Salvianolic acid B-induced microRNA-152 inhibits liver fibrosis by attenuating DNMT1-mediated Patched1 methylation

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Abstract

Epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) was reported to be involved in the activation of hepatic stellate cells (HSCs), contributing to the development of liver fibrosis. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition can be promoted by the Hedgehog (Hh) pathway. Patched1 (PTCH1), a negative regulatory factor of the Hh signaling pathway, was down-regulated during liver fibrosis and associated with its hypermethylation status. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are reported to play a critical role in the control of various HSCs functions. However, miRNA-mediated epigenetic regulations in EMT during liver fibrosis are seldom studied. In this study, Salvianolic acid B (Sal B) suppressed the activation of HSCs in CCl4-treated mice and mouse primary HSCs, leading to inhibition of cell proliferation, type I collagen and alpha-smooth muscle actin. We demonstrated that the antifibrotic effects caused by Sal B were, at least in part, via inhibition of EMT and the Hh pathway. In particular, up-regulation of PTCH1 was associated with decreased DNA methylation level after Sal B treatment. Accordingly, DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) was attenuated by Sal B in vivo and in vitro. The knockdown of DNMT1 in Sal B-treated HSCs enhanced PTCH1 expression and its demethylation level. Interestingly, increased miR-152 in Sal B-treated cells was responsible for the hypomethylation of PTCH1 by Sal B. As confirmed by the luciferase activity assay, DNMT1 was a direct target of miR-152. Further studies showed that the miR-152 inhibitor reversed Sal B-mediated PTCH1 up-regulation and DNMT1 down-regulation. Collectively, miR-152 induced by Sal B, contributed to DNMT1 down-regulation and epigenetically regulated PTCH1, resulting in the inhibition of EMT in liver fibrosis.

Keywords: microRNA-152 ● hepatic stellate cells ● DNA methylation ● Patched1 ● DNA methyltransferase

Introduction

Liver fibrosis is a reversible wound-healing response to acute or chronic liver injury and is characterized by increased and altered deposition of extracellular matrix (ECM) components, predominantly collagens [1, 2]. Perpetuation of the fibrotic reaction can result in end-stage liver disease, cirrhosis and even hepatocellular carcinoma. The activation of hepatic stellate cells (HSCs) is a critical event in the development of liver fibrosis [3]. In addition, the activation of HSCs might be considered an epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) phenomenon, which is defined as the process whereby epithelial cells gradually lose their epithelial signatures, while acquiring the characteristics of mesenchymal cells [4]. In normal livers, HSCs are quiescent, vitamin A-storing, adipogenic cells and reside in the space Disse outside the liver sinusoids. When liver injury occurs, HSCs become activated and trans-differentiate into myofibroblast-like cells, leading to de novo expression of alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA) [5]. Recently, Choi et al. reported that leptin, a pro-EMT factor, promotes HSC trans-differentiation and liver fibrosis by activating the Hedgehog (Hh) pathway [6]. Therefore, controlling EMT progression in activated HSCs is considered a potential therapeutic target for liver fibrosis.

Salvianolic acid B (Sal B) (i.e., lithospermates B, C_{36}H_{30}O_{16}, molecular weight = 718 g), is a major water soluble component extracted from Radix Salviae miltiorrhizae and has been reported to be effective in ameliorating oxidative damage and eliminating reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation in hepatocytes [7]. Sal B has beneficial actions against hepatic fibrosis in animal models and patients with chronic hepatitis B [8, 9]. However, whether EMT can be suppressed by Sal B in HSCs is still not clear. Hh pathway activation is required for EMT in HSCs and blocking Hh pathway activation pre-
vents EMT and inhibits HSCs [10]. The Hh family mainly includes Sonic Hh, Patched1 (PTCH1), and the Smoothened (Smoo) and Gli family zinc finger (Gli), where PTCH1 is a negative regulatory factor of the Hh signalling pathway. Many studies have shown that abnormal PTCH1 expression is found in tumorigenesis [11]. Yang et al. found that the loss of PTCH1 expression was also involved in liver fibrosis, which is associated with its promoter methylation [12]. These findings suggest that the loss of PTCH1 expression caused by DNA methylation is involved in the development of liver fibrosis.

DNA methylation, a type of epigenetic modification in mammals, plays a crucial role in gene transcriptional regulation. DNA methylation is mainly catalysed by several known biologically active DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs): DNMT1, DNMT3a and DNMT3b [13]. DNMT1 is responsible for the maintenance of pre-existing DNA methylation patterns after replication, whereas DNMT3a and DNMT3b are responsible for de novo methylation. Once DNA methylation occurs, methyl-CpG-binding proteins such as MeCP2 bind to methylated DNA, leading to the silence of transcription of downstream genes by virtue of its interaction with a histone deacetylase/Sin3 complex [14].

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are endogenous small (18–22 nt) non-coding RNAs that have important roles in a wide range of biological processes, including cell proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis and metabolism [15]. They are known to regulate gene expression by base pairing with the 3′-untranslated region (3′-UTR) of target mRNAs [16, 17]. Emerging studies have indicated that abnormal miRNAs are involved in liver fibrosis [18, 19]. For example, overexpression of miR-29b led HSCs to remain in a quiescent state [20]. In acute myeloid leukaemia cells, miR-29b contributed to global DNA hypomethylation by directly targeting DNMT3a and DNMT3b and indirectly targeting DNMT1 [21]. Our previous study showed that miR-29b targeted DNMT3b, resulting in the restoration of epigenetically regulated phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10 (PTEN) [22]. However, using computer-aided algorithms such as TargetScan, miRanda and miRDB, DNMTs could be targeted by other miRNAs. Therefore, an investigation into the function and role of miRNAs in DNA methylation is warranted.

In this study, our results showed that Sal B suppressed liver fibrosis, at least in part, via EMT. We analysed PTCH1, Smo and Gli2 as well as EMT-related gene expression in vitro and in vivo after Sal B treatment. In addition, PTCH1 expression was associated with methylation of its promoter. We found that reduced DNMT1 caused by Sal B contributed to PTCH1 demethylation. Further study showed that miR-152 was involved in Sal B treatment and targeted DNMT1, as confirmed by luciferase activity assays. Our study aimed to investigate the mechanism underlying the increase in PTCH1 as a result of Sal B and the relationship between DNA methylation and miRNA.

Materials and methods

Materials

Sal B (purity 99%) was extracted and identified by the Chinese National Institute for the Control of Pharmaceutical and Biological Products (Beijing, China). Its molecular weight is 718, and its molecular formula is C_{20}H_{38}O_{18}. Carbon tetrachloride (CCl_{4}) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). Antibodies against DNMT3a, DNMT3b, type I collagen, α-SMA, E-cadherin, Vimentin, Desmin, PTCH1, Smo and Gli2 were obtained from Abcam (Cambridge, MA, USA). Antibodies targeting DNMT1 and Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA, USA). Chemically synthesized RNAs, including negative control (miR-NC), miR-152 mimics and miR-152 inhibitor, were obtained from GenePharma (Shanghai, China). For transfection, the cells were transfected with 1 μg of the chemically synthesized RNA.

Cells

Primary HSCs were isolated from 12- to 16-week-old male C57BL/6N mice (Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor, ME, USA) by pronase–collagenase digestion and subsequent purification by a single-step Nycodenz gradient, as previously described [23]. All animals received humane care, and the experimental protocol was approved by the Committee of Laboratory Animals according to institutional guidelines. Isolated HSCs were cultured on plastic dishes or glass chamber slides in DMEM (Sigma Chemical Co., St Louis, MO, USA) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 U/ml streptomycin. The purity of cultures was evaluated by observation of the characteristic stellate cell shape using phase-contrast microscopy. The primary HSCs were studied 4 days after isolation and treated with 10 μmol/l Sal B for 48 hrs [24]. This dose of Sal B was tested and considered a safe dose for treating cells. The cells were then harvested for RNA/miRNA isolation, and whole cell extracts were subjected to western blot analysis.

Animal treatment

Carbon tetrachloride-induced mouse liver fibrosis was generated in 8-week-old male C57BL/6J mice treated with CCl_{4} (CCl_{4}/olive oil, 1:9 (vol/ vol) per kg bw by intraperitoneal injection twice weekly for 8 weeks) as previously described [25]. Thirty mice were randomly divided into three groups. The mice in group 1 (n = 10) received twice weekly injections of olive oil plus oral PBS (vehicle control); mice in group 2 (n = 10) received twice weekly injections of CCl_{4} plus oral PBS (CCl_{4}-treated mice) and mice in group 3 (n = 10) received twice weekly injections of CCl_{4} plus oral Sal B (100 mg/kg) [26]. The animals were provided by the Experimental Animal Center of Wenzhou Medical University. One week prior to experimentation, the animals were acclimatized in a ventilated, temperature-controlled room (23 °C) with a 12-hrs light: 12-hrs dark cycle. All animals had free access to rodent chow and water. The animal experimental protocol was approved by the University Animal Care and Use Committee. Mice were killed under anaesthesia at the end of 8 weeks and the livers were removed for further analysis. The liver tissues were used for haematoxylin and eosin staining and Masson staining by fixation with 10% formalin [27].

Immunohistochemistry

Liver tissues were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin solution, embedded in paraffin and stained for routine histology. The sections
were dewaxed in xylene and dehydrated in alcohol; antigen retrieval was achieved by microwaving in citric saline for 15 min. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked by hydrogen peroxide pre-treatment for 15 min. and then further blocked using an avidin/biotin blocking kit, 3 drops/section for 20 min., with a PBS wash between each stage. The sections were incubated with primary antibody against α-SMA (1:100) for 20 hrs at 4°C. The sections were then incubated with biotinylated secondary antibody for 60 min. at room temperature. α-SMA expression was visualized by 3,3′-diaminobenzidine tetrahydrochloride staining. Slides were counterstained with hematoxylin before dehydration and mounting, and α-SMA-positive areas within the fibrotic region were then observed. α-SMA expression level was assessed by manual counting and was aided by analysis using Image-pro Plus 6.0 as described previously [28, 29]. The measurement parameter was integrated optical density (OD). α-SMA expression was determined by counting 1000 cells in each selected field. A minimum of five independent fields was evaluated for each liver slice.

Immunofluorescence microscopy

Primary HSCs were plated on 18-mm cover glasses in DMEM and incubated for 24 hrs. The primary HSCs were studied 4 days after isolation. The cells were then treated with Sal B for 48 hrs, washed with PBS and fixed in an acetic acid: ethanol (2:1) solution for 5 min. at −20°C. Non-specific binding was blocked with 5% goat and horse serum/PBS for 1 hr at room temperature, and the cells were then incubated with primary antibodies against Desmin, Vimentin or E-cadherin (Abcam) in a humidified chamber. After washing twice in PBS, the cells were incubated with fluorescein-labelled secondary antibody (1:50 dilution; Dako, Hamburg, Germany) in antibody dilution solution for 1 hr at room temperature in the dark. The nuclei were stained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) in the dark for 30 min. at room temperature. The cells were then treated with Sal B for an additional 48 hrs. The following siRNA sequences were used: PTCH1 siRNA (mouse), 5′-AAUAAUAGAGUCUGACUAAACUU-3′ (sense) and 5′-GUUUCAGGACUCUUGAUUAUAA-3′ (anti-sense); DNMT1 siRNA1 (mouse), 5′-UUCUCGUUUUGCAAGAAUCAU-3′ (sense) and 5′-GAAUUUGCUGGAAACACAAAGAAU-3′ (anti-sense); negative control siRNA having no perfect matches to known mouse genes), 5′-UUCUCCGAAACGUUCGCAATT-3′ (sense) and 5′-ACGUGACACG-GUUCGGAGAATTT-3′ (antisense).

Wound healing assay

The primary HSCs were studied 4 days after isolation and cultured in a monolayer in the absence (control group) or presence (Sal B group) of Sal B for 24 hrs. After 4 hrs of incubation, wounds were made by scratching through the cell monolayer with a sterile 200-µl pipette tip, followed by washing with medium to remove cellular debris [31]. Three wounds were made in the dish. Twenty-four hours after wounding, phase-contrast images at three wound sites along the scratch were examined and photographed using a microscope at ×100. Migrating cells on the lower membrane surface were fixed, stained, photographed and counted using a microscope at ×100. Experiments were assayed in triplicate, and ≥5 fields were counted in each experiment.

RNA interference analysis

RNA interference experiments were performed before treatment with Sal B using Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Small interfering RNA (siRNA) oligonucleotides against DNMT1, PTCH1 or scrambled sequences were synthesized by GenePharma. Primary HSCs were transfected with 10 nM DNMT1 or PTCH1 siRNA for 48 hrs, and then treated with Sal B for an additional 48 hrs. The following siRNA sequences were used: PTCH1 siRNA (mouse), 5′-AAUAAUAGAGUCUGACUAAACUU-3′ (sense) and 5′-GUUUCAGGACUCUUGAUUAUAA-3′ (anti-sense); DNMT1 siRNA1 (mouse), 5′-UUCUCGUUUUGCAAGAAUCAU-3′ (sense) and 5′-GAAUUUGCUGGAAACACAAAGAAU-3′ (anti-sense); negative control siRNA having no perfect matches to known mouse genes), 5′-UUCUCCGAAACGUUCGCAATT-3′ (sense) and 5′-ACGUGACACG-GUUCGGAGAATTT-3′ (antisense).

Quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was extracted from mouse primary cells and liver tissues using the miRNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). In addition, 50 ng of total RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using the ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Kit (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan) in accordance with the manufacturer’s instructions. Gene expression was measured by real-time PCR using cDNA, SYBR Green real-time PCR Master Mix (Toyobo, and a set of gene-specific oligonucleotide primers (alpha-1 (I) collagen (transforming growth factor β1, TGF-β1); forward 5′-AGCTGGAAACCCGAGGTATG-3′; reverse 5′-CTTGGGTCCTCGACTCTCTA-3′; α-SMA: forward 5′-CTCCA TCGTCCACCGCAAAT-3′, reverse 5′-AGGCCG GCTACAAGTAAAG-3′; Desmin: forward 5′-TTGTCACGGAGGCTACACAG-3′, reverse 5′-GGCTGG GTTGTATCTCGAGG-3′; Vimentin: forward 5′-AGCCTGCTCAGGAGG-3′, reverse 5′-GTCCAGCCTGCAACG-3′; E-cadherin: forward 5′-CAGAGATCTCTGCGACG-3′, reverse 5′-TGTTATGCTGCCCTGCTC-3′; PTCH1: forward 5′-AGAGCTCTCAAGTACACT-3′, Smo: forward 5′-CAAGACTCTGGGCTCTAT-3′, reverse 5′-ATGGAGGCTTACCAATCTG-3′; Gli2: forward 5′-TGAGCAGAACAT ACGCCCCCTG-3′, reverse 5′-AGCAGAGAG GATGCCCCCCTA-3′; NTDM1: forward 5′-GGTGGTGCTACGACTGAGG-3′, reverse 5′-GGSSCTA GCCCATTTGATGTT-3′; NTDM3a: forward 5′-TGGGGGTCTCCAGTGT-3′, reverse 5′-GAAGCAG AAAGGACAGGG-3′; NTDM3b: forward 5′-C GAAAGCCCCAAAATAG-3′, reverse 5′-TGCGGTTG TTGTTGGTACT-3′, reverse 5′-AGCTTCAGTCCGTTG-3′; GAPDH: forward 5′-ACTCTTCAC ATCTGAGCC-3′, reverse 5′-GGGCTC TCTGTCAGTGC-3′; U6: forward 5′-C TGCTGGCAGCAACA-3′, reverse 5′-AAGCCGTTAACGATTGG-3′). To detect miR-148a, miR-148b and miR-152 expression, the RT reaction was performed using the TaqMan MicroRNA Assay (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. The GAPDH and U6 snRNA (Applied Biosystems) levels were measured and used to normalize the relative abundance of miRNAs and mRNAs, respectively. The expression levels (2−ΔΔCT) of miRNAs were calculated as described previously [32].
Chromatin immunoprecipitation assays linked to promoter arrays

The DNMT1 antibody (ab87656) for chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) analysis was purchased from Abcam. Chromatin immunoprecipitation analysis was performed using a ChIP assay kit (Upstate Biotechnology, Lake Placid, NY, USA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, cells transfected with DNMT1 siRNA or miR-152 inhibitor and the controls were crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde for 10 min. Chromatin was sonicated to generate 200–1000 bp DNA fragments. Protein-DNA complexes were immunoprecipitated with 5 μg DNMT1 antibody. The DNA-protein crosslinks were reversed by heating at 65°C for 4 hrs, and then DNA were purified. Standard PCR reactions were performed with primer sequences specific for the PTCH1 promoter. The primers used for PTCH1 promoter were 5'-CTTGAGGCCAAAGTGCTCT-3' and 5'-AGCTGCTTAGCAACAGCTCA-3'.

Methylation analysis

Patched1 CpG island was searched in UCSC Genome Browser. About 0.5 μg genomic DNA was treated with sodium bisulphite and subjected to PCR. The PTCH1 primers for PCR were 5'-CTGGGAATTCAAGCCGGACC-3' and 5'-TCTTCTGCTACGGGACGCT-3'. The bisulphite-sequencing analysis was carried out as described previously [33].

Western blot analysis

Protein concentration was determined using a Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Beyotime Biotechnology, Jiangsu, China). Equal amounts of protein were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and then transferred onto an Immobilon-P membrane. The membrane was blocked with 5% non-fat milk in Tris Buffered Saline with Tween 20 (TBST) at room temperature for 1 hr and then incubated with primary antibodies, followed by peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies (Fuzhou Maixin Biological Technology Co., Ltd., Fujian, China). The antigen-antibody complex was developed by enhanced chemiluminescence, exposed in the dark room and analysed for integral absorbance of the protein bands using the quantitative software, Quantity One 4.4 (Bio-Rad, CA, USA).

Proliferation and apoptosis assays

Cell proliferation was determined by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay according to the instructions of the MTT cell proliferation assay kit (Beyotime Biotechnology). The optical density was measured at 570 nm on a microplate reader (Bio-Rad 550; Bio-Rad, CA, USA). The activity of Caspase 3 was determined using the Caspase 3 activity kit (Beyotime Biotechnology). Cell lysates were prepared after their respective treatment. The cells were then scraped, centrifuged, resuspended and lysed in lysis buffer according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Assays were performed in 96-well microtiter plates by incubating 10 μl protein of cell lysate per sample in 80 μl reaction buffer (1% NP-40, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 137 mM Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) and 10% glycerol) containing 10 μl 2 mM Caspase3 substrate (Ac-DEVD-pNA). Lysates were incubated at 37°C for 4 hrs. Absorbance of the samples was then measured using by a microplate reader (Bio-Rad 550; Bio-Rad) at 405 nm, according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

Luciferase activity assay

The cells were transiently transfected with 0.5 μg of reporter plasmids alone or cotransfected with or without miRNA mimics or miR-NC using Lipofectamine 2000 according to the manufacturer’s protocol (Invitrogen). The activities of reporter genes with Renilla luciferase and the internal standard firefly luciferase were quantified by a Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). Independent triplicate experiments were carried out for each plasmid construct.

Statistical analysis

Data from at least three independent experiments were expressed as the mean ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed using Student’s t-test and P < 0.05 was considered significant. All statistical analyses were performed with SPSS software (version 13; SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

Results

Sal B ameliorated liver fibrosis induced by CCl4 in mice

A major pathogenic feature of fibrotic diseases is the excessive and disorganized deposition of collagens. CCl4 induced increased collagen levels in liver sections of mice and is the most commonly used hepatotoxic reagent to induce liver fibrosis. To assess the severity of liver fibrosis in mice, hematoxylin and eosin and Masson staining were performed on liver tissues from this CCl4 liver fibrosis model. As indicated in hematoxylin and eosin and Masson staining, CCl4 caused prominent hepatic steatosis, necrosis, and the formation of regenerative nodules in mouse liver tissues (Fig. 1A). In addition, as shown in immunohistochemical images, CCl4 increased α-SMA level in CCl4-treated mice (Fig. 1B). In contrast, these effects were reversed by Sal B. To further confirm the inhibitory effects of Sal B on liver fibrosis, the mRNA and protein levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were analysed in liver tissues by real-time PCR and Western blot, respectively. It was found that CCl4-enhanced levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were attenuated by Sal B (Fig. 1C–F). These results indicated that Sal B ameliorated liver fibrosis induced by CCl4.

The effect of Sal B in mouse primary HSCs during spontaneous activation

At day 1 of culture after isolation, mouse HSCs adhered to plastic plates and exhibited round cell bodies with numerous lipid
Fig. 1 Effects of Sal B on carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄)-induced liver fibrosis in mice. (A) Hematoxylin and eosin staining (×100) and Masson staining (×100) for assessing liver fibrosis. (B) The level of alpha-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA) was analysed by immunohistochemistry in CCl₄ mice after Sal B treatment. Representative views from each group are presented (original magnification, ×10). The mRNA levels of α-SMA (C) and Col1A1 (E) were detected in CCl₄ mice after Sal B treatment. The protein levels of α-SMA (D) and type I collagen (F) were detected in CCl₄ mice after Sal B treatment. GAPDH was used as internal control. *P < 0.05 compared to the control and #P < 0.05 compared to the model. Each value is the mean ± SD of three experiments.
Fig. 2 Effects of Sal B in mouse primary hepatic stellate cells (HSCs). (A) Phase-contrast microscopy. HSCs were isolated from mouse liver (Day 1) and cultured for the indicated periods. Scale bar 100 μm. Black arrows indicated quiescent HSC phenotype and activated HSC phenotype, respectively, in Day 1 and Day 4 (7). (B) The mRNA levels of α-SMA and Col1A1 were analysed by real-time PCR. *P < 0.05 compared to Day 1. (C) The protein levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were analysed by Western blot. GAPDH was used as internal control. *P < 0.05 compared to Day 1. (D) The mRNA levels of α-SMA and Col1A1 were inhibited by Sal B, which were reversed by Patched1 (PTCH1) siRNA. *P < 0.05 compared to Day 4 and #P < 0.05 compared to Sal B group. The primary HSCs were studied 4 days after isolation and treated with Sal B for 48 hrs. (E) The protein levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were reduced by Sal B, which were reversed by PTCH1 siRNA. GAPDH was used as internal control. *P < 0.05 compared to Day 4 and #P < 0.05 compared to Sal B group. (F) Cell proliferation was determined by the MTT assay. (G) Cell apoptosis was determined by Caspase3 activity assay. The primary HSCs were studied 4 days after isolation. Primary HSCs were transfected with PTCH1 siRNA, DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) siRNA or miR-152 inhibitor for 48 hrs and treated with Sal B for an additional 48 hrs. *P < 0.05 compared to the control and #P < 0.05 compared to Sal B group. Each value is the mean ± SD of three experiments.
droplets. During subsequent culture, the cell bodies began to gradually spread and flatten, and cell sizes increased with the loss of lipid droplets, contributing to the formation of the activated myofibroblastic phenotype (Fig. 2A). Consistent with the changes in cell appearance, the mRNA expression levels of α-SMA and Col1A1 were markedly increased at Days 4 and 7 of culture when compared with Day 1 (Fig. 2B). Consistent with the results of mRNA expression levels, immunoblot analysis showed that the protein expression levels of type I collagen and α-SMA were also enhanced in mouse primary HSCs during culture (Fig. 2C). α-SMA is a marker of HSCs activation. We found that mouse primary HSCs at Day 4 were in an activated state and were used in subsequent experiments. To test the effect of Sal B in mouse primary HSCs during spontaneous activation, the mRNA and protein levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were analysed in mouse primary HSCs by real-time PCR and Western blot, respectively. It was found that the levels of α-SMA and type I collagen were suppressed by Sal B when compared with the control (Fig. 2D and E). We next investigated the effects of Sal B on cell growth and cell apoptosis using MTT and caspase 3 activity assays, respectively. The results revealed that cells treated with Sal B had significantly decreased cell proliferation at 48 hrs (Fig. 2F). Of note, caspase 3 activity was increased 3.25-fold in Sal B-treated cells when compared with untreated cells (Fig. 2G). These results indicated that Sal B suppressed progression of liver fibrosis in vitro.

**Fig. 3** Effects of Sal B on epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) in vitro and in vivo. The primary hepatic stellate cells (HSCs) were studied 4 days after isolation and treated with Sal B for 48 hrs. (A) Immunofluorescence staining for desmin (green), vimentin (red) and E-cadherin (red) were evaluated by confocal laser microscopy. 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) stained nuclei blue. Scale bar, 50 μm. (B) The mRNA levels of desmin, vimentin and E-cadherin were reduced by Sal B. *P < 0.05 compared to the control. (C) The protein levels of desmin, vimentin and E-cadherin were inhibited by Sal B. GAPDH was used as internal control. *P < 0.05 compared to the control. (D) The mRNA levels of desmin, vimentin and E-cadherin in carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄) mice were reduced after Sal B treatment. *P < 0.05 compared to the model. (E) The protein levels of desmin, vimentin and E-cadherin in CCl₄ mice were inhibited after Sal B treatment. GAPDH was used as internal control. *P < 0.05 compared to the model. Each value is the mean ± SD of three experiments.

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Sal B attenuates liver fibrosis by inhibiting EMT

To confirm whether EMT was involved in the effects of Sal B, the levels of EMT markers were analysed in primary HSCs by immunofluorescence analysis. The results of immunofluorescence analysis showed that the expression of desmin and vimentin was markedly attenuated by Sal B, whereas E-cadherin expression was significantly increased by Sal B (Fig. 3A). To further assess the role of Sal B in EMT, the levels of desmin, vimentin and E-cadherin were determined in vitro and in vivo. Compared with untreated cells, the mRNA levels of desmin and vimentin were reduced by approximately 60–70% after Sal B treatment, whereas the mRNA levels of E-cadherin were increased 3.15-fold (Fig. 3B). In addition, Sal B treatment significantly reduced the protein levels of desmin and vimentin to 35.0% and 41.0% respectively (Fig. 3C). The protein levels of E-cadherin were also elevated by approximately threefold in Sal B-treated cells (Fig. 3C). Similar results were also observed in vivo. The mRNA and protein levels of desmin and vimentin were also decreased in liver tissues from CCl4-treated mice after Sal B treatment compared to those from model mice (Fig. 3D and E). The mRNA and protein levels of E-cadherin were enhanced in vivo after Sal B treatment (Fig. 3D and E). We next studied the effect of Sal B on cell migration, and both wound healing and transwell migration assays were performed after incubation with control medium or medium supplemented with Sal B for 48 hrs. Our results showed that HSCs migration was significantly reduced (Fig. 4A and B). These data suggest that EMT is suppressed by Sal B.

The Hedgehog signalling pathway is inactivated in liver fibrosis after Sal B treatment

It has been established that EMT is regulated by the Hh pathway in many cell types, including adult HSCs [10, 34]. To investigate whether the Hh signalling pathway is involved in the effects of Sal B, real-time PCR and immunoblot analysis were performed to detect Hh-related genes, including PTCH1, Smo and Gli2. Compared with untreated cells, the level of PTCH1 was increased approximately threefold after Sal B treatment. In addition, the levels of Smo and Gli2 were reduced by approximately 60–80% after Sal B treatment (Fig. 5A and B). Similar results were also found in vivo. Activation of the Hh signalling pathway caused by CCl4 was reversed by Sal B (Fig. 5C and D).

Sal B treatment induced the demethylation of DNMT1-mediated PTCH1 gene

It has been reported that hypermethylation of PTCH1 is associated with the perpetuation of fibroblast activation and fibrosis in the liver [12]. As shown in Figure 5A and B, PTCH1 levels were enhanced after Sal B treatment in vivo and in vitro. To verify whether the methylation status of the PTCH1 promoter was responsible for reduced PTCH1 expression, we examined the methylation level at 15 CpG sites within the CpG island in the PTCH1 locus by bisulphite-sequencing analysis (Fig. 6A). The average rate of methylation was 61.3% in CCl4-treated mice after Sal B treatment compared to those from model mice (Fig. 3D and E). The mRNA and protein levels of desmin and vimentin were also decreased in liver tissues from CCl4-treated mice after Sal B treatment compared to those from model mice (Fig. 3D and E). The mRNA and protein levels of E-cadherin were enhanced in vivo after Sal B treatment (Fig. 3D and E). We next studied the effect of Sal B on cell migration, and both wound healing and transwell migration assays were performed after incubation with control medium or medium supplemented with Sal B for 48 hrs. Our results showed that HSCs migration was significantly reduced (Fig. 4A and B). These data suggest that EMT is suppressed by Sal B.
mice and was 12.7% in control mice (Fig. 6B). Of note, Sal B treatment reversed DNA methylation of PTCH1 caused by CCl4, which was only 20.7% in the Sal B group. This was also observed in mouse primary HSCs. The average rate of methylation was 51.3% in control cells, which was reduced to 26.7% in primary HSCs with Sal B treatment for 48 hrs (Fig. 6C). To further confirm the role of PTCH1 in the effect of Sal B, α-SMA and type I collagen levels were examined in primary HSCs with PTCH1 siRNA. As shown in Figure 2D and E, the inhibitory effects of Sal B on α-SMA and type I collagen were reversed by the silencing of PTCH1 expression. Furthermore, the silencing of PTCH1 expression blocked the effects of Sal B on cell growth and apoptosis (Fig. 2F and G). Taken together, our results indicate that PTCH1 induced by Sal B plays a vital role in the suppression of activated HSCs. Notably, compared with untreated cells, the silencing of PTCH1 expression alone increased cell proliferation and reduced cell apoptosis (Fig. 2F and G). These data also suggest that Sal B treatment caused significant suppression of cell proliferation, at least in part, via enhanced cell apoptosis. We then analysed whether DNMTs were involved in the loss of PTCH1 methylation by Sal B. Our results showed that the level of DNMT1 was obviously reduced in primary HSCs and CCl4-treated mice, respectively, whereas DNMT3a and DNMT3b levels were not affected by Sal B treatment in vivo and in vitro (Fig. 7A–D). To further verify the role of DNMT1 in Sal B-induced PTCH1 expression, DNMT1 siRNA was transfected into Sal B-treated HSCs, and the expression of PTCH1, Smo and Gli2 was examined. We found that the DNA methylation level of PTCH1 was further down-regulated after DNMT1 siRNA treatment, and was only 15.3% (Fig. 6C). Consistent with this, DNMT1 knockdown caused a higher PTCH1 level with lower levels of Smo and Gli2 in Sal B-treated HSCs (Fig. 5A and B). We also found that DNMT1 siRNA enhanced the effects of Sal B on cell growth and apoptosis (Fig. 2F and G). Furthermore, ChIP assay showed that binding of DNMT1 and MeCP2 in the PTCH1 CpG island promoter was significantly decreased in cells transfected with DNMT1 siRNA as compared with those in control cells (Fig. 7E). Taken together, these observations indicate that hypermethylation at the promoter region of PTCH1 was associated with DNMT1 activity.

miR-152 is involved in Sal B-induced PTCH1 expression and targeted DNMT1

Recently, it was reported that the miR-29 family could induce global DNA hypomethylation by targeting DNMTs, including DNMT1,
DNMT3a and DNMT3b. However, the miR-29 family, including miR-29a, miR-29b and miR-29c was not affected by Sal B treatment in vivo and in vitro (data not shown). Using the computer-aided algorithms, TargetScan, miRanda and miRDB, we predicted a group of miRNAs that have sequence complementarity to the 3'-UTR of DNMT1, namely miR-148a, miR-148b and miR-152. We found that miR-152 expression, but not miR-148a and miR-148b expressions, was obviously increased by Sal B (Fig. 8A). Similar results were also observed in vivo (Fig. 8B). Next, we generated a DNMT1 3'-UTR luciferase reporter containing the miR-152-binding sites (DNMT1 wild-type 3'-UTR) or mutated sites (DNMT1 Mu 3'-UTR) (Fig. 8C). DNMT1 wild-type 3'-UTR luciferase activity in 293T cells and mouse primary HSCs was reduced by miR-152 transfection, whereas DNMT1 Mu 3'-UTR activity was not affected (Fig. 8D). These results suggested that DNMT1 was a direct target of miR-152.

Overexpression of miR-152 inhibited DNMT1 expression, contributing to demethylation of the PTCH1 promoter

To examine the role of miR-152 in the demethylation of PTCH1 gene, miR-152 mimics was transfected into mouse primary...
HSCs and the methylation level of PTCH1 was examined by bisulphite-sequencing analysis. Our results showed that the average rate of methylation was 52.0% in control cells, which was reduced to 22.7% in cells with miR-152 mimics (Fig. 9A). We determined the role of miR-152 in the effects of Sal B on DNMT1 and PTCH1 expression. We found that the reduction in DNMT1 and the increase in PTCH1 caused by Sal B were reversed by the miR-152 inhibitor (Fig. 9B and C). These data show that miR-152 inhibitor resulted in a significant increase in DNMT1 expression at both the mRNA and protein levels, indicating miR-152 is involved in both DNMT1 mRNA degradation and post-transcriptional regulation. In addition, ChIP assay demonstrated that binding of DNMT1 and MeCP2 in the PTCH1 CpG island promoter was significantly enhanced in cells transfected with the miR-152 inhibitor as compared with those in control cells (Fig. 7F). Of note, the miR-152 inhibitor markedly blocked the effects of Sal B on cell growth and apoptosis (Fig. 2F and G). In summary, increased miR-152 level caused by Sal B targeted and inhibited DNMT1 expression, leading to demethylation of the PTCH1 promoter.

**Discussion**

In cultured HSCs, the transition from quiescent HSCs to myofibroblastic cells is associated with down-regulation of bone morphogenetic protein 7 (BMP7), Id2, desmoplakin, and E-cadherin expression, and concomitant up-regulation of TGF-β1, snail, vimentin, fibronectin, α-SMA, matrix metallopeptidases (MMPs), and type I collagen [6]. Therefore, the generation of myofibroblastic cells from quiescent HSCs involves EMT, which can be promoted by Hh pathway activation. Patched1, a membrane-spanning receptor on Hh-responsive cells, interacts with Hh ligands in the presence of Hh ligands. This interaction prevents PTCH1 from inhibiting its co-receptor, Smo, which initiates and activates Glis, leading to activation downstream of the Hh pathway. In addition, reduced Hh signalling contributed to a reduction in HSC proliferation and enhancement of cell apoptosis [35, 36]. In this study, we found that Sal B treatment inhibited the activation of HSCs including HSC proliferation, ECM production and α-SMA expression, and enhanced cell apoptosis. Of note, Sal B attenuated liver fibrosis.
in vitro and in vivo, at least in part, via EMT. The inhibition of EMT in cultured mouse primary HSCs and CCl4-treated mice is associated with suppression of the Hh pathway. Sal B reduced Smo and Gli2 expression, and enhanced PTCH1 expression. The increase in PTCH1 played a vital role in the antifibrotic effects of Sal B and was associated with DNA methylation. Moreover, hypermethylation of PTCH1 in activated HSCs was inhibited by Sal B through the regulation of miR-152 and DNMT1. As a result of PTCH1 demethylation in activated HSCs, PTCH1 expression was restored, leading to the inhibition of activated HSCs. DNMT1 was involved in the formation of PTCH1 methylation and confirmed as a target of miR-152. Accordingly, DNMT1 was attenuated by Sal B-induced miR-152. Our results suggest that miRNA-mediated control of DNA methylation was involved in EMT and a novel antifibrotic mechanism of Sal B (Fig. 10).

Sal B has been reported to inhibit HSCs activation and type I collagen expression. Tao et al. found that Sal B significantly inhibited collagen deposition, reduced Hyp content, and decreased the expression of TGF-β1 and TGF-β receptor I (TβRI) in dimethylnitrosamine-induced liver fibrosis [24]. Accordingly, Sal B contributed to the reduction in α-SMA and TβRI, and inhibited Smad3 nuclear translocation in cultured HSCs. Their studies showed that Sal B could prevent HSCs activation through the TGF-β signalling pathway. In addition, Li et al. showed that Sal B attenuated rat hepatic fibrosis by downregulating angiotensin II signalling [37]. A recent study indicated that Sal B has potential protective effects on renal fibrosis by suppressing EMT [38]. However, the epigenetic regulation of EMT caused by Sal B in activated HSCs has never been investigated. In this study, Sal B induced the suppression of activated HSCs including ECM production, α-SMA and TβRI, and inhibited Smad3 nuclear translocation in cultured HSCs. Their studies showed that Sal B could prevent HSCs activation through the TGF-β signalling pathway. In addition, Li et al. showed that Sal B attenuated rat hepatic fibrosis by downregulating angiotensin II signalling [37]. A recent study indicated that Sal B has potential protective effects on renal fibrosis by suppressing EMT [38]. However, the epigenetic regulation of EMT caused by Sal B in activated HSCs has never been investigated. In this study, Sal B induced the suppression of activated HSCs including ECM production, α-SMA and HSC proliferation, which was reversed by PTCH1 siRNA. These results indicated that the loss of PTCH1 expression had potential protective effects on liver fibrosis, which was in accordance with Yang’s findings [12]. They revealed that the expression and methylation status of PTCH1 is associated with the perpetuation of fibroblast activation and fibrosis in the liver. PTCH1 expression could also be restored by the knockdown of MeCP2 or the DNMTs inhibitor, 5-aza-2′-deoxycytidine, whereas the DNMTs involved in PTCH1 promoter hypermethylation are still unclear. In this study, as confirmed by ChIP, PTCH1 promoter methylation was the result of DNMT1 activity. In our previous study, it was found that curcumin induced PTEN hypomethylation via the down-regulation of DNMT3b [22]. Therefore, it is possible that different gene promoters may be regulated by different DNMTs.

MicroRNAs can induce global DNA hypomethylation by targeting DNMTs, suggesting that miRNAs play a critical role in the control of DNA methylation. For example, the miR-29 family caused global DNA hypomethylation by targeting DNMTs in acute
myeloid leukaemia cells [21]. In addition, our previous study showed that PTEN expression was enhanced by miR-29b by targeting DNMT3b [22]. However, miR-29 family levels were not affected by Sal B treatment in this study. Here, we demonstrated that DNMT1 was regulated by miR-152 in activated mouse HSCs, as confirmed by luciferase activity assays. Of note, miR-152 was up-regulated in vivo and in vitro after Sal B treatment. MiR-152 overexpression caused the demethylation of PTCH1. Further study indicated that the effects of increased PTCH1 and reduced DNMT1 level induced by Sal B treatment were blocked by the miR-152 inhibitor. Due to the silencing of miR-152, the expression of DNMT1 was restored. As confirmed by ChIP, PTCH1 methylation caused by DNMT1 activity was enhanced by the miR-152 inhibitor. These data suggest that miR-152 has a key role in the control of DNMT1 during liver fibrosis.

Recent studies have shown that miR-152 is involved in diverse biological functions and in the development of disease. For example, overexpression of miR-152 suppresses cell proliferation and colony formation in liver cancer stem cells [39]. Huang et al. reported that reduced miR-152 expression by HCV core protein can indirectly prevent an inhibitory effect on Wnt1, which might, at least partially lead to proliferation of liver cancer cells [40]. However, the role of miR-152 in liver fibrosis is seldom studied. In this study, we first confirmed the antifibrotic role of miR-152 in liver fibrosis. We found that the effects of increased cell apoptosis and reduced cell proliferation by Sal B treatment were blocked by the miR-152 inhibitor. Using the computer-aided algorithms, TargetScan, miRanda and miRDB, α-SMA, Col1A1, desmin, vimentin, E-cadherin, PTCH1, Smo and Gli2 were not predicted as miR-152 target genes, suggesting that miR-152 does not directly regulate these genes. We demonstrated that miR-152 level induced by Sal B reduced the methylation of PTCH1 and increased its expression in activated HSCs, leading to inhibition of the Hh pathway. The results also indicated that miR-152 could indirectly suppress EMT in activated HSCs via its target DNMT1 and the methylation status of PTCH1. However, the mechanism of the direct regulation of miR-152 by Sal B is still not clear, and further studies are warranted.

Collectively, our results demonstrate that Sal B can induce miR-152, leading to the silencing of DNMT1 and PTCH1 demethylation, which inhibits the Hh pathway and contributes to the suppression of EMT in activated HSCs. These results also indicate a new antifibrotic mechanism of Sal B and provide a new insight into miRNAs-mediated epigenetic mechanisms involving EMT in liver fibrosis.

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Conflicts of interest
The authors confirm that there are no conflicts of interest.

Author contribution
Fujun Yu and Jianjian Zheng designed the study; Fujun Yu, Bicheng Chen and Xiaoli Wu performed the research and wrote the article; Peihong Dong and Jianjian Zheng reviewed and edited the manuscript; Zhongqiu Lu and Peihong Dong participated in data processing and statistical analyses.
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