quired for modulating polymerase activity, are involved in catalyzing HCV RNA synthesis during the replication process. NS3 is directly involved in RNA synthesis, possibly through its helicase/NTPase activities. The helicase activity is presumed to be involved in unwinding a putative double-stranded replication intermediate or to remove regions of secondary structure so that MS5B RdRp can copy both strands of the viral RNA. It is likely that the NTPase activity is coupled with the helicase function, supplying the energy required for disrupting RNA duplexes. Although little is known about the function of NS4B in the HCV life cycle to date, NS4B protein can induce a membranous web, consisting of small vesicles embedded in a membranous matrix,[110] and it has been reported that the newly synthesized HCV RNA and most of the viral nonstructural proteins occur in these membrane webs or speckle-like structures.[111–113] NS4B may play an important role in the formation of the HCV RNA replication complex.[114] Evidence indicating an involvement of NS5A in viral RNA replication is now accumulating. As described above, a hot spot of the cell culture-adaptive mutations that increase replication efficiency of HCV RNA is located in the central region of NS5A.[29–31] The membrane association of NS5A through its amino-terminal transmembrane domain[115] and the interaction between NS5A and 5B[116] are essential for RNA replication. Several cellular proteins interacting with NS5A have been identified, and human vesicle-associated membrane protein-associated proteins (hVAP-A and -B) are likely to play a key role in RNA replication through the interaction with NS5A.[114,117] The 3′ NTR also contains a significant predicted RNA structure with three distinct domains: a variable region of about 40 nt, a variable length poly(U/UC) tract, and a highly conserved, 98-nt 3′ terminal segment (3′X) that putatively forms three stem–loop structures.[118–120] Viral RNA replication was not detected when any of the three putative stem–loop structures within the 3′X region or the entire poly(U/UC) was deleted.[121] The variable region segment also contributes to efficient RNA replication.[122]

Several groups have succeeded in demonstrating the in vitro replication activities of HCV RCs in crude membrane fractions of cells harboring the subgenomic replicons.[123–126] These cell-free systems provide a valuable complement to the in vitro RdRp assays for biochemical dissection of HCV RNA replication and are a useful source for isolation of viral RCs. From the in vitro replication studies, it appears that RNA synthesis can be initiated in the absence of added negative-strand template RNA, suggesting that preinitiated template RNA copurifies with the RC.[124,125,127] Although the newly synthesized single-strand RNA can be used as a template for a further round of double-strand RNA synthesis, no exogenous RNA serves as a template for

HCV RC preparation.[125] Added RNA templates might not access the active site of the HCV RCs owing to sequestration by membranes. The HCV RCs contain both positive- and negative-strand RNAs.[124,127] It has also been reported that cell-free replication activity increases at temperatures ranging from 25° to 40°C, and divalent cations (Mn^{2+} and Mg^{2+}) can be used in the reaction.[125,127]

Membrane flotation analysis and a replication assay have shown that viral RNA and proteins are present in detergent-resistant membrane structures, most likely a lipid-raft structure, and RNA replication activity was detected even after treatment with detergent.[123,128] Lipid rafts are cholesterol- and sphingolipid–rich microdomains characterized by detergent insolubility.[129–131] These structures are known to play a critical role in a number of biological processes, such as as regulators and organizing centers of signal transduction and membrane traffic pathways, including virus entry and assembly of, for example, influenza virus,[132–134] human immunodeficiency virus type-1,[27,135,136] Ebola virus, Marburg virus,[137] enterovirus,[138] avian sarcoma and leukosis virus,[139] Coxsackie B virus, adenovirus,[140] measles virus,[16] and respiratory syncytial virus.[141] However, HCV may be the first example of the association of a lipid raft with viral RNA replication.

On the other hand, it has been widely believed that most of the HCV life cycle, including protein processing and genome replication, takes place in the ER, where cholesterol–sphingolipid rafts are not assembled.[110,142–144] Several studies using the replicon system have indicated that the nonstructural proteins are associated with the ER.[143,145] Nevertheless, it is still possible that HCV nonstructural proteins synthesized at the ER relocalize to lipid-raft membranes when they are actively engaged in RNA replication. It has been shown by membrane separation analysis that HCV nonstructural proteins are present both in the ER and the Golgi, but the activity of viral RNA replication was detected mainly in the Golgi fraction.[123,146] Further studies to elucidate where and how the HCV genome replicates in infected cells are needed.

Viral assembly

The assembly of HCV and the virion structure remains largely unknown. By analogy with related viruses, the mature HCV virion presumably possesses a nucleocapsid and outer envelope composed of a lipid membrane and envelope proteins. HCV virions are thought to have a diameter of 40–70 nm.[147,148] These observations were recently confirmed by immunoelectron microscopy of infectious HCV particles produced in cell cultures.[45,52] It has been reported that HCV circulates in various forms

in the sera of infected hosts, for example, as (1) free mature virions, (2) virions bound to low-density lipoproteins and very low density lipoproteins, (3) virions bound to immunoglobulins, and (4) nonenveloped nucleocapsids, which exhibit physicochemical and antigenic properties.[147-150]

The HCV structural proteins (core, E1, and E2) are located in the N-terminal one-third of the precursor polyprotein (Fig. 1). A crucial function of the core protein, which is derived from the N-terminus of the viral polyprotein, is assembly of the viral nucleocapsid. The aa sequence of this protein is well conserved among different HCV strains, compared with other HCV proteins. The N-terminal domain of the core protein is highly basic, while its C-terminus is hydrophobic. When expressed in mammalian cells and transgenic mice, the core protein is found on membranes of the ER, on the surface of lipid droplets, on the mitochondrial outer membrane, and, to some extent, in the nucleus.[151-156] The core protein is likely multifunctional and is not only involved in formation of the HCV virion but also has a number of regulatory functions, including modulation of lipid metabolism and hepatocarcinogenesis.[153,157-159] The envelope proteins E1 and E2 are extensively glycosylated and have an apparent molecular weight of 30–35 and 70–75 kDa, respectively. Predictive algorithms and genetic analyses of deletion mutants and glycosylation-site variants of the E1 protein suggest that E1 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.[160] E1 and E2 proteins form a noncovalent complex, which is believed to be the building block of the viral envelope.

Several expression systems have been used to investigate HCV capsid assembly using mammalian, insect, yeast, bacteria, and reticulocyte lysates, as well as purified recombinant proteins.[148,161-170] The results suggest that immunogenic nucleocapsid-like particles are heterologous in size and range from 30 to 80 nm in diameter. The N-terminal half of the core protein is important for nucleocapsid formation.[163,169,170] HCV capsid formation occurs in the presence or absence of ER-derived membrane, which supports cleavage of the signal peptide at the C-terminus.[170]

Nucleocapsid assembly generally involves oligomerization of the capsid protein and encapsidation of genomic RNA. In fact, study of a recombinant mature core protein has shown it to exist as a large multimer in solution under physiological conditions, within which stable secondary structures have been observed.[171] Studies using yeast two-hybrid systems have identified a potential homotypic interaction domain within the N-terminal region of the core protein (aa 1–115 or –122), with particular emphasis on the region encom-

passing aa 82–102.[172,173] However, other studies have identified two C-terminal regions, extending from aa 123 to 191 and from 125 to 179, as responsible for self-interaction. Furthermore, Pro substitution within these C-terminal regions has been observed to abolish core protein self-interaction.[171,174] Circular dichroism spectroscopy has further shown that a Trp-rich region spanning aa 76–113 is largely solvent-exposed and unlikely to play a role in multimerization.[171] Recently, our group demonstrated that self-oligomerization of the core protein is promoted by aa 72–91 in the core.[160]

Once a HCV nucleocapsid is formed in the cytoplasm, it acquires an envelope as it buds through intracellular membranes. Interactions between the core and E1/E2 proteins are considered to determine viral morphology. Expression of HCV structural proteins using recombinant virus vectors has led to successful generation of virus-like particles with similar ultrastructural properties to HCV virions. Packaging of these HCV-like particles into intracellular vesicles as a result of budding from the ER has been noted.[161,175,176] Mapping studies to determine the nature of interaction between core and E1 proteins have demonstrated the importance of C-terminal regions in this interaction.[177,178] Since corresponding sequences are not well conserved among various HCV isolates, interactions between core and E1 proteins might depend more on hydrophobicity than on specific sequences. By contrast, it has been shown 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 protein.[160]

Implication of the ubiquitin–proteasome pathway in core protein maturation

The ubiquitin–proteasome pathway is the major route by which selective protein degradation occurs in eukaryotic cells and is now emerging as an essential mechanism of cellular regulation.[179,180] This pathway is also involved in the posttranslational regulation of the core protein.[158,181-183] We have reported that processing at the carboxyl-terminal hydrophobic domain of the core protein leads to its efficient polyubiquitylation and proteasomal degradation.[181] Recently, our group identified the ubiquitin ligase E6AP as an HCV core-binding protein and showed that E6AP enhances ubiquitylation and degradation of the mature as well as the carboxyl-terminally truncated core proteins, and that the core protein produced from infectious HCV is degraded via an E6AP-dependent pathway (Fig. 3).[183] E6AP, the prototype of HECT domain ubiquitin ligases,[184] was initially identified as the cellular factor that stimulates ubiquitin-dependent degradation of the tumor suppres-

sor p53 in conjunction with E6 protein of cancer-associated human papillomavirus types 16 and 18.[185,186] Exogenous expression of E6AP reduces intracellular core protein levels and supernatant viral infectivity in infected cell cultures. Knockdown of exogenous E6AP by siRNA increases intracellular core protein levels and virus titers in the culture supernatants. The core protein interacts with E6AP through the aa 58–71 region of the core, which is highly conserved among all HCV genotypes, suggesting that E6AP-dependent degradation of the core protein is common to a variety of HCV isolates and plays a critical role in the HCV life cycle or viral pathogenesis.

A role for the proteasome activator PA28γ core-binding protein in degradation of the core protein has also been demonstrated (Fig. 3).[158,182] Overexpression of PA28γ promotes proteolysis of the core protein. PA28γ predominates in the nucleus and forms a homopolymer, which associates with the 20S proteasome,[187] thereby enhancing proteasomal activity.[188] Both nuclear retention and core protein stability are regulated via a PA28γ-dependent pathway.

In eukaryotic cells, targeted protein degradation is increasingly understood to be an important mechanism by which cells regulate levels of specific proteins, and thereby regulate their function. The core protein is believed to play a key role in viral replication and pathogenesis since it forms the viral particle and regulates a number of host cell functions. Although the biological significance of ubiquitylation and proteasomal degradation of the core protein is not fully understood, E6AP possibly affects the production of HCV particles through controlling the amount of core protein (Fig. 3). This mechanism may contribute to virus persistence by maintaining a (moderately) low level of the viral nucleocapsid. The E6AP binding domain within the core protein resides in the region that is considered to be important for binding to the viral RNA and several host factors.[189] These factors may affect the interaction between the core and E6AP, resulting in control of E6AP-dependent core degradation. A recent study demonstrated that a knockdown of the *PA28γ* gene induces the accumulation of the core protein in the nucleus of hepatocytes of HCV core gene-transgenic mice and disrupts development of both hepatic steatosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.[158] Upregulation of several genes related to fatty acid biosynthesis and lipid homeostasis by the core protein was observed in the cells and the mouse liver in the PA28γ-dependent manner. Thus, it is likely that PA28γ plays an important role in the development of liver pathology induced by HCV infection.

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Dynamic behavior of hepatitis C virus quasispecies in a long-term culture of the three-dimensional radial-flow bioreactor system

Kyoko Murakami[a], Yasushi Inoue[a,b], Su-Su Hmwe[a,c], Kazuhiko Omata[a,d], Tomokatsu Hongo[e],
Koji Ishii[a], Sayaka Yoshizaki[a], Hideki Aizaki[a], Tomokazu Matsuura[f], Ikuo Shoji[a],
Tatsuo Miyamura[a], Tetsuro Suzuki[a,*]

[a] Department of Virology II, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, 1-23-1 Toyama, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan
[b] Pulmonary and Critical Care Unit, Mita Hospital, International University of Health and Welfare, Japan
[c] Department of Infectious Diseases, Internal Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
[d] Department of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery, The Nippon Dental University School of Dentistry at Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan
[e] ABLE Corporation, Shizuoka, Japan
[f] Department of Laboratory medicine, The Jikei University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

Abstract

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) exists in infected individuals as quasispecies, usually consisting of a dominant viral isolate and a variable mixture of related, yet genetically distinct, variants. A prior HCV infection system was developed using human hepatocellular carcinoma cells cultured in the three-dimensional radial-flow bioreactor (RFB), in which the cells retain morphological appearance and their differentiated hepatocyte functions for an extended period of time. This report studies the selection and alteration of the viral quasispecies in the RFB system inoculated with pooled serum derived from HCV carriers. Monitoring the viral RNA and core protein in the culture supernatants, together with nucleotide sequencing of hypervariable region 1 of the HCV genome, demonstrated that (1) the virus production intermittently fluctuated in the cultures, (2) the viral genetic diversity was markedly reduced 3 days post-infection (p.i.), and (3) dominant species changed on days 19–33 p.i., suggesting that the virus populations can be selected according to susceptibility to the viral infection and replication. A therapeutic effect of interferon-α also demonstrated the inhibition of HCV expression. Thus, this HCV infection model in the RFB system should be useful for investigating the dynamic behavior of HCV quasispecies in cultured cells and evaluating anti-HCV compounds.
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1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major cause of chronic liver diseases (Choo et al., 1989; Kuo et al., 1989; Saito et al., 1990) and has been estimated to infect more than 170 million people throughout the world (Poynard et al., 2003). Symptoms of persistent HCV infection extend from chronic hepatitis to cirrhosis and ultimately hepatocellular carcinoma (Choo et al., 1989; Kuo et al., 1989; Saito et al., 1990). HCV belongs to the genus *Hepacivirus*, included in the family of Flaviviridae, and possesses a viral genome of a single, positive-stranded RNA with

a nucleotide (nt) length of approximately 9.6 kb (Choo et al., 1991; Grakoui et al., 1993; Hijikata et al., 1991). It has been shown that HCV, like many other RNA viruses, circulates within infected individuals as a diverse population and closely related variants are referred to as quasispecies (Martell et al., 1992). This quasispecies model of mixed virus populations may imply a significant survival advantage because the simultaneous presence of multiple variant genomes and/or high rate of generation of new variants allow rapid selection of the mutants are better suited to new environmental conditions (Pawlotsky, 2006).

Studies on HCV replication and development of selective antiviral drugs have been hampered primarily by the lack of efficient cell culture systems. Establishment of selectable dicistronic HCV RNAs that are capable of autonomous replication to high levels in human hepatoma Huh-7 cells was a

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* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 3 5285 1111; fax: +81 3 5285 1161.
E-mail address: tesuzuki@nih.go.jp (T. Suzuki).

significant breakthrough in HCV research; however, virus production has not been observed in the conventional monolayer cultures (Blight et al., 2000; Lohmann et al., 1999). Recently, it has been described that infectious HCV particles are efficiently produced from a genotype 2a isolate JFH-1 in Huh-7 cells (Blight et al., 2000; Wakita et al., 2005; Zhong et al., 2005). This JFH-1 based HCV culture system is an invaluable achievement permitting a variety of studies on the complete HCV life cycle. However, HCV infection systems with human sera or plasmas containing intact virions are still limited because of low levels of propagation in the cultures. Reverse transcription (RT)-PCR was typically used to detect the viral RNA in cell extracts; however, synthesized viral proteins were not observed in these systems (Ikeda et al., 1998; Tagawa et al., 1995).

There are reports of differentiated human hepatoma FLC4 (functional liver cell 4) cells grown in a three-dimensional (3D) radial-flow bioreactor (RFB) that can be infected by HCV-positive serum and support viral replication (Aizaki et al., 2003). Furthermore, production and release of infectious HCV has been observed in the RFB system following transfection of FLC4 cells with *in vitro* transcribed HCV genomic RNA, as well as in a 3D system using Huh-7 cells harboring genome-length dicistronic RNAs (Murakami et al., 2006). The RFB system, in which the bioreactor column consists of a cylindrical matrix with porous bead microcarriers extended vertically, was aimed initially at developing artificial liver tissues and allows liver-derived cells to maintain morphological appearance as well as their physiological functions, such as the ability to synthesize albumin and drug-metabolizing activity mediated by cytochrome P450 (Iwahori et al., 2003). The radial-flow configuration permits full contact between culture medium and cells at a physiologic perfusion flow rate, and prevents excessive shear stresses and buildup of waste products, thus ensuring the long-term viability of 3D cell culture.

The aim of the present study was to characterize HCV dynamics in the RFB system during long-term cultures inoculated with pooled serum obtained from HCV carriers, and to examine the therapeutic effects of interferon-alpha (IFN-α) in this HCV infection model.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell cultures

FLC4 cells (Aoki et al., 1998), which were derived from human hepatocellular carcinoma cells and negative for HCV RNA and HBV DNA, were maintained in serum-free ASF104 medium (Ajinomoto, Japan) supplemented with 4 g/L D-glucose on the collagen-coated dishes before inoculating into the RFB column. The RFB system (ABLE, Japan) was manipulated as described previously (Aizaki et al., 2003) with minor modifications. Briefly, RFB columns, which have bed volumes of 30 or 4 mL and are filled with porous glass microcarriers (diameter 0.6 mm, vacant capacity 50%, pore size <120 μm) (Hongo et al., 2005), were seeded with FLC4 cells, which subsequently attached to the surface and inside of porous glass beads. ASF104 medium containing 2% fetal calf serum was added at a flow rate

of 50 mL/day, and the culture condition was automatically controlled by monitoring temperature, pH value and oxygen levels in the vessel throughout the duration of the study.

2.2. Infection of HCV-positive sera

HCV antibody-positive sera used in this study were blood donor samples supplied by The Japanese Red Cross Center, Tokyo, Japan. HCV RNA loads in the sera were as follows: serum A, 2.4×10^6 copies/mL; serum B, 8.6×10^6 copies/mL; serum C, 5.9×10^6 copies/mL; serum D, 2.5×10^6 copies/mL; serum E, 1.0×10^7 copies/mL; serum F, 1.4×10^7 copies/mL (Table 1). In the first experiment (Fig. 3), aliquots of each serum containing 2×10^6 copies of HCV RNA were mixed and pooled serum sample with 1.2×10^7 copies was prepared as an inoculum. The pooled serum (2.5 mL) was added to the 3D cultured-FLC4 cells in the 30-mL RFB column, and the culture medium was changed after 12 h of incubation. At various times during the culture period, culture medium (50 mL) was collected to determine HCV RNA and the core protein. Collected culture media were passed through a 0.20-μm filter to remove the debris, and stored at −80 °C. In the second experiment to evaluate a therapeutic effect of anti-HCV drug (Fig. 4), 4-mL RFB columns were used. IFN-α (Sumiferon 300; Sumitomo Pharmaceuticals, Japan) was added to one of two columns at a final concentration of 100 IU/mL after the infection. Culture medium was periodically collected for determination of HCV RNA, the core protein and transaminases, and was replaced with the same volume of fresh medium with or without IFN-α.

2.3. Quantitation of HCV RNA and core protein

HCV RNA was extracted from 140 μL of each serum or culture medium using QIAamp Viral RNA Mini spin column (QIAGEN); RNA was eluted in 60 μL of water and stored at −80 °C. Real-time RT-PCR was performed using TaqMan EZ RT-PCR Core Reagents (PE Applied Biosystems), as described previously (Aizaki et al., 2003; Suzuki et al., 2005). The viral core antigen in the culture medium was quantified by immunoassay (Ortho HCV-Core ELISA Kit; Ortho-Clinical Diagnotics), according to the manufacturer's instruction (Murakami et al., 2006).

2.4. PCR amplification and nucleotide sequencing of HVR1 domain and its flanking region

Five microliters of RNA samples prepared as above were reverse transcribed using SuperScript II (Invitrogen) and a specific primer 5′-CATCCATGTGCAGCCGAACC-3′ (corresponding to nucleotides [nt] 2006–1987 of HCV NIHJ1) (Aizaki et al., 1998). For the nested PCR, a genotype-independent set of primers specific for hypervariable region 1 (HVR1). The first round of PCR was performed with the outer sense primer 5′-GCATGGCTTGGGATATGATG-3′ (nt 1291–1310) and with the reverse transcription primer described above as the outer antisense primer. After the initial 3.5-min denaturation step at 94 °C, 35 PCR cycles, with each cycle

Table 1
HCV-positive sera used in this study

Serum	Clone	HCV HVR1 sequence	% in the serum	genotype
A	A1	KVLIVMLSFAGVDGSTRTIGGRTAHTTQGSASLFSSGPAQKIQLINTNGS	75	1
	A2	-------L-------N-H-V--AV-SS---FT---KL-----------S---	12.5	
	A3	-------L-------N-YAS---AGLL-R-V--I-TA-----------S---	12.5	
B	B1	KVVVILLLAAGVDAGTNTIGGSAAQTTSGFTGLFRSGARQNIQLINTNGS	50	2
	B2	---R	12.5	
	B3	---S--	12.5	
	B4	--L-V---F-----E-HVT--N-GR--A-LV--LTP--K----------	12.5	
	B5	--I---	12.5	
C	C1	KVLIVMLLFAGVDGDTHVSGGTQGRAAYGLASLFALGPTQKIQLVNTNGS	83.3	1
	C2	-------------------------------------A-----	16.7	
D	D1	KVLIVMLLFAGVDGVTHTSGAAAGHNARSLSGLFSLGSAQKLQLINTNGS	40	1
	D2	-------------A-Y---GT--Y-TKTFT-F--R-PS--I--------	20	
	D3	--------------------T--Y---T-T----P--------V-----	10	
	D4	---------------------V---T----P--------V-----	10	
	D5	------------------------------------V-----	10	
	D6	------------------------Y-T--FT----S------I--V-----	10	
E	E1	KVLIVMLLFAGVDGSTRVSGGQAGRVTKSLASFFSPGPQQKIQLVNSNGS	40	1
	E2	------------------------------HGFT-L--A-S-----------	30	
	E3	------------------------------QGFT-L--A-S----------	10	
	E4	------------------------------S-FT-L-TV------------	10	
	E5	---------------N-Y---------AH--T-L--A-S----------	10	
F	F1	KVLIVMLLFAGVDGETNVMGGRAGHTTNTFTSLFSVGPAQKIQLVNSNGS	37	1
	F2	---------------D-K--------S-L----N---S-----------	27	
	F3	-----------------K----Q-----S-L----N---S----------	18	
	F4	-----------------------A-------A--TK---------D----	9	
	F5	---------------G-------A--A--L----TR--S----------	9	

consisting of 1 min at 94 °C, 2 min at 45 °C, and 3 min at 72 °C, were carried out, followed by a 10-min extension step at 72 °C. The second round was performed with the inner sense primer 5'-GGTAAGCTTTCCATGGTGGGGAACTGGGC-3' (nt 1419–1447) and the inner antisense primer 5'-CTGGAATTCGCAGTCCTGTTGATGTGCCA-3' (nt 1627–1599). The amplified products were cloned into the pGEM-T vector (Promega), and at least 8 independent clones were sequenced with an automatic DNA sequencer (ABI PRISM 310, PE Applied Biosystems).

3. Results

3.1. The outline of the RFB system

The RFB system was initially aimed at developing artificial liver tissues and allows liver-derived cells to maintain morphological appearance as well as their physiological functions, such as the ability to synthesize albumin and drug-metabolizing activity mediated by cytochrome P450 (Iwahori et al., 2003). Fig. 1 shows the outline of the RFB system. The bioreactor column consists of a vertically extended cylindrical matrix with porous glass microcarriers, which were most suitable for FLC4 culture as described in Section 2. The conditioning vessel is connected to a circulation system including tanks either for supplying fresh medium or for recovering sample aliquots. Oxygen consump-

tion, temperature and pH of the culture medium are monitored continuously and conditioned in the vessel by computer and mass flow controller throughout the culture. Thus, the radial-flow configuration permits full contact between culture medium and cells at a physiologic perfusion flow rate, and prevents excessive shear stresses and a buildup of waste products, thus ensuring the long-term viability of 3D culture. For the long-term culture up to 110 days, temperature in the vessel gradually decreased from 37 to 30 °C as shown in Fig. 2A. The oxygen consumption, which indicates the cell growth condition, increased slowly from days 0 to 80 post-inoculation of the cells, and maintained a constant level afterwards. Under this condition, the production rate of albumin was found to be stable from days 15 to 105. The following experiments of HCV infection were done in such a stable phase of the cell condition after 3 weeks of pre-culture. Cell grown in the RFB column reached confluence at the end of culture (day 110) since the cells were observed outside the matrix bed (Fig. 2B).

3.2. Infection of HCV-positive sera to RFB cultured FLC4 cells

Previously, HCV RNA could be detected in FLC4 cells grown in the RFB up to 4 weeks of culture following inoculation with an HCV carrier plasmid (Aizaki et al., 2003). Establishment of a long-term stable culture system of human liver-derived cells
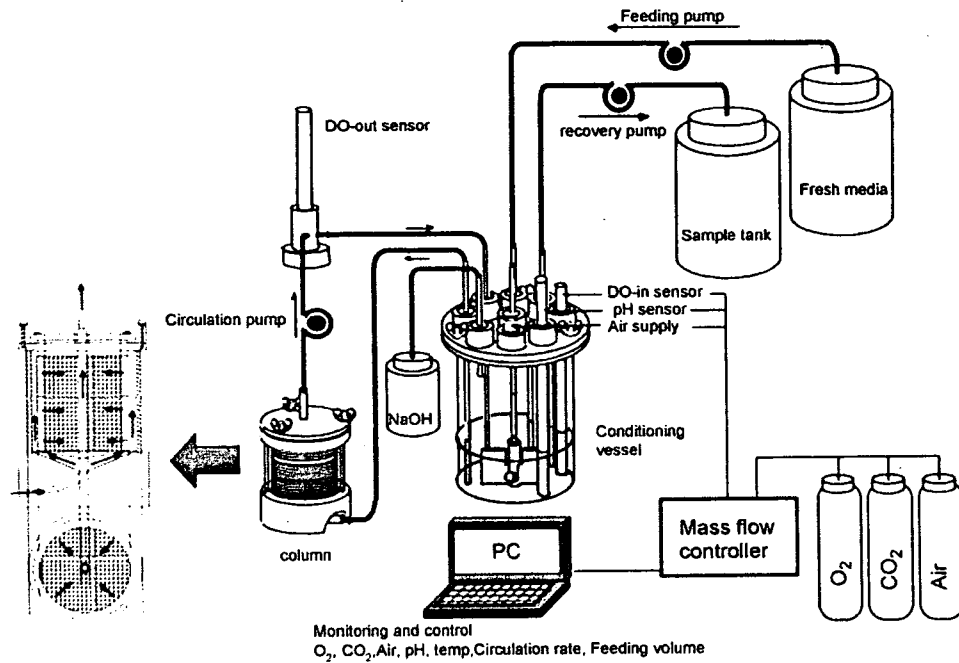
Fig. 1. Outline of the RFB system. RFB system consists of vessel, column and PC monitoring system. Culture condition was automatically controlled: oxgen concentration, temperature, pH, and oxgen level in the conditioning vessel are continuously monitored by PC and conditioned by mass flow controller.

retaining their differentiated hepatocyte function, as described above, enables evaluations of dynamic analysis of HCV replication and selection of viral variability and quasispecies. The potential of this culture system for screening HCV-positive sera was well suited for the viral infection.

Table 1 shows the serum samples (A–F) from six HCV carriers. The nucleotide complexity of HCV in serum samples was determined by sequencing the 1449–1598 nt region of the HCV genome, which includes HVR1 located at the N-terminal region of E2. Each serum was a mixture of a dominant HCV clone and related but distinct viral populations. The dominant species in

sera A, C, D, E, and F were found to be genotype 1, and that in serum B was genotype 2. Viral loads in A–F, respectively, were 2.4×10^6, 8.6×10^6, 5.9×10^6, 2.5×10^6, 1.0×10^7 and 1.4×10^7 copies/mL, which were determined by real-time RT-PCR, as previously described (Aizaki et al., 2003; Suzuki et al., 2005). HCV loads of 2×10^6 copies from each serum sample were mixed to prepare a pooled serum sample containing 1.2×10^7 copies of HCV RNA. After FLC4 cells were inoculated into the RFB and subjected to 2 weeks of pre-culture for the preparation of 3D culture, the cells were infected with the pooled serum. Cell number at infection was about 10^8 in the 30-
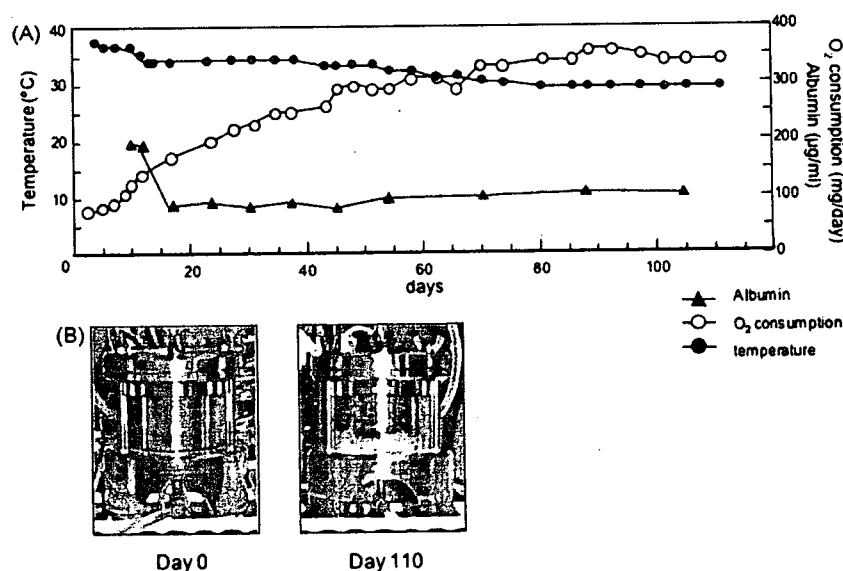

Fig. 2. Long-term culture of FLC4 cells in the RFB system. (A) Long-term culture of FLC4 cells in the RFB system. Temperature (closed circles) was gradually decreased from 37 to 30 °C. Oxygen consumption (open circles) was gradually increased from days 0 to 80 and reached the steady-state level. Albumin concentration (closed triangles) was constant from days 15 to 105. (B) The appearance of the RFB column at the beginning (day 0) and at the end (day 110) of culture.
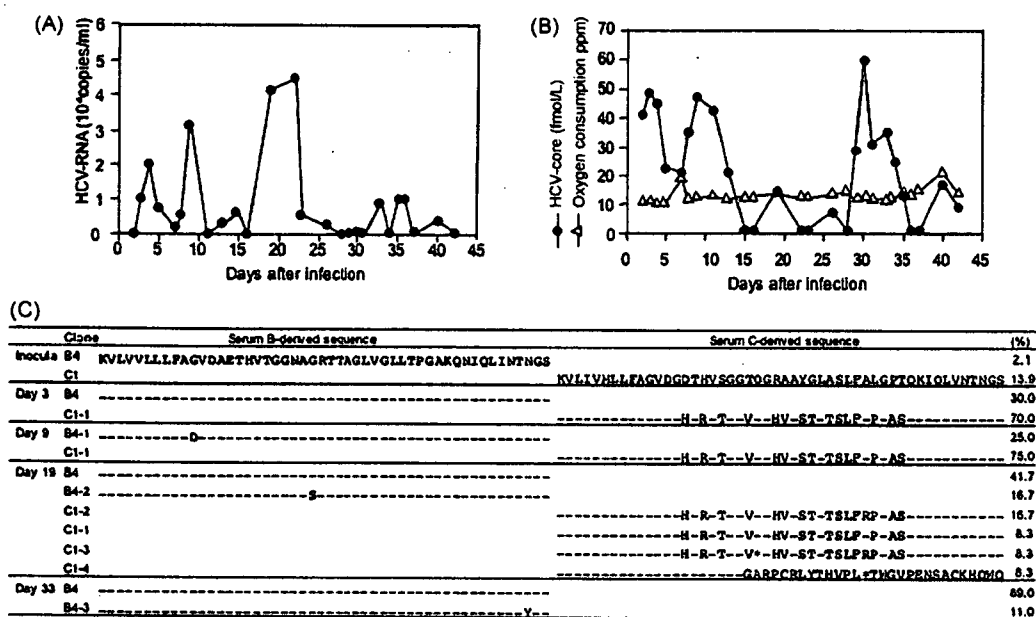
Fig. 3. HCV propagation in FLC4 cells cultured in the RFB system following inoculation with pooled sera obtained from HCV carriers. The 3D-cultured FLC4 cells were incubated with a pooled serum sample for 12 h, followed by changing the culture medium to fresh one. Culture medium was periodically collected for 42 days after inoculation, and HCV RNA and the viral core protein were quantified, respectively, by real-time RT-PCR and ELISA. (A) HCV RNA level in culture supernatant. (B) HCV-core protein (closed circles) and oxygen consumption (open triangles) levels in culture supernatant. (C) Changes in the viral quasispecies distribution after the inoculation. Percentages in the inoculum or in the culture medium at each time point (day 3, 9, 19, or 33 p.i.) are indicated at the right side. *, termination codon.

mL RFB column, as estimated from the glucose consumption (Kawada et al., 1998). Culture medium in the RFB was replaced with fresh medium 12 h post-infection (p.i.) and periodically sampled for 42 days.

Fig. 3A and B shows the levels of HCV RNA and viral core protein in the culture medium, respectively. HCV RNA was not observed on the first 2 days following infection, but was detectable from day 3 p.i. Viral RNA levels fluctuated, with peaks on days 3, 9, 19–21 and 33–36 p.i. At days 19–21 p.i., the average amount of HCV RNA detected in the culture supernatant was approximately 3 × 10⁶ copies/day. Intermittent peaks were observed in HCV core protein levels in the culture supernatant, and the peak pattern of the core protein was largely consistent with that of viral RNA. During the infection experiment, the level of oxygen consumption was constant at approximately 12 ppm, thus suggesting that the desired conditions (constant or very gradually increasing cell number) were maintained.

3.3. Quasispecies analysis in RFB culture

The above results suggest that, although the environment was consistent in the pooled serum infection, there were periods in which the viruses actively replicated and released from the cells and periods in which they poorly replicated. The pooled serum used for the infection exhibited HCV populations had at least 26 distinct quasispecies (Table 1). To investigate whether the quasispecies distribution was altered due to infection, and whether HCV populations are selected during long-term culture in the RFB, total RNA was extracted from the culture supernatant samples collected on days 3, 9, 19 and 33 p.i., and the nucleotide sequence of the region containing HVR1 was deter-

mined, as described above. As shown in Fig. 3C, it is of interest that only two HCV species were detected in the sample at day 3 p.i.; the dominant clone C1-1, comprising approximately 70% of the viral population, and clone B4, comprising 30%. Although clone C1-1 was not detected in the sequence of the inoculum shown in Table 1, it was most similar to clone C1, a dominant clone in plasma C, among the HCV population observed in the inoculum; thus, it is possible that clone C1-1 is one of the minor species in serum C. Clone B4 was found to be derived from serum B. An almost identical HCV population was observed in the sample at day 9 p.i. In this sample, the dominant clone C1-1 and clone B4-1, which differs from clone B4 by only one amino acid, were detected. In contrast, more significant variation in quasispecies structure of the HCV species was observed in the sample at day 19 p.i. than that at day 9 p.i. With B4 as the dominant clone, the serum B-derived HCV species, clones B4 and B4-2, which differs from clone B4 by one amino acid, comprised 58% of the total population. Four types of HCV sequences derived from serum C were detected. Two of these (clones C1-3 and C1-4) contained lethal mutations. It was also found that the HCV species detected in the sample at day 33 p.i. included only two clones (clones B4 and B4-3), derived from serum B. The dominant clone, B4, was found to comprise 89% of the total population.

3.4. Potential use of the RFB system for evaluation of anti-HCV compounds

An experiment was carried out to determine whether this HCV infection experiment system was useful for the evaluation of anti-HCV drugs (Fig. 4). For this purpose, a small,
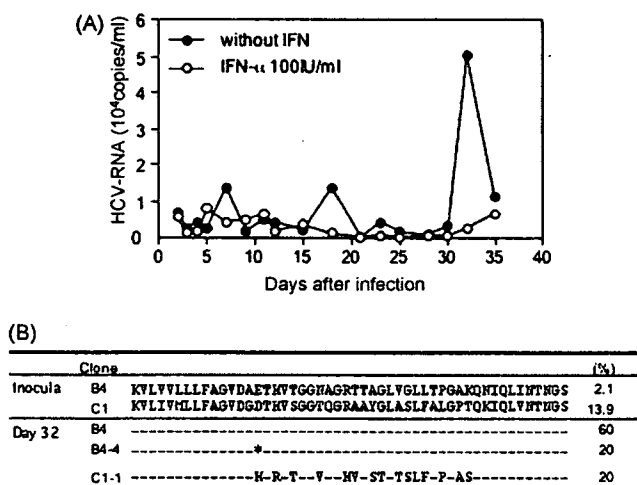
Fig. 4. A therapeutic effect of IFN in HCV infection model in the RFB cultures. HCV-infected FLC4 cells were treated with or without 100 IU/mL IFN-α. (A) Culture media were periodically collected, and HCV RNA levels were determined. Closed circles: without IFN treatment, open circles: treatment with IFN. (B) Changes in the viral quasispecies distribution in the cells without IFN treatment. Percentages in the inoculum or in the culture medium on day 32 p.i. are indicated at the right side. *, termination codon.

4-mL RFB column was adopted and a pair of RFB cultures infected with the HCV-positive pooled plasma (Table 1) was prepared. IFN-α was added to one culture at a final concentration of 100 IU/mL at 12 h p.i. No cytotoxicity was observed in FLC4 cells under these conditions (data not shown). Culture media from two cultures (12.5 mL each) were sampled periodically for 35 days and replaced by the same volume of fresh medium in the presence or absence of IFN-α. HCV RNA in the collected media was quantified by real-time RT-PCR, as described above. As shown in Fig. 4A, in the no-treatment culture, fluctuations in the viral RNA levels with the peaks on days 7, 18, and 32 p.i. ($1.5–5 \times 10^4$ copies/mL) were observed. However, while HCV RNA at $0.5–0.8 \times 10^4$ copies/mL was detected in the IFN-treated culture at days 5–11 p.i., no HCV RNA was detected at days 12–30 p.i. Serum levels of hepatic transaminases such as ALT and AST are known to be markers of liver damage. In the HCV-infection model with FLC4 cells cultured in RFB, the AST levels in the culture medium, which ranged from 5 to 10 IU/L without HCV infection, increased to 20–50 IU/L according to the viral infection (data not shown). Such increased AST levels were found to fall by the IFN treatment to lower than 10 IU/L at day 28 p.i. As reported previously, the ALT levels in the culture medium were constantly low; its levels were less than 10 IU/mL, with or without HCV infection (Aizaki et al., 2003). The viral nucleotide sequence in the no-treatment culture medium at day 32 p.i. was determined. It was found that serum B-derived clone B4 was dominant, and serum C-derived clone C1 was present as a minor clone (Fig. 4B); thus, the results corresponded well with those demonstrated in Fig. 3. An increase in viral RNA in the IFN-treated culture after day 32 p.i. was observed; although the degree of increase was only slight (Fig. 4A). It will be interesting to test whether HCV species grown in the IFN-treated culture is a variant resistant to IFN-α.

4. Discussion

At present an important limitation of the *in vitro* HCV infection system is that the only established culture system is based on genotype 2a, JFH-1 isolate, and Huh-7-derived cell lines. The development of alternate infection systems in which other HCV strains and host cells are available has been needed for the study of HCV dynamics and virus–host interactions, and for testing antivirals. This paper demonstrates that a long-term culture of the 3D RFB system is a useful tool for investigating HCV dynamics. The present results revealed that the viral quasispecies distribution altered in the HCV infection system in the RFB system. The change probably occurs in the following two-stage process. The first change was observed on day 3 p.i.; thus, it is possible that the HCV species were selected according to infectivity in FLC4 cells. It has been reported that HCV particle populations in chronic hepatitis C patients consist of low-density virions and higher-density immune complex forms (Hijikata et al., 1993; Kanto et al., 1994). Inoculation of cultured cells with HCV has demonstrated that the immune complex forms were less infective than the antibody-unbound virions (Shimizu et al., 1994). Therefore, another hypothesis may be that a large number of HCV populations in sera A, D, E, and F are immune complex forms; thus, these sera are less susceptible to the cells than sera B and C. The second change was observed on days 19–33 p.i. While the serum C-derived clone was dominant in the early stages after infection, the serum B-derived HCV clone became dominant over time. In the absence of immunological selection pressure, viral nucleotide mutations at random positions are accumulated during viral replication, and the newly generated variant species are selected principally, if not solely, based on the intrinsic replicative advantages or disadvantages that these mutations confer. Thus, these results suggest that the use of pooled serum sample allowed for screening of infectious materials compatible for the RFB culture.

Evaluation methods for anti-HCV drugs using monolayer culture systems with various culture cells, such as the replicon system and the JFH-1 based virion production system, have been reported (Bartenschlager et al., 2003; Blight et al., 2000; Boriskin et al., 2006; Lanford et al., 2003; Lindenbach et al., 2005; Lohmann et al., 1999; Wakita et al., 2005; Zhong et al., 2005). These methods utilize viral markers, such as HCV RNA and antigens, as indicators of treatment efficacy. However, the utility of long-term cell culture systems for anti-HCV drug evaluation based on infection with human sera is still limited. The use of a chimpanzee model, the only non-human host for HCV infection, is restricted due to several reasons such as problematic availability and ethical consideration. Given intensive efforts to reduce and replace animal testing in the course of development of new therapies worldwide, the RFB-based HCV infection model is a potential alternative to animal models such chimpanzee for assessing anti-HCV compounds. According to the studies with regards to mathematical modeling of HCV kinetics (Dahari et al., 2005; Dixit et al., 2004; Layden et al., 2003; Layden-Almer et al., 2006; Perelson et al., 2005), IFN therapy against HCV infection generally generates a biphasic decline in viral load; there is a rapid decrease in the serum HCV RNA level over the

first 1 day of treatment, followed by the second phase, which is slower than the first-phase viral decline. To date, there were no such observable viral kinetics in the IFN treatment under such experimental settings. Further detailed kinetic analyses of the use of varying doses of IFN and of very early time points to evaluate the antiviral effect are in progress.

In summary, by investigating the dynamics of HCV populations in the RFB culture system, it was demonstrated that HCV was intermittently detected in the culture supernatants of long-term culture, and that changes in viral quasispecies appear to be related to this fluctuation in the virus level. It was also shown that an HCV-infection model using the RFB system is useful for evaluating potential antivirals. Further investigation on the infection and growth of various HCV-positive sera is currently being conducted in order to obtain an adaptive clone with higher replication efficiency in this culture system.

Acknowledgements

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**Archives of
Virology**

Brief Report

Prevalence of antibody to hepatitis E virus among wild sika deer, *Cervus nippon*, in Japan

Y. Matsuura[1], M. Suzuki[2], K. Yoshimatsu[1], J. Arikawa[1], I. Takashima[3], M. Yokoyama[4], H. Igota[5],
K. Yamauchi[6], S. Ishida[7], D. Fukui[8], G. Bando[8], M. Kosuge[8], H. Tsunemitsu[9], C. Koshimoto[10],
K. Sakae[11], M. Chikahira[12], S. Ogawa[13], T. Miyamura[13], N. Takeda[13], and T. C. Li[13]

[1] Institute for Animal Experimentation, Graduate School of Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan
[2] Laboratory of Wildlife Biology, Department of Environmental Veterinary Science,
  Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan
[3] Laboratory of Public Health, Department of Environmental Veterinary Science,
  Graduate School of Veterinary Medicine, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan
[4] Museum of Human and Nature Activities, Hyogo, Japan
[5] Nishiokoppe Wildlife Association, Hokkaido, Japan
[6] Research Institute for Environmental Sciences and Public Health of Iwate Prefecture, Morioka, Japan
[7] Enterovirology Division, Department of Microbiology, Hokkaido Institute of Public Health, Sapporo, Japan
[8] Asahikawa Zoological Park and Wildlife Conservation Center, Asahikawa, Japan
[9] Research Team for Viral Diseases, National Institute of Animal Health, Ibaragi, Japan
[10] Department of Bio-resources, Division of Biotechnology, Frontier Science Research Center,
  University of Miyazaki, Miyazaki, Japan
[11] Department of Microbiology, Aichi Prefectural Institute of Public Health, Nagoya, Japan
[12] Infectious Diseases Research Division, Hyogo Prefecture Institute of Public Heath
  and Environmental Science, Kobe, Japan
[13] Department of Virology II, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan

Summary

We examined 976 sika deer serum samples, 159 liver tissue samples and 88 stool samples collected from 16 prefectures in Japan, and performed ELISA and RT-PCR assays to detect antibodies to HEV and HEV RNA, respectively. Although 25 (2.6%) of 976 samples were positive for anti-HEV IgG, the antibody titers were very low. The OD values ranged between 0.018 and 0.486, forming a single distribution rather than a bimodal distribution, suggesting that the antibody detected in this study was not induced by HEV infection, or that deer have low sensitivity to HEV. HEV RNA was not detected in these samples, also suggesting that deer may not play a role as an HEV reservoir.

Author's address: Tian-Cheng Li, Department of Virology II, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Gakuen 4-7-1, Musashi-Murayama, Tokyo 208-0011, Japan.
e-mail: litc@nih.go.jp

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Hepatitis E virus (HEV), the sole member of the genus *Hepevirus*, is the causative agent of type E

acute hepatitis in humans [3] . HEV does not have an envelope and is likely to have icosahedral symmetry. The genome is a positive-sense single-stranded poly-adenylated RNA molecule, and the 5' end is capped [11] . The genome of HEV contains three open reading frames, ORF1, ORF2, and ORF3. ORF1 encodes 1693 amino acids (aa) encompassing nonstructural proteins involved in viral replication. ORF2 encodes a 660-aa capsid protein. ORF3 encodes a 123- or 114-aa protein of unknown function [23, 28].

To date, at least four major genotypes of HEV have been identified by phylogenetic analyses. Genotype 1 (G1) HEV was isolated from Asia and Africa [16, 18], genotype 2 (G2) from Mexico [26], Namibia and Nigeria [2, 12], and genotypes 3 (G3) and 4 (G4) from the United States, European countries, China, Taiwan, Japan and Vietnam [4, 13, 17, 19, 27–29]. These viruses are thought to comprise a single serotype [16].

Transmission of human HEV occurs primarily by the fecal-oral route through contaminated water in developing countries [1, 5]. Since 1997, when the first animal strain of HEV was isolated from swine in the United States, there has been much indirect and direct evidence indicating that hepatitis E is a zoonosis and that humans appear to be at risk of infection with swine HEV by cross-species infection [13–15]. Recently, direct evidence of HEV transmission from wild boar (Sus scrofa) to humans was provided in Japan, suggesting that these animals are the main zoonotic reservoir of HEV in this country [9]. Indirect evidence of HEV transmission from swine to humans has also been accumulated [22, 30].

Because a case of HEV infection from sika deer meat was reported by Tei et al., sika deer have been considered a possible reservoir in Japan [24, 25]. However, there is only limited surveillance data of HEV infection in deer. In this study, we collected serum samples from wild deer and examined them for the presence of anti-HEV IgG by an antibody ELISA using recombinant virus-like particles (VLPs) as the antigen. We also attempted to detect HEV RNA in serum, stool, and liver samples from the wild deer by RT-PCR analysis.

Between 2003 and 2006, 866 serum samples were collected from wild deer captured in Hokkaido, Iwate, Tochigi, Chiba, Nagano, Aichi, Mie, Hyogo,

Shimane, Hiroshima, Oita, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Miyazaki, and Kagoshima prefectures, and 110 serum samples were collected in 1991–1993 from a deer farm, where the deer were introduced from the habitat at Miyagi prefecture (Fig. 1). In Hyogo Prefecture, an estimated age of 0–10 years was assigned by the tooth replacements and counting cementum annuli of the fist incisors [6]. A total of 88 stool samples were collected from deer captured in Hokkaido, Iwate, Tochigi, Chiba, Nagano, Mie, Hyogo, Hiroshima, Oita, Fukuoka, Kumamoto, Miyazaki, and Kagoshima from 2004 to 2006. They were resuspended in 10 mM phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to prepare a 10% suspension, shaken at 4 °C for 1 h, and clarified by centrifugation at $10,000 \times g$ for 20 min. A total of 159 deer liver tissue were collected from Hyogo (50), Iwate (11) and Hokkaido (98) from 2003 to 2006. The tissue was resuspended in lysis buffer (Qiagen, Inc.) and homogenized. All of the specimens were stored at −20 °C until use.

Serum anti-HEV IgG antibody was detected by ELISA by the method described previously with slight modification [8]. Briefly, a flat-bottom 96-well polystyrene microplate (Immulon 2; Dynex Technologies, Inc. Chantilly, VA) was coated with the purified VLPs (1 µg/ml, 100 µl/well) derived from the G1 Myanmar strain [7]. The plates were incubated at 4 °C overnight. Unbound VLPs were removed, and the wells were washed twice with 10 mM phosphate-buffered saline containing 0.05% Tween 20 (PBS-T), and then blocked at 37 °C for 1 h with 200 µl of 5% skim milk (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, MI) in PBS-T. After the plates were washed 4 times with PBS-T, deer serum (100 µl/well) was added in duplicate at a dilution of 1:200 in PBS-T containing 1% skim milk. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h and then washed 4 times as described above. The wells were incubated with 100 µl of peroxidase-conjugated rabbit anti-deer IgG (H + L) (1:1000 dilution) (KPL, Guildford, UK) in PBS-T containing 1% skim milk. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h and washed 4 times with PBS-T. Then, 100 µl of the substrate orthophenylenediamine (Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO) and H_2O_2 was added to each well. The plates were incubated in a dark room at room temperature for 30 min, then
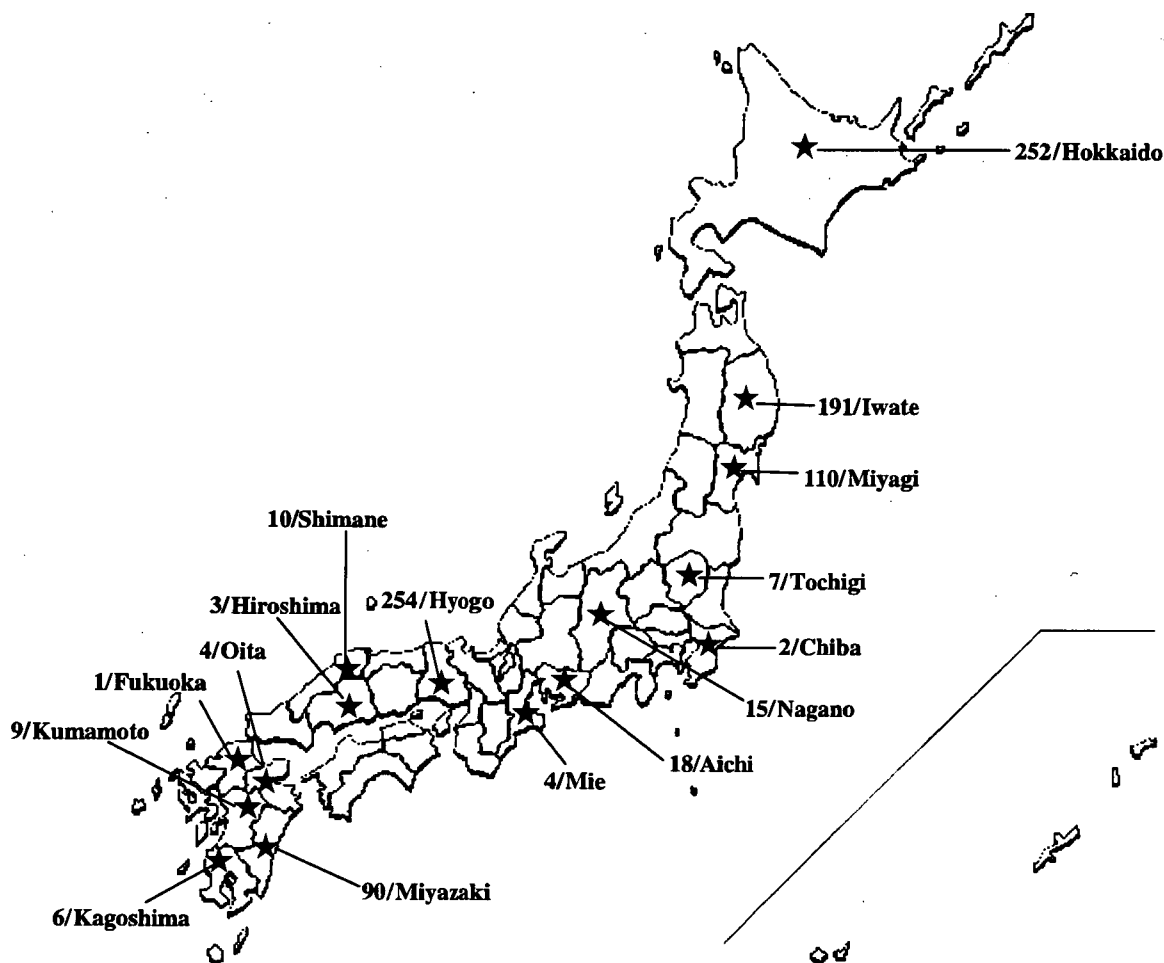
Fig. 1. Numbers and prefecture of captured wild sika deer

50 μl of 4N H_2SO_4 was added to each well. After the plates had stood at room temperature for 10 min, the absorbance at 492 nm was measured.

Anti-HEV IgG-positive serum was obtained from experimentally immunized captive sika deer that had been shown to be negative for HEV IgG by ELISA. The first and second immunizations were performed with purified VLPs (100 μg) in Freund's complete adjuvant by intramuscular injection at intervals of 2 week. After 2 weeks, the deer received booster injections of the same amount of VLPs in Freund's incomplete adjuvant. The deer was bled one week after the last booster injection. Pre-immunization serum was collected before administration and used as the negative control. Anti-HEV IgG-positive serum and pre-inoculation serum were stored at

−30 °C. The anti-HEV IgG titer of the positive serum was 1:3,276,800.

Deer serum samples were tested for anti-HEV IgG at a dilution of 1:200 by ELISA. The distribution of the optical density (OD) values is shown in Fig. 2. The OD values of anti-HEV IgG ranged from 0.018 to 0.486 with the highest antibody titers being 1:400, and formed a single distribution. To determine whether the IgG antibody detected in deer sera was specific for HEV, the positive control serum and negative control serum, and the sera whose OD values were higher than 0.150 were selected and examined by Western blot assay. Approximately 1 μg of the VLPs derived from G1, G3, and G4 HEV was separated by SDS-PAGE and electrophoretically transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane.
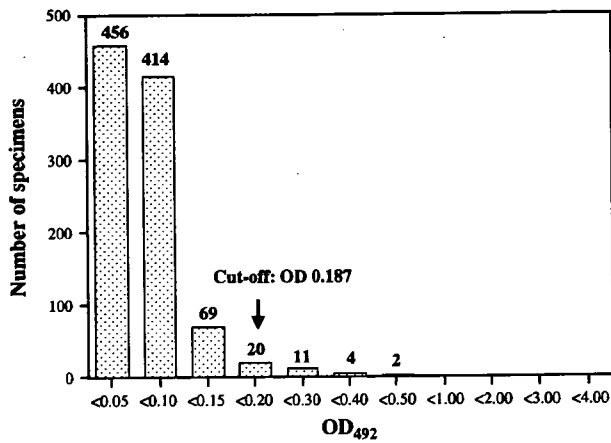
Fig. 2. Distribution of OD values of IgG antibodies. Serum samples from 976 deer were tested by ELISA. The arrows indicate the cutoff values

The membrane was then blocked with 5% skim milk in 50 mM Tris–HCl (pH 7.4) and 150 mM NaCl, and incubated with deer serum (1:200 dilution). Detection of deer IgG antibody was achieved by using phosphatase-labeled rabbit anti-deer IgG (H + L) (1:1000 dilution) (KPL, Gaithersburg, MD).

Nitroblue tetrazolium chloride and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate P-toluidine were used as coloring agents (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). As shown in Fig. 3, strong bands with a molecular weight of 53 k corresponding to the G1, G3 and G4 VLPs were detected with positive control sera. Weak bands were detected with Hyogo 0588, Hyogo 0409, and Miyagi 1, whose OD values were 0.486, 0.358, and 0.287, respectively, whereas no band was detected with Iwate 137, D0505, or the negative control serum, which had low OD values of 0.205, 0.152, and 0.051. These results indicated that the anti-HEV IgG detected in deer serum by ELISA was specific for HEV.

After eliminating 17 serum samples found to be positive by Western blot assay, 959 deer serum samples were used to evaluate the cutoff value of IgG. The OD values of these sera were between 0.018 and 0.248, and the mean value was 0.058 with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.043. Therefore, the cutoff value, the mean value + 3SD, was calculated to be 0.187 (Fig. 2). When this value was employed, the prevalence of anti-HEV IgG appeared to be
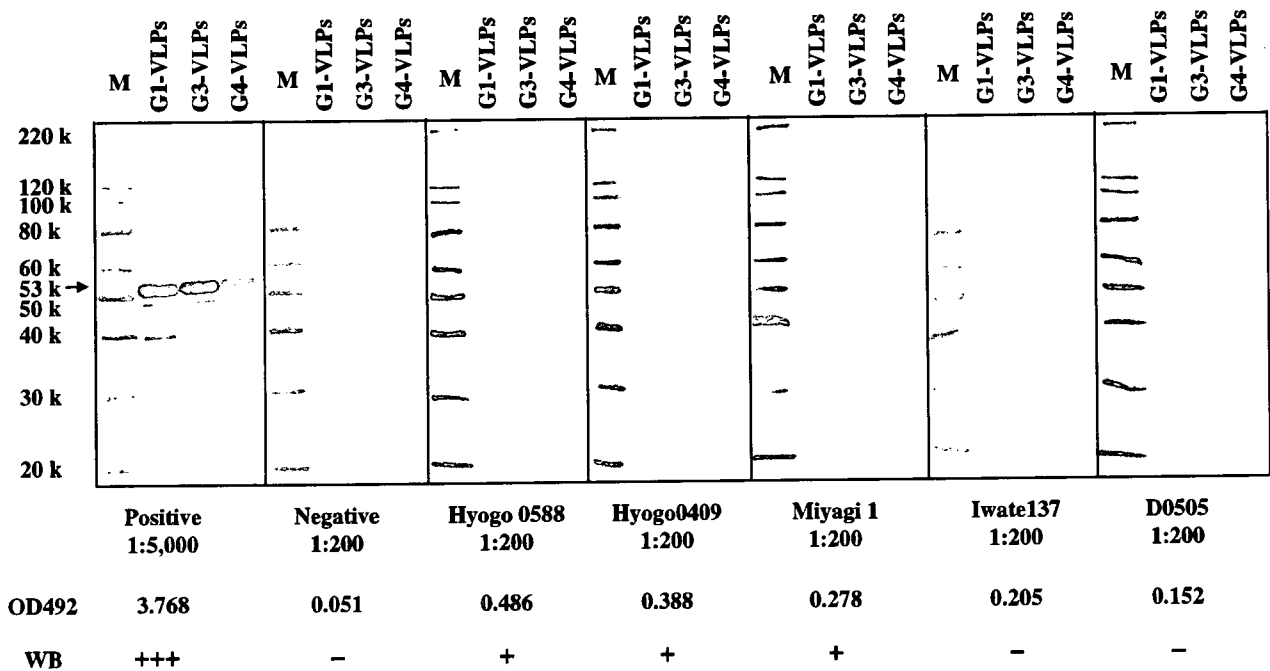

Fig. 3. Specificity of the IgG antibody determined by Western blot assay. The G1, G3, and G4 VLPs were used as the antigens, and 7 deer sera with different OD values were evaluated. The results of the Western blot assay are indicated as +++ (strong band), + (weak band), or − (no band). M Molecular weight marker