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- 3 Potential of human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells in studies of liver disease
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5 **List of abbreviations:**

- 6 hIPSC: Human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells
- 7 HLC: hIPSC-derived hepatocyte-like cells
- 8 CLCs: hIPSC-derived cholangiocyte-like cells
- 9 A1AT: α1-Antitrypsin
- 10 FTA: Familial Transthyretin Amyloidosis
- 11 TTR: Transthyretin
- 12 GSD1a: Glycogen Storage Disease type 1a
- 13 WD: Wilson's Disease
- 14 FH: Familial Hypercholesterolemia
- 15 HCV: Hepatitis C Virus
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1 Abstract

2 Liver disease is a leading cause of death in the Western World. However, our insight 3 into the underlying disease mechanisms and development of novel therapeutic 4 agents has been hindered by limited availability of primary tissue, intra-species 5 variability associated with the use of animal models and reduced long-term viability of 6 isolated and diseased liver cells. The emergence of hIPSCs (human Induced 7 Pluripotent Stem Cells) and differentiation protocols to generate hepatocyte-like cells 8 has opened the possibility of addressing these issues. Here we discuss the recent 9 progress and potential in the production of various cell types constituting the liver and 10 their applications to model liver diseases and test drug toxicity in vitro.

1 Liver disease constitutes a leading cause of death worldwide (1). However, 2 depending on the etiology, treatment options can be limited and liver transplantation 3 remains the only available therapy for end stage liver failure (2). Understanding the 4 disease pathogenesis is crucial for developing new therapeutic agents and 5 diagnostic modalities. Although existing models for the study of hepatic disorders 6 have proven very useful, they also exhibit significant limitations. In vivo models are 7 constrained by intra-species variability (3), while the use of primary tissue is limited 8 by poor availability and technical challenges in culturing primary cells (4). 9 Furthermore, established cell lines are restricted by their malignant background and 10 the requirement for non-physiological manipulations, such as protein overexpression, 11 to replicate the disease phenotype.

12 Human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (hIPSCs) derived from reprogrammed 13 somatic cells (5) demonstrate great potential for overcoming such challenges. Their 14 capacity for self-renewal and differentiation into almost any cell type provides a 15 unique system for generating large quantities of autologous, disease-specific liver 16 cells in vitro. Cells generated through this system constitute an optimal platform for 17 modeling hepatic disorders, provided that they closely resemble their native 18 counterparts, recapitulate key aspects of the disease in question and demonstrate 19 measurable responses to therapeutic agents.

Here, we review how these requirements are addressed by existing culture systems for the generation of hIPSC-derived hepatocytes, describe their applications for modeling hepatic disorders and discuss future directions for the use of hIPSCs in the study of liver disease.

24

25 Current approaches for the generation of liver cells from hIPSCs

Given the potential of hIPSCs for modeling hepatic disease, the derivation of different
liver cell populations has been the subject of intensive research. Most of these efforts
have concentrated on the generation of hepatocytes, which occupy the largest

1 proportion of the organ volume and are responsible for the majority of its metabolic 2 functions including detoxification, glucose metabolism, synthesis of plasma proteins 3 and bile production (6). However, the metabolic activity of hepatocytes is supported 4 by multiple other cell types collectively known as non-parenchymal liver cells. This 5 heterogeneous population includes sinusoidal endothelial cells, hepatic stellate cells, 6 Kupffer cells and cholangiocytes (6). With the exception of cholangiocytes, 7 differentiation of hIPSCs to non-parenchymal cell types of the liver has not yet been 8 reported. In this section, we concentrate on current platforms for the generation of 9 hIPSC-derived hepatocytes and cholangiocytes, their advantages and limitations.

10 Hepatocytes

11 Primary hepatocytes remain the gold standard for *in vitro* modeling of liver diseases. 12 However, hIPSC-derived hepatocyte-like-cells (HLCs) could present an excellent 13 alternative for addressing availability issues, provided they recapitulate key features 14 of their native counterparts. Indeed, a minimum set of criteria need to be met prior to 15 characterizing hIPSC-derived cells as 'hepatocyte-like'. These include expression of 16 hepatic markers at gene and protein level, demonstration of specific ultrastructural 17 characteristics, production of albumin, urea and fibrinogen, induction of P450 18 enzymatic activity following treatment with specific inducers and the use of selected 19 substrates to confirm phase 1 and 2 metabolic enzyme activity (7-10).

20 To fulfill these criteria, multiple groups have developed protocols of directed 21 differentiation towards HLCs (11-16), aimed at recapitulating key stages of natural 22 liver development including definitive endoderm, foregut, hepatic endoderm, 23 bipotential hepatoblasts and hepatocyte like cells (17) (Figure 1). All these 24 approaches converge on the modulation of pathways known to have a pivotal role in 25 hepatic embryogenesis, such as FGF, BMP4, Wnt, Activin and HGF signaling (17). 26 The resulting cells bear significant similarities to primary hepatocytes in terms of 27 transcriptional profile and functional properties, such as albumin and apolipoprotein 28 B100 (ApoB100) secretion, functional bile transport, LDL uptake, urea synthesis,

cytochrome P450 activity (Cyp3A4) and glycogen storage (16,18). However, HLCs
 resemble more closely fetal rather than adult hepatocytes, with ongoing expression
 of fetal markers (AFP) and embryonic P450 activity (Cyp3A7) (Table 1).

4 The fetal identity of HLCs has given rise to a plethora of studies focusing on 5 increasing their functionality. Among these approaches two main strategies emerge: 6 The first concentrates on increasing differentiation efficiency, promoting maturation 7 or enhancing P450 activity and drug metabolism. The use of small molecule 8 compounds (19-20), sequential overexpression of transcription factors controlling 9 various stages of hepatic development (17), direct reprogramming of fibroblasts to 10 induced Hepatic Stem Cells through forced expression of hepatic transcription 11 factors (21-22) and direct reprogramming of fibroblasts to endoderm progenitor cells 12 by combining overexpression of OCT4, SOX2 and Klf4 with small molecule treatment 13 (23) have all been reported to contribute towards achieving this goal. Therefore, it is 14 possible that such methodologies will increasingly complement growth factors driven 15 differentiation of hIPSCs in the future.

The second strategy focuses on accurately simulating the liver microenvironment through 3D culture of HLCs (24), co-culture with endothelial or non-parenchymal cells (25), the use of artificial scaffolds (26) or a combination of these techniques (27). These approaches have also been reported to increase functionality, optimize the transcriptional profile of HLCs and even allow the generation of functional liver organoids with the capacity to engraft in the vasculature of immunodeficient mice (27).

23 Considered collectively, these advances have contributed towards bridging the gap 24 between primary hepatocytes and HLCs (Figure 1). However, many challenges 25 remain prior to fully achieving this goal, such as the limited capacity of HLCs to 26 repopulate the liver of animal models of hepatic failure. Furthermore, considering the 27 notable differences between primary hepatocytes cultured *in vitro* and their native 28 counterparts, it is possible that there is a limit to how closely *in vitro* HLCs can reproduce the phenotype and function *in vivo* hepatocytes. Indeed, culture systems
 maintaining the full functional repertoire of primary hepatocytes are yet to be
 developed and until then, generation of fully mature hepatocytes *in vitro* might remain
 elusive.

5 Cholangiocytes

6 Cholangiocytes constitute the main cell type affected by diseases of the biliary 7 system, or cholangiopathies. Therefore, differentiation of hIPSCs to cholangiocyte-8 like cells could provide a novel platform for the study of biliary disorders and the 9 development of new therapeutic agents. The generation of hIPSC-derived 10 cholangiocyte-like cells (CLCs) and organoids has been reported by various groups 11 (28-32). The common denominator in these approaches is the suspension of 12 hepatoblast- or cholangiocyte progenitor-like cells in Matrigel supplemented with 13 EGF, Wht or HGF. The cells re-organize in 3D polarized structures expressing biliary 14 markers and lacking expression of hepatic markers. The resulting organoids exhibit 15 secretory functionality (28,29,32), alkaline phospatase (30) and gamma-glutamyl 16 transpeptidase activity (31), as well as responses to hormonal stimuli including 17 somatostatin (32). Despite these advances, the relevance of these approaches to 18 natural development remains vague, which limits their applications for developmental 19 studies and drug screening. Therefore, further optimization of the current culture 20 systems remains a prerequisite for effectively modeling cholangiopathies using 21 hIPSCs.

22

23 Disease models to date

Since the first proof-of-principle that patient-specific HLCs can be used to model liver diseases (33), the field has expanded rapidly to address a broad range of disorders. Here we review the current hIPSCs-based models for liver disease and their contribution to advancing our insight in the pathophysiology of hepatic disorders (Table 2, Figure 2).

2 Disease caused by accumulation of misfolded proteins

3 a1-Antitrypsin (A1AT) Deficiency: A1AT deficiency is an autosomal recessive 4 disorder caused by mutations in the A1AT-endcoding SERPINA1 gene (34). A1AT is 5 a protease inhibitor synthesized primarily by hepatocytes. SERPINA1 mutations lead 6 to low levels of serum and alveolar A1AT, which is associated with panlobular 7 emphysema from over-active proteases such as pulmonary neutrophil elastase. 8 Retention of misfolded A1AT polymers within the hepatic endoplasmic reticulum (ER) 9 results in hepatic dysfunction and liver disease (34). A1AT deficiency was the first 10 hepatic disorder to be modelled in vitro using hIPSCs, by differentiating patient-11 derived hIPSCs into A1AT polymer-retaining HLCs. The disease phenotype was 12 confirmed by ELISA and immunocytochemistry for the polymeric form of A1AT, as 13 well as ER-specific enzyme digests, which indicated entrapment of A1AT in the ER. 14 In a subsequent study, the same group reported rescue of the disease phenotype, 15 following correction of the SERPINA1 mutation using zinc finger nucleases, thereby 16 demonstrating a direct association between the phenotype observed and the 17 underlying genetic defect (35). These results illustrate the potential of hIPSCs for 18 genetic correction, which represents a powerful tool for dissecting the mechanisms of 19 inherited disorders and generating autologous healthy tissue for personalised cell-20 based therapy.

21 Familial Transthyretin Amyloidosis (FTA): FTA is a lethal autosomal dominant 22 disease, caused by mutations in the transthyretin-encoding TTR gene, leading to 23 secretion of monomeric misfolded TTR proteins by the liver and formation of 24 extracellular fibrils accumulating as amyloid in target organs, mainly the brain and 25 heart (36). Although the liver participates in the disease pathogenesis through the 26 production of pathological TTR, it does not sustain end organ damage (37). Consequently, in vitro modeling of FTA has been limited by the requirement of 27 28 multiple cell types to capture the complexity of the disease. These include

hepatocytes for studying the mechanisms controlling TTR production and misfolding,
 as well as several target cell populations for interrogating the effects of the *TTR* mutation products.

4 The capacity of hIPSCs to differentiate towards almost any cell type renders them an 5 ideal platform to overcome this challenge. Indeed, recently Leung et al. reported the 6 generation of hepatocytes, cardiomyocytes and neurons from hIPSCs of patients 7 with FTA (37). Neurons and cardiomyocytes exposed to hepatocyte-secreted mutant 8 TTR, using conditioned media, exhibited oxidative stress and increased cell death. 9 More importantly, the use of small molecules stabilizing TTR exerted a protective 10 effect on the target cell populations (37). Considered collectively, these results 11 illustrate the potential of hIPSCs for modeling diseases affecting several organs 12 simultaneously.

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14 Liver diseases caused by disruption of enzymatic activity

15 Glycogen Storage Disease type 1a (GSD1a): GSD1a is a rare autosomal recessive 16 disorder caused by mutations in the G6PC-encoded glucose-6-phosphatase (G6PT) 17 (38). G6PT is essential for the regulation of glucose homeostasis through 18 gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis (38). Consequently, G6PT deficiency manifests 19 with hypoglycemia, lactic acidosis, hyperuricemia, and hyperlipidemia. Lipid and 20 glycogen accumulation in liver and kidneys result in hepatorenomegaly, while growth 21 retardation is also reported. Importantly, glucagon stimulation in these patients 22 increases serum lactate but does not affect serum glucose levels (38).

GSD1a has been successfully modelled *in vitro* using patient-derived HLCs (33). Indeed, GSD1a-HLCs exhibited increased glycogen and lipid accumulation compared to wild-type controls, demonstrated through PAS and BODIPY staining respectively. Furthermore, GSD1a-HLCs showed similar sensitivity to glucagon stimulation compared to wild-type controls; however, lactate synthesis was significantly increased in GSD1a-HLCs. Considered together these experiments demonstrate the potential of hIPSCs for recapitulating key features of GSD1a *in vitro*, including glycogen accumulation, hyperlipidemia and lactic acidosis. More importantly, the capacity of HLCs for mimicking the native regulation of glucose and lipid homeostasis, renders them a unique system for studying more complex metabolic liver disorders associated with type 2 diabetes and metabolic syndrome, such as liver steatosis and Non Alcoholic Steatohepatitis (NASH).

7 Wilson's Disease (WD): WD is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by 8 mutations in the ATP7B gene, an ATPase expressed mainly in hepatocytes and 9 mediating hepatocellular excretion of copper in the bile and bloodstream. Hepatic 10 accumulation of copper results in liver damage leading to cirrhosis or in some cases 11 acute liver failure; while increased serum copper levels result in copper deposition 12 and toxicity, affecting multiple organs, mainly the brain, kidneys and cornea (39-40). 13 Current treatments with copper chelators are very effective in reducing copper serum 14 levels; however, liver transplantation remains the only treatment option for acute liver 15 failure and refractory disease (39). Concerning modeling of WD in vitro, 2 groups 16 have generated HLCs from WD patients, exhibiting abnormal cytoplasmic localization 17 of mutant ATP7B and defective copper transport (40-41). More importantly, Zhang et 18 al. reported rescue of the disease phenotype using the chaperone drug curcumin or 19 lentiviral overexpression of wild type ATP7B. These results provide proof-of-principle 20 for therapeutic approaches alternative to copper chelators in Wilson's disease and 21 validate the potential of hIPSC-derived hepatocytes as an appropriate platform for 22 drug validation in the context of this disorder (40).

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24 Diseases caused by receptor dysfunction

Familial hypercholesterolemia (FH): FH represents the most common and severe form of inherited hypercholesterolemia. The uptake and catabolism of LDL-C in the liver is physiologically mediated by the low density lipoprotein receptor (*LDLR*) on the membrane of hepatocytes. FH is caused by mutations in the LDLR inherited in an autosomal codominant pattern, which result in poor hepatic uptake and high
circulating levels of plasma cholesterol levels (LDL-C) irrespective of diet,
medications or lifestyle, thereby leading to early onset of cardiovascular disease (42).
Furthermore, recent mouse studies suggest a role for LDLR in regulating plasma
levels of very low density lipoprotein (VLDL) and ApoB100 (42). However, human
data is extremely limited given the difficulties in obtaining primary tissue from FH
patients.

8 HLCs provide an excellent platform for addressing this challenge. Patient-derived 9 HLCs (33.43) exhibit reduced synthesis of LDLR and impaired receptor functionality 10 demonstrated by limited LDL-C uptake in FACS analysis and immunohistochemistry 11 assays (33). The capacity of this system to accurately reproduce the phenotype of 12 different LDLR mutations was demonstrated using a compound heterozygous patient 13 with a non-functional maternal allele and a paternal allele encoding a receptor with 14 physiological binding to LDL-C but defective internalization (43). The resulting HLCs 15 exhibited increased clustering of fluorescently-labelled LDL-C on the cell surface but 16 reduced uptake as a result of impaired endocytosis of LDL-C through the paternally-17 encoded mutant LDLR. These observations underline the potential of HLCs for 18 dissecting the impact of genetic variations on the disease phenotype. Furthermore, 19 the application of FH-HLCs for drug screening in FH was demonstrated by 20 reproducing the effects of lovastatin, a lipid-lowering agent, known to be ineffective 21 for patients with FH (44). Indeed, FH-HLCs exhibited minimal change in LDL-C 22 uptake compared to wild-type controls, which increased cholesterol uptake 23 appropriately (43). These results provide proof-of-principle for the suitability of FH-24 HLCs as a platform for testing the efficacy of lipid-lowering agents in the context of 25 FH. Finally, using this culture system, a role for LDLR in regulating ApoB100 levels in 26 human was identified. Indeed, FH-HLCs exhibited an 8-fold increase in secreted 27 ApoB100 compared to wild-type controls, in the absence of enhanced gene 28 expression, suggesting a mechanism involving post-translational degradation of ApoB100 (43). These results demonstrate the potential of FH-HLCs as a model for
 studying the molecular pathogenesis of FH.

3

4 Infectious diseases of the liver

5 Hepatitis C Virus: Hepatocytes are susceptible to infection from multiple pathogens 6 (Hepatitis A-E, CMV, EBV) and parasites (Plasmodium, including viruses 7 Schistosoma). However, the most common infective cause for liver transplantation is 8 viral infection with Hepatitis C (HCV) (2). Current treatment options for HCV offer 9 only a 50% viral clearance rate, while liver transplantation is complicated by disease 10 recurrence in the graft (2,45). Primary hepatocytes represent the gold standard for 11 studying the pathophysiology of hepatitis C viral infection; however, their limited 12 availability has led to the use of hepatoma lines such as Huh 7.5 (46-47). Although 13 these systems have proven useful for studying the disease, they are limited by 14 inherent differences from primary hepatocytes associated with their cancerous 15 nature, reduced infection efficiency and defects in interferon production. More 16 importantly, cell lines can only be infected by specific HCV genotypes and are 17 resistant to infection with human sera (47). HLCs provide an alternative platform for 18 the study of HCV that addresses some of these challenges. In particular, they 19 express the necessary receptors for the entry of HCV in the cells (47-49), support the 20 full life cycle of the virus (50) and reproduce key inflammatory responses to infection, 21 including TNFα and interleukin 28 secretion (47,50). In contrast to hepatoma lines, 22 HLCs can be infected using infected patient sera (47,49). Interestingly, using HLCs, 23 Wu et al. have identified key factors regulating permissiveness to viral infection 24 including the upregulation of micro-RNA 122 and suppression of antiviral genes such 25 as interferon-induced transmembrane protein-1 (47). Most importantly, the same 26 group generated genetically modified hepatocytes resistant to HCV infection, thereby 27 addressing a major challenge for liver transplantation and autologous cell therapy in 28 HCV patients; preventing recurrence of the disease in the transplanted tissue (2,47).

Considered collectively, these studies demonstrate the potential of hIPSCs for
 modeling host-pathogen interactions in infectious hepatic disorders and constitute
 the first example of HLCs used in the study of a non-genetic liver disease.
 Importantly, a similar approach could be applied for the study of other common liver
 pathogens, including HBV (51) or parasitic infections (52).

6

7 The potential of hIPSCs for modeling complex liver disease

8 With the exception of HCV, all liver diseases modeled to date using hIPSCs 9 constitute rare monogenic metabolic disorders that collectively account for less than 10 10% of the total number of liver transplantations performed (2) (Table 2). Therefore, 11 a major challenge for regenerative medicine in hepatology is evolving from proof-of-12 principle models to modeling more complex disorders that constitute leading causes 13 for chronic liver disease and transplantation.

14 Modeling cirrhosis: Hepatic failure secondary to cirrhosis constitutes the endpoint 15 in the natural history of the majority of chronic liver disorders and one of the most 16 common causes of death in the Western world (2). It is caused by disruption of the 17 liver architecture due to excessive deposition of connective tissue by hepatic stellate 18 cells (53). However multiple other cell types contribute to the disease through 19 activating stellate cells or triggering inflammatory responses. These include 20 hepatocytes, Kupffer cells and sinusoidal endothelial cells (53). One of the major 21 difficulties in modeling cirrhosis in vitro is accurately reproducing these intricate 22 cellular interactions controlling the disease pathogenesis. To overcome this 23 challenge various approaches have been used. In vivo models based on 24 administration of toxic compounds, Schistosoma infection or bile duct ligation to induce cirrhosis have proven useful; however they are not specific to the underlying 25 26 liver disease and they are limited by intra-species variability (54). In vitro models 27 based on 3D platforms enabling co-culture of primary hepatocytes and stellate cells 28 (53) address some of these issues; however, they are also restricted by poor access

1 to primary tissue. The use of hIPSCs-based platforms simulating the liver 2 microenvironment could contribute towards overcoming these limitations. Indeed, 3 introduction of stellate and Kupffer cells in existing organoid culture systems 4 combining HLCs, endothelial and stromal cell populations (25,27) could provide an 5 excellent model for studying the cellular interactions controlling the pathogenesis of 6 cirrhosis. In the absence of protocols for the generation of hIPSC-derived stellate 7 cells, stellate cell lines could be used, while macrophages acting as Kupffer cells 8 could be derived from hIPSCs or isolated from peripheral blood.

9 Finally, the most challenging aspect might not be to source all the cells necessary to 10 mimic the liver environment but to reproduce chronic hepatocyte injury in vitro. 11 Indeed, cirrhosis/fibrosis secondary to certain etiologies, such as congestive cardiac 12 failure can prove challenging to model especially in a culture system with a short 13 half-life (10). Furthermore, the impact of the fetal phenotype of HLCs for such 14 platforms remains unclear. To conclude, multicellular organoid platforms based on 15 HLCs could provide one of the most accurate systems to date for reproducing the 16 complexity of cirrhotic tissue in vitro. However, several challenges remain to be 17 addressed, which will require major advances in 3D co-culture systems.

18

19 Modeling biliary disease: Bile duct disorders constitute an important cause for 20 chronic liver disease and transplantation (2). However, treatment options are 21 extremely limited (2) and our understanding of the disease pathogenesis is restricted 22 by lack of appropriate disease models. Indeed, in vivo models fail to fully recapitulate 23 the disease phenotype, while primary cholangiocytes are extremely difficult to culture 24 in vitro (55). CLCs could contribute towards addressing this challenge. Culture 25 systems recapitulating key stages of native biliary differentiation and tubulogenesis 26 could increase our insight into the mechanisms of bile duct specification and provide 27 an ideal platform for modeling infantile cholangiopathies caused by defects in biliary 28 tree development (56). Furthermore, patient-derived CLCs represent an excellent system for interrogating the impact of genetic modifiers in the pathogenesis of complex biliary disorders, such as Primary Biliary Cirrhosis (PBC). Recent genomewide association studies have identified multiple loci associated with PBC (57), but their expression and function in cholangiocytes remains largely unknown. CLCs could address this challenge by delivering an *in vitro* platform with the capacity to characterize which of these loci are expressed in biliary tissue and enable further studies on their function and mechanism of action.

8

9 Modeling hepatotoxicity and Drug Induced Liver Injury

10 Hepatotoxicity constitutes the second most common cause for drug failure in human 11 (58), while Drug Induced Liver Injury (DILI) accounts for 50% of acute liver failure 12 cases (59). The mechanisms controlling drug sensitivity and idiosyncratic reactions 13 remain largely unknown. Genetic factors are considered to play a major role; 14 however limited access to primary tissue precludes the development of large scale in 15 vitro platforms capturing the genetic diversity of a population and allowing in-depth 16 genomic studies. HLCs could overcome this limitation by providing large numbers of 17 isogenic cells capable of reproducing the effects of various therapeutic compounds in 18 *vitro*. However, the differences in drug metabolism between primary hepatocytes and 19 HLCs remain a significant limitation that needs to be assessed and addressed in 20 order to maximize the potential of HLC-based platforms for modeling hepatotoxicity 21 and DILI. The development of new protocols (16,20,24) could provide novel 22 perspectives towards achieving this goal. Furthermore, the recent development of 23 extensive hIPSC libraries such as the HipSci project (http://www.hipsci.org/), 24 combined with advances in automated cell culture and high throughput techniques 25 (60-61), provide an excellent infrastructure for deriving substantial cohorts of HLCs 26 reproducing the genetic variability and polymorphisms accounting of drug toxicity. 27 High-throughput sequencing and phenotyping platforms could enable direct 28 comparison of the genetic profiles between HLC cohorts derived from healthy individuals and patients with DILI or hypersensitivity reactions in order to identify novel genetic variants associated with hepatotoxicity. HLCs expressing these variants could subsequently be used to interrogate the mechanisms controlling drug toxicity and provide more accurate screening platforms for early identification of toxic compounds.

6

7 Conclusion

8 In conclusion, recent technical advances in differentiation protocols combined with 9 the development of complex organoid culture systems have significantly improved 10 the quality and spectrum of hIPSC-derived liver cell types. As a result hIPSC-based 11 liver disease modeling is rapidly expanding from reproducing key phenotypic aspects 12 of rare monogenic disorders to modeling diseases representing major causes for 13 chronic liver disease and transplantation, such as HCV. In addition, novel 14 technologies becoming rapidly available in the field will enable studies at the deepest 15 molecular level, linking genetics, epigenetics and phenotype in the context of 16 complex liver disorders; thereby pushing the boundaries of regenerative hepatology 17 even further in the near future.

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19 Conflict of interest

LV is a founder and shareholder of Definigen. The rest of the authors have nothing todisclose.

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| 17 | |

1 Figure Legends

2

3 Figure 1

4 Strategies the generation of Hepatocyte-Like-Cells (HLCs) from human Induced 5 Pluripotent Stem Cells (hIPSCs). Key stages of *in vivo* liver development are 6 compared to *in vitro* differentiation of HLCs and the growth factors controlling each 7 stage are mentioned. Approaches for improving HLC maturation are also 8 summarized.

9

10 **Figure 2**

11 with Liver disease pathways modeled patient-specific hIPSC-derived 12 hepatocytes. The underlying pathophysiology of several hepatic disorders modeled 13 in hIPSC-derived hepatocytes is outlined (red) and shown to deviate from the WT 14 phenotype (green). (1) a1-Antitrypsin Deficiency: Accumulation of misfolded a1-15 antitrypsin in the ER. (2) Familial Transthyretin Amyloidosis: Secretion of 16 misfolded protein and formation of extracellular fibrils. (3) Glycogen Storage 17 Disease **1a**: Disruption of enzymatic Familial Type activity. (4) 18 Hypercholesterolemia: Cell membrane receptor dysfunction. (5) Hepatitis C Virus: 19 Permissiveness of viral infection and replication.

1 Table Legends

2

3 Table 1

Key characteristics of HLCs generated *in vitro* including expression of liver specific
markers, *in vivo* engraftment potential and functionality in comparison to primary
hepatocytes.

7

8 **Table 2**

- 9 Contribution of hIPSCs to modeling liver disease. Key hepatic disorders leading to
- 10 liver transplantation and relevant hIPSC-based models currently available.

| Protocol / | Positive | Hepatic | Hepatic Functional Assays | | | | | Murine | Disease |
|--|--|--|---|--|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| Publication Du et al. Cell | Control | Markers (RT-PCR, ICC, FC, IHC) ALB | CYP 3A4 Metabolic Assay (percentage relative to primary hepatocytes) ~ 80-270% | Albumin Secretion (percentage relative to primary hepatocytes) ~ 60% | Glycogen Synthesis / Storage | Cholesterol Uptake | Indocyanine Green Uptake | Engraftment in vivo | Modeling n/a |
| Stem Cell 2014 | isolated human primary hepatocytes | ALB AAT AFP negative HNF4A CYP3A4 | ~ 80-270% | ~ 00% | yes | yes | yes | yes | 11/a |
| Toubul et al. Hepatology 2010, Hannan et al. Nature Protocols 2013, Gieseck et al. PLOS ONE 2014 | freshly isolated human primary hepatocytes | ALB AAT AFP HNF4A CYP3A4 | ~ 10% (unpublished) | ~ 75% | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes |
| Ogawa et al. Development 2013 | freshly isolated, cryo- preserved human primary hepatocytes | ALB AAT AFP HNF4A CYP3A4 | ~ 900% * | ~ 1400% * | n/a | n/a | yes | n/a | n/a |
| Si-Tayeb et al. Hepatology 2010 | cadaveric human liver samples | ALB AFP HNF4A CYP3A4 | n/a | n/a | yes | yes | yes | yes | yes |
| Hay et al. PNAS 2008 | primary adult human hepatocytes | ALB AFP HNF4A CYP3A4 | n/a | n/a | yes | n/a | n/a | yes | yes |

* CYP3A4 activity and albumin secretion in HLCs were compared to those of cryopreserved plated hepatocytes, explaining the level observed.

| | | % of liver | | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|
| Etiology | | transplantations | hIPSC-based models | | |
| | | | 1. Wu X, et al. (40) | | |
| | | | 2. Roelandt P, et al. (41) | | |
| | Viral (HBV, | 24% | 3. Yoshida T, et al. (42) | | |
| | HCV) | | 4. Schwartz RE, et al. | | |
| | | | (43) 5. Zhou XL, et al (44) | | |
| Cirrhosis | Alcohol | 19% | None available | | |
| | Alcohol + virus | 3% | None available | | |
| | Primary Biliary | | | | |
| | Cirrhosis (PBC) | 6% | None available | | |
| | Autoimmune | 2% | None available | | |
| | Secondary | | | | |
| | Biliary Cirrhosis | 1% | None available | | |
| Cancer | | 14% | None available | | |
| Cholestatio | : diseases | 10% | None available | | |
| Acute Hepatic Failure | | 8% | None available | | |
| | | | Rashid ST, et al. (26) | | |
| Metabolic diseases | | | Yusa K, et al. (28) | | |
| | | 6% | Rake JP, et al. (31) | | |
| | | 0 /0 | Zhang S, et al. (33) | | |
| | | | Yi F, et al. (34) | | |
| | | | Cayo MA et al. (36) | | |
| Other (Budd Chiari, benign | | | Leung A, et al. (30) | | |
| liver tumors, polycystic | | 3% | | | |
| disease) | | | Klotz C et al. (45) | | |



