

A Lymphotoxin-Driven Pathway to Hepatocellular Carcinoma

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SUMMARY

Hepatitis B and C viruses (HBV and HCV) cause chronic hepatitis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) by poorly understood mechanisms. We show that cytokines lymphotoxin (LT) α and β and their receptor (LT β R) are upregulated in HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC. Liver-specific LT $\alpha\beta$ expression in mice induces liver inflammation and HCC, causally linking hepatic LT overexpression to hepatitis and HCC. Development of HCC, composed in part of A6⁺ oval cells, depends on lymphocytes and IKK β expressed by hepatocytes but is independent of TNFR1. In vivo LT β R stimulation implicates hepatocytes as the major LT-responsive liver cells, and LT β R inhibition in LT $\alpha\beta$ -transgenic mice with hepatitis suppresses HCC formation. Thus, sustained LT signaling represents a pathway involved in hepatitis-induced HCC.

INTRODUCTION

A causal relationship between chronic hepatitis, hepatocellular damage, fibrosis, and carcinogenesis is well established

(El-Serag and Rudolph, 2007). Various etiologies, including chronic alcohol consumption, chronic drug abuse, autoimmune disorders, toxins (e.g., aflatoxin B), or infections with hepatotropic viruses (e.g., HBV, HCV), can lead to chronic hepatitis,

SIGNIFICANCE

Pharmacological inhibition of LT β R signaling reduces pathogen- and concavalin A-induced liver injury, whereas LT β R signaling on hepatocytes appears to be beneficial during liver regeneration. We demonstrate that sustained hepatic LT expression in mice can be injurious, causing chronic hepatitis and HCC. Enhanced hepatic LT β R signaling might be of potential clinical relevance because LT β R and its ligands are drastically increased in human HBV- and HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC, compared with normal livers or nonviral, benign liver diseases. Thus, hepatic LT signaling might be advantageous if transiently active during liver regeneration, but detrimental if chronically triggered. We propose that suppression of hepatic LT β R signaling might be beneficial in liver diseases with chronic LT α , LT β , or LIGHT overexpression.

liver fibrosis, and cirrhosis. HBV and HCV infections are by far the most common cause of chronic hepatitis in humans (Malhi et al., 2006). Chronic HBV and HCV infections are frequently associated with HCC, the most prevalent primary human liver cancer (El-Serag and Rudolph, 2007), and except for HBV infections, liver cirrhosis precedes HCC in most cases. The exact mechanisms driving hepatitis-induced liver cancer remain elusive. Among others, aberrant expression of cytotoxic cytokines is thought to be critically involved (Greten and Karin, 2004; Lee et al., 2005; Lowes et al., 2003; Vainer et al., 2008).

The proinflammatory and homeostatic cytokines $LT\alpha$ and $LT\beta$ are members of the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) superfamily. Under physiological conditions, LTs are expressed by activated T-, B-, NK-, and lymphoid tissue inducer cells (Fu et al., 1998; Ware, 2005) and are crucial for organogenesis and maintenance of lymphoid tissues (Rennert et al., 1996; Tumanov et al., 2003). Although $LT\beta$ contains a transmembrane domain, $LT\alpha$ is soluble. Consequently, LT can exist as membrane-bound heterotrimers ($LT\alpha_1\beta_2$ or $LT\alpha_2\beta_1$) interacting with $LT\beta R$ or as soluble secreted homotrimers ($LT\alpha_3$) triggering TNF receptor (TNFR) 1 and TNFR2 and the herpesvirus entry mediator receptor (HVEM) (Browning et al., 1997; Ware, 2005). $LT\beta R$ and TNFR1 signaling can be activated by the HCV-core protein (Chen et al., 1997; Zhu et al., 1998) involving the canonical or noncanonical NF- κB signaling pathways (Ware, 2005; You et al., 1999). Furthermore, HBV or HCV infections lead to increased hepatic LT expression in vivo and in vitro (Lee et al., 2005; Lowes et al., 2003), and HCV replication has been demonstrated to depend on components of the $LT\beta R$ signaling pathway in vitro (Ng et al., 2007).

LTs can directly act on hepatocytes, which physiologically express high levels of $LT\beta R$ but little LT (Browning and French, 2002). T cell-derived LT and LIGHT (LT-like, exhibits inducible expression, competes with HSV glycoprotein D for HVEM, expressed by T-lymphocytes) signaling to hepatocytes controls lipoprotein homeostasis (Lo et al., 2007). In addition, LT signaling is important for liver regeneration through T cell-derived LT expression (Tumanov et al., 2008) and regulates hepatic stellate cell function and wound healing (Ruddell et al., 2008). Thus, hepatic $LT\beta R$ signaling controls liver homeostasis in both health and disease.

Promotion of HCC formation by chronic inflammatory stimuli has been recapitulated in various animal models. Ablation of the multidrug resistance gene 2 (*mdr2*) induces cholestatic hepatitis and liver cancer (Pikarsky et al., 2004), and administration of the chemical carcinogen diethylnitrosamine (DEN) causes acute liver injury and HCC (Maeda et al., 2005). Liver-specific expression of the hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) in mice demonstrates that chronic immune-mediated liver cell injury is critical for HCC formation (Nakamoto et al., 1998).

Triggering TNFR1 or $LT\beta R$ induces the classical and alternative NF- κB signaling pathways, which are linked to inflammation-induced carcinogenesis (Greten and Karin, 2004). However, the precise role of these pathways in HCC pathogenesis is controversial (Vainer et al., 2008). Mice lacking I κ B kinase β (IKK β) specifically in hepatocytes (*Ikk β ^{hep}*) exhibit a marked increase in DEN-induced HCC formation, suggesting a protective function of IKK β in HCC development (Maeda et al., 2005). In contrast, NF- κB signaling promotes HCC development in

mdr2^{-/-} mice, and anti-TNF α treatment is protective (Pikarsky et al., 2004). Interestingly, mice with a hepatocyte-specific deletion of IKK γ (also called NEMO) develop steatohepatitis and HCC (Luedde et al., 2007). Consequently, the role of NF- κB signaling in hepatocarcinogenesis might depend on the mouse model and the type or degree of liver inflammation and injury (Vainer et al., 2008). Here, we investigated a possible causal relationship between sustained hepatic $LT\beta R$ -signaling, chronic hepatitis, and HCC development.

RESULTS

Upregulation of $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, and $LT\beta R$ in HBV- or HCV-Infected Human Livers and in HCC

The specific role of LT signaling in the pathogenesis of virus-induced hepatitis and HCC formation is not completely defined. We analyzed transcriptional levels of $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, *LIGHT*, *TNF α* , $LT\beta R$, and *TNFR1* in human HBV- or HCV-induced chronic hepatitis and HCC or in nonviral HCC, compared with healthy liver specimens (Figure 1; Figure S1 available with this article online). $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, and $LT\beta R$ mRNA expression was increased, on average, $\sim 2^7$ - to 2^{10} -fold in HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC ($p < 0.001$); *LIGHT* transcripts were less, but still significantly, elevated (on average, $\sim 2^3$ - to 2^5 -fold; $p < 0.001$). Likewise, *TNFR1* mRNA expression was significantly increased in HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC (on average, $\sim 2^7$ - to 2^9 -fold; $p < 0.0001$). In contrast, *TNF α* was only slightly upregulated in HBV-induced hepatitis ($p = 0.04$) but not in HCV-induced hepatitis ($p = 0.3$) and HCC ($p = 0.4$).

In most cases, HCV genotype, degree of inflammation (Knodell score), fibrosis (Metavir score), and liver enzyme levels (ALT; AST) were assessed (Tables S1–S5). Levels of $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, and $LT\beta R$ mRNA did not correlate with the degree of liver inflammation ($p = 0.5$), fibrosis ($p = 0.5$), patient age ($p = 0.5$), sex ($p = 0.5$), HCV genotype, or type of virus infection (HBV, HCV, HBV/HCV coinfection in the case of some HCC; $p = 0.5$) (Figure S1; data not shown).

To determine whether upregulation of LT ligands and receptors was specific for HBV- or HCV-induced liver diseases, we examined transcript levels in nonviral liver diseases. These included liver disorders with hepatitis (alcoholic steatohepatitis [ASH], cholestasis [CH], primary biliary cirrhosis/autoimmune cholangitis [PBC], and end-stage liver cirrhosis due to alcoholic liver disease [CIR]) and liver diseases without inflammation (steatosis [ST] and focal nodular hyperplasia [FNH]). Additionally, other liver diseases (OLD), such as hemochromatosis/siderosis, Wilson's disease, focal liver fibrosis, α 1-antitrypsin deficiency, and nonviral HCC (NVH), were investigated.

Levels of $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, and $LT\beta R$ mRNA were significantly lower in all nonviral liver diseases analyzed except NVH, compared with virus-induced chronic hepatitis and HCC ($LT\alpha$, $p < 0.0001$; $LT\beta$, $p = 0.05$; $LT\beta R$, $p < 0.0001$; Figure 1; Figure S1). This was true whether or not nonviral liver diseases were associated with inflammation. *LIGHT* and *TNFR1* mRNA expression in nonviral liver diseases including NVH was similar to HBV- or HCV-induced chronic hepatitis and HCC. In contrast, *TNF α* mRNA expression was significantly higher in nonviral liver diseases with inflammation and NVH, compared with healthy livers ($p < 0.0001$) or HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC ($p < 0.0001$).

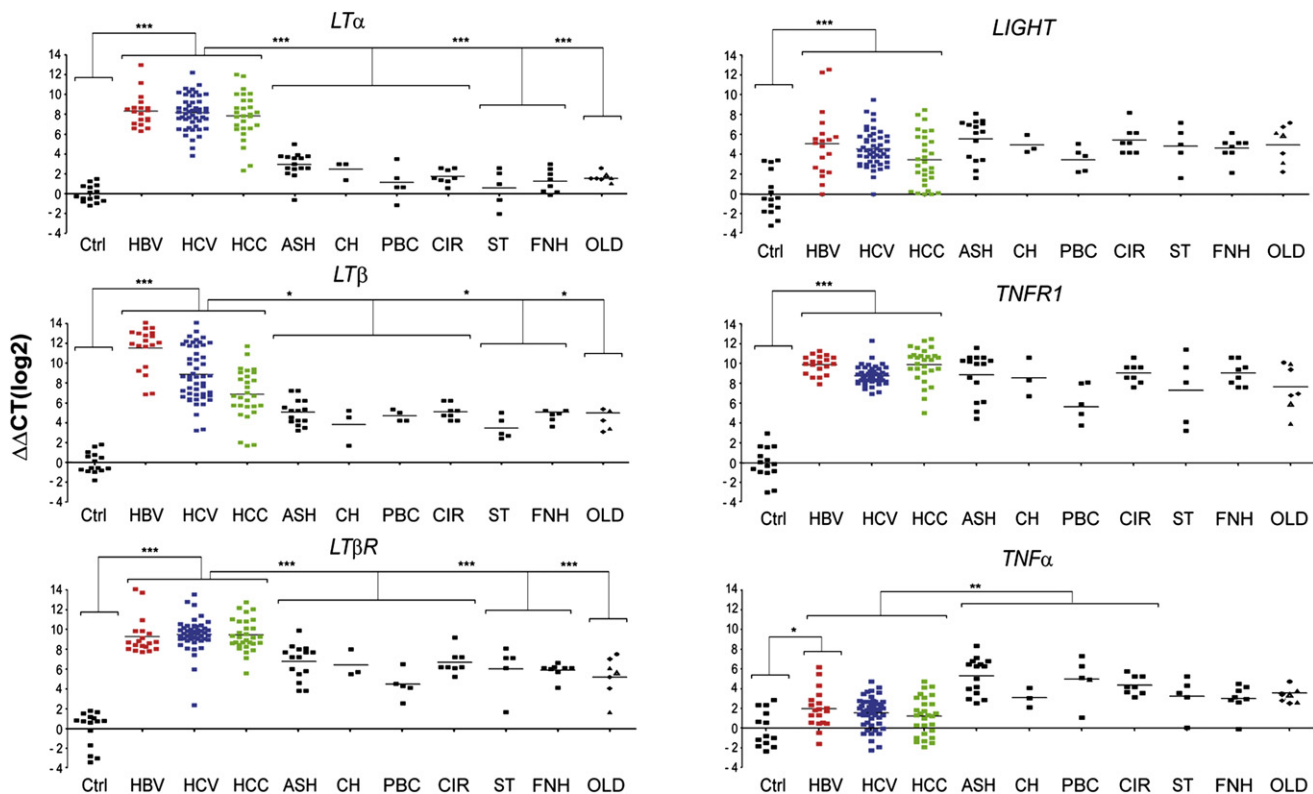


Figure 1. mRNA Expression of Some TNF-Superfamily and TNF-Receptor-Superfamily Members in Viral (HBV- and HCV-Induced) and Nonviral Liver Diseases

Analysis of hepatic *LTα*, *LTβ*, *LTβR*, *LIGHT*, *TNFR1*, and *TNFα* transcription by real-time PCR. Healthy individuals (Ctrl; n = 15), patients chronically infected with HBV (n = 19) or HCV (n = 49), affected by HCC (n = 30), or suffering from various non-virus-related liver disorders were investigated. Non-virus-related liver diseases with hepatitis include alcoholic steatohepatitis (ASH; n = 13), cholestasis (CH; n = 3), primary biliary cirrhosis/autoimmune cholangitis (PBC; n = 5), end-stage liver cirrhosis due to alcoholic liver disease (CIR; n = 8), α 1-antitrypsin deficiency (α 1AT; n = 1), and focal liver fibrosis (FLF; n = 2). Non-virus-related liver diseases without hepatitis include steatosis (ST; n = 5), hemochromatosis/siderosis (HE/SID; n = 3), and Wilson's disease (WD; n = 1). Focal nodular hyperplasia (FNH; n = 8) was investigated as a benign primary liver tumor. Diseases such as α 1AT (black circles), FLF (black triangles), HE/SID (black diamonds), and WD (white diamonds) are listed under "other liver diseases" (OLD). Horizontal bars represent the average mRNA expression level. The y axis describes the $\Delta\Delta CT$ values on a \log_2 scale. Asterisks indicate statistical significance: *p \leq 0.05; **p < 0.001; ***p < 0.0001.

Increased Chemokine Expression in HBV- or HCV-Induced Hepatitis and HCC

To confirm that proinflammatory signaling cascades are activated during HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC formation, chemokine mRNA levels were measured (Figure S1). *CCL2*, *CCL3*, *CCL5*, and *CXCL10* mRNA expression was significantly higher in human HBV-induced (p < 0.0001) or HCV-induced (p < 0.0001) hepatitis and HCC (p < 0.0001) than in healthy controls. *CXCL1* mRNA expression was significantly increased in HBV-induced hepatitis (p < 0.0001) and HCC (p = 0.02), but not in HCV-induced hepatitis (p = 0.07).

Upregulation of *LTα*, *LTβ*, and *LIGHT* in Human Hepatocytes upon HCV Infection In Vitro

We next investigated whether *LTα*, *LTβ*, *LIGHT*, and *LTβR* transcripts can be upregulated in hepatocytes as a consequence of viral infection. The human hepatocyte cell line Huh-7.5 (Blight et al., 2002) was challenged with infectious HCVcc (Pietschmann et al., 2006), and the expression of cytokines and chemokines was measured (Figure S2A). At 48–72 hr after infection, transcripts of *LTα* (p = 0.05), *LTβ* (p = 0.05), *LIGHT* (p = 0.05),

LTβR (p = 0.05), and chemokines (*CCL2*, *CCL3*, *CXCL1*, and *CXCL10*) were increased (2- to 32-fold) in HCVcc-infected, compared with noninfected Huh-7.5 cells.

Identification of Liver Cells Expressing *LTβR* and Its Ligands in HBV or HCV Infections

To identify the cellular source of *LTα*, *LTβ*, *LTβR*, and *LIGHT* expression in human HCV-infected livers, cells were collected from HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC (Figure 2A; Figure S2B). Liver cells were sorted according to their CD45 surface expression, resulting in CD45-enriched (T and B cells; monocytes, macrophages, and Kupffer cells; and dendritic and NK cells) or CD45-depleted (hepatocytes, oval cells, and bile duct epithelial and endothelial cells) fractions. Purity of these fractions was assessed by real-time PCR for lymphocyte (CD3, CD20, and CD45) or hepatocyte (cytokeratin 18) markers. CD45-depleted fractions displayed only a minor contamination with CD45 mRNA (~1%–10%), and CD45-enriched fractions showed only a minor amount of cytokeratin 18 mRNA transcripts (~2%–20%; Figure S2C; data not shown). Unsorted liver cells of healthy individuals were included as controls. Because of ethical

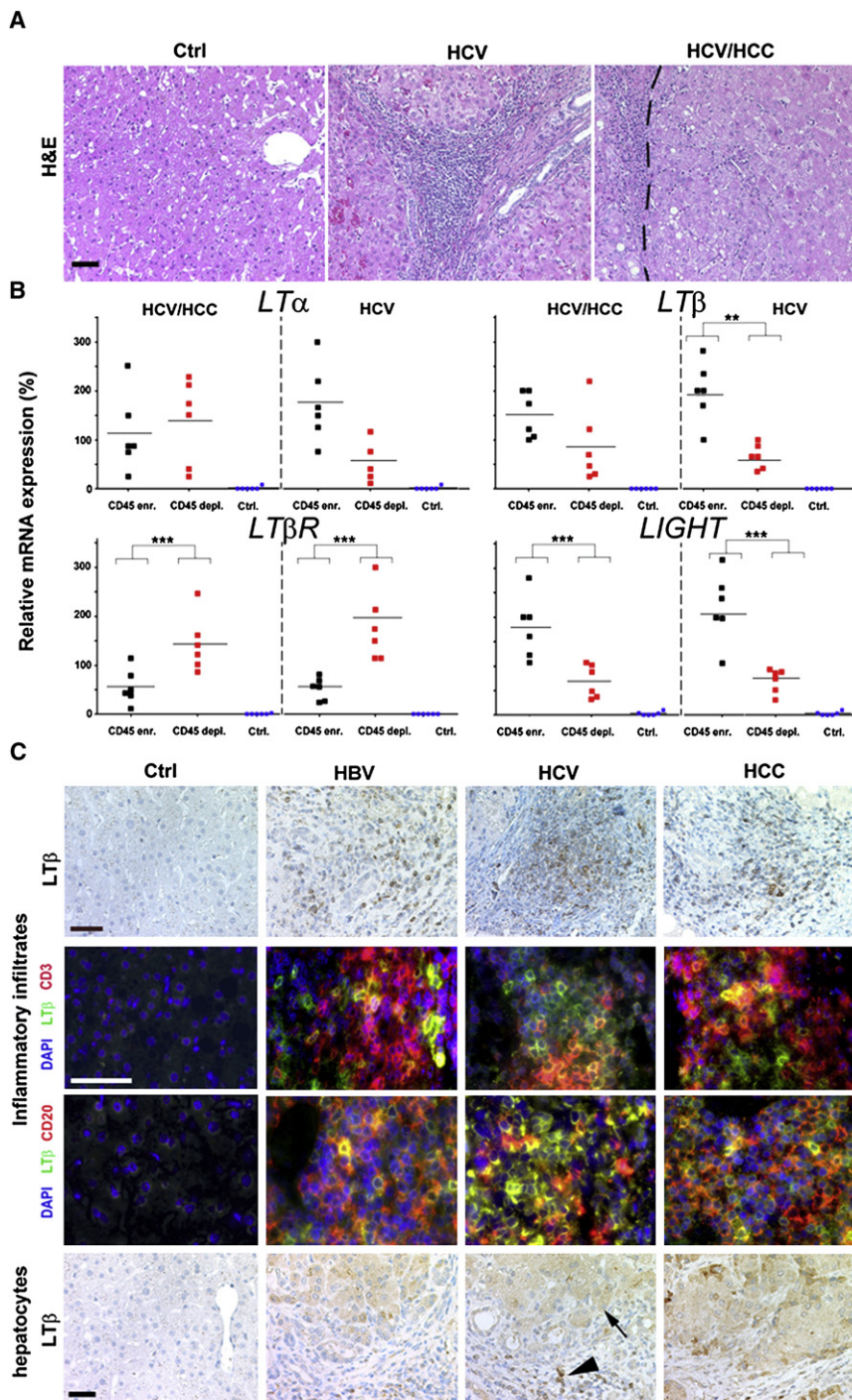


Figure 2. Identification of Cell Types Expressing Some TNF-Superfamily and TNF-Receptor-Superfamily Members in Virus-Infected or HCC-Affected Livers

(A) Histology of representative paraffin sections of healthy controls, HCV-infected livers, and HCC with HCV etiology. HCV-infected livers (HCV) and tumors (HCV/HCC) display leukocytic infiltrates. H&E, hematoxylin and eosin staining. The tumor border is indicated by a dashed line (scale bar, 100 μ m).

(B) Real-time PCR analysis of sorted, CD45-enriched, or CD45-depleted liver cells. For control, whole liver cell populations derived from healthy or diseased livers (HCV infected/HCC) were used. mRNA expression levels are normalized to unsorted, total cell populations of the respective liver disease and calculated as 100%. The average expression level is indicated as percentage of control (unsorted cells of the respective disease) and demarcated by horizontal bars. Asterisks indicate statistical significance (Student's t test): * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p < 0.001$; *** $p < 0.0001$.

(C) Immunohistochemical (upper and lower panels) and immunofluorescence analysis for $LT\beta$ expression in healthy, HBV- or HCV-infected and HCC-affected livers (scale bar, 50 μ m). Arrow-head depicts $LT\beta^+$ leukocytes, and an arrow depicts $LT\beta^+$ hepatocytes.

CD45-enriched cells ($p = 0.006$) or controls ($p < 0.0001$). In contrast, $LIGHT$ mRNA expression was significantly increased in CD45-enriched cells when compared to CD45-depleted cells ($p = 0.008$) or controls ($p = 0.0007$).

Within HCV-induced hepatitis, CD45-enriched cells exhibited a trend toward increased $LT\alpha$ mRNA levels ($p = 0.089$) and a significant increase in both $LT\beta$ and $LIGHT$ transcripts, compared with CD45-depleted cells ($LT\beta$, $p = 0.006$; $LIGHT$, $p = 0.01$), or controls. Similar to HCV-induced HCC, $LT\beta$ mRNA expression was significantly higher in CD45-depleted cells than in CD45-enriched cells ($p = 0.002$) or controls ($p < 0.0001$). Thus, both CD45-enriched and CD45-depleted cell fractions express $LT\alpha$, $LT\beta$, and $LIGHT$ in HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC.

Immunohistochemical analysis for $LT\beta$ protein expression corroborated these data: CD3⁺ and CD20⁺ lymphocytes and hepatocytes in HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC, but not those in healthy liver specimens, express $LT\beta$ protein (Figure 2C).

Hepatocyte-Specific $LT\alpha$ and $LT\beta$ Overexpression Induces Chronic Progressive Hepatitis

To determine whether sustained hepatic $LT\beta$ signaling is causally linked to chronic hepatitis and liver cancer, we analyzed two

consideration, not enough human healthy liver tissue was available in order to perform cell sorting.

Within HCV-induced HCC, CD45-enriched and -depleted liver cells expressed similar $LT\alpha$ or $LT\beta$ mRNA levels ($LT\alpha$, $p = 0.8$; $LT\beta$, $p = 0.1$) that were significantly higher than in controls ($p < 0.0001$) (Figure 2A). $LT\beta$ mRNA transcript levels were significantly higher in CD45-depleted cells, compared with

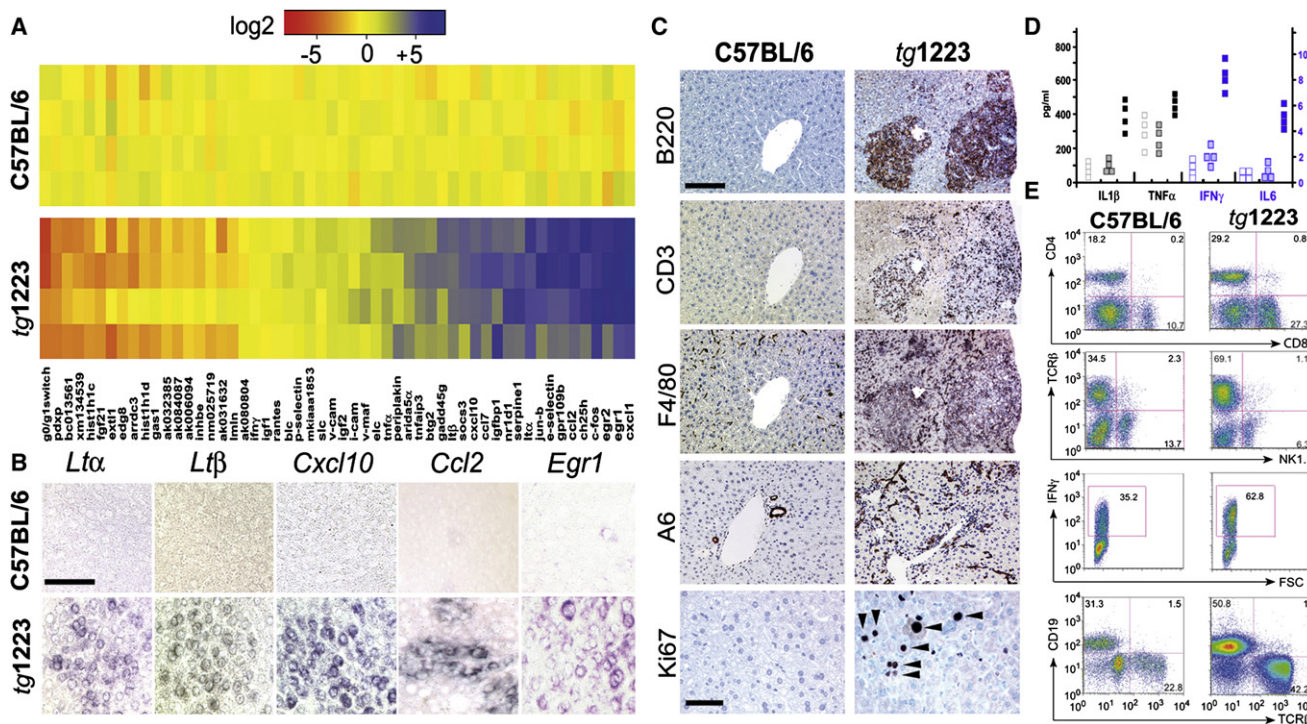


Figure 3. Characterization of Livers from *tg1223* Mice

(A) Real-time PCR analysis for mRNA expression in liver of candidate genes at the age of 3 months. Data are presented in a log₂ scale (blue, upregulated; red, downregulated). Rows indicate individual mice; columns represent particular genes. Each data point reflects the median expression of a particular gene resulting from three to four technical replicates, normalized to the mean expression value of the respective gene in C57BL/6 livers.

(B) In situ hybridization of C57BL/6 and *tg1223* liver sections with *Lt α* , *Lt β* , *Cxcl10*, *Ccl2*, and *Egr1* antisense probes (age of 3 months). Multiple scattered foci of hepatocyte-specific *Lt α* , *Lt β* , *Cxcl10*, *Ccl2*, and *Egr1* mRNA were detected (scale bar, 50 μ m).

(C) Immunohistochemical analysis of representative 9-month-old C57BL/6 and tg1223 livers. B220⁺-stained B cells, CD3⁺ T cells, F4/80⁺ macrophages, Kupffer cells, and A6⁺ oval cells (scale bar, 150 μ m). Ki67⁺ proliferating hepatocytes (arrow heads) and inflammatory cells are indicated (scale bar, 50 μ m).

(D) ELISA for IL1 β , TNF α , IFN γ , and IL6 in C57BL/6 (hollow symbols), *tg1223* (filled symbols), or *tg1222* (dotted symbols) liver homogenates (9 months).

(E) Flow cytometry of intrahepatic lymphocytes at 9 months of age: CD4 (T helper cells), CD8 (cytotoxic T cells), TCR β (T cells), CD19 (B cells), IFN γ (Interferon γ). IFN γ expression was monitored on CD4 $^{+}$ /CD8 $^{+}$ gated T cells. Representative flow cytometry analyses are shown. Numbers in each quadrant indicate the relative percentage of cells. Staining intensity is depicted on a log scale. FSC, forward scatter.

transgenic mouse lines that expressed $LT\alpha$ and $-\beta$ in a liver-specific manner at low (*tg1222*) or high (*tg1223*) level (Heikenwalder et al., 2005). Although livers of *tg1222* and *tg1223* mice were histologically indistinguishable from those of control littermates at three months of age (Figure S3), the hepatic transcriptome was already considerably altered in *tg1223* and to a lesser degree in *tg1222* mice (Figure 3A; data not shown). Genes with the most dramatic expression changes were identified by DNA-microarray analysis and confirmed by real-time PCR (Figure 3A). As expected, *Lt α* and *Lt β* transcripts were increased in *tg1222* and *tg1223* livers (Figure 3A; data not shown). Additionally, mRNA expression of chemokines (*Ccl2*, *Ccl7*, *Cxcl1*, and *Cxcl10*), genes involved in early growth response (e.g., *Egr1* and *Egr2*), cholesterol metabolism (e.g., *Ch25h*), and immediate early response (e.g., *c-Fos*, *Jun-b*, and *Socs-3*) were significantly ($p < 0.0001$) elevated. In contrast, genes involved in cell cycle control, histone modifications, and cell metabolism were significantly downregulated ($p < 0.0001$) (Figure 3A; Tables S6–S8 and Figure S4). In situ hybridization revealed *Lt α* , *Lt β* , *Cxcl10*, *Ccl2*, and *Egr1* mRNA transcripts in hepatocytes of 3-month-old *tg1223* mice (Figure 3B; Figure S3).

At the age of 4 months, a slight increase in intrahepatic CD11b⁺, CD68⁺, and MHCII⁺ cells was detected in *tg1223* mice, compared with age-matched *tg1222* or C57BL/6 mice (Figure S3; data not shown). At this time point, no significant increase in IL1 β , IFN γ , IL6, and TNF α protein levels was found (data not shown). At 4–6 months, transgenic livers started to develop strong portal and lobular (*tg1223*) or weak portal (*tg1222*) inflammation consisting of CD4⁺, CD8⁺ T cells, B220⁺ B cells, and CD11c⁺ dendritic cells (Figure S3; Heikenwalder et al., 2005).

At ≥ 9 months of age, *tg1223* livers exhibited strong portal and lobular lymphocytic infiltrates (Figure 3C). A pronounced influx of F4/80⁺ macrophages and proliferation of A6⁺ oval cells was observed. Chronic inflammation coincided with increased proliferating Ki67⁺ hepatocytes (*tg1223*, 17 ± 5 Ki67⁺ cells/mm² liver section; C57BL/6, 0.5 ± 0.3 Ki67⁺ cells/mm² liver section; $p = 0.003$), which was not significant in age-matched *tg1222* livers ($p = 0.08$; Figure 3C; data not shown).

At this stage, hepatitis was accompanied by increased protein levels of IL1 β ($p = 0.05$), IFN γ ($p = 0.05$), and IL6 ($p = 0.05$), and, to a lesser degree, TNF α in *tg1223* livers. In *tg1222* livers, we observed only a slight elevation of these cytokines, compared

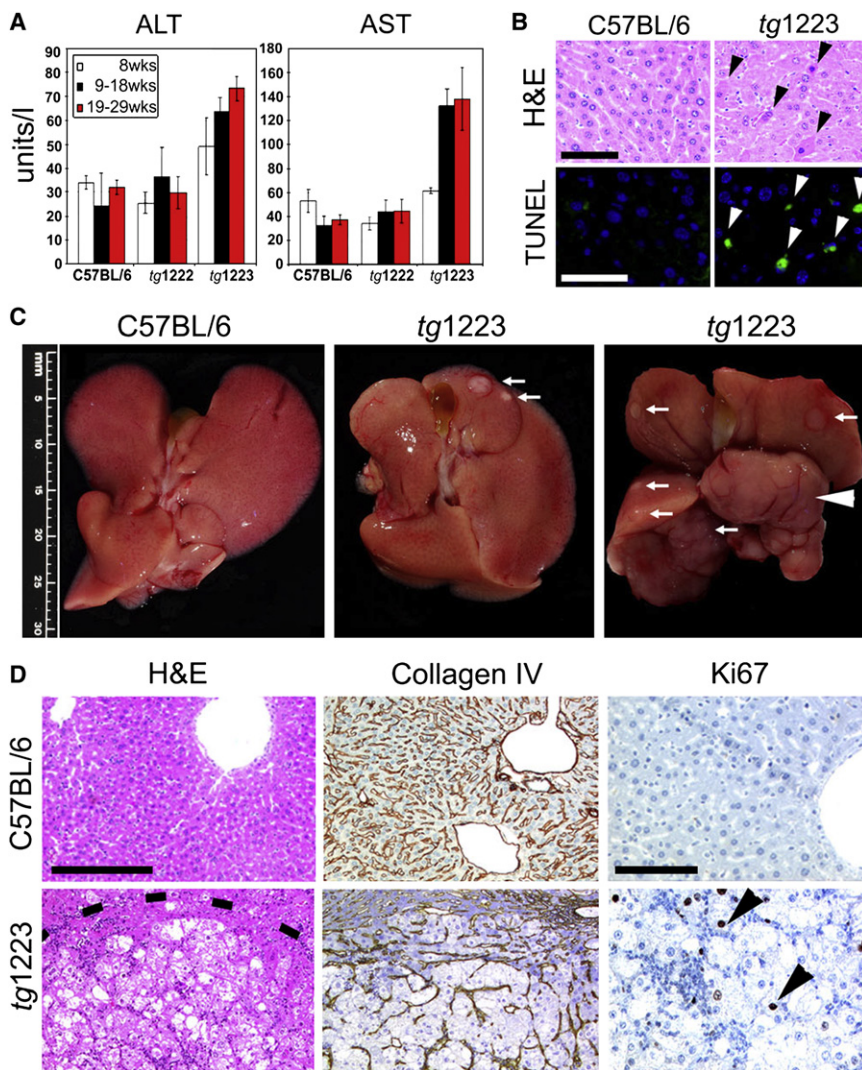


Figure 4. Chronic Liver Injury and HCC Development in *tg1223* Mice

(A) Analysis of transaminase levels (ALT and AST) in sera of transgenic and control mice. Standard deviation (\pm SD) is indicated by error bars.

(B) Increased hepatocyte cell death in *tg1223* livers documented by H&E staining and TUNEL/DAPI assay. Black arrowheads indicate apoptotic hepatocytes. TUNEL, green TUNEL⁺ hepatocyte nuclei indicate apoptosis (white arrowheads; scale bars, 50 μ m).

(C) Macroscopy of C57BL/6 (left panel) and *tg1223* livers at the age of 12 (middle panel) and 18 months (right panel). White arrows indicate tumor nodules. White arrowhead indicates a liver lobe completely affected by HCC. Scale bar size is indicated.

(D) Histological analysis of livers derived from C57BL/6 and *tg1223* mice. Dashed line depicts the HCC border. Collagen IV staining highlights the broadening of the liver cell cords and loss of collagen IV networks indicative of HCC in *tg1223* mice (scale bar, 200 μ m). High numbers of Ki67⁺ proliferating hepatocytes (arrowheads) are only found in *tg1223* HCC (right column; scale bar, 100 μ m).

with C57BL/6 (Figure 3D). Quantitative analysis of total intrahepatic lymphocytes revealed an increase in *tg1223* livers (C57BL/6, $17\text{--}24 \times 10^6$ cells/liver; *tg1223*, $35\text{--}73 \times 10^6$ cells/liver; $p < 0.05$). Intrahepatic lymphocytes were further characterized by flow cytometry (Figure 3E). Frequencies of CD8⁺ (C57BL/6, $18\% \pm 11\%$; *tg1223*, $38\% \pm 10\%$), CD4⁺ (C57BL/6, $16\% \pm 3\%$; *tg1223*, $26\% \pm 6\%$) and TCR β ⁺ T cells (C57BL/6, $33.5\% \pm 9\%$; *tg1223*, $63.5\% \pm 4\%$) were elevated ($n = 4$), whereas NK1.1⁺ cells (C57BL/6, $12\% \pm 2\%$; *tg1223*, $7\% \pm 2\%$) were reduced in *tg1223* livers. Furthermore, an increase in the frequency of CD19⁺ B cells was found in *tg1223* livers (C57BL/6, $25\% \pm 7\%$; *tg1223*, $52\% \pm 4\%$). Elevated frequencies of IFN γ -producing CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were found in *tg1223* mice, whereas IL17-producing cells remained unchanged (Figure 3E; data not shown).

LT α and LT β Overexpression Induces Hepatotoxicity

To determine whether chronic hepatitis leads to hepatocyte cell death in *tg1222* or *tg1223* mice, we analyzed serum transaminase levels (ALT and AST). From the age of 19 weeks on, serum ALT and AST levels were significantly elevated ($p = 0.05$) in *tg1223*, but not in *tg1222* mice (Figure 4A), and apoptotic

hepatocytes were frequently detected in *tg1223* mice (*tg1223*, 40.3 ± 11.4 TUNEL⁺ cells/mm² liver section; C57BL/6, 3.9 ± 6.2 TUNEL⁺ cells/mm² liver section; $p = 0.0005$), but rarely in *tg1222* and virtually absent in C57BL/6 mouse livers from the age of 6 months on (Figure 4B; Figure S5; data not shown for *tg1222*).

Hepatitis persisted in both transgenic lines for ≥ 18 months. Phenotypes were much milder in *tg1222* mice, implying

that the LT expression level determined the severity of inflammation and liver injury. Therefore, *tg1223* mice were selected for additional experiments, and further key results were obtained from this mouse line.

Microarray and real-time PCR analyses revealed elevated mRNA expression of genes involved in embryogenesis (e.g., *Dmrt1*), liver inflammation (e.g., *Pbfe1*), carcinogenesis (e.g., *Phlda3* and *Thrsp*; Kawase et al., 2009), glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity (e.g., *Fgf21*), and reduced mRNA expression of genes responsible for cell-cycle control (*Gadd45*) and protease inhibition (*SerpinA9*) in 9-month-old *tg1223* livers, compared with C57BL/6 livers (Figure S5 and Tables S9–S11). Several genes were strongly up- or downregulated in 3-month-old *tg1223* livers (Figure 3A) and returned to normal levels at 9 months, except that *Lta* and β -mRNAs remained at high levels. On the other hand, genes involved in cell division, liver inflammation, lipid metabolism, wound healing, and tumorigenesis were significantly upregulated ($p < 0.001$), whereas genes involved in growth arrest and apoptosis were significantly downregulated ($p < 0.001$) in 9-month-old compared with 3-month-old *tg1223* livers (Figure S5; Tables S12–S17).

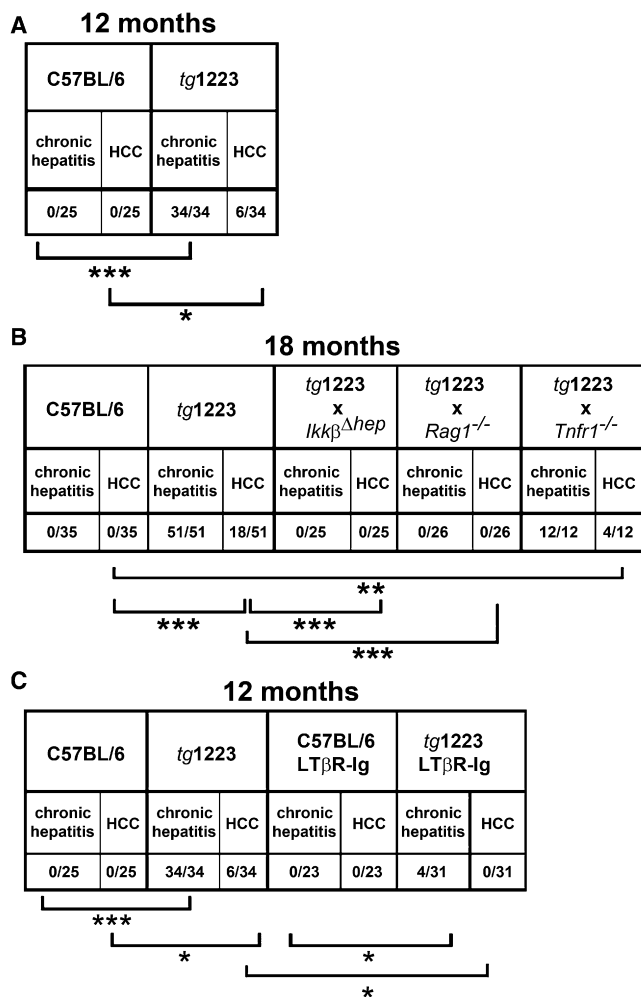


Figure 5. Chronic Hepatitis and HCC Incidence in *tg1223* Mice, *tg1223* Mice Intercrossed with Various Knockout Mice, and LTβR-Ig-Treated *tg1223* Mice

(A) Chronic hepatitis and HCC incidence in 12-month-old *tg1223* and C57BL/6 mice.
 (B) Chronic hepatitis and HCC incidence in 18-month-old *tg1223* and intercrossed *tg1223* mice.
 (C) Reduced chronic hepatitis and HCC incidence in 12-month-old *tg1223* mice treated with LTβR-Ig. Statistical evaluation: asterisks indicate the degree of statistical significance. **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.001; ****p* < 0.0001.

HCC Development in *tg1223* Mice

At 12 months of age, about 20% (6/34) of *tg1223* mice developed macroscopically visible nodules that classified histologically as HCC, including broadening of liver cell cords, loss of collagen IV networks, and increased proliferative activity. In contrast, age-matched C57BL/6 livers lacked HCC (0/20; *p* = 0.05) (Figures 4C, 4D, and 5). Tumor frequency increased with age, reaching ~35% (18/51) by 18 months, whereas C57BL/6 mice did not develop HCC (0/35; *p* < 0.0001) (Figure 5; Figure S6). Tumors varied in size (1–25 mm), and histology and affected both sexes with similar frequencies (males:females = 13:11; *p* = 0.3) (Figure 4; Tables S18 and S19).

A6⁺ oval cells (Engelhardt et al., 1990) were focally (8/24) or diffusely (2/24) distributed within some *tg1223* HCC. The remain-

ing *tg1223* HCC (14/24) lacked A6⁺ cells but were surrounded by them at the border zone of HCC (Figure S6).

Chromosomal Aberrations and Local Spread of HCC in *tg1223* Mice

We further investigated microdissected *tg1223* HCC (*n* = 9) and age-matched C57BL/6 livers (*n* = 5) for chromosomal aberrations. Array comparative genomic hybridization analysis (aCGH) revealed chromosomal aberrations in all *tg1223* HCC (Figure 6). Amplifications and deletions of chromosomal regions ranged from ≤1 megabase (MB) to 160 MB and were detected in most autosomes of all analyzed *tg1223* HCC. Of note, the pattern of chromosomal aberrations varied in HCC from different individual *tg1223* mice (*p* = 0.34). aCGH analysis of independent C57BL/6 liver DNA samples did not reveal significant chromosomal aberrations.

We did not detect lung metastases but often saw multifocal intrahepatic disease in 18-month-old *tg1223* mice. We therefore investigated whether multifocal *tg1223* HCC represented intrahepatic spread of clonal tumors. Independent HCC (*n* = 6) from different lobes of the same *tg1223* liver were microdissected and subsequently analyzed by aCGH. All HCC taken from the same liver displayed significantly overlapping chromosomal aberrations throughout the entire genome (*p* < 0.05), suggesting a clonal relationship of a tumor that has locally spread within the liver (Figure 6B).

Expression of Tumor Markers GP73, GS, and AFP in *tg1223* HCC

We then evaluated expression of human liver tumor markers golgi protein 73 (GP73), glutamine synthetase (GS), and α-fetoprotein (AFP) in *tg1223* livers (Bachert et al., 2007; Marrero and Lok, 2004; Sakamoto, 2009). GP73, GS, and AFP protein expression was elevated in most *tg1223* HCC, as detected by immunohistochemistry and immunoblot analysis, compared with C57BL/6 livers or unaffected liver regions adjacent to HCC (Figures 7A–7C; data not shown).

Mechanisms Driving LTαβ-Induced Chronic Hepatitis and Liver Cancer

To identify other receptors and molecular mediators potentially involved in LT-induced chronic hepatitis and HCC development, we intercrossed *tg1223* with *Tnfr1^{-/-}*, *Tnfr2^{-/-}*, or *Ikkβ^{Δhep}* mice. The requirement of lymphocytes in chronic hepatitis and HCC formation was investigated by intercrossing with *Rag1^{-/-}* mice, which lack mature lymphocytes.

The absence of IKKβ, TNFR1, or lymphocytes per se did not appear to influence transgenic *Ltα* and *-β* mRNA expression (Figures 3A and 7D). Initially, at 3 months of age, *tg1223/Ikkβ^{Δhep}*, *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}*, *tg1223/Tnfr2^{-/-}*, and *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}* mice lacked histological evidence of hepatitis similar to *tg1223* mice (data not shown). The aberrant hepatic gene expression pattern described for 3-month-old *tg1223* mice developed only partially in *tg1223/Ikkβ^{Δhep}* and *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}* mice, whereas *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* livers displayed an expression profile similar to that of *tg1223* mice (Figure 7D; Figure S7). At 9 months of age, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}* (*n* = 26) and *tg1223/Ikkβ^{Δhep}* (*n* = 18) livers lacked hepatitis, hepatocyte, or oval-cell proliferation (Figure S4), whereas *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* (*n* = 8) or *tg1223/Tnfr2^{-/-}* (*n* = 8) livers

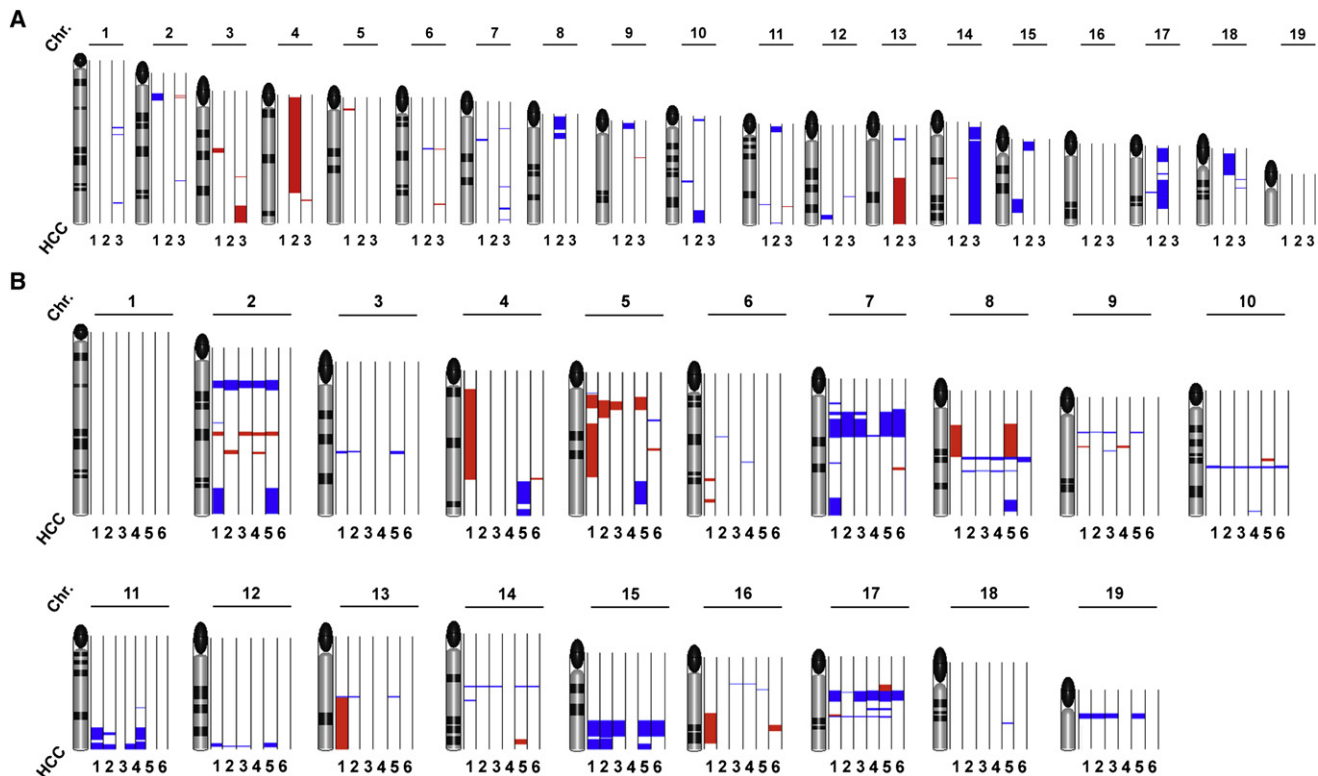


Figure 6. aCGH Analysis of HCC from *tg1223* Mice

The q-arm of each chromosome is shown, and chromosome numbers are indicated. Black ellipses on the top of each q-arm represent the centromere. Dark horizontal bars within the symbolized chromosomes represent G bands. Chromosomal deletions are indicated in blue, and amplifications are indicated in red (see [Experimental Procedures](#) for details).

(A) HCC of individual *tg1223* mice were hybridized against liver tissue of age-matched C57BL/6 mice and analyzed by aCGH analysis. Columns next to each chromosome represent individual HCC (1, 2, 3), with numerous chromosomal aberrations on the q-arm of various autosomes. No common pattern of chromosomal aberrations could be detected.

(B) aCGH analysis of six representative HCC (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6) taken from different lobes of the same *tg1223* liver.

were indistinguishable from those of *tg1223* mice (Figure 3C and Figures 7E and 7F; Figure S7).

At the age of 18 months, *tg1223/Rag1*^{-/-} (*n* = 26) and *tg1223/Ikkβ^{Δhep}* (*n* = 25) mice were devoid of hepatitis and HCC (*p* < 0.0001) (Figures 5 and 7G), suggesting that both lymphocytes and hepatocyte-specific IKKβ expression are required for LT-induced chronic hepatitis and HCC development. Notably, *tg1223/Tnfr1*^{-/-} mice displayed HCC (4/12) with an incidence similar to that among *tg1223* mice (Figures 5 and 7G; Figure S8; Tables S18 and S19), indicating that TNFR1 signaling is not essential for LT-induced HCC formation in *tg1223* mice.

Hepatocytes Are the Major Responsive Liver Cells to Agonistic LTβR Antibody Treatment

To investigate whether hepatocytes represent the major LT-responsive liver cells and to investigate LTβR signaling in *Tnfr1*^{-/-} and *Ikkβ^{Δhep}* livers, TNFα (positive control), agonistic LTβR antibody (3C8), and appropriate negative controls (PBS; rat IgG) were administered intravenously to C57BL/6 and various knockout mice (Figure 8; Figure S8). Nuclear p65 (RelA) translocation in hepatocytes and nonparenchymal cells (NPC, e.g., Kupffer cells and lymphocytes), alterations in the hepatic tran-

scriptome, and protein expression of selected chemokines were examined.

Administration of 3C8 induced nuclear p65 translocation, primarily in hepatocytes and some NPC of C57BL/6 livers (Figure 8A), as well as transcriptional changes and upregulation of selected chemokines reminiscent of those observed in 3-month-old *tg1223* livers (Figure 8A; Figure S9). Similar results were obtained after 3C8 treatment of *Tnfr1*^{-/-} mice, in contrast to *Ikkβ^{Δhep}* livers, which were devoid of nuclear p65 translocation in hepatocytes and NPC (Tables S20 and S21). Furthermore, upregulation of selected NF-κB target genes could not be detected. Control *Ltβr*^{-/-} mice treated with 3C8 lacked nuclear p65 translocation in hepatocytes or NPC, as well as upregulation of selected NF-κB target genes.

To examine whether lack of functional IKKα on hepatocytes and NPC would suppress LTβR-induced upregulation of selected NF-κB responsive genes, we investigated livers of mice expressing a nonphosphorylatable IKKα^{AA} knockin allele (*Ikkα^{AA/AA}*; Cao et al., 2001). Upon 3C8 treatment, *Ikkα^{AA/AA}* mice upregulated selected NF-κB responsive genes (Figure S8). The degree of mRNA upregulation in liver was similar to that in 3C8-treated C57BL/6 mice. In contrast, control treated (rat IgG) *Ikkα^{AA/AA}*

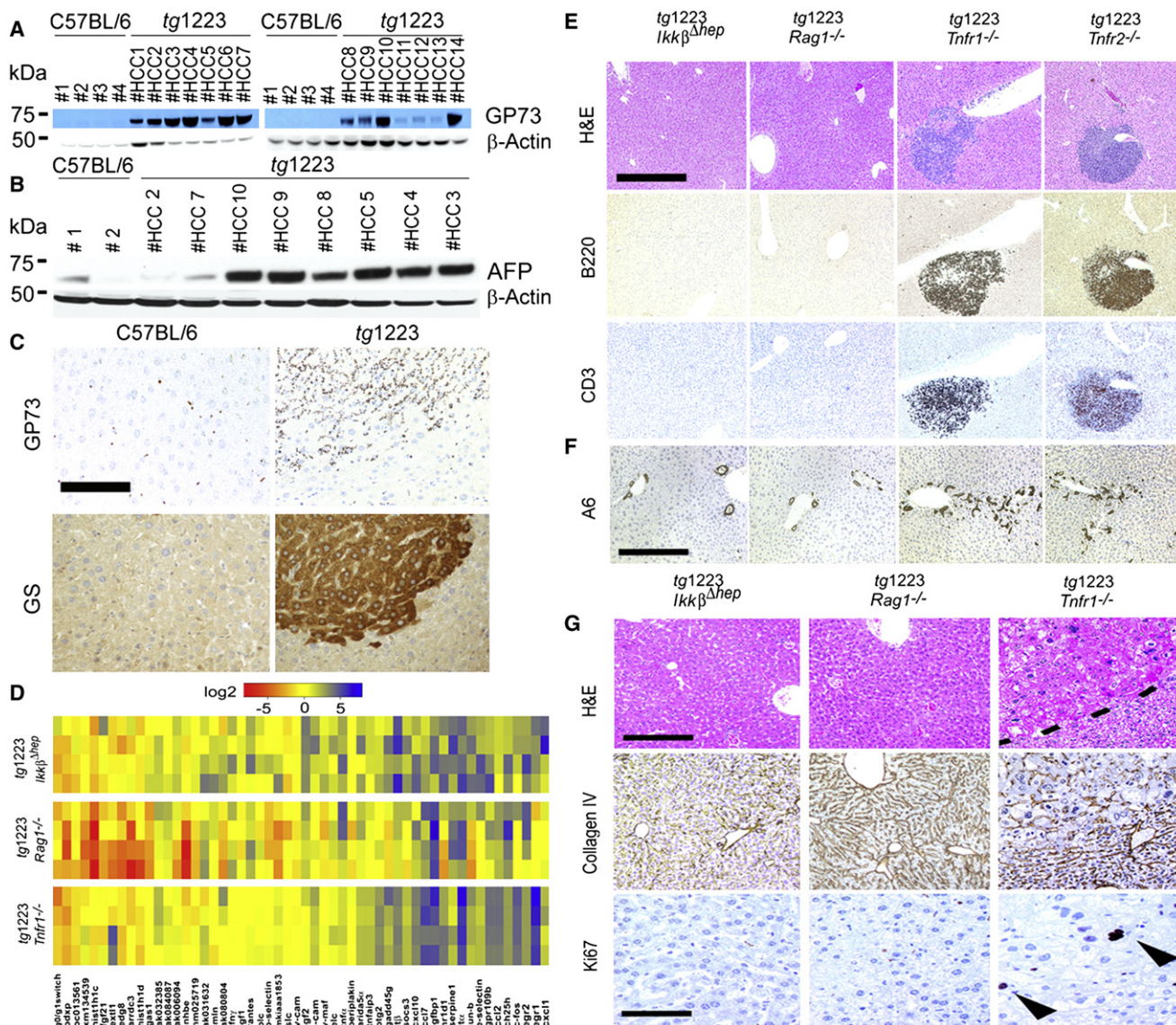


Figure 7. Expression of Tumor Markers in *tg1223* HCC and Mechanistic Characterization of Liver Carcinogenesis in *tg1223* Mice

(A) Immunoblot analysis of C57BL/6 and *tg1223* HCC homogenates for GP73. Strong to moderate signal intensities were detected in all *tg1223* HCC, but not in C57BL/6 livers.

(B) Immunoblot analysis of C57BL/6 and *tg1223* HCC homogenates for AFP. β-Actin served as a loading control (kDa, kilo Dalton).

(C) Immunohistochemistry for GP73 and GS in a representative *tg1223* HCC and age-matched C57BL/6 control (scale bar, 100 μm).

(D) mRNA expression of candidate genes in livers of 3-month-old *tg1223/Ikκβ^{Δhep}*, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}*, and *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* mice. Data are presented in a log₂ scale (blue, upregulated; red, downregulated). Rows indicate individual mice; columns represent particular genes. Each data point reflects the median expression of a particular gene resulting from three to four technical replicates, normalized to the mean expression value of the respective gene in C57BL/6 livers.

(E) Histological analysis of *tg1223/Ikκβ^{Δhep}*, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}*, *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}*, and *tg1223/Tnfr2^{-/-}* livers at 9 months of age. H&E, B220 for B cells and CD3 for T cells (scale bar, 500 μm).

(F) Immunohistochemical analysis of A6⁺ cells (oval cells) in livers of *tg1223/Ikκβ^{Δhep}*, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}*, *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}*, and *tg1223/Tnfr2^{-/-}* mice at 9 months of age (scale bar, 500 μm).

(G) Immunohistochemical analysis of *tg1223/Ikκβ^{Δhep}*, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}*, and *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* livers (18 months of age). Dashed line depicts the HCC border (upper row; scale bar, 200 μm). Collagen IV staining highlights the broadening of liver cell cords and loss of collagen IV networks in *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* HCC. Ki67⁺-proliferating hepatocytes are indicated by arrowheads (lower row; scale bar, 50 μm).

mice lacked upregulation of selected NF-κB responsive genes. This finding suggests that 3C8-mediated hepatic LTβR signaling is mainly integrated by hepatocytes involving canonical NF-κB pathway.

Inhibition of LTβR Signaling Reduces Chronic Hepatitis and Carcinogenesis

We further investigated the involvement of LTβR signaling in the transition of chronic hepatitis to HCC by long-term LTβR-Ig

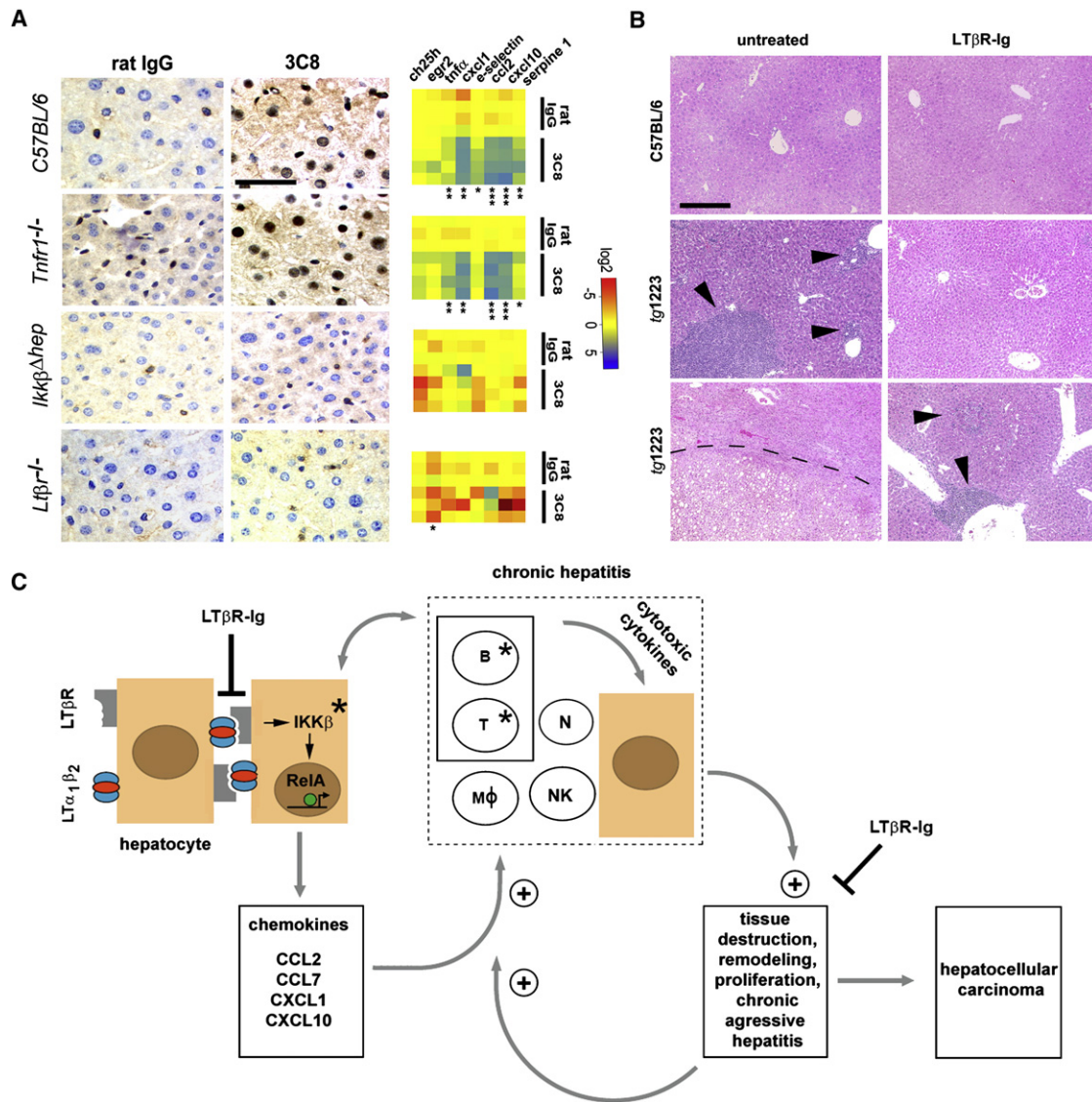


Figure 8. Effects of Acute 3C8 and Long-Term LTβR-Ig Treatment and a Model of Chronic Inflammation-Induced Hepatocarcinogenesis in *tg1223* Mice

(A) Immunohistochemical analysis of nuclear p65 translocation and real-time PCR for mRNA expression of selected NF-κB target genes in livers of C57BL/6 and various knockout mice treated with 3C8. Data are presented on a log₂ scale (blue, upregulated; red, downregulated). Rows indicate individual mice; columns represent particular genes. Each data point reflects the median expression value of a particular gene resulting from three to four technical replicates, normalized to the mean expression value of the respective gene in C57BL/6 livers. (scale bar, 50 μm). Expression data are depicted according to treatment group: rat IgG (control) or 3C8 (LTβR agonist). Statistical significance was evaluated by *t* test: **p* ≤ 0.05; ***p* < 0.001; ****p* < 0.0001.

(B) Histological analysis (H&E) of livers from untreated (left column) and LTβR-Ig treated (right column) C57BL/6 or *tg1223* mice (12 months of age). Representative sections show no hepatitis or HCC in untreated or LTβR-Ig-treated C57BL/6 livers (upper row). Untreated *tg1223* livers display hepatitis in 34/34 (middle panel, left column) and HCC in 6/34 cases (lower panel, left column). LTβR-Ig treatment reduces the incidence of hepatitis (middle and lower panel, right column) and prevents HCC formation in LTβR-Ig treated *tg1223* mice. Arrowheads indicate inflammatory foci. Tumor border is indicated by a dashed line (scale bar, 200 μm).

(C) Scheme of chronic inflammation-induced liver carcinogenesis in *tg1223* mice: Transgenic hepatocytes (brown) express LTα and -β and induce chemokine production (e.g., CCL2, CCL7, CXCL1, and CXCL10) in the presence of IKKβ and intrahepatic lymphocytes. Chemoattraction and activation of myeloid cells and lymphocytes expressing particular chemokine receptors (e.g., CXCR3, CXCR2, CCR2, and CCR1) cause hepatitis: CXCL10 attracts CXCR3⁺ T and NK cells, CXCL1 CXCR2⁺ T cells, B cells, neutrophils, and CCL2 CCR2⁺ macrophages, and CCL7 attracts CCR1⁺ monocytes. Activated, infiltrating immune cells secrete cytotoxic cytokines (e.g., IL6, IL1β, TNFα, IFNγ, and LTαβ) that cause tissue destruction, hepatocyte proliferation, cell death, and tissue remodeling. In such an environment, hepatocytes are susceptible to chromosomal aberrations leading to HCC. Tissue destruction and remodeling supports the infiltration of activated inflammatory cells (e.g., myeloid cells), leading to a feed-forward loop toward chronic aggressive hepatitis. Asterisks indicate that genetic depletion of those components (IKKβ; T and B cells) blocks chronic hepatitis development and HCC. Blocking LTβR signaling with LTβR-Ig in 9-month-old *tg1223* mice reduces chronic hepatitis incidence and prevents HCC. (+) indicates the fortification of a described process. (-) indicates the suppression of a described process. The transcription factor RelA is schematically depicted as a green circle, inducing transcription of NF-κB target genes (e.g., chemokines) (arrow). B, B cells; T, T cells; MΦ, macrophages; N, neutrophils; NK, NK cells.

administration in *tg1223* mice. Nine-month-old *tg1223* mice with chronic hepatitis ($n = 31$) or age-matched C57BL/6 mice ($n = 23$) were treated with LT β R-Ig for 2 months, remained untreated for another 4 weeks, and then were sacrificed.

LT β R-Ig treatment significantly reduced chronic hepatitis incidence in *tg1223* mice, compared with that in untreated *tg1223* mice (treated, 4/31; untreated, 34/34; $p < 0.0001$). Furthermore, LT β R-Ig treatment suppressed chronic hepatitis-driven HCC formation (treated, 0/31; untreated, 6/34; $p < 0.05$) (Figures 5 and 8B). LT β R-Ig treatment did not lead to overt histopathological alterations in C57BL/6 livers or overt changes in lymphocyte (B and T cells) or macrophage populations within spleens of C57BL/6 or *tg1223* mice (data not shown). Efficiency of LT β R-Ig treatment was ascertained by the loss of LT β R-dependent follicular dendritic cells (FDCs) within C57BL/6 and *tg1223* spleens (Figure S9). Thus, our results imply that long-term suppression of LT β R reduces chronic hepatitis incidence and can prevent the transition from chronic hepatitis to HCC in *tg1223* mice.

DISCUSSION

This study uncovered drastic and robust mRNA upregulation of LT β R, LT α , and LT β in HBV- or HCV-induced hepatitis and HCC. LT and LIGHT transcripts were mainly expressed by CD3⁺ T cells and CD20⁺ B cells; a significant proportion of LT α and LT β expression was also attributable to hepatocytes. Notably, upregulation of LT β R, LT α , and LT β transcripts was also detected in non-virus-related HCC, which could stem from activated, tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes and/or from neoplastic hepatocytes that have upregulated LT, possibly in response to IL6. It was demonstrated that HCC-derived cell lines express IL6 (Baffet et al., 1991) and that LT levels are increased in response to IL6 in the latter (Subrata et al., 2005).

LT signaling induces both canonical and noncanonical NF- κ B signaling pathways, whose role in controlling liver cancer formation remains controversial (Vainer et al., 2008). In a mouse model with acute DEN exposure, depletion of functional NF- κ B signaling (*Ikk β ^{Δhep}* mice) increased hepatocyte cell death, enhanced Kupffer cell activation, and elevated HCC incidence (Maeda et al., 2005). In contrast, NF- κ B signaling promotes HCC development in *mdr2^{-/-}* mice (Pikarsky et al., 2004), and hepatocyte-specific depletion of IKK β prevents HCC formation in *tg1223* mice. How can this contradictory role of IKK β signaling in HCC formation be reconciled? On the one hand, IKK β signaling might be required for hepatocytes to appropriately respond to and survive carcinogenic stimuli and acute liver injury (e.g., DEN exposure). On the other hand, IKK β signaling might enable chemokine expression by hepatocytes, leading to hepatitis and HCC. Consistent with this hypothesis, *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}* mice were devoid of chronic hepatitis, hepatocyte, or oval-cell proliferation and failed to develop HCC.

Why could immune cells contribute to liver tumorigenesis? One explanation might be that CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T cells expressing inflammatory cytokines (e.g., IL1 β , TNF α , and IFN γ), as well as cytolytic proteins (e.g., Granzyme B), contribute to hepatocyte cell death, tissue remodeling, and transformation, finally leading to HCC (Budhu and Wang, 2006; Nakamoto et al., 1998). Intrahepatic lymphocytes may also influence the production of inflam-

matory mediators, because 3-month-old *tg1223/Rag1^{-/-}* livers displayed markedly reduced cytokine and chemokine levels.

We propose that, rather than directly acting as a cell-autonomous oncogene on hepatocytes or A6⁺ oval cells, hepatic LT α β expression induces local upregulation of chemokines (e.g., *Ccl2*, *Cxcl10*, *Cxcl1*, and *Ccl7*) by hepatocytes. This leads to the attraction of circulating inflammatory cells and a hyperproliferative, hepatotoxic environment stochastically leading to HCC formation (Figure 8C). It is worth mentioning that some chemokines found in this study (e.g., CXCL10) have been reported to be mainly expressed by human hepatocytes in chronic hepatitis C (Zeremski et al., 2007).

Ablation of TNFR1 signaling did not prevent chronic hepatitis and HCC formation in *tg1223* mice, although anti-TNF α antibody treatment prevents HCC development in *mdr2^{-/-}* mice (Pikarsky et al., 2004). We investigated the mode of LT signaling in *Tnfr1^{-/-}* livers upon 3C8 treatment. This treatment induced analogous hepatic changes seen in *tg1223* mice at 3 months of age. Similar to our results with *tg1223/Tnfr1^{-/-}* mice, this finding suggests that heterotrimeric LT causes p65 translocation in hepatocytes and induces a TNFR1-independent signaling cascade via LT β R, presumably contributing to chronic hepatitis and HCC. Most probably, HCC formation in *mdr2^{-/-}* mice depends on pathways involving TNFR1 distinct from the LT β R-dependent pathways described in our study.

Intravenous administration of TNF α into *Ikk β ^{Δhep}* mice did not cause p65 translocation in hepatocytes but upregulated NF- κ B target genes, presumably through TNF α -activated NPC. In contrast, 3C8 treatment in *Ikk β ^{Δhep}* mice had no effect. Therefore, hepatocytes but not NPC are likely to be the major liver cells integrating LT signaling. Interestingly, upon 3C8 treatment, *Ikk α ^{AA/AA}* livers upregulated selected NF- κ B target genes, similar to C57BL/6 mice (Figure S8). Therefore, the absence of IKK α in hepatocytes and NPC allows NF- κ B target gene expression upon 3C8 treatment, suggesting the involvement of the classical NF- κ B pathway in LT β R-induced hepatic signaling.

LT β R signaling was reported to induce oval-cell proliferation (Akhurst et al., 2005), which is thought to contribute to the development of liver tumors (Lee et al., 2006). We observed proliferation of A6⁺ oval cells in chronically inflamed *tg1223* livers at the age of 9 months and found A6⁺ cells within and at the border of *tg1223* HCC. Whether those A6⁺ cells represent transformed oval cells contributing to liver carcinogenesis or whether A6 is upregulated on aberrant hepatocytes within HCC remains to be determined.

Lack of lymphocytes or chronic hepatitis prevented oval-cell proliferation, although LT α and β transgene expression was unaltered. Therefore, it is conceivable that activated, infiltrating lymphocytes or Kupffer cells may contribute to oval cell proliferation by providing further LT or other cytokines in *tg1223* livers. On the basis of the presented data, a sequence of events leading to chronic hepatitis and HCC in *tg1223* mice can be proposed (Figure 8C).

What are the possible clinical implications of our findings? It has recently been demonstrated that pharmacological inhibition of LT β R signaling reduces virus-, bacteria-, and concavalin A-induced liver injury (An et al., 2006; Anand et al., 2006; Puglielli et al., 1999), whereas triggering LT β R signaling on hepatocytes appears to be beneficial during liver regeneration (Tumanov

et al., 2008). Moreover, siRNA knock-down of various components of the LT β R signaling pathway (e.g., LT β and RelA) were shown to interfere with HCV replication in vitro (Ng et al., 2007). Therefore, inhibition of LT β R signaling might also impede the efficiency of HCV replication.

What are the possible side effects of blocking LT β R signaling? The reported effects include alterations in the microarchitecture of white pulp follicles and disappearance of FDC networks in nonhuman primates (Gommerman et al., 2002). Of note, despite the loss of FDCs and a reduced capacity to trap immune complexes, the primary antibody response to keyhole limpet hemocyanin was not significantly altered (Gommerman et al., 2002).

Accordingly, we have investigated a possible beneficial effect of blocking LT β R signaling in *tg1223* mice with chronic hepatitis. This partially reverted inflammation and prevented HCC formation, suggesting that LT β R-Ig treatment might be beneficial in liver pathologies with sustained LT signaling.

Our results show that LT signaling is critically involved in hepatitis and subsequent HCC development and imply that blocking LT β R signaling might become a beneficial therapeutic approach in the context of HBV- or HCV-induced chronic hepatitis and other liver diseases displaying sustained hepatic LT β R signaling.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Human Liver Tissue

Human liver biopsy specimens were obtained from University Hospitals Zurich, Freiburg, Grenoble, Heidelberg, and Graz. Biopsy specimens were registered in the respective biobanks and kept anonymous. The research project was authorized by the ethical committees of the "Gesundheitsdirektion Kanton Zürich" (Ref. Nr. StV 26-2005), Freiburg (Nr. 299/2001), Heidelberg (Prof. Bannasch), Graz (Ref. Nr. 1.0 24/11/2008), and Grenoble (Ref. Nr. 03/APTF/1). The study protocol was in accordance with the ethical guidelines of the Helsinki declaration. Patients were enrolled after giving their written informed consent. HBV- or HCV-infected patients with chronic hepatitis were not treated with ribavirin or other immunomodulatory drugs at the time point of needle biopsy.

Mice

Animals were maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions, and experiments were approved and conform with the guidelines of the Swiss Animal Protection Law, Veterinary office, Canton Zurich. Mouse experiments were performed under licenses 198/2007, 83/2007, and 30/2005 according to the regulations of the Veterinary office of the Canton Zurich. *Tg1223*, *tg1222*, *Tnfr1^{-/-}*, *Tnfr2^{-/-}*, *Rag1^{-/-}*, *Lt β r^{-/-}*, *Ikk α ^{AA/AA}*, and *Ikk β ^{dhap}* mice were generated as previously published (Bluethmann et al., 1994; Cao et al., 2001; Futterer et al., 1998; Heikenwalder et al., 2005; Maeda et al., 2005; Mombaerts et al., 1992).

TNF α and 3C8 Treatment

Twelve-to-fourteen-week-old male mice (C57BL/6 and knock-out mice) were intravenously injected with either PBS, murine recombinant TNF α (50 μ g/kg bodyweight; R&D Systems), agonistic LT β R antibody (50 μ g/mouse; clone 3C8; eBioscience), or rat IgG (50 μ g/mouse; eBioscience) and sacrificed for analysis 45 min after injection. All substances were injected at a total volume of 100 μ l dissolved in PBS.

Isolation of Intrahepatic Murine Lymphocytes

Mice were anesthetized, and liver was perfused with PBS to remove circulating leukocytes; then isolated liver tissue was minced and digested in medium containing collagenase (1 mg/ml) and DNase (25 μ g/ml) at 37°C for 40 min. Cells were centrifuged at 300 rpm for 3 min to sediment the majority of hepatocytes. Supernatant was removed and centrifuged again at 1200 rpm for 10 min. Cell

pellet was resuspended in the 40% fraction of a 40:80 Percoll gradient. Upon centrifugation at 2500 rpm for 20 min, intrahepatic murine lymphocytes (IHLs) were collected at the interface. IHLs were analyzed for surface marker expression by staining with anti-CD4, anti-CD8, anti-TCR- β , anti-NK1.1, or anti-CD19 antibodies (Abs), and for cytokine production capacity by intracellular staining with anti-IFN γ and anti-IL17 Abs (all from eBioscience) upon PMA/Ionomycin stimulation for 4 hr by using a two-laser FACScalibur (BD). Analysis was executed with CellQuest and FlowJo software.

Measurement of Aminotransferases

The analysis for AST and ALT was performed with mouse serum on a Roche Modular System (Roche Diagnostics) with a commercially available automated colorimetric system at the Institute of Clinical Chemistry at the University Hospital Zurich using a Hitachi P-Modul (Roche).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

Gene expression microarray data are deposited in the ArrayExpress database under accession number E-MEXP-1998. aCGH data are deposited in the GEO database under accession number GSE 14467.

SUPPLEMENTAL DATA

Supplemental data include Supplemental Experimental Procedures, nine figures, and 21 tables and may be found with this article online at [http://www.cell.com/cancer-cell/supplemental/S1535-6108\(09\)00294-3](http://www.cell.com/cancer-cell/supplemental/S1535-6108(09)00294-3).

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