ROLE OF microRNA-709 IN MURINE LIVER

Sneha Surendran

Submitted to the faculty of the University Graduate School in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics, Indiana University

August 2014

Accepted by the Graduate Faculty, Indiana University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

	Núria Morral, Ph.D., Chair
	Brittney-Shea Herbert, Ph.D.
Doctoral Committee	
	Mircea Ivan, MD, Ph.D.
May 8, 2014	
	Robert Considine, Ph.D.
	Nadia Carlesso, M.D., Ph.D.

To my parents, Gracia and my grandparents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My Ph.D. journey would not have been possible without the support from both my teachers and family. I would first like to thank my mentor, Dr. Núria Morral, for giving me the opportunity to pursue my Ph.D. under her guidance. I have benefited immensely from her vast knowledge of gene therapy and diabetes. Her scientific ideas, guidance and support have been instrumental in the successful completion of my research. She ensured that I stayed on course and focused on my objective. I would also like to thank the members of my research committee, Dr. Brittney-Shea Herbert, Dr. Mircea Ivan, Dr. Robert Considine and Dr. Nadia Carlesso for their critical evaluations, insights and guidance.

I would like to thank members of the Morral lab including Dr. Miwon Ahn, Dr. Jae-Seung Park, Dr. Yongyong Hou, Aisha Gamble and Victoria Jideonwo. I was fortunate to work with them on a number of projects, which enabled me to learn some of the methods used in this study. I am fortunate to have had friends in my colleagues. I am also grateful to summer research students John Murray and Chris Merchun for their help with this work. I would like to thank Dr. Janaiah Kota and Dr. Guoli Dai for sharing liver tissues for this research. I would like to thank Dr. Yunlong Liu and Chirayu Goswami for their help and guidance on statistical analyses. I am indebted to Dr. Kenn Dunn and Dr. Jennifer Ryan for their help with microscopy for hepatocyte polarization experiments. I am also grateful to Dr. William A. Truitt and Pamela Minick for all the help with TaqMan Low Density Arrays. I would also like to thank Seth Winfree and Indiana Center

for Biological Microscopy for their help with imaging labeled miRNA. I am also thankful to Dr. Edenberg and Dr. Jeanette McClintick and the Center for Medical Genomics for their help with the Affymetrix microarray. I am also immensely grateful to the DeVault Diabetes & Obesity Program and the American Heart Association Midwest for supporting me with pre-doctoral fellowships.

I would like to thank the faculty and staff at the Center for Diabetes Research. I am also thankful to the members of the Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics, especially Peggy Knople and Jean Good as well as the staff of the IUPUI Graduate Office and the Graduate Division of the Indiana University School of Medicine for their help during the course of my study.

Lastly, I would like to offer my heartfelt thanks to my family for their constant support and encouragement in the pursuit of my personal and professional objectives. I am very thankful to my parents, sister and Gracia for their unconditional love and support even from such a long distance. I wouldn't be me without my family. Their motivation and support has helped me progress along smoothly and I would like to express my sincere gratitude to them. I am also thankful to my friends and in-laws for their constant words of encouragement. Finally, this work would not have been possible without the constant love, support and encouragement from my husband.

Sneha Surendran

ROLE OF microRNA-709 IN MURINE LIVER

MicroRNA are small RNA molecules that regulate expression of genes involved in development, cell differentiation, proliferation and death. It has been estimated that in eukaryotes, approximately 0.5 to 1% of predicted genes encode a microRNA, which in humans, regulate at least 30% of genes at an average of 200 genes per miRNA. Some microRNAs are tissue-specific, while others are ubiquitously expressed. In liver, a few microRNAs have been identified that regulate specialized functions. The best known is miR-122, the most abundant liver-specific miRNA, which regulates cholesterol biosynthesis and other genes of fatty acid metabolism; it also regulates the cell cycle through inhibition of cyclin G1. To discover other miRNAs with relevant function in liver, we characterized miRNA profiles in normal tissue and identified miR-709. Our data indicates this is a highly abundant hepatic miRNA and is dysregulated in an animal model of type 2 diabetes. To understand its biological role, miR-709 gene targets were identified by analyzing the transcriptome of primary hepatocytes transfected with a miR-709 mimic. The genes identified fell within four main categories: cytoskeleton binding, extracellular matrix attachment, endosomal recycling and fatty acid metabolism. Thus, similar to miR-122, miR-709 downregulates genes from multiple pathways. This would be predicted, given the abundance of the miRNA and the fact that the estimated number of genes targeted by a miRNA is in the hundreds. In the case of miR-709, these suggested a coordinated response during cell proliferation, when cytoskeleton remodeling requires substantial changes in gene expression. Consistently, miR-709 was found significantly

upregulated in an animal model of hepatocellular carcinoma. Likewise, in a mouse model of liver regeneration, mature miR-709 was increased. To study the consequences of depleting miR-709 in quiescent and proliferating cells, primary hepatocytes and hepatoma cells were cultured with antagomiRs (anti-miRs). The presence of anti-miR-709 caused cell death in proliferating cells. Quiescent primary hepatocytes responded by upregulating miR-709 and its host gene, Rfx1. These studies show that miR-709 targets genes relevant to cystokeleton structural genes. Thus, miR-709 and Rfx1 may be needed to facilitate cytoskeleton reorganization, a process that occurs after liver injury and repopulation, or during tumorigenesis.

Núria Morral, Ph.D., Chair

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvi
INTRODUCTION	
A. Role of liver in metabolism	1
B. Liver organization	4
C. Hepatocyte polarity and cytoskeletal organization	7
D. MicroRNAs	11
E. Role of miRNAs in liver function	17
F. Thesis hypothesis and Research Aims	24
MATERIALS AND METHODS	
A. Materials	26
1. Plasmids	26
2. Primers	26
3. Mice	27
a. Liver miRNA analysis	27
b. Primary hepatocyte isolation	27
c. miRNA profiles under fed, fasted, refed conditions	27
d. Relative expression of pre-miR-709 vs mature miR-709	27
4. Antibodies	28
5. Other reagents	28
a. Plasmid isolation	28

	b. RNA isolation	29
	c. Protein isolation	29
	d. DNA gel extraction	29
	e. Ligation	29
	f. PCR	29
	g. qRT-PCR	29
	h. TaqMan miRNA Assay	30
	i. Protein quantification	30
	j. Western blot detection	30
	k. LDH assay	30
	1. Transfection	30
	m. LB broth	30
	n. Bacteria for subcloning	30
	o. Cell lines	30
B. Metl	hods	30
1. Pl	asmid cloning	31
2. Pr	rimary hepatocyte isolation	35
	2.a. Primary hepatocyte sandwich experiments	35
	2.b. Sodium fluorescein assay	36
	2.c. Imaging of labeled miR-709 in primary hepatocytes	37
3. Ce	ell culture	37
	3.a. Imaging of labeled miR-709 in Hepa1c1c cells	38
	3.b. LDH assay in Hepa1c1c cells	38

4. Cell transfection
a. Using plasmids and miRNA39
b. Using plasmids
c. Using miRNA/siRNA/antagomiRs/anti-miRs40
5. miRNA target predictions40
6. Array analyses40
a. miRNA microarray40
b. mRNA Affymetrix analysis42
c. Taqman low Density Array43
7. Western blotting44
8. Northern blotting45
9. LDH assay46
10. qPCR analysis46
a. qRT-PCR46
b. TaqMan assay to quantify mature miRNAs47
11. Statistical analysis47
RESULTS
A. Hepatic murine miRNA expression48
A.1 Identification of miRNAs expressed in livers of normal and
<i>db/db</i> mice
A.2 Differential expression of hepatic microRNAs in the fasted and
refed state53
B. Targets of miRNA-709 in murine liver59

B.1. miR-709-3p is the mature strand of miRNA-709	59
B.2. miR-709-induced transcriptome	63
B.3. Ces1g, Rab11b and Pctp are direct targets of miR-709	73
B.4. Database gene predictions	76
C. Biological Role of miRNA-709 In Liver	79
C.1. miR-709 gene targets do not regulate hepatocyte polarity	79
C.2. Intracellular miR-709 localization	87
C.3. Pre-miR-709 accumulates in liver	92
C.4. miR-709 inhibition elicits cell death	99
C.5. Mature levels of miR-709 do not increase in <i>db/db</i> livers	103
DISCUSSION	104
FUTURE DIRECTIONS	113
REFERENCES	114
CURRICHI IIM VITAE	

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Oligonucleotides used to generate luciferase constructs and	
primers used for PCR	26
Table 2. Antibodies used for Western blotting	28
Table 3. miRNAs expressed in liver of normal C57BLKS/J mice	51
Table 4. Blood glucose and body weight	54
Table 5. miRNAs differentially expressed between fasted and refed	
groups	55
Table 6. Predicted pathway regulation by miRNAs	58
Table 7. Genes significantly downregulated >2-fold in miR-709-treated	
primary hepatocytes	66
Table 8. Predicted versus observed miR-709 target genes	77
Table 9. Overlap between miR-709 target genes and hsa-miR-1827	
predicted targets	78

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Metabolic pathways in liver	3
Figure 2. Liver cross section	6
Figure 3. Liver lobule and portal triad	6
Figure 4. Hepatocyte polarity	9
Figure 5. Endosomal recycling in hepatocytes	9
Figure 6. Processing of miRNA	15
Figure 7. Structural components of a pre-miRNA	16
Figure 8. Role of miR-122 in liver	19
Figure 9. Schematic representation of the psi-CHECK2 plasmid used for generating	
constructs for luciferase reporter assays	31
Figure 10. Schematic representation of plasmids expressing pri-miR-709	
and pri-Cel-239b	34
Figure 11. Hierarchical clustering analysis of miRNAs with p-value < 0.01	50
Figure 12. miR-709 strand selection in primary hepatocytes.	60
Figure 13. miR-709 strand selection in the Hepa1c1c7 cell line.	61
Figure 14. Strand selection of endogenous miR-709 in primary	
hepatocytes	62
Figure 15. miR-709 quantification in primary hepatocyte transfected with	
mimic	62
Figure 16. Hierarchical cluster of top 100 genes	64
Figure 17. Real time RT-PCR analysis of miR-709 targets	69
Figure 18. Prolonged downregulation of miR-709 targets over time	70

Figure 19. miR-709 on Rab11b, Timp3 and Dync1li1 protein levels	71
Figure 20. miR-709 decreases Rab11b in Hepa1c1c cells	72
Figure 21. miR-709 putative binding sites in the 3' UTR of Rab11b, Ces1g	
and Pctp	74
Figure 22. Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g are direct targets of miR-709	75
Figure 23. Formation of bile canaliculi between primary hepatocytes	
cultured in a sandwich configuration	82
Figure 24. Uptake and secretion of sodium fluorescein	83
Figure 25. Sodium fluorescein transport in primary hepatocytes	
transfected with miR-709 and Cel-239b.	84
Figure 26. Rab11b silencing in mouse primary hepatocytes	85
Figure 27. Sodium fluorescein transport in primary hepatocytes treated	
with siRab11b	86
Figure 28. Intracellular localization of miR-709 in primary hepatocytes	89
Figure 29. Intracellular localization of miR-709 in Hepa1c1c	90
Figure 30. Cytoplasmic miRNA localization in Hepa1c1c cells transfected	
with miRNA-709	91
Figure 31. Relative abundance of pre- and mature miR-709 in an animal	
model of hepatocellular carcinoma	94
Figure 32. Relative abundance of pre- and mature miR-122 in an animal	
model of hepatocellular carcinoma	95
Figure 33. Levels of mature miR-709 in HEK293 and Hepa1c1c cells upon transfection	ē
with plasmids expressing pri-miR-709 or pri-Cel-239b	96

Figure 34. Relative abundance of miR-709 in an animal model of liver regeneration	.97
Figure 35. qPCR analysis of miR-709 and Rfx1 in animal models of liver regeneration	
and hepatocellular carcinoma	.98
Figure 36. miR-709, Rab11b, Ces1g and Rfx-1 expression in primary hepatocytes	
transfected with anti-miR-709.	.00
Figure 37. Cell viability assay in Hepa1c1c cells transfected with miR-709 inhibitor1	.02
Figure 38. Levels of mature miR-709 in livers of <i>db/db</i> mice	03

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

°C Degree Celsius

μM Micromolar

3'-UTR 3'-Untranslated region

Abca1 Adenosine triphosphate-binding cassette (ABC) transporter,

member 1

Acc1 Acyl-CoA carboxylase 1

Acl ATP-dependent citrate lysase

Acox2 Acyl-CoA oxidase 2

Adam10 A disintegrin and metalloprotease family 10

Adam17 A disintegrin and metalloprotease family 17

AGO Argonaute

Agpat1 Acylglycerol-3-Phosphate O-Acyltransferase 1

Anova Analysis of variance

ATCC American Type Culture Collection

bp Base pair

BCL-2 B-cell lymphoma 2

Bcrp Breast Cancer Resistance Protein

Bsep Bile Salt Export Pump

CAT-1 Cationic amino acid transporter-1

cDNA Complementary DNA

Cel-239b Caenorhabditis elegans miRNA 239b

Ces1g Carboxylesterase 1G

CD36 Cluster of Differentiation 36

CD44 Molecule

CIDEC Cell Death-Inducing DFFA-Like Effector C

C_t Threshold cycle

CPT1 α Carnitine palmitoyl transferase 1α

CUTL1 Cut-like homeobox 1

Cyc-A Cyclophillin A

Db/db Mice homozygous for a point mutation in the leptin receptor gene,

rendering them deficient in leptin receptor activity

DCP2 mRNA-decapping enzyme 2

DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid

DGAT2 Diacylglycerol acyltransferase-2

DGCR8 Digeorge syndrome critical region gene 8

Dync1li1 Dynein cytoplasmic light chain 1

ECL Enhanced chemiluminescence

ECM Extracellular matrix

E. coli Escherichia coli

EGTA Ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid

ELOVL6 ELOVL fatty acid elongase 6

ENaC Epithelial sodium channel

ERC Endosomal recycling compartment

FAM 6-carboxyfluorescein

FAS Fatty acid synthase

FBS Fetal bovine serum

Gépase Glucose 6-phosphatase

Gck Glucokinase

GCOS GeneChip® Operating System

Gk Glucokinase

Gns Glutamine synthetase

Gpt Glutamic-pyruvate transaminase

Gpx Glutathione peroxidase

HBSS Hank's Balanced Salt solution

HCC Hepatocellular carcinoma

HCV Hepatitis C Virus

HDL High-density lipoprotein

HFD High-fat diet

HIF-1α Hypoxia Inducible Factor 1, Alpha Subunit

HIST1H2BC Histone cluster 1, H2bc

HMGCR HMGCoA reductase

HRP Horse radish peroxidase

hsa-miR-1827 Homo sapiens microRNA-1827

IGF1 Insulin-like growth factor 1

IGF1R Insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor

INSR Insulin receptor

IRS-2 Insulin receptor substrate-2

IRS-4 Insulin receptor substrate 4

kb Kilobase

LAP Liver activator promoter

LDH Lactate dehydrogenase

Ldlr Low-density lipoprotein receptor

LOWESS Locally-weighted Regression

LPL Lipoprotein lipase

MAPRE1 Microtubule-Associated Protein, RP/EB Family, Member 1

Mb Megabase

MCS Multiple cloning site

Mdr1 Multidrug resistance gene 1

Mdr2 Multidrug resistance gene 2

MET Met Proto-Oncogene

ml Milliliter

miRISC miRNA-induced silencing complex

miRNA microRNA

miR-709 microRNA-709

mmu-miR-709 Mus musculus miRNA-709

Mrp1 Multidrug resistance-associated protein 1

Mrp2 Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2

Mrp3 Multidrug resistance-associated protein 3

Mrp4 Multidrug resistance-associated protein 4

Mrp6 Multidrug resistance-associated protein 6

mTOR Mammalian Target Of Rapamycin

MVB Multivesicular bodies

ng nanogram

nM nanomolar

N/A Not available

NAFLD Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

NASH Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis

NDRG3 N-Myc Downstream-Regulated Gene 3

Ntcp Na/Taurocholate Cotransporting Polypeptide

P450 Cytochrome P450

P-bodies Processing bodies

P/S Penicillin/streptomycin

PCA Principal component analysis

Pck Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase

PCR Polymerase chain reaction

Pctp Phosphatidylcholine transfer protein

Pfkl Phosphofructokinase liver

Pkl Pyruvate kinase

PPAR-α Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-α

pre-miRNA Precursor miRNA

pri-miRNA Primary transcript of a miRNA

pri-miR-15a/16-1 Primary transcript of miR-15a and 16-1

QC Quality control

qRT-PCR Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction

Rab11b Member RAS oncogene family

RISC RNA-induced Silencing Complex

RNase Ribonuclease

RNA Ribonucleic acid

RNAi RNA interference

RPS10 40S ribosomal protein S10

RT Reverse transcription

SD Standard deviation

SEC Sinusoidal endothelial cells

siNC Negative control siRNA

siRab11b siRNA against Rab11b

siRNA Silencing RNA

SIRT1 Sirtuin 1

sno-202 Small nucleolar RNA 202

SNP Single nucleotide polymorphism

SREBP-1 Sterol-regulatory element binding protein 1

SREBP-1c Sterol-regulatory element binding protein 1c

SREBP-2 Sterol-regulatory element binding protein 2

tTA Transactivator protein

T2DM Type 2 diabetes mellitus

TBP TATA binding protein

TLDA TaqMan low density array

TRBP TAR RNA binding protein

TuD Tough Decoy

UDPGT UDP glucuronate transferease

VLDL Very low-density lipoprotein

WAT White adipose tissue

WT Whole transcript

XPO5 Exportin 5

XRN1 Exoribonuclease 1

INTRODUCTION

A. Role of liver in metabolism

The liver is the largest metabolic organ in the human body⁸. Various metabolic pathways occurring in this tissue, including carbohydrate metabolism (gluconeogenesis, glycolysis, glycogenesis, glycogenolysis), lipid metabolism (cholesterol and triglyceride synthesis and export, fatty acid oxidation, ketogenesis) and protein metabolism (synthesis and degradation), are essential for whole body homeostasis (Figure 1). Finally, the liver produces bile, which is critical for emulsification of lipids and aids in digestion of lipids in the small intestine.

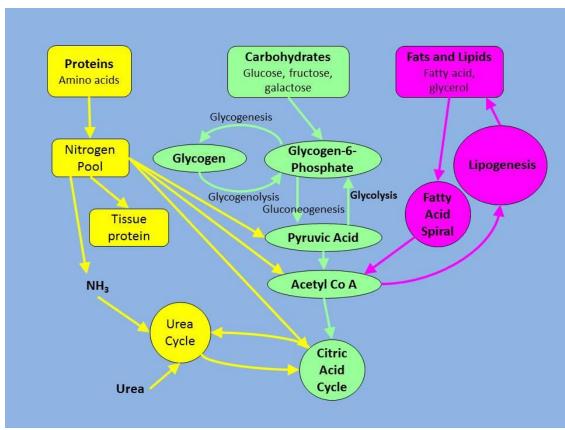
Maintaining blood glucose levels within a narrow range is vital for the body, both in periods of feeding and fasting. This important function of glucose homeostasis is carried out by hepatocytes in the liver. Upon feeding, glucose is broken down into pyruvate through glycolysis to produce energy for the cells. In addition, excess glucose is taken up by the liver and converted into glycogen (glycogenesis). In periods of fasting, the glycogen stores in the liver are used to produce glucose (glycogenolysis); in addition, the liver synthesizes glucose from amino acids, glycerol, and lactate, through the gluconeogenesis pathway.

The liver also plays an important role in lipid metabolism. In the fed state, excess glucose is converted into fatty acids (*de novo* lipogenesis) and subsequently esterified into triglycerides, which remain as droplets in the cytoplasm or can be secreted from the

liver into the circulation via very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) for use by other tissues. In the fasted state, the liver can actively oxidize fatty acids to produce ketone bodies that are exported into circulation, thereby providing an alternate energy source for other organs in the body, in particular for the brain. The liver also synthesizes cholesterol, lipoproteins and phospholipids. Some of the cholesterol is converted into bile salts. In addition to cholesterol, the bile contains organic and inorganic solutes that make up 5% of the bile⁹. The apical membranes of adjacent hepatocytes form a canalicular network through which bile is secreted from the hepatocytes⁹. Bile synthesis is regulated by transport systems localized on the apical membrane of hepatocytes⁹.

Protein metabolism is another important function of the liver. This tissue synthesizes non-essential amino acids and makes most of the plasma proteins such as albumin and clotting factors. The liver is also involved in breakdown of amino acids by deamination and transamination, and removes ammonia from the bloodstream, converting it into urea for excretion.

Figure 1. Metabolic pathways in liver. Source: Adapted from image obtained from



http://www.elmhurst.edu/~chm/vchembook/600glycolysis.html

B. Liver organization

The liver is a complex organ with at least 15 different cell types⁸. Hepatocytes comprise approximately 60% of the cells and take up 80% of the volume in the liver, while sinusoidal endothelial cells (SEC), Kupffer cells and hepatic stellate cells represent 20%, 15% and 5% of cells, respectively⁸. Each of these four major cellular types has specific functions. Hepatocytes, in particular, play important roles in maintaining lipid and glucose homeostasis.

The liver's blood supply is one of its kind; it receives venous blood from the portal vein, as well as oxygenated blood from the hepatic artery⁸. The blood from these vessels flows through the liver sinusoids, a highly branched discontinuous network of blood vessels, before it is delivered to the hepatocytes⁸. Hepatocytes are arranged into hexagonal lobules, the liver's functional unit (Figure 2 and 3). At the center of the lobule is a central vein. The central veins from multiple lobules combine to form the hepatic vein, which eventually joins the inferior vena cava. At the junction of several lobules is a portal triad, consisting of branches of hepatic artery, hepatic portal vein and interlobular bile ducts. Hepatocytes closer to the entering vascular supply (periportal) receive the most oxygenated blood while hepatocytes close to the central vein (perivenous) receive the least oxygenated blood. This results in a metabolic zonation, wherein the amount of liver enzymes and their activities vary in periportal and perivenous hepatocytes¹⁰. Periportal hepatocytes are rich in enzymes such as phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (PCK), glucose 6-phosphatase (G6Pase) (carbohydrate metabolism), HMG-CoA reductase (HMGCR) (lipid metabolism) and glutamic-pyruvate transaminase (GPT),

glutathione peroxidase (GPX) (amino acid metabolism)¹⁰. Periportal hepatocytes are specialized in oxidative functions such as β-oxidation of fatty acids, gluconeogenesis, bile formation and cholesterol synthesis¹⁰. Also, sub-cellular organelles such as mitochondria and bile canaliculi are more abundant in periportal hepatocytes compared to perivenous hepatocytes¹⁰. On the other hand, perivenous hepatocytes are abundant in enzymes such as glucokinase (GK), pyruvate kinase (PK_L) (carbohydrate metabolism), Acetyl-coA carboxylase (ACC), ATP-dependent citrate lysase (ACL), fatty acid synthase (FAS) (lipid metabolism), glutamine synthetase (GNS) (amino acid metabolism) and cytochrome P450 (P450), UDP glucuronate transferease (UDPGT) (xenobiotic metabolism)¹⁰. These hepatocytes are preferentially involved in glucose uptake for glycogen synthesis, glycolysis, lipogenesis, and detoxification¹⁰.

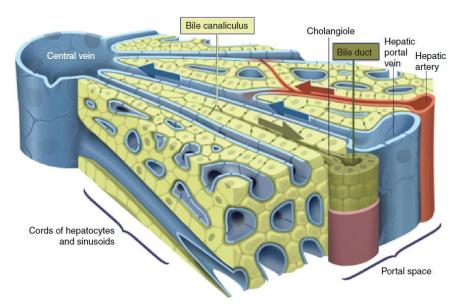


Figure 2. Liver cross section. The arrangement of sinusoids, hepatocytes and bile canaliculi is shown. Source: Image from⁸.

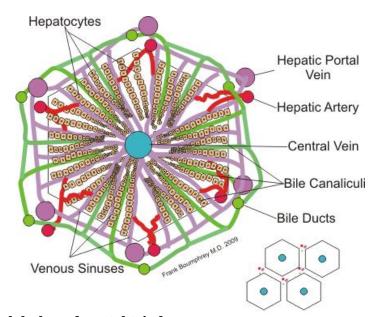


Figure 3. Liver lobule and portal triad.

(Source: Image from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Hepatic_structure.png)

C. Hepatocyte polarity and cytoskeletal organization

The liver is known second after brain for its complexity in structure and function¹¹. Hepatocytes are the major cell type in the liver, comprising 80% of the volume¹¹. Like all epithelial cells, hepatocytes must be polarized with well-defined apical and basolateral membranes to be functional 12,13. The apical and basal surfaces are separated by tight junctions⁸ (Figure 4). Specific functions are performed depending on the polarity (apical versus basolateral domain) of the hepatocytes¹⁴. Each of these domains is characterized by specific marker proteins. Hepatic apical or canalicular membrane is characterized by expression of proteins such as Breast Cancer Resistance Protein (Bcrp), Bile Salt Export Pump (Bsep), Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2 (Mrp2), multidrug resistance gene 1 (Mdr1) and multidrug resistance gene 2 (Mdr2) whereas basolateral markers include Multidrug resistance-associated protein 1 (Mrp1), Multidrug resistance-associated protein 3 (Mrp3), Multidrug resistance-associated protein 6 (Mrp6), Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2 (Mrp4) and Na/Taurocholate Cotransporting Polypeptide (Ntcp)¹³. Bile canaliculi are formed on the apical membrane of two adjacent hepatocytes and bile acid transporters are confined to this domain 14,15. The basolateral surface of hepatocytes is involved in trafficking of metabolites from the bloodstream¹⁴. Hepatocytes constantly internalize extracellular ligands and other materials by endocytosis 16,17. The endocytosed products are either recycled back to the cell surface, destined for lysosomal degradation, or undergo transcytosis to the opposite membrane^{8,16} (Figure 5). These are mediated by very dynamic and diverse endosomal compartments¹⁷.

Receptors bound to their ligands at the basolateral membrane are taken up into early endosomes and are separated from their ligand^{17,18}. This occurs at the periphery of the cell. The receptor can then recycle back while the ligand destined for degradation has to pass through late endosomes, pre-lysosomes, or multivesicular bodies (MVBs) before being delivered to the lysosomes¹⁷. Substrates of apical proteins are also endocytosed and transported from the basolateral membrane to the apical membrane of the hepatocyte, and are then released into the bile canaliculi¹⁸. Many of the apical proteins synthesized in the cell are first sent to the basolateral membrane before being transported to their final destination, the apical membrane¹⁸. This emphasizes the importance of endocytosis in hepatocytes.

The extracellular matrix (ECM) of the liver plays a vital role in endocytosis. It is primarily made up of type I collagen and is crucial for hepatic function¹¹. The ECM comprises many elements such as matrix metalloproteinases; the glycoproteins laminin, fibronectin, vitronectin, undulin, nidogen (entactin); and proteoglycans such as heparan sulfate¹¹. Recently, miRNAs have been shown to play a key role in regulating the expression of ECM proteins. miR-29 targets key ECM proteins such as laminin, nidogen and fibrillin and members of miR-29 family have been shown to be downregulated in liver fibrogenesis. miR-199 is upregulated during fibrogenesis and targets matrix metalloproteinases and collagen proteins. This highlights the importance of miRNAs in maintaining the ECM of hepatocytes, which is critical for hepatic polarity.

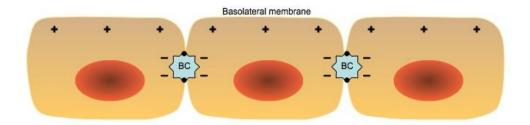


Figure 4. Hepatocyte polarity. BC, Bile canaliculi; +++ Basolateral membrane; - - - Apical membrane. (Source: Modified from¹³).

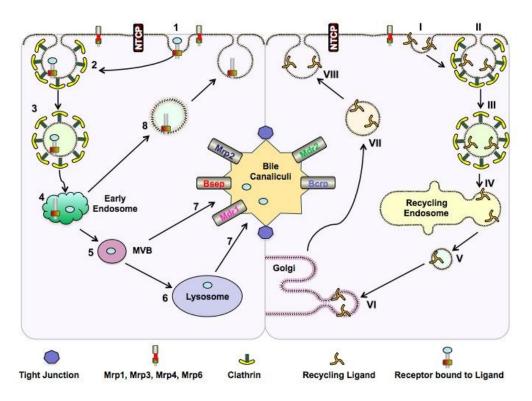


Figure 5. Endosomal recycling in hepatocytes. Steps 1, 2, and 3: Receptor mediated endocytosis of receptor bound to ligand. Step 4: Ligand is separated from the receptor in early endosome. 5, 6, and 7: Ligand is either degraded in lysosome or transported into bile canaliculi depending on the final destination of the ligand. Step 8: Receptor is recycled back to the cell surface. Steps I, II, and III: Recycling ligand is endocytosed in clathrin coated vesicles. Steps IV, V, VI, VII, and VIII: The ligand is recycled back to the cell surface. (Source: Adapted from 18)

D. MicroRNAs

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a class of small non-coding RNAs that are highly conserved¹⁹ and are widely expressed in plants, animals, and some viruses. Mature miRNAs are typically 18-25 nucleotides in length and these regulate gene expression post-transcriptionally²⁰. It has been estimated that the human genome encodes over 1,000 miRNAs²¹, which may target about 60% of mammalian genes²². Over 1,800 murine mature miRNAs have been identified so far (www.miRBase.org). miRNAs modulate gene function post-transcriptionally by either specific inhibition of translation or induction of target mRNA cleavage²³. A single miRNA can target multiple mRNA targets, and each mRNA can be targeted by many miRNAs²⁰. This feature allows miRNAs to alter multiple gene expression regulatory networks²⁰. Initial studies on miRNA biology indicated that miRNAs regulate their targets mostly at the protein synthesis level and regulate gene expression by mRNA degradation to a lower extent. However, there is increasing evidence that miRNAs target mRNA to a larger extent than initially thought²⁴, and most of the miRNA-mediated repression on its targets is caused by mRNA destabilization as opposed to the prior scenario of 'translationalrepression, 24,25.

MiRNA processing. miRNA genes are mostly transcribed by RNA polymerase II, although some are transcribed by RNA polymerase III^{26,27}. The primary miRNA transcript (pri-miRNA) is synthesized in the nucleus of cells and is polyadenylated and capped, similar to messenger RNAs^{20,28,29}. The pri-miRNA contains regions that are not perfectly complementary, forming a stem-loop structure. In mammals, this pri-miRNA

undergoes further processing by two ribonuclease (RNase) III family members: Drosha and Dicer²⁸. The pri-miRNA is cleaved by the complex consisting of Drosha and cofactor DiGeorge syndrome critical region gene 8 (DGCR8), to form precursor miRNA (pre-miRNA)^{20,28}. The pre-miRNA, a 60-100 nucleotides long hairpin structure, is then exported from the nucleus into the cytoplasm by the Exportin 5 (XPO5)/Ran-GTP complex^{20,28}. In the cytoplasm, Dicer and TAR RNA binding protein (TRBP) then cleave off the loop from the pre-miRNA structure leaving behind an 18-25 nucleotides long dsRNA duplex^{20,28}. This duplex is comprised of a guide strand and a passenger strand, each of which has a different purpose in the cell²⁸. The guide strand is taken up by Argonaute (AGO) to form the Argonaute-containing miRNA-induced silencing complex (miRISC)²⁰ while the passenger stand is degraded²⁸. miRISC can then bind to the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of target mRNAs by partial base pairing and lead to mRNA degradation or translational repression^{20,30-35} (Figure 6).

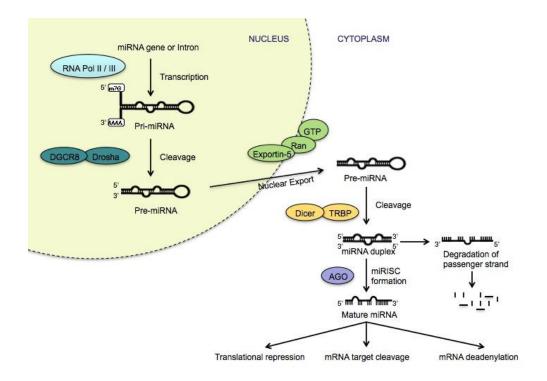


Figure 6. Processing of miRNA. The primary miRNA transcript (pri-miRNA) is transcribed by RNA polymerase II or III. The pri-miRNA is then cleaved by the microprocessor complex Drosha – DGCR8 (Pasha) to pre-miRNA in the nucleus. The precursor hairpin, pre-miRNA, is then exported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm by Exportin-5 – Ran-GTP. In the cytoplasm, the RNase Dicer along with the double-stranded RNA-binding protein TRBP cleaves the pre-miRNA hairpin to form a miRNA duplex. The mature strand of the miRNA is then loaded together with Argonaute (Ago) proteins into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), where it guides RISC to silence target mRNAs through mRNA cleavage, translational repression or mRNA deadenylation. The passenger strand from the miRNA duplex is degraded. DGCR8, DiGeorge syndrome critical region gene 8. TRBP, TAR RNA binding protein (Source: Adapted from 36).

Repression of gene expression. The nucleotides in positions 2-8 from the 5' end of the guide strand represent the 'seed' region^{20,37} (Figure 7). It is an important feature in miRNA target recognition and mutations in the seed region lead to changes in target specificity and/or disease³⁸⁻⁴⁰. In plants, perfect pairing of a miRNA with its target mRNA leads to recruitment of deadenylation factors to remove the poly(A) tail of the target mRNA and endonucleolytic cleavage of the mRNA^{20,28,41,42}. In mammals, the miRISC mostly induces gene silencing by imperfect matching of nucleotides between the miRNA and its target RNAs, leading to repression of protein synthesis and/or mRNA degradation through deadenylation and decapping²⁸. Translational repression occurs through interference with factors required for translation such as eukaryotic translationinitiation factor 4G (eIF4G) and poly(A)-binding protein (PABPC)⁴³. After extensive speculation about the stage at which translational repression occurs (initiation versus post-initiation stage), recent data has proved that repression occurs predominantly during initiation of translation⁴³. Deadenylation of mRNAs involves the CAF1-CCR4-NOT deadenylase complex, and mRNA-decapping enzyme 2 (DCP2), a decapping enzyme decaps the target mRNA, resulting in mRNA degradation by exoribonuclease 1 (XRN1), the major 5'-to-3' exonuclease in cultured cells⁴³. However, this is not true in cellular extracts. In cell extracts, deadenylated mRNAs are thought to remain undegraded in a deadenylated, translationally repressed state⁴³. Irrespective of the mode of action of the miRNA, the miRISC complexes along with the bound target mRNAs are found enriched in processing bodies (P-bodies or GW-bodies), cytoplasmic structures containing mRNA degrading enzymes and are implicated in the storage and degradation of the target mRNAs²³.

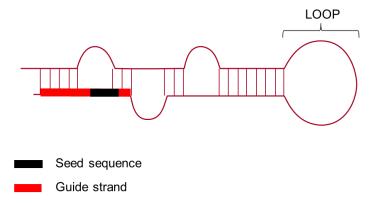


Figure 7. Structural components of a pre-miRNA. The pre-miRNA is composed of a stem-loop structure comprising the guide strand, passenger strand, additional sequences, and the loop. The guide strand is shown in red and the seed sequence is highlighted in black.

Gene regulation by miRNAs is also controlled by RNA binding proteins. RNA binding proteins interacting with the 3' UTR of miRNA target mRNAs can reverse or augment the inhibition by certain miRNAs²³. Under stress conditions, inhibition of CAT-1 mRNA by miR-122 is relieved by the protein HuR, which translocates from the nucleus to the cytoplasm and binds to the 3' UTR of the CAT-1 mRNA, causing the CAT-1 mRNA to leave the P-body and bind to polysomes^{23,44}.

Several groups have recently reported that miRNAs can also activate gene expression of its targets, in addition to inhibit expression²³. One example is miR-122, which has been shown to upregulate the levels of Hepatitis C Virus (HCV) RNA through binding to its 5' UTR²³. Also, miR-10a has been shown to increase translation of mRNAs

with 5' TOP motifs by binding to the 5' UTR downstream of the 5' TOP motif^{23,45}. Recent data shows that translational activation by miRNAs may be mediated through AGO2-containing complexes under serum starvation conditions and during cell cycle arrest⁴⁵.

E. Role of miRNAs in liver

Given that miRNAs are largely transcribed by RNA polymerase II, their expression is subject to transcriptional regulation in a similar manner to protein-encoding genes. Thus, the metabolic state of a cell can influence the expression of a single or multiple miRNAs, and miRNA expression profiles have been found to be altered in various metabolic disorders such as diabetes and obesity²⁸. In a study comparing miRNA expression profiles between skeletal muscle of normal and diabetic rats, 4 miRNAs were found up-regulated and 11 miRNAs were found down-regulated⁴⁶. This may suggest that miRNAs play a key role in metabolism and can in fact be potential diagnostic and prognostic markers^{28,47}.

Dicer1, the only RNase III family member in mammals for processing dsRNA into both miRNAs and siRNAs⁴⁸, is critical for miRNA maturation from early postnatal liver, and its deletion results in profound hepatocyte apoptosis, steatosis and mild hypoglycemia³⁷. This implies that miRNAs have critical roles in normal liver development and physiology. It is now widely accepted that miRNAs have important regulatory roles in various cellular processes. Recent work has implicated miRNAs in pancreas development and insulin secretion⁴⁹, as well as insulin sensitivity in liver⁵⁰. It has also been shown that miRNAs play a role in various hepatic metabolic functions such as fatty acid and cholesterol metabolism, insulin signaling and glucose metabolism.

miRNA-10b (miR-10b) was identified in L02 cells, a human model of hepatic steatosis^{28,51}. Overexpression of miR-10b resulted in triglyceride and lipid accumulation

in these cells by directly targeting peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- α (PPAR- α), a nuclear receptor involved in lipid metabolism^{28,51}. This study provided a novel mechanism by which miR-10b regulated hepatic steatosis in the context of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD).

miRNA-122 (miR-122) is the most abundant liver-specific miRNA and has been implicated in various metabolic processes important for hepatic function and liver pathology⁵². miR-122 is almost solely expressed in hepatocytes⁵³ and represents roughly 70% of the total miRNAs expressed in the adult liver⁵⁴. miR-122 is expressed in mouse and human livers, primary hepatocytes and liver-derived cell lines such as Hepa1-6 and Huh7 cells⁵⁴. miR-122 has been shown to bind to the 3' UTR of cationic amino acid transporter-1 (CAT-1) mRNA^{44,54,55}. miR-122 has been shown to play roles in fatty acid metabolism and cholesterol metabolism⁵² through downregulation of 1-Acylglycerol-3-Phosphate O-Acyltransferase 1 (AGPAT1) and Cell Death-Inducing DFFA-Like Effector C (CIDEC). Silencing miR-122 in mice fed a high-fat diet resulted in a significant reduction of hepatic steatosis⁵⁶. This was also seen with a notable decrease in serum cholesterol levels^{54,56}.

miR-122 has also been involved in the pathophysiology of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). It acts as a tumor suppressor and is downregulated in 70% of HCC cases⁵⁷. This is mediated by upregulation of miR-122 targets such as Cut-like homeobox 1 (CUTL1), A disintegrin and metalloprotease family 17 (ADAM17) and cyclin G1⁵⁷. Other targets of miR-122 involved in hepatocarcinogenesis that have been recently found

are: A disintegrin and metalloprotease family 10 (ADAM10)⁵², insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor (IGF1R)⁵², N-Myc Downstream-Regulated Gene 3 (NDRG3)⁵⁸ and Microtubule-Associated Protein, RP/EB Family, Member 1 (MAPRE1)⁵⁹. Overall, this suggests that miR-122 and its targets have an integral role in liver development and function⁵² (Figure 8).

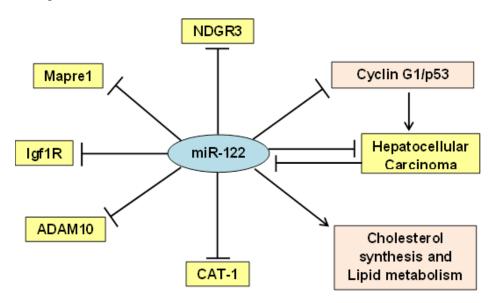


Figure 8. Role of miR-122 in liver⁵². The figure illustrates the role of miR-122 in the liver. miR-122 inhibits expression of CAT-1, ADAM10, Igf1R, Mapre1, NDGR3 and is found downregulated in hepatocellular carcinoma. miR-122 prevents hepatocellular carcinoma through inhibiting cyclin G1 and preventing the association of cyclin G1 with p53. miR-122 has also been shown to play a role in cholesterol and lipid metabolism.

miRNA-216 (miR-216) and miRNA-302a (miR-302a) were found downregulated in livers of hypercholesterolemic low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) knockout mice that were fed a high-fat diet compared to those that were fed a chow diet^{28,60}. Also, this study found an inverse correlation between the levels of miR-

302a and its target genes ABCA1 transporter and ELOVL fatty acid elongase 6 (ELOVL6), a microsomal enzyme involved in the formation of long-chain FA^{28,60}. This suggests a role for miR-302a in fatty acid, cholesterol and glucose metabolism⁶⁰.

miRNA-33a/b (miR-33a/b) are the best example of intronic miRNAs that work together with their host genes to regulate cholesterol and fatty acid metabolism. miR-33a is co-transcribed with sterol-regulatory element binding protein 2 (SREBP-2) gene⁶¹, a transcription factor important in *de novo* cholesterol synthesis and uptake⁶², while miR-33b is co-transcribed with sterol-regulatory element binding protein 1 (SREBP-1), a transcription factor involved in fatty acid synthesis 61,63,64. In vivo studies in mice and nonhuman primates have both shown that inhibition of miR-33a/b using different approaches resulted in increased hepatic expression of miR-33 target gene, adenosine triphosphatebinding cassette (ABC) transporter member 1 (ABCA1), a transporter that reduces cholesterol efflux to high-density lipoprotein (HDL)^{65,66}. This increase in expression of ABCA1 resulted in elevated HDL levels in mouse and non-human primate animal models^{65,66}. Other cholesterol metabolism genes targeted by miR-33a are ATP-binding cassette sub-family G member 1 (ABCG1) and Niemann-Pick disease, type C1 (NPC1)⁶⁷. miR-33b has been shown to target genes involved in fatty acid metabolism such as carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1a (CPT1a), carnitine O-octaniltransferase (CROT), hydroxyacyl-CoA-dehydrogenase (HADHB), AMP kinase subunit-α (AMPK1α) and reduce fatty acid oxidation⁶⁷.

In addition, miR-33 has also been shown to have a negative role in regulating insulin signaling by acting on insulin receptor substrate-2 (IRS-2) and reducing downstream signaling^{28,67} in human hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines HepG2 and Huh7.

miRNA-34a (miR-34a) was found upregulated in livers of patients with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH)^{28,68}. miR-34a directly inhibits sirtuin 1 (SIRT)-1, leading to downstream activation of HMGCoA reductase (HMGCR) which, in turn results in elevated levels of cholesterol in these patients^{28,69}.

miRNA-335 (miR-335) was found upregulated in livers and white adipose tissues (WAT) of three animal models of obesity – db/db, ob/ob and KKAy mice⁷⁰. This was associated with elevated hepatic triglyceride and cholesterol levels suggesting that miR-335 may represent a biomarker for hepatic lipid accumulation in mice^{47,70}.

miRNA-370 (miR-370) has been shown to be a potent regulator of lipid metabolism in HepG2 cells⁷¹. miR-370 regulates genes involved in fatty acid and triglyceride synthesis such as transcription factor sterol-regulatory element binding protein 1c (SREBP-1c), diacylglycerol acyltransferase-2 (DGAT2), fatty acid synthase (FAS), and acyl-CoA carboxylase 1 (ACC1) through upregulating miR-122^{28,71}. miR-370 directly targets the 3' UTR of carnitine palmitoyl transferase 1a (Cpt1a), a mitochondrial enzyme involved in shuttling fatty acids into mitochondria for □-oxidation^{28,71}. This implies that miR-370 may be implicated in the accumulation of triglycerides in the liver by increasing

the expression of miR-122 (thereby increasing *de novo* lipogenesis) and by reducing \Box -oxidation⁷¹.

miRNA-467b (miR-467b) was shown to be downregulated in livers of mice fed a high-fat diet and in steatotic hepatocytes⁷². miR-467b was found to regulate the expression of hepatic lipoprotein lipase (LPL), an enzyme that hydrolyzes triglycerides^{28,72}. This interaction between miR-467b and LPL has been associated with insulin resistance and plays an important role in the spectrum of NAFLD.

In addition to miR-122 (see page 18), other miRNAs have been consistently found downregulated in hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). MicroRNAs miR-199a-1, miR-199a-2 and miR-199b have been shown to be downregulated in HCC, which results in upregulation of targets such as MET (Met Proto-Oncogene), mTOR (Mammalian Target Of Rapamycin), CD44 (CD44 Molecule) and HIF-1α (Hypoxia Inducible Factor 1, Alpha Subunit)⁵⁷. This causes HCC to be highly proliferative, invasive and resistant to radiation. On the other hand, miR-221 is upregulated in HCC and results in downregulation of genes involved in cell cycle inhibition, negative regulation of the mTOR pathway, proapoptosis, as well as inhibition of metalloproteases⁵⁷.

Overall, these studies highlight the possibility that pharmacological inhibition of miRNAs may become a therapeutic strategy for the treatment of hepatic diseases. Identification of miRNA targets therefore becomes an important aspect of developing new miRNA-based therapeutic products. Despite the emerging role of miRNAs at

controlling genes important in liver metabolism, the mechanisms by which miRNA regulate physiological responses is still poorly understood.

F. Thesis hypothesis and research aims

The liver is an important organ regulating many metabolic processes and is responsible for various critical functions in the body. In recent years, differential expression of miRNAs has been observed in many disease states. Thus, the development of molecules to inhibit miRNAs that are found upregulated in particular diseases can be exploited for therapeutic purposes. Likewise, targeting deleterious genes with miRNAs represents an attractive therapeutic strategy. Thus, understanding the mechanisms by which miRNAs govern hepatic functions is key for developing novel therapeutic agents. I proposed to identify miRNAs differentially expressed in murine liver under pathological or nutritionally distinc conditions, to understand the role of miRNA in the pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes, and on vital hepatic functions. My central hypothesis was that miRNA that are dysregulated may affect expression of target genes, and contribute to the development of that disorder. Using primary hepatocytes as a cellular model, my central hypothesis was tested by pursuing the following specific aims: (i) To identify miRNAs dysregulated in livers of an animal model of type 2 diabetes, and in the transition from the fasted to refed state; (ii) To identify gene targets of mmu-miR-709 (miR-709); (iii) To determine the biological role of miR-709 in murine liver.

Specific Aim 1: To identify miRNAs dysregulated in livers of an animal model of type 2 diabetes, and in the transition from the fasted to refed state.

The working hypothesis for Aim 1 was that expression of hepatic miRNAs are altered in metabolic disorders such as diabetes. Also, miRNAs are largely transcribed by RNA polymerase II and therefore, may be transcriptionally regulated like protein-encoding

genes. Identifying these miRNA and understanding their function in the liver will help understand the mechanisms that lead to hepatic disorders and developing novel therapies. This hypothesis was tested by conducting miRNA microarrays on liver tissues from normal and db/db mice, and from fasted and refed animals.

Specific Aim 2: To identify gene targets of miR-709. The working hypothesis for Aim 2 was that mRNAs directly regulated by a miRNA should be downregulated upon transient transfection of miRNA mimics. I checked mRNA profiles of primary hepatocytes transfected with miR-709 and confirmed the expression of its targets at protein level. Identifying the targets of miR-709 enabled the characterization of the pathways regulated by miR-709 in the murine liver.

Specific Aim 3: To determine the biological role of miR-709 in murine liver. The abundance of miR-709 in murine liver, its predicted and confirmed targets, suggested an important role for miR-709 in cell proliferation. This hypothesis was tested by analyzing miR-709 in animal models of liver regeneration and liver cancer and by studying the impact of depleting miR-709 during cell division.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. MATERIALS

A.1. Plasmids. psiCHECKTM-2 Luciferase vector (Promega, Madison, WI) was used to generate p.miR-709-3p, p.miR-709-5p, p.Rab11b, p.Ces1g, p.Pctp, p.NC-Rab11b, p.NC-Ces1g and p.NC-Pctp constructs. pBluescript II SK(+) vector (Stratagene, CA, USA) was used to generate plasmid p.pri-Cel-239b.

A.2. Primers

Table 1. Oligonucleotides used to generate luciferase constructs and primers used for qRT-PCR (5' \rightarrow 3').			
Oligonucleotides			
Pctp	TATGCACTCGAGCATCTGGATTTTTCCTTTCCC		
-	ATCAGGCGGCCGCGGTGGTACACGCCTTTAATC		
NC- Pctp	TATGCACTCGAGTCAGGCTTCAAAGATGGCTTG		
	AATCAGGCGGCCGCCTGAGTTCGAGGCTAACCTG		
Ces1g	TATGCACTCGAGTCAATCGTCTGACACCAGTG		
	AATCAGGCGGCCGCTTCTAAGGGAATGTATTTGTGA		
	T		
NC-Ces1g	TATGCACTCGAGGAGCCAAGGAAACAGCAGAG		
	ATCAGGCGGCCGCTCCAGGAAAGCCAGGACTAC		
Rab11b	ATGCACTCGAGCAGGGTTTCTCTGTGTAGC		
	TCAGGCGGCCGAGGGGCAAGGGTGTCTT		
NC-Rab11b	ATGCACTCGAGCCAGGAAGAGCAGGAGTCC		
	ATCAGGCGGCCGAGTTTGGGATGAGGATACAG		
Cel-239b	CCAGTGTCCCACAGAGTAATTAGTGTGTAGCGACTA		
primary	AACACATCAACTCAGAAGTGCTCTA		
transcript	AGCTTAGAACTGTCCAGTTTGAGCAGCACTGGTTGA		
	TGTGTTTAGTCGCTATTGTCTTTTGTTATATTGACTT		
	ATGCTGCA		
Primers used for qRT-PCR			
CD36	GGCAAAGAACAGCAGCAAAATC		
	TGAAGGCTCAAAGATGGCTCC		
Gck	CACTGCGGAGATGCTCTTTGAC		
	CCACGATGTTGTTCCCTTCTGC		
Acox2	GAATAACAGTTGGGGACATAGG		

	CTGGAGGGTGGGTAGGAATC
Pfkl	GCAAGGTATGAATGCTGCTGTC
	TGGAAACGCTGAGCCAGTTGG
Pctp	CAAGAAGGGAGCAGAGAATGG
	TGGTGTAGCACAGCCAGAGATG
Rab11b	CAAAGTGGTGCTTATTGGGGAC
	CTGAGCCTTGATGGTCTTGCC
Ces1g	TGTAAAACCACCACCTCCGCTG
	TCTCTGGGGTCTCCAAGAAAATC
TBP	TATCACTCCTGCCACACCAG
	CATGATGACTGCAGCAAATCG

A.3. Mice. Animals were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). Animal studies were performed in compliance with Indiana University School of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines.

A.3.1. Liver miRNA analysis: Four 12-week old, male C57BLKS/J and *db/db* mice (an obese animal model of type 2 diabetes lacking a functional leptin receptor), were used to study hepatic miRNA expression profiles under fed conditions (see section B.6.a).

A.3.2. Primary hepatocyte isolation: Male C57BL/6J mice (11 to 12 weeks old, 24 to 30g) were used for isolation of primary hepatocytes. Mice were fed rodent chow *ad libitum* and allowed free access of water. A standard 12 h light/12 h dark cycle (7 AM/7 PM) was maintained throughout the experiments. Mice were allowed to acclimate for at least a week before experimentation.

A.3.3. miRNA profiles under fed, fasted, refed conditions: Fifteen 14-week old, male C57BL/6J mice were used for studying the expression of miRNAs under different nutritional status (see section B.6.b).

A.3.4. Relative expression of pre-miR-709 vs mature miR-709: Livers from normal LapMyc mice (5 male and 2 female) and tumor LapMyc mice (5 male) were obtained from Dr. Janaiah Kota (Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics, Indiana

University School of Medicine)⁵⁹. Livers from normal C57BL/6 male mice before hepatectomy, and 24, 36 and 44 hours post-hepatectomy (3 animals per group) were provided by Dr. Guoli Dai (Department of Biology, Purdue University School of Science)⁷³.

A.4. Antibodies

Table 2. Antibodies used for Western blotting.					
Antibody	Manufacturer	Dilution factor			
Rab11b	Cell Signaling, Boston, MA	1:1,000			
DYNC1LI1	GeneTex, San Antonio, TX	1:1,000			
Glucokinase (N-term)	Abgent, San Diego, CA	1:500			
Insulin receptor-□	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX	1:500			
LDLR	Abcam, Cambridge, MA	1:3000			
FATP1	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX	1:500			
Timp3	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX	1:1000			
Cyclophilin 40	Abcam, Cambridge, MA	1:1000			
Tubulin-α Ab-2 (Clone DM1A)	Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL	1:10,000			
β-actin (C4)	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX	1:500			
Anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked	Cell Signaling, Boston, MA	1:3,000 - 1:5,000			

A.5. Other reagents

A.5.a. Plasmid isolation. Plasmid mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and plasmid maxi kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) was used for small scale (~3 ml LB broth) and large scale (~200 ml LB broth) plasmid isolation, respectively.

A.5.b. RNA isolation. Total RNA Isolation from cells and tissues for RT-PCR: RNAeasy mini/midi kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), RNAse free-DNAse I (Qiagen,

Valencia, CA) and β-mercaptoethanol were used to isolate total RNA. Total RNA Isolation from cells and tissues for Taqman miRNA assay and Northern blot of miRNAs: the long (>200 bp) and miRNA-enriched (<200 bp) RNA fractions were isolated using mirVanaTM miRNA Isolation kit (Ambion, Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY).

A.5.c. Protein isolation. RIPA buffer (25 mM Tris•HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS; Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche, Indianapolis, IN) was used to lyse cells and isolate proteins.

A.5.d. DNA gel extraction. QIAEX II Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) was used to isolate PCR product fragments from agarose gels.

A.5.e. Ligation. T4 DNA ligase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA) was used to ligate PCR products into psiCHECKTM-2 Luciferase vector according to manufacturer's instructions.

A.5.f. PCR. High Capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems, Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) was used to generate cDNA from mouse liver.

A.5.g. qRT-PCR. QuantiTect SYBR Green RT-PCR kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) was used, following the manufacturer's recommendations. Reactions were set up in 96-well Optical reaction plates covered with optical caps (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA). Real time PCR was performed using an ABI Prism 7500 instrument (Applied Biosystem, Foster City, CA).

A.5.h. TaqMan miRNA assay. TaqMan miRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was used to generate cDNA, followed by PCR with TaqMan miRNA Assays (Applied Biosystems) specific for miR-709 and sno-202.

- **A.5.i. Protein quantification.** Pierce® BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo Scientific, Hanover Park, IL) was used to quantify proteins.
- **A.5.j. Western Blot detection.** Pierce® ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Scientific, Hanover Park, IL) was used to detect proteins.
- **A.5.k. LDH assay**. Cytotoxicity LDH Detection Kit (Clontech, Mountain View, CA) was used for detection of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH).
- **A.5.1. Transfection.** METAFECTENE® PRO (Biontex, Germany) was used as transfection reagent at lipid:DNA ratios described in the cell transfection section.
- **A.5.m. LB broth.** Luria-Bertani (LB) broth (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) was used to grow *E. coli* (*Escherichia coli*) bacteria.
- **A.5.n. Bacteria for subcloning.** XL1-Blue Subcloning grade competent cells (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA) were used for transformation of plasmids.
- **A.5.o.** Cell lines. The mouse hepatoma cell line Hepa-1c1c7 and human embryonic kidney cell line HEK293 were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC).

B. METHODS

B.1. Plasmid cloning. p.miR-709-3p and p.miR-709-5p constructs were generated by cloning an oligonucleotide with a sequence perfectly complementary to either the 3' or the 5' strand of miR-709 (based on the sequence published in TargetScan), downstream of the renilla luciferase gene in plasmid psiCHECKTM-2 Luciferase vector (Promega, Madison, WI) (Figure 9). Oligonucleotides (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) were inserted into the NotI – XhoI site using Quick ligation kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA). These plasmids were used to determine whether the 3' or 5' strand is the guide strand of miR-709.

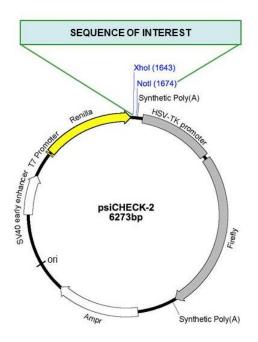


Figure 9. Schematic representation of the psiCHECKTM-2 plasmid used for generating constructs for luciferase reporter assays. All sequences were cloned using Not I and Xho I sites into the 3' UTR of the Renilla luciferase cDNA.

Tough decoys (TuDs) to reduce cellular levels of miR-709 and miR-122, were generated by cloning 8 copies of the sequence complementary to the 3p strand of miR-709 or the 5p strand of miR-122, downstream from the luciferase gene in psiCHECKTM-2. The sequence inserted was chemically synthesized (GenScript, NJ, and Genewiz, NJ) with XhoI and NotI sites at the ends to facilitate cloning.

To confirm that Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp are direct targets of miR-709, 220-720 base-pair (bp) fragments of the 3' UTR containing the putative binding sites (microrna.org⁷⁴), were cloned in the NotI – XhoI site of psiCHECKTM-2 vector. Total mRNA from mouse liver was used to generate the cDNA (High Capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit, Applied Biosystems, Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) and the corresponding portion of the 3' UTR of Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp was amplified by PCR using primers with restriction sites for NotI – XhoI (Table 1). The PCR products were digested with XhoI and NotI, gel purified with QIAEX II Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) and cloned into psiCHECKTM-2, generating plasmids p.Rab11b, p.Ces1g and p.Pctp. In addition, a portion of the 3' UTR of these mRNAs without miR-709 binding sites was cloned into psiCHECKTM-2 and used as negative controls (p.NC-Rab11b, p.NC-Ces1g and p.NC-Pctp). Clones were sequenced prior to using them in luciferase assays.

A plasmid expressing the primary transcript of miR-709 (p.pri-miR-709) was purchased from OriGene (Rockville, MD, USA). p.pri-miR-709 is composed of pre-miR-709 (88 nt) and 250-300 nt flanking genomic sequence (Figure 10A). The flanking

sequence is required for correct pri-miR expression and processing by the microprocessor complex (Drosha). As control, p.pri-Cel-239b was cloned into pBluescript II SK(+) vector (Stratagene, CA, USA) in 4 steps (Figure 10B). The promoter, polyA signal and 300 bp flanker regions were obtained by PCR amplification from the p.pri-miR-709 plasmid and thus, have the same sequence. The pre-Cel-239b sequence was chemically synthesized as 4 oligonucleotides that anneal to form the appropriate restriction enzyme sites on either end. All clones were sequenced prior to using them in experiments.

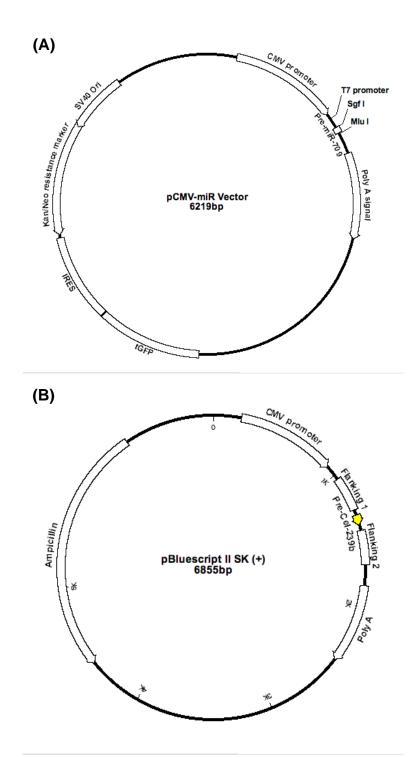


Figure 10. Schematic representation of plasmids expressing pri-miR-709 and pri-Cel-239b. (A) Plasmid expressing pri-miR-709 (OriGene). (B) Plasmid expressing pri-Cel-239b miRNA was generated as described in the text.

B.2. Primary hepatocyte isolation. Primary hepatocytes were isolated using a two-step collagenase procedure, as previously described⁷⁵. Briefly, mice were anesthetized with pentobarbital (90 mg/kg body weight i.p.) and the liver was perfused with Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ free Hank's Balanced Salt solution (HBSS) containing 5 mM ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid (EGTA) and 0.05 M HEPES. This was followed by perfusion with 0.075% collagenase solution in DMEM. After perfusion, the liver was cut out and liver cells were dispersed in 15 ml collagenase solution using forceps. Cells were filtered through a 70µm nylon mesh and centrifuged at 100xg for 5 min to pellet hepatocytes. The cell pellet was washed in 20 ml DMEM with 10% FBS and centrifuged again. To enrich for live cells, the cell pellet was resuspended in 25 ml DMEM (without FBS) plus 24 ml 90% Percoll solution⁷⁶. Cell viability was assessed by trypan blue staining exclusion (>80% viability). Cells were seeded at a density of 4-6x10⁵ cells per well or 35-mm dish in 2 ml DMEM supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS), 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, 3 nM insulin and 1 nM dexamethasone. Cells were incubated at 37°C, 5% CO₂ in a humidified incubator and allowed to attach for 4 hours. Media was then replaced with fresh media.

B.2.a. Primary hepatocyte sandwich⁷⁷ experiments. For primary hepatocyte sandwich experiments, $6x10^5$ cells were plated on collagen-coated glass-bottom 35-mm dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA). Media was replaced 4 hours post-plating and cells were transfected with 34 nM of miR-709 or the control miRNA Cel-239b (Dharmacon, Pittsburgh, PA). The next day, primary hepatocytes were overlaid with BD MatrigelTM (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA) at a final concentration of 0.25 mg/ml in cold DMEM

supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum, 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin and 100 nM dexamethasone. Cells were cultured for 3-5 days to allow the formation of bile canalicular networks between cells. Media was replaced every day.

B.2.b. Sodium fluorescein assay. Four hours after plating, mouse primary hepatocytes were transfected with 34 nM miR-709 or Cel-239b (Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO), siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2, or siNC (Invitrogen, Life Technologies). Cells treated with siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2 received equimolar concentrations of siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2 for a final concentration of 30 nM. Next morning, media was aspirated and 2 ml of 0.25 mg/ml MatrigelTM (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin and 100 nM dexamethasone was added to all wells. Twenty-four hours later, media was replaced. Seventy-two hours post-transfection, cells were washed twice with media I (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM HEPES, 1 mM CaCl₂, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 10 mM glucose) and sodium fluorescein was added at 4 µM in media I. Cells were then incubated at 37°C in incubator for 10 min. The cells were washed twice with media I and 2 ml of DMEM supplemented 10% FBS, 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin and 100 nM dexamethasone, was added. Cells were again incubated for 10 min at 37°C in a CO₂ incubator. Images were taken at specified time points.

B.2.c. Imaging of labeled miR-709 in primary hepatocytes. For imaging experiments, $6x10^5$ cells were plated on collagen-coated glass-bottom 35-mm dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA). Media was replaced 4 hours post-plating. Next day, cells were transfected

with 34 nM of 3' FAM labeled miR-709 or the control miRNA Cel-67 labeled with Dy547 (Dharmacon, Pittsburgh, PA). Twenty-four hours later, media was replaced and 4 drops of Hoechst 33342 (NucBlue® Live ReadyProbes® Reagent; Molecular probes) was added to each well and incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator for 20 mins. Samples were then imaged by confocal fluorescence microscopy on an inverted microscope fitted with an FV1000 MPE using a 60x 1.2 NA water immersion objective lens (Olympus). Imaging was performed sequentially with excitation provided by solid state lasers at 405 and 559 nm and an Argon-ion laser at 488 nm; emission was collected with spectral filtration from 425-475 nm, 500-545 nm or filter based from 575-675 nm, respectively. Confocal slices were taken at 0.49 micron intervals with voxel dimensions of 0.265 x 0.265 microns. All post-acquisition analysis was performed in Fiji v1.48p⁷⁸ and figure generation was performed in Photoshop (Adobe).

B.3. Cell culture. Mouse hepatoma Hepa1c1c7 cells were cultured in MEM- α supplemented with 10% FBS and 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin and were plated in 6-well plates at a cell density of 1-5x10⁵ cells/well in 2 ml media.

Human embryonic kidney HEK293 cells were cultured in MEM- α supplemented with 10% FBS and 100 I.U./ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin and were plated in 6-well plates at a cell density of $6x10^5$ cells/well in 2 ml media.

B.3.a. Imaging of labeled miR-709 in Hepa1c1c cells. For imaging experiments, $4x10^5$ cells were plated on collagen-coated glass-bottom 35-mm dishes (MatTek, Ashland, MA). Media was replaced 5 hours post-plating and cells were transfected with 34 nM of

miR-709 or the control miRNA Cel-67 (Dharmacon, Pittsburgh, PA). Next day, media was replaced and samples were imaged by confocal fluorescence microscopy on an inverted Olympus microscope fitted with an FV1000 MPE using a 60 x 1.2 NA water immersion objective lens (Olympus). A second set of samples was imaged 24 hours after culturing them in media without FBS and glucose (metabolic stress conditions). Imaging was performed sequentially with excitation provided by solid state lasers at 405 and 559 nm and an Argon-ion laser at 488 nm; emission was collected with spectral filtration from 425-475 nm, 500-545 nm or filter based from 575-675 nm, respectively. Confocal slices were taken at 0.49 micron intervals with voxel dimensions of 0.265 x 0.265 microns. All post-acquisition analysis was performed in Fiji v1.48p⁷⁸ and figure generation was performed in Photoshop (Adobe).

B.3.b. LDH assay in Hepa1c1c cells. For lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release experiments, 4.5 x10⁵ cells were plated on 6-well plates. Media was replaced 16 hours post-plating and cells were transfected with 25 nM or 50 nM of anti-miR-709 or anti-control-miR. The next day, media was replaced. One-hundred μls of media was collected before and 24, 48 and 72 hours post-transfection, and LDH release was quantified.

B.4. Cell transfection

B.4.a. Using plasmids and miRNA: Mouse primary hepatocytes or Hepa1c1c7 cells were transfected with plasmids (1.5 μg) together with 34 nM of miR-709 or the control miRNA Cel-239b (Dharmacon). Transfection was performed at a nucleic acid:lipid ratio of 1:6. Cells were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. After overnight incubation,

media was replaced with fresh media. Cells were harvested 24 hours later and analyzed for luciferase activity using the dual-luciferase® reporter assay system (Promega) and a luminometer (Centro LB 960 microplate luminometer, Berthold Technologies). Renilla luciferase activity was normalized to firefly luciferase expressed from the same psiCHECKTM-2 plasmid.

B.4.b. Using plasmids: HEK293 cells or Hepa1c1c7 cells were transfected with 1.5 μg plasmids expressing pri-miR-709 or pri-Cel-239b. Transfection was performed at a nucleic acid:lipid ratio of 1:4. Cells were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ incubator. After overnight incubation, media was replaced with fresh media. Cells were harvested 24 hours later and RNA was isolated for analyzing miR-709 expression.

B.4.c. Using miRNA/siRNA/antagomiRs/anti-miRs: Four hours or the next morning after plating, mouse primary hepatocytes were transfected with 34 nM miR-709 (Dharmacon, Lafayette, CO), Cel-239b, siRab11b-1 (MSS208343), siRab11b-2 (MSS208345), siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2, control siRNA (siNC, 12935-300, Invitrogen, Life Technologies) using Metafectene Pro (1:6 ratio). Cells treated with siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2 received equimolar concentrations of siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2 for a final concentration of 30 nM. Media was replaced 24 hours later and cells were harvested 48 hours post-transfection to analyze protein expression. For antagomiRs/anti-miRs, mouse primary hepatocytes or Hepa1c1c cells were transfected with 10, 17, 25, 34 or 50 nM of anti-miR-709, or anti-control-miR using Metafectene Pro (1:6 ratio). Media was replaced 24 hours later and cells were harvested 24 hours post-

transfection to analyze mRNA or miR-709 expression or were maintained in culture upto 72 hours for LDH assay.

B.5. miRNA target predictions. Multiple databases (miRanda⁷⁴, miRDB^{79,80}, miRWalk⁸¹, TargetScan⁸², DIANAmT^{83,84}, miRBase⁸⁵⁻⁹¹, PICTAR5⁹² and RNA22⁹³) were used to predict targets of mmu-miR-709 (*Mus musculus* miRNA-709).

B.6. Array analyses.

B.6.a. miRNA microarray: miRNA chip analysis was conducted by LC Sciences (Houston, TX). Four animals per group (normal and db/db) were used. The RNA of two mice from one group was labeled with Cy3 and the RNA from the other two animals was labeled with Cy5. One wild type and one db/db sample was used to hybridize each of four chips. Background was determined using a regression-based background mapping method. The regression was performed on 5% to 25% of the lowest intensity data points excluding blank spots. Raw data matrix was then subtracted from the background matrix. Normalization was carried out using a LOWESS (Locally-weighted Regression) method on the background-subtracted data. Transcripts were considered detectable if they met at least two conditions: signal intensity higher than 3x background standard deviation; and spot CV <0.5. CV was calculated by standard deviation (SD)/signal intensity. A transcript was listed as detectable only if the signals from at least 50% of the repeating probes were above detection level. Data adjustment included data filtering, log2 transformation, and gene centering and normalization. The data filtering removed miRNAs with (normalized) intensity values below a threshold value of 32 across all

samples. The log2 transformation converts intensity values into log2 scale. Gene centering and normalization transform the log2 values using the mean and the standard deviation of individual genes across all samples. A t-test was performed between normal and diabetic sample groups. T-values were calculated for each miRNA, and p-values were computed from the theoretical t-distribution. miRNAs with p-values below 0.01 were selected for cluster analysis. The clustering was done using a hierarchical method and was performed with average linkage and Euclidean distance metric.

B.6.b. mRNA Affymetrix analysis: Four replicates for miR-709 and three replicates for Cel-239b were used. The quality of RNA was determined by Agilent 600 Nanobioanalyzer. mRNA microarray hybridization was performed by the Center for Medical Genomics, at Indiana University School of Medicine. Affymetrix mouse gene 1.0 ST arrays were used to compare expression of about 28,850 genes using one chip per replicate. Briefly, samples were labeled using the standard Affymetrix protocol for the WT Target Labeling and Control Reagents kit according to the Affymetrix user manual: GeneChip® Whole Transcript (WT) Sense Target Labeling Assay GeneChip. Individual labeled samples were hybridized to the Mouse Gene 1.0 ST GeneChips® for 17 hours, then washed, stained and scanned with the standard protocol using Affymetrix GCOS (GeneChip® Operating System). GCOS was used to generate data (CEL files). The CEL file stores the results of the intensity calculations on the pixel values of the DAT file. This includes an intensity value, standard deviation of the intensity, the number of pixels used to calculate the intensity value, a flag to indicate an outlier as calculated by the algorithm and a user defined flag indicating the feature should be excluded from future

analysis (www.Affymetrix.com). Arrays were visually scanned for abnormalities or defects.

CEL files were imported into Partek Genomics Suite (Partek, Inc., St. Louis, Mo). RMA signals were generated for the core probe sets using the RMA background correction, Quantile normalization and summarization by Median Polish. Summarized signals for each probe set were log2 transformed. These log transformed signals were used for Principal Components Analysis, hierarchical clustering and signal histograms to determine if there were any outlier arrays. Untransformed RMA signals were used for fold change calculations. Data was analyzed using a 1-way Anova (analysis of variance) using log2-transformed signals with treatment as factor and all possible contrasts made. Fold changes were calculated using the untransformed RMA signals. Principal component analysis (PCA) and hierarchical clustering of the top 100 genes was done.

B.6.c. Taqman Low Density Array. The ABI Taqman® microRNA Low Density Arrays for rodents (TLDA, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) was used to analyze the expression of miRNAs between fasted and refed liver samples. The rodent TLDA consists of 2 arrays: TLDA A array and TLDA B array for 518 mouse-specific microRNAs. Each array/panel includes three endogenous controls including the mammalian U6 (MammU6) assay that is repeated four times on each card as a positive control as well as an assay unrelated to mammalian species, ath-miR159a, as negative control. Total RNA is first converted to cDNA using MegaplexTM RT primer pools (Stem-loop RT primers for A and B arrays) and TaqMan® Universal PCR Master Mix is

simply combined with each reaction. One-hundred μl of this mix is then loaded onto each port of the TLDA array card. The TLDA plate was centrifuged with 9 up and down ramp rates at 1,200 rpm for 1 min and loaded into the 7900 HT Sequence Detection System using the 384-well TaqMan Low Density Array default thermal-cycling conditions. The ABI TaqMan SDS v2.3 software was utilized to obtain raw C_t values. To review results, the raw C_t data (SDS file format) were exported from the Plate Centric View into the ABI TaqMan RQ manager software. Automatic baseline and manual C_t were set to 0.2 for all samples. All the data was normalized to U87 expression. Delta C_t (ΔC_t) values of miRNAs was calculated by subtracting the U87 C_t values from target miRNA C_t values. Delta delta C_t ($\Delta \Delta C_t$) values were obtained by taking a difference of the ΔC_t of a miRNA between fasted and refed groups. $\Delta \Delta C_t$ values were then converted into fold-change by using the formula $2^{-\Delta \Delta C_t}$. Anova analysis was performed to get differentially expressed miRNAs from $2^{-\Delta \Delta C_t}$ data.

B.7. Western blotting. Primary hepatocytes were lysed in RIPA buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS; Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL) containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Cell extracts were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm, the fat layer carefully aspirated, and the supernatant was collected. Protein concentration was determined using the BCA kit from Pierce (Rockford, IL). Proteins (20-30 μg) were separated in 10% Tris-HCl SDS PAGE Criterion gel (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) and transferred to 0.2-mm PVDF membrane (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA). Antibodies to detect Rab11b, α-tubulin, LDLR, Timp3, FATP1, Cyc-40, IR- β, β-actin, Dync1li1 and Gck were used at the dilution

factors shown in Table 2. The secondary antibody horse radish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (Cell Signaling, Boston, MA), was added and incubated at room temperature for 1 hour at a 1:3,000 - 1:5,000 dilution. Blots were developed with Pierce ECL kit (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL), and exposed to enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) film (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ).

B.8. Northern blotting. miRNA-enriched (200 bp) RNA fractions were isolated from ~100 mg of liver using mirVana RNA isolation kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Ambion, Austin, TX). Four µg of miRNA-enriched RNA was separated on 15% TBE urea gels (Bio-Rad), transferred to Hybond-N membranes (GE Healthcare), and then UV-cross-linked using a Stratalinker 2400 (Stratagene). For miR-122 and 5s, DNA oligonucleotide probes were used. Probes (100 pmol) were labeled with DIG using a 2nd generation DIG oligonucleotide tailing kit (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Probes were hybridized to membranes at 25°C overnight in a hybridization oven after 2 hours of prehybridization at 60°C. Three 2X SSC, 0.1% SDS washes were carried out for 10 min at room temperature followed by blocking and incubating with antibody against DIG. The signal was developed using CSPD (Roche, Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Probes used were follows: miR-122: ACAAACACCATTGTCACACTCCA, 5s: TTAGCTTCCGAGATCA, miR-709: TCCTCCTGCCTCCC and ATCCTCCTGCCTCCCC. In addition, to confirm the data, a 5'-DIG labeled miRCURY LNA Detection probe for miR-709 was used (TCCTCCTGCCTCTCC) (Exiqon, Woburn, MA, USA). For the miRCURY LNA probe, the protocol was followed as decribed⁹⁴.

B.9. LDH assay. LDH measurements were performed on medium collected from Hepa1c1c cells transfected with miR-709 or Cel-239b, using the LDH Cytotoxicity Detection Kit (Clontech, CA, USA). At each timepoint, 100 μl of media from each well was collected and stored at -20°C. For analysis, the medium from each well was diluted 1:4 in medium without FBS and glucose, and the company's recommendations were followed. Absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a microplate reader.

B.10. qPCR analysis

B.10.a. qRT-PCR: qRT-PCR was performed for the following genes: Cluster of Differentiation 36 (*Cd36*), acyl-CoA oxidase 2 (*Acox2*), glucokinase (*Gck*), phosphofructokinase liver (*Pfkl*), member RAS oncogene family (*Rab11b*), carboxylesterase 1G (*Ces1g*), phosphatidylcholine transfer protein (*Pctp*) and TATA binding protein (*Tbp*), using the primer pairs shown in Table 1. qRT-PCR was performed using an ABI PRISM 7500 instrument (ABI, Foster City, CA) and the SYBR Green Qiagen One-Step reverse transcription-PCR kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), following the manufacturer's recommendations. A standard curve was generated with serial dilutions of an RNA sample from cells treated with the control miRNA (Cel-239b) (200 ng to 1.6 ng). Quantification of mRNA was measured by analyzing 50 ng of RNA, in duplicate, in a 50-μl reaction volume and using 0.5 mM of each primer. C_t values were compared to those of the standard curve. The *Tbp* gene was used as loading control. Fold-changes are expressed relative to Cel-239b transfected cells.

B.10.b. TaqMan assay to quantify mature miRNAs: To quantify the level of mature miR-709, cDNA was generated from 10 ng of total RNA sample using the TaqMan miRNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Quantitative PCR was performed with TaqMan miRNA Assays (Applied Biosystems) specific for miR-709 (P/N 001644). As endogenous control, sno-202 was used (TaqMan miRNA Assay P/N 001232).

B.11. Statistical analysis. All experimental conditions were done at least in duplicate and repeated in at least two separate hepatocyte isolations. Data are presented as the arithmetic mean ± standard deviation. Statistical differences were calculated using the unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test. A p-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

A. Hepatic murine miRNA expression

The importance of miRNAs regulating liver function was demonstrated recently in mice lacking Dicer in this tissue^{95,96}. The hepatocytes in the knock-out mice displayed prominent steatosis and depleted glycogen stores^{95,96}, and these mice were severely hypoglycemic after a short period of fasting. Recent work has also implicated miRNAs in other processes, including hepatic insulin sensitivity⁵⁰. Given that miRNA expression profiles are tissue-specific and can be altered by developmental stage, cell cycle, or metabolic processes, the role of miRNA in liver needs to be established under specific conditions that are relevant to its function.

A.1. Identification of miRNAs expressed in livers of normal and db/db mice

To identify miRNAs dysregulated in livers of an animal model of type 2 diabetes relative to normal mice, the small RNA fraction of four C57BLKS/J and four *db/db* mice fed *ad libitum*, were obtained. Expression of 617 murine miRNAs was tested using chip miRNA microarrays (LC Sciences, Houston, TX). Of all the miRNAs expressed in the liver, miR-122 was the most abundant (Table 3). As described in the Introduction, miR-122 has been well characterized and shown to be involved in various cellular processes such as fatty acid metabolism, amongst others^{52,56}. Of all the differentially expressed miRNA (total of 22), those with a p-value < 0.01 were selected. These included miRNA-709, miR-574-5p and miR-676, which were found significantly upregulated, and miR-805 and miR-23a, which were significantly downregulated in *db/db* livers (Figure 11). A

published study showed that hepatic miR-709 expression increased 7.6-fold with ageing in mice⁹⁷, suggesting a connection with metabolism. In addition, its abundance relative to other miRNAs made it particularly attractive to study, given the existing evidence that only the most abundant miRNAs suppress their targets, and that about 60% of the miRNAs are not active⁹⁸. Predicted targets across multiple databases such as miRDB, TargetScan, and miRBase indicated a possible role in regulating genes important for cell adhesion/extracellular matrix (actin binding proteins, myosin proteins). Thus, we chose to further characterize the function of miR-709, based on its high abundance and potential role in controlling metabolic processes.

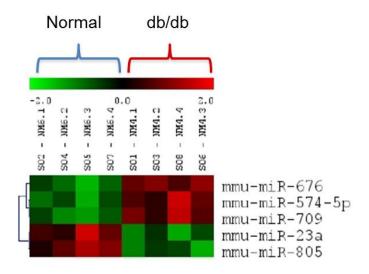


Figure 11. Hierarchical clustering analysis of miRNAs with p-value < 0.01. The clustering was done using a hierarchical method and was performed with average linkage and Euclidean distance metric. Red indicates higher expression and green indicates lower expression.

Table 3. miRNAs expressed in liver of normal C57BLKS/J mice.

miRNA	Mean miRNA signal	S.D.
mmu-miR-122	50,406	15,046
mmu-miR-709	14,482	2,168
mmu-let-7a	6,797	1,504
mmu-let-7f	6,096	1,436
mmu-let-7c	6,086	811
mmu-let-7d	4,780	623
mmu-let-7b	4,103	369
mmu-miR-466f-3p	2,614	742
mmu-miR-26a	2,346	288
mmu-miR-467b*	1,842	499
mmu-let-7g	1,520	351
mmu-miR-192	1,463	227
mmu-miR-689	1,159	617
mmu-miR-23b	838	242
mmu-miR-466i	782	240
mmu-miR-720	778	455
mmu-miR-467f	774	253
mmu-miR-467a*	718	242
mmu-miR-466g	554	154
mmu-miR-574-5p	487	72
mmu-miR-669f	463	161
mmu-miR-191	456	170
mmu-miR-483	451	91
mmu-miR-705	378	132
mmu-let-7i	370	107
mmu-miR-690	369	48
mmu-let-7e	369	169
mmu-miR-21	355	355
mmu-miR-805	352	131
mmu-miR-24	350	125
mmu-miR-1895	343	66
mmu-miR-22	308	30
mmu-miR-762	301	107
mmu-miR-126-3p	293	120
mmu-miR-26b	283	245
mmu-miR-1224	262	72
mmu-miR-23a	258	52
mmu-miR-16	235	74
mmu-miR-125b-5p	231	80
mmu-miR-103	222	57
mmu-miR-1187	210	39

	• • •	
mmu-miR-194	209	47
mmu-miR-455	205	66
mmu-miR-107	197	45
mmu-miR-320	196	66
mmu-miR-29a	190	119
mmu-miR-574-3p	190	46
mmu-miR-214	175	74
mmu-miR-145	164	64
mmu-miR-31	157	59
mmu-miR-30c	155	49
mmu-miR-378	153	34
mmu-miR-1196	144	65
mmu-miR-27b	140	46
mmu-miR-151-5p	139	50
mmu-miR-30d	117	16
mmu-miR-92a	110	29
mmu-miR-423-5p	108	32
mmu-miR-361	105	34
mmu-miR-1892	91	35
mmu-miR-185	90	27
mmu-miR-568	84	47
mmu-miR-143	83	22
mmu-miR-1897-5p	80	18
mmu-miR-148a	69	71
mmu-miR-681	68	63
mmu-miR-669c	64	36
mmu-miR-489	64	64
mmu-miR-222	64	19
mmu-miR-25	58	10
mmu-miR-15b	57	28
mmu-miR-30a	56	13
mmu-miR-181a	52	9
mmu-miR-188-5p	49	9
mmu-miR-140*	49	22
mmu-miR-27a	42	13
mmu-miR-485*	42	7
mmu-miR-221	40	13
mmu-miR-680	39	30
mmu-miR-92b	37	4
mmu-miR-290-5p	37	23
mmu-miR-30b	36	17
mmu-miR-369-5p	35	53
mmu-miR-101b	34	12
mmu-miR-146a	33	16
mmu-miR-199a-3p	33	4
mmu-miR-20a	33	8

mmu-miR-99b	32	12
mmu-miR-674	32	11
mmu-miR-193	32	11

A.2 Differential expression of hepatic miRNAs in the fasted and refed state

The transition from fasting to the refed state requires significant changes in hepatic mRNA profiles ^{99,100}. Most of the genes are implicated in lipid metabolism, cholesterol synthesis, gluconeogenesis and ketogenesis ^{99,100}, as expected from the established role of the liver at regulating these pathways in response to changes in levels of glucose and insulin. MicroRNAs are largely transcribed by RNA polymerase II and therefore, can be transcriptionally regulated like protein-encoding genes to change levels of genes needed for the metabolic switch between the fed and fasted periods. To determine whether miR-709 levels are influenced by nutritional/hormonal status, and to gain an insight on other miRNAs that could be regulated in such manner, we generated miRNA profiles in mice under fasted or refed conditions.

Total RNA from 14-week old, male C57BL/6J mice (5 mice per group) was used in the study. Mice under fed conditions had free access to food throughout the study. Mice were fasted for 16 hours (fasted group) or fasted for 16 hours and refed for 5 hours (refed group) (Table 4). TaqMan Low Density Array (TLDA) cards A and B for rodents were used to analyze miRNA expression in four animals from the fasted versus the refed group. These two groups were used because we anticipated that if miRNA play a role at regulating metabolic genes, the largest differences in miRNA expression would occur between the fasted and refed periods, when genes involved in fatty acid oxidation, ketogenesis and gluconeogenesis need to be shutdown, while genes involved in

glycolysis and lipogenesis need to be upregulated. The A and B array cards together can detect 518 miRNAs specific to rodents. We have identified 39 miRNAs from the 'A' card and 22 miRNAs from the 'B' card that are differently expressed under fasting/refed conditions, with a fold-level of expression ranging from 1.5 to 32.4 (Table 5). It was striking to note that all miRNAs exept one (mmu-miR-21*) were downregulated under refed relative to fasting conditions, suggesting that miRNA control metabolic pathways mostly by inhibiting expression of gene targets during fasting conditions.

Table 4. Blood glucose and body weight.				
	Fed	Fasted	Refed	
Glucose (mg/dl)	140.8±19.1	71.0±9.1	148.0±11.0	
Body weight (g)	29.0±2.4	26.4±1.1	28.2±2.2	

 ${\bf Table~5.~miRNAs~differentially~expressed~between~fasted~and~refed~groups.}$

'A' Array

11 111 uj				
miRNA	Fold Change (Fasted/Refed)	p-value		
mmu-miR-455	27.05	0.022		
mmu-miR-214	3.88	0.025		
mmu-miR-23b	2.93	0.013		
mmu-miR-676	2.90	0.023		
snoRNA202	2.87	0.018		
mmu-miR-25	2.86	0.005		
mmu-miR-99a	2.82	0.012		
mmu-miR-425	2.79	0.013		
mmu-miR-652	2.69	0.002		
mmu-miR-221	2.67	0.004		
mmu-miR-340-3p	2.58	0.019		
mmu-let-7g	2.50	0.017		
mmu-miR-181a	2.47	0.035		
mmu-miR-335-5p	2.33	0.021		
mmu-miR-145	2.17	0.026		
mmu-miR-125b-5p	2.17	0.006		
mmu-miR-532-5p	2.16	0.009		
mmu-miR-30c	2.12	0.017		
mmu-miR-199a-3p	2.03	0.000		
mmu-miR-381	1.98	0.020		
mmu-miR-590-5p	1.95	0.045		
mmu-let-7d	1.93	0.042		
mmu-miR-328	1.89	0.023		
mmu-miR-27a	1.86	0.033		
mmu-let-7b	1.85	0.003		
mmu-miR-146b	1.83	0.027		
mmu-miR-93	1.82	0.017		
mmu-let-7i	1.82	0.022		
mmu-miR-18a	1.80	0.047		
mmu-miR-152	1.80	0.022		
mmu-miR-365	1.74	0.031		
mmu-miR-26a	1.73	0.004		
mmu-miR-143	1.73	0.023		
mmu-let-7c	1.72	0.033		
mmu-miR-30b	1.72	0.028		
mmu-miR-195	1.68	0.039		
mmu-miR-122	1.54	0.021		
mmu-miR-148a	1.53	0.019		

mmu-miR-103	1.52	0.008
'B' Array		
miRNA	Fold Change (Fasted/Refed)	p-value
mmu-miR-29b*	32.42	0.008
mmu-miR-744*	15.79	0.003
mmu-miR-28*	5.11	0.016
mmu-miR-15b*	4.80	0.010
mmu-miR-674*	4.11	0.040
mmu-let-7a*	3.87	0.022
mmu-miR-760	3.65	0.033
mmu-miR-29c*	3.38	0.025
mmu-miR-22*	2.79	0.006
mmu-miR-214*	2.75	0.030
mmu-miR-872*	2.56	0.020
mmu-miR-193*	2.49	0.009
mmu-miR-720	2.48	0.025
mmu-miR-22*	2.34	0.015
mmu-miR-22	1.98	0.026
mmu-miR-706	1.92	0.045
mmu-miR-31*	1.88	0.023
mmu-miR-22	1.67	0.024
mmu-miR-30a*	1.64	0.034
mmu-miR-378	1.54	0.032
mmu-miR-378	1.52	0.027
mmu-miR-21*	-29.52	0.025

The predicted targets of the 10 genes with >3-fold decrease/increase were identified using the DIANA-microT-CDS v5.0 database. This was followed by analysis using DIANA-miRPath v2.0 to perform hierarchical clustering of miRNAs and to identify pathways based on their interaction levels (Table 6). Several of these pathways were relevant to metabolic functions, including the PI3K-Akt and mTOR signaling pathways. By the time this thesis project started, the role of these miRNAs was unknown. Nevertheless, a recent literature search (at the end of this thesis project) on these miRNAs has shown that several of them have roles in hepatocellular carcinoma (miR-22¹⁰¹⁻¹⁰³, miR-378¹⁰⁴, miR-214¹⁰⁵, miR-99a¹⁰⁶, miR-195¹⁰⁷, miR-27a¹⁰⁸, miR-199a-3p¹⁰⁹, let-7g¹¹⁰, let-7c¹¹¹, miR-122¹¹², miR-181a¹¹³, miR-145¹¹⁴, miR-148a¹¹⁵, miR-221¹¹⁶, miR-125b-5p¹¹⁷, miR-590-5p¹¹⁸, miR-18a¹¹⁹, miR-93¹²⁰, miR-25¹²¹), liver regeneration (miR-23b^{122,123}), liver cirrhosis (miR-652¹²⁴, miR-181a¹¹³), liver fibrosis (miR-199a-3p¹²⁵) and insulin sensitivity (miR-103⁵⁰, miR-99a¹²⁶, miR-145¹²⁷, miR-143¹²⁸).

The results of the TaqMan Low Density Array showed that miR-709 was a highly expressed miRNA, confirming the microarray chip results (Table 3 and data not shown). However, the data indicated that miR-709 expression does not change significantly between the fasted to refed state. Thus, it is unlikely that this miRNA is needed to regulate pathways in response to insulin and/or metabolites that are generated during fasting or refeeding. Nevertheless, given that it was significantly upregulated in *db/db* animals, we questioned how miR-709 might contribute to the pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. Analysis of predicted targets using the databases miRanda and miRWalk, suggested a potential role on cell proliferation. Hepatic steatosis is a hallmark of type 2 diabetes, and is associated with inflammatory processes and increased apoptosis, which

leads to cell repair and regeneration. Thus, we hypothesized that miR-709 would play a role in this response and proceeded with identifying its targets.

Table 6. Predicted pathway regulation by miRNAs.				
Pathway/gene cluster	miRNA			
PI3K-Akt signaling pathway	let-7b, miR-199a, miR-25			
Focal adhesion	miR-25, miR-199a			
Transcriptional misregulation in cancer	let-7b, miR-199a			
Renin-Angiotensin system	miR-26a, miR-193			
ECM-receptor interaction	let-7b, miR-25			
Protein processing in endoplasmic reticulum	miR-26a, miR-125b			
Pathways in cancer	miR-103, miR-532			
Protein digestion and absorption	let-7b, miR-26a			
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM)	miR-25, miR-26a			
mTOR signaling pathway	miR-26a			
ErbB signaling pathway	miR-199a			
Hedgehog signaling pathway	miR-103			
N-Glycan Biosynthesis	miR-26a			
Ubiquitin mediated proteolysis	miR-125b			
Mucin type O-Glycan biosynthesis	miR-125b			
Arrhythmogenic right ventricular cardiomyopathy	miR-25			

B. Targets of miR-709 in murine liver

B.1. miR-709-3p is the mature strand of miRNA-709

To determine which strand of the miRNA is loaded into the RNA-induced Silencing Complex (RISC), and therefore available for knockdown of its target genes, luciferase reporter constructs were generated containing the sequence complementary to the 5' or 3' strand of miR-709 (Figure 9). Primary hepatocytes were transfected with these plasmids and miR-709 mimic or control miRNA (Cel-239b). A 22.4-fold downregulation was seen specifically for the miR-709-3p construct, compared to control constructs (Figure 12). No effect was seen in cells transfected with miRNA-805, confirming the specificity of the binding. The plasmid specific for the miR-709-3p strand was also significantly downregulated in the Hepa1c1c cell line (Figure 13).

Furthermore, primary hepatocytes transfected with a tough decoy (TuD) containing 8 copies of the sequence complementary to the 3' strand showed a significant downregulation of luciferase expression relative to cells transfected with a plasmid without the sites (psiCHECKTM-2), indicating that the 3p is used as the guide strand for the endogenous miR-709 (Figure 14). Altogether, these data indicate that the 5p strand is not used by RISC and confirms that the 3p is used as the guide strand of miR-709 in murine liver.

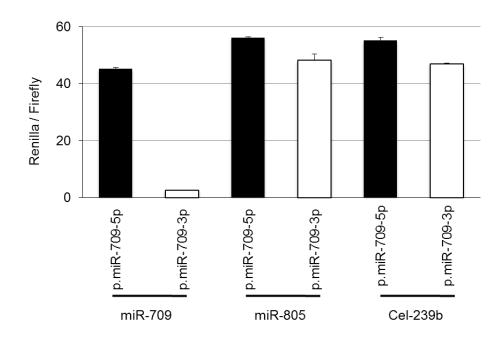


Figure 12. miR-709 strand selection in primary hepatocytes. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 4x10⁵ cells/well and transfected with 34 nM miR-709, miR-805 or Cel-239b, and 1.5 μg of plasmid p.miR-709-5p or p.miR-709-3p. Dual-luciferase assays were performed on extracts prepared 24 hours later. Renilla luciferase activity was normalized to firefly luciferase expressed from the same plasmid. Cel-239b and miR-805 serve as negative control miRNAs. The results are representative of two independent experiments. Error bars represent the standard deviation.

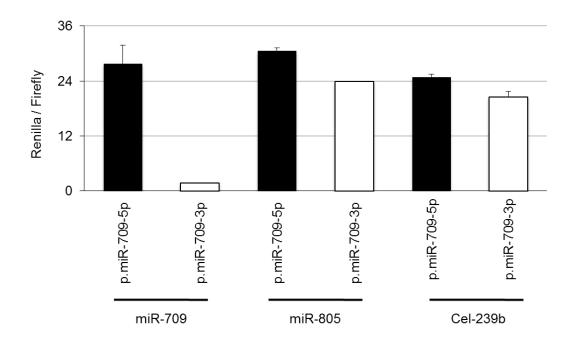
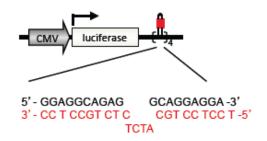


Figure 13. miR-709 strand selection in the Hepa1c1c7 cell line. Hepa1c1c7 cells were plated on 6-well plates at 1x10⁵ cells/well and transfected with miR-709, miR-805 or Cel-239b, as described in Figure 12. Dual-luciferase assays were performed on extracts prepared 24 hours later. Renilla luciferase activity was normalized to firefly luciferase expressed from the same plasmid. Cel-239b and miR-805 serve as negative control miRNAs. The results are representative of two independent experiments. Error bars represent the standard deviation.



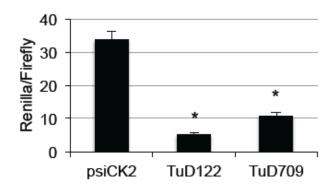


Figure 14. Strand selection of endogenous miR-709 in primary hepatocytes. Tough decoys were generated by cloning 8 copies of the sequence complementary to the 3p strand of miR-709 or the 5p strand of miR-122. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 4×10^5 cells/well and transfected with 2 µg of TuD122, TuD709 or psiCHECKTM-2 (psiCK2) using Metafectene-Pro at 1:4 ratio. Dual-luciferase assays were performed on extracts prepared 40 hours later. Renilla luciferase activity was normalized to firefly luciferase expressed from the same plasmid. TuD122 was used as positive control, and psiCHECKTM-2 as reference for luciferase expression. n = 3, with error bars representing the standard deviation. *p < 0.05 TuD vs psiCHECKTM-2. The same data was obtained from two independent experiments.

B.2. miR-709-regulated transcriptome

To identify gene targets of miR-709, mouse primary hepatocytes were transfected with miR-709 mimic or Cel-239b. Increased levels of miR-709 (3.8-fold) were confirmed by TaqMan miRNA assay in cells harvested 24 hours post-transfection (Figure 15). Gene expression profiles were then generated using murine-specific Affymetrix mRNA microarrays (n = 3-4). The short time frame (24 hours) allowed identifying direct targets of miR-709, reducing the possibility of detecting changes in mRNA levels due to secondary effects.

Close to 570 genes were seen downregulated in miR-709-treated cells, compared to Cel-239b. Hierarchical cluster of the top 100 genes was done by ANOVA, arrays Euclidean distance, genes Pearson's dissimilarity and average linkage (Figure 16). Of the 28,850 genes on the microarray, 36 genes were significantly downregulated >2-fold and 10 genes were downregulated >3-fold in the miR-709 group compared to control Cel-239b-treated cells (Table 7; p-value <0.01). The list of downregulated genes was further analyzed using bioinformatic analysis resource DAVID (Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery)^{129,130} and GENEGO Databases using pathway analysis and metabolic maps. The results of this analysis suggested a role for this miRNA at controlling cellular processes involved in lipid synthesis and transport (Ces1g, Pctp, Daglb), cytoskeleton organization (Rab11b, Dync1li1, Acta2, M6prbp1, Myo1d) and cell adhesion (Timp3, Nid1, Thbs1, Krt19).

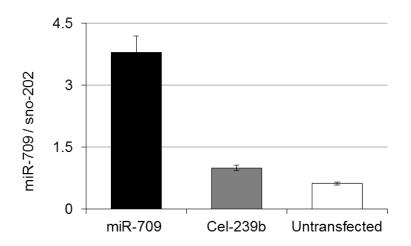


Figure 15. miR-709 quantification in primary hepatocytes transfected with mimic.

Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 5x10⁵ cells/well and transfected with 34 nM of miR-709 or Cel-239b using Metafectene-Pro at 1:6 ratio. Cells were harvested 24 hours later and mature miR-709 was quantified by TaqMan assay. A 3.8-fold increase was observed relative to Cel-239b-treated cells. snoRNA-202 was used as normalizer.

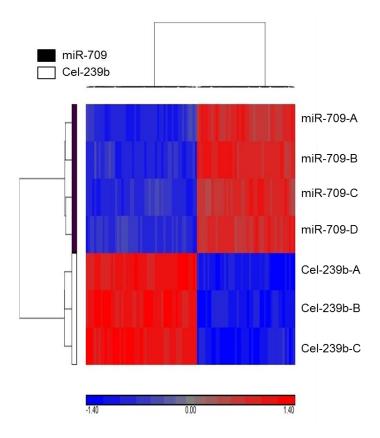


Figure 16. Hierarchical cluster of top 100 genes. Analysis was done by ANOVA arrays Euclidean distance, genes Pearson's dissimilarity, and average linkage. The top dendogram separates genes by their expression pattern. Blue indicates lower and red indicates higher signals. The dendogram on the left separates the two treatment groups – miR-709 and Cel-239b.

Table 7. Genes significantly downregulated >2-fold in miR-709-treated compared to Cel-239-treated primary hepatocytes.

Gene symbol	Gene name	Fold change	p-value
Tspan31	Tetraspanin 31	-5.27	1.8E-06
Rab11b	Ras-related protein	-4.18	6.5E-06
Cyp20a1	Cytochrome P450, Family 20, Subfamily A, Polypeptide 1	-3.76	1.2E-07
Dync1li1	dynein, cytoplasmic 1, light intermediate chain 1	-3.40	2.3E-07
Bpnt1	3'(2'), 5'-bisphosphate nucleotidase 1	-3.28	9.3E-09
Mmachc	methylmalonic aciduria (cobalamin deficiency) cblC type, with homocystinuria	-3.27	1.5E-05
Ces1	carboxylesterase 1	-3.22	1.7E-06
Timp3	Tissue Inhibitor Of Metalloproteinases 3	-3.20	4.6E-05
Pctp	phosphatidylcholine transfer protein	-3.19	6.2E-07
Nid1	nidogen 1	-3.03	2.7E-06
Slc35e1	solute carrier family 35, member E1	-2.95	3.7E-09
Mare	alpha globin regulatory element containing gene	-2.75	7.0E-08
D13Wsu177e	DNA segment, Chr 13, Wayne State University 177, expre -2.71 1.		1.7E-08
Thbs1	thrombospondin 1	-2.67	2.1E-06
Lrrc58	leucine rich repeat containing 58	-2.53	6.2E-07
Acta2	actin, alpha 2, smooth muscle, aorta	-2.52	1.4E-05
M6prbp1	protein I		1.7E-06
Atrn	attractin	-2.46	4.7E-06
Mpzl2	myelin protein zero-like 2	-2.41	4.1E-06
Tagln	transgelin	-2.36	6.6E-06
Cnn1	calponin 1	-2.36	4.0E-05
Krt19	keratin 19	-2.35	2.9E-03
Myo1d	myosin ID	-2.31	1.5E-07
Cyb5d2	cytochrome b5 domain containing 2	-2.29	1.1E-06
Actc1	actin, alpha, cardiac muscle 1	-2.29	1.3E-05
Pfas	phosphoribosylformylglycinamidine synthase	-2.27	1.1E-08
Ggcx	gamma-glutamyl carboxylase	-2.20	7.5E-05
Ccnyl1	cyclin Y-like 1	-2.17	1.0E-05
Amt	aminomethyltransferase	-2.16	2.0E-04
BC057893	cDNA sequence BC057893	-2.12	3.3E-06
Gpr155	G protein-coupled receptor 155	-2.05	1.7E-04
Daglb	diacylglycerol lipase, beta	-2.05	2.7E-06
Sema6a	sema domain, transmembrane domain	-2.04	9.4E-05

	(TM), and cytoplasmic		
Fnip2	folliculin interacting protein 2	-2.01	3.9E-04
Slc7a1	solute carrier family 7 (cationic amino acid transporter	-2.01	1.6E-06
Mobkl2a	MOB1, Mps One Binder kinase activator- like 2A (yeast)	-2.00	2.3E-05

To validate the microarray results, CD36, Acox2, Gck, Pfkl, Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp were analyzed by quantitative real time PCR. Identical trends to those observed in the microarray analysis were observed (Figure 17). Interestingly, Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g showed more than 5-fold downregulation upon validation, which was greater than what was observed in the microarray analysis. The decrease in gene expression was maintained for at least 4 days (Figure 18). Changes were confirmed at protein level for several genes, including Rab11b, Dync1li1 and Timp3 (Figure 19). The low-density lipoprotein receptor (Ldlr) was 1.2-fold downregulated in the microarray (p=0.004), but remained unaltered at protein level, suggesting that small changes in mRNA levels had no impact at protein level (Figure 19). Remarkably, levels of Rab11b, Dync1li1 and Timp3 were lower in primary hepatocytes within 48 hours of transfection with miR-709 (Figure 19). miR-709 induced a 90% decrease in Rab11b protein levels and a 70% decrease in Dync1li1 protein expression. Consistent with these data, Rab11b protein levels were also significantly reduced in Hepa1c1c cells transfected with miR-709 mimics (Figure 20).

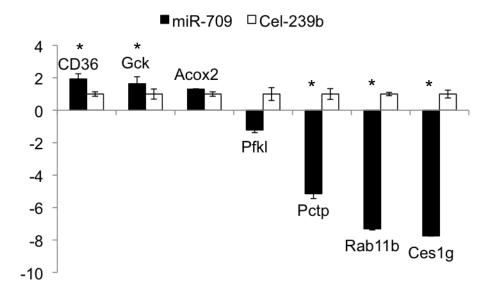


Figure 17. Real time RT-PCR analysis of miR-709 targets. Cluster of Differentiation 36 (CD36), Acyl-CoA oxidase 2 (Acox2), Ras-related protein (Rab11b), phosphofructokinase, liver (Pfkl), phosphatidylcholine transfer protein (Pctp), glucokinase (Gck) and carboxylesterase 1g (Ces1g) were analyzed by qPCR. Mouse primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 1×10^6 cells/well and transfected with 34 nM miR-709 or Cel-239b using Metafectene-Pro at 1:6 ratio. Cells were harvested 24 hours later (n = 4; error bars represent the standard deviation). TATA Binding protein (*Tbp*) was used as normalizer gene. *p<0.05 relative to Cel-239b-treated. The fold-change for each gene relative to Cel-239b-treated is plotted.

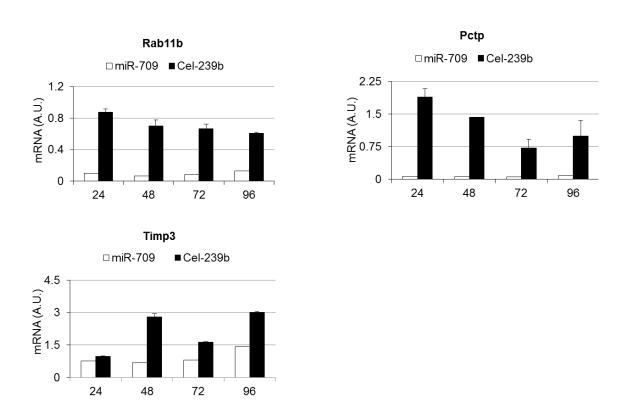


Figure 18. Prolonged downregulation of miR-709 targets over time. Real time RT-PCR analysis of Ras-related protein (Rab11b), phosphatidylcholine transfer protein (Pctp) and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases 3 (Timp3). Mouse primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 4×10^5 cells/well and transfected with 34 nM miR-709 or Cel-239b using Metafectene-Pro at 1:6 ratio. Cells were harvested at 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours post-transfection (error bars represent standard deviation). TATA binding protein (*Tbp*) was used as normalizer gene. The mRNA expression for each gene is plotted.

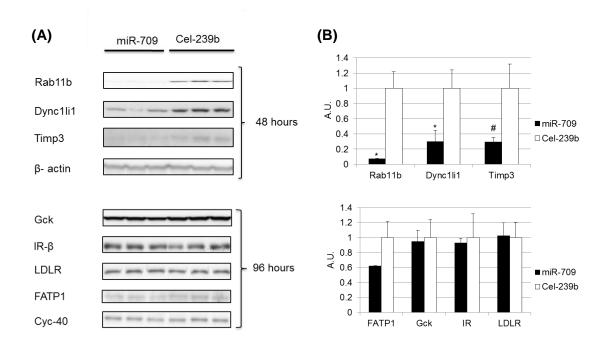


Figure 19. miR-709 on Rab11b, Timp3 and Dync1li1 protein levels. (A) Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 4x10⁵ cells/well and transfected with miR-709 or Cel-239b using Metafectene Pro. Media was replaced 24 hours post-transfection and cells were harvested 48 hours or 96 hours later. Rab11b, Dync1li1, Timp3, Ldlr, IR-β, Fatp1 and Gck protein expression was analyzed by Western blot. Cyclophillin-40 and β-actin are normalizers. Data are representative of at least 3 independent experiments with at least 4 replicates for each group. (B) Bands on blot were quantified by densitometry and results were normalized to □-actin or cyclophilin-40. *p<0.01 relative to Cel-239b, #p<0.06 relative to Cel-239b.

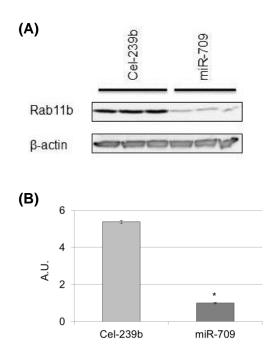


Figure 20. miR-709 decreases Rab11b in Hepa1c1c cells. Hepa1c1c cells were plated on 6-well plates at $4x10^5$ cells/well and transfected with 34 nM of miR-709 or Cel-239b. Media was replaced 24 hours post-transfection and cells were harvested 72 hours later. Rab11b protein expression was analyzed by Western blot. β -actin acts as normalizer. Data are representative of 3 replicates for each group. (B) Bands on blot were quantified by densitometry and results were normalized to \square -actin. *p<0.01 relative to Cel-239b.

B.3. Ces1g, Rab11b and Pctp are direct targets of miR-709

miRNAs act on their target genes mostly by binding to the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of their mRNAs. We have shown that miR-709 downregulates Rab11b, Pctp, and Ces1g. To confirm that these are direct gene targets, we used the miRanda database to identify predicted binding sites for miR-709 on the 3' UTR of these genes. Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g had 3, 2 and 1 predicted binding sites, respectively. Using PCR, we amplified the 3' UTR of Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp containing at least one of the miR-709 binding sites (Figure 21), and cloned them in plasmid psiCHECKTM-2 (Figure 9). As negative control for each gene, a fragment of the 3' UTR without miR-709 binding sites was amplified and cloned in psiCHECKTM-2. Primary hepatocytes were transfected with these constructs together with miR-709 mimic or Cel-239b, and harvested 24 hours later. Lower levels of Renilla luciferase were observed in the constructs containing binding sites for miR-709 (p.Rab11b, p.Pctp and p.Ces1g), compared to constructs that had a fragment of the 3' UTR without the miR-709 target sequence (p.NC-Rab11b, p.NC-Pctp and p.NC-Ces1g) (Figure 22). These data confirm that Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g are direct targets of miR-709.

Pctp

```
Fwd Primer miR-709 binding site NC Fwd Primer ....GCCCACATCTGGATTTTCCCTTCCCATCCACTGAGAAATAGCTGCCTCTACCT...AAGCCTCAGGCTTCAAAGATGGCTTGCGCA...
NC Rev Primer miR-709 binding site Rev Primer ...TAGACCAGGTTAGCCTCGAACTCAGAAATCCACCTGCCTCTCGCGTGCTGGGATTAAAGGCGTGTACCACCACTG...
```

Ces1g

NC Fwd Primer Fwd Primer NC Rev Primer
...GCTCAGAGCCAAGGAAACAGCAGAGGGT...AAAATCAATCGTCTGACACCAGTGGGACA ...CCTGTGTAGTCCTGGCTTTCCTGGAACT...
miR-709 binding site Rev Primer
...AGACCCACCTGCCTCTGCCTCCCAAGTT...TGACATCACAAATACATTCCCTTAGAAATCAAACCAGAGTCTCTG...

Rab11b

Fwd Primer miR-709 binding site NC Fwd Primer
...GAGACAGGGTTTCTCTGTGTAGCCCT...AAATCCACCTGCCTCTCCCAA...GGCCCAGGAAGAGCAGGAGTCCAGTGG...
NC Rev Primer miR-709 binding site Rev Primer
...GGCCCTGTATCCTCATCCCAAACTCTCTCT...GGTGGACATTCTGGGCTCTGCCTCTGCC...GGGAGAAGACACCCTTGCCCTCTCC...

Figure 21. miR-709 putative binding sites in the 3' UTR of Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp.

The primers (shown in green) were designed such that they flanked the putative miR-709 binding site (shown in red) for each gene. The 3' UTR fragment used as negative control (NC) was amplified using primers that bind outside of the miR-709 binding sites (shown in blue). The size of the 3' UTR amplified by PCR for Rab11b, NC-Rab11b, Ces1g, NC-Ces1g, PCTP and NC-PCTP are 712, 261, 253, 236, 365 and 237 bp respectively.

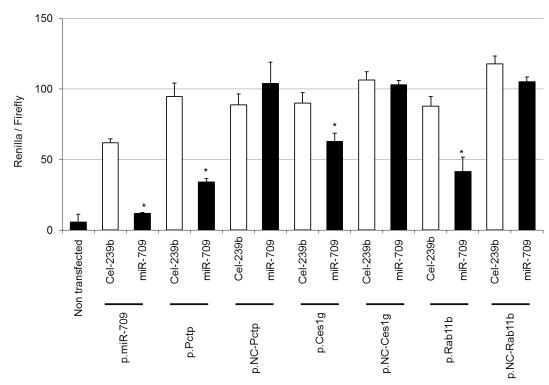


Figure 22. Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g are direct targets of miR-709. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at 4×10^5 cells/well and transfected with 34 nM miR-709 or Cel-239b, and 1.5 µg of plasmids containing the 3' UTR of Rab11b, Pctp and Ces1g. Twenty-four hours later, dual-luciferase assays were performed. Renilla luciferase activity was normalized to firefly luciferase expressed from the same plasmid (n=3). Error bars represent the standard deviation. The experiment was performed in two independent experiments with identical results. p-values (*p < 0.01) are relative to cells treated with the same plasmid using Cel-239b miRNA. p.miR-709, plasmid containing the sequence perfectly complementary to miR-709-3p strand; p.Pctp, p.Ces1g and p.Rab11b, plasmids containing a fragment of the 3' UTR with miR-709 binding sites; p.NC-Pctp, p.NC-Ces1g and p.NC-Rab11b, plasmids with a fragment of the 3' UTR without miR-709 binding sites.

B.4. Database gene predictions

Multiple databases are available to identify predicted targets of miRNA. To determine the accuracy of these predictions, we compared the list of the genes downregulated at least 2-fold, with target predictions from seven databases, including miRanda⁷⁴, miRDB^{79,80}, miRWalk⁸¹, TargetScan⁸², DIANAmT^{83,84}, miRBase⁸⁵⁻⁹¹, PICTAR5⁹² and RNA22⁹³ (Table 8). The predictions were based on presence of the miR-709 putative binding site in the 3' UTR of the mRNAs. This analysis revealed that miRanda, miRWalk, DIANAmT and PICTAR5 are the best database predictors of miRNA targets, with 60-70% of gene predictions, while miRDB, TargetScan and RNA22 predicted less than 22% of the genes that were found downregulated. Only one gene was predicted by all databases (Myo1d) (Table 8) and 22% of genes were not predicted by any of them.

miR-709 is not a conserved miRNA, and the human ortholog is hsa-miR-1827, which shares the same seed sequence (UGAGGCAGUAGAUUGAAU). Analysis of predicted hsa-miR-1827 targets using the miRWalk database, indicates that similar genes and pathways are regulated by both miRNA (Table 9). Overall, approximately 61% of miR-709 target genes are also predicted targets of miR-1827. Given that the miRWalk database only predicted 69% of the actual miR-709 targets, it is likely that the number of commonly targeted genes is higher.

Table 8. Predicted versus observed miR-709 target genes.

		Database						
Gene	\mathbf{FL}	mR	mD	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{W}$	TS	DT	PT5	R22
Tspan31	-5.3	*	*	*		*	*	
Rab11b	-4.2	*	*	*		*	*	
Cyp20a1	-3.8							
Dync1li1	-3.4	*		*		*	*	*
Bpnt1	-3.3	*		*		*	*	
Mmache	-3.3							
Ces1	-3.2	*		*		*	*	
Timp3	-3.2	*		*	*	*	*	
Pctp	-3.2	*		*	*	*	*	
Nid1	-3.0					*	*	
Slc35e1	-3.0	*	*	*		*	*	
Mare	-2.8	*		*		*	*	*
D13Wsu177e	-2.7	*		*		*	*	
Thbs1	-2.7	*	*	*		*	*	
Lrrc58	-2.5	*		*		*	*	
Acta2	-2.5	*		*	*			*
M6prbp1	-2.5	*		*		*	*	
Atrn	-2.5	*	*	*	*	*	*	
Mpzl2	-2.4	*		*		*	*	
Tagln	-2.4	*	*		*	*	*	
Cnn1	-2.4						*	
Krt19	-2.4							
Myo1d	-2.3	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Cyb5d2	-2.3							
Actc1	-2.3							*
Pfas	-2.3							
Ggcx	-2.2	*		*		*	*	*
Cenyl1	-2.2							
Amt	-2.2							
BC057893	-2.1	*		*		*	*	
Gpr155	-2.1	*				*		
Daglb	-2.1	*		*		*	*	
Sema6a	-2.1	*			*		*	
Fnip2	-2.0							
Slc7a1	-2.0	*		*	*	*	*	
Mobkl2a	-2.0	*		*		*	*	
TOTAL PREDICTED:		25	7	22	8	24	25	6
(%):		(69)	(20)	(61)	(20)	(67)	(69)	(17)
TOTAL UNPREDICTED:		11	29	14	28	12	11	30
(%):		(31)	(80)	(39)	(80)	(33)	(31)	(83)

FL, fold-level; mR, miRanda; mD, miRDB; mW, miRWalk; TS, Targetscan; DT, DIANAmT; PT5, PICTAR5; R22, RNA22; * predicted.

mmu-miR-709 target genes and hsa-miR-1827 predicted targets.		
miR-1827		
TSPAN32		
RAB11FIP5		
CYP19A1		
DYNLL2		
BPNT1		
MMACHC		
TIMP4		
STARD3		
SLC35C1, SLC35E4		
NPR3		
THBS1		
LRRC58		
TAGLN		
CNN3		
Many KRT proteins		
Many MYO proteins		
CYB561D2		
PFAS		
Many GPR proteins		
SEMA6A		
FNIP1		
SLC7A60S		

C. Biological role of miR-709 in liver

C.1. miR-709 gene targets do not regulate hepatocyte polarity

A coordinated role between Rab11 and Dync1li1 in membrane trafficking has been described in A431 cells, a human epidermal carcinoma cell line¹³¹. However, the role of these proteins in hepatic function is unknown. The Rab family of proteins is a group of small GTPases that regulate various facets of endosomal trafficking 16,132. Rab proteins participate in vesicle formation, trafficking and fusion and are often associated with cytoskeletal motor proteins 133. Rab11b is one of the widely studied members of the Rab11 family and is ubiquitously expressed¹³³. It localizes to apical vesicles separated from the Rab11a compartment in MDCK and gastric parietal cells ^{132,134,135}. Rab11b plays a critical role in apical recycling of epithelial sodium channel (ENaC) in mpkCCD cells¹³³ and has been shown to interact with its effector protein Rip11 in insulin granule exocytosis 136. Cytoskeletal motor proteins are accountable for the trafficking of endocytosed material between the surface of the cell and intracellular compartments ¹³⁷. Dynein cytoplasmic light chain 1 (Dync1li1) is a component of the Dynein-1 complex, a minus-end-directed microtubule-based motor protein 131,138-142. Rab11 along with its effector protein FIP3 acts together with Dync1li1 and guides membrane trafficking from peripheral sorting endosomes to the endosomal recycling compartment (ERC)¹³¹. Given that Rab11b and Dync1li1 were among the top downregulated genes, we hypothesized whether a role of miR-709 is to regulate hepatocyte polarization and trafficking.

To study if miR-709 affected the capacity of primary hepatocytes to maintain polarity and form bile caniculi, a sandwich cell culture model was established to enable

adjacent hepatocytes to form bile canaliculi and mimic the 3D arrangement of the murine liver (Figure 4). Primary hepatocytes were cultured on collagen-I coated glass coverslip bottom 6-cm dishes, and the next day, cells were washed and overlaid with MatrigelTM (see Methods: Primary hepatocyte isolation)⁷⁷. Bile canaliculi were apparent 24 hours later and maintained for several days (Figure 23). Unlike primary hepatocytes cultured in a conventional monolayer, which lose hepatocyte-specific functions as the result of dedifferentiation, the sandwich model enables hepatocytes to form intact bile canaliculi closed by tight junctions, retaining their function for several weeks^{12,143}. Cells cultured under these conditions secrete albumin, urea, transferring, fibrinogen, and bile acids¹⁴⁴. Next, we tested the capacity of these bile canaliculi to transport sodium fluorescein, a substrate for Multidrug resistance-associated protein 2 (Mrp2), a protein found on the membrane of the bile canaliculi. Within 30 minutes, sodium fluorescein dissappeared from the cytoplasm of cells and became visible in the bile canaliculi (Figure 24).

To study if the alterations in gene expression affected the capacity of the hepatocytes to maintain polarity and form bile canaliculi, primary hepatocytes were transfected with miR-709 or Cel-239b, 4 hours after plating. The next day, cells were covered with MatrigelTM to allow contact between adjacent cells. miR-709 and Cel-239b transfected cells could form bile canaliculi between cells within 24 hours that were maintained for at least 4 days, without a noticeable difference between the two groups. Furthermore, uptake and transport of sodium fluorescein into the bile canaliculi was similar for both miR-709 and Cel-239b-treated hepatocytes (Figure 25). These data indicate that miR-709 does not influence the establishment and maintenance of

hepatocyte polarity, the formation of bile canaliculi, and the intracellular transport of Mrp2 substrates. Given that Rab11b was one of the highest downregulated genes, and its function in liver is unknown, we tested whether knocking it down with siRNA would lead to abnormal transport of sodium fluorescein. Similar results were obtained in sandwich cultures of primary hepatocytes transfected with a combination of two siRNAs against Rab11b (siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2), or control siRNA (siNC) (Figure 26 and Figure 27). Therefore, we concluded that Rab11b was not essential for the ability of primary hepatocytes to be polarized nor did it alter the apical transport of an Mrp2 substrate.



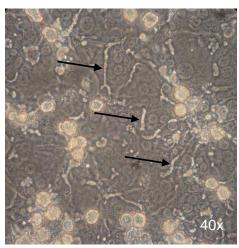


Figure 23. Formation of bile canaliculi between primary hepatocytes cultured in a sandwich configuration. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen-coated dishes at $6x10^5$ cells/well. The following day, MatrigelTM was added on top of the cells. Images were acquired with a Nikon TE 2000 U inverted microscope 96 hours post-addition of MatrigelTM. Images were acquired with a 20x or 40x Air EL WD Plan Fluor 0.60NA Differential interference contrast objective (Melville, NY) and a Sony DSCW170 16.1 MP digital camera. Arrows point at bile canaliculi.

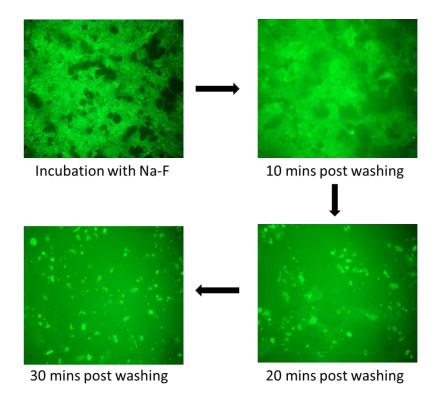


Figure 24. Uptake and secretion of sodium fluorescein. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen-coated dishes at $6x10^5$ cells/well. MatrigelTM was added to cells the following day. Cells were assayed for sodium fluorescein transport 96 hours post MatrigelTM overlay. Na-F, sodium fluorescein.

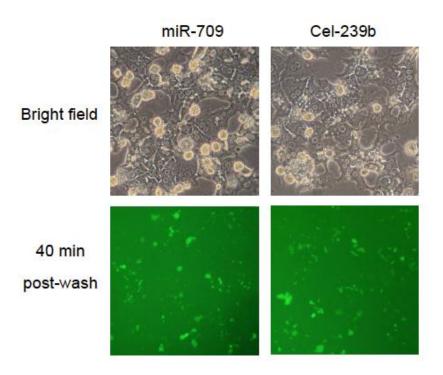


Figure 25. Sodium fluorescein transport in primary hepatocytes transfected with miR-709 or Cel-239b. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen coated dishes at $6x10^5$ cells/well and transfected with 34 nM miR-709 or Cel-239b. MatrigelTM was added to cells the following day. Cells were assayed for sodium fluorescein transport 72 hours post-transfection.

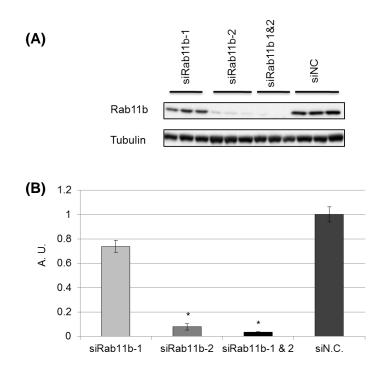


Figure 26. Rab11b silencing in mouse primary hepatocytes. (**A**) Primary hepatocytes were plated on 6-well plates at $6x10^5$ cells/well and transfected with 30 nM of siRNAs to knockdown Rab11b (siRab11b-1, siRab11b-2) or negative control siRNA (siNC) or a 1:1 complex of both siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2. Media was replaced 24 hours post-transfection and cells were harvested 24 hours later. Rab11b was quantified by Western blot. Tubulin was used as normalizer (n=3). (**B**) Densitometry analysis of Western blot; Rab11b expression was normalized to tubulin. * p-value <0.001.

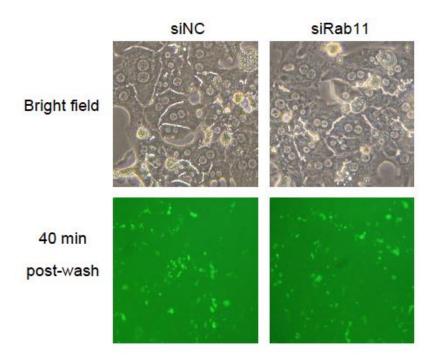


Figure 27. Sodium fluorescein transport in primary hepatocytes treated with siRab11b. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen-coated dishes at $6x10^5$ cells/well and transfected with 30 nM of a combination of siRab11b-1 and siRab11b-2 (1:1 ratio) or negative control siRNA (siNC). MatrigelTM was added to cells the following day. Cells were assayed for sodium fluorescein transport 72 hours post-transfection.

C.2. Intracellular localization of miR-709

Recently, miR-709 has been shown to regulate the processing of a miRNA cluster in the nucleus of fibroblast cells¹⁴⁵. miR-709 binds to a miR-709 binding element in the primary transcript of miR-15a/16-1 and prevents further processing into precursor or premiR-15a/16-1¹⁴⁵. The same group reported that miR-709 was mostly localized in the nucleus¹⁴⁵. In fibroblasts, apoptosis-inducing stimuli such as serum starvation, elicited miR-709 translocation to the cytoplasm, without altering the total levels of the miRNA in the cell¹⁴⁵. This change in localization resulted in loss of inhibition of miR-15a/16-1 processing and led to downregulation of a well-characterized miR-15a/16-1 target, B-cell lymphoma 2 (Bcl-2)¹⁴⁵. Bcl-2 is an anti-apoptotic gene that prevents cell death by blocking activation of caspases, downstream activators of apoptosis¹⁴⁶. The authors concluded that miR-709 was sensitive to apoptotic stimuli and it indirectly affected apoptosis through regulation of Bcl-2 levels¹⁴⁵.

To study the cellular localization of miR-709, primary hepatocytes were cotransfected with a 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709 or Dy547-labeled miRIDIAN miRNA Mimic Transfection Control (Thermo Fisher, CO). This control miRNA is cytoplasmic, like the majority of mature miRNAs. Both, miR-709 and the control miRNA were found localized only in the cytoplasm of primary hepatocytes (Figure 28). To determine whether the intracellular localization of miR-709 depends on cell division, Hepa1c1c cells were co-transfected with the two miRNA. Similar to what was observed in primary hepatocytes, both miRNAs were located in the cytoplasm of Hepa1c1c cells (Figure 29). Next, we tested if serum and glucose starvation would have an impact on the cellular

distribution of miR-709. For this, Hepa1c1c cells transfected with 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709 and Dy547-labeled miRIDIAN microRNA Mimic Transfection Control were subjected to serum and glucose starvation and observed 24 hours later. Both miRNAs were seen only in the cytoplasm, co-localizing in the same area (Figure 29). Single transfection of 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709 gave the same result, discarding the possibility that the control miRNA infuences the localization of miR-709 (Figure 30). Thus, in normal liver cells and in hepatoma cells, mature miR-709 is only localized in the cytoplasm of the cells. Also, cellular stress such as starvation did not result in change in localization of miR-709 in hepatoma cells.

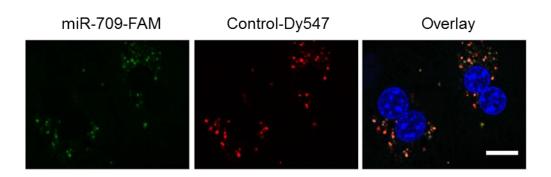


Figure 28. Intracellular localization of miR-709 in primary hepatocytes. Primary hepatocytes were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen-coated dishes at 6x10⁵ cells/well and co-transfected with 17 nM of 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709 and 17 nM of Dy547-labeled miRIDIAN microRNA Mimic Transfection Control. Next day, media was replaced and cells were imaged using confocal fluorescence microscopy. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342. Scale bar, 15 μm.

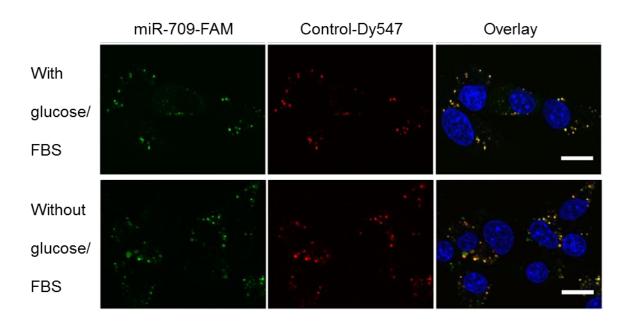


Figure 29. Intracellular localization of miR-709 in Hepa1c1c cells. Hepa1c1c cells were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen coated dishes at 4x10⁵ cells/well and cotransfected with 17 nM of 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709 and 17 nM of Dy547-labeled miRIDIAN microRNA Mimic Transfection Control. Next day, media was replaced with medium with/without glucose and FBS. Twenty-four hours later, cells were imaged using confocal fluorescence microscopy. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342. Scale bar, 15 μm.

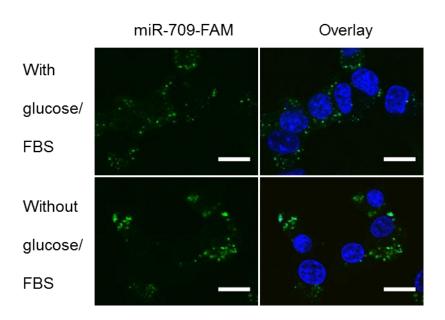


Figure 30. Cytoplasmic miRNA localization in Hepa1c1c cells transfected with miRNA-709. Hepa1c1c cells were plated on 35-mm glass bottom collagen coated dishes at 4x10⁵ cells/well and transfected with 34 nM 3'-FAM-labeled miR-709. Next day, media was replaced with medium with/without glucose and FBS. Twenty-four hours later, cells were imaged using confocal fluorescence microscopy. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342. Scale bar, 15 μm

C.3. Pre-miR-709 accumulates in liver

To further gain an insight on the relative abundance of precursor and mature form of miR-709, levels were analyzed by Northern blot. Remarkably, in normal liver, the precursor miR-709 was present at high levels, while the mature form was scarce, contrary to what is typically seen for most miRNAs¹⁴⁷, including miR-122 (Figure 31 and Figure 32). This suggested the possibility that pre-miR-709 is the major form of miR-709, and only in the presence of appropriate signals, it is transported to the cytoplasm for Dicer processing and production of the mature form. Consistently with these data, when HEK293 and Hepa1c1c cells were transfected with plasmids expressing miR-709 primary transcript (p.pri-miR-709), there was no increase in levels of mature miR-709 (Figure 33). This suggests that the majority of primary transcript expressed is not processed to mature miR-709.

Given the nature of the gene targets of miR-709 (*Tspan31*, *Rab11*, *Thbs1*, *Timp3*, *Tagln*, *Cnn1*, *Krt19*), we questioned whether this miRNA might be needed in liver cells actively dividing. Thus, we tested the relative abundance of pre-miR-709 and mature miR-709 in a mouse model of hepatocellular carcinoma, and in a model of liver regeneration after partial hepatectomy ¹⁴⁸. Cell proliferation, mitosis and expression of cell cycle proteins in the model of partial hepatectomy peaks at 36 and 44 hrs ¹⁴⁸. Hence, these timepoints were used for this study. Remarkably, we found that the levels of mature miR-709 were significantly increased in liver tumor and regenerating livers (Figures 31 and 34). Taqman real-time PCR was used to confirm the increase in levels of mature miR-709 (Figure 35).

Several lines of evidence suggest that the half-life of a miRNA can be regulated at the biosynthesis as well as decay level. Some miRNA are inherently unstable and have short half-lives¹⁴⁹. In others, the stage of the cell cycle as well as the presence of growth factors, influences miRNA stability without affecting transcription of the primary transcript¹⁵⁰. MiR-709 is localized in intron 8 of the *Rfx1* gene, which encodes for a transcription factor with a function not well characterized in liver. Rfx1 inhibits c-Myc and Proliferating Cell Nuclear Antigen (PCNA), both critical genes for cell proliferation¹⁵¹⁻¹⁵³. To determine whether the increase of miR-709 is the result of increased expression of Rfx1, its mRNA was analyzed by qPCR. Levels of Rfx-1 were found 5.2-fold upregulated in tumor samples (Figure 35), indicating that the increased levels of mature miR-709 are likely the result of increased transcription of the host gene.

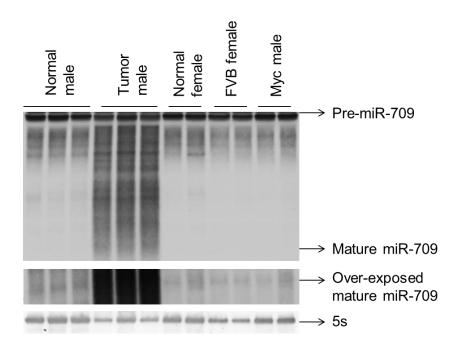


Figure 31. Relative abundance of miR-709 in an animal model of hepatocellular carcinoma. Northern blot analysis using 4 μg of small RNA fraction. A DIG-labeled miR-709 LNA probe was used for detection of miR-709. LapMyc male (tumor and adjacent normal tissue; n=5), LapMyc female (n=2), FVB female and Myc male mouse liver RNA was used to probe for miR-709 by Northern blotting. The ribosomal RNA 5s was used as loading control. The LapMyc mice are bi-transgenic. c-Myc oncogene expression is conditionally regulated via Tet-Off system. The tetracycline-transactivator (tTA) protein is driven by the liver-specific promoter, Liver Activator Protein (LAP), and the *c-Myc* gene (in the Y chromosome) has a tetracycline response element. In the absence of doxycycline, tTA can bind to the response element and cause c-Myc expression in male mice. This causes the male mouse livers to develop spontaneous tumors. c-Myc expression was induced at 4 weeks of age and animals were sacrificed at 14 weeks of age. LapMyc females are control mice that received doxycycline (and did

not express c-Myc). FVB are wild type female mice. Myc male mice are parents of LapMyc mice. LapMyc female, FVB and Myc mice are negative controls.

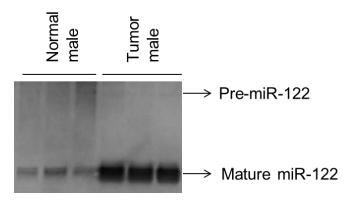


Figure 32. Relative abundance of miR-122 in an animal model of hepatocellular carcinoma. Northern blot analysis using 4 μg of the small RNA fraction. An oligonucleotide probe was used for detection of miR-122. LapMyc male mouse liver (tumor and adjacent normal tissue; n=5) RNA was used to probe for miR-122. The ribosomal RNA 5s was used as loading control. For miR-122, the mature form is more abundant than the pre-miR-122 in normal liver.

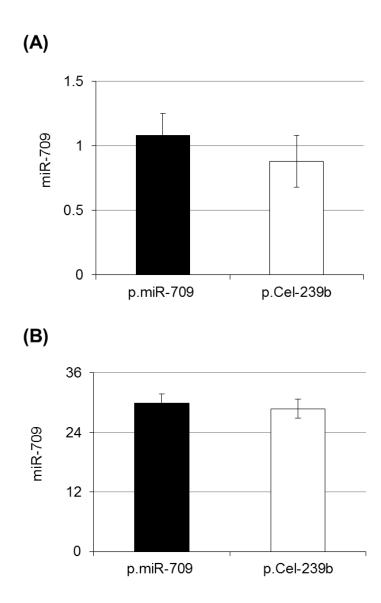


Figure 33. Levels of mature miR-709 in HEK293 and Hepa1c1c cells upon transfection with plasmids expressing pri-miR-709 or pri-Cel-239b. HEK293 (A) or Hepa1c1c (B) cells were transfected with 2 μ g of p.pri-miR-709 or p.pri-Cel-239b and harvested 24 later. Mature miR-709 was quantified by TaqMan assay (n = 3).

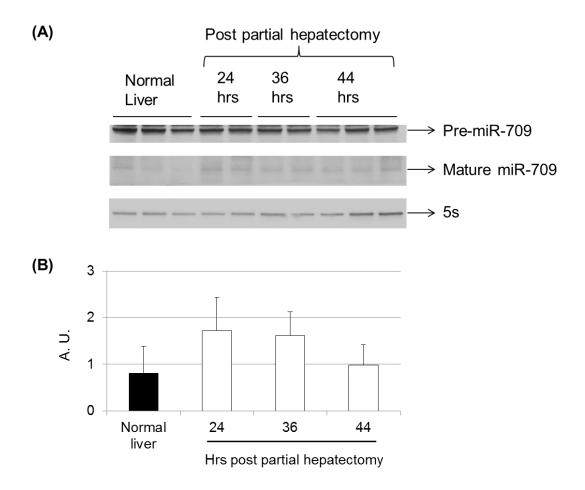


Figure 34. Relative abundance of miR-709 in an animal model of liver regeneration.

(A) Livers from normal animals and mice that underwent partial hepatectomy (24, 36 and 44 hours post-hepatectomy) were used to probe for miR-709 by Northern blotting using an LNA probe. The ribosomal RNA 5s was used as loading control. (B) miR-709 bands on blot were quantified by densitometry and results were normalized to 5s.

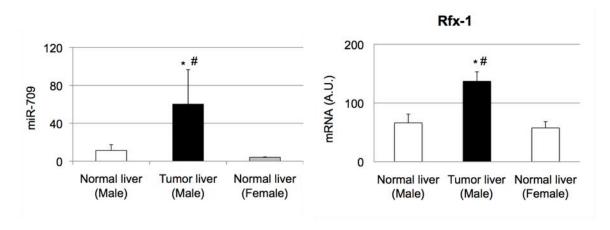


Figure 35. qPCR analysis of miR-709 and Rfx1 in an animal model of hepatocellular carcinoma. LapMyc male (tumor and adjacent normal; n=5) and LapMyc female mouse (n=2) livers (see legend of Figure 31 for details on genotype) were used to quantify mature miR-709 by TaqMan assay (left). Rfx-1 mRNA was analyzed on the same samples by qRT-PCR. *p<0.01 relative to normal male liver; #p<0.01 relative to normal female liver.

C.4. miR-709 inhibition elicits cell death

Overall, the results suggested a role for miR-709 in cell proliferation. We questioned what would be the impact of inhibiting miR-709 function in quiescent versus actively dividing cells. The use of oligonucleotides complementary to the mature miRNA sequence (antagomiR or anti-miRs) has been a useful tool to downregulate miRNA activity and perform functional analysis. Thus, primary hepatocytes and Hepa1c1c cells were transfected with miR-709 inhibitors.

Primary hepatocytes were transfected with 10, 17 and 25 nM miRIDIAN miR-709 hairpin inhibitor or a control miRNA Cel-239b (Dharmacon). Neither antagomiR was toxic to cells, based on microscopic observation. Cells were harvested 24 hours later, and total RNA was isolated for analysis of miR-709 targets. Interestingly, levels of Rab11b and Ces1g barely increased even at the 25 nM dose (Figure 36). To confirm the data, a second anti-miR-709 from a different company (Ambion) was tested. Cells were transfected with 10 or 34 nM antagomiR, and RNA was isolated from cells 24 hours post-transfection. Levels of miR-709 and snoRNA-202 (normalizer miRNA) were quantified using TaqMan assays. Surprisingly, the mirVana miRNA inhibitor against miR-709 induced higher levels of miR-709 at a dose that was not toxic in cells that received the equivalent amount of Cel-239b (Figure 36). Levels of targets followed a similar pattern to those observed with the miRIDIAN inhibitor (data not shown). These data suggest that miR-709 has an important role in normal hepatocyte function and it cannot be downregulated.

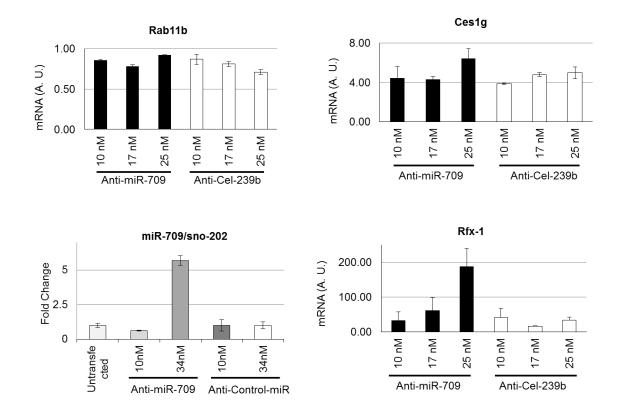


Figure 36. miR-709, Rab11b, Ces1g and Rfx-1 expression in primary hepatocytes transfected with anti-miR-709. Primary hepatocytes were transfected with 10, 17 or 25 nM of miRIDIAN miRNA inhibitor against miR-709 or control inhibitor, and harvested 24 hours post-transfection (n=2; error bars represent standard deviation). Real time RT-PCR analysis of Rab11b, Ces1g and Rfx-1. Cyclophillin A was used as normalizer gene. Primary hepatocytes were transfected with 10 or 34 nM of mirVana miRNA inhibitor against miR-709 or control inhibitor, and harvested 24 hours later. Mature miR-709 was quantified by TaqMan miRNA assay. Small nucleolar RNA 202 (snoRNA-202) was used as normalizer.

We then analyzed the impact of inhibiting miR-709 in actively dividing cells. Hepa1c1c cells were transfected with amounts of antagomiR that were not toxic: 25 and

50 nM. Cell viability was then tested over time using an LDH assay. Inhibition of miR-709 in hepatoma cells resulted in reduced viable cells at 50 nM concentration 72 hours post-transfection (Figure 37). As shown for quiescent cells, these data suggest that miR-709 cannot be downregulated in actively dividing cells.

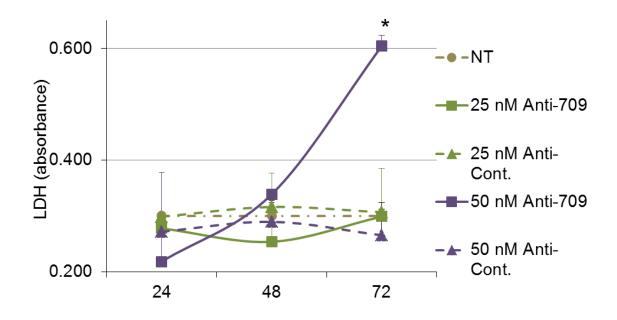


Figure 37. Cell viability assay in Hepa1c1c cells transfected with miR-709 inhibitor.

Hepa1c1c cells were transfected with 25 or 50 nM of mirVana miRNA inhibitor against miR-709 or control inhibitor, and media was replaced 24 hours post-transfection. One-hundred μl of media was collected 24, 48 and 72 hours post-transfection for LDH analysis. (n=3; error bars represent standard deviation). NT, not transfected.

C.5. Mature levels of miR-709 do not increase in db/db livers

We have shown that miR-709 is upregulated in an animal model of type 2 diabetes (Figure 11). To validate the microarray data and determine whether the increase in miR-709 is the mature form, Taqman assays were performed using total RNA. Figure 38 shows that no difference was observed between *db/db* and normal mice, indicating that the increase in miR-709 detected in the chip array is likely to be precursor.

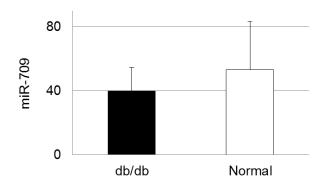


Figure 38. Levels of mature miR-709 in livers of *db/db* **mice.** Normal and *db/db* livers were used to quantify mature miR-709 by TaqMan assay (n=4).

DISCUSSION

miRNAs play an important role in various cellular processes such as metabolism, development and apoptosis¹⁵⁴. miRNAs are variably expressed across different tissues¹⁵⁵, and the presence of abnormal profiles has been associated with various human disorders¹⁵⁴. Despite emerging evidence of the role of miRNAs at regulating tissue function, there is a scarcity of information on their role at controlling the complex processes that take place in the liver. Therefore, we sought to identify miRNAs expressed in this tissue. By miRNA profiling between normal and db/db mice, we found that miR-709 was upregulated in livers of diabetic mice. This has been recently confirmed in another study, in which many miRNAs were found dysregulated in type 2 diabetes 156. We also observed that miR-709 was one of the most abundant miRNAs in murine liver, and recent studies have also showed high abundance of miR-709 in this tissue 97,145,157. However, the increase of miR-709 in db/db mice livers could not be validated by Tagman PCR assay. This suggests that the increased miR-709 levels detected in db/db mice could potentially be pre-miR-709, given that the chip assay detects both, precursor and mature form, while the Tagman assay detects only mature miR-709. We have shown that the levels of miR-709 precursor are highly abundant in liver. It has been shown that miR-709 has a function in the nucleus of fibroblasts, regulating levels of another miRNA (see next page). Thus, it is possible that in hepatocytes, the precursor also has a role in this cellular compartment, and the upregulation of miR-709 in db/db liver has implications for this unknown function.

Given that miRNA are largely regulated by RNA polymerase II, we anticipated that their levels would change to repress/derepress genes that are not required during the physiological responses that take place between the fasted and refed conditions. Remarkably, of all 61 miRNAs differentially expressed, all but one were downregulated during the refed state, indicating that miRNA silence genes during fasting conditions, and their role as inhibitors of gene expression is more important in this state than during refeeding. Likewise, in the process of aging, it has been reported that hepatic miRNAs increase, but none decreases⁹⁷. This phenomenon is also seen in aging-related Alzheimer disease in human brains⁹⁷. Nevertheless, miR-709 was not influenced by the change in hepatic nutritional/hormonal changes, suggesting it is not a critical miRNA for the response that controls glucose, fatty acid and ketone body metabolism.

Post-transcriptionally, miRNAs are processed through multiple steps and eventually form a linear miRNA:miRNA* duplex. Only one of these strands is selected to be incorporated into RISC, based on the thermodynamic instability and weaker base-pairing at the 5' end of the strands^{158,159}. For some miRNAs, both strands can be loaded into RISC. For miR-709, the 3p has been reported as the active strand (data from the miRBase database). Our data confirms that this is also the case in liver, where the miR-709-3p is the only strand used as guide.

Mammalian miRNAs can target multiple genes from various pathways¹⁶⁰. In murine liver, miR-709 has been reported to increase with aging⁹⁷. Correlation of the predicted targets with a proteome and transcriptome profile of aging liver suggested that

this miRNA impacts genes in cytoskeletal function⁹⁷. Thus, given the lack of knowledge on validated targets of miR-709, and its high abundance in liver, we sought to find its target genes. Our data indicates that miR-709 downregulates genes important in cytoskeleton structure, endocytosis and cellular adhesion pathways, as well as lipid metabolism. We confirmed that at least three of the identified genes, Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp, are direct targets of miR-709 and that the absence of miR-709 binding site/s in the 3' UTR of these target genes leads to lack of inhibition. Downregulation of several targets, including Rab11b, was confirmed at the protein level in murine liver cells and the hepatoma cell line Hepa1c1c.

There has been a lot of disparity between the predicted targets of a miRNA across various databases and the bona fide miRNA targets¹⁶¹. Hence, we compared the results from the microarray with the predicted targets of miR-709 across multiple databases to evaluate the extent of overlap with observed gene targets. Of the 6 databases used, we found that miRanda, miRWalk, DIANAmT and PICTAR5 had algorithms that best predicted miR-709 targets, with 60-70% of gene predictions being identified by microarray analysis. miRDB, TargetScan and RNA22 predicted less than 22% of the genes that were found downregulated in the microarray analysis. Hence, using multiple databases with good prediction score is a key to identifying miRNA targets.

In the three dimensional structure of the liver, hepatocytes must be polarized with apical and basolateral membranes to be functional¹². The two domains are separated by tight junctions⁸. Bile canaliculi are formed on the apical membrane of two adjacent

hepatocytes and bile acid transporters are confined to this area^{8,143}. Based on the pathways targeted by miR-709, we hypothesized that this miRNA might regulate the capacity of hepatocytes to polarize and form functional bile canaliculi. Our data suggests that miR-709 does not affect the capacity of hepatocytes to maintain the apicalbasolateral polarity. Cells transfected with miR-709 and cultured in a sandwich culture model were able to form bile canaliculi and transport sodium fluorescein in a similar manner as Cel-239b-treated cells, implying that increased levels of mature miR-709 does not compromise liver organization. In addition, miR-709 sandwich cultures had similar survival times as Cel-239b-transfected cultures. Furthermore, primary hepatocytes cultured in a monolayer and transfected with miR-709 did not have faster rates of cell death over the course of 5 days relative to Cel-239b transfected hepatocytes (data not shown). Thus, miR-709 regulates genes that in a quiescent tissue do not affect cell survival or the capacity to maintain normal cellular architecture. Instead, our data suggests that miR-709 may be needed to facilitate cellular detachment from the extracellular matrix and cytoskeletal reorganization, processes that are needed after liver injury and repopulation, or during tumorigenesis.

In fibroblasts, it was shown that miR-709 controls the maturation of miR-15a/16-1¹⁴⁵. In humans, this miRNA cluster is most commonly found deleted in chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL)¹⁶². The miR-15a/16-1 cluster of miRNAs has been shown to target the anti-apoptotic gene, Bcl-2¹⁴⁵ as well as genes involved in cell cycle¹⁶³. Under apoptotic stimuli, miR-709 changed its nuclear localization and was transported into the cytoplasm in fibroblasts¹⁴⁵. This resulted in loss of inhibition of miR-15a/16-1 processing

and led to downregulation of Bcl-2¹⁴⁵. However, Bcl-2 is not expressed in murine liver^{164,165} and therefore, it is unlikely that in this tissue miR-709 regulates apoptosis through the same mechanism. Furthermore, miR-709 has been shown to control expression of Brother Of the Regulator of Imprinted Sites (BORIS) in mouse testis¹⁶⁶. BORIS is a testes-specific gene and an important regulator of DNA methylation and imprinting, and regulates epigenetic reprogramming during differentiation of germ cells¹⁶⁷. However, this gene is not expressed in liver¹⁶⁷. Thus, miR-709 may target distinct genes in different tissues.

It has recently been reported that mature miR-709 is predominantly a nuclear miRNA in various cell lines and tissues¹⁴⁵. The data were generated by analysis of RNA from nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions, as well as by transfection of L929 fibroblasts with a synthetic 5'-FAM-labeled miR-709 duplex probe¹⁴⁵. Tamminga and colleagues have shown by *in situ* hybridization that miR-709 is predominantly located in the nucleus in testis¹⁶⁶. Thus, we used a 3'-FAM-labeled synthetic miR-709 mimic to study the cellular localization of the mature miR-709 in liver. Our data indicates that mature miR-709 is localized only in the cytoplasm of primary hepatocytes and Hepa1c1c cells under normal and metabolic stress culture conditions. It is possible that the location of mature miR-709 is different depending on the tissue, and in fibroblasts it is more nuclear than cytoplasmic. We have shown that in the liver, the precursor of miR-709 is significantly more abundant than the mature form, opposite to what is typically observed for the majority of miRNA. This has been reported to be the case across other mouse tissues, including brain, spinal cord, and heart¹⁴⁷. The *in situ* hybridization study by Tamminga *et*

al. 166, is consistent with higher levels of precursor in the nucleus, as the probe is likely to have detected the precursor and mature forms. The study showed the majority of the signal was present in the nucleus. Interestingly, miR-709 is not the only miRNA displaying this pattern: miR-690 and miR-720 also abundantly accumulate their precursors, while the mature form is scarce. The biological significance of the large accumulation of precursor, is currently unknown.

We have also shown that in mouse models of cancer and liver regeneration, the levels of mature miR-709 increase significantly, suggesting a role in cell division. Supporting these observations, inhibition of miR-709 in hepatoma cells, leads to diminished cell survival. To determine the role of miR-709 in quiescent and actively dividing cells, antagomiRs were used to deplete endogenous levels of miR-709. Transfection of primary hepatocytes with antagomirs did not lead to a concomitant upregulation of miR-709 targets Rab11b and Ces1g. Instead, we observed a dose response increase in the expression of miR-709 as more antagomiR was used. This suggests that miR-709 may have vital functions in the liver and cannot be inhibited in hepatocytes, even though these cells seem to be able to tolerate a multiple-fold increase of mature miR-709. In Hepa1c1c cells, depletion of miR-709 resulted in a decrease in cell viability, which was not seen in primary hepatocytes at similar antagomiR concentration, suggesting that appropriate levels of this miRNA may be more critical for proliferating than quiescent cells.

The increase in miR-709 in liver tumors was accompanied by an increase in transcription of its host gene, Rfx1. Rfx1 is a transcription factor with transcription activation as well as repression activity. It is ubiquitously expressed, and is abundant in liver, with expression levels similar to genes implicated in metabolic functions such as insulin receptor substrate (Irs2), forkhead box protein O1 (Foxo1) or sirtuin 1 (Sirt1) (data not shown). Lack of Rfx1 results in early embryonic lethality 168. Rfx1 inhibits its own expression, as well as genes implicated in cell proliferation such as PCNA and c-Myc¹⁵¹⁻¹⁵³. Although information on its function in liver is scarce, it has been recently shown that Rfx1 binds to the promoters of silent genes, such as Cdx2, and inhibit their activation by FoxA2. Cdx2 is a homeodomain transcription factor that determines intestinal epithelium differentiation and its ectopic expression has been associated with neoplastic processes. Indeed, Rfx1 downregulation is associated with esophageal carcinoma¹⁶⁹. The same study showed that using siRNA to knockdown Rfx1, a maximum of 50% silencing could be obtained in a mouse epithelial cell line. As the mRNA levels were downregulated by the siRNA, Rfx1 gene transcription would increase 169. We have observed that miR-709 downregulation with antagomiRs leads to an increase in miR-709 levels. Thus, miR-709 and Rfx1 seem to work in a coordinated manner, and depletion of either one leads to feedback activation to compensate for the decrease in their levels. Perhaps miR-709 accumulates in the nucleus to regulate expression of its own host gene. Finally, it is possible that Rfx1 increases in our models of cell proliferation to inhibit expression of epithelial non-hepatic genes and retain liver function.

MiR-709 is not a conserved miRNA; the human ortholog is hsa-miR-1827, and shares the same seed sequence. Thus, an exciting study will be to determine whether the pathways regulated by hsa-miR-1827 are the same as those regulated by miR-709. Many of the predicted genes are the same or are within the same family. Thus, we predict that the hsa-miR-1827 will have a similar role to mmu-miR-709. It will be interesting to conduct studies in human samples and/or cell lines to establish its function in normal liver, as well as pathological conditions.

In summary, miR-709 is most abundant in the pre-miR-709 form in the normal liver and is processed further to mature miR-709 only under conditions requiring cell division, such as cancer and liver regeneration. It is then that the mature miR-709 can bind to targets such as Rab11b, Ces1g, Pctp and Timp3 and aid in cellular regeneration perhaps by shutting down pathways that are not vital to the cell at that stage.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Our study identified miR-709 as one of the most abundant miRNAs in murine liver and for the first time identified Rab11b, Ces1g and Pctp as direct targets. Recently, miR-709 has been found upregulated by 3.6-fold in db/db mice, an animal model of type 2 diabetes mellitus¹⁵⁶, by ~7-fold in livers of aging mice⁹⁷, in X-ray irradiated mouse testis 166, and during liver regeneration and hepatocellular carcinoma (this work). This suggests a role for this miRNA in the response of liver to stress conditions. Future in vivo studies are needed to address the physiological consequence of knocking down miR-709 in type 2 diabetes liver, aging liver and hepatocellular carcinoma to study its role in these conditions. It is also intriguing that such high levels of precursor accumulate in the nucleus, which suggests an additional role in this compartment. miR-709 is not a conserved miRNA, and the ortholog miRNA in humans is hsa-mir-1827, which has the same seed sequence. Given the role of miR-709 in hepatocellular carcinoma and its potential role in liver regeneration, future studies should include characterizing its function in normal human liver, as well as analyzing human carcinoma samples to determine whether hsa-mir-1827 is dysregulated, and establishing its potential as a therapeutic target.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- 1. Reinhart BJ, Slack FJ, Basson M, et al. The 21-nucleotide let-7 RNA regulates developmental timing in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature 2000;403:901-6.
- 2. Brennecke J, Hipfner DR, Stark A, Russell RB, Cohen SM. bantam encodes a developmentally regulated microRNA that controls cell proliferation and regulates the proapoptotic gene hid in Drosophila. Cell 2003;113:25-36.
- 3. Xu P, Vernooy SY, Guo M, Hay BA. The Drosophila microRNA Mir-14 suppresses cell death and is required for normal fat metabolism. Curr Biol 2003;13:790-5.
- 4. Chen CZ, Li L, Lodish HF, Bartel DP. MicroRNAs modulate hematopoietic lineage differentiation. Science 2004;303:83-6.
- 5. Krutzfeldt J, Rajewsky N, Braich R, et al. Silencing of microRNAs in vivo with 'antagomirs'. Nature 2005;438:685-9.
- 6. Ambros V. Control of developmental timing in Caenorhabditis elegans. Curr Opin Genet Dev 2000;10:428-33.
- 7. Lagos-Quintana M, Rauhut R, Yalcin A, Meyer J, Lendeckel W, Tuschl T. Identification of tissue-specific microRNAs from mouse. Curr Biol 2002;12:735-9.
- 8. Treyer A, Musch A. Hepatocyte polarity. Compr Physiol 2013;3:243-87.
- 9. Boyer JL. Bile formation and secretion. Compr Physiol 2013;3:1035-78.
- 10. Jungermann K. Role of intralobular compartmentation in hepatic metabolism. Diabete & metabolisme 1992;18:81-6.
- 11. Malarkey DE, Johnson K, Ryan L, Boorman G, Maronpot RR. New insights into functional aspects of liver morphology. Toxicologic pathology 2005;33:27-34.

- 12. Dunn JC, Tompkins RG, Yarmush ML. Long-term in vitro function of adult hepatocytes in a collagen sandwich configuration. Biotechnology progress 1991;7:237-45.
- 13. Decaens C, Durand M, Grosse B, Cassio D. Which in vitro models could be best used to study hepatocyte polarity? Biology of the cell / under the auspices of the European Cell Biology Organization 2008;100:387-98.
- 14. Abu-Absi SF, Friend JR, Hansen LK, Hu WS. Structural polarity and functional bile canaliculi in rat hepatocyte spheroids. Exp Cell Res 2002;274:56-67.
- 15. Watanabe N, Tsukada N, Smith CR, Phillips MJ. Motility of bile canaliculi in the living animal: implications for bile flow. J Cell Biol 1991;113:1069-80.
- 16. Takahashi S, Kubo K, Waguri S, et al. Rab11 regulates exocytosis of recycling vesicles at the plasma membrane. J Cell Sci 2012;125:4049-57.
- 17. Rahner C, Stieger B, Landmann L. Apical endocytosis in rat hepatocytes In situ involves clathrin, traverses a subapical compartment, and leads to lysosomes. Gastroenterology 2000;119:1692-707.
- 18. Enrich C, Pol A, Calvo M, Pons M, Jackle S. Dissection of the multifunctional "Receptor-Recycling" endocytic compartment of hepatocytes. Hepatology 1999;30:1115-20.
- 19. Saetrom P, Snove O, Nedland M, et al. Conserved microRNA characteristics in mammals. Oligonucleotides 2006;16:115-44.
- 20. Jung HJ, Suh Y. MicroRNA in Aging: From Discovery to Biology. Current genomics 2012;13:548-57.
- 21. Bentwich I, Avniel A, Karov Y, et al. Identification of hundreds of conserved and nonconserved human microRNAs. Nat Genet 2005;37:766-70.
- 22. Friedman RC, Farh KK, Burge CB, Bartel DP. Most mammalian mRNAs are conserved targets of microRNAs. Genome Res 2009;19:92-105.

- 23. Chekulaeva M, Filipowicz W. Mechanisms of miRNA-mediated post-transcriptional regulation in animal cells. Curr Opin Cell Biol 2009;21:452-60.
- 24. Guo H, Ingolia NT, Weissman JS, Bartel DP. Mammalian microRNAs predominantly act to decrease target mRNA levels. Nature 2010;466:835-40.
- 25. Behm-Ansmant I, Rehwinkel J, Doerks T, Stark A, Bork P, Izaurralde E. mRNA degradation by miRNAs and GW182 requires both CCR4:NOT deadenylase and DCP1:DCP2 decapping complexes. Genes Dev 2006;20:1885-98.
- 26. Borchert GM, Lanier W, Davidson BL. RNA polymerase III transcribes human microRNAs. Nature structural & molecular biology 2006;13:1097-101.
- 27. Faller M, Guo F. MicroRNA biogenesis: there's more than one way to skin a cat. Biochimica et biophysica acta 2008;1779:663-7.
- 28. Ceccarelli S, Panera N, Gnani D, Nobili V. Dual Role of MicroRNAs in NAFLD. International journal of molecular sciences 2013;14:8437-55.
- 29. Cai X, Hagedorn CH, Cullen BR. Human microRNAs are processed from capped, polyadenylated transcripts that can also function as mRNAs. Rna 2004;10:1957-66.
- 30. Filipowicz W, Bhattacharyya SN, Sonenberg N. Mechanisms of post-transcriptional regulation by microRNAs: are the answers in sight? Nature reviews Genetics 2008;9:102-14.
- 31. Bartel DP. MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function. Cell 2004;116:281-97.
- 32. Creighton CJ, Reid JG, Gunaratne PH. Expression profiling of microRNAs by deep sequencing. Briefings in bioinformatics 2009;10:490-7.
- 33. Okamura K, Phillips MD, Tyler DM, Duan H, Chou YT, Lai EC. The regulatory activity of microRNA* species has substantial influence on microRNA and 3' UTR evolution. Nature structural & molecular biology 2008;15:354-63.
- 34. Ro S, Park C, Young D, Sanders KM, Yan W. Tissue-dependent paired expression of miRNAs. Nucleic acids research 2007;35:5944-53.

- 35. Du T, Zamore PD. microPrimer: the biogenesis and function of microRNA. Development 2005;132:4645-52.
- 36. Winter J, Jung S, Keller S, Gregory RI, Diederichs S. Many roads to maturity: microRNA biogenesis pathways and their regulation. Nature cell biology 2009;11:228-34.
- 37. Lynn FC. Meta-regulation: microRNA regulation of glucose and lipid metabolism. Trends in endocrinology and metabolism: TEM 2009;20:452-9.
- 38. Mencia A, Modamio-Hoybjor S, Redshaw N, et al. Mutations in the seed region of human miR-96 are responsible for nonsyndromic progressive hearing loss. Nat Genet 2009;41:609-13.
- 39. Hughes AE, Bradley DT, Campbell M, et al. Mutation altering the miR-184 seed region causes familial keratoconus with cataract. American journal of human genetics 2011;89:628-33.
- 40. de Pontual L, Yao E, Callier P, et al. Germline deletion of the miR-17 approximately 92 cluster causes skeletal and growth defects in humans. Nat Genet 2011;43:1026-30.
- 41. Llave C, Xie Z, Kasschau KD, Carrington JC. Cleavage of Scarecrow-like mRNA targets directed by a class of Arabidopsis miRNA. Science 2002;297:2053-6.
- 42. Yekta S, Shih IH, Bartel DP. MicroRNA-directed cleavage of HOXB8 mRNA. Science 2004;304:594-6.
- 43. Huntzinger E, Izaurralde E. Gene silencing by microRNAs: contributions of translational repression and mRNA decay. Nature reviews Genetics 2011;12:99-110.
- 44. Bhattacharyya SN, Habermacher R, Martine U, Closs EI, Filipowicz W. Relief of microRNA-mediated translational repression in human cells subjected to stress. Cell 2006;125:1111-24.
- 45. Orom UA, Nielsen FC, Lund AH. MicroRNA-10a binds the 5'UTR of ribosomal protein mRNAs and enhances their translation. Molecular cell 2008;30:460-71.

- 46. He A, Zhu L, Gupta N, Chang Y, Fang F. Overexpression of micro ribonucleic acid 29, highly up-regulated in diabetic rats, leads to insulin resistance in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. Molecular endocrinology 2007;21:2785-94.
- 47. Kerr TA, Korenblat KM, Davidson NO. MicroRNAs and liver disease. Translational research: the journal of laboratory and clinical medicine 2011;157:241-52.
- 48. Filipowicz W, Jaskiewicz L, Kolb FA, Pillai RS. Post-transcriptional gene silencing by siRNAs and miRNAs. Current opinion in structural biology 2005;15:331-41.
- 49. Walker MD. Role of MicroRNA in pancreatic beta-cells: where more is less. Diabetes 2008;57:2567-8.
- 50. Trajkovski M, Hausser J, Soutschek J, et al. MicroRNAs 103 and 107 regulate insulin sensitivity. Nature 2011;474:649-53.
- 51. Zheng L, Lv GC, Sheng J, Yang YD. Effect of miRNA-10b in regulating cellular steatosis level by targeting PPAR-alpha expression, a novel mechanism for the pathogenesis of NAFLD. Journal of gastroenterology and hepatology 2010;25:156-63.
- 52. Hu J, Xu Y, Hao J, Wang S, Li C, Meng S. MiR-122 in hepatic function and liver diseases. Protein & cell 2012;3:364-71.
- 53. Filipowicz W, Grosshans H. The liver-specific microRNA miR-122: biology and therapeutic potential. Progress in drug research Fortschritte der Arzneimittelforschung Progres des recherches pharmaceutiques 2011;67:221-38.
- 54. Girard M, Jacquemin E, Munnich A, Lyonnet S, Henrion-Caude A. miR-122, a paradigm for the role of microRNAs in the liver. Journal of hepatology 2008;48:648-56.
- 55. Chang J, Nicolas E, Marks D, et al. miR-122, a mammalian liver-specific microRNA, is processed from hcr mRNA and may downregulate the high affinity cationic amino acid transporter CAT-1. RNA biology 2004;1:106-13.
- 56. Esau C, Davis S, Murray SF, et al. miR-122 regulation of lipid metabolism revealed by in vivo antisense targeting. Cell metabolism 2006;3:87-98.

- 57. Callegari E, Elamin BK, Sabbioni S, Gramantieri L, Negrini M. Role of microRNAs in hepatocellular carcinoma: a clinical perspective. OncoTargets and therapy 2013;6:1167-78.
- 58. Fan CG, Wang CM, Tian C, et al. miR-122 inhibits viral replication and cell proliferation in hepatitis B virus-related hepatocellular carcinoma and targets NDRG3. Oncology reports 2011;26:1281-6.
- 59. Hsu SH, Wang B, Kota J, et al. Essential metabolic, anti-inflammatory, and anti-tumorigenic functions of miR-122 in liver. The Journal of clinical investigation 2012;122:2871-83.
- 60. Hoekstra M, van der Sluis RJ, Kuiper J, Van Berkel TJ. Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease is associated with an altered hepatocyte microRNA profile in LDL receptor knockout mice. The Journal of nutritional biochemistry 2012;23:622-8.
- 61. Najafi-Shoushtari SH, Kristo F, Li Y, et al. MicroRNA-33 and the SREBP host genes cooperate to control cholesterol homeostasis. Science 2010;328:1566-9.
- 62. Hua X, Yokoyama C, Wu J, et al. SREBP-2, a second basic-helix-loop-helix-leucine zipper protein that stimulates transcription by binding to a sterol regulatory element. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 1993;90:11603-7.
- 63. Yokoyama C, Wang X, Briggs MR, et al. SREBP-1, a basic-helix-loop-helix-leucine zipper protein that controls transcription of the low density lipoprotein receptor gene. Cell 1993;75:187-97.
- 64. Horton JD, Goldstein JL, Brown MS. SREBPs: activators of the complete program of cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis in the liver. The Journal of clinical investigation 2002;109:1125-31.
- 65. Rayner KJ, Sheedy FJ, Esau CC, et al. Antagonism of miR-33 in mice promotes reverse cholesterol transport and regression of atherosclerosis. The Journal of clinical investigation 2011;121:2921-31.
- 66. Rayner KJ, Suarez Y, Davalos A, et al. MiR-33 contributes to the regulation of cholesterol homeostasis. Science 2010;328:1570-3.

- 67. Davalos A, Goedeke L, Smibert P, et al. miR-33a/b contribute to the regulation of fatty acid metabolism and insulin signaling. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2011;108:9232-7.
- 68. Cheung O, Puri P, Eicken C, et al. Nonalcoholic steatohepatitis is associated with altered hepatic MicroRNA expression. Hepatology 2008;48:1810-20.
- 69. Min HK, Kapoor A, Fuchs M, et al. Increased hepatic synthesis and dysregulation of cholesterol metabolism is associated with the severity of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. Cell metabolism 2012;15:665-74.
- 70. Nakanishi N, Nakagawa Y, Tokushige N, et al. The up-regulation of microRNA-335 is associated with lipid metabolism in liver and white adipose tissue of genetically obese mice. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2009;385:492-6.
- 71. Iliopoulos D, Drosatos K, Hiyama Y, Goldberg IJ, Zannis VI. MicroRNA-370 controls the expression of microRNA-122 and Cpt1alpha and affects lipid metabolism. Journal of lipid research 2010;51:1513-23.
- 72. Ahn J, Lee H, Chung CH, Ha T. High fat diet induced downregulation of microRNA-467b increased lipoprotein lipase in hepatic steatosis. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2011;414:664-9.
- 73. Kumar S, Zou Y, Bao Q, Wang M, Dai G. Proteomic analysis of immediate-early response plasma proteins after 70% and 90% partial hepatectomy. Hepatology research: the official journal of the Japan Society of Hepatology 2013;43:876-89.
- 74. Betel D, Wilson M, Gabow A, Marks DS, Sander C. The microRNA.org resource: targets and expression. Nucleic acids research 2008;36:D149-53.
- 75. Park JS, Surendran S, Kamendulis LM, Morral N. Comparative nucleic acid transfection efficacy in primary hepatocytes for gene silencing and functional studies. BMC Res Notes 2011;4:8.
- 76. Kreamer BL, Staecker JL, Sawada N, Sattler GL, Hsia MT, Pitot HC. Use of a low-speed, iso-density percoll centrifugation method to increase the viability of isolated rat hepatocyte preparations. In vitro cellular & developmental biology: journal of the Tissue Culture Association 1986;22:201-11.

- 77. Swift B, Pfeifer ND, Brouwer KL. Sandwich-cultured hepatocytes: an in vitro model to evaluate hepatobiliary transporter-based drug interactions and hepatotoxicity. Drug metabolism reviews 2010;42:446-71.
- 78. Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, et al. Fiji: an open-source platform for biological-image analysis. Nat Methods 2012;9:676-82.
- 79. Wang X. miRDB: a microRNA target prediction and functional annotation database with a wiki interface. Rna 2008;14:1012-7.
- 80. Wang X, El Naqa IM. Prediction of both conserved and nonconserved microRNA targets in animals. Bioinformatics 2008;24:325-32.
- 81. Dweep H, Sticht C, Pandey P, Gretz N. miRWalk--database: prediction of possible miRNA binding sites by "walking" the genes of three genomes. Journal of biomedical informatics 2011;44:839-47.
- 82. Lewis BP, Burge CB, Bartel DP. Conserved seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of human genes are microRNA targets. Cell 2005;120:15-20.
- 83. Vlachos IS, Kostoulas N, Vergoulis T, et al. DIANA miRPath v.2.0: investigating the combinatorial effect of microRNAs in pathways. Nucleic acids research 2012;40:W498-504.
- 84. Alexiou P, Vergoulis T, Gleditzsch M, et al. miRGen 2.0: a database of microRNA genomic information and regulation. Nucleic acids research 2010;38:D137-41.
- 85. Griffiths-Jones S. The microRNA Registry. Nucleic acids research 2004;32:D109-11.
- 86. Griffiths-Jones S, Grocock RJ, van Dongen S, Bateman A, Enright AJ. miRBase: microRNA sequences, targets and gene nomenclature. Nucleic acids research 2006;34:D140-4.
- 87. Griffiths-Jones S, Saini HK, van Dongen S, Enright AJ. miRBase: tools for microRNA genomics. Nucleic acids research 2008;36:D154-8.

- 88. Kozomara A, Griffiths-Jones S. miRBase: integrating microRNA annotation and deep-sequencing data. Nucleic acids research 2011;39:D152-7.
- 89. Kozomara A, Griffiths-Jones S. miRBase: annotating high confidence microRNAs using deep sequencing data. Nucleic acids research 2014;42:D68-73.
- 90. Meyers BC, Axtell MJ, Bartel B, et al. Criteria for annotation of plant MicroRNAs. The Plant cell 2008;20:3186-90.
- 91. Ambros V, Bartel B, Bartel DP, et al. A uniform system for microRNA annotation. Rna 2003;9:277-9.
- 92. Krek A, Grun D, Poy MN, et al. Combinatorial microRNA target predictions. Nat Genet 2005;37:495-500.
- 93. Miranda KC, Huynh T, Tay Y, et al. A pattern-based method for the identification of MicroRNA binding sites and their corresponding heteroduplexes. Cell 2006;126:1203-17.
- 94. Kim SW, Li Z, Moore PS, et al. A sensitive non-radioactive northern blot method to detect small RNAs. Nucleic acids research 2010;38:e98.
- 95. Takata A, Otsuka M, Yoshikawa T, Kishikawa T, Ohno M, Koike K. MicroRNAs and liver function. Minerva gastroenterologica e dietologica 2013;59:187-203.
- 96. Sekine S, Ogawa R, Ito R, et al. Disruption of Dicer1 induces dysregulated fetal gene expression and promotes hepatocarcinogenesis. Gastroenterology 2009;136:2304-15 e1-4.
- 97. Maes OC, An J, Sarojini H, Wang E. Murine microRNAs implicated in liver functions and aging process. Mechanisms of ageing and development 2008;129:534-41.
- 98. Mullokandov G, Baccarini A, Ruzo A, et al. High-throughput assessment of microRNA activity and function using microRNA sensor and decoy libraries. Nat Methods 2012;9:840-6.

- 99. Zhang F, Xu X, Zhou B, He Z, Zhai Q. Gene expression profile change and associated physiological and pathological effects in mouse liver induced by fasting and refeeding. PloS one 2011;6:e27553.
- 100. Desert C, Duclos MJ, Blavy P, et al. Transcriptome profiling of the feeding-to-fasting transition in chicken liver. BMC genomics 2008;9:611.
- 101. Zhou L, He J, Zhang Y. MicroRNA-22 expression in hepatocellular carcinoma and its correlation with ezrin protein. The Journal of international medical research 2013;41:1009-16.
- 102. Shi C, Xu X. MicroRNA-22 is down-regulated in hepatitis B virus-related hepatocellular carcinoma. Biomedicine & pharmacotherapy = Biomedecine & pharmacotherapie 2013;67:375-80.
- 103. Zhang J, Yang Y, Yang T, et al. microRNA-22, downregulated in hepatocellular carcinoma and correlated with prognosis, suppresses cell proliferation and tumourigenicity. British journal of cancer 2010;103:1215-20.
- 104. Li LH, Gao Q, Wang XY, Guo ZJ. [miR-378 suppresses HBV-related hepatocellular carcinoma tumor growth by directly targeting the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor]. Zhonghua gan zang bing za zhi = Zhonghua ganzangbing zazhi = Chinese journal of hepatology 2013;21:609-13.
- 105. Chen DL, Wang ZQ, Zeng ZL, et al. Identification of MicroRNA-214 as a negative regulator of colorectal cancer liver metastasis by way of regulation of fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 expression. Hepatology 2014.
- 106. Zhang J, Jin H, Liu H, et al. MiRNA-99a directly regulates AGO2 through translational repression in hepatocellular carcinoma. Oncogenesis 2014;3:e97.
- 107. Ding J, Huang S, Wang Y, et al. Genome-wide screening reveals that miR-195 targets the TNF-alpha/NF-kappaB pathway by down-regulating IkappaB kinase alpha and TAB3 in hepatocellular carcinoma. Hepatology 2013;58:654-66.
- 108. Chen Z, Ma T, Huang C, et al. MiR-27a modulates the MDR1/P-glycoprotein expression by inhibiting FZD7/beta-catenin pathway in hepatocellular carcinoma cells. Cellular signalling 2013;25:2693-701.

- 109. Henry JC, Park JK, Jiang J, et al. miR-199a-3p targets CD44 and reduces proliferation of CD44 positive hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2010;403:120-5.
- 110. Ji J, Zhao L, Budhu A, et al. Let-7g targets collagen type I alpha2 and inhibits cell migration in hepatocellular carcinoma. Journal of hepatology 2010;52:690-7.
- 111. Gong FX, Xia JL, Yang BW, Xu XJ, Wu WZ. [Effect of let-7c on the proliferation of human hepatocellular carcinoma cell HCCLM3]. Zhonghua gan zang bing za zhi = Zhonghua ganzangbing zazhi = Chinese journal of hepatology 2011;19:853-6.
- 112. Gramantieri L, Ferracin M, Fornari F, et al. Cyclin G1 is a target of miR-122a, a microRNA frequently down-regulated in human hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer research 2007;67:6092-9.
- 113. Brockhausen J, Tay SS, Grzelak CA, et al. miR-181a mediates TGF-beta-induced hepatocyte EMT and is dysregulated in cirrhosis and hepatocellular cancer. Liver international: official journal of the International Association for the Study of the Liver 2014.
- 114. Duan X, Hu J, Wang Y, Gao J, Peng D, Xia L. MicroRNA-145: a promising biomarker for hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Gene 2014;541:67-8.
- 115. Heo MJ, Kim YM, Koo JH, et al. microRNA-148a dysregulation discriminates poor prognosis of hepatocellular carcinoma in association with USP4 overexpression. Oncotarget 2014;5:2792-806.
- 116. Dang YW, Chen G, Liao Y, Wang L. [Expression of miR-191 and miR-221 in hepatocellular carcinoma and its clinical significance]. Zhonghua bing li xue za zhi Chinese journal of pathology 2013;42:397-8.
- 117. Giray BG, Emekdas G, Tezcan S, et al. Profiles of serum microRNAs; miR-125b-5p and miR223-3p serve as novel biomarkers for HBV-positive hepatocellular carcinoma. Molecular biology reports 2014.
- 118. Yang H, Zheng W, Zhao W, Guan C, An J. [Roles of miR-590-5p and miR-590-3p in the development of hepatocellular carcinoma]. Nan fang yi ke da xue xue bao = Journal of Southern Medical University 2013;33:804-11.

- 119. Li L, Guo Z, Wang J, Mao Y, Gao Q. Serum miR-18a: a potential marker for hepatitis B virus-related hepatocellular carcinoma screening. Digestive diseases and sciences 2012;57:2910-6.
- 120. Xu D, He XX, Chang Y, Sun SZ, Xu CR, Lin JS. Downregulation of MiR-93 expression reduces cell proliferation and clonogenicity of HepG2 cells. Hepatogastroenterology 2012;59:2367-73.
- 121. Li Y, Tan W, Neo TW, et al. Role of the miR-106b-25 microRNA cluster in hepatocellular carcinoma. Cancer science 2009;100:1234-42.
- 122. Yuan B, Dong R, Shi D, et al. Down-regulation of miR-23b may contribute to activation of the TGF-beta1/Smad3 signalling pathway during the termination stage of liver regeneration. FEBS letters 2011;585:927-34.
- 123. Salvi A, Sabelli C, Moncini S, et al. MicroRNA-23b mediates urokinase and cmet downmodulation and a decreased migration of human hepatocellular carcinoma cells. The FEBS journal 2009;276:2966-82.
- 124. Roderburg C, Mollnow T, Bongaerts B, et al. Micro-RNA profiling in human serum reveals compartment-specific roles of miR-571 and miR-652 in liver cirrhosis. PloS one 2012;7:e32999.
- 125. Lee CG, Kim YW, Kim EH, et al. Farnesoid X receptor protects hepatocytes from injury by repressing miR-199a-3p, which increases levels of LKB1. Gastroenterology 2012;142:1206-17 e7.
- 126. Li W, Wang J, Chen QD, et al. Insulin promotes glucose consumption via regulation of miR-99a/mTOR/PKM2 pathway. PloS one 2013;8:e64924.
- 127. Wen F, Yang Y, Jin D, Sun J, Yu X, Yang Z. MiRNA-145 is involved in the development of resistin-induced insulin resistance in HepG2 cells. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2014;445:517-23.
- 128. Jordan SD, Kruger M, Willmes DM, et al. Obesity-induced overexpression of miRNA-143 inhibits insulin-stimulated AKT activation and impairs glucose metabolism. Nature cell biology 2011;13:434-46.

- 129. Huang da W, Sherman BT, Lempicki RA. Bioinformatics enrichment tools: paths toward the comprehensive functional analysis of large gene lists. Nucleic acids research 2009;37:1-13.
- 130. Huang da W, Sherman BT, Lempicki RA. Systematic and integrative analysis of large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. Nature protocols 2009;4:44-57.
- 131. Horgan CP, Hanscom SR, Jolly RS, Futter CE, McCaffrey MW. Rab11-FIP3 links the Rab11 GTPase and cytoplasmic dynein to mediate transport to the endosomal-recycling compartment. J Cell Sci 2010;123:181-91.
- 132. Lapierre LA, Dorn MC, Zimmerman CF, Navarre J, Burnette JO, Goldenring JR. Rab11b resides in a vesicular compartment distinct from Rab11a in parietal cells and other epithelial cells. Exp Cell Res 2003;290:322-31.
- 133. Butterworth MB, Edinger RS, Silvis MR, et al. Rab11b regulates the trafficking and recycling of the epithelial sodium channel (ENaC). American journal of physiology Renal physiology 2012;302:F581-90.
- 134. Casanova JE, Wang X, Kumar R, et al. Association of Rab25 and Rab11a with the apical recycling system of polarized Madin-Darby canine kidney cells. Mol Biol Cell 1999:10:47-61.
- 135. Chen W, Feng Y, Chen D, Wandinger-Ness A. Rab11 is required for trans-golgi network-to-plasma membrane transport and a preferential target for GDP dissociation inhibitor. Mol Biol Cell 1998;9:3241-57.
- 136. Sugawara K, Shibasaki T, Mizoguchi A, Saito T, Seino S. Rab11 and its effector Rip11 participate in regulation of insulin granule exocytosis. Genes to cells: devoted to molecular & cellular mechanisms 2009;14:445-56.
- 137. Horgan CP, Hanscom SR, Jolly RS, Futter CE, McCaffrey MW. Rab11-FIP3 binds dynein light intermediate chain 2 and its overexpression fragments the Golgi complex. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2010;394:387-92.
- 138. Burkhardt JK. The role of microtubule-based motor proteins in maintaining the structure and function of the Golgi complex. Biochimica et biophysica acta 1998;1404:113-26.

- 139. Burkhardt JK, Echeverri CJ, Nilsson T, Vallee RB. Overexpression of the dynamitin (p50) subunit of the dynactin complex disrupts dynein-dependent maintenance of membrane organelle distribution. J Cell Biol 1997;139:469-84.
- 140. Harada A, Takei Y, Kanai Y, Tanaka Y, Nonaka S, Hirokawa N. Golgi vesiculation and lysosome dispersion in cells lacking cytoplasmic dynein. J Cell Biol 1998;141:51-9.
- 141. Palmer KJ, Hughes H, Stephens DJ. Specificity of cytoplasmic dynein subunits in discrete membrane-trafficking steps. Mol Biol Cell 2009;20:2885-99.
- 142. Traer CJ, Rutherford AC, Palmer KJ, et al. SNX4 coordinates endosomal sorting of TfnR with dynein-mediated transport into the endocytic recycling compartment. Nature cell biology 2007;9:1370-80.
- 143. Marion TL, Perry CH, St Claire RL, 3rd, Brouwer KL. Endogenous bile acid disposition in rat and human sandwich-cultured hepatocytes. Toxicology and applied pharmacology 2012;261:1-9.
- 144. Shibukawa A, Sawada T, Nakao C, Izumi T, Nakagawa T. High-performance frontal analysis for the study of protein binding of troglitazone (CS-045) in albumin solution and in human plasma. Journal of chromatography A 1995;697:337-43.
- 145. Tang R, Li L, Zhu D, et al. Mouse miRNA-709 directly regulates miRNA-15a/16-1 biogenesis at the posttranscriptional level in the nucleus: evidence for a microRNA hierarchy system. Cell research 2012;22:504-15.
- 146. Earnshaw WC, Martins LM, Kaufmann SH. Mammalian caspases: structure, activation, substrates, and functions during apoptosis. Annual review of biochemistry 1999;68:383-424.
- 147. Tang X, Gal J, Zhuang X, Wang W, Zhu H, Tang G. A simple array platform for microRNA analysis and its application in mouse tissues. Rna 2007;13:1803-22.
- 148. Zou Y, Bao Q, Kumar S, Hu M, Wang GY, Dai G. Four waves of hepatocyte proliferation linked with three waves of hepatic fat accumulation during partial hepatectomy-induced liver regeneration. PloS one 2012;7:e30675.

- 149. Bail S, Swerdel M, Liu H, et al. Differential regulation of microRNA stability. Rna 2010;16:1032-9.
- 150. Ruegger S, Grosshans H. MicroRNA turnover: when, how, and why. Trends in biochemical sciences 2012;37:436-46.
- 151. Chen L, Smith L, Johnson MR, Wang K, Diasio RB, Smith JB. Activation of protein kinase C induces nuclear translocation of RFX1 and down-regulates c-myc via an intron 1 X box in undifferentiated leukemia HL-60 cells. The Journal of biological chemistry 2000;275:32227-33.
- 152. Liu M, Lee BH, Mathews MB. Involvement of RFX1 protein in the regulation of the human proliferating cell nuclear antigen promoter. The Journal of biological chemistry 1999;274:15433-9.
- 153. Lubelsky Y, Reuven N, Shaul Y. Autorepression of rfx1 gene expression: functional conservation from yeast to humans in response to DNA replication arrest. Molecular and cellular biology 2005;25:10665-73.
- 154. Ha TY. MicroRNAs in Human Diseases: From Lung, Liver and Kidney Diseases to Infectious Disease, Sickle Cell Disease and Endometrium Disease. Immune Netw 2011;11:309-23.
- 155. Miyoshi K, Miyoshi T, Siomi H. Many ways to generate microRNA-like small RNAs: non-canonical pathways for microRNA production. Mol Genet Genomics 2010;284:95-103.
- 156. Kornfeld JW, Baitzel C, Konner AC, et al. Obesity-induced overexpression of miR-802 impairs glucose metabolism through silencing of Hnf1b. Nature 2013;494:111-5.
- 157. Zhang J, Zhang F, Didelot X, et al. Maternal high fat diet during pregnancy and lactation alters hepatic expression of insulin like growth factor-2 and key microRNAs in the adult offspring. BMC genomics 2009;10:478.
- 158. Schwarz DS, Hutvagner G, Du T, Xu Z, Aronin N, Zamore PD. Asymmetry in the assembly of the RNAi enzyme complex. Cell 2003;115:199-208.

- 159. Khvorova A, Reynolds A, Jayasena SD. Functional siRNAs and miRNAs exhibit strand bias. Cell 2003;115:209-16.
- 160. Lewis BP, Shih IH, Jones-Rhoades MW, Bartel DP, Burge CB. Prediction of mammalian microRNA targets. Cell 2003;115:787-98.
- 161. Gennarino VA, Sardiello M, Avellino R, et al. MicroRNA target prediction by expression analysis of host genes. Genome Res 2009;19:481-90.
- 162. Calin GA, Dumitru CD, Shimizu M, et al. Frequent deletions and down-regulation of micro- RNA genes miR15 and miR16 at 13q14 in chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2002;99:15524-9.
- 163. Klein U, Lia M, Crespo M, et al. The DLEU2/miR-15a/16-1 cluster controls B cell proliferation and its deletion leads to chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Cancer cell 2010;17:28-40.
- 164. de la Coste A, Fabre M, McDonell N, et al. Differential protective effects of Bcl-xL and Bcl-2 on apoptotic liver injury in transgenic mice. The American journal of physiology 1999;277:G702-8.
- 165. Hockenbery DM, Zutter M, Hickey W, Nahm M, Korsmeyer SJ. BCL2 protein is topographically restricted in tissues characterized by apoptotic cell death. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 1991;88:6961-5.
- 166. Tamminga J, Kathiria P, Koturbash I, Kovalchuk O. DNA damage-induced upregulation of miR-709 in the germline downregulates BORIS to counteract aberrant DNA hypomethylation. Cell cycle 2008;7:3731-6.
- 167. Loukinov DI, Pugacheva E, Vatolin S, et al. BORIS, a novel male germ-line-specific protein associated with epigenetic reprogramming events, shares the same 11-zinc-finger domain with CTCF, the insulator protein involved in reading imprinting marks in the soma. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2002;99:6806-11.
- 168. Feng C, Xu W, Zuo Z. Knockout of the regulatory factor X1 gene leads to early embryonic lethality. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2009;386:715-7.

169. Watts JA, Zhang C, Klein-Szanto AJ, et al. Study of FoxA pioneer factor at silent genes reveals Rfx-repressed enhancer at Cdx2 and a potential indicator of esophageal adenocarcinoma development. PLoS genetics 2011;7:e1002277.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Sneha Surendran

EDUCATION

2008-2014	Indiana University, Indianapolis, IN, USA
	Ph.D. Medical and Molecular Genetics w/ Minor in Diabetes
	Dissertation: Role of microRNA-709 in murine liver
	Advisor: Núria Morral, PhD
2005-2007	University of Mumbai, Mumbai, India
	M.Sc. Bioanalytical Sciences
2002-2005	University of Mumbai, Mumbai, India
	B.Sc. Biochemistry and Zoology

HONORS AND AWARDS

2005	S.I.E.S College of Arts, Science & Commerce, affiliated to the University of
	Mumbai 3 rd place in B.Sc. Biochemistry and Zoology examinations
2007	University of Mumbai 5 th place in M.Sc. Bioanalytical Sciences examinations
2008	Indiana University, School of Medicine Fellowship (Travel grant)
2011	Sigma Xi Graduate Research Competition (Third place)

GRANTS AND FELLOWSHIPS

2010-2012	Diabetes & Obesity DeVault Pre-doctoral Fellowship
2012-2014	American Heart Association Pre-doctoral Fellowship

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

- 06/12 Member of Sigma Xi through the Indiana University Medical Center Sigma Xi chapter
- 01/11 Member of AAAS (American Association for the Advancement of Science)
 through the Science Program for Excellence in Science

ABSTRACTS AND PRESENTATIONS

- 1. "Study of role of microRNAs in metabolism and type-2 diabetes". Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics poster session, 2010.
- 2. "Study of role of microRNAs in liver metabolism and type-2 diabetes". Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics Research Club, 2011.
- 3. "Role of microRNA-709 in hepatic insulin resistance". Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics poster session, 2011.
- 4. "Study of role of miR-709 in hepatic insulin resistance". Sigma Xi research competition, 2011.
- 5. "Role of microRNA-709 on hepatic metabolism". Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics poster session, 2012.
- 6. "Differential expression of microRNAs under different hepatic nutritional status".

 Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics poster session, 2013.
- 7. "Differential expression of microRNAs under different hepatic nutritional status" at Metabolism Signaling & Disease: From cell to organism, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, 2013.

PUBLICATIONS

- 1. Park, JS., **Surendran, S.**, Kamendulis, LM., Morral, N. Comparative nucleic acid transfection efficacy in primary hepatocytes for gene silencing and functional studies. *BMC Research Notes* 4:8 (2011).
- 2. Ahn, M., Gamble, A., Witting, SR., Magrisso, J., **Surendran, S.**, Obici, S., Morral, N. Vector and helper genome rearrangements occur during production of helper-dependent adenoviral vectors. *Human Gene Therapy Methods* 24:1-10 (2013).
- 3. Ruiz, R., Jideonwo, V., Ahn, M., **Surendran, S.**, Hou, Y., Tagliabracci, VS., Kerner, J., Gamble, A., Irimia-Dominguez, JM., Puchowicz, MA., DePaoli-Roach, A., Hoppel, C., Roach, P., Morral, N. Silencing Sterol Regulatory Element Binding Protein-1 In Mouse Liver Dissociates Hepatic Steatosis From Insulin Resistance. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* 289(9):5510-7 (2014).
- 4. **Surendran, S.,** Jideonwo, V., Merchun, C., Ahn, M., Murray, J., Ryan, J., Dunn, K., Dai, G., Kota J., and Morral, N. miR-709 targets cystokeleton organization genes in mouse liver and is up-regulated in proliferative states. Submitted.
- 5. **Surendran, S.,** Goswami, C., Truitt, B., Lui, Y. and Morral, N. Differential expression of microRNAs under different hepatic nutritional statuses. In preparation.
- 6. **Surendran, S.** and Morral, N. Role of microRNAs in Diabetes. In preparation.

RESEARCH AND TRAINING EXPERIENCE

2009 Molecular Biology workshop; Indiana University, School of Medicine.

2008-2009 Indiana University School of Medicine, Department of Medical and Molecular Genetics. Research rotations (Mentors: Nuria Morral, Ph.D., Elliot Rosen, Ph.D. and David Gilley, Ph.D.).

Observer in the Genetics laboratory of the Dept. of Assisted Reproduction and Genetics, Jaslok Hospital & Research Centre, Mumbai, India.

Trained in 'Chromatography and Spectroscopy'; Perkin Elmer Technical Center.

2006 Training in Microbiology, Chemical and Analytical Section, Quality
Assurance Department, Johnson & Johnson Limited.

2006-2007 Trained in Animal Testing Centre (CPCSEA Approved), Ramnarain Ruia College, Mumbai.

- Pharmacokinetic study of different formulations on rabbits.
- Anti-diabetic study on rats using Streptozotocin model.
- Anti-diabetic study on rats using Alloxan model.
- Efficacy study of oils for hair growth on rats.
- Anti-estrogenic activity of spice extracts on Albino Wistar rats.
- Acute toxicity studies on lice (LD50).
- Draize Skin irritancy study of formulation on Rabbits.
- Toxicity studies on rats and mice.
- Learned techniques like Retro-Orbital of rat; cervical dislocation;
 intra-venous and intra-peritoneal mode of injection on rats; oral

dosing of rats, mice and rabbits; withdrawal of blood from rats and rabbits; Cardiac puncture of rats and mice; etc.