

Interferon Alfa Regulated Gene Expression in Patients Initiating Interferon Treatment for Chronic Hepatitis C

Xuhuai Ji,^{1,2} Ramsey Cheung,^{1,2} Stewart Cooper,³ Qingqin Li,⁴ Harry B. Greenberg,^{1,2,5} and Xiao-Song He^{1,2}

Interferon alfa (IFN- α) is an approved therapeutic agent for chronic hepatitis C. To directly characterize the effects of IFN- α in humans, we used microarrays to profile gene expression in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from hepatitis C patients treated with IFN- α . Seven patients were studied using two strategies: (1) *in vivo*: PBMCs were collected immediately before the first dose of IFN- α , and 3 and 6 hours after the dose; (2) *ex vivo*: PBMCs that were collected before the first IFN- α dose were incubated with IFN- α for 3 and 6 hours. The microarray datasets were analyzed with significance analysis of microarrays (SAM) to identify genes regulated by IFN- α . We identified 516 named genes up-regulated at least 2-fold, at a false discovery rate (FDR) of less than 1%. *In vivo* and *ex vivo* studies generated similar results. No genes were identified as regulated differently between these 2 experimental conditions. The up-regulated genes belonged to a broad range of functional pathways and included multiple genes thought to be involved in the direct antiviral effect of IFN- α . Of particular interest, 88 genes directly relating to functions of immune cells were up-regulated, including genes involved in antigen processing and presentation, T-cell activation, lymphocyte trafficking, and effector functions, suggesting that IFN- α up-regulates multiple genes involving different aspects of immune responses to enhance immunity against hepatitis C virus. In conclusion, IFN- α -inducible genes can be identified in human PBMCs *in vivo* as well as *ex vivo*. Signature changes associated with different treatment outcomes may be found among these genes. (HEPATOLOGY 2003;37:610-621.)

Interferon alfa (IFN- α) alone or in combination with ribavirin are the only Food and Drug Administration-approved treatments for chronic hepatitis C. The treatment has a low sustained virologic response rate¹⁻³ and often is accompanied by significant side effects.² The mechanisms for the anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) effects of IFN- α are largely unknown. They are believed to include IFN- α -induced changes in hepato-

cyte gene expression that directly suppress HCV replication, and the modulation of immune cell functions that enhances antiviral immunity. *In vitro* studies with tissue culture cells revealed that IFN- α up-regulates expression of genes encoding a wide variety of proteins, some of which have been associated with direct or indirect antiviral effects.⁴ However, the overall *in vivo* effect of IFN- α on gene expression in patients receiving IFN- α treatment is characterized poorly.

Recently developed microarray technology⁵ enables simultaneous monitoring of expression of thousands of host genes, providing an opportunity to study complex signal transduction systems at the genomic level. To extend our understanding of the antiviral mechanism of IFN- α and to eventually identify IFN- α -regulated genes directly associated with treatment outcome, we have used microarray analysis to characterize expression of genes responding to IFN- α in chronic hepatitis C patients starting IFN- α treatment. Our first goal was to assess the general pattern of gene expression induced *in vivo* by IFN- α treatment. To examine whether significant differences existed in the pattern of gene expression induced by IFN- α *in vivo* and *ex vivo*, we have conducted experiments under both conditions.

Abbreviations: IFN, interferon; HCV, hepatitis C virus; mRNA, messenger RNA; SAM, significance analysis for microarray; PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cell; cDNA, complementary DNA; FDR, false discovery rate; ISG, IFN-stimulated genes.

From the ¹Department of Medicine, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford; ²VA Palo Alto Health Care System, Palo Alto; ³Department of Medicine, University of California, San Francisco; ⁴Medimmune Vaccines, Mountain View, CA; and ⁵Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN.

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Address reprint requests to: Xiao-Song He, Ph.D., VA Medical Center 154C, Building 101, Room C4-171, 3801 Miranda Ave., Palo Alto, CA 94304. E-mail: xiaosong@stanford.edu; fax: 650-852-3259.

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Table 1. Microarray Analysis of Chronic Hepatitis C Patients Treated With IFN- α

Patient	Age	HCV Genotype	Liver Pathology		Virologic Response	Number of Microarrays			
			Grade	Stage		In Vivo		Ex Vivo	
						3 h	6 h	3 h	6 h
P1	55	3a	3	1-2	Sustained responder	1	2	ND	2
P2	48	3a	4	1-2	Relapser	1	ND	1	ND
P3	58	1a	3	3	Nonresponder	1	ND	1	ND
P4	65	3a	3	2	Nonresponder	1	ND	1	ND
P5	55	1a	3	3	Nonresponder	1	3	1	1
P6	56	1a	2	2-3	Nonresponder	1	3	2	2
P7	45	3a	2	2	(Not applicable)	1	1	1	2

NOTE. The virologic response to the treatment was determined by standard qualitative HCV-RNA test (Amplicor, Roche Laboratories, with a sensitivity of 50 IU/mL). Nonresponder is defined as a positive serum HCV RNA at the end of 6-month treatment. Relapser is defined as a negative serum HCV RNA at the end of 6-month treatment and a positive serum HCV RNA 6 months after the treatment. Sustained responder is defined as a negative serum HCV RNA both at the end of 6-month treatment and 6 months after the treatment. Patient P7 stopped treatment after the first dose of IFN- α .

Abbreviation: ND, not done.

Most prior microarray studies relied on fold-change of the messenger RNA (mRNA) level to define up-regulated or down-regulated genes, or relied on cluster analysis⁶ to identify coherent patterns of multiple gene expression. Although these analytic approaches may reveal intriguing information regarding different biologic processes, they provided little information about statistical significance. Specifically, it has been shown that the approach of classifying genes as significantly changed based solely on fold-change criteria may result in an unacceptably high rate of false positives.⁷ In the current study, we use significance analysis of microarrays (SAM)⁷ to search for genes regulated by IFN- α *in vivo* or *ex vivo*, and genes differentially respond to IFN- α under different conditions. These studies generate a comprehensive picture of IFN- α -induced genes in humans, which forms the basis of this report.

Patients and Methods

Patients and Blood Samples. Seven patients (Table 1) starting interferon alfa-2b/ribavirin (Schering, Kenilworth, NJ) combination therapy for chronic hepatitis C were enrolled. The study protocol was approved by the Administrative Panel on Human Subjects in Medical Research of Stanford University. Informed consent was obtained from each subject. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were prepared from venous blood by using a Cell Preparation Tube with sodium citrate (BD Vacutainer Systems, Franklin Lakes, NJ), which is based on Ficoll gradient centrifugation.

In Vivo and Ex Vivo Studies. For *in vivo* study, blood samples were collected from the patients immediately before the first dose of IFN- α , and 3 and 6 hours after the injection, before the first ribavirin dose. For *ex vivo* study, aliquots of PBMCs isolated from the pre-IFN- α blood samples were incubated at 37°C in RPMI

1640 medium, supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum at 10⁶ cell/mL, with or without 200 U/mL of IFN- α -2b, for 3 and 6 hours.

Preparation of Fluorescence-Labeled Targets and Complementary DNA Microarray Hybridization.

Total RNA was extracted from PBMCs by using Trizol LS Reagent (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). mRNA was amplified by using a previously described strategy.⁸ In brief, 3 μ g of total RNA was used to synthesize double-strand complementary DNA (cDNA) that contained a promoter for T7 RNA polymerase. Amplified antisense RNA was synthesized by *in vitro* transcription of the cDNA templates by using the T7 Megascript kit (Ambion, Austin, TX). The antisense RNA was labeled by Cy3-deoxyuridine triphosphate or Cy5-deoxyuridine triphosphate (Amersham, England, UK), using Superscript II (Life Technologies) with random hexamer primer. For the *in vivo* study, the antisense RNA derived from PBMCs of the pre- and postinjection blood samples were labeled with Cy3 and Cy5, respectively. For the *ex vivo* study, the antisense RNA derived from PBMCs incubated with and without IFN- α were labeled with Cy5 and Cy3, respectively. The Cy3- and Cy5-labeled targets were mixed and hybridized to cDNA microarrays as previously described.^{8,9} Based on the availability of blood samples, duplicate or triplicate microarray hybridizations were performed for some subjects (Table 1). In each of the repetitive experiments, Cy3/Cy5-labeled targets were prepared by independent cDNA synthesis, antisense RNA amplification, and labeling reactions. A total of 30 microarray datasets were generated and analyzed. The microarrays were obtained from Stanford Functional Genomics Facility (Stanford, CA). Each microarray contained 39,552 array elements corresponding to 38,432 human sequence-verified genes.

Signal Detection and Processing. The fluorescence signal on microarrays was acquired by using a GenePix 4000b microarray scanner (Axon Instruments, Foster City, CA). The scanned images were processed by using the GenePix Pro 3.0 software (Axon Instruments). The data files were entered into the Stanford Microarray Database.¹⁰ The red (Cy5) signal on all the array elements was normalized so that the median Cy5/Cy3 ratio of all nonflagged elements on each array was equal to 1. A filter was set to select array elements with a regression correlation of R greater than 0.6.

Significance Analysis of Microarray Data. The normalized and filtered Cy5/Cy3 ratios of all microarray elements were downloaded from the Stanford Microarray Database in 4 groups, resulting in the following 4 sets of microarray data: *ex vivo* 3-hour, *ex vivo* 6-hour, *in vivo* 3-hour, and *in vivo* 6-hour (Table 1), which were analyzed with SAM.⁷ Duplicate and triplicate arrays derived from the same blood samples, as well as arrays derived from different subjects in the same group, were treated equally as repeated measurements. To identify IFN- α -regulated genes within each group, 1-class SAM analysis was performed. This analysis generated a list of genes with an average Cy5/Cy3 ratio significantly different from 1.0, along with an estimate (at 90% confidence) of the percentage of such genes identified by chance, or the false discovery rate (FDR), which is based on permutations of repeated measurements.⁷ FDR can be adjusted by setting a threshold Δ at different stringencies, resulting in different numbers of genes whose change in expression were classified as significant. To identify genes regulated differently between two groups, 2-class SAM analysis was performed, which generated a list of genes with significantly different average Cy5/Cy3 ratios accompanied with an estimate (at 90% confidence) of FDR.

Annotation of Gene Functions. A list of all IFN- α -inducible genes identified by 1-class SAM analysis was first compiled. The criteria for a gene to be included were: identified in at least 1 of the 4 experimental groups, FDR less than 1%, and the average fold-change greater than 2. A total of 904 genes, including 516 named genes and 388 hypothetical proteins, expressed sequence tags, and other unnamed human cDNA clones met these criteria. The named genes were first analyzed by using the proprietary program SAGA (Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN), which automatically classified the genes into known function/pathway groups. Genes that remained unclassified after SAGA analysis were assigned manually a functional classification based on information retrieved from Stanford Online Universal Resource for Clones and expressed sequence tags (SOURCE) (<http://genome-www5.stanford.edu/cgi-bin/SMD/source/sourceSearch>).

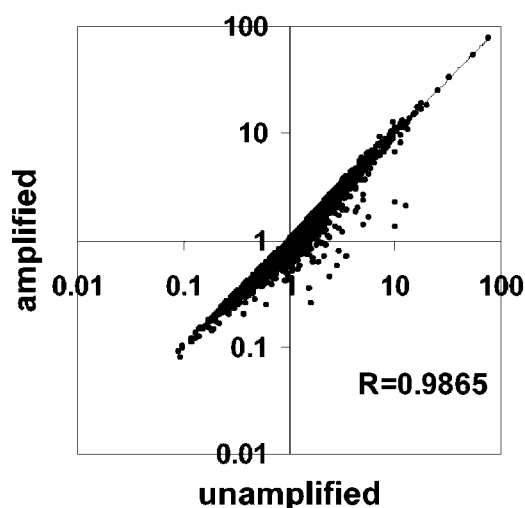


Fig. 1. Comparison of microarray datasets derived from amplified or unamplified mRNA. CD8 T-cell clone 78 (unpublished result) specific for the HCV NS3₁₄₀₆₋₁₄₁₅ epitope was stimulated with the cognate peptide or a control peptide for 6 hours, followed by isolation of total RNA and then mRNA. Three micrograms of unamplified mRNA from the NS3₁₄₀₆₋₁₄₁₅ peptide- or control peptide-stimulated cells were labeled with Cy5 or Cy3, respectively, mixed, and hybridized to a microarray. Three micrograms of total RNA from the 2 cell cultures were amplified as described in the Patients and Methods section and then labeled with Cy5 or Cy3, respectively, mixed, and hybridized to another microarray. The scatter plot shows the Cy5/Cy3 ratios of a total of 7,001 array elements that had passed filtering and were present in both microarray datasets.

Results and Discussion

Verification of RNA Amplification Procedure.

Most of the published cDNA microarray studies use fluorescence-labeled targets directly prepared from purified mRNA.⁵ To isolate enough mRNA from PBMCs for direct labeling, approximately 200 mL of whole blood is needed for a single microarray experiment, which would not be feasible for many clinical studies. Therefore, we used an amplification procedure based on antisense RNA synthesis by *in vitro* transcription of cDNA templates prepared from total RNA.⁸ To verify the fidelity of the amplification, we used a CD8 T-cell clone activated with its cognate peptide. Two microarray experiments were performed to profile changes in gene expression induced by T-cell activation, using either unamplified mRNA, or amplified antisense RNA derived from total RNA, respectively. A scatter plot of Cy5/Cy3 ratios for genes from both microarrays shows that the 2 datasets are highly correlated (Fig. 1), indicating that the amplification procedure did not distort the general pattern of gene expression detected by microarray assay.

IFN- α -Induced Gene Expression Under Different Experimental Conditions. The numbers of IFN- α -regulated genes identified by 1-class SAM analysis for each experimental condition are shown in Fig. 2. At FDR less

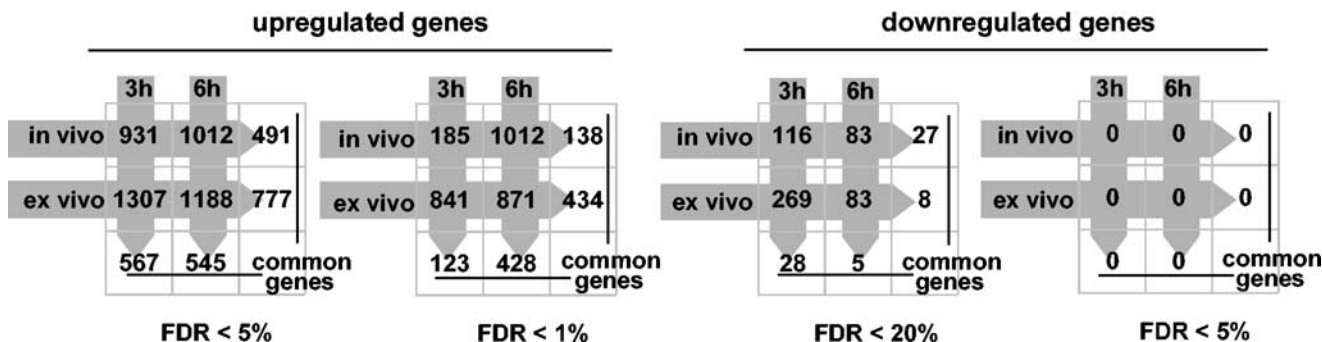


Fig. 2. Number of IFN- α -regulated genes under different experimental conditions, identified by 1-class SAM analysis.

than 5%, 931 to 1,307 genes were up-regulated under the 4 experimental conditions. At FDR less than 1%, a more stringent criterion, the number of up-regulated genes remained unchanged in the 6-hour *in vivo* group but was reduced by 80% in the 3-hour *in vivo* group, and declined by 28% to 36% in the 2 *ex vivo* groups. The number of down-regulated genes was much smaller and was accompanied by a much higher FDR. This reflects the fact that even after the transcription of a specific gene stops completely, its mRNA still persists for a period depending on its degradation rate. Therefore, any assay system based on the net amount of mRNA is likely to be less sensitive at detecting down-regulated genes compared with up-regulated ones.

The average fold-change in mRNA level was determined for all the up-regulated genes identified at FDR less than 1% and their distribution is shown in Fig. 3. In each group, between one third and two thirds of the genes changed their expression level by more than 2-fold after treatment with IFN- α .

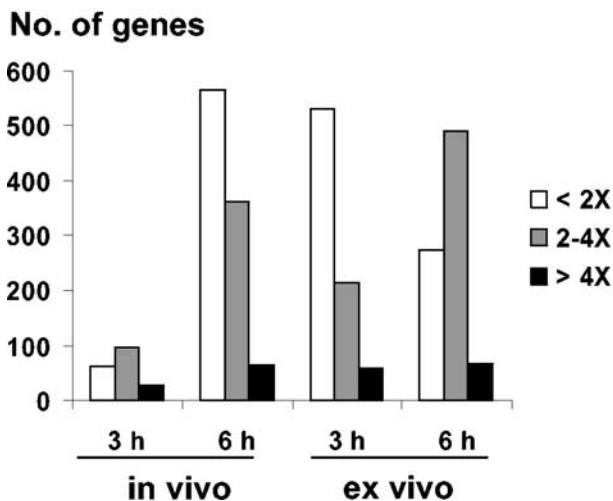


Fig. 3. Distribution of fold-change value in mRNA levels of genes up-regulated by IFN- α under 4 experimental conditions. Included genes were identified by 1-class SAM analysis at FDR less than 1%. □, <2 \times ; ■, 2-4 \times ; ■, >4 \times .

We next compared the different gene lists to identify genes commonly regulated under different experimental conditions. As shown in Fig. 2, when FDR was set at less than 5%, the *in vivo* and *ex vivo* groups shared approximately half of their up-regulated genes. This indicates a broad similarity in up-regulated genes between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* conditions. The similarity also existed between the 3- and 6-hour groups. When FDR was reduced to less than 1%, the number of up-regulated genes in the 3-hour *in vivo* group decreased from 931 to 185, whereas those in the other 3 groups changed much less or remained unchanged. However, more than two thirds of the 185 genes up-regulated in the 3-hour *in vivo* group were still shared with other groups. Six hours after IFN- α injection, the number of up-regulated genes in the *in vivo* group surpassed that of the *ex vivo* group. This suggested that under *in vivo* conditions, the majority of IFN- α -stimulated genes had initiated up-regulation by 3 hours after IFN- α injection but the change was less significant at this time point. Therefore, when a more stringent criterion (FDR < 1%) was applied, they were eliminated from the significant gene list. By 6 hours, this difference between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* conditions largely disappeared. The number of down-regulated genes also showed a delayed response under *in vivo* conditions.

The delay in IFN- α -induced *in vivo* changes of cellular mRNA levels is concurrent with the delayed absorption of IFN- α after subcutaneous injection. Although IFN- α was absorbed relatively slowly after subcutaneous administration with an absorption half-life of 5.5 hours,¹¹ it is known that 6 to 8 hours after administration of IFN- α , the serum HCV load starts to decline.¹² With a virion half-life estimated to be 3 hours,¹³ the IFN- α -induced changes in host cell gene expression directly responsible for the suppression of HCV replication must have occurred much earlier than the decline of serum viral load. This is in agreement with our finding that at 3 hours after IFN- α treatment, expression of over 1,000 genes already had changed. This suggests that genes regulated as

early as 3 hours after IFN- α treatment were likely to include those involved in the direct suppression of HCV.

The 1-class SAM analysis provides information on genes up-regulated in each experimental group, but does not provide any information on genes that are differentially regulated between different groups. To identify genes that are differentially regulated under different experimental conditions, we used SAM (2-class unpaired sample analysis) to search for genes with different average *Cy5/Cy3* ratios between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* experiments, as well as between the 3- and 6-hour experiments. No such genes were identified with an FDR smaller than 20% (data not shown). These analyses suggest that the overall responses to IFN- α under the *in vivo* and *ex vivo* conditions are similar, and that the up-regulated mRNA levels of many genes can be detected as early as 3 hours after treatment and maintained to the 6-hour time point.

The *in vivo* strategy provides an actual picture of gene expression in IFN- α -treated patients. However, the observed response may be affected by the heterogeneity in pharmacokinetics of IFN- α between patients or even variation in injection deposition. It has been reported that the maximum serum concentration after injection of IFN- α was 18 to 116 U/mL, which occurred 3 to 12 hours after administration.¹¹ On the other hand, although the *ex vivo* strategy ensures better control over the concentration of IFN- α , the PBMCs are subjected to extra manipulations and are isolated from their natural environment. Despite these differences, the lists of significant genes generated under these 2 conditions exhibit substantial similarities, both in the total number as well as in the identity of genes included. Not a single gene was identified with a significantly different response after *in vivo* or *ex vivo* treatment. Considering the complicated clinical and logistic issues involved with the *in vivo* study, the *ex vivo* analysis may be an acceptable alternative in future studies for identifying IFN- α -regulated genes associated with different treatment outcomes.

Annotation of Gene Functions. A total of 904 genes, including 516 named genes, were identified in at least 1 of the 4 experimental groups to be up-regulated by IFN- α by at least 2-fold. By using SAGA and SOURCE (see the Patients and Methods section) these named genes were classified into known function/pathway groups. These analyses resulted in 430 genes with at least one functional assignment and 86 unclassified genes. Table 2 shows the complete list of these genes grouped by their functional assignments. Genes with multiple functions were listed under each functional pathway assigned to them, therefore the total number listed in Table 2 exceeds the number of individual genes. The numbers of IFN- α -regulated

genes in all the functional pathways are summarized in Table 3.

Previous microarray analyses of 2 human and 1 murine cell line treated with type I and type II IFNs have resulted in a database of IFN-stimulated genes (ISG).^{14,15} By choosing genes with increased expression of at least 1.5-fold (for IFN- β) or 2-fold (for IFN- α), 335 genes were identified. In the current study, we have compiled a list of 904 named and unnamed genes as ISG, with an FDR smaller than 1% and a minimum fold change of 2. We applied the arbitrary 2-fold cut-off value to be consistent with common practice in the field of microarray studies. However, this arbitrary cut-off value resulted in exclusion of approximately 50% of the genes that were otherwise significantly up-regulated according to SAM. It is important to note that these excluded genes may still be biologically relevant. A previous study has shown that a change in mRNA level as small as 1.4-fold can be associated with biologic effect.¹⁶ A complete list of all genes with statistically significant changes in response to IFN- α is available at <http://www.stanford.edu/~r2llabc>. A comparison of Table 2 with the on-line ISG database¹⁵ showed that approximately 60% of the previously reported ISG overlap with genes identified in this study. Therefore, our results have expanded current knowledge of IFN actions by identifying a large number of statistically defined novel ISG, as well as by confirming, in human PBMCs, the ISG previously identified in human or animal cell lines.

IFN- α -Regulated Genes in Different Functional Groups. Among the functional categories listed in Table 3, we have identified 88 genes directly related to immune system functions. Pertinent to humoral immunity, multiple immunoglobulin genes were up-regulated. Regarding cellular immunity, the up-regulated genes involved almost every component of this system. For example, T cells played a pivotal role in the adaptive immune response against viruses. CD4 (helper) and CD8 (cytotoxic) T cells recognized viral peptide epitopes presented by major histocompatibility class II or I molecules, respectively. In our experiments, both class I and II genes were up-regulated by IFN- α . Genes for multiple proteasome subunits and the transporter 1 protein involved in processing and transporting class I-restricted peptide epitopes¹⁷ were up-regulated as well. In addition, cathepsin L, a lysosomal peptidase involved in the processing of class II-restricted peptide epitopes,¹⁸ was up-regulated. CD86 (B7-2)¹⁹ is an important costimulator for activating naive T cells. Without the costimulating signal, antigen-specific T cells will develop tolerance or die rather than be activated and proliferate on contact with cells presenting viral antigens. In our analysis, CD86 was up-regulated within 6 hours of IFN- α treatment. Selectin L,²⁰ a chemokine receptor that

Table 2. Continued

GenBank Accession Number	Gene Name/ Symbol	Fold Change				GenBank Accession Number	Gene Name/ Symbol	Fold Change				GenBank Accession Number	Gene Name/ Symbol	Fold Change			
		In Vivo		Ex Vivo				In Vivo		Ex Vivo				In Vivo		Ex Vivo	
		3 h	6 h	3 h	6 h			3 h	6 h	3 h	6 h			3 h	6 h	3 h	6 h
R36586	PP15PIV			2.4		<i>Recombination and repair</i>				H72538	NADPH			2.2			
AA151486	PRS II	2.8	2.8	2.7		AA478959	ADPRTL1	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.2	AA404619	NT5B				2.2
N25425	RAF			2.3		AA478273	APEX				3.3	AA187938	P5N1	4.7	6.5	6.3	5.7
H18434	PABP 4			2.2		AA489700	CD37				2.7	AI688014	MLN51				2.7
AA281652	PI3K		2.0			T98503	CED12		2.4			AA598526	MOP1				2.2
AA490010	PMCA4		2.2	2.7		T74688	CGI-44	2.4	2.7		2.9	AA410574	MTA1		2.4		
AA430382	PNP		2.4			R67222	dI55C23.6	2.5	2.4			T67103	MYO47				3.7
R25612	PO4HB		2.0			AA431715	EG-1				2.6	AA064973	myozenin 2	2.5			2.3
AA486289	POLA2		2.5			AA412509	EHD4				3.9	H61282	nischarin				2.4
AA608572	PP	2.1	2.2			HI1658	EphA5			2.0		AA452138	NLRR3				2.1
AA151486	PRS-II	2.8	2.8	2.7		AA131162	FER1L3		5.2	2.5		AA115266	NUB1	3.5	4.9		
H86813	TOP1		3.6			N62244	FLJ30482				2.3	AA653134	P47ING3				2.2
H61242	UCP 2			2.0		AA213816	FLJ31353			2.9		AA683321	PAR5		2.4		
						N21170	FLN29	4.0		5.1	6.3	H72755	PELI1		3.1		
<i>Other structural protein</i>																	
AA459743	ADD3			2.4		AA434102	galectin 9	3.4	5.5	4.1	2.4	AA047567	PMBP				2.1
AA488676	CAP-23			3.5		T60160	GEC1				2.5	AI478107	PORIMIN	3.7	2.5	5.3	
AA449037	CAPZAI		2.3	2.2		AA872095	GW128				2.2	AA489386	QK1		2.2		
AA024656	catenin δ 1		3.2			R10033	H2AFP				2.9	AA126482	RAD50			2.5	
AA598561	CD164	2.4	2.1	2.7	3.2	AA486003	H2AFY				3.5	R38966	RBAF600				2.1
AA912458	CHP1		3.9	2.2		AA683085	HMG1				2.2	AA465386	RH-II/GuA			2.1	2.5
R75635	COL5A1		2.3			AA598791	HP1-BP74				2.4	AA431716	RhoGAP		2.4		
R06417	DP III		3.1	2.5		H51065	H5OBRGRP		2.2		2.3	N45131	RO52		2.5		
R62817	EPB7			2.6		AA521232	HSPC022				2.9	AA421603	SAMHDI	2.3	3.5	4.8	4.0
AA857944	GHAP		3.2			H78859	HSPC154				2.1	W72669	SATB1			2.1	2.7
R25989	grancalcin		2.8			AA398233	HUMORF13				3.0	AA437212	SIGMAIB		3.1		2.3
AA418994	integrin, α 3	2.9	3.0	3.7	4.2	N93440	ICB-1			3.1	2.1	N94357	slingshot 2				2.2
AA186895	KIAA1096			2.1		AA489640	IFIT-1			13.7	18.2	11.2	AA999947	SRL300			2.5
R06749	KLF3			2.4		T98558	KDEL2	3.5	3.6	4.6	4.6	AA025807	SWIP1	2.4	3.9		2.1
AA983462	lamin B1			2.5		N74677	KE2				3.4	2.1	AA456316	TACC1			2.6
R22977	moesin		2.0	3.0		N39306	kelch-related				2.4		AA994757	tctex-1	3.5		
H73276	p21-ARC			2.7		H38995	KIAA0471	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.5	R60846	TFG				2.2
AA147847	vimentin			2.8		AA495802	KIAA0784				2.2	AA044633	THIF				3.1
AA459654	WIP			2.9		AA464142	KIAA1554		5.1	3.1		AA455270	TIF2		3.0		3.9
						AA406585	LAPTM5				2.3	H96734	TIN2			2.0	
						AA665912	LCKBP1				2.5	AA428607	TSPY-like				2.0
<i>Unclassified</i>																	
T47970	ARPP16			2.2		AA279025	lipin 2			3.9	3.5	AA173189	TXNDC1		4.4	3.4	4.9
W47576	ASAH1			3.2		AI002103	LOC55871	3.6	2.4			AA872011	URAX1	2.1			
AI268056	Bif-1	2.1	2.9	2.3	3.8	AA150443	LTBP-4				2.1	AA428341	verprolin			2.0	3.9
N73536	BM-002			2.3		AA479499	LZ16			3.5	2.4	2.8	N62339	VMP1		2.8	2.1
AA165402	BM-019			2.0		AA190997	MDS001		2.1				N49763	WTAP			2.9
A1286247	BRES11	8.6	8.6	7.7	8.5	AA010492	MECP-2				2.1	H68938	Xm1/Dhm2		3.4	2.0	4.3
AA670434	BRI3			2.0		N32199	melan-A				3.2						
						AI688349	mitofusin 2				2.1						

NOTE. For different clones derived from the same gene, only one clone was listed.

mediates homing of lymphocytes to lymph nodes where these cells are activated, was consistently up-regulated under all conditions examined. Other genes up-regulated in PBMCs include perforin and granzyme B, two proteins involved in cytotoxic T-cell or natural killer cell-mediated cytotoxicity,²¹ an important effector function of the immune responses against viral infection. Furthermore, multiple genes for proinflammatory cytokines and their receptors were up-regulated, suggesting that IFN- α enhances the inflammatory response. In addition to genes

directly relating to immune cell functions, we found up-regulation of 56 genes relating to differentiation and proliferation, as well as large numbers of genes relating to different signal transduction pathways, suggesting that IFN- α may regulate growth of immune cells. Of note, it has been reported that type I IFN accelerated turnover of memory T cells²² and protected activated T cells from apoptosis.^{23,24} In summary, our findings revealed a profound effect of IFN on human immune cells. Cellular immunity, including innate and adaptive cell-mediated

Table 3. Number of IFN- α Regulated Genes in Different Functional Categories

Function/Pathway	Number
Immunity	88
Antigen recognition	5
Antigen processing and presentation	14
Cell-mediated cytotoxicity	7
Inflammatory response	22
Other immunity and defense	40
Cell growth and death	92
Differentiation and proliferation	56
Cell cycle	13
Apoptosis	23
RNA synthesis and processing	68
Transcription activation and repression	52
RNA processing	16
Protein synthesis and processing	89
Translation initiation and elongation	19
Posttranslational modification	31
Protein folding	6
Protein cleavage and degradation	33
Metabolism and biosynthesis	60
Metabolism	36
Biosynthesis	24
Other functions	138
Unclassified	85

immune responses, is believed to play a critical role in the clearance of HCV.²⁵⁻²⁸ Our data suggest that IFN- α treatment enhances cell-mediated immune response against HCV by up-regulating expression of multiple genes. The current analysis does not identify the cellular source for the response genes, which could include B cells, T cells, natural killer cells, and monocytes. Future microarray analyses of fractionated PBMCs should provide information on the effect of IFN on each of these subsets.

Several previously identified ISG in different functional pathways have been shown to suppress virus growth at various stages of the viral replication cycle. These include IFN-inducible double-strand RNA-dependent protein kinase,^{29,30} IFN-inducible 2', 5'-oligoadenylate synthetase,^{31,32} IFN-inducible Mx proteins,^{33,34} and RNA-specific adenosine deaminase.^{35,36} Of note, the antiviral effect of these IFN-inducible proteins only has been shown for a narrow range of viruses. In this study, RNA-dependent protein kinase, IFN-inducible 2', 5'-oligoadenylate synthetase, Mx proteins, and RNA-specific adenosine deaminase were all significantly up-regulated in PBMCs after IFN- α administration. Because an *in vitro* culture system is not available for HCV, the effect of IFN- α on the replication of HCV has not been studied directly *in vitro*. However, the replication of a subgenomic replicon of HCV in a human hepatoma cell line was suppressed efficiently by IFN- α ,³⁷ which supports the notion that IFN- α can suppress HCV replication directly, although the cellular gene(s) involved in this sup-

pression are unknown. A recent microarray study on primary human hepatocytes identified 43 genes that were up-regulated at least 2-fold by IFN- α .³⁸ Of these, 19 were up-regulated in the PBMCs in our study, including all the 5 putative antiviral ISG in the primary hepatocytes. These results suggest that at least some of the hepatocyte IFN response responsible for the direct anti-HCV effect of IFN may be mimicked by the IFN response in PBMCs. The large number of ISG identified in this study should serve as promising candidates for further analysis.

As shown in Table 3, the up-regulated genes involve the critical biologic functions of cell proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis, cellular metabolism of protein, nucleic acid, and carbohydrate molecules, as well as multiple signal transduction networks. This reflects the enormous breadth and diversity of the cellular pathways affected by systematically administered IFN- α . IFN- α is produced during virus infection by infected cells as well as certain immune cells.^{39,40} Although little information is available, it is likely that the natural expression of IFN- α is at a low level, transient, and may be limited to a small number of cells. Cytokines are thought to act locally around their producers,⁴¹ suggesting that the effect of the naturally produced IFN- α may be far more limited in terms of affected cells or organs. On the other hand, when IFN- α is given systematically as a therapeutic agent, its profound effects on gene expression, as shown herein, can act generally throughout the body. Any consequence of IFN- α treatment, including its success or failure in clearing the virus as well as its adverse side effects, will not be fully understood without being examined in the context of system-wide global gene expression.

Searching for Differentially Regulated IFN- α -Inducible Genes Between Responders and Nonresponders. The long-term goal of this study was to identify IFN- α -regulated genes associated with different treatment outcome. Six of the 7 patients enrolled in this initial study have finished treatment and have been followed-up for 6 months after treatment. There are 2 end-of-treatment responders, one sustained and the other relapsed (Table 1). We have performed a 2-class SAM analysis based on available microarray datasets (Table 1) to compare the responders P1 and P2 versus nonresponders P3, P4, P5, and P6, using 3-hour *in vivo* datasets (one microarray for each patient). No genes were identified as differentially regulated by IFN- α between the 2 groups at FDR less than 50%. The negative result is not a surprise considering the small sample size ($n = 2$ for the responder group), which was barely enough for any statistical analysis, as well as the heterogeneity of the responder group, which actually comprised a sustained responder and a relapser. A larger sample size will increase

the sensitivity of detecting genes differentially regulated by IFN- α between the patients with different treatment outcomes.

Conclusion

We used cDNA microarrays to profile gene expression in human PBMCs treated *in vivo* and *ex vivo* with IFN- α and the data were analyzed statistically to identify genes significantly regulated by IFN- α . The PBMC population we studied contained peripheral lymphocytes and monocytes and hence represents a component of the immune system that is believed to play a critical role in the control of viral infection. These cells were isolated directly from chronic hepatitis C patients before and after IFN- α injection (*in vivo* study), or incubated with IFN- α (*ex vivo* study). Because PBMC is a heterogeneous population consisting of various subsets of cells that may respond to IFN- α differently, the information generated in PBMCs is likely to be a useful reference for IFN- α -regulated gene expression in other primary human cells or organs.

We have identified a large number of genes with statistically significant changes in their expression in response to IFN- α . It needs to be stressed that although many changes are relatively small and could be missed easily by conventional techniques, the synergetic effect of several key genes may generate a profound impact on the outcome of IFN- α treatment for HCV infection. Previous studies have suggested multiple viral and host factors affecting the outcome of IFN therapy, including HCV genotype, viral load, race, age, and so forth.⁴² It is possible that much of the contribution of these factors will be reflected in the IFN response of host cells. As the first step in our efforts to identify IFN-regulated genes in association with treatment outcome, this study has focused on the feasibility of the microarray strategy but has not included enough subjects to address the difference in response patterns between patients and how these differences correlate with treatment outcome. However, based on the findings in this study, we predict that compared with patients who fail to respond to treatment, patients who respond favorably will have a more vigorous (greater number and/or fold increase) induction in the expression of genes related to direct suppression of HCV as well as in genes related to immune functions. We further predict that such signature genes, or genes associated with different treatment outcome, can be identified by using a 2-class SAM analysis. Once identified, these signature genes might be used as a predictor for the outcome of therapy. The work described in this report sets a foundation for addressing this important issue.

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