	1.510	0.08 (0.05-0.28)	0.08 (0.03-0.81)	0.08 (0.03-0.65)
Glutamate	C ₅ H ₉ NO ₄	76.6581	[M+H] ⁺	C00025	1.04	-0.75	0.159	1.955	0.14 (0.02-1.17)	0.2 (0.2-9.9)	0.39 (0.2-5.2)
Methionine	C ₅ H ₁₁ NO ₂ S	131.208	[M+H] ⁺	C00073	1.16	-0.80	0.144	1.543	1.08 (0.01-7.21)	1.74 (0.13-10.21)	2.26 (0.9-7.5)
Xanthine	C ₅ H ₄ N ₄ O ₂	183.102	[M+H] ⁺	C00385	1.01	-0.73	0.151	2.058	0.09 (0.2-9.1)	0.24 (0.4-9.3)	0.47 (0.4-7.5)
L-Phenylalanine	C ₉ H ₉ NO ₂	277.369	[M+H] ⁺	C00079	1.17	-0.82	0.069	1.534	6.72 (0.83-24.15)	11.07 (1.84-51.35)	13.1 (0.31-36.18)
Glycyl-L-Valine	C ₇ H ₁₂ N ₂ O ₃	205.364	[M+H] ⁺	C00327	1.07	-0.70	0.078	1.548	0.07 (0.1-1)	0.15 (0.0-8.4)	0.19 (0.1-3.8)
Citrulline	C ₆ H ₁₁ N ₃ O ₃	77.3246	[M+H] ⁺	C00082	1.16	-0.74	0.216	1.486	0.12 (0.1-2.8)	0.14 (0.01-1.7)	0.3 (0.1-3.8)
L-Tyrosine	C ₉ H ₉ NO ₃	204.441	[M+H] ⁺	C00082	1.17	-0.81	0.095	1.512	2.63 (0.33-11.35)	4.36 (0.71-22.15)	5.67 (0.1-16.28)
Benzophenone	C ₁₄ H ₁₀ O	882.111	[M+H] ⁺	C06354	1.19	0.81	<0.001	0.752	0.25 (0.16-0.3)	0.19 (0.1-0.3)	0.18 (0.07-0.25)
L-Tryptophan	C ₁₁ H ₁₂ N ₂ O ₂	338.856	[M+H] ⁺	C00078	1.03	-0.74	0.23	1.940	0.57 (0.09-3.63)	0.74 (0.07-12.67)	1.11 (0.1-9.81)
12-Hydroxylauric acid	C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₄	906.316	[M+H] ⁺	C08317	1.12	0.72	<0.001	0.697	10.81 (8.25-16.18)	7.3 (0.08-12.49)	7.61 (0.08-14.08)
N-Acetyl-D-glucosamine	C ₈ H ₁₅ NO ₆	82.3978	[M+H] ⁺	C03878	1.02	-0.39	0.936	0.942	0.04 (0.0-0.46)	0.48 (0.2-0.81)	0.07 (0.0-0.44)
L-cystathionine	C ₄ H ₁₀ N ₂ O ₃ S	836.2685	[M+H] ⁺	C02291	1.10	0.67	0.24	0.919	0.48 (0.31-0.79)	0.48 (0.2-0.81)	0.43 (0.22-0.66)
S-adenosyl-L-methionine	C ₁₅ H ₂₄ N ₆ O ₆ S	66.1963	[M+H] ⁺	C00019	1.02	0.79	0.029	0.888	9.98 (8.09-12.77)	9.2 (4.71-12.09)	8.58 (4.98-14.58)
Guanosine	C ₁₀ H ₁₃ N ₅ O ₅	230.687	[M+H] ⁺	C00387	1.01	0.02	0.824	0.763	3.02 (0.55-14.19)	2.98 (0.10-2.7)	3.52 (0.10-8.9)

Neisseriaceae, which was the dominant bacterial family in the CHB yellow tongue coating, was positively correlated with the serum HBV-DNA, TC, L-leucine, hypoxanthine, urocanic acid and methionine levels but negatively correlated with thebenzophenone and S-adenosyl-L-methionine levels. Another relatively abundant member of the microbiota in the CHB yellow tongue coating (Gracilbacteria_bacterium_oral_taxon_873) was positively correlated with the guanosine and BUN levels but negatively correlated with the S-adenosyl-L-methionine level (Figure 5).

DISCUSSION

Chinese medicine theory believes that tongue demonstration is a window of body change and that the oral microbiome is an integral part of the whole body's microbiome. Indeed, an increasing number of studies have found that many diseases, including atherosclerosis^[15], rheumatoid arthritis^[16], diabetes^[17] and liver cirrhosis^[18], are accompanied by disorder of the oral and intestinal microbiotas. Although the oral and gut communities share little taxonomic resemblance, the oral and intestinal microflora have general dynamic characteristics^[19], the oral bacterial populations seed the gut^[20], and the observed bacterial structures in the oral cavity or intestine can predict each other^[21]. Because tongue diagnosis has the advantages of intuition and simplicity, some scholars have recently discovered the importance of the tongue image for the diagnosis and prognostic prediction of diseases^[22,23]. The oral microbiota varies according to the different sampling sites with a high diversity^[24], but as the tongue texture and tongue color form an important basis for diagnosis and treatment in TCM^[25]. The treatments adopted for patients with white and yellow tongue coatings are different, thus, the tongue coating oral microbiotas were selected for analysis in our study, and the samples were grouped by the color of the tongue coating.

The complex and dynamic interactions between microbes and hosts are very important for maintaining homeostasis because microbiome dysbiosis may interact with the host's immune system and influence the degree of hepatic steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis^[26]. Our recent study found that the gut microbiota was significantly altered in

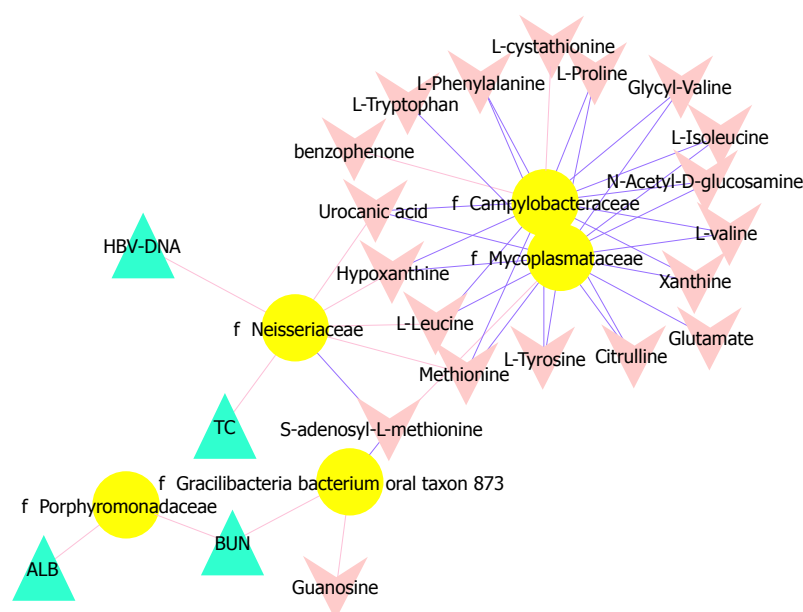


Figure 5 Associations of the tongue coating microbiotas with metabolites and clinical indices. Correlations were detected, and the indices with Spearman's correlation coefficients > 0.3 were visualized in Cytoscape. Triangles represent clinical indicators, arrows represent metabolites and dots represent oral microbial families. If the correlations are negative, the connecting line is blue; if the correlation is positive, the connecting line is red. The line thickness represents the size of the correlation coefficient.

CHB patients with low Child-Pugh scores^[27]. Evidence is accumulating that the intestinal microbiome has good clinical prospects as a target for the treatment of chronic liver disease. Chinese scholars transplanted the intestinal flora of healthy volunteers into HBeAg-positive CHB patients with long-term antiviral treatment, and this approach showed a good effect on HBeAg seroclearance^[28]. However, few studies have been performed on the oral microbiotas in CHB patients. In one of the limited reports, Ling *et al.*^[29] noted the decreased diversity of the oral microbiotas in supragingival plaque samples from patients with HBV-induced chronic liver disease. However, in this study, the richness and diversity of the tongue coating did not differ between the CHB patients and healthy controls. Ren *et al.*^[30] used 16S rRNA gene pyrosequencing and metagenomic sequencing to examine oral microbial compositions and their functional variations in children with halitosis. They found that the tongue coatings of the subjects with halitosis had greater bacterial richness than those of the healthy subjects, but the number of OTUs and the Chao levels were slightly lower in the saliva samples from the subjects with halitosis than in the healthy subjects. The microbiotas among individuals and habitats are highly personalized in the oral cavity^[31]. Therefore, we concluded that the data differences in data might be due to the use of different sampling sites.

Taxonomic and predicted function differences were found between the CHB yellow and white tongue coating patients in the LEfSe analysis. The CHB yellow tongue coating patients had specific clinical and microbiota characteristics that were distinct from those of the white coating patients. First, the CHB patients with yellow tongue coatings had significantly higher viral titers but lower ALB levels than the white coating patients ($P <$

0.05). The remaining indicators of liver function, including TBIL, DBIL, ALT, AST, ALP, GGT and PT, exhibited elevated trend in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients. Because a yellow tongue is an important indicator for the diagnosis of CHB *damp heat* syndrome, the results are consistent with studies showing that the CHB *damp-heat* syndrome patients have higher ALT and AST levels^[32], which indicates that these patients have greater liver damage. The correlation analysis between bacteria and metabolites also confirmed this outcome. The relatively dominant bacterial families in the CHB yellow tongue coating (*Neisseriaceae* and *Gracilibacteria_bacterium_oral_taxon_873*) were negatively correlated with the S-adenosyl-L-methionine level. S-adenosyl-L-methionine, which is also known as SAM or AdoMet, is a donor in the methylation reactions of all mammalian cells but is found most abundantly in the liver. Patients with chronic liver disease have reduced AdoMet levels, and reduced hepatic AdoMet levels can contribute to the development of oxidative stress, steatohepatitis, and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)^[33]. In addition, according to TCM, a yellow tongue coating is a manifestation of TCM *hot* Syndrome, which has been reported to be involved in inflammation or an immune regulation imbalance in the host^[34,35]. Jiang *et al.*^[3] compared the yellow and white tongue coating microbiomes with those of gastritis patients and found that yellow dense tongue coating bacteria were associated with TCM *hot* syndrome-related inflammation such as halitosis, tonsil infection and periodontal inflammation. Therefore, we therefore hypothesized that the patients with CHB yellow tongue coatings might have had more inflammation, although this speculation requires further confirmation. Second, the yellow tongue coating subjects showed similarities at the phylum level with a gut disorder in patients

with cirrhosis, which was manifested as a reduced abundance of Bacteroidetes and increased Proteobacteria content^[18,26,36]. The LEfSe analysis suggested that Neisseriaceae was enriched in the yellow tongue coating patients and was positively correlated with the serum HBV-DNA level. Ling's research reported that members of Neisseriaceae were significantly more abundant in the oral microbiota of liver cirrhosis patients than in those of CHB patients^[29]. Lv *et al.*^[37] found that Neisseriaceae, which are opportunistic pathogens, were enriched in primary biliary cirrhosis (PBC) patients. Third, according to the LDA score, the inferred metagenomic pathways that were enriched in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients were mainly those involved in amino acid metabolism, and the detected metabolites were mainly essential amino acids, including L-proline, L-valine, L-isoleucine, L-leucine, L-lysine, glutamate and L-tryptophan, and were generally present in larger amounts trend in the yellow tongue coatings. The relationship between amino acid metabolism and the CHB patients with yellow tongue coatings is unclear, and relevant literature reports are limited. However, one report noted that people with the TCM *damp-heat* syndrome people with HBV-related chronic liver diseases, whom mainly manifested yellow greasy tongue coatings, had increased leucine, phenylalanine and valine expression in urinary metabolomic studies^[38], which indirectly explained the severe disordered amino acid metabolism in CHB patients with the yellow coating. Finally, this study found that membrane transport (secretion system) and cell motility (bacterial motility proteins) were enriched in the yellow coatings, which indicated that the CHB yellow coating patients might be more susceptible to bacterial colonization. The functional analysis of tongue coating flora and metabolites in CHB white tongue coating patients lacked correspondence, the underlying reason might be the microbiotas functionality in the CHB white tongue coating patients were most likely related to genetic information processing, which association with metabolites is relatively little.

Tongue diagnosis is a simple, non-invasive and valuable procedure that has been repeatedly verified by TCM clinical practitioners. We found that the yellow and white tongue coatings of CHB patients had microbiota compositional and functional differences in this study, but the sample sizes were small. In the future, we will expand the sample size to verify the results of this study. In addition, we will focus on the relationship between changes in the oral and intestinal microbiota in different tongue coating patients and explore the effects of oral microbiota variance on immunity and metabolic alterations in the body to further explain the modern theoretical mechanism of TCM tongue diagnosis. These studies will facilitate the development of therapeutic strategies for individualized treatment.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Research background

Chronic hepatitis B is a major infectious disease in China and Chinese medicine

has a wide range of applications in the treatment of CHB. Tongue diagnosis has important guiding significance for clinical syndrome differentiation and drug use in TCM, but lacks scientific explanations. Some reports have found abnormalities in the microbiota or metabolites in pathological tongue coatings. However, integrated analyses of the pathological tongue coating microbiotas and metabolites have rarely been reported. Elucidating the tongue coatings micro-features differences will promote our understanding of the TCM tongue diagnosis and facilitate therapeutic strategies for individualized treatment.

Research motivation

The motivation of this study was to explore the microfeatures of different tongue coatings, which could promote our understanding of the TCM tongue diagnosis from a modern perspective.

Research objectives

The objective of this research was to elucidate tongue coating microbiota and metabolic differences in CHB patients with yellow or white tongue coatings.

Research methods

We collected tongue coating samples from 28 CHB yellow tongue coating patients and 25 CHB white tongue coating patients, and an additional 22 samples were collected from healthy controls. The tongue coating bacterial 16S ribosomal RNA gene V3 region was amplified and sequenced with the Ion Torrent PGM™ sequencing platform. The metabolites in the tongue coatings were examined using a LC-MS platform. The microbiota results were analyzed using Metastats analysis, the Kruskal-Wallis test and LEfSe analysis. The functionality of the microbiota was assessed using PICRUST and compared among groups. The metabolomics enrichment analysis was performed with MetaboAnalyst 3.0 (<http://www.metaboanalyst.ca>). We correlated the microbiota with the clinical indices and metabolites and visualized the results with Spearman's correlation coefficients > 0.3 and $P < 0.05$ in Cytoscape.

Research results

This study found taxonomic and predicted function differences between the CHB yellow and white tongue coating patients. Distinct from those of the white coating patients, the CHB yellow tongue coating patients had specific clinical and microbiota characteristics. The microbiota of the CHB patients with yellow tongue coatings had similarities with a gut disorder in patients with cirrhosis at the phylum level, which manifested as a reduced abundance of Bacteroidetes and increased Proteobacteria content. Neisseriaceae, which is a dominant bacterial family enriched in yellow tongue coating patients, was positively correlated with the serum HBV-DNA level. The inferred metagenomic pathways enriched in the CHB yellow tongue coating patients were mainly those involved in amino acid metabolism, whereas the detected metabolites were mainly essential amino acids and generally were present in larger amounts than in the white tongue coatings.

Research conclusions

We found that the yellow and white tongue coatings of CHB patients had microbiota compositional and functional differences in this study.

Research perspectives

The sample size in this study was small. In the future, we will expand the sample size to further verify the results and focus on the relationship between changes in the oral and intestinal microbiotas to explore the effects of oral microbiota variance on immunity and metabolic alterations in the body. These studies will further explain the modern theoretical mechanism of TCM tongue diagnosis.

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Large heterotopic gastric mucosa and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum: Clinical experience and endoscopic management

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Abstract

Heterotopic gastric mucosa (HGM) in the rectum is an extremely rare clinical entity which may be missed or misdiagnosed due to a lack of knowledge. In the present study, a 14-year-old girl visited our hospital due to a 5-year history of repeated hematochezia. Colonoscopy showed a solitary superficial depressed lesion approximately 5 cm in size and a concomitant 1.5 cm deep diverticulum in the rectum. Histological examination of the endoscopic biopsy showed typical ectopic gastric mucosa in the depressed lesion and inside the diverticulum. Narrow band imaging further confirmed the histological results. Endoscopic ultrasound indicated that the lesion originated from the mucosal layer, and partially involved the submucosal layer. Endoscopic submucosal dissection was performed in this patient due to the large size and shape of the lesion. No bleeding, perforation or other adverse events were observed. The presence of HGM in the diverticular cavity greatly increased the surgical difficulty. A literature review was also carried out in our study.

Key words: Endoscopic submucosal dissection; Rectum;

Helicobacter pylori; Endoscopy; Heterotopic gastric mucosa

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Core tip: Heterotopic gastric mucosa (HGM) in the rectum is an extremely rare clinical entity with unclear pathogenesis and no standard guidelines regarding optimal treatment. We present a patient with HGM and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum, indicated its endoscopic ultrasound and narrow band imaging characteristics. Endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD) was performed in this patient due to the large size and shape of the lesion. This is the first report of the resection of HGM and a concomitant diverticulum by ESD. A literature review was also carried out to investigate the clinical characteristics, diagnosis and management of HGM in the rectum.

Chen WG, Zhu HT, Yang M, Xu GQ, Chen LH, Chen HT. Large heterotopic gastric mucosa and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum: Clinical experience and endoscopic management. *World J Gastroenterol* 2018; 24(30): 3462-3468 Available from: URL: <http://www.wjgnet.com/1007-9327/full/v24/i30/3462.htm> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.3748/wjg.v24.i30.3462>

INTRODUCTION

Heterotopic gastric mucosa (HGM) is the most commonly reported epithelial heterotopia and has been described as heteroplasia in organogenesis or metaplasia during the repair of damaged epithelium^[1]. Although HGM may be congenital or acquired, the true pathogenesis of this condition remains unclear. HGM has been reported to be ubiquitous throughout the gastrointestinal (GI) tract from the oral cavity to the anorectum and can also involve the pancreas, biliary tract, gallbladder, scrotum, and mediastinum^[2]. In the GI tract, HGM is predominantly observed in the esophagus, duodenum, Meckel's diverticulum, and in gastrointestinal duplication^[3]. HGM in the rectum is an extremely rare clinical entity, which may be missed or misdiagnosed due to a lack of knowledge. To the best of our knowledge, only 50-100 cases of HGM in the rectum have been reported in the literature since the first description by Ewell and Jackson in 1939^[4]. The majority of these patients were from Europe and North America.

In this report, we present the case of a young girl with a large 5 cm HGM in the rectum. Interestingly, a diverticular cavity 1.5 cm deep was found which was also lined with HGM. We report our clinical experience of this patient followed by a review of the recent literature on this entity. The clinical characteristics, endoscopic findings, diagnosis, treatment, and the relationship with *Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*) infection and neoplastic transformation were analyzed to enhance physician

awareness. In addition, our therapeutic approach using endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD) which, to our knowledge, has been rarely reported.

CASE REPORT

A 14-year-old girl visited our hospital due to a 5-year history of repeated hematochezia. The bleeding episodes occurred intermittently without abdominal pain, mucous, pus or other symptoms. Her medical and family history was unremarkable. Carbohydrate antigen (CA) 19-9 was 61.2 U/mL (normal range 0-37 U/mL), hemoglobin was 116 g/L (normal range 113-151 g/L) and stool occult blood examination was weakly positive. Other laboratory examinations were normal. Abdominal computed tomography (CT), gastroscopy, and capsule endoscopy (CE) revealed no obvious GI lesions. A technetium-99m (Tc-99m) pertechnetate scan for Meckel's diverticulum and other sites of ectopic gastric mucosa was normal. On rectal examination, the patient had no anal fissures, hemorrhoids or fistulae.

At colonoscopy, a solitary superficial depressed lesion, approximately 5 cm in size, with a diverticular cavity was identified in the posterior wall of the lower part of the rectum proximal to the dentate line of the anal canal. The lesion was well-circumscribed, covering 1/3 of the circumference of the enteric cavity. Mucosa in the lesion appeared hyperemia and erythematous, with nodule changes. The tissue in the border of the lesion was slightly raised. The diverticulum was located in the anal side of the lesion, and was 1.5 cm deep and 2 cm in diameter. The mucosa was similar to the surrounding tissue. Histological examination of the endoscopic biopsy showed typical ectopic gastric mucosa in the depressed lesion and inside the diverticulum. Intestinal metaplasia, dysplasia, malignancy and colonization by *H. pylori* were not observed. Thus, the diagnosis of this rare entity was made on the basis of histological findings. Narrow band imaging (NBI) examination further confirmed the histological results. By means of NBI-magnifying endoscopy examination, it could visualize the microsurface and microvascular architecture immediately.

In this case, the NBI result showed the major gastric fundic-type mucosa (honey comb microvascular, small round microsurface) and focal pyloric-type mucosa (coiled microvascular, polygon microsurface) which lined the rectal mucosa. Endoscopic ultrasound (EUS) showed that the lesion originated from the mucosal layer, and partially involved the submucosal layer. Thickening of the mucosal layer with hypoechoic changes was observed in the intestinal wall of the lesion.

Although treatment with proton pump inhibitors or H2 receptor blockers may ameliorate the symptoms, we decided to remove the lesion by endoscopic resection due to repeated bleeding. As a result of its endoscopic features, ESD was performed in order to ensure complete resection. Unlike the routine ESD procedure used in a lateral spreading tumor (LST), the presence of the diver-

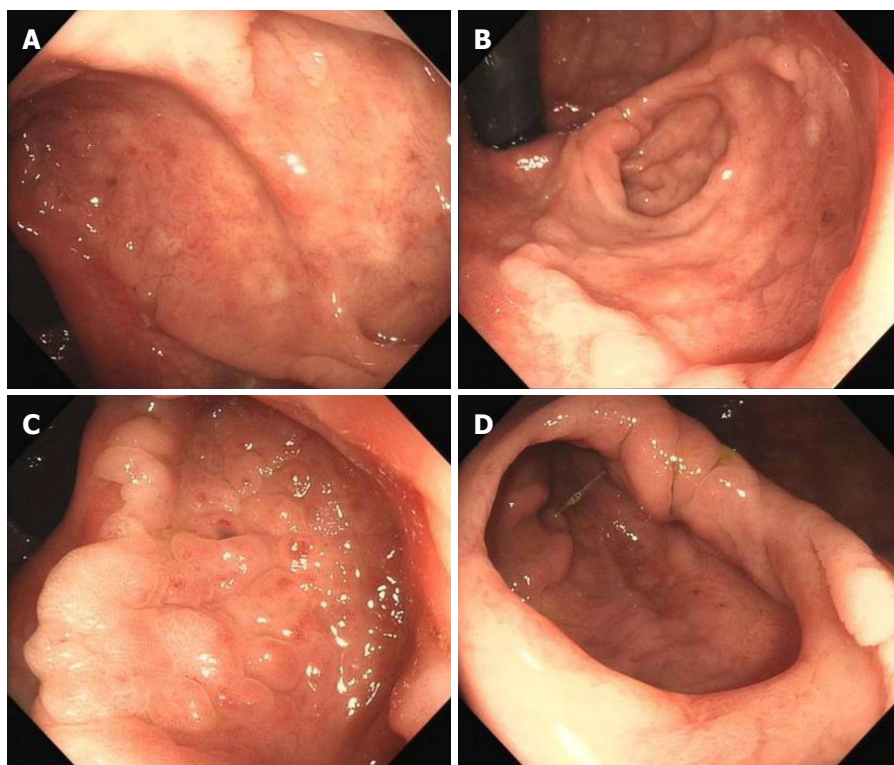


Figure 1 Endoscopic imaging. A and B: The lesion was observed by colonoscopy in the normal/reverse position; C: The slightly raised border, hyperemia and erythematous, nodule changed mucosa in the depressed lesion; D: Diverticulum in the heterotopic gastric mucosa lesion.

ticulum greatly increased the technical difficulties. After the lesion was marked with a dual knife, a mixture of glycerol fructose solution, indigo carmine and epinephrine were injected into the submucosal layer. The lifting sign was positive in this lesion which indicated that the muscularis propria was not involved. A circumferential incision was then performed. The submucosal dissection was started from the peripheral margin to the base of the diverticulum. When the dissection reached the anal side of the lesion near the anal canal, lidocaine was injected into the submucosal layer to relieve anal pain. Due to the narrow space in the diverticular cavity, ESD could not be accomplished. At the base of the diverticulum, piecemeal resection with snare was performed. In order to reduce residual HGM in the diverticulum, argon plasma coagulation (APC) was carried out in the interior of the diverticulum. Due to the hypervascular characteristics of the rectum, the full extent of the wound was carefully inspected, and a hemostatic clamp was used to manage the remnants of vessels. Finally, the lesion was resected without bleeding, perforation or other adverse events. Histological evaluation of the resected specimen revealed ectopic gastric mucosa of the fundic-type.

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee and Institutional Review Board of the First Affiliated Hospital, College of Medicine, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou, China. Informed consent was obtained from the patient, and the record/information of the patient was anonymized and de-identified prior to analysis (Figures 1-5).

DISCUSSION

HGM has been reported to occur throughout the alimentary tract, but is mainly detected in the upper esophageal sphincter and is easily ignored by endoscopists if the gastroscope is withdrawn quickly without care. The incidence of HGM in the esophagus varies widely from 0.1% to 13.8% and HGM in the duodenum varies from 0.5% to 8.9% in published series^[5]. HGM of the large bowel is infrequent, and is mostly reported in the rectum. Due to the limited number of patients, there is a lack of epidemiological studies and published data on HGM of the rectum. In a review of published reports, males were more commonly affected, and patients were predominantly children and adolescents^[6,7]. Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain the origin of HGM, and false differentiation of pluripotent primitive endoderm stem cells is the most plausible and accepted hypothesis. Errors during embryonic development or metaplasia of rectal mucosa following mucosal injury are other mechanisms for the development of HGM^[8].

The clinical presentation of HGM varies and depends on lesion size and location, and most are secondary to hydrochloric acid secretion. More than 90% of reported cases in the rectum were symptomatic^[9]. The most common symptom was rectal bleeding, which also occurred in our case. Bleeding is usually painless, slight, intermittent and of varying duration. Other common symptoms include abdominal pain, diarrhea, tenesmus, perianal ulceration, anal pruritus, fistula, and bowel

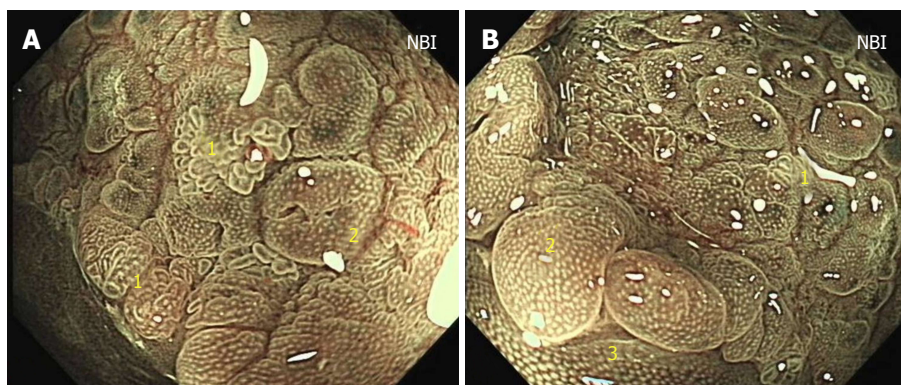


Figure 2 Narrow band imaging examinations. NBI showed that the lesion mainly consisted of gastric fundic-type mucosa with focal pyloric-type mucosa (1: Pyloric-type mucosa; 2: Fundic-type mucosa; 3: Rectal mucosa). NBI: Narrow band imaging.

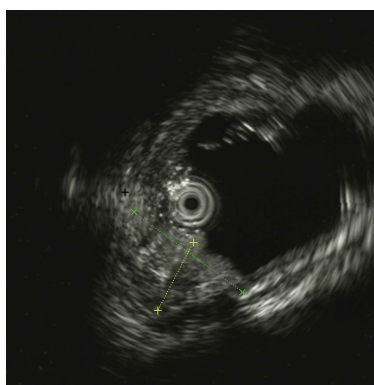


Figure 3 Endoscopic ultrasound examinations. Endoscopic ultrasound indicated that the lesion originated from the mucosal layer and partially involved the submucosal layer.

perforation. The report by Federico Iacopini showed that patients with specific anorectal symptoms were significantly younger than asymptomatic patients or patients with nonspecific abdominal symptoms and were frequently pediatric (≤ 18 years)^[10].

Endoscopically, HGM usually appears as an inlet patch in the proximal esophagus, a nodular mass in the duodenum, or a line in the interior of Meckel's diverticulum^[11]. In the rectum, HGM lesions may be identified as ulcers, polyps, diverticula, and flat or depression lesions with a reddish-appearance. HGM mimicking a rectal submucosal tumor has also been reported^[12]. Our patient, who had a 5 cm superficial depressed lesion and a concomitant 1.5 cm deep diverticulum, is the first reported case with this condition. The lesion was well-circumscribed with a slightly raised border and hyperemia, erythematous, and nodule altered mucosa. In most reported cases, the HGM lesion in the large intestine was solitary. Murray described a girl with repeated episodes of rectal bleeding due to HGM in the rectum, sigmoid colon, ascending colon, and cecum^[13]. HGM is generally localized in the right posterior wall of the rectum and more than 5 cm above the anal verge^[14]. EUS can provide valuable information for the diagnosis of HGM and can indicate the appropriate management.

In general, most lesions are found within the mucosal layer, and may involve the submucosal layer. EUS images have indicated a hypoechoic pattern change, and several small anechoic areas may be detected due to dilated gastric-type glands, which are characteristic of HGM^[15]. Thickening of the mucosal layer can also be seen in EUS images. NBI and NBI-magnifying endoscopy are useful tools for the diagnosis of HGM and can differentiate gastric-type glands from the intestinal mucosa. To our knowledge, this case is also the first report of the use of NBI in HGM of the rectum. NBI clearly showed gastric fundic-type and pyloric-type mucosa lining the rectum and helped us to make a definitive diagnosis.

For the diagnosis of HGM in the rectum, histopathological examination is the gold standard and provides fragments of rectal mucosa coexisting with gastric mucosa. In a literature report, fundic-type mucosa was the most common histologic type of HGM, and was characterized by oxyntic features other than antral- or transitional-type^[16]. Histopathology in our case also mainly showed fundic-type mucosa. Tc-99m pertechnetate abdominal scintigraphy is important in the diagnosis and localization of ectopic gastric mucosa, especially in Meckel's diverticulum. In the study by Sciarra *et al.*^[17], the sensitivity of Tc-99m scintigraphy ranged from 50% to 91%, which may have depended on the location and size of the heterotopic tissue. Our patient had a negative result with no increased uptake of foci in the GI tract. In addition to NBI, confocal laser endomicroscopy (CLE) is a new endoscopic tool that allows magnification of 1000 times with the aid of a miniaturized confocal microscope inserted into the biopsy canal of a conventional endoscope. Through high-resolution and high-magnification assessment, it can provide images that can reliably predict histology without the need for biopsies^[18]. Thus, HGM in the rectum may be correctly detected using CLE.

No current guidelines regarding the optimal treatment of HGM in the rectum are available due to reported sporadic cases. By the inhibition of gastric acid secretion, H₂ receptor blockers or proton pump inhibitors may ameliorate or eliminate symptoms caused by HGM in

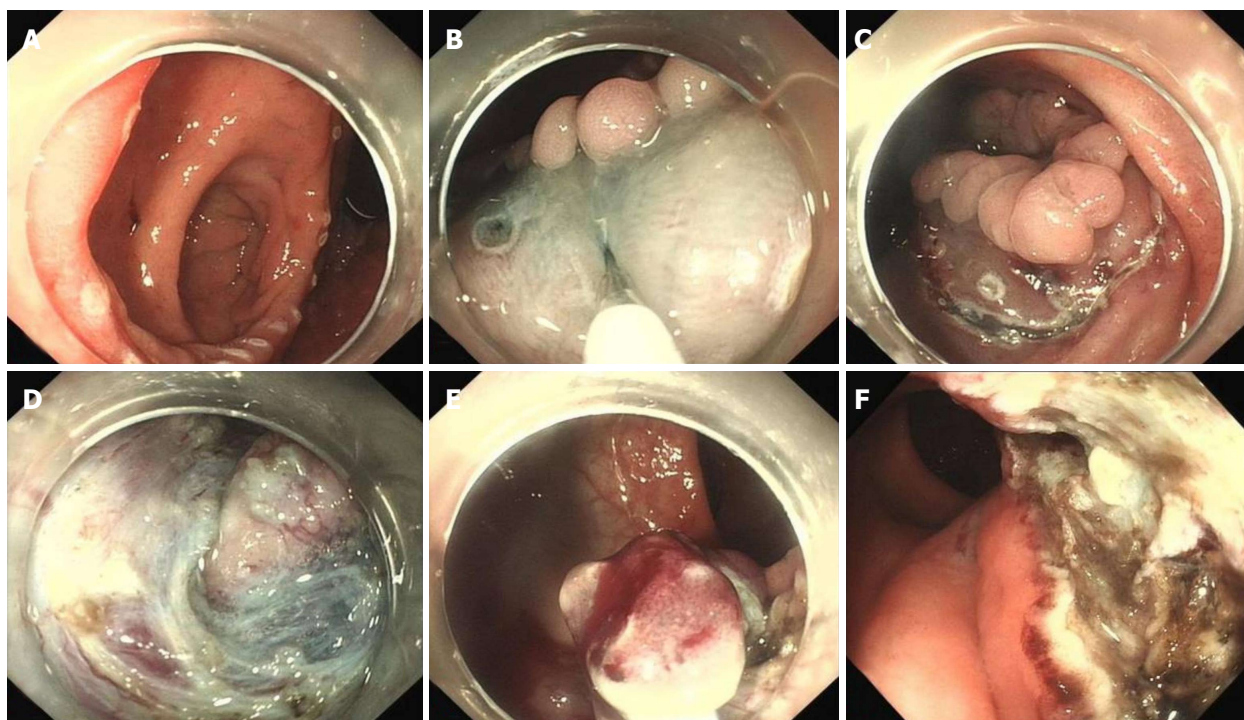


Figure 4 Endoscopic submucosal dissection of heterotopic gastric mucosa. A: Lesion marker; B: Submucosal layer injection; C: Circumferential incision; D: Dissection in the diverticular cavity; E: Piecemeal resection with a snare; F: Wound management.

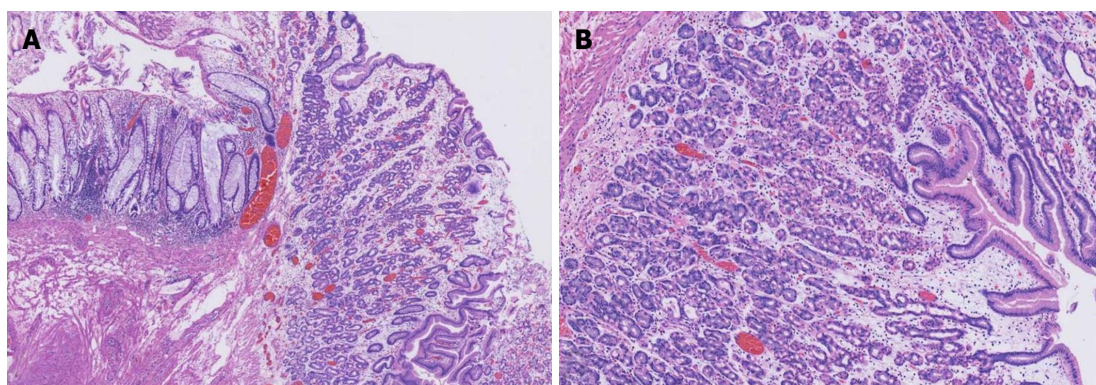


Figure 5 Histological examinations. Histologically, the specimen resected by endoscopic submucosal dissection showed ectopic gastric mucosa of the fundic-type.

the rectum. In most reported cases, rectal bleeding was successfully treated with proton pump inhibitor therapy and ulcer healing was achieved. However, recurrence can develop following the cessation of therapy and medication has failed to resolve heterotopic mucosa. In the surveillance report by Sauer *et al*^[19], macroscopically the size of the lesion was unchanged after 4 mo of acid inhibition. Therefore, medical therapy relieves symptoms only in the short-term and could be used, to some extent, before definitive HGM excision. Endoscopic resection or surgical excision is generally considered the treatment of choice and has resulted in complete relief following removal of the HGM. Conventional endoscopic interventions such as endoscopic snare resection (polypectomy or endoscopic mucosal resection^[20]) and ablation with APC are indicated in HGM patients mimicking polyps and small superficial lesions. ESD, enables *en*

bloc resection of superficial lesions especially in early GI cancer and LST, and could also be used in the treatment of HGM. To date, HGM in the rectum treated with ESD has been reported in only 2 cases^[10,12]. Surgery is another definitive treatment and can achieve complete resection of the lesion. However, given the concerns related to this benign entity, excessive surgery should be viewed with great caution, and would be the preferred approach in HGM with rectal duplication or serious complications such as major gastrointestinal bleeding, perforation, abscess or fistula, and for lesions following failed endoscopic resection.

In the present study, ESD was performed in our patient due to the large size and shape of the lesion. The presence of HGM in the diverticular cavity greatly increased the surgical difficulty. In addition, gastric acid secreted by HGM can induce chronic gastritis and

ulcerative complications that may lead to submucosal fibrosis and further influence the submucosal dissection. Lesion marker and submucosal layer injection were performed used a dual knife as in conventional ESD. We attempted dissection from the oral side and anal side separately to the base of the diverticulum to the best of our ability. Based on our previous experience, lidocaine was injected into the submucosal layer in order to relieve anal pain during dissection of the rectum near the anal canal due to its rich nerve supply. *En bloc* resection could not be completed due to the narrow space in the diverticulum, and piecemeal resection with a snare was feasible. Finally, endoscopic ablation of the lesion with low wattage APC was performed to manage possible residual HGM in the interior of the diverticulum. The lesion should be resected completely if possible as residual HGM can produce gastric acid and induce repeated delayed hemorrhage of the wound. This is the first reported case of the resection of a large HGM lesion and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum treated by ESD. Histological result revealed ectopic gastric mucosa of the fundic-type. No pyloric-type gastric mucosa was detected which was not in accordance with the results of NBI. This may have been due to less focal tissue of pyloric-type gastric mucosa in comparison with fundic-type gastric mucosa in the piecemeal resected lesion, the sampling or cutting site of the histological biopsy.

Recently, more and more new issues related to HGM in the rectum have been addressed. Many studies have reported the potential progression to malignancy in the esophagus and gallbladder. The risk and possibility of intestinal metaplasia, dysplasia and malignant progression to adenocarcinoma in the rectum have been incompletely evaluated. The study by Ko *et al.*^[21] examined a case of colonic adenocarcinoma arising from gastric heterotopia, which was the first case report in the literature. The colonization of *H. pylori* in rectal gastric heterotopic mucosa has been noted. In the review by Jarosław Swatek of 50 rectal gastric heterotopic mucosa patients, *H. pylori* was present in six patients^[22]. It is of interest to note that *H. pylori* passed through the whole GI tract to the rectum. *H. pylori* infection may have resulted in chronic active gastritis, ulceration or bleeding in the rectum. Thus, in cases associated with *H. pylori*, eradication treatment should be prescribed as the first therapeutic option^[23].

In summary, heterotopic gastric mucosa of the rectum is a very rare clinical entity which mainly presents as chronic painless rectal bleeding. The pathogenesis of this condition is unclear. The definitive diagnosis of HGM relies on histopathological examination. Endoscopy techniques such as NBI and CLE could help in the diagnosis of HGM without the need for biopsies. Endoscopic resection is thought to be the first-line treatment and surgical excision may be preferred in some patients. Further investigations on the pathogenesis, malignant transformation, *H. pylori* infection, and optimal treatment are necessary.

ARTICLE HIGHLIGHTS

Case characteristics

A 14-year-old girl visited our hospital due to a 5-year history of repeated hematochezia.

Clinical diagnosis

Heterotopic gastric mucosa (HGM) and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum found through colonoscopy examination.

Differential diagnosis

Ulcerative colitis.

Laboratory diagnosis

CA 19-9 was 61.2 U/mL, hemoglobin was 116 g/L, and stool occult blood examination was weakly positive. Other laboratory results were close to normal.

Imaging diagnosis

At colonoscopy, a solitary superficial depressed lesion, approximately 5 cm in size, with a diverticular cavity was identified in the rectum. Abdominal computed tomography revealed no obvious gastrointestinal lesions.

Pathological diagnosis

The pathology test confirmed the diagnosis of HGM.

Treatment

Endoscopic submucosal dissection.

Related reports

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of large HGM lesion and a concomitant diverticulum in the rectum treated by endoscopic submucosal dissection (ESD).

Term explanation

HGM is the most commonly reported epithelial heterotopia and has been described as heteroplasia in organogenesis or metaplasia during the repair of damaged epithelium.

Experiences and lessons

ESD is thought to be the safe and efficient treatment for HGM.

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