not reveal any significant differences between the specimens derived from the replicon cells with and those without ribavirin or mizoribine treatment (data not shown). Taken together, these results suggest that neither ribavirin nor mizoribine accelerated the mutation rate of HCV replicons or the development of their quasispecies nature.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we analysed the genetic evolution and dynamics of HCV replicons, and time-dependent genetic mutations of HCV replicons were observed. Time-dependent expansions of their genetic diversities were also revealed. Our results should provide useful fundamental information for understanding the remarkable genetic diversity and variation among the HCV genomes observed in patients with chronic hepatitis C.

Although RT-PCR techniques were used to amplify the replicon RNAs in this study, it is unlikely that the detected mutations were due to errors related to the use of the KOD-plus DNA polymerase in the PCR reaction, because we previously showed that KOD-plus DNA polymerase possessed a high proofreading activity (Alam *et al.*, 2002; Naganuma *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, in the present study, we sequenced several clones (containing a 2·0 or 6·1 kb fragment) obtained by PCR using KOD-plus DNA polymerase and a single sequenced clone as a template, but no mutations were detected in these sequenced clones, indicating that KOD-plus DNA polymerase possesses extremely high fidelity. However, we are not able to completely exclude the possibility that some substitutions resulted from the erroneous use of KOD-plus DNA polymerase during the PCR. Even if such errors occurred, the error frequency is estimated to be less than one nucleotide per sequenced clone. This is explained as follows. Fig. 2 shows that the numbers of substitutions time-dependently increased with linearity in both HCV replicons. Interestingly, when these linear lines are extrapolated to zero base substitutions, the crossing points show approximately −2–−3 months in the time axis. These range of months is in accord with the time of initial electroporation of HCV replicon RNA to HuH-7 cells. Therefore, PCR-induced mutations are considered to be very rare and such mutations would have very little effect on the results shown in Fig. 2. In addition, to avoid a sampling effect, we sequenced three independent clones derived from each time point.

We showed that the mutation rates for the 50-1 and 1B-2R1 replicon RNAs were almost the same – about 3×10^{-3} base substitutions/site/year. However, the actual mutation frequency of the replicon RNAs would be higher than this value, because the mutations that occurred in positions that were critical for the replication of replicon RNA should not have been passed on to the progeny. Our observed mutation rates of the replicon RNAs were approximately two times higher than those previously obtained in chimpanzees and clinical patients with chronic hepatitis C (Major *et al.*, 1999; Ogata *et al.*, 1991; Okamoto *et al.*, 1992). Since the selective pressure of the immune system also functions *in vivo* (Kato *et al.*, 1993), the mutation rate in cell culture obtained in this study may be reasonable value as a potential mutation rate of HCV. However, direct comparison of these mutation rates would be difficult, because both the experimental model and analytical method were different in this study compared with the previous studies. It would be interesting to examine whether this mutation rate (3×10^{-3} base substitutions/site/year) would be maintained during longer-term culture of the replicon cells. If so, approximately 3 % of nucleotide sequences of the replicon RNAs might be mutated after 10 years in cell culture. Alternatively, the mutations might become saturated during further long-term culture of the replicon cells. To clarify this point, further long-term culture of replicon cells is in progress.

Although the mutations detected in this study were dispersed throughout the entire length of the replicon RNAs (Fig. 3), the mutation frequencies in the 5′ UTR and NS5B region were lower than those in other regions, and the NS5A region showed the highest mutation frequency. These observations are consistent with the genetic diversities of HCVs in patients with chronic hepatitis C reported to date (Kato, 2001). In addition, the positions in which amino acid substitutions were observed during the cell culture did not appear to be critical for replication of the HCV genome.

Time-dependent expansions of genetic diversities of HCV replicons were also found in this study. However, this finding seems to be different from the previous findings that HCV populations in the cells infected *in vitro* gradually altered with time and converged to the limited populations (Kato *et al.*, 1998; Kato, 2001). This gap may have been due to the differences in the HCV sources used: a patient's inoculum containing a quasispecies of HCV was used for the *in vitro* infection experiment, and a single HCV species was used for the replicon system. Alternatively, the gap may have been due to the overwhelming difference between the replication level of the HCV genome in the cells infected *in vitro* and that in the replicon cells.

To date, a number of amino acid substitutions belonging to adaptive mutations that enhance the frequency with which the replicon is established *in vitro* have been found in established HCV replicons (Bartenschlager, 2002; Blight *et al.*, 2000, 2003; Ikeda *et al.*, 2002; Krieger *et al.*, 2001; Lanford *et al.*, 2003; Lohmann *et al.*, 2001, 2003; Pflugheber *et al.*, 2002). Although none of the amino acid substitutions detected in the long-term cultures of the 50-1 and 1B-2R1 replicons were the same as those reported as adaptive mutations, ECF analysis of the replicons using naïve HuH-7 cells suggested that adaptive mutations accumulated in the replicon populations in a time-dependent manner. In particular, drastic enhancement of ECF was observed in the 50-1 replicon after 6 months of culture. However, this result suggests that the four common amino acid substitutions (P1115L, K1609E, V1896F and E1966A) do not contribute much to the drastic enhancement of ECF,

because the ECFs of 4MK and 6MK samples possessing these substitutions did not increase much. Therefore, we estimate that some uncommon amino acid substitutions accumulated as so-called adaptive mutations. The candidates for such adaptive mutations are culture-line-specific amino acid substitutions (Fig. 3b, *1–12), and many amino acid substitutions sporadically appeared in the replicons in the long-term cell cultures. To identify which amino acid substitution is the main contributor to the drastic enhancement of ECF, further transfection experiments using replicon RNAs possessing mutations will be needed. Based on the results of this study, S2200R substitution in the 1B-2R1 replicon is considered an adaptive mutation. This description is supported by the previous result that we were unable to obtain any G418-resistant colonies when the original 1B-2 replicon RNA library, used in the isolation of the 1B-2R1 replicon, was transfected into naïve HuH-7 cells (Kato *et al.*, 2003b). Since the ECF of 1B-2R1 replicon RNA from 12 months of culture was further enhanced, it may be that the I1097V substitution, detected commonly at 12 months of culture, functions as an additional adaptive mutation.

Interestingly, once a new mutation was observed in all three clones at a particular time point, the clones which went back to the original sequences were never obtained in the subsequent cell culture, except for one clone (a mutation in the HCV IRES region) derived from 1B-2R1 replicon cells after 12 months in culture (Fig. 3a). This finding suggests that the genetic evolution of HCV replicons is irreversibly progressing.

Although the mechanism of action of ribavirin for patients with chronic hepatitis C is ambiguous, an 'error catastrophe' theory of ribavirin has been proposed by several groups (Contreras *et al.*, 2002; Tanabe *et al.*, 2004; Zhou *et al.*, 2003). However, our results obtained in this study were not able to support this 'error catastrophe' theory, because ribavirin had no effect on the genetic variation and diversity of the 50-1 replicon. The concentration (5 and 25 μM) of ribavirin used in this study was considered to be reasonable, because the growth rate of 50-1 cells decreased at a ribavirin concentration of more than 50 μM, and approximately 10 μM of ribavirin is the maximum plasma concentration in current clinical usage (Tanabe *et al.*, 2004). Higher concentration (more than 50 μM) of ribavirin used in previous studies may be required for causation of the error catastrophe. Recently, a single amino acid substitution (F2834Y) was identified as a ribavirin-resistant NS5B mutation in genotype 1a (Young *et al.*, 2003); however, it is difficult to evaluate that finding in this study, because most of the HCV strains belonging to genotype 1b, including 1B-1 (50-1) and 1B-2 (1B-2R1), already possess a Tyr residue at position 2834. No amino acid substitution at position 2834 in NS5B was observed in the replicon cells treated with ribavirin.

This study provided the fact that the genetic diversity of HCV replicons was enlarged in a time-dependent manner during long-term cell culture. Since all the HCV replicons established to date have been shown to be highly sensitive to interferon-α, -β and -γ (Kato *et al.*, 2003b), and most of the HCV replicons established to date are able to replicate in only HuH-7 cells, the extensive genetic polymorphism of HCV replicon populations obtained by long-term cell culture may change the sensitivity against interferon or the ability of replication in the cells except for HuH-7. In the future, it will be necessary to clarify these points. Thus, HCV replicon populations obtained by long-term cell culture may be useful not only for analysis of the genetic variations and dynamics of HCV but also for analysis of the variable properties of HCV.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by grants-in-aid for research on hepatitis from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of Japan and by grants-in-aid for scientific research from the Organization for Pharmaceutical Safety and Research (OPSR).

REFERENCES

Alam, S. S., Nakamura, T., Naganuma, A., Nozaki, A., Nouso, K., Shimomura, H. & Kato, N. (2002). Hepatitis C virus quasispecies in cancerous and noncancerous hepatic lesions: the core protein-encoding region. *Acta Med Okayama* 56, 141–147.

Ali, S., Pellerin, C., Lamarre, D. & Kukolj, G. (2004). Hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicons in the human embryonic kidney 293 cell line. *J Virol* 78, 491–501.

Bartenschlager, R. (2002). Hepatitis C virus replicons: potential role for drug development. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 1, 911–916.

Bartenschlager, R. & Lohmann, V. (2000). Replication of hepatitis C virus. *J Gen Virol* 81, 1631–1648.

Blight, K. J., Kolykhalov, A. A. & Rice, C. M. (2000). Efficient initiation of HCV RNA replication in cell culture. *Science* 290, 1972–1974.

Blight, K. J., McKeating, J. A., Marcotrigiano, J. & Rice, C. M. (2003). Efficient replication of hepatitis C virus genotype 1a RNAs in cell culture. *J Virol* 77, 3181–3190.

Bukh, J., Miller, R. H. & Purcell, R. H. (1995). Genetic heterogeneity of hepatitis C virus: quasispecies and genotypes. *Semin Liver Dis* 15, 41–63.

Choo, Q. L., Kuo, G., Weiner, A. J., Overby, L. R., Bradley, D. W. & Houghton, M. (1989). Isolation of a cDNA clone derived from a blood-borne non-A, non-B viral hepatitis genome. *Science* 244, 359–362.

Contreras, A. M., Hiasa, Y., He, W., Terella, A., Schmidt, E. V. & Chung, R. T. (2002). Viral RNA mutations are region specific and increased by ribavirin in a full-length hepatitis C virus replication system. *J Virol* 76, 8505–8517.

Grakoui, A., Wychowski, C., Lin, C., Feinstone, S. M. & Rice, C. M. (1993). Expression and identification of hepatitis C virus polyprotein cleavage products. *J Virol* 67, 1385–1395.

Hijikata, M., Kato, N., Ootsuyama, Y., Nakagawa, M. & Shimotohno, K. (1991). Gene mapping of the putative structural region of the hepatitis C virus genome by *in vitro* processing analysis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 88, 5547–5551.

Hijikata, M., Mizushima, H., Tanji, Y., Komoda, Y., Hirowatari, Y., Akagi, T., Kato, N., Kimura, K. & Shimotohno, K. (1993). Proteolytic processing and membrane association of putative nonstructural proteins of hepatitis C virus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 90, 10773–10777.

Ikeda, M., Yi, M., Li, K. & Lemon, S. M. (2002). Selectable subgenomic and genome-length dicistronic RNAs derived from an infectious molecular clone of the HCV-N strain of hepatitis C virus replicate efficiently in cultured Huh7 cells. *J Virol* 76, 2997–3006.

Kato, N. (2001). Molecular virology of hepatitis C virus. *Acta Med Okayama* 55, 133–159.

Kato, N. & Shimotohno, K. (2000). Systems to culture hepatitis C virus. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol* 242, 261–278.

Kato, N., Hijikata, M., Ootsuyama, Y., Nakagawa, M., Ohkoshi, S., Sugimura, T. & Shimotohno, K. (1990a). Molecular cloning of the human hepatitis C virus genome from Japanese patients with non-A, non-B hepatitis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 87, 9524–9528.

Kato, N., Hijikata, M., Ootsuyama, Y., Nakagawa, M., Ohkoshi, S. & Shimotohno, K. (1990b). Sequence diversity of hepatitis C viral genomes. *Mol Biol Med* 7, 495–501.

Kato, N., Ootsuyama, Y., Tanaka, T., Nakagawa, M., Nakazawa, T., Muraiso, K., Ohkoshi, S., Hijikata, M. & Shimotohno, K. (1992). Marked sequence diversity in the putative envelope proteins of hepatitis C viruses. *Virus Res* 22, 107–123.

Kato, N., Sekiya, H., Ootsuyama, Y., Nakazawa, T., Hijikata, M., Ohkoshi, S. & Shimotohno, K. (1993). Humoral immune response to hypervariable region 1 of the putative envelope glycoprotein (gp70) of hepatitis C virus. *J Virol* 67, 3923–3930.

Kato, N., Ikeda, M., Sugiyama, K., Mizutani, T., Tanaka, T. & Shimotohno, K. (1998). Hepatitis C virus population dynamics in human lymphocytes and hepatocytes infected in vitro. *J Gen Virol* 79, 1859–1869.

Kato, T., Date, T., Miyamoto, M., Furusaka, A., Tokushige, K., Mizokami, M. & Wakita, T. (2003a). Efficient replication of the genotype 2a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon. *Gastroenterology* 125, 1808–1817.

Kato, N., Sugiyama, K., Namba, K., Dansako, H., Nakamura, T., Takami, M., Naka, K., Nozaki, A. & Shimotohno, K. (2003b). Establishment of a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon derived from human hepatocytes infected in vitro. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 306, 756–766.

Kishine, H., Sugiyama, K., Hijikata, M. & 7 other authors (2002). Subgenomic replicon derived from a cell line infected with the hepatitis C virus. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 293, 993–999.

Krieger, N., Lohmann, V. & Bartenschlager, R. (2001). Enhancement of hepatitis C virus RNA replication by cell culture-adaptive mutations. *J Virol* 75, 4614–4624.

Kuo, G., Choo, Q. L., Alter, H. J. & 17 other authors (1989). An assay for circulating antibodies to a major etiologic virus of human non-A, non-B hepatitis. *Science* 244, 362–364.

Lanford, R. E., Guerra, B., Lee, H., Averett, D. R., Pfeiffer, B., Chavez, D., Notvall, L. & Bigger, C. (2003). Antiviral effect and virus-host interactions in response to alpha interferon, gamma interferon, poly(i)-poly(c), tumor necrosis factor alpha, and ribavirin in hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicons. *J Virol* 77, 1092–1104.

Lohmann, V., Korner, F., Koch, J., Herian, U., Theilmann, L. & Bartenschlager, R. (1999). Replication of subgenomic hepatitis C virus RNAs in a hepatoma cell line. *Science* 285, 110–113.

Lohmann, V., Korner, F., Dobierzewska, A. & Bartenschlager, R. (2001). Mutations in hepatitis C virus RNAs conferring cell culture adaptation. *J Virol* 75, 1437–1449.

Lohmann, V., Hoffmann, S., Herian, U., Penin, F. & Bartenschlager, R. (2003). Viral and cellular determinants of hepatitis C virus RNA replication in cell culture. *J Virol* 77, 3007–3019.

Major, M. E., Mihalik, K., Fernandez, J., Seidman, J., Kleiner, D., Kolykhalov, A. A., Rice, C. M. & Feinstone, S. M. (1999). Long-term follow-up of chimpanzees inoculated with the first infectious clone for hepatitis C virus. *J Virol* 73, 3317–3325.

Martell, M., Esteban, J. I., Quer, J., Genesca, J., Weiner, A., Esteban, R., Guardia, J. & Gomez, J. (1992). Hepatitis C virus (HCV) circulates as a population of different but closely related genomes: quasispecies nature of HCV genome distribution. *J Virol* 66, 3225–3229.

McHutchison, J. G., Gordon, S. C., Schiff, E. R. & 7 other authors (1998). Interferon alfa-2b alone or in combination with ribavirin as initial treatment for chronic hepatitis C. Hepatitis Interventional Therapy Group. *N Engl J Med* 339, 1485–1492.

Mizushima, H., Hijikata, M., Tanji, Y., Kimura, K. & Shimotohno, K. (1994). Analysis of N-terminal processing of hepatitis C virus nonstructural protein 2. *J Virol* 68, 2731–2734.

Naganuma, A., Nozaki, A., Tanaka, T., Sugiyama, K., Takagi, H., Mori, M., Shimotohno, K. & Kato, N. (2000). Activation of the interferon-inducible 2′-5′-oligoadenylate synthetase gene by hepatitis C core protein. *J Virol* 74, 8744–8750.

Naganuma, A., Dansako, H., Nakamura, T., Nozaki, A. & Kato, N. (2004). Promotion of microsatellite instability by hepatitis C virus core protein in human non-neoplastic hepatocyte cells. *Cancer Res* 64, 1307–1314.

Ogata, N., Alter, H. J., Miller, R. H. & Purcell, R. H. (1991). Nucleotide sequence and mutation rate of the H strain of hepatitis C virus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 88, 3392–3396.

Ohkoshi, S., Kojima, H., Tawaraya, H. & 8 other authors (1990). Prevalence of antibody against non-A, non-B hepatitis virus in Japanese patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. *Jpn J Cancer Res* 81, 550–553.

Okamoto, H., Kojima, M., Okada, S. & 7 other authors (1992). Genetic drift of hepatitis C virus during an 8·2-year infection in a chimpanzee: variability and stability. *Virology* 190, 894–899.

Pflugheber, J., Fredericksen, B., Sumpter, R., Jr, Wang, C., Ware, F., Sodora, D. L. & Gale, M., Jr (2002). Regulation of PKR and IRF-1 during hepatitis C virus RNA replication. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 99, 4650–4655.

Pietschmann, T., Lohmann, V., Kaul, A., Krieger, N., Rinck, G., Rutter, G., Strand, D. & Bartenschlager, R. (2002). Persistent and transient replication of full-length hepatitis C virus genomes in cell culture. *J Virol* 76, 4008–4021.

Saito, I., Miyamura, T., Ohbayashi, A. & 10 other authors (1990). Hepatitis C virus infection is associated with the development of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 87, 6547–6549.

Schinkel, J., de Jong, M. D., Bruning, B., van Hoek, B., Spaan, W. J. & Kroes, A. C. (2003). The potentiating effect of ribavirin on interferon in the treatment of hepatitis C: lack of evidence for ribavirin-induced viral mutagenesis. *Antivir Ther* 8, 535–540.

Simmonds, P. (1995). Variability of hepatitis C virus. *Hepatology* 21, 570–583.

Tanabe, Y., Sakamoto, N., Enomoto, N. & 9 other authors (2004). Synergistic inhibition of intracellular hepatitis C virus replication by combination of ribavirin and interferon-alpha. *J Infect Dis* 189, 1129–1139.

Tanaka, T., Kato, N., Nakagawa, M., Ootsuyama, Y., Cho, M. J., Nakazawa, T., Hijikata, M., Ishimura, Y. & Shimotohno, K. (1992). Molecular cloning of hepatitis C virus genome from a single

Japanese carrier: sequence variation within the same individual and among infected individuals. *Virus Res* 23, 39–53.

Tanaka, T., Kato, N., Cho, M. J. & Shimotohno, K. (1995). A novel sequence found that at the 3′ terminus of hepatitis C virus genome. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 215, 744–749.

Tokita, H., Okamoto, H., Iizuka, H., Kishimoto, J., Tsuda, F., Lesmana, L. A., Miyakawa, Y. & Mayumi, M. (1996). Hepatitis C virus variants from Jakarta, Indonesia classifiable into novel genotypes in the second (2e and 2f), tenth (10a) and eleventh (11a) genetic groups. *J Gen Virol* 77, 293–301.

Young, K. C., Lindsay, K. L., Lee, K. J., Liu, W. C., He, J. W., Milstein, S. L. & Lai, M. M. (2003). Identification of a ribavirin-resistant NS5B mutation of hepatitis C virus during ribavirin monotherapy. *Hepatology* 38, 869–878.

Zhou, S., Liu, R., Baroudy, B. M., Malcolm, B. A. & Reyes, G. R. (2003). The effect of ribavirin and IMPDH inhibitors on hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon RNA. *Virology* 310, 333–342.

Zhu, Q., Guo, J. T. & Seeger, C. (2003). Replication of hepatitis C virus subgenomes in nonhepatic epithelial and mouse hepatoma cells. *J Virol* 77, 9204–9210.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com
SCIENCE DIRECT
Virus Research 107 (2005) 73–81
Virus Research
www.elsevier.com/locate/virusres

cDNA microarray analysis to compare HCV subgenomic replicon cells with their cured cells

Ken-ichi Abe[a], Masanori Ikeda[a], Hiromichi Dansako[a], Kazuhito Naka[a], Kunitada Shimotohno[b], Nobuyuki Kato[a,*]

[a] *Department of Molecular Biology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine and Dentistry, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan*
[b] *Department of Viral Oncology, Institute for Virus Research, Kyoto University, 53 Kawara-cho Shogo-in, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan*

Received 9 April 2004; received in revised form 21 June 2004; accepted 25 June 2004
Available online 12 August 2004

Abstract

The hepatitis C virus (HCV) replicon system carrying autonomously replicating HCV subgenomic RNA in human hepatocyte cells is a potent tool for basic studies of HCV, such as viral replication and drug development. Recently, we developed two HCV subgenomic replicons (50-1 and 1B-2R1) derived from two HCV strains, 1B-1 and 1B-2, respectively. Since the expression of HCV proteins is thought to affect the host cells' gene expression profiles, we attempted to identify target genes of HCV proteins using microarray analysis (9970 genes) by comparing 50-1 and 1B-2R1 replicon cells with their "cured cells", from which the replicons had been eliminated by prolonged treatment with interferon-α. The results showed that HCV replicons could have a variety of expression profiles in human hepatocytes. The results also showed that 2 and 6 genes were commonly up-regulated (more than 2.0-fold) and down-regulated (less than 0.50-fold), respectively, in both 50-1 and 1B-2R1 replicon cells compared with their cured cells. The differential expression profiles of genes selected by the microarray analysis were confirmed with standard RT-PCR and real-time LightCycler PCR. It was noteworthy that the commonly down-regulated genes contained large multifunctional proteases 2 and 7, which are known as catalytic subunits of immunoproteasome, and serine proteinase inhibitor clade C. Our microarray analysis demonstrated that HCV subgenomic replicons can change the gene expression profiles of host cells, and it allowed us to compile the first list of genes that the replicons transcriptionally regulate.

Keywords: Hepatitis C virus; HCV subgenomic replicon; Cured cells; cDNA microarray; Gene expression profile

1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection frequently causes chronic hepatitis (Choo et al., 1989; Kuo et al., 1989), which progresses to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (Ohkoshi et al., 1990; Saito et al., 1990). HCV belongs to the family Flaviviridae, whose genome consists of a positive-stranded RNA molecule of about 9.6 kb and encodes a large polyprotein precursor of about 3000 amino acids (Kato et al., 1990; Tanaka et al., 1995). This precursor protein is cleaved by the host and viral proteases to generate at least ten proteins: the core, envelope 1 (E1), E2, p7, nonstructural protein 2 (NS2), NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B. Although many hypotheses have been proposed over the past decade regarding the functions of the viral proteins (Bartenschlager and Lohmann, 2000; Kato, 2001), the lack of reproducible and efficient HCV proliferation in cell cultures (Kato and Shimotohno, 2000) has been a serious obstacle in understanding those proteins' actual functions.

However, in 1999, an HCV replicon system carring autonomously replicating HCV subgenomic RNA containing the NS3-NS5B regions was first established using a human hepatoma cell line, Huh-7 (Lohmann et al., 1999). Since then, several additional replicons have also been established (Blight et al., 2000, 2003; Ikeda et al., 2002; Kato et al., 2003b). In these systems, replicated HCV RNAs were detected by Northern blot analysis, and the HCV proteins pro-

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 86 235 7385; fax: +81 86 235 7392.
E-mail address: nkato@md.okayama-u.ac.jp (N. Kato).

0168-1702/$ – see front matter © 2004 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.
doi:10.1016/j.virusres.2004.06.013

duced were detected by Western blot analysis. Therefore, the system of HCV replicons has become a powerful tool for basic studies in HCV, such as viral replication and drug development (Bartenschlager, 2002).

Recently, we also established two HCV subgenomic replicons (50-1 and 1B-2R1) derived from two HCV strains, 1B-1 and 1B-2, respectively, using Huh-7 cells (Kato et al., 2003a; Kishine et al., 2002). We demonstrated that the 50-1 and 1B-2R1 subgenomic replicons (Kato et al., 2003a) were sensitive to interferon (IFN)-α, IFN-β and IFN-γ as are the other replicons (Frese et al., 2001, 2002). The nucleotide sequences of the NS3-NS5B regions in the 50-1 subgenomic replicon showed differences of 8.1% from those in the1B-2R1 subgenomic replicon (Kato et al., 2003a), although both the 1B-1 and 1B-2 strains belong to genotype 1b. Although the efficient replication of an HCV subgenomic replicon expressing HCV proteins is considered to affect the gene expression profiles of host cells (Bartenschlager and Lohmann, 2000; Kato, 2001), few reports have demonstrated inclusive searches for HCV's target genes (Zhu et al., 2003). Therefore, we thought a comprehensive search for HCV subgenomic replicon-regulated cellular genes would be important in understanding the molecular interplay exerted by HCV in vivo.

In the present study, to obtain the candidates of HCV's target genes, we performed cDNA microarray analysis by comparing two types of HCV subgenomic replicon cells with their "cured cells", from which the replicons had been eliminated by prolonged treatment with IFN-α. Here we report on the differential gene expression profiles in the replicon cells, and we first provide a list of genes that the replicons transcriptionally regulate.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell cultures

50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells possessing 50-1 and 1B-2R1 subgenomic replicons, respectively, were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and G418 (300 mg/ml; Geneticine, Invitrogen). The 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells were known to possess the G418-resistant phenotype, because neomycin phophotransferase (NEOR) was produced by the efficient replication of HCV subgenomic replicon in the cells. When an HCV subgenomic replicon is excluded from the cells or its level is decreased, the cells are killed by the presence of G418. Therefore, the cured cells obtained from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells were maintained in the absence of G418.

2.2. IFN treatment

To prepare the cured cells, 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells (each 1×10^6) were plated onto 10-cm plates and were cultured for 1 day immediately before IFN treatment. Human IFN-α (Sigma) was added to the cells at a final concentration of 3000 IU/ml as described previously (Kato et al., 2003a). The incubation in the absence of G418 was continued for 3 weeks with the addition of IFN-α (3000 IU/ml) at 4-day intervals. The cured cells obtained from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells were named 50-1C and 1B-2R1C cells, respectively.

2.3. Northern blot analysis

Total RNAs from the cultured cells were prepared using the RNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen). Three micrograms of total RNA was used to detect the HCV replicon RNA and β-actin. Northern blotting and hybridization were performed as described previously (Ikeda et al., 2002; Kato et al., 2003a). As a molecular length marker, replicon RNA synthesized in vitro from replicon cassette plasmid pNSS1RZ2RU (Kato et al., 2003a) was also utilized.

2.4. Western blot analysis

The preparation of cell lysates, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), and immunoblotting analysis with a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane were performed as previously described (Hijikata et al., 1993). The antibodies used in this study were those against NS3 (Novacastra Laboratories, UK), NS5B (a generous gift from M. Kohara, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science), and β-actin (Sigma). Immunocomplexes on the membranes were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence assay (Renaissance; Perkin-Elmer Life Sciences).

2.5. cDNA microarray analysis

The 50-1, 50-1C, 1B-2R1, and 1B-2R1C cells (each 1×10^6 cells) were plated onto 10 cm plates, and each plate was cultured for 5 days in the absence of G418. The confluent cells were harvested and total RNAs were prepared using the RNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen). Using the obtained total RNAs, cDNA microarray analysis (CodeLink™, Uniset human I containing 9970 spots of 30-mer oligonucleotides; Amersham Biosciences) was performed by Kurabo Industries Ltd. (Osaka, Japan) with the authorization of Amersham Biosciences.

2.6. Analysis of mRNA expression by RT-PCR

The total RNAs (each 2 μg) that were the same as those subjected to cDNA microarray analysis were reverse-transcribed with Superscript II using an oligo dT primer (Invitrogen). One-tenth of the synthesized cDNA was subjected to PCR. The PCR primers are listed in Table 1. After 10 min at 98 °C, PCR was performed with Taq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa, Japan). Each cycle consisted of annealing at 60 °C (64 °C for LMP2 and LMP7 only) for 45 s, primer extension at 72 °C for 1 min, and denaturation at 94 °C for 20 s. The cycle numbers and the size of PCR products were also

Table 1
The primers used for RT-PCR analysis of mRNA expression

Genes	Orientation	Nucleotide sequence	Product (bp)	Cycles
Large multifunctional protease2 (LMP2)	Forward	ATGGAACCCTGGGAGGAATGCTG	145	30
	Reverse	GCAATAGCGTCTGTGGTGAAGCG		
Large multifunctional protease 7 (LMP7)	Forward	CTGGGATAAGAAGGGTCCTGGAC	293	27
	Reverse	TACTGGTGCAGCAGGTCACTGGAC		
Serine proteinase inhibitor (serpin) clade C	Forward	TGGATGAATTGGAGGAGATGATGC	249	25
	Reverse	CAATCACAACAGCGGTACTTGCAG		
S100-type calcium binding protein A14	Forward	CAGAGGATGCTCAGGAATTCAGTG	256	27
	Reverse	CTCTTGGCCGCTTCTCCAATGAG		
Latent transforming growth factor β binding protein 1 (LTBP1)	Forward	GCCTTGGTTGACTTCAGTGAACAG	325	27
	Reverse	CAGAAGGCACGTAGCCTGGCAG		
Weakly similar to zinc finger protein 91	Forward	CCAGAACCACATCCAAACCATCC	299	33
	Reverse	CCATCCCTTCGAAGCTGTGCTC		
Transgelin	Forward	GATTCTGAGCAAGCTGGTGAACAG	254	25
	Reverse	AGTGCCCATCATTCTTGGTCACTG		
Annexin A1	Forward	GATGCCAGGGCCTTGTATGAAGC	264	25
	Reverse	AACACCTTTCATGGCTTGATGAAGC		
Solute carrier family 7	Forward	AGTCCTTCGCTGGAAGAAGCCTG	314	27
	Reverse	CCATGTCCTCATTAGCCTCCTCTG		
Protein phosphatase 1 regulatory subunit 1A	Forward	CCACGGCAACGGAAGAAGATGAC	302	27
	Reverse	GCTCCCTTGGAATCCAGTGGTGG		
Phosphatidylserine-specific phospholipase A1α	Forward	GAGAAACAAGGACACCAACATCGAG	288	28
	Reverse	GTCACACTTGCTTGTAAGTTCACTG		
Oncostatin M receptor	Forward	CAGAAAAGAGTCACTCTGGCCCTG	292	27
	Reverse	GGTGCCTCTACTGGGTTTGTTGG		
Similar to interferon-induced protein 35	Forward	CCGTATGTGAATGGGGAGATCCAG	222	27
	Reverse	GCCTGACTCAGAGGTGAAGACTG		
Caspase 1	Forward	AGAAACACTCTGAGCAAGTCCCAG	278	30
	Reverse	AACATTATCTGGTGTGGAAGAGCAG		
Neutrophil cytosolic factor 2	Forward	GACATGGTGTCTAAGAAACTGGAG	277	27
	Reverse	CTCATAACTGAAGAGTGCCTCCAC		
Putative secred protein ZSIG13	Forward	CTGGTTATGACAATGACCGACCAG	272	25
	Reverse	GCAGATCTGGGCATATTTGAGAGG		
GAPDH	Forward	GACTCATGACCACAGTCCATGC	334	22
	Reverse	GAGGAGACCACCTGGTGCTCAG		

listed in Table 1. The PCR products were detected by staining with ethidium bromide after separation by electrophoresis on 3% agarose gels. RT-PCR was performed in duplicate experiments. The mRNA levels of target genes were monitored by a ChemiImager 4400 (Alpha Innotech), which measured the intensities of bands stained with ethidium bromide as described previously (Kato et al., 2003a). As an internal control, glyceraldehydes-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) mRNA was amplified by RT-PCR, and the products were used to normalize the mRNA levels of the target genes.

2.7. LightCycler PCR

One-twentieth of the cDNA synthesized above was subjected to real-time LightCycler PCR as described previously (Nozaki and Kato, 2002; Nozaki et al., 2003). The primers listed in Table 1 were also used for LightCycler PCR. Temperature cycling conditions for each primer set consisted of 10 min at 95 °C followed by 35 cycles for 1 s at 94 °C, 5 s at 60 °C (64 °C for LMP2 and LMP7 only), and 6–14 s (25 bp per second) at 72 °C. All reactions were performed in a LightCycler™ Quick System 330 (Roche) using Fast-Start DNA Master SYBR Green I mix (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The experiments were performed in at least triplicate. The relative mRNA expression ratios of the target genes were calculated based on crossing-point analysis using a second derivative maximum method (LightCycler analysis software version 3.5). To correct for differences in RNA quality and quantity between the samples, data were normalized using the ratio of the target cDNA concentration to that of GAPDH. This ratio was assessed by a different reaction in the same experimental round.

Table 2
Genes whose expression levels were commonly altered in 1B-2R1 and 50-1 cells compared with their cured cells

Genes	Relative mRNA expression ratio		Accession no.
	1B-2R1/1B-2R1C	50-1/50-1C	
Up-regulation (more than 2-fold)			
Phosphatidylserine-specific phospholipase A1α[a]	2.2	2.9	NM_015900
Oncostatin M receptor[a]	2.1	2.2	NM_003999
Down-regulation (less than 0.50-fold)			
LMP2[a]	0.14	0.30	NM_002800
LMP7[a]	0.21	0.44	NM_004159
Similar to interferon-induced protein 35[a]	0.31	0.32	BC001356
Weakly similar to zinc finger protein 91[a]	0.36	0.42	AK027354
Protein phosphatase 1, regulatory subunit 1A[a]	0.40	0.32	NM_006741
Serpin clade C[a]	0.49	0.31	NM_000488

[a] RT-PCR analysis was performed to confirm the result of microarray analysis.

3. Results

3.1. Preparation of the cured cells from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells

To obtain cured cells for the microarray analysis, 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells were cultured with prolonged IFN-α treatment as described Section 2. After 3 weeks of this treatment, we demonstrated by Northern blot analysis that the replicon RNAs were not detected in the IFN-α-treated (50-1C and 1B-2R1C) cells, although approximately 10^8 copies of replicon RNA were detected in the total RNA (3 mg) extracted from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells (Fig. 1A). We further confirmed by RT-nested PCR (Mizutani et al., 1996) for the detection of the 5′-untranslated region that the replicon RNAs were absolutely excluded from the cells (data not shown). Western blot analysis also showed that the NS3 and NS5B proteins were no longer detected in 50-1C and 1B-2R1C cells, but were detected in 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells, as shown in Fig. 1B.

3.2. cDNA microarray analysis

To examine the effects of HCV replicons on gene expression in host cells, cDNA microarray analyses (CodeLink™, Amersham Biosciences; 9970 human genes) were performed by comparing 1B-2R1 with 1B-2R1C cells and 50-1 with 50-1C cells. The majority of genes examined showed only small differences, with ratios ranging between 2.0 and 0.50 (data not shown). There were 55 and 101 up-regulated genes (those

Table 3
Genes whose expression levels were up-regulated (more than 3-fold) in either 1B-2R1 or 50-1 cells compared with the cured cells

Genes	Relative mRNA expression ratio		Accession no.
	1B-2R1/1B-2R1C	50-1/50-1C	
AU62G04.X1	**8.5**	1.4	AI929792
Homeobox 1(HESX1)	**4.2**	0.50	NM_003865
Microsomal NAD+ dependent retinol dehydrogenase 4	**3.4**	0.92	NM_003708
Advillin	**3.3**	0.61	NM_006576
SSFV proviral integration oncogene Spi1	**3.1**	1.0	NM_003120
Napsin 2 precursor	**3.1**	0.94	AF098485
Transgelin[a]	0.85	**8.5**	NM_003186
Uncharacterized bone marrow protein BM040	0.81	**5.8**	AF217516
Annexin A1[a]	1.0	**4.2**	NM_000700
Putative secreted protein ZSIG13[a]	1.7	**3.9**	AF193611
Protease serine 23	1.2	**3.8**	NM_007173
Colon cancer antigen NY-CO-45	1.3	**3.7**	AF039442
HSPC157 protein	1.1	**3.5**	NM_014179
Uronyl-2-sulfotransferase	1.0	**3.5**	NM_005715
Cadherin, EGF lag seven-pass G-type receptor 2	0.68	**3.5**	NM_001408
Hypothetical protein (LOC51321)	1.1	**3.4**	NM_016627
Kidney-specific membrane protein (NX-17)	1.0	**3.3**	NM_020665
Neutrophil cytosolic factor 2[a]	1.8	**3.2**	NM_000433
Amphiregulin	1.4	**3.1**	NM_001657
Fibrillin 1	0.83	**3.1**	NM_000138
LTBP1[a]	1.6	**3.0**	NM_000627

The numbers of more than 3-fold were indicated by bold letters.
[a] RT-PCR analysis was performed to confirm the result of microarray analysis.

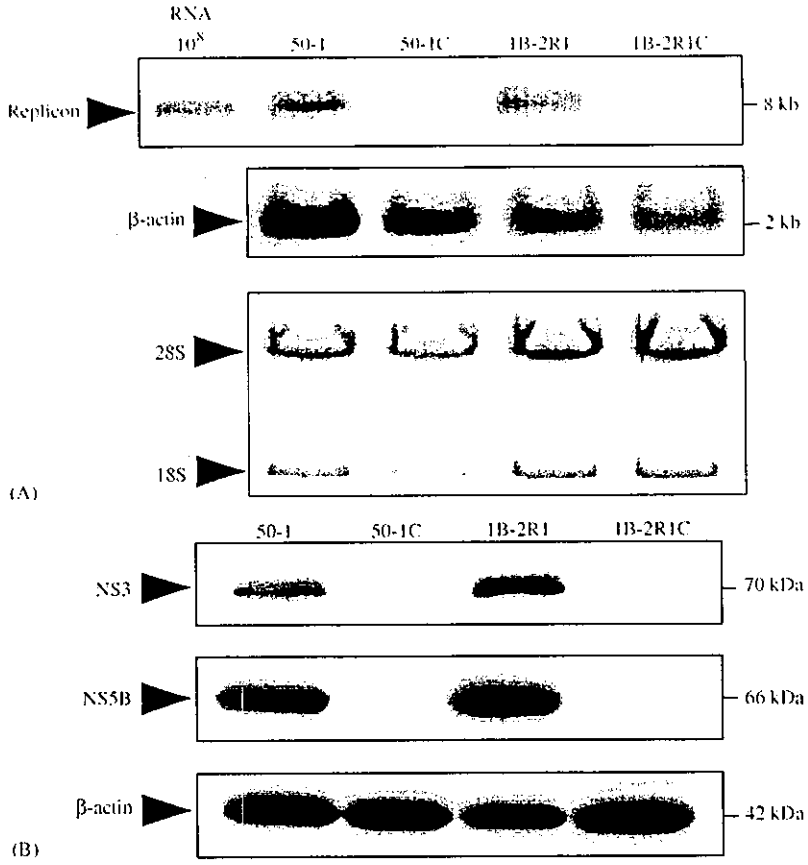

Fig. 1. Characterization of the replicon cells and their cured cells. (A) Northern blot analysis. Total RNAs from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells, as well as total RNAs from the cured cells, were analyzed by Northern blotting using a positive-stranded HCV genome-specific RNA probe (upper panel) and a β-actin-specific RNA probe (middle panel). RNA samples were equalized for 28S and 18S ribosomal RNAs stained with ethidium bromide (lower panel). A synthetic RNA transcribed from pNSS1RZ2RU (10^8 genome equivalents spiked into normal cellular RNA) was used as a positive control. (B) Western blot analysis. Productions of NS3 and NS5B in 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells were analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-NS3 and anti-NS5B antibodies, respectively. 50-1C and 1B-2R1C cells were also analyzed to confirm the lack of NS3 and NS5B proteins. β-actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane.

with ratios of more than 2.0) in 1B-2R1 and 50-1 cells, respectively. Between the two types of replicon cells, only two genes were commonly up-regulated. There were 56 and 74 down-regulated genes (those with ratios of less than 0.50) in 1B-2R1 and 50-1 cells, respectively, of which 6 genes were commonly down-regulated in both types of replicon cells. Table 2 summarizes the genes that the replicons commonly affected. Among these genes, it is noteworthy that large multifunctional proteases 2 (LMP2) and LMP7, which have been known as catalytic subunits in immunoproteasome (Akiyama et al., 1994; Tanaka and Kasahara, 1998), and serine proteinase inhibitor (serpin) clade C (Gettins, 2002) were down-regulated in both types of replicon cells (discussed below). However, no common genes were directly linked to the transformation of the cells. Since the standard of selection seemed to be rather strict, we further selected the genes whose expression levels were up-regulated or down-regulated with ratios of more than 3.0 or less than 0.33, respectively, in either 1B-2R1 or 50-1 cells. By this method, we selected 6 and 15 genes as up-regulated genes in 1B-2R1 and 50-1 cells, respectively (as shown in Table 3); and 6 and 9 genes as down-regulated genes in 1B-2R1 and 50-1 cells, respectively (as shown in Table 4). These selections allowed us to find several additional genes, including latent transforming growth factor β binding protein 1 (LTBP1) and caspase 1, that were commonly regulated in both types of replicons.

3.3. RT-PCR confirmation of the alteration of gene expression by HCV replicons

To confirm the results of our microarray selection, we examined the levels of several mRNAs by RT-PCR in duplicate. As shown by the stars in Tables 2-4, 16 genes (7 up-regulated and 9 down-regulated) were subjected to RT-PCR analysis. As shown in Fig. 2, RT-PCR confirmed that the expressions of most of these genes changed. This result suggests that the relative mRNA expression ratio obtained by the microarray analysis reflects the differential expres-

Table 4
Genes whose expression levels were down-regulated (less than 0.33-fold) in either 1B-2R1 or 50-1 cells compared with the cured cells

Genes	Relative mRNA expression ratio		Accession no.
	1B-2R1/1B-2R1C	50-1/50-1C	
Hephaestin	**0.14**	1.7	NM_014799
Solute carrier family 7[a]	**0.15**	0.62	NM_003982
Caspase 1[a]	**0.18**	0.65	NM_033292
Protease inhibitor 3	**0.19**	1.1	NM_002638
Collagen type II α1	**0.31**	1.6	NM_033150
C-terminal binding protein 2	**0.31**	0.71	NM_022802
ATPase α polypeptide (ATP 12A)	0.57	**0.26**	NM_001676
Hypothetical protein FLJ20043	0.79	**0.27**	NM_017637
CM2-HT0948-070900-368-D08 cDNA	1.0	**0.28**	BF089733
S100-type calcium binding protein A14[a]	0.62	**0.30**	NM_020672
Hypothetical protein MGC2827	0.65	**0.31**	NM_023940
EGFL6	2.4	**0.32**	NM_015507
ISL1 transcription factor	0.94	**0.32**	NM_002202
Pre-α globulin inhibitor	1.2	**0.32**	NM_002217
Regulator of G-protein signalling 16	0.65	**0.33**	NM_002928

The numbers of less than 0.33-fold were indicated by bold letters.
[a] RT-PCR analysis was performed to confirm the result of microarray analysis.

sion profiles of the replicon and its cured cells. Of the 16 genes, 9 (4 up-regulated and 5 down-regulated) were further subjected to real-time LightCycler PCR analysis in order to obtain the actual ratios of mRNA expression. As shown in Table 5, the resultant relative mRNA expression ratios actually correlated with those obtained by our microarray analysis. Regarding the selected genes in this study, we confirmed by RT-PCR the reproducibility of the relative mRNA ratios using different lots of RNA specimens derived from 1B-2R1 and 1B-2R1C cells (data not shown). Taken together, our results suggest that these altered mRNA expressions are caused by the multiplication of HCV subgenomic replicons.

Table 5
LightCycler RT-PCR analysis of genes whose expression levels were altered by HCV replicons

Genes	Relative mRNA expression ratio (mean ± S.D.)	
	1B-2R1/1B-2R1C	50-1/50-1C
Up-regulation		
Phosphatidylserine-specific phospholipase A1α	2.03 ± 0.09	3.09 ± 0.74
Oncostatin M receptor	2.58 ± 0.20	2.46 ± 0.49
Transgelin	0.83 ± 0.11	13.72 ± 0.56
Annexin A1	1.19 ± 0.17	4.23 ± 0.72
Down-regulation		
LMP2	0.06 ± 0.00	0.40 ± 0.12
LMP7	0.09 ± 0.02	0.33 ± 0.08
Serpin clade C	0.39 ± 0.11	0.37 ± 0.11
Solute carrier family 7	0.13 ± 0.08	0.77 ± 0.18
S100-type calcium binding protein A14	0.37 ± 0.21	0.32 ± 0.17

4. Discussion

This study yielded evidence of alterations in gene expression by HCV subgenomic replicons in human hepatocytes, as observed through microarray analysis (9970 genes), and first provided a list of genes including LMP2, LMP7, and serpin clade C that the replicons transcriptionally regulate.

To date, only one report of cDNA microarray analysis (832 cytokine-related genes) has been conducted by comparing HCV subgenomic replicon cells with parental Huh-7 cells (Zhu et al., 2003). That analysis obtained 14 up-regulated genes (those with ratios of more than 2.0) in the replicon cells. However, the parental Huh-7 cells may not be appropriate for use as control cells in such microarray analyses, because the HCV subgenomic replicon cells used are derived from a single cloned cell. Therefore, it is very important to avoid the clone-based differences for microarray analysis. From this principal reason, we used two types of cured cells derived from 50-1 and 1B-2R1 cells as the control cells for our microarray analysis. The cured cells are considered to have the same background as the replicon cells. The possibility remains that the genes selected in this study were obtained by the effect of IFN-α that was used to

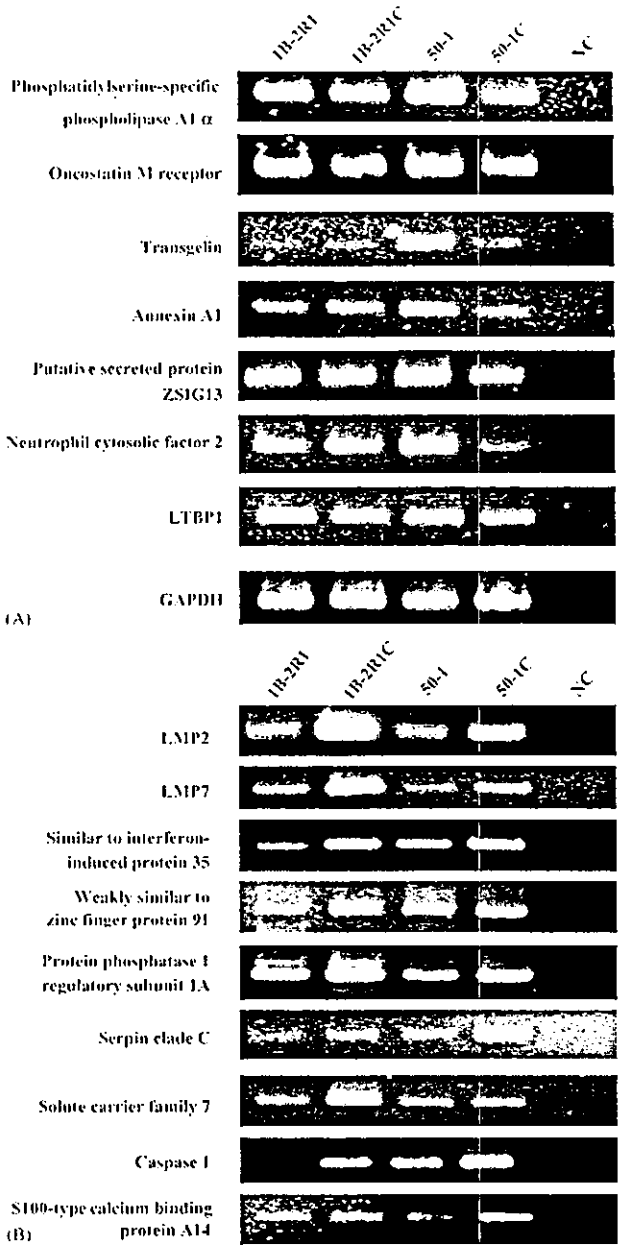

Fig. 2. RT-PCR analysis of mRNA expression of selected genes based on the microarray results. The total RNAs extracted from 50-1, 50-1C, 1B-2R1, and 1B-2R1C cells were subjected to RT-PCR, and the mRNA levels of target genes were monitored as described in Section 2. The primers used, PCR product lengths, and PCR cycle numbers are listed in Table 1. GAPDH was used as a control. (A) Up-regulated genes. (B) Down-regulated genes.

eliminate replicon RNA. However, this possibility is quite low because most of the genes regulated by IFN-α were not transcriptionally altered according to our microarray analysis, and it is unlikely that IFN-α treatment irreversibly altered the expression of genes that it either induced or suppressed. In actuality, most genes selected by our cDNA microarray analysis were not related to the genes regulated by IFN-α, although the selected genes in this study did not show any common characteristics involved in the progression of hepatic diseases. Very recently, after most of the present study was finished, a cDNA microarray analysis using full-length HCV RNA replicating cells and their cured cells was reported by Scholle et al. (2004). Although those authors found dozens of genes whose expression levels were altered by the replication of HCV RNA derived from HCV strain N, we had no information on the genes they had selected and therefore we could not compare them with ours. Therefore, we are currently establishing full-length HCV RNA replicating cells derived from 1B-1 and 1B-2 HCV strains. Further cDNA microarray analysis using such full-length HCV RNA replicating cells will help to identify HCV's target genes.

Among the genes selected in this study, LMP2 and LMP7 are quite interesting. Both are known as important catalytic subunits in immunoproteasome induced by IFN-γ (Akiyama et al., 1994; Tanaka and Kasahara, 1998). In the presence of IFN-γ, the three catalytic subunits of vertebrate proteasomes are replaced by their homologous subunits, LMP2, LMP7, and MECL1, to form immunoproteasome, which increased the ability to produce peptides with a proper motif for efficient MHC binding (Fehling et al., 1994; Van Kaer et al., 1994). A number of peptides that were poorly processed by the standard proteasome were recently found to be more effectively produced by the immunoproteasome (Van den Eynde and Morel, 2001). Therefore, down-regulation of LMP2 and LMP7 expressions in HCV subgenomic replicon cells will reduce the production efficiency of viral antigenic peptides presented to CD8+ T cells (Van den Eynde and Morel, 2001), and may subsequently help to cause the persistent viral infection. In contrast with the expression of LMP2 and LMP7, that of the MECL1 gene was not altered regardless of the presence of HCV replicon. The molecular mechanism by which HCV replicon cells suppress LMP2 and LMP7 remains unknown. This phenomenon is considered to be caused by one of the HCV NS proteins in the replicon cells. As a first step toward identifying the responsible NS protein, we carried out a preliminary experiment using 1B-2R1C cells that stably expressed NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, NS5B, or NS3-NS5B protein by retrovirus-mediated gene transfer. Unfortunately, however, this experiment failed to identify the responsible NS protein. This result suggests that either the replication of replicon RNA or replicon RNA itself is necessary to suppress LMP2 and LMP7 gene expression. To clarify this point, further analysis will be necessary, using HCV subgenomic replicon cells derived from the other HCV strains or HCV subgenomic replicon cells re-established by the transfection of 50-1 or 1B-2R1 subgenomic replicon RNA.

A third interesting gene obtained in this study was serpin clade C. Although the expression of the serpin clade C gene was down-regulated to approximately one-third in HCV subgenomic replicon cells, those of the other eight clades of the serpin family were not quite altered. Since serpins are a unique class of proteinase inhibitors that irreversibly neu-

tralize target proteinases by a mechanism that conformationally distorts the proteinase (Gettins, 2002), the relationship between serpin clade C and HCV serine proteinase is interesting. To clarify this relationship, further analysis, such as that of the compulsory expression of serpin clade C in the replicon cells, will be necessary.

In this study, we demonstrated that microarray analysis to compare HCV subgenomic replicon cells with their cured cells was useful for screening and selecting HCV's target genes. Also, we compiled the first list of genes transcriptionally regulated by the multiplication of HCV subgenomic replicons. Although we need to clarify the mechanisms underlying transcriptional regulation by HCV subgenomic replicons, we believe that the genes involved in viral replication and multiplication are among the genes listed in this study. Further analysis using new experimental systems, such as the full-length HCV RNA replicating system, will be useful to clarify this point.

Acknowledgements

We thank A. Nozaki, T. Nakamura, and A. Morishita for their helpful experimental assistance. This work was supported by grants-in-aid for research on hepatitis and BSE from the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan, and by grants-in-aid for scientific research from the Organization for Pharmaceutical Safety and Research (OPSR).

References

Akiyama, K., Kagawa, S., Tamura, T., Shimbara, N., Takashina, M., Kristensen, P., Hendil, K.B., Tanaka, K., Ichihara, A., 1994. Replacement of proteasome subunits X and Y by LMP7 and LMP2 induced by interferon-gamma for acquirement of the functional diversity responsible for antigen processing. FEBS Lett. 18, 85–88.

Bartenschlager, R., 2002. Hepatitis C virus replicons: potential role for drug development. Nat. Rev. Drug Discov. 1, 911–916.

Bartenschlager, R., Lohmann, V., 2000. Replication of hepatitis C virus. J. Gen. Virol. 81, 1631–1648.

Blight, K.J., Kolykhalov, A.A., Rice, C.M., 2000. Efficient initiation of HCV RNA replication in cell culture. Science 290, 1972–1974.

Blight, K.J., McKeating, J.A., Marcotrigiano, J., Rice, C.M., 2003. Efficient replication of hepatitis C virus genotype 1a RNAs in cell culture. J. Virol. 77, 3181–3190.

Choo, Q.L., Kuo, G., Weiner, A.J., Overby, L.R., Bradley, D.W., Houghton, M., 1989. Isolation of a cDNA clone derived from a blood-borne non-A, non-B viral hepatitis genome. Science 244, 359–362.

Fehling, H.J., Swat, W., Laplace, C., Kuhn, R., Rajewsky, K., Muller, U., von Boehmer, H., 1994. MHC class I expression in mice lacking the proteasome subunit LMP-7. Science 265, 1234–1237.

Frese, M., Pietschmann, T., Moradpour, D., Haller, O., Bartenschlager, R., 2001. Interferon-a inhibits hepatitis C virus subgenomic RNA replication by an MxA-independent pathway. J. Gen. Virol. 82, 723–733.

Frese, M., Schwarzle, V., Barth, K., Krieger, N., Lohmann, V., Mihm, S., Haller, O., Bartenschlager, R., 2002. Interferon-g inhibits replication of subgenomic and genomic hepatitis C virus RNAs. Hepatology 35, 694–703.

Gettins, P.G., 2002. Serpin structure, mechanism, and function. Chem. Rev. 102, 4751–4804.

Hijikata, M., Mizushima, H., Tanji, Y., Komoda, Y., Hirowatari, Y., Akagi, T., Kato, N., Kimura, K., Shimotohno, K., 1993. Proteolytic processing and membrane association of putative nonstructural proteins of hepatitis C virus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 90, 10773–10777.

Ikeda, M., Yi, M., Li, K., Lemon, S.M., 2002. Selectable subgenomic and genome-length dicistronic RNAs derived from an infectious molecular clone of the HCV-N strain of hepatitis C virus replicate efficiently in cultured Huh7 cells. J. Virol. 76, 2997–3006.

Kato, N., 2001. Molecular virology of hepatitis C virus. Acta Med. Okayama 55, 133–159.

Kato, N., Hijikata, M., Ootsuyama, Y., Nakagawa, M., Ohkoshi, S., Sugimura, T., Shimotohno, K., 1990. Molecular cloning of the human hepatitis C virus genome from Japanese patients with non-A, non-B hepatitis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 87, 9524–9528.

Kato, N., Shimotohno, K., 2000. Systems to culture hepatitis C virus. Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol. 242, 261–278.

Kato, N., Sugiyama, K., Namba, K., Dansako, H., Nakamura, T., Takami, M., Naka, K., Nozaki, A., Shimotohno, K., 2003a. Establishment of a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon derived from human hepatocytes infected in vitro. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 306, 756–766.

Kato, T., Date, T., Miyamoto, M., Furusaka, A., Tokushige, K., Mizokami, M., Wakita, T., 2003b. Efficient replication of the genotype 2a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon. Gastroenterology 125, 1808–1817.

Kishine, H., Sugiyama, K., Hijikata, M., Kato, N., Takahashi, H., Noshi, T., Nio, Y., Hosaka, M., Miyanari, Y., Shimotohno, K., 2002. Subgenomic replicon derived from a cell line infected with the hepatitis C virus. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 293, 993–999.

Kuo, G., Choo, Q.L., Alter, H.J., Gitnick, G.L., Redeker, A.G., Purcell, R.H., Miyamura, T., Dienstag, J.L., Alter, M.J., Stevens, C.E., Tegtmeier, G.E., Bonino, F., Colombo, W.S., Lee, W.S., Kuo, C., Berger, K., Shuster, J.R., Overby, L.R., Bradley, D.W., Houghton, M., 1989. An assay for circulating antibodies to a major etiologic virus of human non-A, non-B hepatitis. Science 244, 362–364.

Lohmann, V., Korner, F., Koch, J., Herian, U., Theilmann, L., Bartenschlager, R., 1999. Replication of subgenomic hepatitis C virus RNAs in a hepatoma cell line. Science 285, 110–113.

Mizutani, T., Kato, N., Saito, S., Ikeda, M., Sugiyama, K., Shimotohno, K., 1996. Characterization of hepatitis C virus replication in cloned cells obtained from a human T-cell leukemia virus type I infected cell line MT-2. J. Virol. 70, 7219–7223.

Nozaki, A., Kato, N., 2002. Quantitative method of intracellular hepatitis C virus RNA using LightCycler PCR. Acta Med. Okayama 56, 107–110.

Nozaki, A., Ikeda, M., Naganuma, A., Nakamura, T., Inudoh, M., Tanaka, K., Kato, N., 2003. Identification of a lactoferrin-derived peptide possessing binding activity to hepatitis C virus E2 envelope protein. J. Biol. Chem. 278, 10162–10173.

Ohkoshi, S., Kojima, H., Tawaraya, H., Miyajima, T., Kamimura, T., Asakura, H., Satoh, A., Hirose, S., Hijikata, M., Kato, N., Shimotohno, K., 1990. Prevalence of antibody against non-A, non-B hepatitis virus in Japanese patients with hepatocellular carcinoma. Jpn. J. Cancer Res. 81, 550–553.

Saito, I., Miyamura, T., Ohbayashi, A., Harada, H., Katayama, T., Kikuchi, S., Watanabe, Y., Koi, S., Onji, M., Ohta, Y., Choo, Q.L., Houghton, M., Kuo, G., 1990. Hepatitis C virus infection is associated with the development of hepatocellular carcinoma. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A. 87, 6547–6549.

Scholle, F., Li, K., Bodola, F., Ikeda, M., Luxon, B.A., Lemon, S.M., 2004. Virus-host cell interactions during hepatitis C virus RNA replication: impact of polyprotein expression on the cellular transcriptome and cell cycle association with viral RNA synthesis. J. Virol. 78, 1513–1524.

Tanaka, K., Kasahara, M., 1998. The MHC class I ligand-generating system: roles of immunoproteasomes and the interferon-gamma-inducible proteasome activator PA28. Immunol. Rev. 163, 161–176.

Tanaka, T., Kato, N., Cho, M.-J., Shimotohno, K., 1995. A novel sequence found at the 3' terminus of hepatitis C virus genome. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 215, 744–749.

Van den Eynde, B.J., Morel, S., 2001. Differential processing of class-I-restricted epitopes by the standard proteasome and the immunoproteasome. Curr. Opin. Immunol. 13, 147–153.

Van Kaer, L., Ashton-Rickardt, P.G., Eichelberger, M., Gaczynska, M., Nagashima, K., Rock, K.L., Goldberg, A.L., Doherty, P.C., Tonegawa, S., 1994. Altered peptidase and viral-specific T cell response in LMP2 mutant mice. Immunity 1, 533–541.

Zhu, H., Zhao, H., Collins, C.D., Eckenrode, S.E., Run, Q., McIndoe, R.A., Crawford, J.M., Nelson, D.R., She, J.X., Liu, C., 2003. Gene expression associated with interferon alfa antiviral activity in an HCV replicon cell line. Hepatology 37, 1180–1188.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com
SCIENCE DIRECT®
Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications 323 (2004) 299–309
BBRC
www.elsevier.com/locate/ybbrc

Establishment of hepatitis C virus replicon cell lines possessing interferon-resistant phenotype

Katsuyuki Namba[a,b,1], Kazuhito Naka[a,1], Hiromichi Dansako[a], Akito Nozaki[a], Masanori Ikeda[a], Yasushi Shiratori[b], Kunitada Shimotohno[c], Nobuyuki Kato[a,*]

[a] *Department of Molecular Biology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine and Dentistry, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan*
[b] *First Department of Internal Medicine, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine and Dentistry, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan*
[c] *Department of Viral Oncology, Institute for Virus Research, Kyoto University, 53 Kawara-cho Shogo-in, Sakyo-ku, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan*

Received 21 June 2004
Available online 28 August 2004

Abstract

To clarify the mechanism underlying resistance to interferon (IFN) by the hepatitis C virus (HCV) in patients with chronic hepatitis, we attempted to develop an IFN-resistant HCV replicon from the IFN-sensitive 50-1 replicon established previously. By treating 50-1 replicon cells with a prolonged low-dose treatment of IFN-α and then transfecting the total RNA derived from the IFN-α-treated replicon cells, we successfully obtained four clones (named 1, 3, 4, and 5) of HCV replicon cells that survived against IFN-α (200 IU/ml). These cloned cells were further treated with IFN-α or IFN-β (increased gradually to 2000 or 1000 IU/ml, respectively). This led to four replicon cell lines (αR series) possessing the IFN-α-resistant phenotype and four replicon cell lines (βR series) possessing the IFN-β-resistant phenotype. Furthermore, we obtained an additional replicon cell line (αRmix) possessing the IFN-α-resistant phenotype by two rounds of prolonged treatment with IFN-α and RNA transfection as mentioned above. Characterization of these obtained HCV replicon cell lines revealed that the βR series were highly resistant to both IFN-α and IFN-β, although the αR series containing αRmix were only partially resistant to both IFN-α and IFN-β. Genetic analysis of these HCV replicons found one common amino acid substitution in the NS4B and several additional amino acid substitutions in the NS5A of the βR series, suggesting that these genetic alterations are involved in the IFN resistance of these HCV replicons. These newly established HCV replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotypes are the first useful tools for understanding the mechanisms by which HCV acquires IFN resistance in vivo.

Keywords: Hepatitis C virus; Huh-7; Replicon; Interferon resistance

Persistent infection with the hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major cause of chronic hepatitis (CH) [1,2], which progresses to liver cirrhosis (LC), and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) [3,4]. Since approximately 170 million individuals are estimated to be infected with HCV worldwide, this infection is a global health problem [5]. HCV belongs to the family *Flaviviridae*, whose genome consists of a positive-stranded 9.6 kilobase (kb) RNA and encodes a large polyprotein precursor of about 3000 amino acid residues [6,7]. This polyprotein is processed by a combination of the host and viral proteases into at least ten proteins: the core, envelope 1 (E1), E2, p7, nonstructural protein 2 (NS2), NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B. Six major HCV genotypes have been classified as HCV-1a, -1b, -2a, -2b, -3a, and -3b [8].

To prevent the progression to CH, LC, and HCC, it is essential to eliminate HCV immediately from the

* Corresponding author. Fax: +81 86 235 7392.
E-mail address: nkato@md.okayama-u.ac.jp (N. Kato).
[1] Both authors contributed equally to this work.

0006-291X/$ - see front matter © 2004 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.
doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2004.08.091

human body. Thus far, however, the only effective anti-HCV reagents used in current clinical therapy are interferon (IFN)-α and IFN-β. Moreover, IFN's effectiveness is limited to about 30% of the reported cases [9]. although combined treatment of IFN and ribavirin has been found more effective (though still less than 50%) than treatment with IFN alone [10]. These clinical results suggest that HCV is rather resistant to the antiviral actions of IFN, and that HCV proteins directly or indirectly attenuate those actions [11].

Although many hypotheses have been proposed regarding the mechanisms of HCV's resistance to IFN [8,12], the lack of reproducible and efficient HCV proliferation in cell culture has been a serious obstacle to the clarification of such mechanisms [13].

In 1999, an HCV replicon system carrying autonomously replicating HCV subgenomic RNA containing the NS3–NS5B regions was first established using a human hepatoma cell line, Huh-7 [14]. Since then, several additional replicon systems, including ours (50-1 and 1B-2R1 replicons), have been established [15–20]. Recently, HCV replicons that autonomously replicate in human cervical carcinoma HeLa, human embryonic kidney 293, or mouse hepatoma cells have been introduced [21,22]. In these systems, replicated HCV RNAs and HCV proteins were detected by Northern and Western blot analyses, respectively. HCV replicon systems have become a powerful tool for basic studies of HCV, such as viral replication, virus–host interactions, and drug development [23]. Therefore, HCV replicon systems have been considered useful for clarifying the mechanisms underlying HCV's resistance to IFN.

However, unexpectedly, all HCV replicons established to date are found to be highly sensitive to IFN-α, IFN-β, and IFN-γ [19,24–27]. The mechanisms by which HCV replicons regulate the IFN-sensitive phenotype have not yet been clarified, although recent studies have proposed the involvement of proteasome subunits and ubiquitin-like proteins induced in replicon cells treated with IFN-α or IFN-γ [27,28]. The fact that HCV replicons are highly sensitive to IFNs seems to contradict the fact that more than 50% of patients with CH are resistant to current IFN therapy [10]. The elimination of this wide gap will contribute to the development of a method to eliminate HCV from the human body in vivo. Thus, we speculated that some stimuli might prompt IFN-sensitive HCV replicons to change into the IFN-resistant phenotype. According to this speculation, we attempted to develop IFN-resistant HCV replicons by a prolonged low-dose treatment of IFN against our established 50-1 replicon cells (termed 50-1 cells) [17].

Here, we report the successful establishment of HCV replicon cell lines possessing the IFN-resistant phenotype. We have also found several genetic alterations observed in only their HCV replicons.

Materials and methods

Cell cultures. Huh-7 and 50-1 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. Our 50-1 cells were cultured in the presence of G418 (300 μg/ml; Geneticine, Invitrogen). The 50-1 cells were known to possess the G418-resistant phenotype, because neomycin phosphotransferase (Neo) was produced by the efficient replication of HCV replicon in the cells. Therefore, when an HCV replicon is excluded from the cells or its level is decreased, the cells are killed by the presence of G418.

IFN treatment. For the initial treatment with IFN-α, 50-1 cells were plated onto six-well plates (1×10^5 cells/plate) and were cultured for one day immediately before IFN treatment. Human IFN-α (Sigma) was added to the cells at a final concentration of 1, 10, 100, or 1000 IU/ml, as described previously [19]. When the cells reached condition of confluence, they were passaged with several-fold dilutions. These cell cultures were continued for five months with the further addition of IFN-α at 5–6 day intervals. For further treatment with IFN-α, the replicon cells were plated onto 10 cm plates (1×10^6 cells/plate) and were cultured for one day immediately before IFN treatment. IFN-α was added to the cells at 4-day intervals, and the concentration of IFN-α was increased step by step to 400, 600, 800, 1000, and 2000 IU/ml. Human IFN-β (a gift from Toray Industries, Tokyo, Japan) was also added to the cells step by step at 4-day intervals, from concentrations of 400–600, 800, and 1000 IU/ml. The incubation was continued until apparent IFN-resistant colonies formed on the culture plates (in general, approximately one month). The analysis of the HCV replicon's sensitivity to IFN was performed as described previously [19]. Briefly, HCV replicon cells were plated in duplicate onto six-well plates (1×10^5 cells/plate) and were cultured for one day immediately before IFN treatment. IFN-α or IFN-β was added to the cells at a final concentration of 1, 10, 100, 500, 1000, or 2000 IU/ml, and incubation was continued. The cells were harvested 48 h after IFN treatment for the semi-quantitative analysis of HCV replicon RNA, or they were harvested five days after IFN treatment for the Western blot analysis of HCV proteins.

RNA transfection and selection of G418-resistant cells. RNA transfection into Huh-7 cells was performed by electroporation as described by Lohmann et al. [14]. Cells were selected in complete DMEM containing 300 μg/ml G418 as described previously [19].

Northern blot analysis. Total RNAs from the cultured cells were prepared using the RNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen). Three micrograms of total RNA was used to detect the HCV replicon RNA and β-actin. Northern blotting and hybridization were performed as described previously [19,29]. RNA Ladder (Invitrogen) was used to mark molecular length.

Western blot analysis. The preparation of cell lysates, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), and immunoblotting analysis with a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane were all performed as previously described [30]. The antibodies used to examine the expression levels of HCV proteins were those against NS3 (Novacastra Laboratories, UK), NS5A [30], and NS5B (a generous gift from M. Kohara, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science). Anti-β-actin antibody (AC-15, Sigma) was also used to detect β-actin as the internal control. To monitor the expression levels and phosphorylation status of the components involved in the IFN signal transduction pathway, HCV replicon cells were cultured for 30 min with or without IFN-α (500 IU/ml), and then cell lysates were used for immunoblotting analysis. Anti-JAK1, Tyk2, STAT1, STAT2, and STAT3 antibodies (BD Transduction Laboratories, Lexington, KY) were used to detect JAK1, Tyk2, STAT1, STAT2, and STAT3, respectively. Anti-*p*-JAK1(Tyr1022/1023) (Sigma), *p*-Tyk2(Tyr1054/1055), *p*-STAT1(Tyr701) (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA), *p*-STAT2(Tyr689) (Upstate Biotechnology, Lake Placid, NY), and *p*-STAT3(Tyr705) (Cell Signaling Technology) antibodies were used to

monitor the phosphorylation status of these proteins. Immunocomplexes on the membranes were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence assay (Renaissance; Perkin–Elmer Life Sciences, Wellesley, MA).

Quantification of HCV replicon RNA. Total RNAs from the HCV replicon cells were prepared using the Isogen extraction kit (Nippon Gene, Toyama, Japan). Semi-quantitative analysis of HCV replicon RNA was performed by a previously described method [19,31]. Briefly, 0.5 μg of the RNA was used for reverse transcription (RT) with Superscript II (Invitrogen) using primer 319R. The synthesized cDNA was amplified by *Taq* DNA polymerase (Takara, Shiga, Japan) using primer set 319R and 196, resulting in a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) product of 266 bp containing the 5′-untranslated region (5′-UTR). In vitro synthesized positive-stranded HCV RNA containing the 5′-UTR (10^6–10^9 copies) was also subjected to RT-PCR as the standard in order to quantify the amount of replicon RNA. PCR products were detected by staining with ethidium bromide after 3% agarose gel electrophoresis. The intensity of the band stained with ethidium bromide was quantified by a ChemiImager 4400 (Alpha Innotech, San Leandro, CA). The amount of HCV replicon RNA was estimated by comparing with the pattern of gradual amplification obtained by using in vitro synthesized HCV RNA containing the 5′-UTR, as shown previously [31]. As an internal control, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) messenger RNA (mRNA) was amplified by RT-PCR as described previously [32] and was used to standardize the level of HCV replicon RNA.

Dual luciferase assay. For the dual luciferase assay, we used the firefly luciferase reporter vector, pISRE(V2)-Luci [32], which contains five repeats of a 2′–5′-oligoadenylate synthetase (2′–5′-OAS)-type IFN-stimulated response element (ISRE). The assay was carried out as previously described [29]. After transfection of pISRE(V2)-Luci reporter plasmid and phRL-CMV (Promega) as an internal control reporter to the HCV replicon cells, the cells were cultured initially for 42 h and then again for an additional 6 h with or without IFN-α or IFN-β (500 IU/ml each). Triplicate transfection experiments were repeated in order to verify the reproducibly of the results. The relative luciferase activity was normalized to the activity of *Renilla* luciferase (internal control). A manual Lumat LB 9501/16 luminometer (EG and G Berthold, Bad Wildbad, Germany) was used to detect luciferase activity.

Sequence analysis of HCV replicon RNA. Sequence analysis of HCV replicons was performed as previously described [19]. Briefly, to amplify HCV replicon RNA, RT-PCR using proofreading KOD-plus DNA polymerase (Toyobo, Japan) was performed separately in two parts; one part covered the 5′-UTR to the amino terminal of the NS3 region, and the other part covered the NS3 region to the NS5B region. The PCR yielded 2033 bp for the former part and 6107 bp for the latter part. The PCR products were subcloned into pBR322MC [17] as previously described [19] and plasmid inserts were sequenced in both the sense and antisense directions using Big Dye terminator cycle sequencing on an ABI Prism 310 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems).

Cyclosporin A treatment. To prepare cured cells from which HCV replicons were eliminated, HCV replicon cells (1×10^6) were plated onto 10 cm plates and were cultured for one day immediately before cyclosporin A treatment. Cyclosporin A (Sigma) was added to the cells at a final concentration of 1 μg/ml, and incubation was continued in the absence of G418 for eight days as previously described [33].

Results

Isolation of HCV replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype

To clarify the molecular mechanisms of IFN resistance in patients with CH C and to develop a novel tool for antiviral therapy against persistent infection with HCV, we attempted to establish an IFN-resistant HCV replicon. In the first strategy to isolate an IFN-resistant HCV replicon (Fig. 1A), 50-1 cells were treated with several doses of IFN-α (final concentration 1, 10, 100, or 1000 IU/ml) as described in Materials and methods. This IFN treatment of the cells was continued for five months in the presence of G418. In the treatment using 1000 IU/ml of IFN-α, all cells were dead after the eighth IFN-α treatment. Contrary to this phenomenon, when the cells were treated with 1 or 10 IU/ml of IFN-α, most of the cells proliferated and the passage of cells was also easy. However, cells treated with 100 IU/ml of IFN-α survived in limited numbers and proliferated slowly as G418-resistant cells, suggesting that small portions of 50-1 replicon cell populations possess the IFN-resistant phenotype or become IFN-resistant during the IFN-α treatment. After five months of treatment with 100 IU/ml of IFN-α, the survived cells were transiently proliferated without IFN-α, and then the total RNA extracted from the cells was transfected into Huh-7 cells by electroporation. After selection with G418 for three weeks, a number of G418-resistant colonies were obtained and mixed (IFNR1 replicon cells). The IFNR1 replicon cells were then divided into two groups (Fig. 1A). The first group was treated with 200 and 400 IU/ml of IFN-α for one month. Although the cells treated with 400 IU/ml of IFN-α were completely dead, four colonies (termed 1, 3, 4, and 5) appeared as IFN-α (200 IU/ml)-resistant cells. The second group was treated with 100 IU/ml of IFN-α for one month, after which total RNA extracted from the IFN-treated cells was transfected again into Huh-7 cells by electroporation. As a consequence, a number of G418-resistant colonies were obtained and mixed (IFNR2 replicon cells). These obtained replicon cells (clones 1, 3, 4, and 5 and IFNR2) were treated again with IFN-α or IFN-β (gradually increased to 2000 or 1000 IU/ml, respectively). Regarding the four cloned cell lines treated with IFN-α, a number of colonies possessing the phenotype resistant to 2000 IU/ml of IFN-α were obtained and termed 1αR, 3αR, 4αR, and 5αR, respectively (Fig. 1B). The four lines of cloned cells treated with IFN-β also yielded many distinct colonies possessing the phenotype resistant to 1000 IU/ml of IFN-β; these colonies were termed 1βR, 3βR, 4βR, and 5βR, respectively (Fig. 1B). Interestingly, there were fewer IFN-β-resistant colonies than IFN-α-resistant ones. Especially remarkable differences were observed by IFN treatment to the cloned cell lines, 4 and 5 (Fig. 1B), suggesting qualitative differences among these IFN-resistant colonies obtained from the four cloned cell lines. In addition, a number of colonies possessing the phenotype resistant to 2000 IU/ml of IFN-α were also obtained from IFNR2 replicon cells treated with IFN-α. These colonies were mixed and termed αRmix (Fig. 1B). However, none of the IFNR2 replicon cells survived treatment with 400 IU/ml of IFN-β (Fig. 1B). In summary, we obtained four replicon cell lines (αR series) plus an αRmix

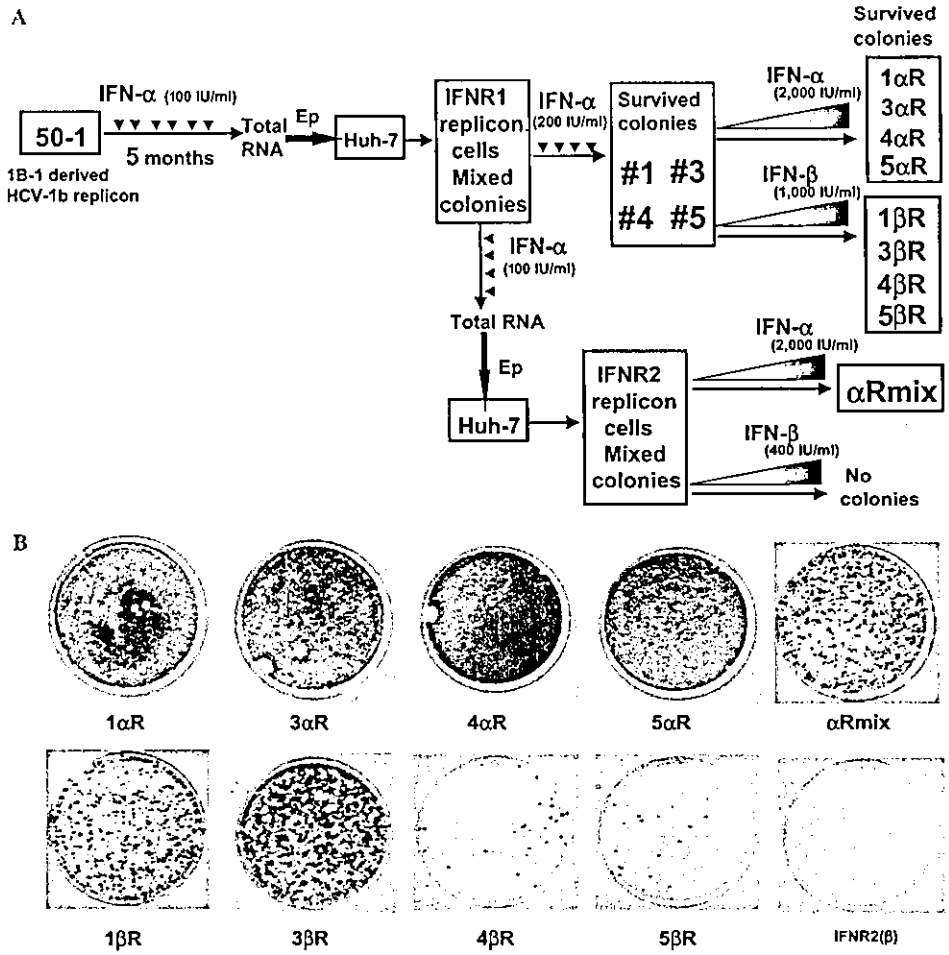

Fig. 1. Isolation of HCV replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype. (A) Outline of the isolation of HCV replicon cells possessing IFN-resistant phenotype. Ep indicates electroporation of total cellular RNA to Huh-7 cells. (B) HCV replicon cells possessing resistance against IFN-α (2000 IU/ml) and IFN-β (1000 IU/ml). A culture dish of each isolated cell line was stained with Coomassie brilliant blue as described previously [42]. IFNR2(β) indicates that no colonies have been obtained from IFNR2 replicon cells by the treatment with IFN-β (400 IU/ml).

cell line possessing the IFN-α-resistant phenotype, and four replicon cell lines (βR series) possessing the IFN-β-resistant phenotype.

Since it has been known that the replication efficiency of an HCV replicon depends on cell proliferation [34], the possibility remains that only colonies with a growth-rate advantage were able to survive IFN treatment. To evaluate this possibility, we compared the growth rates of parental 50-1 and the nine replicon cell lines that possessed the IFN-resistant phenotype. However, no significant differences in cell growth rates were observed between 50-1 cells and the replicon cell lines (data not shown).

Characterization of HCV replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype

The levels of replicon RNAs and HCV proteins in the nine obtained replicon cell lines were examined by Northern and Western blot analyses, respectively. Replicon RNAs approximately 8 kb long were detected in all specimens except those from the cured cells, from which the replicons had been eliminated from the replicon cells by the treatment with IFN-α (Fig. 2A). The number of copies of replicon RNAs in total RNAs (each 2 μg) extracted from these replicon cells was estimated at approximately 10^8 (less than 10^8 in 1αR cells) by comparing these replicon RNAs with replicon RNA synthesized in vitro from replicon cassette plasmid pNSS1RZ2RU [19] (data not shown). The NS3, NS5A, and NS5B proteins were also detected in all specimens except those from the cured cells (Fig. 2B). The expression levels of replicon RNAs and HCV proteins differed somewhat among these nine replicon cell lines, and no strong quantitative relationship between replicon RNA and HCV proteins was observed (Fig. 2). These results suggest that the stability of replicon RNA or HCV proteins produced from the replicon RNA, or

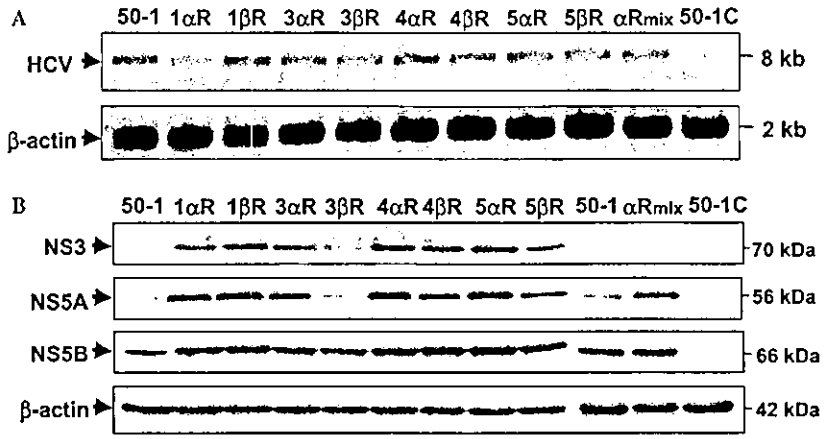

Fig. 2. Characterization of replicon cells possessing IFN-resistant phenotype. (A) Northern blot analysis. Total RNAs from 50-1 and nine replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype, as well as total RNA from 50-1C cells (cured cells), were analyzed by Northern blot analysis using a positive-stranded HCV genome-specific RNA probe (upper panel) and a β-actin-specific RNA probe (lower panel). (B) Western blot analysis. Productions of NS3, NS5A, and NS5B in 50-1 and nine replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype were analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-NS3, anti-NS5A, and anti-NS5B antibodies, respectively. 50-1C cells were also analyzed as a negative control for NS3, NS5A, and NS5B. β-Actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane.

the efficiency of translation, differs among these nine replicon cell lines. A similar phenomenon has been observed in other replicon cells [35]. In summary, we showed that the replication efficiencies of nine replicon cell lines possessing the IFN-resistant phenotype were highly maintained.

Two IFN-resistant phenotypes of the established HCV replicon cell lines

To assess the degree of IFN resistance among these newly established HCV replicons, we examined the levels of replicon RNA and NS5B protein in the cells (50-1 and each of the nine replicon cell lines established) treated with IFN-α or IFN-β (500 IU/ml each) by semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis [19] and Western blot analysis, respectively. Both analyses revealed that replicon RNA and NS5B were drastically decreased in 50-1 cells at two days (replicon RNA) and five days (NS5B) after treatment with IFN-α or IFN-β (Fig. 3). This indicated that 50-1 replicon was highly sensitive to IFNs as described previously [19]. However, five replicons (1αR, 3αR, 4αR, 5αR, and αRmix) showed somewhat resistant phenotypes, especially against IFN-α. The levels of these replicon RNAs in the cells at two days after IFN-α treatment were maintained at about 15–40% of the levels in the untreated cells, whereas the level of 50-1 replicon RNA decreased to less than 10% that of the untreated cells (Fig. 3). This IFN resistance was confirmed by Western blot analysis (Fig. 3). These results indicate that the αR series (1αR, 3αR, 4αR, and 5αR) and αRmix possessed partial IFN-α resistant phenotypes. Although

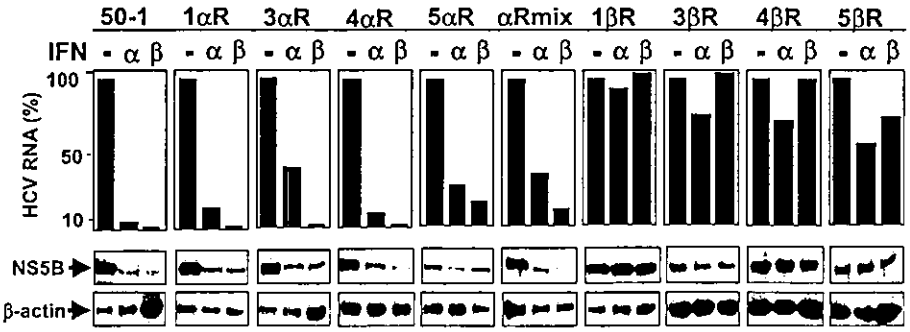

Fig. 3. IFN-resistant phenotypes of the established replicon cell lines. 50-1 and nine replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype were treated with IFN-α or IFN-β (500 IU/ml each) for two days for semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis (upper panel) and for five days for Western blot analysis (middle panel for NS5B and lower panel for β-actin). Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was carried out to monitor the levels of replicon RNAs in the cells, as described in Materials and methods. The data, obtained from duplicate assays, were averaged for the presentation (upper panel). NS5B was detected by immunoblot analysis using anti-NS5B antibodies (middle panel). β-Actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane (lower panel).

the IFN-β resistance of these replicons was also suggested, the differences between these replicons and the 50-1 replicon were not so clear (Fig. 3). In contrast to the αR series and αRmix, the βR series (1βR, 3βR, 4βR, and 5βR) showed almost complete resistance to both IFN-α and IFN-β (Fig. 3). Interestingly, the levels of replicon RNAs in 1βR, 3βR, and 4βR cells, though not in 5βR cells, were barely reduced, in spite of the treatment with IFN-β, although the levels in these cells were somewhat reduced by the treatment with IFN-α (Fig. 3). This IFN resistance was confirmed by Western blot analysis (Fig. 3). These results indicate that the βR series possesses phenotypes with severe resistance to both IFN-α and IFN-β.

1αR possesses a partially resistant phenotype against both IFN-α and IFN-β

To clarify whether or not the αR series obtained by treatment with IFN-α alone showed the IFN-β- resistant phenotype, we compared in detail the IFN sensitivities of 1αR with 50-1 and 1βR. The 50-1, 1αR, and 1βR cells were treated for two days with IFN-α and IFN-β (1, 10, 100, 500, 1000, and 2000 IU/ml each), and then the levels of replicon RNAs in the treated cells were examined by semi-quantitative RT-PCR analysis [19]. The IFN-sensitive phenotype of 50-1 and the IFN-resistant phenotype of 1βR were clearly reconfirmed, because the level of replicon RNA in 50-1 cells treated with only 1 IU/ml of IFN-α or IFN-β was decreased to less than 15% that of the untreated cells, and the level of replicon RNA in 1βR cells treated with 2000 IU/ml of IFN-α or IFN-β was the same as that of the untreated cells (Fig. 4). However, the responsiveness of 1αR against IFN-α or IFN-β treatment was in between that of 50-1 and that of 1βR (Fig. 4). This revealed that 1αR possesses a partially resistant phenotype against both IFN-α and IFN-β. This finding suggests that the other four replicon cell lines (3αR, 4αR, 5αR, and αRmix) also possess the partially resistant phenotype against both IFN-α and IFN-β.

Repression of IFN signal transduction pathway in established HCV replicon cell lines

To examine whether or not the IFN signal is transduced in the HCV replicon cells possessing the IFN-resistant phenotype, we carried out a luciferase reporter assay using synthetic promoters possessing five repeats of a 2′–5′-OAS-type ISRE [32]. The results revealed that the luciferase activities were remarkably enhanced by the treatment with IFN-α or IFN-β in the cells of the αR series as well as in the 50-1 cells. Meanwhile, these enhancements were remarkably lower in 5αR and αRmix cells than in 50-1 cells. These results suggest that both IFN-α and IFN-β are effectively transduced in the αR series cells (Fig. 5). However, the luciferase activities in the βR series cells, except for 3βR cells, were barely enhanced in spite of the treatment with IFN-α and IFN-β, suggesting that the IFN signaling pathway is completely repressed in 1βR, 4βR, and 5βR cells but not in 3βR cells (Fig. 5). Although this reporter assay clarified the reason why 1βR, 4βR, and 5βR cells possessed the IFN-resistant phenotype, the reason for IFN resistance among the other replicons remained unclear. Since the luciferase activities in 5αR and αRmix cells were lower than that in 50-1 cells, we next evaluated the possibility that the IFN signaling pathway in the replicon cells possessing the IFN resistance phenotype becomes weaker than that in 50-1 cells by exposure to IFN-α. To accomplish this, we examined the phosphorylation status of the components (JAK1, Tyk2, STAT1, and STAT2) of the JAK–STAT signaling transduction pathway in these replicon cells after treatment with IFN-α. Since it has been reported that STAT3 is also activated by IFN-α treatment [36] phosphorylation status of STAT3 in these replicon cells after treatment with IFN-α was also examined. The results revealed signifi-

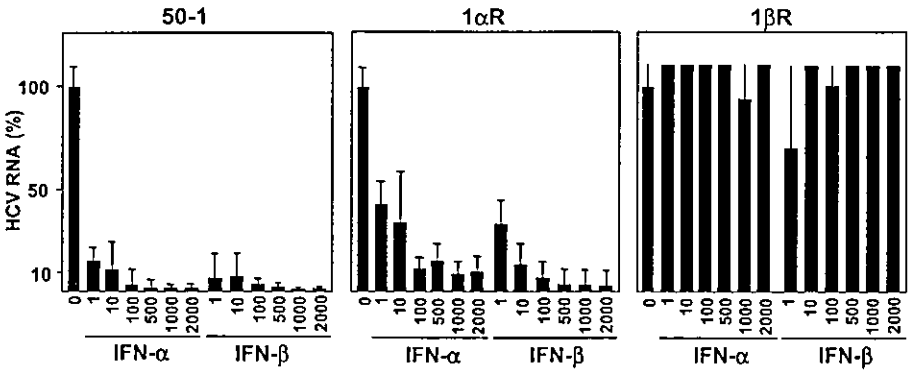

Fig. 4. IFN sensitivities of the replicons in 50-1, 1αR, and 1βR cells. Cells from each of these lines were treated with IFN-α or IFN-β (1, 10, 100, 500, 1000, and 2000 IU/ml each) for two days. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was carried out to monitor the levels of replicon RNAs in the cells, as described under Materials and methods. The data, obtained in at least triplicate assays, were averaged for the presentation.

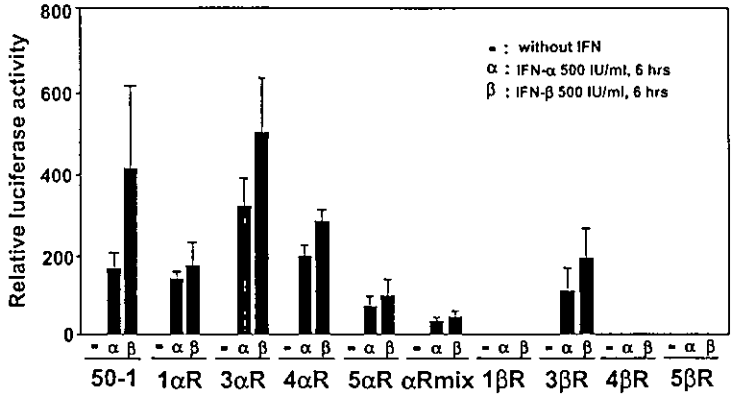

Fig. 5. IFN signal transduction in the established replicon cell lines. Regarding 50-1 and the nine replicon cell lines possessing IFN-resistant phenotype, dual luciferase reporter assay using pISRE(V2)-Luci [32] was performed as described previously [29]. The replicon cells were treated with IFN-α or IFN-β (500 IU/ml each) for 6 h.

cantly lower levels of phosphorylation of JAK1, Tyk2, STAT1, and STAT2 in the cells of the αR series and 3 βR cells after IFN-α treatment than in 50-1 cells, and that phosphorylation of these proteins was barely observed in 1βR, 4βR, and 5βR cells in spite of the IFN-α treatment (Fig. 6). The results for the αR series cells are consistent with their partially IFN-resistant phenotype (Figs. 3 and 4), although the IFN-resistant phenotype of 3βR is not simply explained. We concluded that the nine HCV replicon cell lines established in this study could be divided into two phenotypes: a partially IFN-resistant phenotype (four cell lines of the αR series plus the αRmix cell line) and a completely IFN-resistant phenotype (four cell lines of the βR series).

Genetic analysis of the newly established HCV replicons and their comparison with 50-1 replicon

In order to examine whether or not genetic mutations on replicon RNA confer the mutated replicons with the IFN-resistant phenotype, we carried out a genetic analysis of all HCV replicons established in this study. Two separate RNA fragments (one was 2.0 kb in length, containing the 5′-UTR to the amino-terminal of the NS3 region; the other was 6.1 kb in length, containing the NS3–NS5B regions) were amplified by RT-PCR, and three independent clones of each were sequenced after subcloning into pBR322MC, as described previously [19]. The determined nucleotide

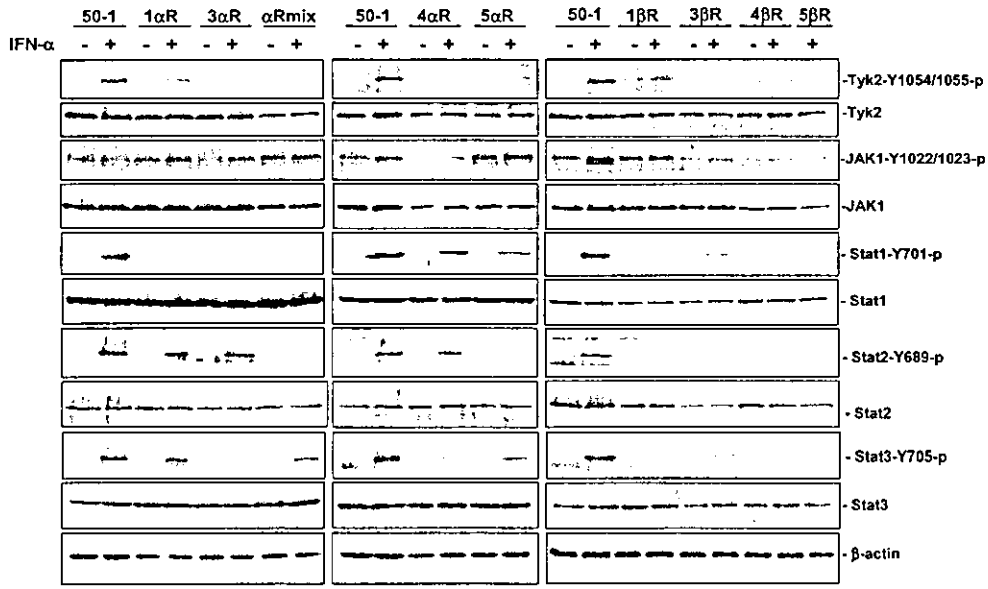

Fig. 6. Western blot analysis of the components involved in the IFN signal transduction pathway in the established replicon cell lines treated with IFN-α. The replicon cells were stimulated with or without IFN-α (500 IU/ml) for 30 min, and then Western blot analysis was performed as described under Materials and methods.