

FIG. 7. E6AP-dependent ubiquitylation of HCV core protein in vivo. 293T cells (1×10^6 cells/10-cm dish) were transfected with 1 μ g of pCAG FLAG-core (1-191) together with 2 μ g of plasmid encoding E6AP as indicated. Each transfection also included 2 μ g of plasmid encoding HA-ubiquitin. The cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with FLAG beads and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HA PAb (A) or anticore PAb (B). A shorter exposure of the core blot shows immunoprecipitated FLAG-core protein (B, right panel). A longer exposure of the core blot shows the presence of a ubiquitin smear (B, left panel). Asterisks indicate cross-reacting immunoglobulin light chain or heavy chain. Arrows indicate FLAG-core. IB, immunoblot; IP, immunoprecipitation.

jugated with HA-ubiquitin were indeed ubiquitylated forms of the core protein (Fig. 7B, lanes 3 and 4, long exposure).

E6AP mediates ubiquitylation of HCV core protein in vitro. To rule out the possibility that E6AP contributes to core protein degradation by inducing degradation of inhibitors of core turnover, we determined whether E6AP functions directly as a ubiquitin ligase by testing the ability of purified MEF-E6AP to mediate in vitro ubiquitylation of the purified recombinant HCV core protein. HCV core protein was expressed as a fusion protein containing N-terminal GST tag and C-terminal His tag and purified as described in Materials and Methods. GST-C173HT (aa 1-173) and GST-C152HT (aa 1-152) (see Materials and Methods) were used to determine whether the mature core protein and the C-terminally truncated core protein are targeted for ubiquitylation in vitro. The validity of this assay was established by demonstrating that E6AP but not E6AP C-A induced ATP-dependent ubiquitylation of GST-core protein. When in vitro ubiquitylation reactions were carried out either in the absence of MEF-E6AP or in the presence of MEF-E6AP C-A, no ubiquitylation signal was detected (Fig. 8A, lanes 4 and 5). However, inclusion of purified MEF-E6AP in the reaction mixture resulted in marked ubiquitylation of GST-C173HT (Fig. 8A, lane 6), while no ubiquitylation was observed in the absence of ATP (Fig. 8A, lane 7). No signal was detected when GST-HT was used as a substrate (Fig. 8A, lane 8). The higher-molecular-weight species of GST-core proteins were reactive with both anti-ubiquitin MAb (Fig. 8B, right panel, lanes 2 and 4) and anti-GST MAb (Fig. 8B, left panel, lanes 2 and 4). Both GST-C152HT and GST-C173HT were polyubiquitylated by E6AP in vitro (Fig. 8B), indicating that both the C-terminally truncated core and the mature core are polyubiquitylated by E6AP in vitro. These results revealed

that E6AP directly mediated ubiquitylation of HCV core proteins in an ATP-dependent manner.

Exogenous expression of E6AP reduces intracellular HCV core protein levels and supernatant infectivity titers in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. We used a recently developed system for the production of infectious HCV particles using the HCV JFH1 strain (28, 56, 61) to examine whether E6AP can promote degradation of HCV core protein expressed from infectious HCV. E6AP-dependent core degradation was assessed in Huh-7 cells inoculated with the culture supernatant containing HCV JFH1. Levels of HCV core protein were detectable at day 3 postinfection and increased with time. Immunofluorescence staining for the core protein indicated that the percentage of HCV core-positive cells in the Huh-7 cells was almost 100 at day 7 postinfection. Transfection efficiency was 50 to 60% as measured with GFP-expressing plasmid. At day 7 postinfection, exogenous expression of E6AP reduced the intracellular core protein level by about 60% compared to the empty plasmid-transfected control cells (Fig. 9A). Inactive E6AP had little effect on the core protein levels. Total protein levels in the cells (Fig. 9B) and intracellular HCV RNA levels (Fig. 9C) did not change after transfection of wild-type E6AP or inactive E6AP. The immunofluorescence study revealed that HCV core protein was variably detected and the intensity of core staining was reduced in the cells staining positive for wild-type E6AP compared with neighboring cells staining negative for E6AP (Fig. 9E). Using inactive E6AP revealed colocalization of the core protein and E6AP in the perinuclear region (Fig. 9F) of HCV-infected cells. These results suggest that E6AP enhanced degradation of HCV core protein expressed from infectious HCV. Then we titrated HCV infectivity in the culture supernatant at day 7 postinfection by limiting

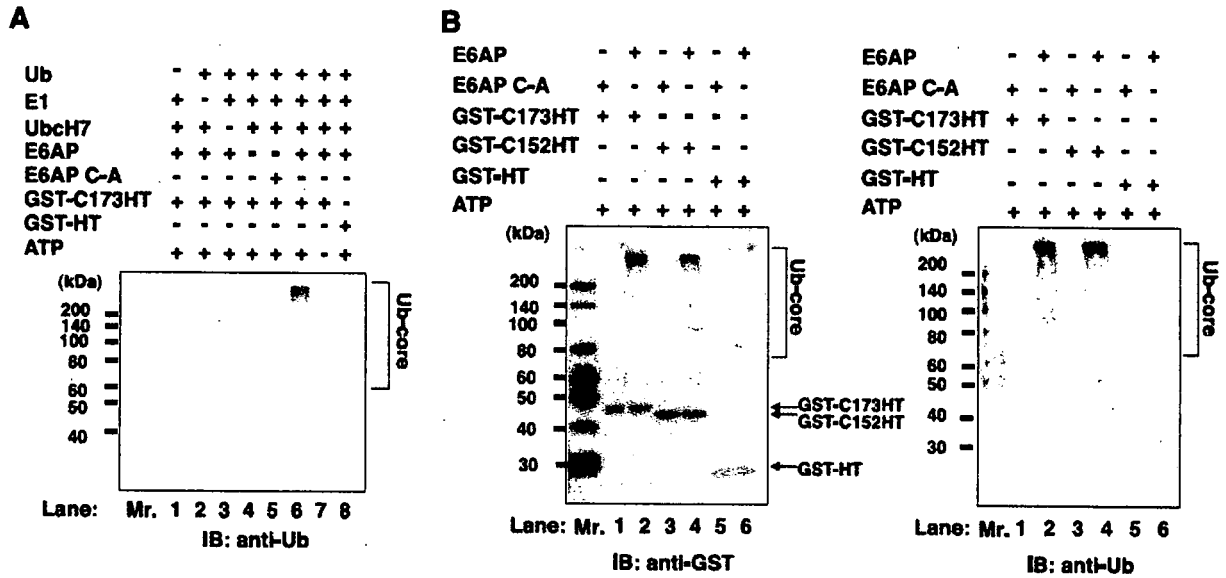


FIG. 8. In vitro ubiquitylation of HCV core protein by recombinant E6AP. For in vitro ubiquitylation of HCV core protein, purified GST-C173HT and GST-C152HT were used as substrates. Purified GST-HT was used as a negative control. Assays were done in 40- μ l volumes containing each component as indicated. The reaction mixture is described in Materials and Methods. The reaction was carried out at 37°C for 120 min followed by purification with glutathione-Sepharose beads and analysis by immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. Arrows indicate GST-C173HT, GST-C152HT, and GST-HT, respectively. Ubiquitylated species of GST-core proteins are marked by brackets. IB, immunoblot.

dilution assays. Exogenous expression of E6AP reduced the supernatant infectivity titer, whereas inactive E6AP had no effect on its infectivity titer (Fig. 9D), suggesting that the E6AP-dependent ubiquitin proteasome pathway affects the production of HCV particles through downregulation of the core protein.

E6AP silencing increases the levels of intracellular HCV core protein and supernatant infectivity titers in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. Finally, to further validate the role of E6AP in HCV production, expression of endogenous E6AP was knocked down by siRNA and the HCV infectivity titers released from HCV JFH1-infected cells were examined. Knock-down of E6AP by siRNA led to an increase in intracellular core protein levels (Fig. 10A) and supernatant HCV infectivity titers (Fig. 10B). Taken together, our results suggest that E6AP mediates ubiquitylation and degradation of HCV core protein in HCV-infected cells, thereby affecting the production of HCV particles.

DISCUSSION

HCV core protein is a major component of viral nucleocapsid, plays a central role in viral assembly (25, 40), and contributes to viral pathogenesis and hepatocarcinogenesis (9). Therefore, it is important to clarify the molecular mechanisms that govern the cellular stability of this viral protein. We have previously reported that processing at the C-terminal hydrophobic domain of the core protein leads to efficient polyubiquitylation of the core protein (52). In this study, we identified E6AP as an HCV core-binding protein and showed that HCV core protein interacts with E6AP in vivo and in vitro, that E6AP enhances ubiquitylation and degradation of the mature core protein as well as the C-terminally truncated core protein, and that HCV core protein expressed from infectious HCV is

degraded via E6AP-dependent proteolysis. HCV core protein and E6AP were found to colocalize in the cytoplasm, especially in the perinuclear region. Moreover, exogenous expression of E6AP reduces intracellular core protein levels and supernatant HCV infectivity titers in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. Knock-down of endogenous E6AP by siRNA increases intracellular core protein levels and supernatant infectivity titers in HCV-infected cells. These findings suggest that E6AP mediates ubiquitylation and degradation of HCV core protein, thereby affecting the production of HCV particles.

HCV core protein interacts with E6AP through the region of the core protein between aa 58 and aa 71. These 14 amino acids are highly conserved, with the first nine amino acids (PRGRRQPIP) present in the core protein of all the HCV genotypes (3). This result suggests that E6AP-dependent degradation of HCV core protein is common to all HCV genotypes and plays an important role in the HCV life cycle or viral pathogenesis. Our data indicated that HCV core proteins of genotypes 1b and 2a are subjected to proteolysis through an E6AP-mediated degradation pathway. We are currently examining whether E6AP promotes degradation of HCV core proteins of other genotypes.

Studies in addition to ours have reported that other HCV proteins, such as NS5B (8), the unglycosylated cytosolic form of E2 (39), NS2 (7), and F protein (58), are degraded through the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway. These studies suggest that the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway plays a role in the HCV life cycle or viral pathogenesis. To our knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate that the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway affects the HCV life cycle.

PA28 γ was found to interact with HCV core protein in hepatocytes and promote proteasomal degradation of HCV core protein (30). PA28 γ , however, has been shown to function

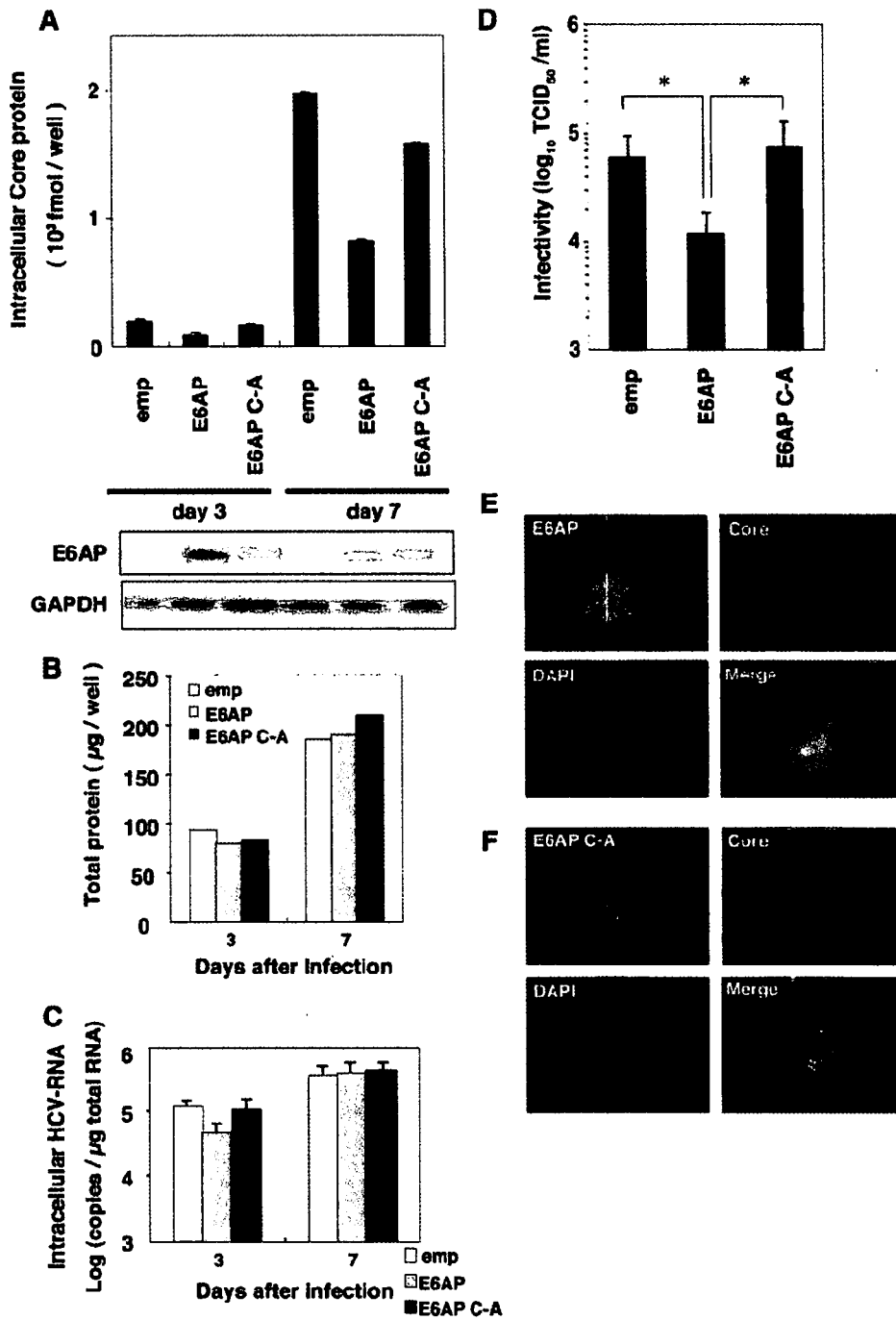


FIG. 9. Exogenous expression of E6AP reduces intracellular HCV core protein levels and supernatant infectivity titers in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. Naive Huh-7 cells were seeded as described in Materials and Methods; inoculated with 2.5 ml of the inoculum including infectious HCV JFH1 (6.5×10^3 TCID₅₀/ml); and transfected with 6 μg of empty plasmid, pCAG-HA-E6AP, or pCAG-HA-E6AP C-A. The culture supernatant and the cells were collected at days 3 and 7 postinfection. (A) Intracellular HCV core protein levels. (B) Levels of total protein. (C) Levels of intracellular HCV RNA in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. Data represent the averages of three experiments with error bars. (D) Supernatant infectivity titers. At day 7 postinfection, culture supernatants were collected and assayed for TCID₅₀ determinations. The difference between empty vector and E6AP or between E6AP and E6AP C-A was significant (*, $P < 0.05$, Student's *t* test). (E and F) HCV JFH1-infected Huh-7 cells were transfected with either MEF-E6AP plasmid or MEF-E6AP C-A plasmid, grown on coverslips, fixed, and processed for double-label immunofluorescence for HCV core and MEF-E6AP (E) or MEF-E6AP C-A (F). Anticore Mab (2H9) and anti-FLAG PAb were used as primary antibodies. Nuclei were visualized by staining the cells with DAPI. All the samples were examined with a BZ-8000 microscope. Representative images of individual cells are shown with merge images. emp, empty vector.

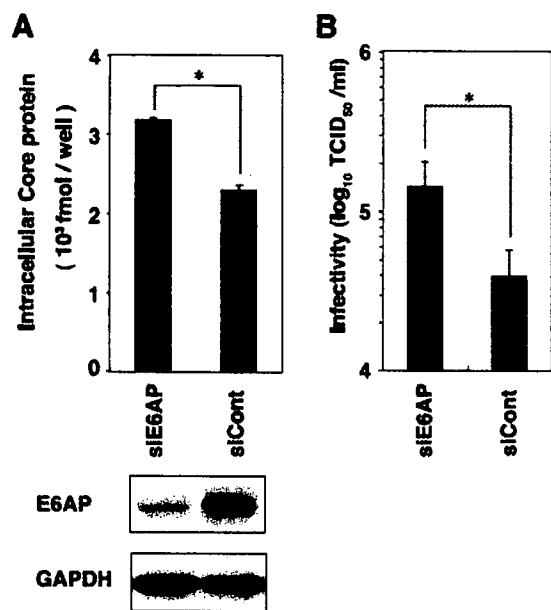


FIG. 10. E6AP silencing leads to an increase in the level of intracellular HCV core protein and supernatant infectivity titer in HCV-infected Huh-7 cells. (A) HCV JFH1-infected cells were replated in a six-well plate at 3×10^5 cells/well and transfected with 40 pmol of E6AP siRNA or control siRNA. The culture medium was changed at 24 h after transfection. The cells were harvested at day 2 after transfection, and the intracellular core protein levels were quantitated using the HCV core antigen ELISA. Equivalent amounts of the whole-cell lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-E6AP MAb or anti-GAPDH MAb. (B) Culture supernatants were collected at day 2 after transfection and assayed for TCID₅₀ determinations. For both panels, the difference between E6AP siRNA and control siRNA was significant (*, $P < 0.05$, Student's *t* test).

in a ubiquitin-independent, ATP-independent, and 20S proteasome-dependent pathway (27). There have been reports that several cellular factors, such as p53 (2), p73 (2), and RPN4 (18), are degraded through two alternative pathways, the ubiquitin-dependent 26S proteasome-dependent pathway and the ubiquitin-independent 20S proteasome-dependent pathway. Here we provide evidence that E6AP mediates ubiquitylation of HCV core protein. Still unclear is whether the PA28 γ -dependent pathway requires polyubiquitylation of HCV core protein. HCV core protein is predominantly localized in the cytoplasm, especially at the endoplasmic reticulum membrane, on the surface of lipid droplets, and on mitochondria and mitochondrion-associated membranes (51). In HCV JFH1-infected cells, HCV core was found to localize in the cytoplasm and frequently to accumulate in the perinuclear region and the lipid droplets (44). Our results indicated that E6AP colocalized with HCV core protein especially in the perinuclear region. PA28 γ was found to colocalize with HCV core protein in the nucleus. Functional differences may exist between the E6AP-dependent pathway and the PA28 γ -dependent pathway in the stability control of HCV core protein. The functional role of the E6AP-dependent pathway and the PA28 γ -dependent pathway remains to be elucidated.

The HCV core-binding region of E6AP was mapped to the region between aa 418 and aa 517. The multicopy maintenance protein 7, Mcm7, interacts with E6AP through a short motif,

termed the L2G box (aa 412 to 414), that lies within the E6 binding site of E6AP (23). Our data indicated that the E6 binding region containing the L2G motif is not required for interaction between HCV core protein and E6AP (Fig. 2C, lane M).

We propose here that E6AP may affect the production of HCV particles through controlling the amounts of HCV core protein. This mechanism may contribute to persistent infection. The E6AP binding domain of the core protein resides in the RNA-binding domain and binding domains for many host factors (40). These factors may affect the binding between E6AP and HCV core protein, resulting in control of E6AP-dependent core degradation. Another possibility is that HCV core protein may affect the normal function of E6AP, thereby contributing to pathogenesis. It will be intriguing to investigate whether HCV core protein has any effect on E6AP-dependent degradation of host factors. The other intriguing possibility is that HCV core-E6AP complex may function as an E3 ligase-like E6-E6AP complex to target host factors for proteasomal degradation and contribute to viral pathogenesis.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that E6AP interacts with HCV core protein in vitro and in vivo and mediates ubiquitin-dependent degradation of the core protein, leading to downregulation of HCV particles. We propose that the E6AP-mediated ubiquitin-proteasome pathway may play a role in affecting the production of HCV particles through controlling the amounts of viral nucleocapsid protein. Identification of the specific E3 ubiquitin ligase may contribute to gaining a better understanding of the biology of the HCV life cycle as well as molecular details of the ubiquitin-dependent degradation of HCV core protein.

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Oligomerization of Hepatitis C Virus Core Protein Is Crucial for Interaction with the Cytoplasmic Domain of E1 Envelope Protein[∇]

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Hepatitis C virus (HCV) contains two membrane-associated envelope glycoproteins, E1 and E2, which assemble as a heterodimer in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). In this study, predictive algorithms and genetic analyses of deletion mutants and glycosylation site variants of the E1 glycoprotein were used to suggest that the glycoprotein can adopt two topologies in the ER membrane: the conventional type I membrane topology and a polytopic topology in which the protein spans the ER membrane twice with an intervening cytoplasmic loop (amino acid residues 288 to 360). We also demonstrate that the E1 glycoprotein is able to associate with the HCV core protein, but only upon oligomerization of the core protein in the presence of tRNA to form capsid-like structures. Yeast two-hybrid and immunoprecipitation analyses reveal that oligomerization of the core protein is promoted by amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the core. Furthermore, the association between the E1 glycoprotein and the assembled core can be recapitulated using a fusion protein containing the putative cytoplasmic loop of the E1 glycoprotein. This fusion protein is also able to compete with the intact E1 glycoprotein for binding to the core. Mutagenesis of the cytoplasmic loop of E1 was used to define a region of four amino acids (residues 312 to 315) that is important for interaction with the assembled HCV core. Taken together, our studies suggest that interaction between the self-oligomerized HCV core and the E1 glycoprotein is mediated through the cytoplasmic loop present in a polytopic form of the E1 glycoprotein.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the causative agent of chronic hepatitis C, leading to steatosis, cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma. It is estimated that over 170 million people are infected with HCV worldwide (5, 18, 37). HCV is an enveloped single-stranded plus-sense RNA virus in the *Hepacivirus* genus of the family *Flaviviridae*, which also includes the flaviviruses and pestiviruses (36). The genome of HCV encodes a polyprotein of approximately 3,000 amino acids which is cotranslationally and posttranslationally processed to generate at least 10 viral proteins (12). The structural proteins, the core and E1 and E2 envelope glycoproteins, are encoded in the N-terminal portion of the polyprotein, and the nonstructural proteins, thought to be required for replication of the viral genome, are encoded in the C-terminal region (11). The core protein, which interacts with viral RNA (47) to form the nucleocapsid, is liberated from the N terminus of the polyprotein by signal peptidase cleavage in the downstream E1 protein (at position 191), and the C-terminal transmembrane region of the core protein (residue 164 to 191) is further cleaved at residues 177 or 179 by the signal peptide peptidase (16, 43). The remaining hydrophobic region of the core protein (domain II; residues 119 to 174) has been shown to affect the efficiency of signal peptide peptidase cleavage and the intracellular localization of core protein (14, 44). Although the C-terminal transmembrane

region of core protein and E1 were reported to interact with each other within the intramembrane space (25), the central hydrophobic region from residues 119 to 152 within domain II was also suggested to be responsible for the interaction between core and E1 (27).

Recently, *in vitro* replication of a JFH1 clone of HCV genotype 2a derived from a patient with fulminant hepatitis C was reported in a cell line that had been cured of its HCV replicon by treatment with interferon (23, 50, 51). However, this reverse genetics system is limited to the JFH-1 clone of genotype 2a and specific cell lines. Robust and reliable *in vitro* replication of other major genotypes of HCV such as genotypes 1a and 1b has yet to be developed. So far, biological functions of HCV envelope proteins have been characterized by using recombinant envelope proteins expressed *in vitro*, HCV-like particles produced in insect cells, and the pseudotyped virions based on vesicular stomatitis virus and retroviruses (8). The HCV polyprotein precursor must be specifically threaded through the membrane of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) to undergo maturation to form the mature envelope glycoproteins (7). In the polyprotein, the C-terminal regions of E1 and E2 each contain a membrane-spanning domain as well as the hydrophobic signal peptide of the downstream viral protein (E2 and p7, respectively). These domains form hairpin structures that pass through the membrane twice, to allow processing by signal peptidase in the ER lumen. Upon signal peptidase cleavage, the C termini are thought to translocate into the cytoplasm to generate the type I membrane topology of the mature glycoproteins. The mature E1 and E2 glycoproteins

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remain noncovalently associated, interacting in part through their C-terminal transmembrane domains, which also mediate retention of the E1-E2 complex in the ER. Based on this model of membrane topology, the HCV envelope glycoproteins possess little or no cytoplasmic region. However, a physical association between E1 and the cytosolic core protein has been reported (25, 27), suggesting that the E1 glycoprotein is able to expose a cytoplasmic domain of sufficient length to interact with the core. In addition, the presence of the core protein has been shown to affect the folding of E1 (32).

We have previously suggested that the E1 glycoprotein may adopt a polytopic (double membrane-spanning) topology that coexists with the dominant type I form (35). In this study, we provide genetic evidence for a polytopic form of the E1 glycoprotein and for exposure of a centrally located cytoplasmic domain. Furthermore, we show that the cytoplasmic region of the polytopic form of E1 is required for interaction with amino acid residues 72 to 91 of the core protein.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture. 293T cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) containing 2 mM L-glutamine, penicillin, and streptomycin and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum.

Plasmids. A cDNA of E1 glycoprotein was amplified from HCV type 1b strain J1 (1) by PCR using *Pfu* Turbo DNA polymerase (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) and inserted between *NheI* and *BamHI* sites of pJW4303, which contains the signal sequence of tissue plasminogen activator and the bovine growth hormone polyadenylation signal (a kind gift from J. M. Mullins), to generate pJW383. For the deletion analysis, the plasmids pJW360 and pJW288 encoding residues 192 to 360 and 192 to 288, respectively, were amplified by PCR and cloned into pJW4303. The plasmids pJW383d1 and pJW383d2, containing deletions in residues 261 to 286 and 289 to 340, respectively, were generated from pJW383 by splicing of overlapping extensions (13, 15) as described previously (44). A cDNA fragment encoding core to E2 proteins of HCV strain J1 was amplified by PCR and cloned into pCAGGS-PUR (28), and glycosylation site mutations in the E1 protein were generated by the method of splicing by overlapping extension. For the yeast two-hybrid assay, pGBKT7HCVCore173 was used as bait, as described previously (38). The gene encoding amino acids 288 to 346 of HCV E1 protein was amplified from cDNA of strain J1 and introduced into *NdeI* and *EcoRI* sites of a pGADT7 vector (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA). In the same way, deletion mutants of core protein encoding residues 1 to 151, 1 to 25, 24 to 173, 38 to 173, 58 to 173, 72 to 173, and 92 to 173 were amplified by PCR and cloned into a pGBKT7 vector. The FLAG sequence was introduced between amino acids 195 and 196 of the cDNA encoding residues 1 to 383 of the HCV polyprotein and replaced Ala³⁴³ with Arg to avoid processing by signal peptidase and spacer amino acids (Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser), and influenza virus hemagglutinin (HA) sequence was added at the C terminus. The resulting cDNA fragment encoding core protein, FLAG tag, E1, and HA tag was cloned into a pcDNA3.1(+) vector and designated Flag-core-E1-HA (see Fig. 2D, below) and used for *in vitro* transcription and translation. Similarly, the FLAG sequence was introduced into the cDNA encoding residues 151 to 383 of the HCV polyprotein, and the HA sequence was added at the C terminus. The resulting cDNA fragment encoding the C-terminal hydrophobic/transmembrane region of the core protein, FLAG tag, E1, and HA tag was designated Flag-E1-HA (see Fig. 3A, below). The DNA fragments encoding residues 1 to 191 with amino acids 72 to 91 deleted were generated by splicing via overlapping extension and cloned into pCAGGS (Core Δ 72-91) (see Fig. 4A, below) (42). The DNA fragment encoding the cytoplasmic domain of the E1 protein with a C-terminal HA tag was amplified by PCR and introduced at *HindIII* and *SacII* sites of pEGFP-C3. pCAGGS plasmids encoding core to p7 replacing residues 304 to 307, 308 to 311, 312 to 315, 316 to 319, 320 to 323, 324 to 327, or 328 to 331 with Ala were generated by using splicing with overlapping extension (see Fig. 6A, below).

Antibodies. Mouse monoclonal antibody to HA tag (HA11) and anti-FLAG antibody (M2) were purchased from Covance (Richmond, CA) and Sigma, respectively. Mouse monoclonal antibodies to core protein (clones 11-7, 11-10, and 11-14) were gifts from S. Yagi (2). Anti-E1 mouse monoclonal antibody (clone 0726) was prepared by immunization using the membrane fraction of the

CHO L10 cell line, which constitutively expresses HCV envelope proteins (30). Anti-E2 monoclonal antibody (clone 187) was a generous gift from M. Kohara.

Yeast two-hybrid assay. A yeast two-hybrid assay was carried out by using Matchmaker system 3 (Clontech) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The bait vector pGBKT7HCVcore 173 (38) or empty plasmid was transfected into *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain AH109 together with the prey vectors, pGADT7-based constructs (see Table 1, below). The yeast cells possessing pGBKT7/p-53 and pGADT7/large T antigen were used as positive controls, while yeast cells possessing pGBKT7 and pGADT7 were the negative controls. These transfected yeast colonies were cultivated on dropout plates lacking Trp, Leu, His, and Ade (test plates) or plates lacking Trp and Leu (control plates) and then incubated at 30°C for 1 week.

Transfection, immunoblotting, and immunoprecipitation. Liposome-mediated DNA transfection using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) was described previously (38). Transfected cells were cultured at 2×10^5 cells/well in a six-well plate, harvested 30 to 48 h posttransfection, washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and incubated at 4°C for 30 min in 0.25 ml of lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 135 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, and 10% glycerol supplemented with 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 50 mM NaF, and 5 mM Na₂VO₄). After freezing and thawing, lysed cells were centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$ for 5 min. The resulting cleared lysate was stored at -80°C prior to use for immunoprecipitation and blotting. Immunoprecipitation was carried out according to the method described previously (44). Briefly, lysates were preincubated at 4°C for 5 h in the lysis buffer with or without 1 mM MgCl₂ and 0.1 mg/ml of yeast tRNA (Sigma) prior to immunoprecipitation. The resulting lysates (0.2 ml) were gently rotated with 1.0 μ g of anti-FLAG, anti-HA, or mixed mouse monoclonal anti-HCV core antibodies or mouse monoclonal antibody to the E1 protein at 4°C for 3 h with or without 1 mM MgCl₂ and 0.1 mg/ml of yeast tRNA. The immunocomplex was gently rotated at 4°C for 3 h with 10 μ l of 50% (vol/vol) protein G-Sepharose 4 Fast Flow beads (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Franklin Lakes, NJ) with or without 1 mM MgCl₂ and 0.1 mg/ml of yeast tRNA and then centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$ for 30 s. The precipitated beads were washed five times with 0.5 ml of lysis buffer containing or lacking 1 mM MgCl₂ and 0.1 mg/ml of yeast tRNA and then boiled in 50 μ l of the loading buffer. The boiled samples were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The proteins in gels were transferred to Immobilon-P polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA) and then blotted with primary antibody and secondary horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibody. The immunocomplexes on membranes were visualized with Super Signal West Femto substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL) and detected by using an image analyzer LAS-3000 (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

Protease protection assay of HCV proteins synthesized by *in vitro* transcription/translation. A plasmid encoding a FLAG-core-E1-HA protein was transcribed under the control of a T7 promoter by using the RiboMax large-scale RNA production system with Ribo m⁷G cap analog (Promega, Madison, WI). *In vitro* translation was carried out in the presence of [³⁵S]methionine-cysteine (Amersham, Piscataway, NJ) by using rabbit reticulocyte lysate and canine pancreatic microsomal membrane (Promega). Translated sample was diluted sevenfold with PBS and then mixed with tosylsulfonyl phenylalanyl chloromethyl ketone-treated trypsin (Sigma) at a final concentration of 2 μ g/ml. The mixture was incubated at 30°C for 60 min with or without 0.5% Nonidet P-40, and then soybean trypsin inhibitor (Sigma) was added at a final concentration of 20 μ g/ml. Digestion products were immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG antibody.

Indirect immunofluorescence analysis. 293T cells were washed with PBS at 40 h after transfection and fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 20 min at room temperature. The fixed cells were permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 for 3 min at room temperature and blocked with nonfat milk solution. Cells were incubated with the anti-E1 antibody for 60 min at 37°C and then with fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG; TAGO, Burlingame, CA). HCV E1 protein was visualized by fluorescence microscopy (TE300; Nikon, Tokyo, Japan).

Velocity sedimentation with sucrose gradients. Transfected 293T cell were suspended in MNT buffer (20 mM 2-morpholinoethanesulfonic acid, 100 mM NaCl, 30 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8.6], and 0.1% Triton X-100) and then incubated at 4°C for 5 h with or without 0.1 mg/ml of yeast tRNA and 1 mM MgCl₂. Each sample was layered on top of 12 ml of sucrose with a 20 to 60% gradient and then centrifuged in a Beckman SW 41Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter, Tokyo, Japan) at 30,000 rpm for 3 h at 4°C. Centrifuged lysates were collected from the bottoms of the tubes and then concentrated with trichloroacetic acid. After washing with ethanol, concentrated proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting.

RESULTS

Prediction of the topology of the E1 protein in the membrane. Although a small fraction of the HCV envelope glycoproteins expressed in 293T cells is translocated onto the plasma membrane (3), the vast majority of E1 is retained in the ER membrane (6). Previously, we showed that both a central hydrophobic region of E1 (residues 260 to 288) and the C-terminal transmembrane domain (residues 360 to 383) are important for ER retention (29). As in the C-terminal hydrophobic region, the amino acid sequence of the central hydrophobic region is highly conserved among HCV isolates (4). To investigate the role of these two hydrophobic regions in the biogenesis of the E1 glycoprotein, we utilized the TMHMM algorithm (19), a computer program trained to identify potential transmembrane helical regions. The algorithm identified both hydrophobic regions as having a high probability of transmembrane helix (Fig. 1A). To examine the function of the hydrophobic regions as transmembrane domains, we constructed a series of deletion mutants in the E1 protein in which one or the other of the hydrophobic segments was absent (Fig. 1B). Mutant E1 glycoproteins were expressed in 293T cells, and the cellular localization of E1 proteins was determined by indirect immunofluorescence analysis (Fig. 1B). The full-length E1 (383) was detected only in permeabilized cells, consistent with its retention in the ER. The 383d2 mutant, which contains both hydrophobic regions but lacks the intervening hydrophobic region (residues 289 to 340), was also detected in the cytoplasm but not on the cell surface as the full-length E1. By contrast, deletion mutants lacking the central (383d1) or C-terminal (288 and 360) hydrophobic domains were detected on the cell surface in nonpermeabilized cells, suggesting that both the central and the C-terminal hydrophobic domains are required for retention of the E1 protein on the ER membrane. If the central hydrophobic domain traverses the ER membrane as predicted by the TMHMM program, the region between positions 288 and 360 would be expected to lie in the cytoplasmic space. Based on this model and on the results with E1 deletion mutants, we suggest that the E1 protein might be able to retain two membrane topologies: the conventional type I topology and a polytopic topology that spans the membrane twice with N and C termini in the ER lumen and an intervening cytoplasmic loop, as reported previously (35) (Fig. 1C). Recently, a similar polytopic form of the fusion glycoprotein of Newcastle disease virus was identified (31).

Mutational analysis of putative N-glycosylation sites of the E1 glycoprotein. To explore the membrane topologies of E1, we examined the utilization of potential glycosylation sites. The E1 protein of HCV strain J1 (1) contains seven N-glycosylation sequence motifs (Asn-X-Ser/Thr) at amino acid positions 196, 209, 233, 234, 250, 305, and 325 (Fig. 2A). The Asn residues at these possible N-glycosylation sites were individually replaced with Gln, and the mutant E1 glycoproteins were expressed as a core-, E1-, or E2-containing polyprotein in 293T cells. In all cases, the mutant polyproteins were expressed and properly processed by signal peptidase and signal peptide peptidase to generate the core, E1, and E2 proteins (Fig. 2B). The mutant E1 proteins displayed distinct glycoforms consistent with changes in glycosylation. The wild-type E1 glycoprotein exhibited a major band of 34 kDa and a minor band of 32 kDa.

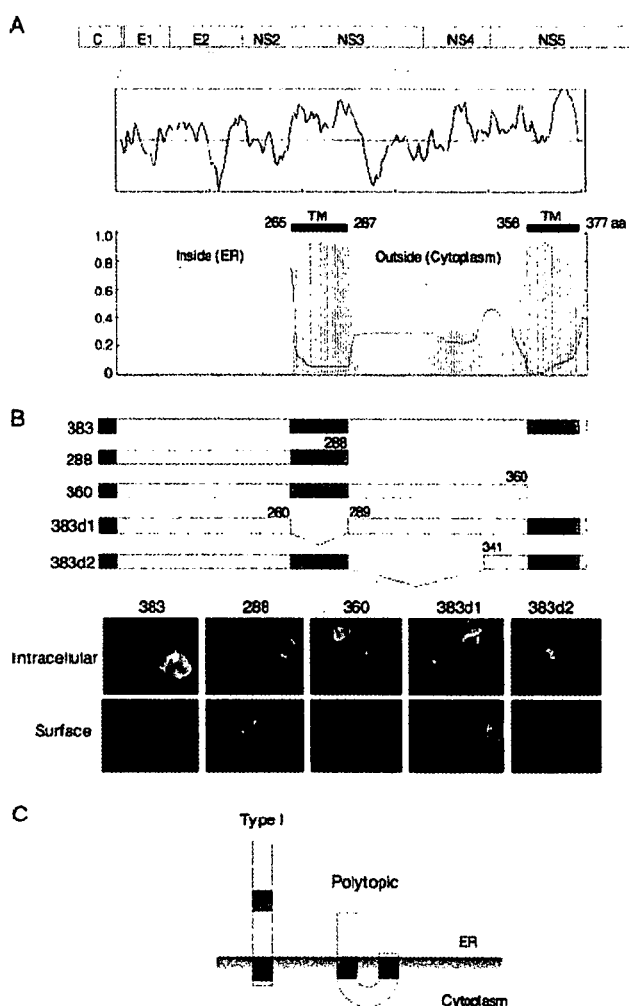


FIG. 1. Prediction of the membrane topology of the E1 protein. (A) Genome structure of HCV and a hydrophobic profile of the amino acid sequence of the E1 protein are shown at the top. The transmembrane helices in the E1 protein were predicted by the TMHMM program (19), and regions of high probability (amino acid residues 265 to 287 and 358 to 377) are indicated. (B) 293T cells transfected with the wild type (383) and deletion constructs were fixed with paraformaldehyde and permeabilized with Triton X-100 (intracellular) or not permeabilized (surface). E1 proteins were visualized with an anti-E1 monoclonal antibody and fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-mouse IgG. (C) Possible topologies of the E1 protein on the ER. (Left) Type I topology model possessing a C-terminal transmembrane region; (right) a polytopic topology that spans the membrane twice, with both N and C termini in the ER lumen and with an intervening cytoplasmic loop.

The 325 mutant was unchanged from the wild-type E1, suggesting that the 325 position is not utilized, presumably due to an unfavorable NWSP motif in the genotype 1a protein (33). The 209, 233/234, and 250 mutants migrated faster than the authentic E1 protein and exhibited two bands of 32 and 30 kDa. The E1 of the 196 mutant was apparently not recognized by the monoclonal antibody directed to the N-terminal region of E1. In the 233 and 234 mutants, glycosylation occurred at the remaining Asn (234 or 233, respectively). These mutants comigrated with the wild-type E1 glycoforms, suggesting that

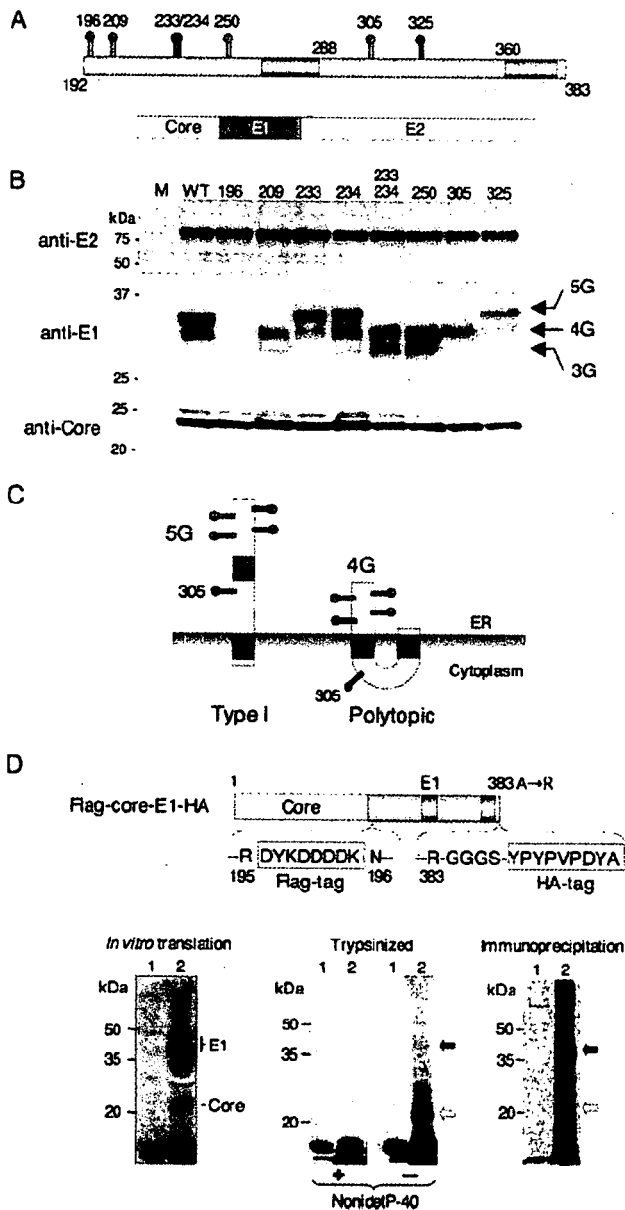


FIG. 2. Mutational analysis of N-glycosylation sites and protease protection assay of the E1 protein. (A) Positions of potential N-glycosylation sites (gray and black spikes) in the E1 protein are shown. (B) Asn residues in the possible N-glycosylation sites in the E1 protein were individually replaced with Gln. Mutant plasmids encoding the core, E1, and E2 polyproteins (A) were expressed in 293T cells, and processed core, E1, and E2 proteins were detected by immunoblotting. (C) Type I and polytopic topology models of E1 proteins bearing carbohydrates at positions of 196, 209, 234, 250, and 305 (5G) and 196, 209, 234, and 250 (4G), respectively. The 305 mutant would exhibit a single band of 4G irrespective of the topologic models. (D) Structure of the FLAG-core-E1-HA construct encoding the HCV core and E1 polyprotein carrying FLAG and HA tags in the N- and C-terminal regions of the E1 protein (top). (Bottom, left) *In vitro* translation of capped RNA transcribed from the FLAG-core-E1-HA (lane 2) and without RNA (lane 1) in the presence of [³⁵S]methionine-cysteine using rabbit reticulocyte lysate and canine pancreatic microsomal membrane. (Bottom, middle) Translated products of FLAG-core-E1-HA (lane 2) and without RNA (lane 1) were digested with trypsin in the presence (+) or absence (-) of 0.5% Nonidet P-40. (Bottom, right) Digestion products were immunoprecipitated with control (lane 1) and anti-FLAG (lane 2) antibody. Black and white arrows indicate protected and digested E1 protein, respectively.

only one or the other of the overlapping motifs can be utilized in the wild-type molecule. Glycosylation in this region was absent in the double mutant (233/234). The existence of two glycoforms of E1 may reflect incomplete and stochastic use of the available glycosylation sites or, alternatively, the presence of two discrete topological forms of E1 protein. For instance, the major band of 34 kDa in the wild-type glycoprotein might correspond to the type I topology form, with glycosylation at 196, 209, 234, 250, and 305 (5G), whereas the minor band of 32 kDa might correspond to the polytopic form of E1, bearing glycans at positions 196, 209, 234, and 250 (4G). In this regard, it is noteworthy that the 305 mutant of E1 exhibited only a single band of 32 kDa. The absence of a second glycoform is consistent with the putative cytoplasmic localization of Asn305 in a polytopic form of E1 (Fig. 2C). Taken together, this mutational analysis provides support to the model in which the HCV E1 glycoprotein is able to exist in either the type I or polytopic form. In the latter form, an extended cytoplasmic domain in E1 would be available to interact with the core protein in the virion.

Protease protection assay of the E1 protein. To confirm the presence of the cytoplasmic domain in the E1 protein, *in vitro* translation products of the HCV core and E1 polyprotein carrying FLAG and HA tags in the N- and C-terminal regions of the E1 protein, respectively, were digested with trypsin, and the protected portion of the E1 glycoprotein was immunoprecipitated by anti-FLAG antibody. As shown below in Fig. 4D, treatment of the translation products with trypsin in the presence of Nonidet P-40 resulted in complete digestion, and a 22-kDa band (major) and several <35-kDa faint bands were detected in the absence of the detergent. When *in vitro*-translated HCV core protein was treated similarly, no band was detected, irrespective of the presence of detergent (data not shown); therefore, the protected bands from trypsin digestion were derived from the E1 protein. Although the 22- to 35-kDa bands were specifically immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG antibody but not with control antibody, the 35-kDa protein corresponding to the type I topology of the E1 protein resistant to trypsin digestion was dominant. This might be due to the difference in the reactivity of the anti-FLAG antibody, which recognizes the intact E1 protein more efficiently than digested ones. These results further support the presence of the polytopic form of HCV E1 glycoprotein, which has a cytoplasmic region together with a type I topology in the ER.

HCV core protein binds to the E1 protein in the presence of tRNA. The HCV core protein undergoes extensive conformational changes upon binding to nucleic acid and self-assembling into nucleocapsid-like particles (20). To investigate the effects of nucleic acid on oligomerization of the core protein, lysates of 293T cells expressing HCV core protein were incubated in the presence or absence of yeast tRNA (20) and subjected to velocity sedimentation in a sucrose gradient. Oligomerized core protein was detected in fractions 1 to 4 in the presence of tRNA but not in those in the absence of tRNA (Fig. 3A). To specifically examine the interaction between HCV core and E1 proteins in the assembly of the nucleocapsid-like particles, we coexpressed the core protein with an E1 protein possessing a FLAG tag near its N terminus and an HA tag at the C terminus (Flag-E1-HA) (Fig. 3B, left). The transfected cells were lysed with Triton X-100, and the E1 protein

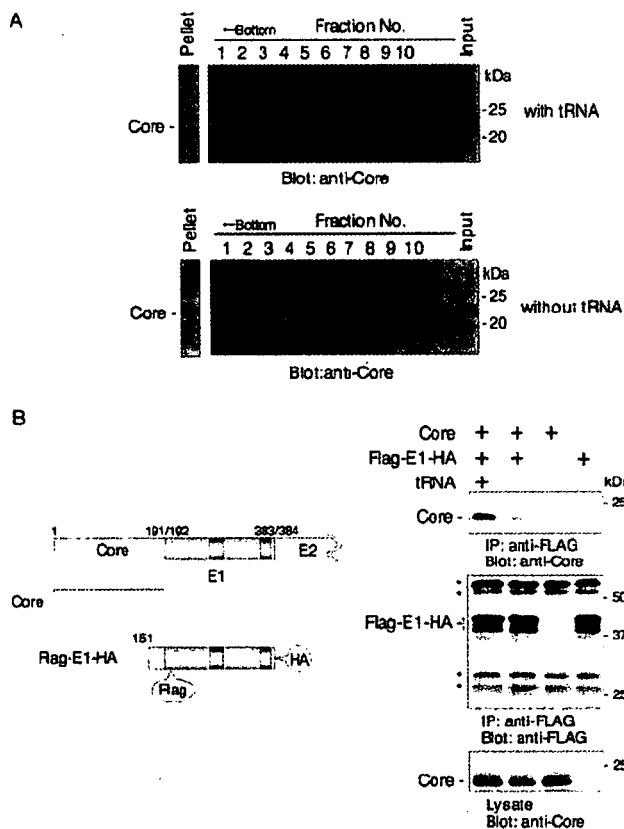


FIG. 3. HCV core protein binds to E1 protein in the presence of tRNA. (A) Cell lysates of 293T cells expressing HCV core protein were subjected to velocity sedimentation with a sucrose gradient in the presence or absence of tRNA. Oligomerized core protein was detected in fractions 1 to 4 in the presence of tRNA but not in those in the absence of tRNA. (B, left) cDNAs used for expression. FLAG-E1-HA encodes FLAG tag after the signal peptide and HA tag after the transmembrane region. (Right) Immunoprecipitation analyses. Cell lysates of 293T cells expressing core and FLAG-E1-HA proteins were immunoprecipitated by anti-FLAG antibody in the presence or absence of tRNA. The asterisks indicate nonspecific bands.

was immunoprecipitated by using an anti-FLAG antibody. Coprecipitation of core protein with E1 was assessed by Western blot analysis using a core-specific monoclonal antibody. Although HCV core protein was clearly coprecipitated with FLAG-E1-HA in the presence of tRNA, little association was seen in the absence of tRNA (Fig. 3B, right). Nonspecific precipitation of the core protein with tRNA was not observed (data not shown). Although a small amount of the intracellular core protein may already associate with viral RNA under the intracellular conditions, a large amount of RNA may be required for oligomerization that is detectable by the sedimentation assay. Together, our results suggest that tRNA facilitates oligomerization of the HCV core protein and potentiates the interaction between the core protein and E1.

The region spanning amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the HCV core protein is crucial for binding to the E1 protein in yeast. The interaction between the HCV core and E1 proteins likely occurs on the cytosolic side of the cell membrane and, thus, presumably involves the posited cytoplasmic loop region

in the polytopic form of the E1 glycoprotein. To investigate the possibility for this specific interaction in cells, core protein lacking the transmembrane region (Core1-173) was examined for interaction with the putative E1 cytoplasmic loop region in a yeast two-hybrid system (Table 1). When Core1-173 was expressed with the E1 cytoplasmic region (residues 288 to 346), the yeast was able to grow on the dropout plate lacking Trp, Leu, His, and Ade, suggesting that the core protein associates with the cytoplasmic loop of the E1 protein in yeast. To determine the region of the HCV core protein responsible for the interaction with the cytoplasmic domain of E1, deletion mutants of the core were tested. Association in the yeast two-hybrid system was seen with Core24-173, Core38-173, Core58-173, Core72-173, and Core1-151 mutants, but not with Core92-173 and Core1-25. Nonspecific interaction of the GAL4 activation domain with these core mutants was not observed. These results suggest that the region spanning from amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the HCV core protein is important for interaction with the cytoplasmic domain of the E1 protein in yeast.

Amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the core protein are involved in oligomerization of the core protein and interaction with the E1 protein in mammalian cells. To examine the involvement of amino acid residues 72 to 91 of the HCV core protein in the interaction with the E1 protein in mammalian cells, FLAG-E1-HA was coexpressed with either a wild-type core or a deletion mutant lacking amino acid residues 72 to 91 (Core Δ 72-91) in 293T cells (Fig. 4A). Cell lysates were incubated with yeast tRNA, and FLAG-E1-HA was immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG antibody. As shown in Fig. 4B (left), only the wild-type core protein, but not Core Δ 72-91, coprecipitated with E1. Self-oligomerization was also prevented by the deletion in Core Δ 72-91 (Fig. 4B, right). These results suggest that amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the HCV core protein play a crucial role in the interaction with the E1 protein and oligomerization of the core protein.

The E1 cytoplasmic domain interacts with the core protein in mammalian cells and inhibits the interaction with intact E1 protein *in trans*. To assess the involvement of the E1 cytoplasmic region in the interaction with core protein in mammalian

TABLE 1. Interaction between the core and the E1 cytoplasmic region in yeast

Bait	Growth with prey ^a			
	E1 cytoplasmic loop		No insert	
	Dropout	Control	Dropout	Control
Core1-173	+	+	-	+
Core24-173	+	+	-	+
Core38-173	+	+	-	+
Core58-173	+	+	-	+
Core72-173	+	+	-	+
Core92-173	-	+	-	+
Core1-151	+	+	-	+
Core1-25	-	+	-	+
No insert	-	+	-	+

^a HCV core mutants were expressed as fusion proteins with the DNA binding region by using a bait plasmid. The HCV E1 cytoplasmic region was expressed as a fusion protein with an activation domain by using a prey plasmid. Yeast growth was observed in dropout plates lacking Trp, Leu, Ade, and His (dropout) or plates lacking Trp and Leu (control). +, growth; -, no growth.

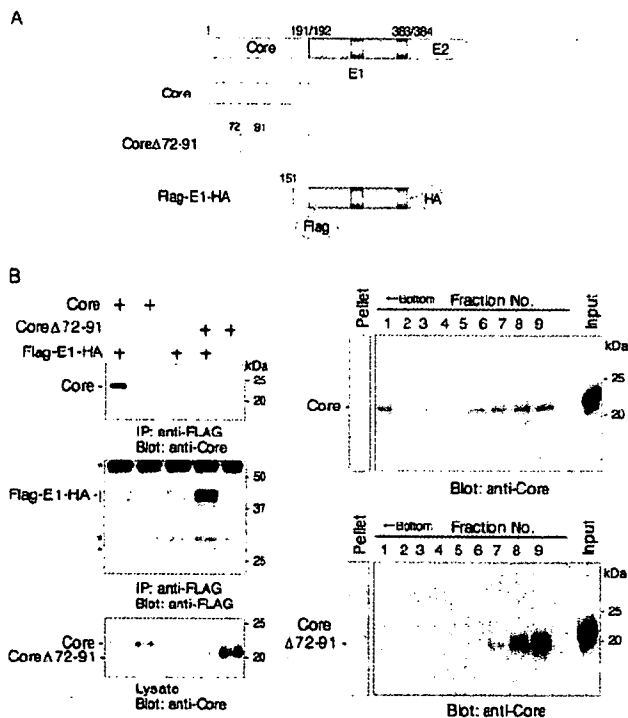


FIG. 4. Amino acid residues 72 to 91 in the core protein are involved in oligomerization of the core protein and interaction with the E1 protein. (A) cDNAs used for expression. CoreΔ72-91 is an HCV core protein carrying a deletion of amino acid residues 72 to 91. (B, left) FLAG-E1-HA was coexpressed in 293T cells with either a wild-type core or CoreΔ72-91, and the interaction was analyzed by immunoprecipitation in the presence of tRNA. The asterisks indicate non-specific bands. (Right) Oligomerization of a wild-type core or CoreΔ72-91 in the presence of tRNA. Wild-type core protein was self-oligomerized, but CoreΔ72-91 was not.

cells, we constructed an enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) fusion protein carrying the E1 cytoplasmic domain followed by an HA tag (EGFP-cdE1-HA) (Fig. 5A). Upon coexpression of EGFP-cdE1-HA with the wild-type core protein in 293T cells, the two proteins could be coprecipitated using anti-HA antibody (Fig. 5B). The mutant CoreΔ72-91 protein was unable to associate with EGFP-cdE1-HA (Fig. 5B). Together, these studies demonstrate that the cytoplasmic loop region of E1 is able to interact with the core protein and that core residues 72 to 91 are required for this association.

To further confirm the specificity of the interaction of the E1 cytoplasmic region with the core protein, we examined the ability of the EGFP-cdE1-HA protein to inhibit the association of the intact E1 protein (in Flag-E1-HA) with the wild-type core protein (Fig. 5C). Expression of EGFP-cdE1-HA but not EGFP-HA competed strongly with the interaction between core and the FLAG-tagged Flag-E1-HA protein. These results suggest that the cytoplasmic loop in the intact E1 glycoprotein can directly bind to HCV core protein. Interestingly, the EGFP-cdE1-HA protein was unable to inhibit this interaction in the context of the intact core and E1 and E2 polyproteins (data not shown), suggesting that expression of the core and E1 proteins *in cis* may prevent subsequent interaction with E1 expressed *in trans*.

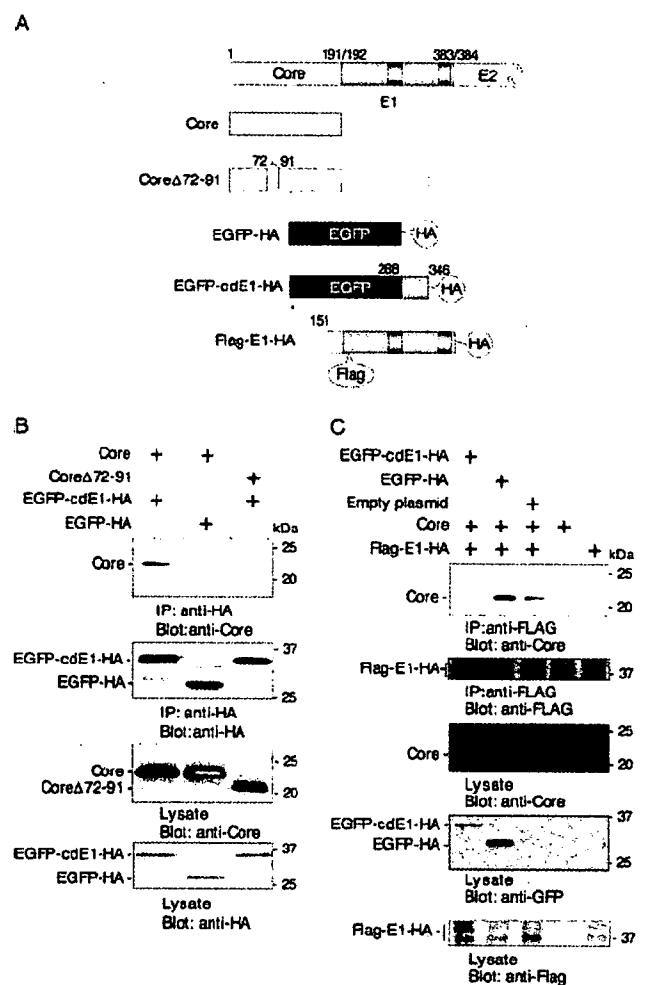


FIG. 5. Interaction of the E1 cytoplasmic loop with the core protein. (A) cDNAs used for expression. EGFP-cdE1-HA is an EGFP fusion protein carrying the E1 cytoplasmic region of amino acid residues 288 to 346 followed by an HA tag. (B) Wild-type core or CoreΔ72-91 was coexpressed with EGFP-cdE1-HA in 293T cells, and their interaction was analyzed by immunoprecipitation. EGFP-cdE1-HA coprecipitated with wild-type core protein, but not with CoreΔ72-91. (C) Inhibition of the interaction of the core protein with FLAG-E1-HA by expression of EGFP-cdE1-HA. Expression of EGFP-cdE1-HA but not of EGFP disrupted the interaction between core and E1 proteins.

Four amino acid residues, 312 to 315, in the cytoplasmic region of the E1 protein are important for interaction with the core protein. Alignment of the amino acid sequence of the E1 cytoplasmic region among different HCV genotypes revealed that the region from Gln³⁰² to Pro³²⁸ is highly conserved (Fig. 6A). To determine residues in the E1 cytoplasmic region that are critical for interaction with the core protein, blocks of four residues each in the conserved region were replaced with Ala in the polyprotein (core, E1, E2, and p7) (Fig. 6A). These mutant polyproteins were expressed in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with anti-core antibody; coprecipitated E1 protein was detected by immunoblotting using an anti-E1 monoclonal antibody (Fig. 6B). The replacement of four amino acid residues, 304 to 307, with Ala in the conserved region of the E1

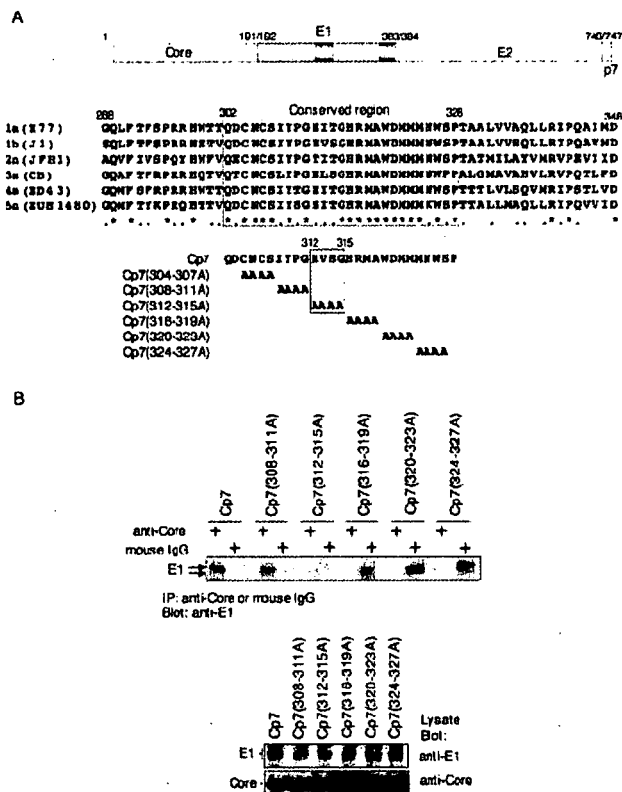


FIG. 6. Four amino acid residues, 312 to 315, in the cytoplasmic region of the E1 protein are important for interaction with the core protein. (A) Alignment of the amino acid sequence of the E1 cytoplasmic region among different HCV genotypes (1a, H77 [AF009606]; 1b, J1 [D89815]; 2a, JFH1 [AB047639]; 3a, CB [AF046866]; 4a, ED43 [Y11604]; 5a, EUI1480 [Y13184]). A conserved region from Gln³⁰² to Pro³²⁸ is shown by gray shading. Mutant polyproteins consisting of the core, E1, E2, and p7 proteins with four residues each replaced by Ala in the conserved E1 region were constructed. Four amino acid residues, His³¹², Val³¹³, Ser³¹⁴, and Gly³¹⁵, in the E1 cytoplasmic region of strain J1 and substitution of the amino acids with Ala in Cp7 (312-315A) are indicated by the box. (B) These mutant polyproteins were expressed in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with anti-core antibody or nonspecific mouse IgG in the presence of MgCl₂ and tRNA. The E1 protein that coprecipitated with the core protein was detected by immunoblotting. The substitution of four amino acid residues, 304 to 307, with Ala in the conserved region of the E1 protein, Cp7 (304-307A), could not be examined due to the low level of expression.

protein could not be examined due to a low level of expression (data not shown). Among the mutant constructs examined, only the substitution at residues 312 to 315, Cp7 (312-315A), markedly diminished association with the core protein (Fig. 6B). These results suggest that this region in the E1 cytoplasmic domain of the J1 strain of HCV (His³¹², Val³¹³, Ser³¹⁴, and Gly³¹⁵) is important for interaction with the core protein.

DISCUSSION

The biogenesis of the transmembrane glycoproteins involves a series of coordinated translation and membrane integration events that are directed by topogenic determinants within the nascent chains and that ultimately lead to the most favored topology for any given polypeptide (24). However, there is an

increasing number of examples of glycoproteins that can assume multiple topological orientations. The large envelope protein of the hepatitis B virus, for instance, has been suggested to adopt distinct topologies that enable the protein to serve in virus assembly as a matrix-like protein and in virus entry as a receptor binding protein (22). An unglycosylated form of the HCV E2 protein has been identified and shown to interact with protein kinase R in the cytosol (45). In Newcastle disease virus, type I and polytopic forms of the fusion protein are present in the same cell, and the polytopic form is suggested to be involved in the membrane fusion event (31).

HCV glycoproteins E1 and E2 were shown to possess transmembrane domains and associate to form noncovalent heterodimers that are statically retained in the ER membrane upon recombinant expression (10, 29, 46). Previously, the E1 protein of genotype 1a was suggested to possess a single C-terminal transmembrane domain, based in part on its utilization of potential glycosylation sites (33) and on a model of the transmembrane domains of the E1 and E2 proteins, in which the C terminus reorients, upon signal peptidase cleavage, from the ER lumen to protrude slightly into the cytoplasm (7). In our study, we have suggested that the E1 protein can also adopt a polytopic topology in which the protein spans the ER membrane twice and includes an intervening cytoplasmic region. In this model, the membrane orientation of the C-terminal transmembrane region is inverted and translocation of the signal peptidase-cleaved C terminus is not required.

Our analysis revealed that the 305 mutant of the 1b genotype expressed by transfection exhibited a single band of 32 kDa, whereas that of genotype 1a expressed by recombinant vaccinia viruses has been reported to contain two bands (33). Although we do not know the reason for this discrepancy, it may relate to differences in the expression systems. HCV proteins expressed by vaccinia virus and Sindbis virus vectors formed disulfide-linked aggregates (9, 11, 34), and coexpression of a large amount of vaccinia viral proteins also may alter the proper processing of the expressed proteins, as suggested by Merola et al. (32). However, further work will be necessary to clarify the reasons for the differences in glycosylation patterns of E1 mutants obtained in the different expression systems.

Mottola et al. analyzed the determinants for ER localization of the E1 protein and showed that the juxtamembrane region of E1, between amino acid residues 290 and 333, was required for ER retention (41). This region lies within the ectodomain of the E1 protein in the type I topology and in the cytoplasmic region of the protein in the proposed polytopic form. ER localization determinants of transmembrane proteins have in general been located either in the cytosolic or in the transmembrane domain, not in the luminal ectodomain, except for the yeast Sec20 protein (41). Therefore, assignment of the ER localization signal to the cytoplasmic region of the E1 protein might further support the possibility of the polytopic topology model. Affinity purification and membrane reconstitution of the E1 protein carrying an affinity tag (S-peptide) in the putative cytoplasmic region are also consistent with this model (35). Together, these findings provide indirect support that the E1 glycoprotein can adopt a polytopic form.

As previously reported (20), oligomerization of the HCV core protein to form nucleocapsid-like particles requires the presence of stem-loop RNA structures, such as those in tRNA.

Here, we have demonstrated that self-assembly of the core protein occurs without envelope protein in the presence of tRNA and that tRNA is required for the association of E1 glycoprotein with the core protein, suggesting that oligomerization of the core protein may be a prerequisite for this interaction during virus assembly. Based on hydrophobicity and the clustering of basic amino acids, the HCV core protein is proposed to possess three domains: the N-terminal basic and hydrophilic region (domain 1; residues 1 to 118), a central basic and hydrophobic domain (domain 2; residues 119 to 174), and the hydrophobic signal sequence for E1 (domain 3; residues 175 to 191) (14). Biophysical characterization of the core protein indicated that the C-terminal residues 125 to 179 were critical for the folding and oligomerization of the core protein (21). Although our mutant HCV polyprotein containing Ala substitutions at residues 312 to 315 in the cytoplasmic region of the E1 protein exhibited a clear reduction in its interaction with the core protein, a substantial amount of residual binding was retained. These results suggest that regions other than the residues from 312 to 315 in the E1 protein are also involved in the interaction with the core protein.

In Semliki Forest virus, the cytoplasmic domain of the E2 glycoprotein, which corresponds to the E1 protein in HCV, has been shown to interact with the capsid protein (26, 49). Assembly of alphaviruses has also been found to require the specific interaction between the C-terminal cytoplasmic domain of the E2 protein and the capsid protein (17). Although the functional significance of the two forms of the HCV E1 protein is still unclear, the E1 cytoplasmic region among different HCV genotypes is well conserved and four amino acid residues, His³¹², Val³¹³, Ser³¹⁴, and Gly³¹⁵ of strain J1, were shown to be important for interaction with the core protein. Although the four amino acid sequences identified in strain J1 of genotype 1b are not strictly conserved among the different HCV genotypes (Fig. 6A), a pattern of polar-hydrophobic-polar-glycine residues can be discerned in all of them. The interaction of the cytoplasmic E1 protein with the core protein may indicate that the polytopic form is a mature E1 protein that is incorporated into virions.

In conclusion, the polytopic topology model of the HCV E1 protein and the interaction of oligomerized core protein with the cytoplasmic region of the E1 protein may provide clues to aid in understanding the biosynthesis and assembly of the HCV structural proteins. HCV core protein is also involved in the development of liver steatosis, type II diabetes mellitus, and hepatocellular carcinoma in transgenic mice (39, 40, 48). A detailed knowledge of the assembly of HCV particles will provide the basis for the development of effective therapeutics for chronic hepatitis C.

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Hepatitis C virus RNA replication is regulated by FKBP8 and Hsp90

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Hepatitis C virus (HCV) nonstructural protein 5A (NS5A) is a component of viral replicase and is well known to modulate the functions of several host proteins. Here, we show that NS5A specifically interacts with FKBP8, a member of the FK506-binding protein family, but not with other homologous immunophilins. Three sets of tetratricopeptide repeats in FKBP8 are responsible for interactions with NS5A. The siRNA-mediated knockdown of FKBP8 in a human hepatoma cell line harboring an HCV RNA replicon suppressed HCV RNA replication, and this reduction was reversed by the expression of an siRNA-resistant FKBP8 mutant. Furthermore, immunoprecipitation analyses revealed that FKBP8 forms a complex with Hsp90 and NS5A. Treatment of HCV replicon cells with geldanamycin, an inhibitor of Hsp90, suppressed RNA replication in a dose-dependent manner. These results suggest that the complex consisting of NS5A, FKBP8, and Hsp90 plays an important role in HCV RNA replication.

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Subject Categories: microbiology & pathogens; molecular biology of disease

Keywords: FK506-binding protein; geldanamycin; hepatitis C virus; Hsp90; RNA replication

Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) persistently infects approximately 170 million people worldwide, and it is responsible for most cases of severe chronic liver diseases, including cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (Wasley and Alter, 2000). Although treatment with interferon (IFN) alpha and ribavirin is available for about half of the population of HCV patients (Manns *et al.*, 2001), therapeutic and preventative vaccines are still necessary for more effective treatment; however, such vaccines have not yet been developed. HCV belongs to the *Flaviviridae* family

and possesses a positive-sense single-stranded RNA with a nucleotide length of 9.6 kb. The HCV genome encodes a single large precursor polyprotein composed of about 3000 amino acids, and the polyprotein is processed by cellular and viral proteases into at least 10 structural and nonstructural (NS) proteins (Moriishi and Matsuura, 2003).

The development of efficient therapies for hepatitis C has been hampered by the lack of a reliable cell-culture system, as well as by the absence of a non-primate animal model. The HCV replicon consists of an antibiotic selection marker and a genotype 1b HCV RNA, which replicates autonomously in the intracellular compartments in a human hepatoma cell line, Huh7 (Lohmann *et al.*, 1999). This replicon system has functioned as an important tool in the investigation of HCV replication and it has served as a cell-based assay system for the evaluation of antiviral compounds. Recently, cell culture systems for *in vitro* replication and infectious viral production were established based on the full-length HCV genome of genotype 2a, which was isolated from an HCV-infected patient who developed fulminant hepatitis (Lindenbach *et al.*, 2005; Wakita *et al.*, 2005; Zhong *et al.*, 2005). However, no robust *in vitro* culture systems for the 1a and 1b genotypes, which are the most prevalent HCV genotypes in the world, have been established to date.

Several viruses require viral and host molecular chaperones for entry, replication, and assembly, as well as for other steps in viral production (Maggioni and Braakman, 2005; Mayer, 2005). Cyclosporine A has been found to effectively inhibit viral replication in hepatitis C patients and in HCV replicon cells (Inoue *et al.*, 2003; Watashi *et al.*, 2003). Recently, it was shown that cyclophilin (Cyp) B specifically binds to NS5B and promotes association with the genomic RNA; furthermore, cyclosporine A was shown to disrupt interactions between NS5B and CypB (Watashi *et al.*, 2005). CypB belongs to the immunophilin family, which shares peptidyl propyl *cis/trans* isomerase (PPIase) activity and an affinity for the immunosuppressive drug (Fischer and Aumuller, 2003). Furthermore, blockades of CypA, CypB, and CypC, as well as the induction of cellular stress responses, have been suggested to be involved in cyclosporine A-induced reduction of HCV RNA replication (Nakagawa *et al.*, 2005). However, the involvement of other immunophilins in HCV RNA replication is not yet well understood.

HCV nonstructural protein 5A (NS5A) is a membrane-anchored phosphoprotein that possesses multiple functions in viral replication, IFN resistance, and pathogenesis (Macdonald and Harris, 2004). NS5A contains a zinc metal-binding motif within the N-terminal domain, and this zinc-binding ability is known to be essential for HCV replication (Tellinghuisen *et al.*, 2004, 2005). Adaptive mutations frequently mapped in the coding region of NS5A have been shown to increase RNA replication (Yi and Lemon, 2004; Appel *et al.*, 2005) and they are known to affect the hyperphosphorylation of NS5A by an unknown host kinase (Koch and Bartenschlager, 1999; Neddermann *et al.*, 1999; Pietschmann

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et al, 2001). RNA replication in HCV replicon cells has been shown to be inhibited by treatment with lovastatin, a drug that decreases the production of mevalonate by inhibiting 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase; this inhibition of RNA replication was reversed by the addition of geranylgeraniol, which suggests that HCV RNA replication requires geranylgeranylated proteins (Ye *et al*, 2003; Kapadia and Chisari, 2005). A NS5A-pull-down assay identified a geranylgeranylated protein, FBL2, as a NS5A-binding protein (Wang *et al*, 2005). Although several host proteins could potentially interact with NS5A, little is known about NS5A function.

To gain a better understanding of the functional role of NS5A in HCV replication, we screened human libraries by employing a yeast two-hybrid system and using NS5A as bait. We thereby successfully identified FKBP8 as an NS5A-binding protein. FKBP8 is classified as a member of the FK506-binding protein family, but it lacks several amino-acid residues thought to be important for PPLase activity and FK506 binding (Lam *et al*, 1995). We demonstrated here that FKBP8 forms a complex with Hsp90 and NS5A, and that this complex is critical for HCV replication, as based on the finding that treatment of the HCV replicon cells with geldanamycin, an inhibitor of Hsp90, suppressed RNA replication. These results therefore suggest that protein complex formation with NS5A, FKBP8, and Hsp90 plays a crucial role in HCV RNA replication.

Results

Identification of human FKBP8 as an HCV NS5A-binding partner

To identify host proteins that specifically interact with NS5A, we screened human brain and liver libraries using a yeast two-hybrid system that employs NS5A as bait. One positive clone was isolated from among 2 million colonies of the human fetal brain library, and the nucleotide sequence of this clone was determined. Several positive clones were isolated from the human liver library, but most of these clones included exon fragments of other than FKBP and/or noncoding regions. A BLAST search revealed that the positive clone encodes a full-length coding region of FKBP38, human FK506-binding protein 38 kDa. Although FKBP38 has been isolated from human and mouse mRNA (Lam *et al*, 1995), an additional sequence at the N-terminus of FKBP38 was revealed based on an analysis of the transcriptional start site in the genomic sequences of FKBP38 (Nielsen *et al*, 2004). The isoforms of FKBP38 were designated as FKBP8, which includes splicing variants of 44 and 46 kDa in mice, and 45 kDa in humans corresponds to the 44 kDa of the mouse FKBP8 (Nielsen *et al*, 2004). Human FKBP8 is identical to FKBP38 except for the extra 58 amino-acid residues at the N-terminus, and the FK506-binding domain in the N-terminal half, followed by three sets of tetratricopeptide repeats (TPRs), a calmodulin binding site, and a transmembrane domain (Figure 1A). Because the levels of expression of FKBP8 and FKBP38 have not been well characterized in human cell lines, we generated a mouse monoclonal antibody against human FKBP8, and we designated it as clone KDM19. This antibody recognizes a 50-kDa of endogenous FKBP8 in 293T cells, as well as exogenous HA-tagged FKBP8 (HA-FKBP8), which has slightly greater molecular weight (Figure 1B). Although the KDM19 antibody detected an exogenous HA-tagged FKBP38 (HA-FKBP38) in 293T cells, no protein band corresponding to

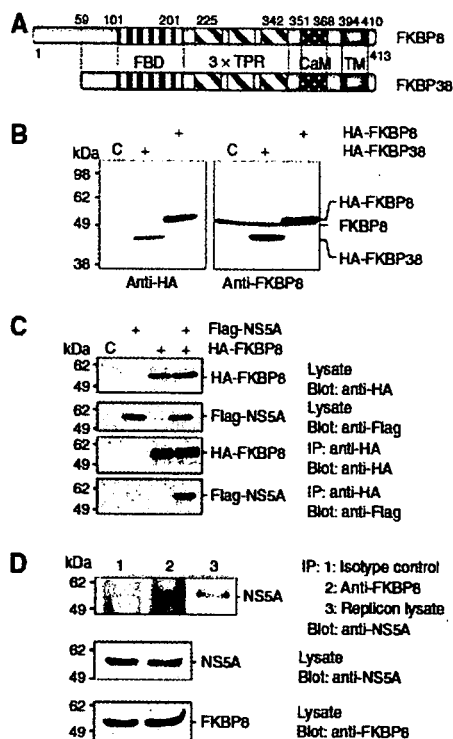


Figure 1 Expression of FKBP8 and FKBP38 in mammalian cells. (A) Schematic representation of FKBP8 and FKBP38. The FK506-binding domain (FBD), tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR), putative calmodulin binding motif (CaM), and transmembrane domain (TM) are shown. (B) N-terminally HA-tagged FKBP8 and FKBP38 were expressed in 293T cells and visualized by immunoblotting using mouse monoclonal antibody to FKBP8 or the HA tag. (C) HA-FKBP8 was expressed together with Flag-NS5A of genotype 1b (J1) in 293T cells and was immunoprecipitated with anti-HA antibody. Immunoprecipitated proteins were subjected to immunoblot with anti-Flag or HA antibody. (D) Endogenous FKBP8 in HCV replicon (9–13) cells was immunoprecipitated with isotype control (lane 1) or anti-FKBP8 antibody, KDM-11 (lane 2). Endogenous FKBP8 was co-immunoprecipitated with HCV NS5A. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments.

endogenous FKBP38 was detected. Similar results were obtained in human liver tissue and in the hepatoma cell lines Huh7, HepG2, and FLC-4 (data not shown). These findings suggest that FKBP8, but not FKBP38, is a major product in human cells. In order to examine whether or not FKBP8 binds to NS5A protein in mammalian cells, Flag-tagged NS5A (Flag-NS5A) was expressed together with HA-FKBP8 in 293T cells. Cells transfected with the expression plasmids were harvested at 48-h post-transfection, lysed, and subjected to immunoprecipitation. Flag-NS5A was co-precipitated with HA-FKBP8 by anti-HA antibody (Figure 1C). Flag-NS5A was also immunoprecipitated together with HA-FKBP38, suggesting that the extra N-terminal sequence of FKBP8 is not critical for NS5A binding (data not shown). To further confirm the specific interaction of HCV NS5A with endogenous FKBP8, this interaction was examined in Huh7(9–13) cells harboring subgenomic HCV RNA replicon. Endogenous FKBP8 was co-precipitated with HCV NS5A by anti-FKBP8 antibody (Figure 1D). To determine the direct interaction between FKBP8 and NS5A, His₆-tagged FKBP8 (His-FKBP8) and thioredoxin-fused domain 1 of NS5A (Trx-NS5A) prepared in *Escherichia coli* were examined by pull-down

analysis. Trx-NS5A was co-precipitated with His-FKBP8 by anti-FKBP8 antibody (Supplementary Figure 1), suggesting that FKBP8 can directly bind to NS5A domain I.

In order to investigate the interaction of FKBP8 with the NS5A of other HCV genotypes, HA-tagged NS5A (HA-NS5A) proteins of genotype 1a (H77C), 1b (Con1 and J1), or 2a (JFH1) were expressed together with Flag-tagged FKBP8 (Flag-FKBP8) in 293T cells (Figure 2A). Flag-FKBP8 was co-immunoprecipitated with the HA-NS5As of all of the genotypes examined here by anti-HA antibody, although it should be noted that the interaction between Flag-FKBP8 and the HA-NS5A of genotype 2a was weaker than that of the other genotypes tested. Furthermore, the HA-NS5As were co-precipitated with Flag-FKBP8 by anti-Flag antibody (Figure 2A, bottom panel). The TPR domain of FKBP8 is known to be responsible for protein-protein interactions. Among the immunophilins, FKBP8 shares high homology with CypD and FKBP52, both of which contain three tandem repeats of TPR, as does FKBP8 (Boguski *et al*, 1990; Hirano *et al*, 1990). However, co-immunoprecipitation of Flag-NS5A with HA-FKBP52 and HA-CypD by anti-Flag or anti-HA antibody was not successful (Figure 2B). These results indicate that FKBP8 specifically interacts with NS5A.

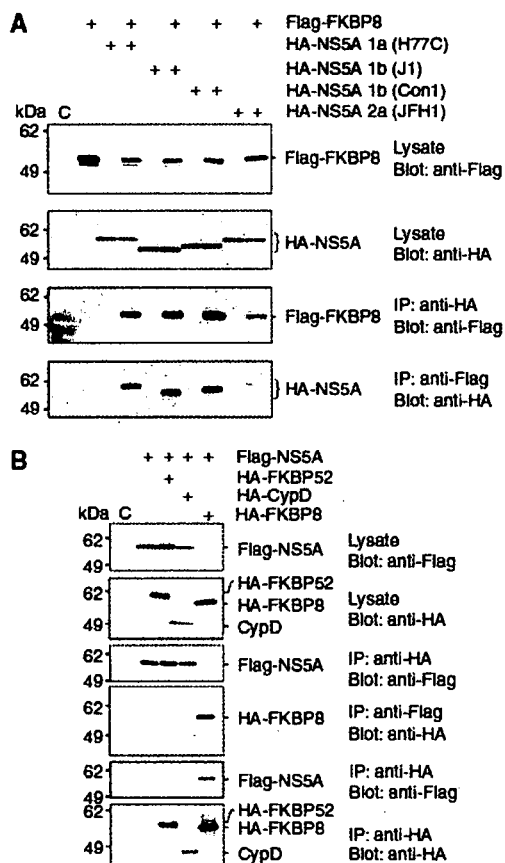


Figure 2 Specific interaction between FKBP8 and NS5A. (A) HA-NS5As were obtained from several genotypes of HCV and were expressed with Flag-FKBP8 in 293T cells. Proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-HA or Flag antibody were subjected to Western blotting. (B) Flag-NS5A was coexpressed with HA-FKBP8, -CypD, or -FKBP52 in 293T cells. Proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-HA or -Flag tag antibody were subjected to Western blotting. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments.

The TPR domain is required for the interaction between NS5A and FKBP8

FKBP8, CypD, and FKBP52 have high similarity and identity to each other within the TPR domain (Lam *et al*, 1995). Several FKBP8 mutants lacking the transmembrane region, the calmodulin-binding region, the TPR domains, and/or the FK506-binding domain were generated in order to identify the region responsible for the interaction with NS5A (Figure 3A). HA-tagged FKBP8 mutants were coexpressed with Flag-NS5A in 293T cells and were immunoprecipitated with anti-HA antibody. Flag-NS5A was co-immunoprecipitated with the FKBP8 mutants, except in the case of a dTPR mutant lacking the transmembrane, calmodulin binding, and TPR domains (Figure 3B). Although the level of expression of dFBD, an FKBP8 mutant with a deletion in the N-terminal region containing the FK506-binding domain, was lower than that of dTPR, co-immunoprecipitated NS5A was clearly detected. These findings suggested that the lack of an association of dTPR with NS5A was not due to the relatively low level of expression of dTPR, as compared to those of the other FKBP8 mutants. A specific interaction of NS5A with the TPR domain, but not with the transmembrane, calmodulin binding, or FK506-binding domains of FKBP8, was also observed using the yeast two-hybrid system (data not shown). These results indicated that FKBP8 interacts with HCV NS5A through the TPR domain.

FKBP8 forms a homomultimer and a heteromultimer with NS5A

FKBP8 is similar to FKBP52 and CypD with respect to their amino-acid sequences and functional domains. In order to examine the interactions among FKBP8, FKBP52, and CypD,

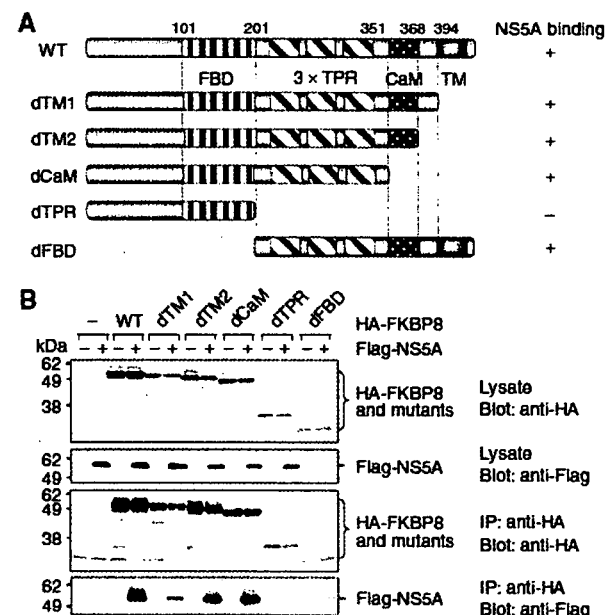


Figure 3 Determination of the NS5A-binding region in FKBP8. (A) Schematic representation of FKBP8 and deleted mutants. (B) Flag-NS5A was coexpressed with HA-FKBP8 and its mutants in 293T cells. Proteins immunoprecipitated with anti-HA antibody were subjected to Western blotting. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments.

Flag-FKBP8 was coexpressed with HA-FKBP52, HA-CypD, or HA-FKBP8 in 293T cells and it was immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag or anti-HA antibody. Flag-FKBP8 and HA-FKBP8 were co-immunoprecipitated with each antibody, but not with HA-FKBP52 or HA-CypD. It is known that Hsp90 forms a homodimer and also interacts with FKBP52 through TPR domain as FKBP8 (Chadli *et al*, 2000). If homodimer of FKBP8 is due to intermediating of Hsp90 as FKBP8-Hsp90-Hsp90-FKBP8 complex, FKBP52 would be co-precipitated with FKBP8 as FKBP8-Hsp90-Hsp90-FKBP52. However, we could not detect any association of FKBP8 and FKBP52 in the immunoprecipitation analysis (Figure 4A). These data suggest that FKBP8 can form a homomultimer without Hsp90 and associate with neither FKBP52 nor CypD through Hsp90. To examine the effects of the interaction with NSSA on the homomultimerization of FKBP8, HA-NSSA was co-expressed with Flag-FKBP8 and Glu-Glu-tagged FKBP8 (EE-FKBP8) in 293T cells, and was then immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag or anti-EE antibody. HA-NSSA was co-immunoprecipitated with Flag-FKBP8 and EE-FKBP8 by anti-Flag or anti-EE antibody (Figure 4B). Although multimerization of EE-FKBP8 and Flag-FKBP8 was increased about 2 times in the presence of HA-NSSA, but no further increase of the multimerization of FKBP8 was observed by the increase of HA-NSSA expression (Figure 4C). These results further support the notion that NSSA binds to FKBP8 via the TPR domain and slightly influence homomultimerization exerted by the FK506-binding domain.

Knockdown of FKBP8 decreases RNA replication in HCV replicon cells

In order to determine the role of endogenous FKBP8 on HCV RNA replication, 80 nM of small interfering RNA (siRNA) targeted to FKBP8 or control siRNA was transfected into Huh7 (9–13) cells harboring subgenomic HCV replicon RNA. To verify the specificity of the knockdown of FKBP mRNA, we synthesized three siRNAs targeted to different regions of FKBP8 (Targets 1–3). The total RNA was extracted from the transfected cells, and HCV RNA and FKBP8 mRNA levels were determined by real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR). HCV subgenomic RNA and FKBP8 mRNA levels in the cells transfected with each of the FKBP8 siRNAs were reduced by more than 60%, as compared to the levels in cells treated with the control siRNA at 72 h post-transfection (Figure 5A). The levels of expression of FKBP8 and the HCV proteins (i.e., NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B) decreased in HCV replicon cells transfected with 80 or 160 nM of the FKBP8 siRNA (Target 1), but this was not observed in the cells with the control siRNA (Figure 5B). To further confirm the specificity of the reduction in HCV RNA replication in the replicon cells putatively achieved by the knockdown of FKBP8, a plasmid encoding Flag-FKBP8 containing either a silent mutation within the siRNA target sequence (Flag-rFKBP8) or empty plasmid was transfected into the HCV replicon cells and then selection was carried out with the appropriate antibiotics. The remaining cells, that is, Huh7rFKBP8 and Huh7c cells, harboring the Flag-rFKBP8

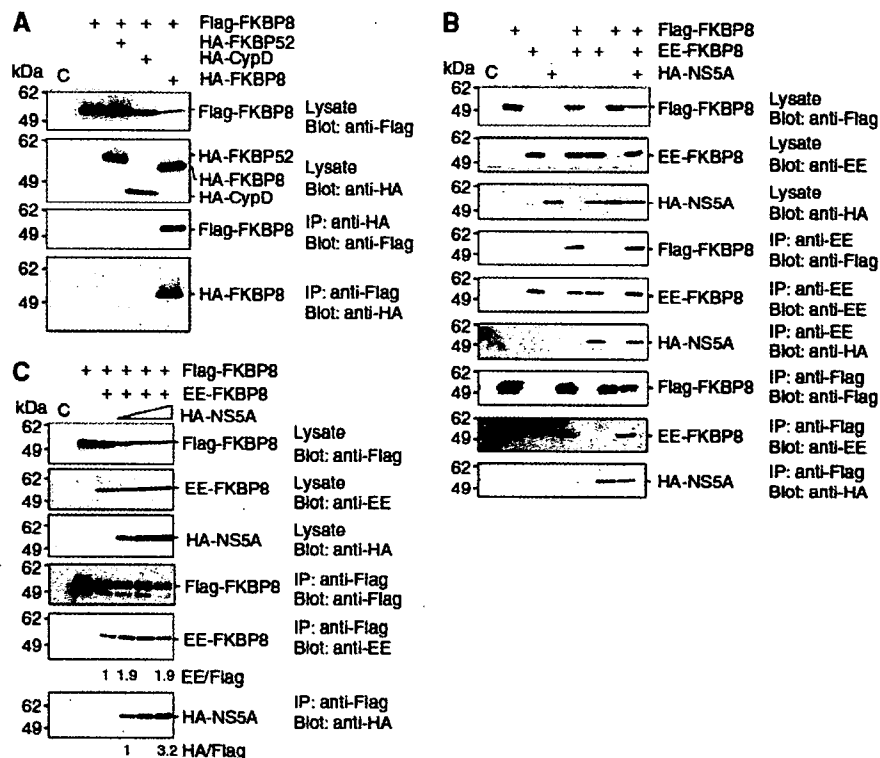


Figure 4 Homomultimerization of FKBP8. (A) Flag-FKBP8 was coexpressed with HA-FKBP52, -CypD, or -FKBP8 in 293T cells, and was immunoprecipitated with anti-HA or Flag antibody. Precipitates were analyzed by Western blotting. (B) Flag- or EE-tagged FKBP8 was coexpressed with HA-NSSA in 293T cells and was immunoprecipitated with anti-EE or Flag antibody. Precipitates were analyzed by Western blotting. (C) Flag- and EE-tagged FKBP8 were coexpressed with increasing amounts of HA-NSSA (0.1, 0.2, and 0.4 μ g of expression plasmid/well) in 293T cells. Immunoprecipitates with anti-Flag antibody were analyzed by Western blotting. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments.

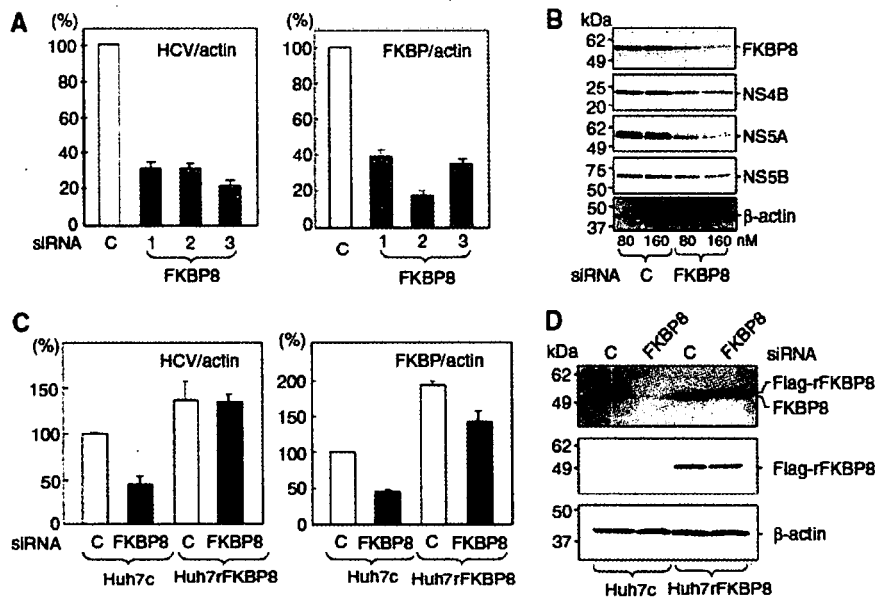


Figure 5 Decrease in HCV RNA by FKBP8-targeted siRNA. (A) HCV replicon cells (9–13 cells) were transfected with each of three kinds of siRNA targeted to FKBP8 or nontargeted siRNA at a final concentration of 80 nM. Transfected cells were collected at 72 h post-transfection, and FKBP8 mRNA and HCV RNA levels were determined by real-time PCR after being normalized with β -actin mRNA. (B) HCV replicon cells transfected with 80 and 160 nM of Target 1 or nontargeted siRNA were harvested at 72 h post-transfection, and the samples were analyzed by immunoblotting. (C) HCV replicon cells expressing Flag-rFKBP8 mutant (Huh7rFKBP8) or control cells (Huh7c) were transfected with Target 1 (gray bars) or nontargeted (white bars) siRNA at a concentration of 80 nM. Transfected cells were harvested at 72 h post-transfection, and HCV RNA (left) and FKBP8 mRNA (right) were measured by real-time PCR and expressed as % increase after being normalized with the expression of β -actin mRNA. (D) Levels of expression of endogenous FKBP8, exogenous Flag-rFKBP8, and β -actin in the replicon cells after transfection of the siRNAs were determined by immunoblotting using specific antibodies. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments.

and empty plasmid, respectively, were pooled and then transfected with the FKBP8 siRNA (Target 1) or control siRNA. Although transfection of the FKBP8 siRNA led to a 60% reduction of HCV RNA and FKBP8 mRNA in Huh7c cells, in comparison with levels in cells transfected with the control siRNA, no reduction in HCV RNA, and only a slight reduction in FKBP8 mRNA levels were observed in Huh7rFKBP8 cells (Figure 5C). Flag-rFKBP8 expression was clearly detected in Huh7rFKBP8 cells after transfection with the FKBP8 siRNA or control siRNA, whereas the endogenous FKBP8 decreased in both Huh7rFKBP8 and Huh7c cells with the FKBP8 siRNA (Figure 5D). These findings suggest that the slight reduction of FKBP8 mRNA in the Huh7rFKBP8 cells was due to a loss of endogenous FKBP8. Knockdown of FKBP8 by siRNA induce no apoptosis in a hepatoma cell line (Supplementary Figure 2). These results therefore confirmed that the inhibition of HCV RNA replication by FKBP8 siRNA was due to a specific reduction in the mRNA of FKBP8, but was not due to a nonspecific reduction of any other host mRNA.

To further examine the involvement of FKBP8 on HCV replication, we established a line of Huh7 cells that stably expresses shRNA targeted to FKBP8. Huh7 was transfected with pSilencer 2.1 U6 hygro containing the cDNA of shRNA to FKBP8, and then selection was carried out with hygromycin. FKBP8 was detected in Huh7 cells harboring a control plasmid (Huh7N), whereas decreased expression of FKBP8 was clearly observed in cells expressing the shRNA to FKBP8 (Huh7FKBP8KD) (Figure 6A). In order to examine the effects of the knockdown of FKBP8 on HCV RNA replication, a chimeric HCV RNA containing the *Renilla* luciferase gene was transfected into these cell lines. Although the chimeric

HCV RNA exhibited 5.5 times higher replication than a replication deficient GND mutant RNA in Huh7N, only a doubling of the levels of replication was observed in Huh7FKBP8KD (Figure 6B). Furthermore, HCV RNA containing a neomycin-resistant gene was transfected into the cell lines in order to examine the role played by FKBP8 in HCV RNA replication. The efficiency of colony formation in Huh7N and Huh7FKBP8KD cells with the HCV RNA were 1700 and 23 colonies/ μ g RNA, respectively (Figure 6C). We also examined the role of FKBP8 on the cell culture system for HCV infection. The siRNA-mediated knockdown of FKBP8 impaired both intracellular viral RNA replication and release of HCV core protein into the culture supernatants (Figure 6D). These results further confirmed that FKBP8 plays a crucial role in the efficient replication of HCV RNA.

FKBP8 forms a multicomplex with NS5A and Hsp90

To identify the cellular proteins that associate with FKBP8, we employed a purification strategy using an MEF affinity tag composed of myc and FLAG tags fused in tandem and separated by a spacer sequence containing a TEV protease cleavage site (myc-TEV-FLAG) (Ichimura *et al*, 2005). The MEF expression cassette fused with FKBP8 was transfected into 293T cells and the cells were immunoprecipitated. The endogenous FKBP8-binding proteins bound to the Flag beads were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) and were then visualized by silver staining. The visible protein bands were excised and determined by a nanoflow LC–MS/MS system. Major protein bands with a molecular size of 94 and 53 kDa were identified as Hsp90 and FKBP8, respectively, although it should be