Identification of novel recombinants of hepatitis B virus genotypes F and G in human immunodeficiency virus-positive patients from Argentina and Brazil

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Hepatitis B virus (HBV) genotype G (HBV/G) infection is almost always detected along with a co-infecting HBV strain that can supply HBeAg, typically HBV/A2. In this study we describe, in two human immunodeficiency virus (HIV)-positive patients from Argentina and Brazil, the first report of HBV/G infection in Argentina and co-circulation of HBV/G, HBV/F and G/F recombinants in the American continent. HBV isolates carrying the 36 bp insertion of HBV/G were the most prevalent in both patients, with >99% of colonies hybridizing to a probe specific for this insertion. Phylogenetic analyses of full-length genomes and precore/core fragments revealed that F4 and F1b were the co-infecting subgenotypes in the Brazilian and Argentinian patients, respectively. Bootscanning analysis provided evidence of recombination in several clones from both patients, with recombination breakpoints located mainly at the precore/core region. These data should encourage further investigations on the clinical implications of HBV/G recombinants in HBV/HIV co-infected patients.

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection is a major cause of chronic liver disease, including cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma, affecting >350 million people (WHO, 2008). Eight genotypes (HBV/A to H) have been identified, representing divergence of >8% in complete genomes (Arauz-Ruiz et al., 2002; Norder et al., 1994; Stuyver et al., 2000). Two additional genotypes, I and J, have been proposed (Olinger et al., 2008; Tatematsu et al., 2009; Huy et al., 2008). There is diversity within genotypes, some genotypes being divided into subgenotypes (Norder et al., 2004). Genotypes/subgenotypes have distinct geographical distributions: HBV/A and HBV/D are found worldwide, HBV/B and HBV/C are found in east/south-east Asia, HBV/E in west-central Africa, and HBV/F and HBV/H in native populations of the Americas (Araujo et al., 2011; Kramvis et al., 2005). HBV/G was described by Stuyver et al. (2000) and, despite low prevalence, seems ubiquitous, as it has been reported in Europe (Lacombe et al., 2006; Vieth et al., 2002), the Americas (Alvarado-Esquível et al., 2006; Alvarado Mora et al., 2011; Bottecchia et al., 2008; Chu et al., 2003; Osiowy et al., 2008), Asia (Shibayama et al., 2005; Toan et al., 2006) and Africa (Olinger et al., 2006; Toan et al., 2006). HBV/G is frequently reported in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Dao et al., 2011; Zehender et al., 2003), particularly in men who have sex with men (MSM) (Bottecchia et al., 2008; Osiowy et al., 2008). Patients co-infected with HBV/G and HIV have an increased risk of liver fibrosis compared with those infected with other HBV genotypes.
Fig. 1. Phylogenetic analysis of HBV sequences using the neighbour-joining method. GenBank accession numbers for the prototype strains representing genotypes A–J are provided in the figure; ◆ identifies sequences generated in this study. HBV sequences from Brazil and Argentina are denoted BR and ARG, respectively, followed by the clone number. Values at internal nodes indicate percentages of 1000 bootstrap replicates that support the branch. Bars, number of nucleotide substitutions per site. (a) Analysis of the full-length sequences. (b) Analysis of the complete S (surface) gene region. (c) Analysis of the complete C (core) gene region.
HBV/G is unusual in several aspects: it has a 36 bp insertion at the beginning of the core gene and two stop codons in the precore region (codons 2 and 28), preventing expression of HBeAg (Kato et al., 2002). Moreover, it almost exclusively co-infects with another HBV genotype, usually HBV/A (Kato et al., 2002; Osiowy et al., 2008), but HBV/C (Suwannakarn et al., 2005), HBV/F (Fallot et al., 2012) and HBV/H (Sánchez et al., 2002). Moreover, it almost exclusively co-infects with another HBV genotype, usually HBV/A (Kato et al., 2002; Osiowy et al., 2008), but HBV/C (Suwannakarn et al., 2005), HBV/F (Fallot et al., 2012) and HBV/H (Sánchez et al., 2002).
2007) have also been reported. Recombination between HBV/G and the co-infecting genotype has been observed, especially in patients with HIV (Fallot et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2011; Osiowy et al., 2008). Recombination is an important element of HBV genetic variability and may have clinical implications (Fallot et al., 2012; Kay & Zoulim, 2007; Simmonds & Midgley, 2005). Herein, we describe the first report of HBV/G infection in Argentina and co-circulation of HBV/G, HBV/F and G/F recombinants in the American continent, providing full-length genomic sequences of several HBV recombinant and non-recombinant isolates.

HBV isolates were obtained from two patients respectively referred to the Medical Diagnostic Center of High Complexity, Rosario, Argentina, and Clementino Fraga Filho University Hospital, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Both patients were male, HIV-positive and seropositive for HBsAg, HBeAg and anti-HBc, with serum HBV loads >10^6 copies ml^{-1}. The Brazilian patient is an MSM; the infection route for the Argentinian patient was not available. The protocol was approved by Local Ethics Committees and informed consents were obtained from the patients. HBV DNA was extracted from 0.2 ml serum using a High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid kit (Roche Diagnostics). The full-length HBV genome was amplified as described previously (Günther et al., 1995), with or without prior rolling-circle amplification (RCA) (Margiridon et al., 2008). The precore/core region (positions 1824–2467) of the Argentinian patient was amplified by subgenomic PCR. The DNA polymerase used was Herculase II fusion DNA polymerase (Agilent) for 40 cycles. Products were cloned into pUC19 (Promega) or pSC-B (Agilent). Clones were screened by colony hybridization using a radioactive probe specific for the 36 bp insertion of HBV/G, stripped, then rehybridized with another probe that detects all HBV genotypes. Clones of interest were sequenced (GenBank accession numbers HE981171–HE981189). Phylogenetic/molecular evolutionary analyses used MEGA version 4.1 (Tamura et al., 2007). Phylogenetic trees were obtained using the neighbour-joining method (1000 bootstrap replicates) and mean genetic distances were estimated by Kimura two-parameter analysis. Bootscan software (SimPlot v. 3.5.1) was used to identify intergenotypic recombination (Lole et al., 1999). This method compared a putative recombinant sequence with ten reference sequences corresponding to HBV/A–HBV/J.

For the Brazilian patient, full-length HBV genomes amplified by PCR were cloned. Twenty-eight HBV DNA-positive colonies were initially isolated and RFLP analysis (Ndé and Stul) suggested that all but two clones were ‘pure’ HBV/G. Four clones (BR18 and 20–22) were selected for sequencing. Phylogenetic analysis confirmed that clones BR21 and BR22 are HBV/G (Fig. 1a–c), whereas clones BR18 and BR20 show discordant results with the S- and C-genes (Fig. 1b, c). For the C-gene, BR18 and BR20 cluster with HBV/G strains, but in the S-gene they cluster with HBV/F4 sequences, indicating that both are recombinant strains and that the co-infecting strain is HBV/F4. To find a full-length HBV/F4 clone, as many clones as possible were screened using hybridization with an HBV/G-specific probe and an HBV/F4-specific probe. Fifty-five colonies hybridized with the genotype G probe and only one colony (BR8.4.10) hybridized with the HBV/F4 probe. Sequencing showed that this clone was ‘pure’ HBV/F4, suggesting that HBV/F4 strains represent about 2% of HBV genomes in this patient.

For the Argentinian patient, direct sequencing showed that the patient was infected with HBV/G. Twenty-three full-length HBV-DNA positive colonies were isolated and hybridization suggested that all were HBV/G, confirmed by sequencing three clones (ARG56.1.5, ARG56.5.7 and ARG56.5.9; Fig. 1a–c). To find the co-infecting genotype in this patient and to increase the numbers of informative colonies, subgenomic C-gene PCR products were cloned. Of >400 HBV-positive colonies, only four hybridized with the pan-genomic probe and not with the HBV/G probe. These clones were sequenced and phylogenetic analysis indicated that two (ARG56C.3b.2.3 and ARG56C3b.7.2) are ‘pure’ HBV/F1b, whilst two (ARG56C.1.2.6 and ARG56C1b.5.3) are HBV/G/F1b recombinants with different breakpoints (Figs 1c and 2e, f).

To enrich for full-length non-G strains, especially HBV/F1b strains in the Argentinian patient, serum extracts were first subjected to a modified RCA (Margiridon et al., 2008; N. Martel, C. Trepo & A. Kay, unpublished data). RCA products were cut with NdeI, which has a site in the 36 bp insert specific to HBV/G but is absent in HBV/F, before being amplified by genomic PCR. By these means, two new G/F4 recombinants (BR2.8 and BR4.13) were found. An HBV/G strain (BR9.2) was also isolated and sequenced, and was found to contain a mutation affecting the NdeI site. Several non-G clones were isolated from the Argentinian patient and four were sequenced (ARG56K4.3, ARG56S2.3, ARG56S3.8 and ARG56S5.9). All are ‘pure’ HBV/F1b. Despite many efforts, no full-length G/F1b recombinants could be isolated.

Bootscanning was performed to locate breakpoints of genomic recombination more accurately (Fig. 2a–f). Clones BR18 and BR20 have an HBV/G sequence from position 1845 to 2132 and are HBV/F4 in origin in the rest of the genome (Fig. 2a, b). Inversely, clone BR4.13 is HBV/F4 from position 1817 to 2442 (Fig. 2d). Clone BR2.8 has an HBV/G sequence from position 493 to 1816 and it is the only clone with a recombination breakpoint in the S-gene (Fig. 2c). Clone BR8.4.10 is HBV/F4 and clones BR21, BR22 and BR9.2 are HBV/G, with no signs of recombination. Concerning the precore/core subgenomic clones from Argentina (positions 1824–2467), clone ARG56C1.2.6 is HBV/F1b from position 1824 to position 2154 and HBV/G thereafter (Fig. 2e). Clone ARG56C1b.5.3 is clearly HBV/G from position 1970 to the end of the fragment. However, at the 5’ end it does not have the 36 bp insertion specific to HBV/G and has a wild-type codon at codon 28 of precore region (Fig. 2f). This region is well-conserved in all HBV genotypes and, whilst it is obviously a recombinant, we cannot conclude that it is...
F1b/G. Clones ARG56C.3b.2.3 and ARG56C.3b.7.2 are HBV/F1b throughout the amplified fragment.

Due to the geographical proximity of Brazil and Argentina, we investigated whether Brazilian and Argentinian HBV/G isolates are genetically closer than HBV/G isolates from other regions of the world. Phylogenetic analysis with HBV/G full-length genomes from our study and database sequences from different geographical regions showed that Brazilian and Argentinian HBV/G isolates were not related particularly closely (Fig. 1a), suggesting that HBV/G may have had different introduction routes into the continent. This is corroborated by Alvarado Mora et al. (2011), who showed that different lineages of HBV/G circulate in Colombia. Moreover, the mean genetic distance between Brazilian and Argentinian full-length HBV/G clones (excluding recombinants) and 21 HBV/G sequences from other regions throughout the world was studied (Table 1). Similar values were observed between all geographical groups analysed (Argentina, Brazil, Europe, Japan, Mexico and the USA), varying from 0.002 ± 0.001 to 0.004 ± 0.001 (Table 1). This is not unexpected, as HBV/G has been described as being genetically homologous among worldwide isolates (Lindh, 2005).

Important mutations were observed in several clones. The Brazilian HBV/G clones (BR21, BR22 and BR9.2) as well as the G/F4 recombinant BR4.13 all have a 12 nt deletion from position 54 to 65 in the pre-S2 region. This leads to deletion of pre-S2 residues 19–22 and change of residue 18 from Arg to Ser. These clones, as well as the G/F4 recombinant BR2.8, also have a missense mutation in the polymerase gene leading to rtL180M, but do not possess the lamivudine-resistance mutation rtM204V/I. In addition, clones BR22 and BR4.13 have a stop codon in HBsAg at codon 182. The Argentinian HBV/G clones do not exhibit any obviously significant mutations. However, for the HBV/F1b clones, only ARG56S3.8 is ‘wild type’ throughout the genome, as are clones ARG56C.3b.2.3 and ARG56C.3b.7.2 in the subgenomic fragment sequenced. For the other full-length HBV/F1b clones, ARG56S5.9 possesses a 12 bp deletion (positions 2167–2178) in the C gene, and ARG56K4.3 and ARG56S2.3 have two identical 1 bp insertions in the C gene (between positions 1921 and 1922, and 2189 and 2190) and also have a stop codon at codon 2 of pre-S2. It should be noted that all mutations in the C gene are not overlapped by the Pol gene. Consistent with HBV/F1b genomes being rare in Argentinian patients and that there are major perturbations in their C-gene, affecting HBeAg expression, HBeAg levels are very low. On the other hand, the Brazilian patient has a higher prevalence of HBV/F4 and no obvious defects in the C-gene, and HBeAg levels are higher.

This is the first report of HBV/G infection in Argentina. In South America, HBV/G infection has been reported only in some patients from Brazil (Bottecchia et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2010) and Colombia (Alvarado Mora et al., 2011). Initiation, but not maintenance, of chronic HBV infections seems to require expression of HBeAg (Hadziyannis, 2011). As HBV/G strains are constitutively unable to express HBeAg, in chronic infections they are invariably found to be associated with another co-infecting HBV genotype capable of furnishing HBeAg in trans. In the vast majority of HBV/G chronic infections, this co-infecting strain is subgenotype A2 (Kato et al., 2004, 2002; Martin et al., 2011; Osiowy et al., 2008). It was therefore unexpected that, in two cases described here from two different South American countries, the co-infecting strain was HBV/F, although co-infection with HBV/G and either HBV/A2 or HBV/H has been reported in Mexico (Sánchez et al., 2007). The obvious explanation is that HBV/G can associate with prevalent local strains capable of supplying HBeAg. This could be the case in Argentina, where HBV/F (mainly HBV/F1b and HBV/F4) is the most prevalent HBV genotype among Argentinian chronic hepatitis B patients (Mbayed et al., 2001; Telenta et al., 1997) and blood donors (França et al., 2004). However, HBV/G infections are associated with HBV/A2 in Japan (Kato et al., 2002) where this subgenotype is rare, and in Brazil HBV/G is extremely rare and HBV/F prevalence is low (<15%) countrywide (Araujo et al., 2004; Mello et al., 2007; Paraná & Almeida,

Table 1. Mean genetic distances between groups of full-length HBV genotype G sequences from different geographical regions

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2005). In addition, the related HBV/F subgenotype in the Brazilian patient was F4 and not F2, which has been found to be most prevalent in Brazil (Mello et al., 2007).

It is of note that, in both the Argentinian and the Brazilian patients, the HBV/F strains form minor populations (1–2% of HBV genomes). For the Argentinian patient, this can be explained by mutations in the core gene found in three of the four full-length genomes. These isolates can only persist if HBcAg is supplied in trans, which is possible given that genotype G strains overexpress HBcAg (Kremsdorf et al., 1996), but means that the defective HBV/F1b strains need to co-infect hepatocytes along with a HBV/G strain. For the Brazilian patient, the answer lies perhaps with the rTL180M mutation found in all HBV/G clones. This is a compensatory mutation associated with lamivudine resistance, restoring replication fitness to HBV polymerase harbouring rtM204V/I (Ono et al., 2001). In this study, the authors also showed that complete genomes carrying rTL180M without rtM204V/I produced higher levels of HBV-DNA than wild-type genomes. Therefore, the presence of rTL180M alone in the Brazilian HBV/G strain may have led to a selective advantage over co-infecting HBV/F strains.

It is also noteworthy that novel intergenotypic G/F recombinants in both patients were identified. Are these real recombinants or have they been generated by strand switching during PCR amplification? This cannot be excluded for the Argentinian patient, as recombinants were identified only by subgenomic PCR. However, for the Brazilian patient there are several arguments against this possibility. First, to obtain the recombinants described, two strand switches would have to occur in the same PCR. Secondly, the HBV/F genomes are very rare and strand switching from HBV/G to HBV/F is highly unlikely. This argument also applies to the Argentinian patient. Thirdly, and perhaps most importantly, ‘pure’ HBV/F genomes should be present in greater quantities than artefactual recombinant genomes, and this is not the case.

These are the first HBV G/F recombinant genomes characterized from the Americas. Recombination between HBV/G and HBV/F has previously been reported only once, in an HIV-positive patient, surprisingly from France (Fallot et al., 2012). Dual HBV infection and genomic recombination between different genotypes have been increasingly documented (Simmonds & Midgley, 2005; Sugauchi et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2007). Recombination has been found to occur more frequently in certain ‘hot-spot’ regions of the viral genome, such as the core region (Bowyer & Sim, 2000; Garmiri et al., 2009; Luo et al., 2004), pre-S1 (Chen et al., 2004), pre-S2/S (Chen et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2005), polymerase (Kurbanov et al., 2005; Magiorkinis et al., 2005) and X (Martin et al., 2011), and has been considered a significant source of HBV genetic variability (Simmonds & Midgley, 2005). In our study, all but one G/F recombinant clones had recombination breakpoints in the core region (Fig. 2a–f).

Dual HBV infection has been reported frequently in HBV/HIV co-infected individuals (Fallot et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2011), and lowered immunity and multiple partners may render these patients more susceptible to mixed infections. An association between HBV genotypes and clinical outcomes, activity of liver disease, HBV replication and treatment responses has been demonstrated (Lin & Kao, 2011; Mayerat et al., 1999; McMahon, 2009). It has also been proposed that modes of transmission may influence HBV virulence by favouring some genotypes over others (Araujo et al., 2011). In particular, a correlation between HBV genotype and sexual transmission has been observed for HBV/G, which is highly associated with MSM as a risk factor for infection (Bottechia et al., 2008; Osiowy et al., 2008; Sánchez et al., 2007; Shibayama et al., 2005). Also, HBV/G infection has been correlated with more advanced fibrosis of the liver in HIV co-infected patients (Duo et al., 2011; Lacombe et al., 2006). Here, the Brazilian patient was an MSM with elevated ALT (alanine transaminase) levels, but without liver fibrosis. These data for the Argentinian patient were not available.

Hybrid HBV strains resulting from genomic recombination between different genotypes may enhance their virulence, e.g. by harbouring mutations that lead to antiviral resistance or increased replication capacity of the recombinant genomes. The effects of recombination events found in HBV/G infection are currently unknown, and the implications of these recombinants on pathogenesis and disease progression, especially in HBV/HIV co-infected patients, warrant further study.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the FIOCRUZ-INSERM exchange programme and the French National Agency for Research on AIDS and Viral Hepatitis (ANRS). We thank Dr Fabian Fay for serological information on the Argentinian patient.

References


A in West Africa: new subtypes, mixed infections and recombinations. 


