

RNA interference (RNAi)を用いた変異型プリオン遺伝子特異的ノックダウン

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研究要旨 遺伝性プリオン病の原因遺伝子である変異型プリオン (*PrP*) 遺伝子の発現を特異的に抑制する対立遺伝子 (アリル) 特異的RNAi誘導の実現を目指し、アリル特異的RNAi効果を簡便に評価するシステムを用いたsiRNAのスクリーニングを行った。レポーターアリルを利用した本システムを用いることで、従来では解析が不可能であったヘテロの状態での、変異型アリルに対するRNAiノックダウン効果と正常型アリルに対するRNAiの影響を同時に調べることができる。このスクリーニングによって変異型プリオン遺伝子を効果的にノックダウンするsiRNAを選定した。

A. 研究目的

ヒトプリオン遺伝子には多くの遺伝子変異が知られている。しかも、その多くは、アミノ酸変化を伴う塩基置換であり、さらに遺伝性のプリオン病との有意な関連も報告されている。この遺伝性プリオン病に関連する変異プリオン遺伝子の発現を特異的に抑制することができれば、遺伝性プリオン病の治療・予防に大きく貢献することができると考えられる。そこで今日、遺伝子機能阻害方法として幅広く利用されているRNA interference (RNAi)技術を用いて、遺伝子変異を持った対立遺伝子 (変異対立遺伝子) だけを特異的にノックダウンする対立遺伝子 (アリル) 特異的RNAi誘導法の確立とその評価方法の確立を試みた。

アリル特異的RNAi誘導を実現させるためには、まず、その評価方法を確立しなければならない。昨年度において、レポーター対立遺伝子 (レポーターアリル) を用いた簡便な評価システムの確立を行った。本年度は、そのシステムを用いて、変異型プリオン遺伝子に対する特異的なRNAiノックダウンを誘導するsiRNAのスクリーニングを実施し、高いノックダウン・ポテンシャルを持ったsiRNAを選定した。

B. 研究方法

ホタル・ルシフェラーゼ遺伝子とウミシイタケ・ルシフェラーゼ遺伝子をそれぞれコードした発現プラスミドを利用してレポーターアリルを構築した。まず、変異アリル、正常アリルに相当するオリゴDNAを合成し、それらをそれぞれのレポーター遺伝子の3'非翻訳領域に挿入して変異レポーターアリルそして正常レポーターアリルを構築した。

変異アリルをターゲットとする合成siRNAを作製し、正常、変異レポーターアリルをそれぞれ含んだプラスミドDNAとベクター・ガラクトシダーゼ遺伝子を含んだ発現プラスミドDNA (コントロールとして用いた) をリポフェクタミン2000試薬 (Invitrogen社) を用いたリポフェクションによってヒトHeLaまたはHEK293細胞に導入し、24時間後、細胞抽出液を調製した。

得られた細胞抽出液を用いて、発現した両ルシフェラーゼ活性そしてコントロールのベクター・ガラクトシダーゼ活性を測定した。そして、ベクター・ガラクトシダーゼの活性値を基に両ルシフェラーゼの活性量 (発現量) を正常化し、テストしたsiRNAの変異型アリルに対するノックダウン効果と正常型アリルに対する影響を評価した。

C. 研究結果

上記評価システムを用いて、プリオン遺伝子変異型アリルに対するアリル特異的ノックダウンを誘導するsiRNAをスクリーニングした。ターゲットとしたプリオン遺伝子変異型アリルは、Gerstmann-Straeussler syndromと関連するp102LとP105L変異、Creutzfeld-Jakob syndromと関連するD178N変異である。それぞれアミノ酸置換を伴う一塩基変異の対立遺伝子(アリル)である。これらの変異型アリルに対するsiRNAを設計・合成し、その効果を上記の簡易システムを用いて検討した。その結果、設計した一部のsiRNAは、変異型アリルと正常型アリルを識別し、変異型アリルに対する強いノックダウン効果を示すことが観察された。

我々は、さらにアリル特異的RNAiを増強させるために、変異型アリルと正常型アリルの識別を強めるsiRNAの設計を試みた。我々は、siRNA配列内にミスマッチを導入したsiRNAを設計し、そのアリル特異的RNAiノックダウン効果を検討した。その結果、一部のミスマッチ配列の導入は、アリル特異的ノックダウン効果を強めることが示唆された。

D. 考察

プリオン遺伝子の3つの変異型対立遺伝子(P102L, P105L, D178N)に対するsiRNAを設計し、アリル特異的RNAiノックダウン効果を調べた。その結果、それぞれのターゲット変異アリルによってノックダウン効果が異なっていた。ターゲットとなる変異型アリルの塩基置換の種類やその周りの配列によって、アリルの識別やノックダウンの効果が異なることが考えられる。

変異型アリルに対するsiRNAに、さらにミスマッチ塩基配列を導入することで、アリルの識別やアリル特異的ノックダウン効果に変化することが示された。アリル特異的ノックダウン効果を増強するミスマッチも観察されたことから、この様な、効果を持つミスマッチ配列の

導入は有用であると考えられる。

本研究で用いたレポーター対立遺伝子を使ったRNAiの評価システムは、簡便かつ短時間で結果の得られるシステムであり、さらに、従来の方法では解析不可能であった正常型/変異型アリルがヘテロで存在する条件下でもそれぞれのアリルに対するRNAi効果を検討することができる。これによって、siRNAにミスマッチ配列を導入した場合の効果の検討を容易に行うことができた。このシステムを用いることで、siRNAの化学修飾によるアリル特異的ノックダウン効果も容易に検討できると考えられる。よって、どの様な化学修飾が有効であるかは、このシステムを使っての今後の検討課題である。

E. 結論

アリル特異的RNAiを誘導する場合、ターゲットとなる変異アリルによってその効果が異なる。ターゲットの変異型アリルがもつ塩基置換の種類やその周りの配列によって、アリルの識別・ノックダウン効果が異なること考えられる。本研究で用いたレポーター対立遺伝子を使ったアリル特異的RNAiの評価システムは、そのような違いを簡便に評価できるシステムであり、RNAiを用いた研究開発・応用に貢献できると考えられる。

F. 健康危険情報

とくになし。

G. 研究発表

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H. 知的財産権の出願・登録状況

なし

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Intracerebroventricular delivery of dominant negative prion protein in a mouse model of iatrogenic Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease after dura graft transplantation

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Abstract

We have developed a novel procedure in which a small collagen sheet (3 mm × 3 mm) absorbing prion-infected brain homogenates was transplanted onto the brain surface of highly prion-susceptible transgenic mice (Tg(MoPrP)4053/FVB), as an animal model of iatrogenic Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (iCJD) caused by prion-contaminated cadaveric dura graft transplantation. Using the iCJD model, we further investigated the *in vivo* efficacy of dominant negative recombinant prion protein with lysine substitution at mouse codon 218 (rPrP-Q218K), which is known to inhibit prion replication *in vitro* (H. Kishida, Y. Sakasegawa, K. Watanabe, Y. Yamakawa, M. Nishijima, Y. Kuroiwa, N.S. Hachiya, K. Kaneko, *Non-glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI)-anchored recombinant prion protein with dominant-negative mutation inhibits PrP^{Sc} replication in vitro*, *Amyloid*, vol. 11, 2004, pp. 14–20.). Following 7-day intracerebroventricular administration of the rPrP-Q218K via an indwelling catheter connected to the implanted osmotic pump, the median incubation period of Tg(MoPrP)4053/FVB was prolonged considerably from 117 days to 131 days ($p=0.016$, log-rank test) in the rPrP-Q218K-treated group, even after a lengthy latency period of as long as 30 days by starting the rPrP-Q218K injection. Whether wild-type rPrP, other mutant rPrPs, or the combination of rPrP-Q218K with other anti-prion compounds might extend the survival period in that condition must be further investigated.

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Keywords: Iatrogenic Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (iCJD); Animal model of iCJD; Osmotic pump; Highly prion-susceptible transgenic mice (Tg(MoPrP)4053/FVB); Dominant negative recombinant prion protein (rPrP-Q218K)

Prion diseases are a group of neurodegenerative disorders including kuru, Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD), Gerstmann-Sträussler-Scheinker disease (GSS), and fatal familial insomnia (FFI) in humans, scrapie in sheep, and bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE) in cattle, which comprise sporadic, genetic, or infectious disorders [22]. The post-translational conformational change of the cellular isoform of prion protein (PrP^C) into the scrapie isoform of prion protein (PrP^{Sc}) is the fundamental process underlying the pathogenesis of prion diseases [23,24].

Among the infectious forms of CJD, iatrogenic CJD (iCJD) is the most representative. In that form, several sources for the iatrogenic prion infection have been reported, including improperly sterilized cortical and depth electrodes, transplanted corneas, cadaveric pituitary-derived human growth hormone/gonadotropin, and dura graft [4]. By the year 2000, 114 cases of iCJD caused by cadaveric dura transplants from CJD patients had been reported worldwide [4]; about two-thirds of the CJD patients who had received cadaveric dura graft transplantation were from Japan [6,12]. That highest incidence in Japan most probably results from extensive use of cadaveric dura graft: it far exceeds the use in any other country [2]. Emerging patients as well as suspected cases, and the increase in the mean and range of the latency period all suggest that this outbreak is ongoing [3]. In spite of its significance and urgent necessity, no

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animal model with prion transmission via cortico-dural interface has been verified so far. Consequently, development of an animal model toward exploration of prophylactic and therapeutic approaches is urgent.

Naturally occurring polymorphic PrP variants (Q171R and E219K) are known to render sheep and humans resistant to scrapie and CJD, respectively, and were found to act as dominant negatives [13,33]. Similarly, recombinant mouse PrP with a lysine variant at codon 218 (rPrP-Q218K) corresponding to human E219K, but not wild-type rPrP, exclusively inhibited prion replication as dominant negatives in scrapie-infected mouse neuro2a (ScN2a) cells without reducing cell viability *in vitro* [13].

With this background, we have developed a mouse model of iCJD after artificial dura graft transplantation. Having established the mouse model for the first time *in vivo*, we further investigated whether the dominant negative rPrP-Q218K can be protective against experimental iCJD after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation *in vivo*.

Transgenic mice with FVB background harboring a high-copy-number of wild-type PrP-A transgenes (Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053/FVB) [32] were kindly supplied by Dr. S.B. Prusiner of UCSF. A mouse-adapted scrapie Obihiro strain [29], a kind gift from Dr. M. Horiuchi of Hokkaido University, was inoculated intracerebrally into the Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053/FVB. Their brains were collected approximately 70 days after inoculation, and 10% (w/v) brain homogenates in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) were prepared and further provided as inocula (30 μ l each) using a 27-gauge disposable hypodermic needle inserted into the right parietal lobe. Diagnosis of scrapie in the transgenic mice has been described extensively elsewhere [5,25]. Beginning 50 days after inoculation, the mice and hamsters were examined every 3 days for neurologic dysfunction. Once clinical signs were detected, the animals were inspected daily and sacrificed when death was imminent. Representative fractions of brains were removed for histological analyses to confirm the scrapie diagnosis.

The recombinant PrP (rPrP) was expressed as inclusion bodies in the *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) in the presence of 0.1 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Inclusion bodies were collected from sonicated lysates by centrifugation at 27,000 \times g for 10 min, washed three times in Buffer A (2 M urea, 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM β -mercaptoethanol (β -ME), 0.5 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)), and solubilized in Buffer B (8 M urea, 25 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 2 mM β -ME, 0.5 mM PMSF). After centrifugation (200,000 \times g, 30 min), the supernatant was applied to a CM-Sepharose column (Amersham Biosciences Corp., Piscataway, NJ), washed with Buffer B containing 100 mM NaCl and eluted with Buffer B containing 150 mM NaCl. The eluate containing rPrP was applied to a Ni-NTA agarose column (Qiagen Inc., Valencia, CA), washed with Buffer B containing 5 mM imidazol and eluted with Buffer B containing 200 mM imidazol. The eluate was diluted 10-fold in 1 M arginine-HCl, pH 8.0, 1 mM reduced glutathione, 0.8 mM oxidized glutathione and incubated at 4 $^{\circ}$ C overnight. After incubation at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min, the refolded recombinant proteins

were concentrated and buffer-changed into PBS using ultrafiltration (Ultrafree-15 centrifugal filter device-Biomax 10 K NMWL membrane; Millipore Co., Bedford, MA). Concentrations of rPrP were calculated by absorbance at 280 nm with a specific absorbance unit of 2.70 [15].

As an animal model of iCJD after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation, the Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 mice were anesthetized with ketamine and xylazine. Subsequently, the head of each was fixed to a stereotaxic frame. Following a 4 mm \times 4 mm craniectomy on the right skull, a small collagen sheet (3 mm \times 3 mm) absorbing either 5 μ l of 10% brain homogenates derived from prion-infected mice ($n=16$) or PBS ($n=12$) as a control was transplanted on the brain surface of Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 ($n=5$ each). All procedures in animals accorded strictly with guidelines for experiments involving experimental animals performed at the National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Japan. These mice were re-anesthetized followed by implantation of osmotic pumps (200 μ l, Alzet 2001; Alza Corp., Palo Alto, CA) in the back. The pumps were filled with either 200 μ g/ml of rPrP-Q218K at 30 ($n=7$) or 60 ($n=9$) days after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation or PBS ($n=6$ each). These solutions were then administered intracerebroventricularly via an indwelling catheter connected to the pump at a rate of 1 μ l/h for 7 days.

Brain tissue was homogenized in 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.1 M NaCl (TN-buffer) to 10% (w/v) with Multi-beads Shocker (Yasui Kikai Corp., Tokyo). The homogenate (250 μ l, containing 25 mg brain tissue equivalent) was clarified by the addition of equal volume of detergent buffer (TN-buffer containing 4% zwittergent 3-13 and 1% sarkosyl) and 25 μ l of 2-butanol. After extensive sonication, the mixture was simultaneously digested with collagenase (250 μ g) and DNase I (20 μ g) at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 30 min. Thereafter, 20 μ g of proteinase K (PK) was added to the reaction mixture and incubated for 30 min; PrP^{Sc} was then precipitated by addition of 250 μ l of 5:1 mixture of 2-butanol and methanol containing 3 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. The precipitates collected by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 10 min were dissolved in 100 μ l of SDS-PAGE sampling buffer and heated at 100 $^{\circ}$ C for 5 min.

Five micrograms of total brain homogenates in 10 μ l from mice in 30 ($n=3$), 60 ($n=3$), 90 ($n=3$), and 120 ($n=2$) days after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation was electrophoresed in 12% polyacrylamide gel (NuPAGE Bis-Tris gel, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) for 60 min at a constant voltage of 200 V. Then, total proteins were transferred onto PVDF membrane at a constant voltage of 25 V for 45 min. Mouse PrP^{Sc} was reacted with a rabbit polyclonal anti-mouse PrP antibody P-8, which was purified from the rabbit serum immunized with the synthetic peptide with mouse PrP residues 94–108 (THNQWN KPSKPKTNML). Next, HRP-linked anti-rabbit IgG (Amersham Biosciences, Uppsala, Sweden) was used as a secondary antibody. Immunoreactivity was detected with an enhanced chemiluminescence kit (ECL; Amersham Biosciences, Uppsala, Sweden) and visualized on autoradiographic film.

Brain tissues ($n=3$ in 120-day group) were fixed with 10% buffered-formalin for 48–72 h. Mouse PrP^{Sc} was first inacti-

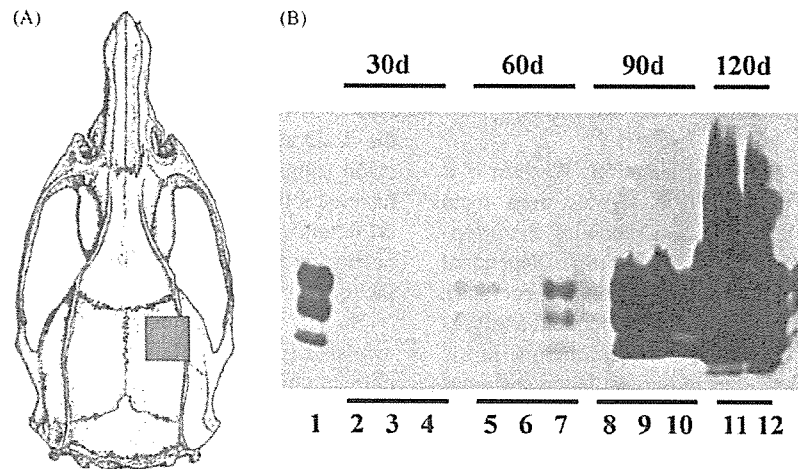


Fig. 1. A mouse model of iatrogenic Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (iCJD) after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation. (A) A small collagen sheet (3 mm × 3 mm) containing brain homogenates derived from prion-infected mice was transplanted on the brain surface of highly prion-susceptible transgenic mice (Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053, hatched area). (B) Western blot analyses of Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 brains at 30, 60, 90 and 120 days (three brains each) after transplantation. Initial detection of PrP^{Sc} in two-thirds of the animals at 60 days (lanes 5, 6 and 7) and strong detection at 90 (lanes 8, 9 and 10) and 120 days (lanes 11 and 12) are observed in a time-dependent manner. Lane 1: Brain homogenates from pooled prion-infected mice as a positive control.

vated by immersing tissues into 98% formic acid for 1 h at room temperature. Samples were re-fixed with the formalin overnight, dehydrated in graded ethanol, and cleared in xylene; then they were embedded in paraffin. Sections cut at 3 μm thickness were mounted on silane-coated slide glasses. After deparaffinization, sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. For immunostaining, the deparaffinized sections were autoclaved at 121 °C for 20 min in the presence of 1 mM HCl to destroy PrP^C [19]; endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked by 0.3% hydrogen peroxide for 5 min at room temperature. The sections were treated with 10% normal goat serum in PBS for 5 min. Then they were reacted for 30 min with anti-PrP polyclonal antibody (Ab221–236) [31], which is a rabbit polyclonal anti-bovine PrP purified from the rabbit serum immunized with the synthetic peptide with bovine PrP residues

221–240 (VEQMCITQYQRESQAYYQRG), but cross-reacts with mouse PrP^C. The HRP-labeled polymer method (Envision + kit; Dako Cytomation, Carpinteria, CA) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions. Signals were detected using diaminobenzidine (DAB).

The (Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 harboring a high-copy-number of wild-type PrP-A transgenes were highly susceptible to mouse prions; they exhibited an abbreviated scrapie incubation time of about 45 days after intracerebral inoculation, which is consistent with a previous observation [32]. To establish a mouse model of iCJD after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation, a small collagen sheet bearing 5 μl of 10% prion-infected mouse brain homogenates was transplanted on the brain surface of Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 (Fig. 1A). Consequently, all animals died approximately 120 days after the

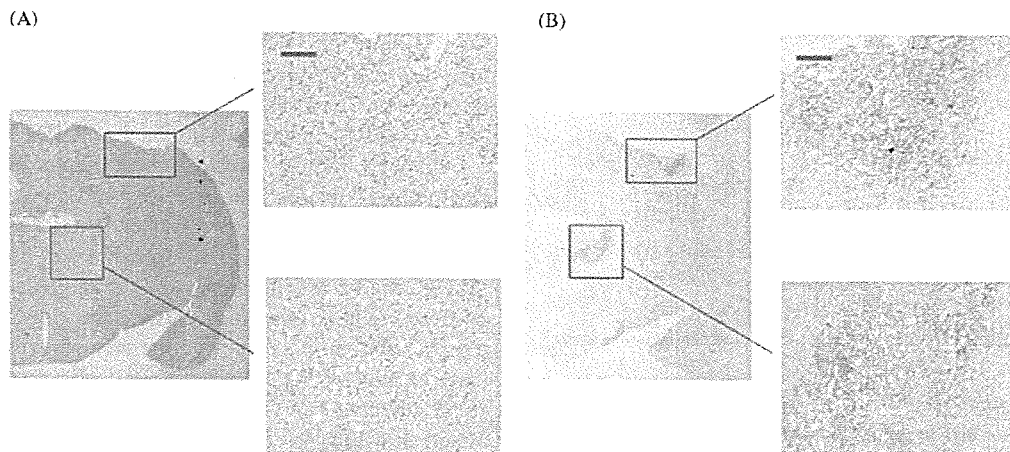


Fig. 2. Accumulation of mouse PrP^{Sc} in brains from the iCJD model at 120 days after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation revealed by light microscopy and immunohistochemistry. Representative brain sections stained with either hematoxylin or eosin in panel A, or immunostained with anti-PrP antibody (Ab221–236) in panel B. Scale bars = 100 μm.

prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation with two to three times prolonged incubation period compared with those after the intracerebral inoculation, whereas sham-operated or PBS-treated littermates remained healthy for over 300 days after the operation.

Starting at 60 days after the transplantation, Western blot analysis detected discrete mouse PrP^{Sc} signals even from asymptomatic Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 brains receiving the prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation in a time-dependent manner (Fig. 1B). Concomitant with spongiform degeneration by light microscopy (Fig. 2A), immunohistochemical analyses further disclosed the considerable PrP^{Sc} accumulations in the transplanted cortical areas as well as in the ipsilateral thalamus at 120 days after the transplantation (Fig. 2B), which might support the assumption that the spread of prions occurs axonally after intraocular injection [11].

As a therapeutic and prophylactic approach, we next performed 7-day intracerebroventricular administration of rPrP-Q218K via an indwelling catheter connected to implanted osmotic pump at either 30 or 60 days after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation. The control group, Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 treated with PBS alone, died at 117 days after transplantation. To our surprise, the median incubation period of Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 was markedly prolonged for as long as 131 days even after a long latency period for as long as 30 days by starting the rPrP-Q218K injection (Fig. 3), which was statistically significant compared with that of the control group ($p = 0.016$, log-rank test). After a very long latency period of 60 days by starting the rPrP-Q218K treatment, however, the median incubation period of mice was 113 days, which was not statistically significant (Fig. 3).

For potential iCJD patients who received dura graft transplantations in the past, an effective and efficient prophylactic method has been anticipated. Toward the exploration of such prophylactics, development of an animal model of iCJD after dura graft transplantation is apparently fundamental and crucial.

The intracerebral inoculation of tissue homogenates into suitable recipients is the most effective method for transmission of

prion diseases and frequently allows the species barrier to be circumvented. Alternatively, intraperitoneal injection has been used for studies of extra-central nervous system involvement. However, these procedures are unsuitable for investigation of the iCJD after dura graft transplantation because the mode of prion propagation is markedly different. For that reason, we have established for the first time the mouse model of iCJD after artificial dura graft transplantation, in which prion transmission occurs via cortico-dural interface; it has two to three times longer incubation period than that after intracerebral inoculation.

So far, no effective prophylactic or therapeutic method is available in prion-infected mice during the asymptomatic pre-clinical phase [7,21] because it is preliminary to consider gene therapeutics, e.g. an ex vivo gene transfer approach [8,14,15]. Furthermore, a recent clinical trial of A β vaccination targeting Alzheimer's disease was halted because of the serious neurological complications of autoimmune reactions developing in some patients [10,18].

Human PrP polymorphism at codon 219 has been reported in the Japanese population [16]. Among Japanese, 12% carry the lysine allele, but the lysine allele in place of glutamine has not been found in 85 autopsied sporadic CJD cases, suggesting that the lysine substitution at human codon 219 (E219K), which corresponds to mouse Q218K, might act as a dominant negative form in prion propagation [16,28]. As mentioned, we have reported that the administration of dominant negative rPrP-Q218K sufficiently inhibits PrP^{Sc} formation in ScN2a cells in vitro [15]. For those reasons, further investigation of its therapeutic equivalence must be done in an in vivo setting.

Intrathecal injection is an efficient option for delivery of therapeutic reagents into the brain because the blood–brain barrier (BBB) is often the rate-limiting factor in determining permeation of these reagents in vivo [1,9]. In a preclinical SOD1(G93A) rat model of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, for example, intracerebroventricular delivery of recombinant vascular endothelial growth factor delays onset of paralysis by 17 days; it also improves motor performance and prolongs survival by 22 days [30]. In humans, clinical applications with continuous intrathecal administration of various therapeutic reagents including baclofen [17], anti-cancer drugs [20], analgesics [26], and neuroleptics [27] have been used widely and have been found to be effective. These observations further support inferences from our current data in the mouse model of iCJD.

Although limited, intracerebroventricular administration of rPrP-Q218K delayed the onset of prion disease with a longer survival period in the mouse model of iCJD in vivo. A salient advantage is the fact that homogeneous and high-quality rPrP-Q218K can be readily prepared from large-scale fermentation of *E. coli* in large quantities. At the same time, it is also important to introduce wild-type or other mutant rPrPs into the current experimental setting, since the rPrPs itself may interfere with the prion replication in vivo even without the Q218K substitution. Whether wild-type rPrP, other mutant rPrPs, or the combination of rPrP-Q218K with anti-prion compounds might extend the survival period in an in vivo setting remains to be further investigated.

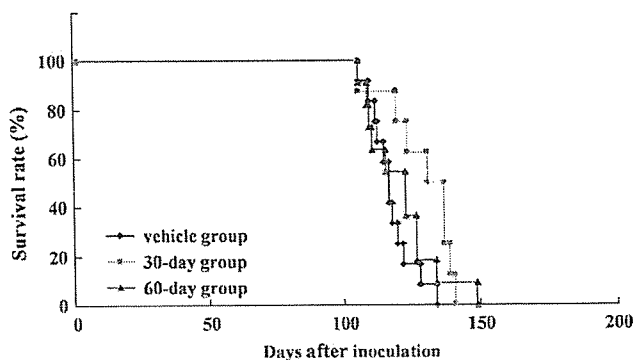


Fig. 3. Kaplan–Meyer survival analysis of highly prion-susceptible Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 with the dominant negative rPrP-Q218K treatment. The Tg(MoPrP-A)B4053 with the dominant negative rPrP-Q218K treatment started at 30 days after prion-contaminated dura graft transplantation survived significantly longer ($p = 0.016$) than those of the control group.

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The alternative role of 14-3-3 zeta as a sweeper of misfolded proteins in disease conditions

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Summary Here, we propose a novel hypothesis that 14-3-3 zeta might act as a sweeper of misfolded proteins by facilitating the formation of aggregates, which are referred to as inclusion bodies. Studies on the localization of the 14-3-3 proteins in different types of inclusion bodies in the brain including neurofibrillary tangle in Alzheimer's disease, pick bodies in Pick's disease, Lewy body-like hyaline inclusions in sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, prion/florid plaques in sporadic/variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease, nuclear inclusions in spinocerebellar ataxia-1, and possibly Lewy bodies in Parkinson's disease suggest a close association of these diseases with 14-3-3 zeta. The highly conserved hydrophobic surface of the amphipathic groove in 14-3-3 zeta represents a general mechanism with diverse cellular proteins, and it may also allow for the molecular recognition of misfolded proteins by hydrophobic interaction in disease conditions. When the abnormal processing of misfolded proteins overwhelms the quality control systems of the cell, it is likely that 14-3-3 zeta is recruited to form deposits of protein aggregates with nonnative, misfolded proteins in order to protect the cell against toxicity. Hence, 14-3-3 zeta may be considered as an auxiliary therapeutic tool in the protein aggregation disorders.

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The seven known members of the 14-3-3 family are highly conserved eukaryotic proteins that modulate the action of other proteins that are involved in cell cycle, transcriptional control, signal transduction, intracellular trafficking, and regulation of ion channels. This occurs through to their multiple interactions with various kinases, receptors, enzymes, and structural and cytoskeletal proteins in a phosphorylation-dependent manner [1].

Despite such significant understandings in the physiological roles of 14-3-3 proteins, the possible

role of these proteins in disease conditions remains unknown. Here, we propose a novel hypothesis that 14-3-3 zeta might act as a sweeper of misfolded proteins by facilitating the formation of aggregates, which are referred to as inclusion bodies.

A wide variety of neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease [2], Parkinson's disease [3], Pick's disease [4], amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), Huntington's disease, and prion diseases including sporadic Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease (CJD) [5] are characterized by the accumulation of intracellular or extracellular protein aggregates (inclusion bodies) [6].

Studies on the localization of the 14-3-3 proteins in different types of inclusion bodies in the brain in

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Table 1 Protein aggregates and 14-3-3 isoforms

Protein aggregates	Substrates	14-3-3 (isoforms)
NFTs ^a in AD ^b	Tau	+ (Beta, zeta)
PBs ^c in PD ^d	Tau	+ (Beta, gamma, epsilon, eta, zeta)
LBHIs ^e in ALS ^f	Unknown	+ (Beta, gamma, theta, eta, zeta)
NIs ^g in SCA-1 ^h	Ataxin-1	+ (Eta, zeta)
Prion plaque in sCJD ⁱ	PrP ^{Sc} ^j	+ (Zeta)
Florid plaque in vCJD ^k	PrP ^{Sc} ^j	+ (Zeta)
CSF ^l control in sCJD ^l	CSF ^l	+ (Beta, gamma, epsilon, eta)

^a NFT, neurofibrillary tangles.

^b AD, Alzheimer's disease.

^c PBs, pick bodies.

^d PD, Pick's disease.

^e LBHIs, Lewy body-like hyaline inclusions.

^f ALS, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

^g NIs, nuclear inclusions.

^h SCA-1, spinocerebellar ataxia-1.

ⁱ sCJD, sporadic Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease.

^j PrP^{Sc}, scrapie (infectious) isoform of prion protein.

^k vCJD, variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease.

^l CSF, cerebrospinal fluid.

Alzheimer's disease [7–9], Pick's disease [10], sporadic ALS [11], sporadic/variant CJD [12], and spinocerebellar ataxia-1 (SCA-1) suggest a close association of these diseases with 14-3-3 zeta (Table 1) [7–14]. Although a distinct pattern of the 14-3-3 isoform is yet to be characterized, Lewy bodies observed in Parkinson's disease [15] and the numerous spheroids observed in sporadic ALS [11] showed intense immunolabeling for 14-3-3.

The crystal structure of 14-3-3 zeta reveals a conserved amphipathic groove that represents a general mechanism for the interaction of 14-3-3 proteins with diverse cellular proteins [16]. In fact, serotonin *N*-acetyltransferase is bound in the central channel of the 14-3-3 zeta dimer and is held in place by extensive interactions with both the amphipathic phosphopeptide-binding groove of 14-3-3 zeta and with other parts of the central channel [17].

The highly conserved hydrophobic surface of the amphipathic groove in 14-3-3 zeta, which implies its general importance in ligand binding, may allow for the molecular recognition of misfolded proteins by hydrophobic interaction in a similar fashion that most conventional molecular chaperones recognize and bind to the hydrophobic surfaces of nonnative, misfolded proteins [18]. When the abnormal processing of misfolded proteins overwhelms the quality control systems of the cell, it is likely that 14-3-3 zeta is recruited to form deposits of protein

aggregates in order to protect the cell against toxicity [19]. In this regard, direct or indirect application of 14-3-3 zeta through biochemical or gene therapeutic approaches may be considered as an auxiliary therapeutic tool in the protein aggregation disorders.

The capability of forming heterodimers with other 14-3-3 isoforms is a unique characteristic of 14-3-3 zeta, which distinguishes it from other molecules involved in quality control. Since 14-3-3 proteins also appear to control the subcellular localization of ligand proteins [1], the counterpart of 14-3-3 zeta in a heterodimer complex may allow for trafficking in the nucleus, cytosol, and/or the extracellular space [20]. This also appears to be an attractive hypothesis that is yet to be elucidated.

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A screening method for DNA aptamers that bind to a specific, unidentified protein in tissue samples

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Abstract Aptamers are oligonucleotide ligands with a high affinity to, and specificity for, various target molecules and they are expected to be powerful tools for proteomic analysis. To select aptamers that bind to a specific unidentified protein in tissues for protein analysis, a screening method was developed using chicken skeletal muscle as a model. Target proteins in the target mixture were separated by electrophoresis and transferred to a membrane, and a DNA library was added onto it. The aptamers that bound to the target protein were visualized by chemiluminescence and collected by cutting out the visualized band. The specific aptamers to the target protein were selected by only one round of selection using this screening, suggesting this screening method might be useful for selecting aptamers for proteome analysis.

Keywords Aptamer · Electrophoresis blotting · Multiple target proteins · Systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment

Introduction

Aptamers are oligonucleotide ligands that bind to various target molecules including proteins with a high affinity and specificity (Gold et al. 1995, Osborne and Ellington 1997). Since they are nucleic acids, they can be easily synthesized chemically and modified for protein detection. Therefore, aptamers are expected to be useful for protein analysis and potential ligands comparable to antibodies.

A purified single target is usually used in the selection of aptamers but screening using complex targets, such as crude solution, cells, or tissue, has advantages since aptamers can be selected without the purification of target proteins (Bianchini et al. 2001, Morris et al. 1998). Also, if aptamers that bind to unidentified target proteins are obtained, such aptamers would become very powerful tools for the identification of those proteins (Blank et al. 2001).

There were several attempts for screening aptamers to proteins in complex targets. However, such screening is still difficult since it is not certain whether the aptamers to the target proteins are obtained during selection. To test this, the selection should be completed, and each

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oligonucleotide in a selected library should be sequenced. Then, those oligonucleotides should be synthesized and assayed using various methods, such as a combination of affinity chromatography or photo-crosslinking assay with SDS-PAGE, or Western blotting using aptamers (Daniels et al. 2003, Wang et al. 2000). However, these methods are laborious and time-consuming and, if selected, aptamers do not bind to a supposedly important target protein, the selection must be performed again.

To solve this problem, a screening method to select aptamers to a specific target protein in complex targets is reported in this study (Fig. 1). In this method, the binding of oligonucleotides in the library to each individual protein in complex targets is visualized using a detection method we call aptamer blotting (Fig. 1A). Then, oligonucleotides that bind to a target protein are isolated by cutting out the visualized band (Fig. 1B).

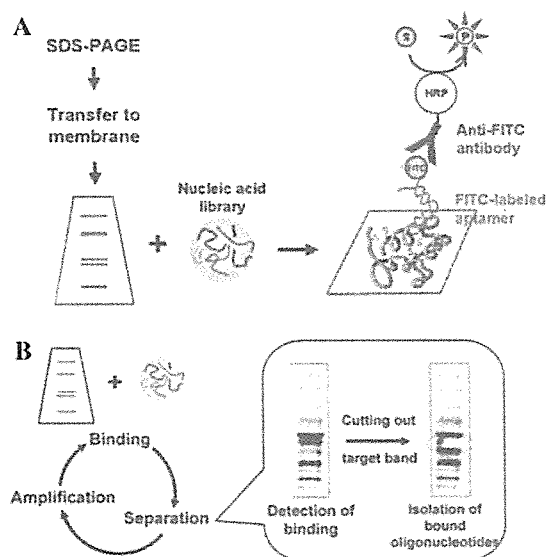


Fig. 1 The scheme of aptamer blotting and the screening using aptamer blotting. **(A)** The scheme of aptamer blotting. The proteins that were separated by electrophoresis and transferred to a membrane were incubated with the FITC-labeled libraries or aptamers. To detect bindings of the oligonucleotides in the library to each individual protein in the target mixture, anti-FITC antibody conjugated with HRP was added and the generated chemiluminescence was detected. **(B)** The scheme of the screening using aptamer blotting. The bound oligonucleotides in a library to the specific target protein, Msc35, were isolated by cutting out the corresponding band after aptamer blotting

Materials and methods

Oligonucleotides

Oligonucleotides and those labeled with FITC were synthesized by a standard solid-phase chemical synthesis and purchased from Invitrogen (Tokyo, Japan). A single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) pool containing 30 randomized bases (5'-FITC-GTA CCA GCT TAT TCA ATT-N30-AGA TAG TAT GTT CAT CAG-3') was used for screening. This pool was amplified using a forward primer (5'-GTA CCA GCT TAT TCA ATT-3') and a reverse primer (5'-CTG ATG AAC ATA CTA TCT-3'). The sequence of anti-Tenascin-C aptamer, which was used for a control experiment, is 5'-GGC TGT TGT GAG CCT CCT CCC AGA GGG AAG ACT TTA GGT TCG GTT CAC GTC CCG CTT ATT CTT ACT-3' (Daniels et al. 2003). The original 69-mer anti-Tenascin-C aptamer was truncated by three cytosines at 3' end of this aptamer were truncated to render it the same length as the other aptamers used in this study. The secondary structure of the truncated aptamer did not change according to the structure prediction algorithm (Zuker 2003).

Screening using aptamer blotting

A tissue block of chicken skeletal muscle was purchased from Funakoshi (Tokyo, Japan). After the addition of four volumes of PBS (20 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, 150 mM NaCl) to the tissue block (about 2 g), the muscle homogenate was prepared by mincing it with a pair of scissors and a homogenizer followed by the centrifugation.

The scheme of selection using aptamer blotting is shown in Fig. 1. This scheme of selection referred to experimental conditions of conventional standard Western blotting and the aforementioned similar experiments using aptamers (Bianchini et al. 2001; Murphy et al. 2003). The muscle homogenate containing 19 μ g protein was dissolved in sample buffer for SDS-PAGE (63 mM Tris/HCl, pH 6.8, 2% (w/v) SDS, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.01% (w/v) Bromophenol Blue, 1% (v/v) 2-mercaptoethanol) and separated on 10% (v/v) homogeneous gel. It was then

transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane. The membrane was blocked with 4% (w/v) skim milk in PBSTE (PBS containing 0.05% (v/v) Tween 20 and 1 mM EDTA) and left overnight at 4°C. The FITC-labeled single-stranded DNA library was dissolved in PBS, heated at 94°C for 3 min, and then gradually cooled to room temperature at a rate of 3°C per min. This library solution, at a final concentration of 10 nM, was incubated with the separated proteins on the membrane for 1 h in PBSTE. After washing with PBSTE four times, the membrane was incubated with 1,000-fold diluted anti-FITC antibody HRP conjugated (Dako, Kyoto, Japan) in PBSTE for 1 h. After washing the membrane with PBSTE as mentioned above, the blots were visualized with ECL Plus Western blotting system (Amersham Biosciences, Tokyo, Japan) (Fig. 1A). The part of the membrane, where the band corresponding to the target protein was supposed to be there, was cut out without the addition of ECL Plus by referring to the detected bands on another membrane treated with ECL Plus (Fig. 1B), since chemiluminescent reagents in ECL-Plus seemed to inhibit PCR reaction. After cutting out the membrane, the membrane was briefly washed with PBSTE and extracted with phenol, and then the supernatant was precipitated with ethanol.

The collected oligonucleotides were amplified by PCR. The PCR solution contained 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.4 μ M forward and reverse primers, and 25 U/ml *AmpliTaq* Gold (Applied Biosystems, Tokyo, Japan). The thermal cycle was as follows: initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, 40 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 52°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min, and final extension at 72°C for 3 min. Then, the collected oligonucleotides were subcloned by pGEM-T Vector Systems (Promega) and sequenced.

Results

Screening using aptamer blotting and muscle tissue as a model

To develop a method to select aptamers to a specific target protein in complex targets, the procedure of aptamer blotting was developed

(Fig. 1). In this study, chicken skeletal muscle was used as a model, since muscle cells contain relatively small numbers of proteins, and the amount of each protein component contained in this tissue was well characterized (Ohtsuki et al. 1986). First, proteins in complex targets, the muscle homogenate, were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a membrane (Fig. 2, lane 2). A major band at near 45 kDa would be actin, which accounts for 20% of the total weight of muscle protein (Ohtsuki et al. 1986). Then, the ssDNA library was incubated with muscle proteins on a membrane, and the bindings of oligonucleotides in the library were visualized (Fig. 2, lane 3). As this figure shows, multiple bands were observed without significant binding to any nitrocellulose membrane. Also, these bands were not observed on the membrane when the ssDNA library was incubated with the muscle homogenate digested with a protease (data not shown). This suggested that the aptamers that bound to the proteins in the muscle homogenate were contained in the initial library to some extent, and the binding of such aptamers to each individual protein in the complex targets was actually monitored by aptamer blotting.

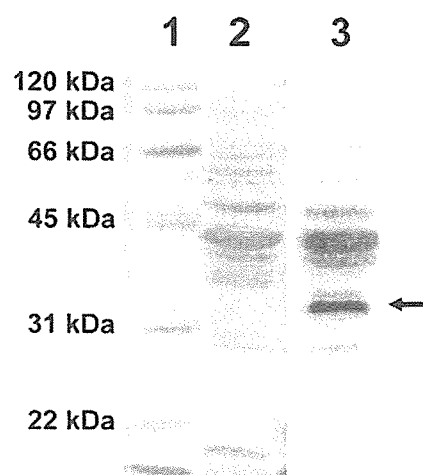


Fig. 2 The binding patterns of the initial library and the selected aptamer. In lane 1 and 2, protein marker and muscle homogenate were stained with Ponceau S, followed by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a membrane. Muscle proteins were probed with the initial library before the screening (lane 3). An arrow indicates the band came from the target protein, Msc35

Many oligonucleotides in the initial library bound to actin, which is a major protein in muscle. Interestingly, a number of oligonucleotides also bound to a protein at near 35 kDa (Fig. 2, lane 3), although no clear bands were observed at near 35 kDa on a membrane where muscle proteins were stained (Fig. 2, lane 2). There was no report on such a protein which seems to bind DNAs with a molecular weight of 35 kDa to our knowledge so that we can say this is an unidentified protein. Therefore, we chose this protein as a specific unidentified target protein in complex targets and called it Msc35, after considering its size. We expected to obtain Msc35-specific aptamers by recovering the oligonucleotides from the corresponding band after aptamer blotting. Hence, the recovered oligonucleotides were sub-cloned and sequenced after just one round of selection.

Characterization of selected aptamers

Forty clones of the recovered oligonucleotides from the target band were sequenced, and one major group was identified based on multiple representation of a particular motif (Fig. 3A). To characterize and identify the target specific aptamers, aptamer blotting was performed again. As shown in Fig. 3B, the selected aptamer, AB4, bound to the target protein. In this experiment, the concentration of the aptamers was 1 nM; therefore, the affinity of the selected aptamer might be considered to be strong. In contrast, control oligonucleotides, constant sequences of the library at both termini, poly A with all its bases at the random 30-mer region of the library substituted by adenine and anti-Tenascin C aptamer (Daniels et al. 2003) did not bind to Msc35. Thus, the aptamers that tightly and specifically bound to the target protein in the complex targets were successfully selected by the screening method using aptamer blotting.

Discussion

Although a similar selection strategy was used for the selection of phage antibodies (Furuta et al. 2002, Liu et al. 2002), and Bianchini *et al.* applied

similar manipulation to aptamer blotting to select aptamers (Bianchini et al. 2001), this is the first report that aptamer blotting was applied to the selection of aptamers to the specific unidentified target proteins in complex targets. Bianchini's method aimed to select aptamers from the defined target proteins, but our method aims to select aptamers from arbitrary unidentified proteins; therefore, the aims of screening and application of selected aptamers are very different. In the case of Bianchini's method, the target protein must be determined in advance. Moreover, the cell lysate in which the target protein was highly expressed was necessary for the selection. However, in proteomic analysis, the selection of ligands to unidentified proteins whose functions are not well characterized is important, since such ligands can be useful for the analysis of such target proteins. Therefore, our selection method

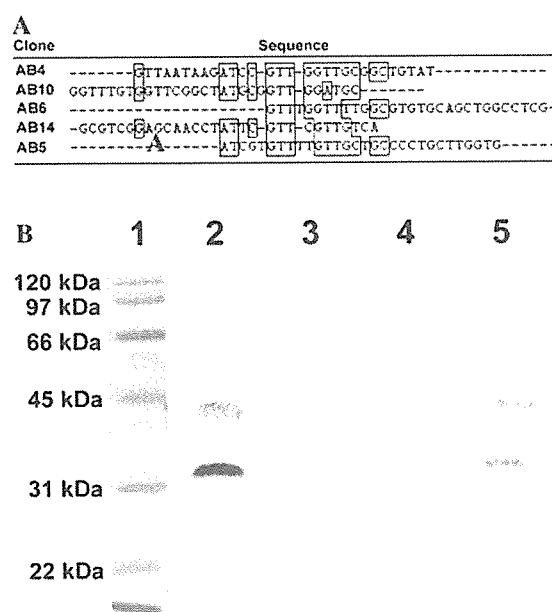


Fig. 3 Characterization of the selected aptamer. **(A)** The sequences of the family of oligonucleotides recovered from the target band. The conserved sequences among oligonucleotides in the family are boxed. **(B)** The binding patterns of selected aptamer to the target protein. Protein marker on the membrane stained with Ponceau S (lane 1). Muscle proteins were probed with the selected aptamer, AB4 (lane 2), constant sequences of the library at both termini (lane 3), poly A with all its bases at the random 30-mer region of the library were substituted by adenine (lane 4), and anti-Tenascin C aptamer (lane 5)

using aptamer blotting would be useful for proteomic analysis.

In order to select aptamers to a specific target protein in complex targets, a novel screening method using aptamer blotting and muscle tissue as a model was developed and evaluated. The aptamers that specifically bound to the specific protein in the muscle were successfully identified by this method without a laborious purification process, suggesting that the selection method using aptamer blotting is efficient in the selection of aptamers as tools for proteome analysis.

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