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Article

Human iPSC-Derived Hepatocyte-like Cells Support Plasmodium Liver-Stage Infection In Vitro

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SUMMARY

Malaria eradication is a major goal in public health but is challenged by relapsing malaria species, expanding drug resistance, and the influence of host genetics on antimalarial drug efficacy. To overcome these hurdles, it is imperative to establish in vitro assays of liver-stage malaria for drug testing. Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) potentially allow the assessment of donor-specific drug responses, and iPSC-derived hepatocyte-like cells (iHLCs) can facilitate the study of host genetics on host-pathogen interactions and the discovery of novel targets for antimalarial drug development. We establish in vitro liver-stage malaria infections in iHLCs using P. berghei, P. yoelii, P. falciparum, and P. vivax and show that differentiating cells acquire permissiveness to malaria infection at the hepatoblast stage. We also characterize antimalarial drug metabolism capabilities of iHLCs using prototypical antimalarial drugs and demonstrate that chemical maturation of iHLCs can improve their potential for antimalarial drug testing applications.

INTRODUCTION

Malaria affects 250 million people and causes approximately one million deaths each year (World Health Organization, 2013). As an obligate stage of the Plasmodium life cycle that occurs soon after infection of the human host, the liver stage is an attractive target for the development of antimalarial drugs and vaccines (Mazier et al., 2009; Prudêncio et al., 2006), especially with the goal of malaria eradication. Current in vitro models of liver-stage malaria commonly utilize hepatic cell lines such as HepG2 or HC04 in conjunction with Plasmodium sporozoites from either rodent malaria species (P. berghei, P. yoelii) or human malaria species (P. falciparum, P. vivax), which have liver stages that range in length from 2 days for P. berghei and P. yoelii to 6–8 days for P. falciparum and P. vivax. Due to their better maintenance of hepatic drug metabolism enzymes compared to hepatic cell lines and the fact that they are the natural host for malaria sporozoites, primary human hepatocytes are a preferable cell type to model liver-stage malaria in vitro for the purposes of antimalarial drug development. These traits of primary human hepatocytes mean they may offer better predictive value in in vitro liver-stage malaria phenotypic drug screens and may more accurately recapitulate host-pathogen interactions in vitro than the cell lines that are typically used for modeling liver-stage malaria (March et al., 2013). However, primary human hepatocytes are sourced from a small pool of donors and thus may not represent the genetic diversity of the human population.

Pluripotent stem cell-derived hepatocytes overcome some of the drawbacks of cell lines, fetal tissue, and adult human sources and may be considered an alternative source of primary human hepatocytes. Compared to primary human hepatocytes, stem cell-derived hepatocytes can represent more diverse genotypes, can be personalized to exhibit rare genotypes, and are renewable in culture. Human pluripotent embryonic stem cells were first isolated from human blastocysts (Thomson, 1998), but embryonic stem cells face considerable ethical issues with regards to their availability and use. More recently, the enforced expression of various factors in a variety of differentiated cell types led to the generation of induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) (Takahashi et al., 2007). In particular, iPSCs can, in a reliable and stepwise manner, differentiate through the developmentally appropriate stages (i.e., endoderm, hepatic specified endoderm, hepatoblasts) to produce hepatocyte-like cells (iHLCs) in vitro (Schwartz et al., 2014). The ability to generate iHLCs from different donors provides an opportunity to assess donor-specific drug responses in vitro, akin to conducting an in vitro clinical trial. Our prior work has shown that iHLCs are susceptible to hepatotropic pathogens such as hepatitis C and hepatitis B virus infection (Schwartz et al., 2012; Shlomai et al., 2014). It remains to be seen whether iHLCs can serve as a host population for liver-stage malaria assays,
especially considering that iHLCs generated using current state of the art protocols are developmentally immature and more closely resemble fetal hepatocytes in their cytochrome P450 expression and activity profiles as well as in their antigen expression (Si-Tayeb et al., 2010). However, recent promising attempts to mature iHLCs to a more adult phenotype, including the identification of small molecules (Shan et al., 2013), genetic manipulation with transduction of a gene for a hepatic transcription factor (Takayama et al., 2012), a combination of 3D culture and cAMP signaling (Ögawa et al., 2013), or in vivo transplantation (Takebe et al., 2013), may ultimately contribute to the generation of appropriately mature iHLCs for antimalarial drug screens, which, to date, have largely been carried out in human hepatoma cells (da Cruz et al., 2012; Derbyshire et al., 2012; Meister et al., 2011). Isogenic iHLCs that are more developmentally mature may also facilitate the discovery of host factors for the *Plasmodium* liver stages.

In this study, we show the feasibility of infecting iHLCs with *Plasmodium* sporozoites in vitro and demonstrate *Plasmodium* parasite development over time in culture. We identify the stage at which cells acquire permissiveness to liver-stage malaria infection during the differentiation process. It is also necessary to characterize the responses of malaria-infected iHLCs to known antimalarial drugs in order to establish the utility of this cell type for use in in vitro liver-stage malaria phenotypic drug screens. We observe that iHLCs are not responsive to the antimalarial drug primaquine and hypothesize this deficiency is due to a lack of bioactivation of the drug by hepatic cytochrome P450 drug metabolism enzymes. Consistent with this model, we further demonstrate that chemically matured iHLCs acquire primaquine sensitivity, highlighting the potential to use iHLCs for antimalarial drug testing.

**RESULTS**

**iPSC-Derived Hepatocyte-like Cells Support Liver-Stage Malaria Infection In Vitro**

iPSC-derived hepatocyte-like cells (iHLCs) were generated using a 20 day in vitro differentiation protocol that recapitulates the different stages of hepatic development (Si-Tayeb et al., 2010). During this differentiation process, iPSCs adopt an endoderm fate at 5 days and become hepatic-specified endoderm cells at 10 days, hepatoblasts at 15 days, and iHLCs at 20 days after the initiation of differentiation, respectively (Figure 1A). iHLCs demonstrate typical polygonal hepatocyte morphology (Figure 1B) and express prototypical hepatic markers like human albumin, α1-antitrypsin, and α-fetoprotein (Figure 1C). The two known host entry factors for liver-stage malaria, CD81 and SRβ1, are both transcribed and translated in iHLCs (Figures 1D and 1E), and the proteins are appropriately localized on the cell surface, as observed via immunofluorescence assays (Figures 1F and 1G). Based on these observations, we hypothesized that day 20 iHLCs may support *Plasmodium* infection.

Cultures of iHLCs were overlaid with media containing *P. berghei* sporozoites for 3 hr and fixed at 1, 2, or 3 days postexposure. Immunofluorescence assays using antibodies specific for *P. berghei* HSP70 were conducted in order to quantitate iHLC infection by *P. berghei* (Figure 2A). HSP70-expressing exoerythrocytic forms (EEFs) were detected as early as 1 day postinfection, and larger EEFs were observed at later time points (Figures 2A and 2B). Furthermore, at 3 days postinfection the *P. berghei* (Pb.) EEFs expressed the mature EEF marker, MSP-1 (Figure 2C), suggesting that Pb. EEF maturation occurred along with Pb. EEF growth. In addition, separate cultures of iHLCs were infected with an alternate rodent *Plasmodium* species, *P. yoelii* (Py.), and were shown to support Py. EEFs that also increased in size over a 48 hr period postinfection (Figures 2D and 2E). iHLCs were next tested for their capacity to be infected by the human malaria parasite, *P. falciparum* (Pf.), and were shown to support *P. falciparum* (Pf.) EEFs expressed the mature EEF marker, MSP-1 (Figure 2G), 10%–35% Pf. EEFs, as compared to 45% for Pb. EEFs, and increased in size compared to those observed at 3 days postexposure to Pf. sporozoites (Figure 2F). Moreover, at 6 days postinfection, Pf. EEFs also expressed the liver-stage maturation marker, Pf. MSP-1 (Figure 2G), 10%–35% Pf. EEFs, as compared to 45% for Pb. EEFs, and increased in size from an average of 5 μm at 3 days postinfection to a wide range of sizes up to 77 μm by 8 days postinfection (Figures 2I and 2J). These results indicate that iHLC infectibility with *Plasmodium* sporozoites is not restricted to the rodent malaria species, and that the in-vitro-derived host cells can also support EEF maturation. Last, differentiated iHLCs were phenotypically stable and could be infected with Pf. sporozoites up to day 55 after initiation of differentiation (Figure S1 available online), which was the latest time point tested for *Plasmodium* infectibility in this study.

**Kinetics of Acquisition of Permissiveness to *Plasmodium* Infectibility**

To determine at what point in the 20 day in vitro differentiation process that iPSC-derived hepatic lineage cells become susceptible to malaria infection, cells at different stages of differentiation (iPS cells, endoderm, hepatic-specified endoderm, hepatoblast, iHLCs) were exposed to sporozoites obtained from a single batch of *Pf.*-infected *A. gambiæ* mosquitoes. At 4 days postinfection, no *Pf.* EEFs were observed in iPSCs, whereas a small
number were observed in endoderm cells (d5 cells) and hepatic-specified endoderm cells (d10 cells) (Figures 3A and 3B). However, the number of \( P. f. \) EEFs was significantly higher in hepatoblasts (d15 cells) than in hepatic-specified endoderm cells and the frequency of infection remained elevated in differentiated iHLCs (d20 cells) (Figures 3A and 3B). Although some variability is observed between experiments regarding the relative number of \( P. f. \) EEFs observed between d15 and d20 cells (Figure 3B, left versus right), likely a product of the established stochastic nature of the iHLC differentiation process and also a function of heterogeneity of iPSC-derived progeny in each well, we consistently observed acquisition of more robust \( P. f. \) susceptibility between days 10 and 15 of the directed differentiation protocol. Notably, the size distributions of observed \( P. f. \) EEFs at 4 days post-infection were not significantly different at any time point (d5, d10, d15, d20 postdifferentiation) (Figure 3C), suggesting that the rare cells that exhibit permissiveness to \( Plasmodium \) sporozoite infection at earlier time points were already capable of supporting parasite survival and growth for at least 4 days postinfection. This pattern is emphasized by the observations at 6 days postinfection that d15 hepatoblasts maintained similar levels of \( P. f. \) infection as d20 iHLCs (Figure S2A), exhibited increased \( P. f. \) EEF sizes than at 4 days postinfection (Figure S2B), and supported the maturation of \( P. f. \) EEFs as demonstrated by the expression of the liver-stage maturation marker, \( P. f. \) MSP-1 (Figures S2A and S2C), and the appearance of merozoite-like structures (Figure S2D). However, a higher proportion of \( P. f. \) EEFs in d20 iHLCs express \( P. f. \) MSP1 (~40%) than those in d15 hepatoblasts (~20%) (Figure S2A), and the \( P. f. \) EEF size distribution is larger in iHLCs than in hepatoblasts (Figure S2B) at 6 days postinfection. These data suggest that, whereas hepatoblasts are also capable of supporting \( P. f. \) EEF
Figure 2. iHLCs Are Susceptible to Liver-Stage *Plasmodium* Infection

(A and B) (A) Representative immunofluorescence images of *P. berghei* (*P. b.*) EEFs and (B) *P. b.* EEF size distributions at D1, D2, or D3 postinfection in iHLCs.

(C) Representative immunofluorescence image of MSP1-positive *P. b.* EEF at D3 postinfection.

(D and E) (D) Representative immunofluorescence images of *P. yoelii* (*P. y.*) EEFs and (E) *P. y.* EEF size distributions at D1 or D2 postinfection in iHLCs.

(F and G) Representative immunofluorescence images of *P. falciparum* (*P. f.*) EEFs and (H) *P. f.* EEF size distributions at D4 or D6 postinfection in iHLCs.

(I and J) Representative immunofluorescence images of *P. vivax* (*P. v.*) EEFs and (J) *P. v.* EEF size distributions at D3 or D8 postinfection in iHLCs.

(legend continued on next page)
survival, growth, and maturation, P.f. EEFs in hepatoblasts may develop to either a slower or smaller degree than those in iHLCs. In addition to their capacity to be infected by P.f. sporozoites, d16 hepatoblasts and completely differentiated iHLCs both support similar numbers of P.y. EEFs at 2 days postinfection (Figure S2 E), suggesting that incompletely differentiated hepatoblasts have also acquired sufficient host factors to allow the invasion and growth of rodent Plasmodium sporozoites.

**Plasmodium-Infected iHLCs Are Sensitive to Atovaquone but Not Primaquine**

Because iHLCs obtained via the current iPSC in vitro differentiation protocol express a relatively low level of 83 human hepatic drug metabolism enzymes (DMEs) compared to primary human hepatocytes (Shan et al., 2013), we hypothesized that Plasmodium-infected iHLCs may only respond to antimalarial drugs that are active in their parent form, such as atovaquone (Biagini et al., 2012), and not to drugs that require bioactivation by hepatic DMEs in order to demonstrate inhibitory activity against the Plasmodium liver stages, such as primaquine (Bennett et al., 2013; Pybus et al., 2013). Indeed, when iHLCs infected with P. yoelii sporozoites were treated with 10 nM atovaquone or 10 μM primaquine starting at 3 hr postinfection, only the atovaquone-treated cultures were blocked in their ability to support P.y. EEFs (Figure 4A). In contrast, no differences in the number or size distribution of P.y. EEFs were observed in primaquine-treated iHLCs infected at either 23 or 28 days postdifferentiation (Figures 4B and 4C), suggesting that primaquine exposure had no impact on the infection or growth of P.y. EEFs. This finding supports the hypothesis

(F and H) (F) Representative immunofluorescence images of P. falciparum (P.f.) EEFs and (H) P.f. EEF size distributions at D3 or D6 postinfection in iHLCs.

(G) Representative immunofluorescence image of MSP1-positive P.f. EEF at D6 postinfection.

(I and J) (I) Representative immunofluorescence images of P. vivax (P.v.) EEFs and (J) P.v. EEF size distributions at D3 or D8 postinfection in iHLCs.

Scale bars, 5 μm. See also Figure S1.
that, whereas iHLCs support *P. yoelii* (*P.y.*) EEFs growth, they do not express the appropriate hepatic DMEs, and/or other host factors, necessary for the bioactivation of primaquine into a form that can inhibit liver-stage *P. y.* EEFs. To confirm that the absence of primaquine sensitivity of *Plasmodium*-infected iHLCs extends to the human *Plasmodium* species, iHLCs were infected with *P. falciparum* (*P.f.*) sporozoites, and primaquine treatment was started 3 hr postexposure to sporozoites. As observed following infection with *P.y.*, primaquine treatment of *P.f.*-infected iHLCs did not reduce the number of *P.f.* EEFs (Figure 4D), nor did it alter the *P.f.* EEF size distribution (Figure 4E).

**Small Molecule-Mediated Maturation of iHLCs Confers Primaquine Sensitivity**

In order to utilize iHLCs in antimalarial phenotypic drug screens, it would be highly advantageous to obtain iHLCs with a developmentally mature hepatic DME profile. A previous high-throughput small molecule screen identified two small molecules capable of promoting transcriptional upregulation of many adult human hepatic DMEs (Shan et al., 2013), including the four DMEs CYP2D6, CYP3A4, CYP2C19, and MAO-A, that are responsible for the majority of primaquine metabolism and bioactivation in hepatocytes (Jin et al., 2014; Pybus et al., 2012, 2013). To test whether maturation of iHLCs induced by these small molecules, FPH1, confers primaquine sensitivity, iHLCs were treated with either FPH1 or the DMSO carrier for a total of 6 days (treatment phase, D21–26). The iHLCs were cultured for an additional 1–2 days without the small molecule (washout phase, D27–28) before being exposed to *Plasmodium* sporozoites, in order to avoid any direct effects of the small molecule or DMSO on sporozoite infectivity, or on eventual drug sensitivity during the liver-stage infection (Figure 5A).

For the purposes of a moving toward an eventual high-throughput screening protocol, we used a bioluminescent...
strain of *P. yoelii* that expresses firefly luciferase (*P.y.-luc*) to readout parasite infection and growth in the presence of primaquine following FPH1-induced maturation of iHLCs. The bioluminescence of *P.y.-luc* liver-stage EEFs is directly proportional to the total liver-stage load, as measured by RT-PCR (Miller et al., 2013; Mwakingwe et al., 2009), and is also a function of the total number of EEFs per well and the mean EEF diameter in that well (Figure S3). Although *Py.-luc* infection (as measured by BLI) in DMSO-treated iHLCs did not decrease upon primaquine treatment, iHLCs pretreated with FPH1 exhibited significantly lower levels of *Py.-luc* infection (Figure 5B). To determine whether primaquine sensitivity was also achieved in *P. falciparum*-infected iHLCs, iHLCs were pretreated with FPH1 or DMSO and exposed to *P.f.* sporozoites. At 4 days postinfection, the infected cultures were fixed, and *P.f.* infection was quantified by manual counts of *P.f.* EEFs immunostained for PfHSP70. As predicted, iHLCs pretreated with DMSO supported an equivalent number and size distribution of *P.f.* EEFs in the presence or absence of primaquine during infection. However, iHLCs pretreated with FPH1 exhibited a significant decrease in the number of *P.f.* EEFs present when infected in the presence of primaquine (Figure 5C). Furthermore, the fewer *P.f.* EEFs observed in FPH1 pretreated iHLCs showed a significant
DISCUSSION

In this study, we show the feasibility of infecting iHLCs with *P. berghei*, *P. yoelii*, *P. falciparum*, and *P. vivax*. Liver-stage *Plasmodium* EEFs grow in size over time and express MSP-1, which is typically expressed in more mature EEFs. Although iPS cells and definitive endoderm cells are generally not infectible with *P. falciparum*, some degree of *P. falciparum* infectibility is acquired by the time the cells are further differentiated to a hepatic-specified endoderm lineage. Notably, populations of hepatoblasts are equally or more infectible than the resulting iHLCs at the end of the in vitro differentiation protocol. iHLCs generated by the existing differentiation protocol do not respond to primaquine, a malaria drug that requires bioactivation by mature hepatic cytochrome P450 (CYP450) enzymes. However, further maturation of iHLCs using a previously described small molecule results in the acquisition of primaquine sensitivity, such that the drug treatment diminished infection by *P. yoelii* and *P. falciparum*.

In the context of drug development, there has been a shift from the traditional paradigm of testing drugs in immortalized cell lines to the use of primary cells, which have been increasingly recognized to offer better physiological relevance to drug screening and disease modeling in vitro (Engle and Puppala, 2013). A key goal of early-stage drug discovery platforms is the elimination of drug candidates that generate toxic metabolites that can cause drug-induced liver injury (DILI), a key cause of drug removal from the market (McDonnell and Braverman, 2006). To this end, a hepatic cell type that accurately recapitulates the native cellular physiology of an adult human hepatocyte is advantageous, but most hepatic cell lines lack the expression of a wide array of such key adult hepatic metabolism activity (March et al., 2013) because they are largely tumor derived (i.e., HepG2) or tumor associated (i.e., HC04). A second major goal of drug discovery platforms is the ability to identify nontoxic compounds that demonstrate differential efficacy in a phenotypic screen relevant to a disease. In the case of drug discovery against the malarial liver stages, it is therefore highly advantageous to utilize a cell type that best represents the primary adult hepatocyte. At the same time, it is also ideal to represent highly polymorphic genetic variants in drug metabolism and different ethnic groups in such drug screens, as these factors may influence the efficacy of potential antimalarial drug candidates. For example, genetic polymorphisms in CYP2D6 metabolism that stratified *P. vivax* patients into poor, intermediate, or extensive CYP2D6 metabolizers were recently reported to correlate with the risk of a failure of primaquine to prevent malaria relapse due to *P. vivax* (Bennett et al., 2013). Several cell sources have been proposed to augment the genetic variation and supply of adult primary human hepatocytes, including xenogenic or fetal human tissue, or embryonic stem cell-derived hepatocytes, but these sources are hampered by safety, ethical, or sourcing issues.

iPSC-derived iHLCs offer a unique advantage in that they can be generated from any donor, which allows a broad spectrum of the human population to be represented in in vitro drug screens and provides an opportunity to assess donor-specific drug responses in vitro. Recent collaborations between drug discovery companies and academic laboratories (Engle and Puppala, 2013) mark the development of an infrastructure that will benefit future personalized models of human diseases, including hepatotropic diseases like the relapsing forms of malaria.

iPSCs can also be engineered using DNA editing techniques to incorporate any genetic abnormality or modification to enable the exploration of the role that host genetics plays in liver-stage malaria infection. Although clinically relevant host factors that influence hepatic susceptibility to liver-stage malaria infection have not been documented, the study of potential host factors may benefit from the larger pool of genetic variation that is accessible with the use of iPSCs. This effort may have implications in drug discovery against the liver stages of malaria species that present with large genetic heterogeneities in different parts of the world, especially the relapsing malaria species like *P. vivax* (e.g., temperate versus tropical strains), which may have coevolved to infect geographically distinct human populations (Cui et al., 2003; Dondorp et al., 2009; Gunawardena et al., 2010; Li et al., 2001).

From a developmental standpoint, the infectibility of iHLCs with liver-stage malaria and other hepatotropic pathogens such as the hepatitis viruses could also be a potential biomarker of hepatic lineage commitment, with iPSCs becoming permissive only when they become sufficiently hepatocyte-like. The ability to study liver-stage malaria infection at different developmental stages during the in vitro directed differentiation of iPSCs into iHLCs within a single donor may also facilitate the identification of host factors required for permissiveness to *Plasmodium* sporozoite infection and the elucidation of the roles that these host factors play in malaria pathogenesis.

One potential measure of how developmentally close iHLCs are to primary human hepatocytes is the efficiency of liver-stage malaria infection of iHLCs compared to primary human hepatocytes. With the multiplicity of infection (MOI) of approximately 0.5 used in the above...
P. falciparum experiments (with respect to the estimated number of iHLCs per well based on an estimate of differentiation efficiency), an infection rate of approximately 0.3–1.8 P.f. EEFs per 10,000 iHLCs is obtained. In comparison, a microscale human liver platform that was recently reported to support P. falciparum infection in primary human hepatocytes reported an infection rate of approximately 100 P.f. EEFs per 10,000 hepatocytes at 3.5 days after infection with an MOI of 15 (March et al., 2013). Assuming that the infection rate scales linearly with MOI for the purposes of this analysis, an MOI of 0.5 in primary human hepatocytes would be estimated to give rise to an infection rate of approximately 3 P.f. EEFs per 10,000 hepatocytes. This suggests that iHLCs exhibit anywhere from 10%–60% of the infectibility of primary human hepatocytes and indicates that iHLCs have acquired sufficient hepatocyte-like characteristics that confer infectibility with liver-stage malaria.

The observation that iHLCs are infectible with malaria before their in vitro differentiation is complete could reflect the acquisition of some liver-stage malaria host entry factors during the iPSC differentiation process, or heterogeneity in iPSC differentiation that results in faster hepatic maturation of a subpopulation of cells. This observation could also suggest the possibility of some promiscuity in the host entry factors that are required for Plasmodium sporozoite entry. Further studies are required to determine whether the EEFs observed in incompletely differentiated iPSCs reflect fully replication-competent EEFs, or whether such EEFs are prone to developmental arrest due to the absence (or presence) of some host factor that promotes (or inhibits) parasite development. It is intriguing that hepatoblasts appear to support similar P. falciparum infection rates and similar degrees of parasite growth as iHLCs, with some experiments even exhibiting a trend of increased numbers of P.f. EEFs or P.v. EEFs in hepatoblasts compared to iHLCs (Figures 3B, left, and S2E). This slight difference in infectibility could suggest the acquisition of sufficient host entry factors that support Plasmodium infection and development by d15 postinitiation of differentiation from iPSCs, but that further maturation beyond the hepatoblast stage results in the acquisition of other host factors that henceforth limit EEF development and survival. Because the cells in different stages of in vitro differentiation arise from the same donor, these observations also offer a clean comparative system in which to systematically probe and identify host factors that are essential for liver-stage malaria parasite infections, using proteomics or gene expression technologies, in a donor-independent manner.

A common shortcoming of iHLCs and other iPSC-derived cells lies in the fact that they often resemble a developmentally immature state compared to the fully differentiated adult counterpart (Engle and Puppala, 2013). In the field of iHLCs, current in vitro differentiation protocols result in the production of a hepatic cell type that is biologically closer to fetal hepatocytes than adult hepatocytes, due to the incomplete abrogation of the expression of fetal markers such as alpha-fetal protein (AFP) (Si-Tayeb et al., 2010; Song et al., 2009), and the incomplete acquisition of an adult-like levels of key secretory, detoxification, and metabolic activity (Shan et al., 2013). Our data show that further chemical maturation of iHLCs allows the acquisition of primaquine sensitivity, presumably via the acquisition of a drug metabolism enzyme (DME) expression profile that better resembles the adult human hepatocyte. This advance decreases the biological gap between iHLCs and primary adult hepatocytes and increases the potential utility of iHLCs in drug development efforts for malaria and other diseases. The expression of a developmentally mature repertoire of hepatic DMEs is particularly important considering that current drug development efforts toward malaria eradication revolves around the 8-aminoquinoline family, which is currently the only class of drugs that is efficacious against the cryptic hypnozoite stage of P. vivax liver-stage infections (Wells et al., 2009), and the fact that many existing antimalarial drugs such as proguanil, arteether, lumefantrine, and halofantrine are known to undergo metabolism in the liver by hepatic DMEs (Khoo et al., 2005) and whose in vitro efficacy will therefore likely be predictive of its in vivo efficacy only if the in vitro hepatocyte model exhibits a primary human hepatocyte DME expression profile. Although the primaquine response in iHLCs pretreated with FPH1 was incomplete, other primary human hepatocyte models of P. falciparum treated with the same primaquine concentration (10 μM) also exhibit an incomplete response, with about 10%–20% of the number of P.f. EEFs remaining (Dembele et al., 2011; March et al., 2013). An unexpected finding was that FPH1 pretreatment also increased the baseline number of P.f. EEFs in iHLCs in the absence of primaquine treatment compared to DMSO pretreatment (Figure 5C). The chemical maturation of iHLCs by FPH1 is likely to involve a complex mechanism, which could theoretically result either in an increase in the adult hepatic phenotype of the existing population of iHLCs and hence their infectibility by Plasmodium sporozoites, or an expansion in the population of iHLCs or of other hepatic progenitors. Chemically matured iHLCs with increased baseline infectibility with Plasmodium could therefore provide an opportunity to elucidate hepatic host factors that promote liver-stage malaria infection in hepatocytes.

In conclusion, the establishment of Plasmodium liver-stage infections in induced pluripotent stem cell-derived hepatocyte-like cells lays the foundation for their use in antimalarial drug discovery as well as paves the way to study the genetic basis of host-Plasmodium interactions.
EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

iPSC Culture and Hepatocyte-like Cell Generation
Undifferentiated iPSC were maintained and differentiated into iHLCs as described (Si-Tayeb et al., 2010). In brief, iPSCs were cultured in monolayer on Matrigel (Becton Dickinson), and directed differentiation was achieved by sequential exposure to activin A, bone morphogenic protein 4, basic FGF, HGF, and oncostatin M (OSM). For P. berghei and P. yoelii experiments, iHLCs differentiated from the iPSC lines, RC2 (reprogrammed from fibroblasts by the laboratory of Darrell Kotton at Boston University) (Somers et al., 2010), iPSC.2a (reprogrammed from foreskin fibroblasts by the laboratory of Stephen Duncan at Medical College of Wisconsin) (Si-Tayeb et al., 2010), or LN4 (a subclone of iPSC.2a with higher uniformity in growth and differentiation) were used. For P. falciparum experiments, iHLCs differentiated from the iPSC line, LN4, or cryopreserved iHLCs from Cellular Dynamics International (CDI) were used. For P. vivax experiments, cryopreserved iHLCs (white female donor, iPSCs reprogrammed from fibroblasts, or white male donor, iPSCs reprogrammed from peripheral blood mononuclear cells, iCell Hepatocytes 2.0, CDI) were used. Cryopreserved iHLCs from CDI were thawed, plated on collagen I, and maintained according to the manufacturer’s instructions until used.

Sporozoites
P. berghei ANKA and P. yoelii sporozoites were obtained by dissection of the salivary glands of infected Anopheles stephensi mosquitoes obtained from the insectaries at New York University or Harvard School of Public Health. P. falciparum sporozoites were obtained by dissection of the salivary glands of infected Anopheles gambiae mosquitoes obtained from the insectary at Johns Hopkins School of Public Health. P. vivax sporozoites were kindly provided by the insectary at Mahidol Vivax Research Center (Bangkok, Thailand) and were prepared by dissection of the salivary glands of infected Anopheles dirus mosquitoes.

Infection of iHLCs
P. berghei, P. yoelii, P. falciparum, or P. vivax sporozoites from dissected mosquito glands were centrifuged at 600 x g for 5 min on to iHLCs at a multiplicity of infection of 0.1–1 in the presence of 2% fetal bovine serum. After incubation at 37°C and 5% CO₂ for 2–3 hr, the wells were washed twice before serum-free culture medium was added. Media was replaced daily. Samples were fixed 24, 48, or 65 hr postinfection with P. berghei and P. yoelii, 3, 4, or 6 days postinfection with P. falciparum, and 3 or 8 days postinfection with P. vivax. For P. vivax experiments, iHLCs from CDI were exposed to P. vivax sporozoites at 4 days postplating.

Immunofluorescence Assay
iHLCs were fixed with −20°C methanol for 10 min at 4°C, washed thrice with PBS, blocked with 2% BSA in PBS overnight at 4°C, and then incubated overnight at 4°C with a primary antibody: mouse anti-human CD81 (clone J5-81, BD Pharmingen; 1:200), rabbit anti-SRB1 (Novus Biologicals; 1:100), mouse anti-PbHSP70 (clone 2E6; 1:200 for P. berghei and P. yoelii), rabbit anti-PbMSPI (1:500 for P. berghei), mouse anti-PfHSP70 (clone 4C9, Sanaria; 1:200 for P. falciparum), or mouse anti-PfMSPI (1:200 for P. falciparum). Samples were washed thrice with PBS before incubation for 1–3 hr at room temperature with secondary antibody: goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 594 or Alexa Fluor 488 or donkey anti-rabbit-Alexa Fluor 488 (Invitrogen; 1:400). Nuclei were then counterstained with Hoechst 33258 (Invitrogen; 1:1000), samples were washed thrice with PBS, and 1 ml of Aquamount (Thermo-Scientific) was added per well. Images were captured on a Nikon Eclipse Ti fluorescence microscope or an Olympus FV1000 multiphoton laser scanning confocal microscope.

Biochemical Assays
Cell culture supernatants were collected and stored at −20°C. Human albumin, z1-anti-trypsin (A1AT), and α1-antitrypsin (AFP) secretion were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays with horseradish peroxidase detection (Bethyl Labs) and 3,3′,5,5′-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB, Pierce) development.

Statistics
Experiments were repeated with three or more independent batches of differentiated iHLCs with triplicate or quadruplicate biological samples for each condition. Data from representative batches of iHLCs are presented. Two-tailed t tests were performed for all comparisons between two conditions (e.g., with or without primaquine). One-way ANOVAs were performed for comparisons involving three or more conditions (e.g., number of EEFs in cells infected at various time points after differentiation) with Tukey’s post hoc test for multiple comparisons. All error bars represent SEM.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION
Supplemental Information includes three figures and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.stemcr.2015.01.002.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
S.N., R.E.S., S.M., and S.N.B. designed experiments. S.N., S.M., and A.G. performed malaria experiments. R.E.S. and M.P. generated and characterized iHLCs. S.N. and S.N.B. analyzed data. S.N. and S.N.B. wrote the manuscript.

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