Research paper

HBV-encoded miR-2 functions as an oncogene by downregulating TRIM35 but upregulating RAN in liver cancer cells

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A B S T R A C T

Background: Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection has been well established as a high-risk factor for the carcinogenesis of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Cellular microRNA (miRNA) is involved in tumorigenesis by accelerating the malignant phenotype in HCC. However, whether HBV can encode miRNAs that contribute to HCC is not entirely clear.

Methods: In this study, an miRNA encoded by HBV (HBV-miR-2) was identified by Solexa sequencing in HBV-positive HCC specimens and further verified in serum samples from HCC patients with HBV infection and in HBV-positive HCC cell lines. To evaluate the roles of HBV-miR-2 in liver cancer cells, we determined cell viability and migration/invasion ability by gain-of-function experiment in HBV(−) liver cancer cells (HepG2 and Huh7) and loss-of-function experiments in Huh7 cells stably expressing HBV-miR-2 (Huh7/HBV-miR-2 cells) and HepG2.2.15 cells. Furthermore, to elucidate the mechanism by which HBV-miR-2 work on cell malignancy, we identified and studied the effect of two target genes (TRIM35 and RAN) of HBV-miR-2 in liver cancer cells.

Findings: We revealed that HBV-miR-2 promoted HCC cell growth ability by suppressing apoptosis and promoting migration and invasion by enhancing the epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), functioning as an oncogene in the development of HBV-related HCC. Furthermore, we demonstrated that HBV-miR-2 suppresses the expression of TRIM35 but enhances RAN expression by targeting their 3′-untranslated regions (3′UTR) and that the ectopic expression of TRIM35 or knockdown of RAN counteracted the malignant phenotypes induced by HBV-miR-2.

Interpretation: Our findings indicate that an HBV-encoded miRNA, HBV-miR-2, promotes oncogenic activity by downregulating TRIM35 and upregulating RAN expression in liver cancer cells, likely providing insight into tumorigenesis in HBV-related liver cancer.

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Abbreviations

| Abbreviation | Description |
|--------------|-------------|
| ASO | antisense oligonucleotides |
| FBS | fetal bovine serum |
| EGFP | enhanced green fluorescent protein |
| EMT | epithelial-mesenchymal transition |
| miRNA | micro ribonucleic acid |
| MTT | methyl thiazolyl tetrazolium |
| pre-miRNA | precursor microRNA |
| pri-miRNA | primary microRNA |
| TRIM35 | tripartite motif containing 35 |
| RAN | ras-related nuclear protein; short hairpin RNA |
| shRNA | short hairpin RNA |

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Research in context

Evidence before this study

There are documented evidences that viruses can also encode miRNAs and that they play an important role in pathogenesis. Recently, we identified HBV-encoded miRNAs (HBV-miR) and revealed that HBV-miR (HBV-miR-3) regulates viral replication. Due to HBV association with liver cancer, we also wondered whether HBV-encoded miRNA is involved in HCC tumorigenesis.

Added value of this study

We demonstrated that HBV encodes a miRNA (HBV-miR-2) that promotes oncogenic activities in liver cancer cells, which insight into new mechanism by which HBV is involved in tumorigenesis and might provide new biomarkers for liver cancer.

Implications of all the available evidence

We first revealed HBV-encoded miRNA contributes the tumorigenesis in liver cancer and propose HBV-miR-2 and their targets as potential biomarkers for development of clinical diagnosis and treatment approach for liver cancer.

1. Introduction

Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is one of the most prevalent cancers, ranking fifth in the incidence rate and third in mortality worldwide [1]. Although there are different pathogenic causes of HCC, almost 50% of HCC cases are associated with hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection [1]. Recent studies have shown that HBV contributes to hepatocarcinogenesis by promoting the malignant phenotype through viral proteins. For example, HBV preS2 can promote TAZ expression to enhance the tumorigenesis of hepatocellular carcinoma [2]. In addition, HBV X protein (HBx) is a multifunctional regulatory protein and plays a crucial role in hepatocellular carcinogenesis by regulating cellular factors, which can participate in processes such as transcriptional activation [3], epigenetic regulation [4], viral replication [5] and DNA repair [6]. For instance, C-terminally truncated HBx can cause C-Jun/MMP10 activation, resulting in a significant reduction of cell invasiveness in hepatocellular carcinoma [7]. HBx can upregulate forkhead box M1 (FoxM1) expression and promote cancer metastasis, indicating a poor prognosis in HBV-related HCC [8].

In addition to HBV proteins, noncoding RNAs, especially microRNAs (miRNAs) in the host, have been reported to be regulated by HBV genes and contribute to the pathogenesis of HCC [9]. For instance, the let-7 family has been found to have a significant inverse correlation with HBx expression in HCC patients. The HBx-mediated downregulation of let-7a promotes cell proliferation in HBV cells [10] and miR-34a-CCL22 signaling-induced Treg cell recruitment promotes the venous metastasis of HBV-positive hepatocellular carcinoma [11]. Our previous report indicated that HBx-induced miR-1269b promotes proliferation and migration in hepatoma cells in an NF-κB-dependent manner by regulating the cell division cycle 40 homolog (CDC40) [12] and that cellular miR-199α-3p and miR-210 target HBV transcripts to repress HBV replication [13].

In addition to the host miRNAs that regulate HBV-associated HCC, whether HBV can encode miRNAs that are involved in HCC pathogenesis has provoked our interest. Pfeffer S. et al. first identified viral-encoded miRNA from Epstein-Barr viral-encoded miRNA in 2004 [14]. Until now, 502 viral-encoded mature miRNAs have been identified from 29 viruses, and viral miRNAs seemed low compared to mammalian cellular miRNAs (http://www.mirbase.org/cgi-bin/browse.pl). Some of them were shown to be involved in carcinogenesis and immune function. For instance, Epstein-Barr viral-encoded EBV-miR-BART7-3p has been shown to enhance the migration/invasion and cancer metastasis of nasal pharyngeal cancer cells by targeting a major human tumor suppressor, PTEN [15]. Kaposí’s sarcoma-associated herpesvirus miRNAs have been shown to restore cell cycle progression and inhibit apoptosis [16]. Cui et al. [17] found that the herpes virus 1 (HSV-1) genome can encode 13 precursors of miRNAs, which may be involved in the process of HSV infection. In cells infected with MDV (Marek’s disease virus) or tumors caused by MDV, northern blot analysis confirmed the expression of eight specific miRNAs, which may influence the development of diseases [18]. HIV has evolved to use viral miRNAs to regulate the cellular milieu for its progression [19].

HBV infection is tightly associated with the development of HCC, and many researchers have begun to investigate the relationship between miRNA, HBV replication and HBV-associated diseases. For example, miR-125 and miR-199 family members play an important role in HBV replication and HBV-associated disease, including the development of HBV-associated HCC [20]. miR-28-5p has been shown to be downregulated and correlated with tumor metastasis, recurrence and poor survival [21]. Recently, we identified HBV-encoded miRNA by deep sequencing and serial experiments and found that HBV-miR-3 regulates the replication of the HBV virus itself [22]. However, whether HBV-encoded miRNA is involved in HCC tumorigenesis is unknown.

TRIM35 is a member of the tripartite motif-containing family. It promotes cell apoptosis in bone marrow macrophages [23], and overexpression of TRIM35 inhibits cell proliferation in hemopoietic cells [24]. In addition, TRIM35 is downregulated in various cancers [25]. Recently, studies have demonstrated that TRIM35 acts as a novel tumor suppressor of HCC [26] and inhibits the Warburg effect and suppresses the tumorigenicity of HCC cells through interactions with PKM2 [27].

Ras-related nuclear protein (RAN) belongs to the Ras superfamily and is involved in diverse and important cellular processes, including regulating the rate of nucleocytoplasmic transport [28,29]. RAN is also a poor prognostic marker in various human cancer tumors and cell lines of ovarian cancer, colon cancer, pancreatic cancer and renal cell carcinoma [30-33]. In addition, RAN may be involved in cancer metastasis, indicating a novel role of RAN in cancer progression [32-34]. However, the role of RAN in HCC has not been elucidated.

In the current study, we validated the existence of another HBV-encoded miRNA by northern blot analysis in HCC cell lines. HBV-miR-2 is also expressed in HBV-positive HCC tissues and serum from patients with HCC or HBV infection. Functionally, HBV-miR-2 promotes cell growth and migration/invasion abilities of HCC cell lines. Furthermore, HBV-miR-2 may function as an oncogene by directly downregulating TRIM35 and upregulating RAN in liver cells. Collectively, our results demonstrated that HBV-miR-2 contributes to oncogenic activities in HCC, which may provide novel insights into the pathogenesis of HBV-related HCC and potential biomarkers for HCC.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Tissue samples

HCC tissues from 20 HBV-positive cases and HCC tissues from 6 HBV-negative cases (confirmed by pathologists) were collected from the Sun Yat-sen University Cancer Center. Informed consent was obtained from each patient. Supplementary Table S1 shows the information of the 26 HCC tissues. Serum samples from healthy volunteers and patients at the acute stage of HBV infection were collected from the Tianjin Infectious Disease Hospital for each group of 14 cases. The pathological information is shown in Supplementary Table S2. We obtained written informed consent from each patient. The study was approved by the ethics committee of Tianjin Medical University. All the methods were
performed in accordance with the relevant guideline, including any relevant details.

2.2. Cell culture and transfection

HBV-negative HCC cell lines, HepG2 (CLS Cat# 300198/p2277_HepG2, RRID:CVCL_0027) and Huh7 (CLS Cat# 300156/p7178_Huh7, RRID:CVCL_0336), one stable HBV-positive cell line, HepG2.2.15 (RRID:CVCL_L855), were purchased from the Cell Bank of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (Shanghai, China). The HepG2.2.15 cell line originates from HepG2 cells transfected with two head-to-tail HBV whole DNA recombinant plasmids and is characterized by stable HBV expression and replication in the culture system [35]. HepG2 and Huh7 cells were cultured in DMEM (GIBCO BRL, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with 10% FBS (fetal bovine serum) and 1% PS (100 units/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin). HepG2.2.15 cells were cultured under the same conditions as HepG2 cells with the addition of 2 mM L-glutamine supplement and 200 μg/ml G418 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). All cells were maintained in a humidified incubator with 5% CO₂ at 37 °C and were passaged when the cell density reached approximately 90%.

All transfection experiments were performed using Lipofectamine 2000 reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. Briefly, the cells were seeded in culture plates. When the cell density reached 60–70% confluence, the cells were transfected with the plasmid or ASO. The cells were collected at 24 h posttransfection for phenotypic experiments, 48 h posttransfection for RT-qPCR and western blot analyses.

2.3. RNA extraction and reverse transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR)

Total or small RNA extractions from cells and tissue samples were performed using the mirVana miRNA Isolation Kit (Ambion, Austin, Texas) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Next, 5 μg (for mRNA) or 2 μg (for miRNA) of RNAs were reverse transcribed to cDNA using M-MLV (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin) and oligo (dT) primers or stem-loop reverse transcription (RT) primers. The expression levels of miRNAs and target genes were analyzed by RT-qPCR using SYBR Premix Ex TaqTM (Takara, Dalian, China) according to the manufacturer’s recommendations. PCR was performed by denaturing the DNA at 94 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles of amplification at 94 °C for 40 s, 58 °C for 40 s, and 72 °C for 40 s for data collection. The housekeeping genes β-actin (for mRNA) and U6 snRNA (for miRNA) were used as endogenous controls. The relative expression levels were calculated by the 2−ΔΔCt or 2−ΔΔ Ct method. The former method was only used to calculate the levels in HCC tissues and serum samples. The specific primers used in this study are listed in supplementary Table S3.

2.4. Northern blot analysis

A bioin-labeled probe, which contained the full-length anti-sense DNA oligonucleotides of HBV-miR-2 and U6 RNA, was used for northern blot analysis to confirm the presence of HBV-miR-2. Northern blot analysis was performed as previously described with small modifications [36]. Briefly, 25 μg of small RNA was resolved on a 15% denaturing polyacrylamide gel and electrotransferred to Hybond N+ nylon membranes (Amersham Bioscience, Piscataway, NJ). The membranes were crosslinked with EDC. The sequences of the probe oligonucleotides were 5′-TTCCTTTCTGAGGACCTG-3′ (HBV-miR-2) and 5′-GCAGGGGCGATCTAATCTTCTGATG-3′ (U6 snRNA).

2.5. Plasmid construction and antisense oligonucleotides

We constructed the expression plasmids of two transcripts of the HBV genome with sizes of 3.5 and 0.7 kb [37]. These transcripts are shown in Supplementary Fig. S1a. These fragments were amplified from a 1.3-copy plasmid [38] and were inserted into pcDNA3 vectors (Ambion, Austin, Texas, USA) between the HindIII and NotI sites. The 1.3-copy plasmid contained the complete HBV genome shown in Supplementary Fig. S1b. Furthermore, the plasmids for knocking down DGCR8 and Dicer were constructed by annealing double complementary oligomers to encode shRNA into the pSilencer2.1-neo vector (Ambion, Austin, Texas, USA).

To ectopically express HBV-miR-2, a 0.3 kb HBV-DNA fragment, including the HBV-miR-2 region, was amplified from the genomic DNA of HepG2.2.15 cells and cloned into the pcDNA3 vector between the BamHI and EcoRI sites (pcHBV-miR-2). To inhibit the function of HBV-miR-2, the 2′-O-methyl-modified anti-sense oligonucleotide of HBV-miR-2 (ASO-HBV-miR-2) and the negative control ASO-NC were synthesized by GenePharma (Shanghai, China).

To overexpress TRIM35 and RAN, the coding regions were amplified from the cDNA of HepG2 cells, TRIM35 was cloned into the pcDNA3 vector between the KpnI and EcoRI sites, and RAN was inserted into pcDNA3/Flag-tagged (pCD3-Flag) vectors at the BamHI and Xhol sites. The shRNA vector used to knock down TRIM35 and RAN was constructed by annealing double complementary oligomers to encode shRNA into the BamHI and HindIII sites of the pSilencer2.1-neo vector, which is referred to as pSilencer throughout this report.

The oligonucleotides containing the potential binding sites (in the 3′UTR) and its mutated form (binding sites were mutated in the seed region) of TRIM35 and RAN were annealed and ligated into the pcDNA3-Egfp vector at the BamHI and EcoRI sites (downstream of EGFP). The EGFP coding region was amplified from pEGFP-N2 (Clontech, Mountain View, CA, USA) and inserted in pcDNA3, as pcDNA3-EGFP. In addition, the oligonucleotides containing the potential binding sites and its mutated form of TRIM35 and RAN were annealed and inserted into another reporter vector—pmiR-GLO at Nhel and Sall sites. All constructs were confirmed by sequencing. The primers and oligomers used in this study are listed in supplementary Table S4.

2.6. Western blotting

Cells were harvested and lysed. Equivalent amounts of protein were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE, and the resolved proteins were transferred to PVDF membranes. The membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk for 2 h and incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4 °C. The membranes were then incubated with secondary antibody for 2 h at room temperature and were visualized using an enhanced chemiluminescence detection system (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Information concerning the antibodies used in this study is shown in Supplementary Table S5.

2.7. EGFP fluorescence reporter assay

To confirm the direct interaction between HBV-miR-2 and TRIM35 3′UTR (RAM 3′UTR), HepG2 and Huh7 cells were transiently co-transfected with pTRIM35-3′UTR WT (wild-type), pRAN-3′UTR WT, pTRIM35-3′UTR Mut, pRAN-3′UTR Mut, pHBV-miR-2 or control vectors in 48-well plates. HepG2.2.15 cells were used as a transfected cell model of ASO-HBV-miR-2 or control oligonucleotides in 48-well plates. pDSRed2-N1, an RFP expression vector plasmid, was cotransfected with the above vectors and used as the loading control. After transfection for 48 h, the cells were lysed, and the EGFP and RFP intensities were measured using a Hitachi F4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer (Tokyo, Japan).

2.8. Luciferase reporter assay

Cells (HepG2, Huh7 and HepG2.2.15) were seeded in 24-well plates and allowed the cell density reached 60–70% confluence overnight. Then cells were co-transfected with pmirGLO-TRIM35-Wt, pmirGLO-TRIM35-Mut, pmirGLO-RAN-Wt, pmirGLO-RAN-Mut, pHBV-miR-2
Fig. 1. Identification and verification of the existence of HBV-encoded miR-2. (a) Genome map of HBV (left panel), the genomic location and sequence (middle panel) of miRNA (HBV-miR-2) derived from HBV genome obtained from deep sequencing, secondary structure (right panel) of HBV-miR-2 was predicted and the free energy was calculated using the mfold Web Server (http://unafold.rna.albany.edu/?q=mfold). (b) Conserved analysis of HBV-miR-2 among different HBV subtypes. (c) RT-qPCR was performed to examine the HBV-miR-2 expression level in HBV-negative (−) and -positive (+) hepatic carcinoma tissues. (d) HBV-miR-2 expression level in normal and HBV acute serum samples by RT-qPCR (left panel). Correlation analysis of HBV-miR-2 level and HBV DNA load (log10) about serum samples from HBV acute patients (right panel). (e) RT-qPCR analysis of HBV-miR-2 expression levels in HBV (−) cells (L02, Huh7, HepG2) and HBV (+) cell (HepG2.2.15) (left panel). The HBV-miR-2 expression levels were measured in HepG2 and Huh7 cells transfected with different HBV transcripts, 3.5 kb (1.3 copy) and 0.7 kb (right panel). (f) Northern blot assay was performed to identify the existence of HBV-miR-2 in Huh7 cells transfected with pUC18 (lane 1) or pHBV1.3 (lane 2). U6 was used as control. (g) HBV-miR-2 was assessed by RT-qPCR when the classical biogenesis pathway DGCR8-Dicer was effectively destroyed. U6 served as control for normalization. The 2^ΔΔCt method was applied in B and C. Others were counted by the 2^-ΔΔCt method. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001, ns, not significant. Data are represented the mean ± SD from three determination.
(ASO-HBV-miR-2) or control vectors. 24 h post transfection, cells were lysed and the luciferase activity was measured.

2.9. Analysis of cell viability and proliferative capacity

A 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay and a cell colony formation assay were performed to evaluate the cell viability and proliferative capacity of HCC cells.

For the MTT assay, 3000 HepG2 cells or 4000 Huh7 cells (in 100 μl/well) were seeded into 96-well plates 24 h after transfection. At 24 h, 48 h and 72 h, 10 μl of MTT (0.5 mg/ml)/well was added to the culture medium and further incubated at 37 °C for 4–6 h. After removing the supernatant, 100 μl of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO)/well was added to dissolve the formazan. After shaking for 10 min, the absorbance was detected at a wavelength of 570 nm (A570) using a μQuant Universal Microplate Spectrophotometer (Bio-Tek Instruments, Winooski, VT). Five replicate wells were included for each group and each time point.

For the colony formation assay, 400 HepG2 cells/well or 300 Huh7 cells/well were plated into 12-well plates 24 h after transient transfection. HepG2 cells were cultured for 14 days, Huh7 cells were cultured for 10 days, and the culture medium was replaced every 3 days. The cells were stained with 2% crystal violet, and colonies including >50 cells were counted. Three replicate wells were included for each group. All experiments were performed independently at least three times.

2.10. Apoptosis analysis

Cells were seeded in 6-well plates and transfected with relevant plasmids for another 48 h. The cells were collected, washed with cold PBS, and suspended in 1 ml of 1× binding buffer with 300 × g centrifugation for 5 min. The cells were resuspended in 300 μl of 1× binding buffer and incubated with 5 μl of Annexin V-FITC for 10 min in the dark. 5 μl propidium iodide (BestBio, Shanghai, China) was added and incubated for 5 min in the dark. These samples were analyzed by a Becton Dickinson FACScan cytofluorometer (Mansfield, Boston, MA) within 1 h. The relative induction of apoptosis was determined by the detection of Annexin-V+ and Annexin-V+ PI+.

2.11. Transwell migration/invasion assays

For the cell migration assay, 8 × 10^4 HepG2 cells or 4 × 10^4 Huh7 cells were resuspended in 200 μl of DMEM without FBS and were loaded into the upper well of a Transwell chamber (pore size: 8 μm; Corning).
Inc., Corning, NY) in a 24-well plate filled with 600 μl complete culture medium with 20% FBS. After incubating for 24 or 48 h, noninvaded cells on the upper surface of the filter were removed with a cotton swab and migrated cells on the lower surface were fixed and stained with 2% crystal violet for 10 min and photographed. Next, the cells migrating across the membrane were counted in five random fields of view under a light microscope.

The cell invasion assay was performed similarly to the migration assay as previously described. The upper chamber was precoated with 40 μl of 1 mg/ml Matrigel (Becton Dickinson Inc., Franklin Lakes, NJ) for 2 h. Next, 12 × 10^4 HepG2 cells or 6 × 10^4 Huh7 cells were seeded into the upper chamber. All assays were independently performed in triplicate.

### 2.12. Animal xenograft tumors

Six-week-old SCID mice were purchased from the Beijing Experimental Animal Center (CSA, Beijing, China). All mice were housed in a facility with a 12 h light/dark cycle and were allowed free access to food and water. All experimental procedures involving animals in this study were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Research Advisory Committee at Tianjin Medical University. For the establishment of xenograft tumors, 1 × 10^7 stable Huh7 cells (1.5 × 10^7 stable HepG2 cells) were suspended in 100 μl of serum-free medium and were subcutaneously injected into the flank. The tumor-bearing mice were euthanized on day 28 (Huh7) and on day 50 (HepG2). Each tumor was detached and stored at −80 °C for the detection of HBV-miR-2 and TRIM35 (RAN).

### 2.13. Statistical analysis

The data are presented as the mean ± SD. Student’s t-test and 2-way ANOVA were used for comparisons. Significant associations were assessed using Pearson’s correlation analysis. \( P < .05 \) was considered to be statistically significant (\( * P < .05, ** P < .01, *** P < .001, **** P < .0001 \)).

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Validation of HBV-encoded miRNAs in clinical samples and cell lines

To determine whether HBV encodes miRNA, we applied Solexa small RNA sequencing to examine HBV-positive HCC tissues and obtained HBV genome-encoded candidate miRNAs [22]. One of these miRNAs was HBV-miR-2, which is 21 nucleotides in length, 5′-GCAG GTCCCCTAGAAGAAGAA-3′, and is located at the 2358–2378 site of the HBV genome (access No. M54923.1) (Fig. 1a). Furthermore, the secondary structure of HBV-miR-2 was predicted through the mfold web server (http://unafold.rna.albany.edu/?q=mfold) (Fig. 1a). In addition, HBV-miR-2 was a consensus sequence in HBV genomes of different isolated HBV strains (Fig. 1b).

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**Fig. 3.** HBV-miR-2 suppresses TRIM35 expression but upregulates RAN expression by targeting their 3′ UTRs in hepatic cells (a) Sequence alignment of HBV-miR-2 (middle) with the wild-type (Wt) (top) and mutated (Mut) (bottom) 3′ UTR of human TRIM35 (left panel) and RAN (right panel). Seed sequences are indicated in red, and mutated in blue. (b) The fluorescent reporter plasmids (pTRIM35-3′ UTR Wt and Mut, pRAN-3′ UTR Wt and Mut) were co-transfected with HBV-miR-2 or ASO-HBV-miR-2 into HepG2/Huh7 or HepG2.2.15 cells, respectively. The EGFP fluorescence intensity was normalized to RFP. (c–d) The mRNA (c) and protein (d) levels of TRIM35 and RAN were detected by RT-qPCR and western blotting upon the modulation of HBV-miR-2 in HepG2/Huh7 and HepG2.2.15 cells. (e) Correlation analysis between HBV-miR-2 and TRIM35/RAN in HBV positive HCC tissues. (f) RT-qPCR determined the HBV-miR-2 and TRIM35/RAN mRNA expression levels in xenograft tumors driven from Huh7 stable cells. (g) Representative IHC images of TRIM35 (left) and RAN (right) expression in tumor tissues from nude mice, 20 × . \( * P < .05, ** P < .01, *** P < .001, **** P < .0001 \), ns = not significantly. Data are represented the mean ± SD from three determination. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)
To confirm our Solexa sequencing results, we first adopted stem-loop RT-qPCR to detect the expression levels of HBV-miR-2 in 20 HBV-positive hepatoma tissues and 6 HBV-negative hepatoma tissues. HBV-miR-2 was highly expressed in HBV-positive hepatoma tissues but not in HBV-negative hepatoma tissues (Fig. 1c). Furthermore, we determined whether HBV-miR-2 could be detected in the serum from patients with HBV infection. As shown in Fig. 1d, HBV-miR-2 was significantly highly expressed in 14 serum samples from hepatitis patients with the acute phase of HBV infection but not in serum from normal individuals. Additionally, correlation analysis between the serum HBV-miR-2 level and HBV DNA load in acute patients showed that the serum HBV-miR-2 was positively correlated with HBV load. The amplification curves of miRNA in hepatoma tissues and serum samples are shown in Supplementary Fig. 1c and d (Fig. S1c and d). We further detected the HBV-miR-2 levels in the immortalized normal hepatic cell line L02, HBV-negative cell lines HepG2 and Huh7 and the HBV-positive cell line HepG2.2.15 by RT-qPCR. As expected, compared with L02 cells, the HBV-miR-2 expression level in HepG2.2.15 cells was significantly higher, whereas there was no difference in the expression level in HepG2 and Huh7 cells (Fig. 1e, left panel). In addition, HBV genome encodes 4 transcripts with sizes of 3.5, 2.4, 2.1 and 0.7 kb, and HBV-miR-2 is located in the 2358–2378 nucleotide region of the HBV genome. HBV-miR-2 could only be processed from the HBV 3.5 kb transcript because only this transcript covered the sequence. We constructed a plasmid containing a 3.5 kb fragment of the HBV genome (pHBV 1.3-copy) and pri-HBV-miR-2 containing the precursor of HBV-miR-2 in the HBV genome fragment (298 bp) as well as a plasmid expressing a 0.7 kb mRNA (from nucleotides 1375–1960) from the HBV genome (pHBV/0.7 kb) as a negative control. As expected, the RT-qPCR assay showed that HBV-miR-2 was highly expressed in HepG2 and Huh7 cells transfected with the pHBV/1.3-copy (generating 3.5 kb mRNA and pri-HBV-miR-2) but not in cells with pHBV/0.7 kb (Fig. 1e, right panel).

To further confirm HBV-miR-2 expression, a northern blot assay was applied and suggested that HBV-miR-2 was highly expressed in Huh7 cells transfected with pHBV/1.3-copy but not in control cells (Fig. 1f). Furthermore, we explored whether the biogenesis of HBV-miR-2 is dependent on the classic Drosha-Dicer pathway. Two key components, DGR8 and Dicer, were knocked down by shRNAs in HepG2.2.15 cells. The HBV-miR-2 levels significantly decreased when this pathway was impaired by the deletion of DGR8 and Dicer (Fig. 1g). These data indicate that the biogenesis of HBV-miR-2 relies on the classical Drosha-Dicer pathway. Taken together, our results indicate that the HBV genome encodes HBV-encoded miR-2, which is generated in the classical miRNA biogenesis pathway.

3.2. HBV-miR-2 suppresses apoptosis and promotes EMT in liver cancer cells

To evaluate the roles of HBV-miR-2 in liver cancer occurrence and development, firstly we tested the expression levels of HBV-miR-2,
HBsAg and HBeAg in serum of patients with HBV infection and found that there was positive correlation between HBV-miR-2 with HBsAg/HBeAg levels (Fig. S2a and b). Furthermore, to determine whether HBV-miR-2 affects the proliferation and metastasis of liver cancer cells, then a gain-of-function experiment was performed in HBV (−) liver cancer cells (HepG2 and Huh7) by transfection with the pHBV-miR-2 plasmid, while Huh7 cells stably expressing HBV-miR-2 (Huh7/HBV-miR-2 cells) and HepG2.2.15 cells were applied to perform loss-of-function experiments by transient transfection with antisense oligonucleotides of HBV-miR-2 (ASO-HBV-miR-2). As shown in Fig. 2a, HBV-miR-2 expression levels were significantly increased by pHBV-miR-2 transfection, while ASO-HBV-miR-2 transfection resulted in a decrease of HBV-miR-2 levels compared with their respective controls.

To investigate whether HBV-miR-2 influences liver cancer cell viability, we performed MTT and colony formation assays and found that pHBV-miR-2 increased the viability of HepG2 and Huh7 cells compared with that of the control vector, while ASO-HBV-miR-2 treatment significantly suppressed Huh7/HBV-miR-2 cell growth (Fig. 2b). Flow cytometry analysis showed that the expression of HBV-miR-2 inhibited cell apoptosis in HepG2 cells, but ASO-HBV-miR-2 promoted apoptosis in HepG2.2.15 cells (Fig. 2c). We also detected apoptosis-associated protein (cleaved CASP3 and Bcl-2) by western blotting, and found that HBV-miR-2 promoted Bcl-2 expression but inhibited cleaved CASP3 expression (Fig. 2d). To further evaluate the roles of HBV-miR-2 on tumor growth in vivo, we performed animal experiments using a nude mouse tumor xenograft model. As observed in Fig. 2e, tumors derived from the Huh7/HBV-miR-2 cell group grew faster and resulted in a larger size and a heavier weight than those from the control group. The same results were observed in the transplanted tumor model of HepG2/HBV-miR-2 cells (Fig. S2c).

Next, we examined the effect of HBV-miR-2 on the migration/invasion ability of liver cancer cells. Ectopic expression of HBV-miR-2 significantly increased cell migration (Fig. 2f, left panel) and invasion rates (Fig. 2f, right panel) in HepG2 and Huh7 cells, whereas ASO-HBV-miR-2 suppressed cell migration (Fig. 2f, left panel) and invasion rates (Fig. 2f, right panel) in Huh7/HBV-miR-2 cells compared to the controls. Since the epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) has been considered a fundamental event in cancer cell motility [39], we further investigated the effects of HBV-miR-2 on specific molecules associated with EMT by western blotting. As shown in Fig. 2g and supplementary Fig. 2d, the expression of HBV-miR-2 decreased E-cadherin and cytokeratin expression levels but increased vimentin, N-cadherin and Twist2 expression levels in HepG2 and Huh7 cells, while inhibiting HBV-miR-2 caused a converse effect in HepG2.2.5 cells, which coincided with its role in the promotion of migration/invasion. Altogether, our data demonstrate that HBV-miR-2 functions as an oncogene by promoting cell growth and migration/invasion capacity in liver cancer cells.

Fig. 5. RAN promotes hepatic cells growth, migration and invasion. (a–b) MTT assay and colony formation assay in HepG2 cells showed that RAN enhances cellular viability and cell proliferation. (c) Flow cytometry showed that RAN suppresses the apoptosis of HepG2 and Huh7 cells. Representative figures are shown in the upper panel. (d) Western blotting demonstrated that RAN promotes Bcl-2 expression while inhibits cleaved CASP3 expression. (e) Transwell migration and invasion analysis indicated that RAN promotes cells’ migratory and invasive abilities in HepG2 cells. (f) The protein expression levels of EMT-related proteins after RAN was overexpressed or knockdown. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001. Data are represented the mean ± SD for three times.
3.3. HBV-miR-2 suppresses TRIM35 expression but upregulates RAN expression by targeting their 3’ UTRs in liver cancer cells

To determine the target gene that mediates the effect of HBV-miR-2 on cell malignancy, we predicted its cellular targets using TargetScan 5.2 Custom (http://www.targetscan.org/vert_50//seedmatch.html). Combined with the functional annotation analysis, we chose TRIM35 and RAN as candidate targets for further validation. The sequence alignments of HBV-miR-2 and the wild-type 3’ UTR or mutant 3’ UTR of TRIM35 and RAN are shown in Fig. 3a. We applied the EGFP fluorescence reporter assay to validate whether TRIM35 and RAN are directly targeted by HBV-miR-2. As shown in Fig. 3b, the expression of HBV-miR-2 significantly decreased the fluorescence intensity of the pcDNA3-EGFP-TRIM35 3’ UTR in HepG2 and Huh7 cells, while the intensity was enhanced by ASO-HBV-miR-2 in HepG2.2.15 cells. In contrast, HBV-miR-2 increased the fluorescence intensity of the pcDNA3-EGFP-RAN 3’ UTR, but the intensity was impaired by ASO-HBV-miR-2 expression. However, the fluorescence intensity showed no significant differences when the putative binding sites were mutated. In addition, luciferase reporter assay was carried out to confirm the direct targeting between HBV-miR-2 with TRIM35 and RAN (Fig. S3a).

We further examined the effect of HBV-miR-2 on endogenous TRIM35 and RAN expression by RT-qPCR and western blotting. As shown in Fig. 3c (mRNA level) and 3d (protein level), when HBV-miR-2 was expressed in HepG2 and Huh7 cells, TRIM35 expression levels were significantly decreased and RAN expression levels were increased. The depletion of HBV-miR-2 by ASO in HBV-positive HepG2.2.15 cells led to significantly increased TRIM35 expression levels but decreased RAN expression levels. Furthermore, we detected the TRIM35 and RAN mRNA expression levels in HBV-positive HCC tissues and performed a correlation analysis. As expected, in HBV-positive HCC tissues, the TRIM35 expression level was inversely correlated with HBV-miR-2, but RAN was positively correlated with HBV-miR-2 (Fig. 3e). Additionally, we examined TRIM35 and RAN mRNA levels together with HBV-miR-2 by RT-qPCR in xenograft tumors derived from Huh7/pHBV-miR-2 cells, HepG2/pHBV-miR-2 cells and there control cells. Compared with tumors derived from control cells, HBV-miR-2 and RAN expression levels were increased, while TRIM35 expression levels were decreased in tumors derived from Huh7/pHBV-miR-2 cells (Fig. 3f) and HepG2/pHBV-miR-2 cells (Fig. S2e). Immunohistochemistry assays also showed that TRIM35 expression was decreased and RAN expression was increased in xenograft tumors derived from Huh7/pHBV-miR-2 than in control tumors (Fig. 3g). Altogether, these results indicate that HBV-miR-2 suppresses TRIM35 but enhances RAN expression by binding to their 3’ UTR.
3.4. TRIM35 inhibits the malignant behaviors of liver cancer cells

To investigate the roles of TRIM35 on HCC cells, we constructed overexpressed plasmids and shRNA knockdown plasmids (pTRIM35 and pshR-TRIM35), then validated the efficiencies of expression by RT-qPCR and western blotting (Fig. S4a). Both MTT and colony formation assays revealed that the overexpression of TRIM35 reduced cell growth, while the knockdown of TRIM35 enhanced the growth of HepG2 cells (Fig. 4a, b) and Huh7 cells (Fig. S4b, Fig. S4c). Apoptosis analysis in HepG2 and Huh7 cells indicated that TRIM35 overexpression significantly increased apoptosis, while the knockdown of TRIM35 decreased apoptosis (Fig. 4c). Also, Western blotting showed that TRIM35 inhibited Bcl-2 expression and promoted cleaved CASP3 expression (Fig. 4d). The overexpression of TRIM35 inhibited both migration and invasion, while shR-TRIM35 promoted migration and invasion in both HepG2 cells (Fig. 4e) and Huh7 cells (Fig. S4d) compared with their respective negative controls. Furthermore, we examined whether TRIM35 affected the expression of key molecular markers in EMT (E-cadherin, cytokeratin, vimentin, N-cadherin and Twist2). We found that the overexpression of TRIM35 decreased the vimentin protein level (Fig. 4f) and N-cadherin and Twist2 levels (Fig. S4e) but enhanced the E-cadherin and cytokeratin protein levels (Fig. 4f) in both HepG2 and Huh7 cells. The opposite effects were observed in pshR-TRIM35-transfected cells. Altogether, these results indicate that TRIM35, as a tumor suppressor, inhibits malignant behaviors by inducing apoptosis and suppressing EMT in liver cancer cells.

3.5. RAN promotes the growth, migration and invasion of liver cancer cells

First, we validated the efficiency of pRAN and pshR-RAN (Fig. S5a). MTT and colony formation assays showed that the viability and growth of HepG2 cells (Fig. 5a, b) and Huh7 cells (Fig. S5b, Fig. S5c) were increased by the overexpression of RAN and decreased by RAN knockdown. Furthermore, apoptosis analysis showed that overexpression of RAN decreased the apoptosis rate, while inhibition of RAN significantly increased the apoptosis rate (Fig. 5c). And we found that overexpression of RAN promoted Bcl-2 expression and inhibited cleaved CASP3 expression (Fig. 5d). We also investigated the influence of RAN on the motility of cells, and ectopic expression of RAN led to increased cell motility but shR-RAN decreased cell migration and invasion in HepG2 cells (Fig. 5e) and Huh7 cells (Fig. S5d). Next, we examined the EMT-related protein expression levels by western blotting, as shown in Fig. 5f and Fig. S5e, and the overexpression of RAN in HepG2 and Huh7 cells increased the EMT, while shR-RAN decreased the EMT. Taken together, these results indicate that RAN promotes the proliferation, migration and invasion of HCC cells.

![Fig. 7. Knockdown of RAN rescues the oncogenic phenotype induced by HBV-miR-2. Co-transfection with pHBV-miR-2 and pshR-RAN in HepG2 and Huh7 indicated that RAN knockdown rescued (a-b) cell proliferation, (c-d) cell apoptosis, (e) cell migration/invasion and (f) EMT-associated molecules. * p < .05, ** p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001. Data are represented the mean ± SD for three times.](image)
3.6. Ectopic expression of TRIM35 and knockdown of RAN partially counteracts the tumorigenic phenotype induced by HBV-miR-2 in liver cancer cells

To determine whether the effects of HBV-miR-2 on cellular malignancy were directly due to the suppression of TRIM35 and the upregulation of RAN, we performed rescue experiments. In HepG2 and Huh7 cells that were cotransfected with pTRIM35 or pshR-RAN and pHBV-miR-2, we re-evaluated the functional phenotypes with an MTT assay, colony formation assay, apoptosis assays, and Transwell migration/invasion assays. As shown in Fig. S6a, TRIM35 overexpression restored the suppression of TRIM35 expression induced by HBV-miR-2 at both the mRNA and protein levels. In addition, overexpression of TRIM35 restored malignant proliferation, inhibition of apoptosis, enhanced migration and invasion capabilities and increased expression of EMT-related proteins induced by HBV-miR-2 (Fig. 6a–f, Fig. S6b–S6e) in HepG2 and Huh7 cells. Similarly, shR-RAN restored HBV-miR-2-induced promotion of RAN expression and malignant behaviors in HepG2 and Huh7 cells (Fig. 7a–f, Fig. S7a–e). These data indicate that ectopic expression of TRIM35 and knockdown of RAN at least partially counteracts the tumorigenic phenotype induced by HBV-miR-2 in liver cancer cells.

4. Discussion

Following the innovative report by Pfeffer and colleagues [14] identifying EBV-encoded miRNAs, the study of viral miRNAs has expanded remarkably. Emerging evidence has revealed that viral-associated miRNAs have a close connection with the development of various cancers [40]. Recently, we identified HBV-encoded miRNAs (HBV-miR) and revealed that HBV-miR and HBV-miR-3 restrict replication, which may be involved in the process of HBV infection [22]. We also wondered whether HBV-encoded miRNA is involved in HCC tumorigenesis.

In this study, we validated the existence of another HBV-encoded HBV-miR-2 obtained by Solexa sequencing in HBV-positive HCC tissues by RT-qPCR analysis in HBV-positive serum samples and further confirmed HBV-positive HCC cells by northern blotting. HCC is associated with HBV infection, and HBV genome or fragment was integrated the genome of host cells, which may results into the difference of HBV replication and its transcripts according on integrated fragment of HBV [41], therefore HBV-miR-2 expression may be not the same in HBV-related HCC. But the detail mechanism remains to be understood.

As an important regulator, miRNAs may play critical roles in malignant HCC progression. To determine whether HBV-miR-2 is involved in the tumorigenesis of HCC, we performed a series of experiments and found that the ectopic expression of HBV-miR-2 accelerates the growth of liver cancer cells via MTT and colony formation assays, and significantly promotes tumor growth derived from liver cancer cells Huh7/HepG2. The Transwell assay showed that HBV-miR-2 could promote cell migration and invasion. EMT has been considered to be a fundamental event in cancer metastasis. In tumor development, the loss of epithelial cell polarity and the acquisition of mesenchymal features are important characteristics of EMT. Cancer cells with mesenchymal cell characteristics possess greater migration and invasion abilities [42]. Therefore, we detected the expression of EMT markers and found that HBV-miR-2 promoted the epithelial–mesenchymal transition of liver cancer cells. These results indicate that HBV-encoded HBV-miR-2 may function as an oncogene in liver cancer.

miRNA exerts its role by regulating a target gene [43]. To explore which cellular factor mediates the effect of HBV-miR-2 on HCC cells, we predicted and confirmed that HBV-miR-2 directly downregulated TRIM35 and upregulated RAN expression levels. TRIM35 is a member of the E3 ligase family and functions as a tumor suppressor in many cancers [25]. Our results demonstrated that TRIM35 suppressed cell proliferation, migration, invasion and apoptosis, thus functioning as a tumor suppressor in hepatic cells, and HBV-miR-2 downregulated TRIM35 expression levels to repress its function as a tumor suppressor, suggesting that TRIM35 may be a mediator of HBV-miR-2 promoting oncogenic activity in liver cancer cells.

miRNAs typically bind to the 3’UTR of mRNA and lead to mRNA decay or translation suppression [43], while recent research has shown that miRNAs can also generate posttranscriptional activation of target genes [44]. For example, miR-490-3p enhances endoplasmic reticulum-Golgi intermediate compartment protein 3 (ERGIC3) to
promote EMT in HCC cells [45]. We also found that mir-346 enhances hTERT and Argonaute-2 by binding to their 3′UTR to cause malignancy in cervical cancer cells [46,47]. However, the detailed mechanism is not well known. In our study, the 3′UTR of RAN was predicted to contain HBV-miR-2 binding sites, and the EGFP reporter assay indicated that HBV-miR-2 targeted the 3′UTR and activated reporter expression. HBV-miR-2 also enhanced the expression of endogenous RAN at the mRNA and protein levels. Furthermore, we also revealed that RAN promotes the malignancy of liver cancer cells. Thus, upregulation of RAN by HBV-miR-2 promotes oncogenic activity in liver cancer cells. These results indicate that HBV-miR-2 promotes tumorigenesis in liver cancer cells by downregulating TRIM35 and upregulating RAN expression.

In summary, we identified an HBV-encoded miRNA, HBV-miR-2, and revealed that HBV-miR-2 promotes malignant behaviors of liver cancer cells, which may function as an oncogene by downregulating TRIM35 expression and upregulating RAN expression (Fig. 8). Our findings might provide new insights into the mechanisms underlying tumorigenesis in HBV-related liver cancer and potential biomarkers for diagnostic or therapeutic studies in liver cancer.

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We declare that there are no potential conflicts of interest.

Author contributions
Performed the experiments and analyzed the data: L.L.Y, Y.D.Z and Y.L.Z. Participated in manuscript preparation: L.L.Y and Z.H.S. Detection of immunohistochemistry: Y.K.L. Analyzed and interpreted the data: H. X, H.J.G and H.L.X.F. Participated in the experimental design and coordination: Y.Z. M.L and S.P.L. Convinced the project, supervised the experiments and analyzed data: H.T. Wrote the manuscript: L.L.Y and H.T.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data
Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebiom.2019.09.012.

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