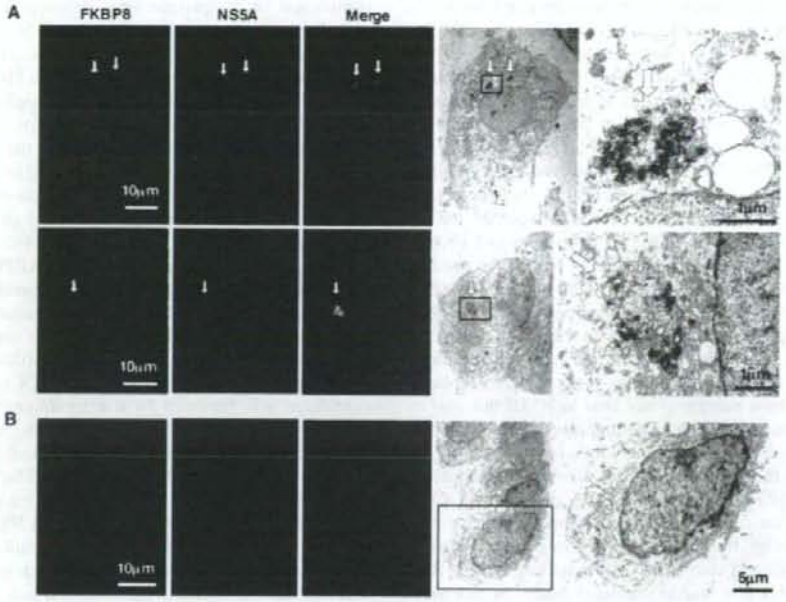

FIG. 7. FKBP8 interacts with NS5A in the membranous web. (A) The Huh-7 9-13 replicon cells were stained with specific antibodies to FKBP8 and NS5A as described in Fig. 6A. Identical fields were observed under EM by using the correlative FM-EM technique. Arrows indicate the areas NS5A and FKBP8 are colocalizing. Right panels indicate the magnified images of the small black boxes. Highly electron-dense and folded membranous structures were observed by a highly magnified EM. (B) Control cells in which the replicon cells were cured by IFN-α treatment were processed in the same procedures. No electron-dense structure was observed in the cytoplasm.

the correlative FM-EM technique described above. This method allowed us to examine the colocalization of the molecules by both FM and EM in the same samples, yielding two different but complementary data sets. The replicon cells were stained with antibodies to FKBP8 and NS5A and examined under FM (Fig. 7A, left panels), and the same fields were observed under EM (Fig. 7A, right panels). The compartments colocalizing FKBP8 and NS5A (arrows) exhibited a high electron density and a folded membranous structure that was similar to a membranous web (15, 32). In contrast, the replicon cells cured by IFN-α treatment did not have the electron-dense structure (Fig. 7B). These results suggest that FKBP8 interacts with NS5A on the membranous web in cells replicating HCV RNA.

DISCUSSION

HCV NS5A is a multifunctional protein involved in viral replication and pathogenesis (29). In a previous study, we have shown that NS5A specifically interacts with FKBP8 and recruits Hsp90 to the viral RNA replication complex through the interaction of the carboxylate clump structure of FKBP8 with the C-terminal MEEVD motif of Hsp90 (37). Although we demonstrated that a TPR domain other than the carboxylate clump region of FKBP8 was responsible for the specific interaction with NS5A (37), the precise binding amino acid residue of the interaction was not determined. In the present study, FKBP8 exhibited a specific interaction with the immobilized NS5A in a dose-dependent manner with an equilibrium dissociation constant (K_d) of 82 nM as determined by the SPR, but no interaction with FKBP52 was detected. Furthermore, mutational analysis suggested that Val or Ile at the amino acid residue 121 of NS5A was responsible for the specific interaction with FKBP8. The subgenomic HCV replicon RNA harboring the mutation of Val^{121} to Ala within NS5A leads to severe impairment of RNA replication, and reversion from Ala^{121} to Val was detected, suggesting that interaction of FKBP8 with NS5A through the Val^{121} is crucial for HCV replication. The crystal structure of NS5A domain 1 revealed that Val^{121} is located on one of the β-sheet structures in the 1B subdomain and the side chain of the residue is located within the hydrophobic core (46); therefore, the Val^{121} may be involved in the maintenance of the β-sheet structure in the subdomain rather than the direct interaction with FKBP8. However, it remains feasible to speculate that unidentified host factors may be involved in the conformational change of region, including Val^{121} for direct interaction with FKBP8. Further studies, including a structural analysis of FKBP8, are needed to clarify the mechanisms by which HCV is replicated through the interaction of NS5A, FKBP8, and Hsp90.

The current combination therapy with pegylated IFN-α and ribavirin achieves a sustained virological response in half of the patients infected with a high viral load of HCV of genotype 1b (30). However, it is difficult to achieve the complete removal of viruses by antiviral drugs targeted to the viral enzymes, includ-

ing proteases and polymerases, from patients persistently infected with RNA viruses that exhibit a quasispecies nature, such as human immunodeficiency virus and HCV. Viral quasispecies are not a simple collection of diverse mutants but a group of interactive variants capable of adapting to new environments (48). Cyclosporine treatment has been shown to be effective for patients infected with HCV of genotype 1b (20) and suppresses HCV RNA replication in vitro (52). In addition, cyclosporine has been shown to disrupt the interaction between NS5B and cyclophilin B, which is required for an efficient RNA-binding of NS5B (53). Cyclophilins and FKBPs are classified as immunophilins capable of binding to the immunosuppressants cyclosporine and FK506, respectively (26). The family members do not share a homologous domain other than drug-binding and enzymatically active domains, based on their amino acid sequences, substrate specificities, and inhibitor sensitivities. However, cyclosporine-resistant RNA replicon was shown to exhibit mutations not only in NS5B but also in NS5A (12, 41), suggesting that cyclosporine might affect the viral replication through the nucleotide-binding ability of NS5B, as well as the function of NS5A. Recently, geldanamycin, an inhibitor of Hsp90, was shown to drastically impair the replication of poliovirus without any emergence of escape mutants (14). Therefore, the elucidation of host proteins, including immunophilins and chaperones, participating in the HCV replication complex may lead to the development of new therapeutics for chronic hepatitis C with a broad spectrum and a low possibility of emergence of revertant viruses. In particular, disruption of the specific interaction of Val^{121} of NS5A with the TPR domain of FKBP8 might be an ideal target for a novel therapeutic measure.

Egger et al. reported that NS4B alters the intracellular membrane to form a membranous web structure consisting of a membrane-associated multiprotein complex localized in the cytoplasmic compartments distinct from the mitochondria in vitro and in the liver of an HCV-infected chimpanzee, suggesting that the membranous web forms the viral replication complex (8). An N-terminal amphipathic helix of NS4B plays an important role in the viral replication, as well as in the correct localization of other NS proteins including NS5A (9). Furthermore, VAP-B was reported to interact with Nir2 protein through the FFAT (named for two phenylalanines [i.e., FF] in the acidic tract) motif and to remodel the ER structure to form a convoluted membrane structure resembling a membranous web (3). In addition, VAP-A and B interact with not only NS5A but also NS5B (13, 16, 47), suggesting that the complex of NS5A with FKBP8 might be recruited on the membranous web by NS4B and/or VAPs and participate in the HCV replication.

FKBP8 has been shown to be localized mainly on the mitochondria and to interact with Bcl-2 to sequester Bcl-2 on the mitochondria (7, 44). However, HCV RNA was suggested to be replicated in the membranous web structure in replicon cells (8, 13, 15), and NS5A was reported to localize on the ER, Golgi apparatus (2, 6, 16), and lipid droplets (43). Figures 6C and 7A clearly indicate that the intracellular compartment including NS5A and FKBP8 is distinct from mitochondria. The HCV core protein was shown to upregulate genes related to fatty acid biosynthesis through the interaction with proteasome activator PA28γ/REGγ in the nucleus (34) and to induce accumulation of cytoplasmic lipid droplets in the mouse liver (35). Recently, it was shown that the HCV core protein of the genotype 2a JFH1 strain recruits the replication complex to the lipid droplet-associated membranes, and HCV particles were detected in close proximity to the lipid droplets, suggesting that lipid droplets induced by core protein participate in the assembly of HCV particles (31). In addition, the lipid droplets including the core protein were surrounded by the nonstructural proteins was also detected in cells expressing the chimeric HCV genomes encoding core to a part of NS2 proteins of genotype 1b or 1a strain and the nonstructural proteins of JFH1 strain (31). In the present study, FKBP8 was shown to be colocalized with NS5A in a highly electron-dense intracellular compartment indistinguishable from the membranous web. Although the total amount of FKBP8 was not changed by the treatment of the replicon cells by IFN-α (data not shown), the membranous web structure where FKBP8 and NS5A had accumulated was removed by the treatment (Fig. 7B). These results suggest that the replication of the subgenomic HCV RNA induces the formation of a membranous web structure in which NS5A and FKBP8 are colocalized but has no effect on the expression level of FKBP8. Furthermore, we could not detect any colocalization of FKBP8 and NS5A with the lipid droplets in the replicon cells harboring a full-length genome of the genotype 1b Con1 strain (data not shown). Although the relationships between the membranous web and lipid droplets remain unknown, these discrepancies might be attributable to the difference in HCV genotypes of the nonstructural proteins that consist of the major components of the replication complex determining the efficiency of HCV replication.

In conclusion, our data indicate that NS5A directly binds to FKBP8 through the Val^{121} and colocalizes in the convoluted membrane structure known as the membranous web. Future studies on the role of FKBP8 in the replication of HCV might contribute to the development of a new type of anti-HCV drugs with a low frequency of emergence of drug-resistant breakthrough viruses.

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Human Butyrate-Induced Transcript 1 Interacts with Hepatitis C Virus NS5A and Regulates Viral Replication▽

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Hepatitis C virus (HCV) nonstructural protein 5A (NS5A) is required for the replication of the viral genome and is involved in several host signaling pathways. To gain further insight into the functional role of NS5A in HCV replication, we screened human cDNA libraries by a yeast two-hybrid system using NS5A as the bait and identified human butyrate-induced transcript 1 (hB-ind1) as a novel NS5A-binding protein. Endogenously and exogenously expressed hB-ind1 was coimmunoprecipitated with NS5A of various genotypes through the coiled-coil domain of hB-ind1. The small interfering RNA (siRNA)-mediated knockdown of hB-ind1 in human hepatoma cell lines suppressed the replication of HCV RNA replicons and the production of infectious particles of HCV genotype 2a strain JFH1. Furthermore, these reductions were canceled by the expression of an siRNA-resistant hB-ind1 mutant. Among the NS5A-binding host proteins involved in HCV replication, hB-ind1 exhibited binding with FKBP8, and hB-ind1 interacted with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif in its N-terminal p23 homology domain. The impairment of the replication of HCV RNA replicons and of the production of infectious particles of JFH1 virus in the hB-ind1 knockdown cell lines was not reversed by the expression of an siRNA-resistant hB-ind1 mutant in which the FxxW motif was replaced by AxxA. These results suggest that hB-ind1 plays a crucial role in HCV RNA replication and the propagation of JFH1 virus through interaction with viral and host proteins.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infects approximately 170 million people worldwide and induces serious chronic hepatitis that results in steatosis, cirrhosis, and ultimately hepatocellular carcinoma (7, 64). More than two-thirds of the HCV-positive population in Western countries and Japan face chronic infection by genotypes 1a and 1b. The current combination therapy using pegylated alpha interferon (IFN) plus ribavirin has achieved a sustained virological response in 50% of individuals infected with HCV genotypes 1a and 1b (37, 53).

HCV belongs to the genus *Hepacivirus* of the family *Flaviviridae* and has a single-stranded, positive-sense RNA genome of approximately 9.6 kb, encoding a large polyprotein composed of approximately 3,000 amino acid residues. The polyprotein is cleaved by host and viral proteases, resulting in viral structural proteins (core, E1, and E2), a putative ion channel-forming protein (p7), and nonstructural proteins (NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B) (40, 55). Highly structured untranslated regions are flanked at both the 5′ and 3′ ends of the open reading frame. The initiation of translation of the viral RNA is dependent on an internal ribosome entry site (IRES) localized in the 5′ untranslated region (28, 58).

The HCV RNA is suggested to replicate in a replication complex composed of the viral nonstructural proteins and several host proteins. An HCV replicon system established as a representative functional system was composed of an antibiotic gene for selection and HCV genomic RNA for autonomous replication in the intracellular compartments of human hepatoma cell line Huh7 without production of infectious particles (34). Recently, cell culture systems for production of an infectious HCV have been established based on HCV genotype 2a (32, 62, 74). Furthermore, a mouse model consisting of an immunodeficient mouse xenotransplanted with human liver fragments has been established for the study of in vivo replication of HCV (38). These in vitro and in vivo systems have enabled us to investigate the life cycle of HCV and to develop antiviral drugs for chronic hepatitis C.

NS5A is a phosphoprotein that possesses multiple functions in viral replication, IFN resistance, and pathogenesis (35). Adaptive mutations to increase RNA replication are frequently mapped to the coding region of NS5A, indicating that NS5A is critical for HCV replication (1, 71). NS5A has been shown to be associated with a range of cellular proteins involved in cellular signaling pathways, such as IFN-induced kinase PKR (14), growth factor receptor-binding protein 2 (Grb2) (56), p53 (36, 48), and the phosphoinositide-3-kinase p85 subunit (18), and with proteins involved in protein trafficking and membrane morphology, such as karyopherin b3 (8), apolipoprotein A1 (52), amphiphysin II (73), F-box and leucine-rich repeat protein 2 (FBL2) (26, 63, 70), and vesicle-associated membrane protein-associated protein subtype A (VAP-A) (59). We have previously reported that the host proteins VAP-B and FKBP8, a member of the FK506-binding protein (FKBP) family, interact with NS5A and that these interactions are required for efficient replication of HCV (16, 45), further supporting the hypothesis that NS5A is a pivotal component of the HCV replication complex.

To gain a better understanding of the functional role of

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NS5A in HCV replication, we screened human libraries by employing a yeast two-hybrid system and using NS5A as the bait. We thus identified human butyrate-induced transcript 1 (hB-ind1) as an NS5A-binding protein. Murine B-ind1 has been identified as a transcript induced by treatment with sodium butyrate in BALB/c BP-A31 mouse fibroblasts (10). hB-ind1 is a multiple-membrane-spanning protein, consisting of 362 amino acids, that possesses significant homology with protein tyrosine phosphatase-like, member A (PTPLA), and co-chaperone p23 and is suggested to be involved in the Rac1 signaling pathway (10). In this study we examine the biological effects of the interaction of hB-ind1 with NS5A and other host proteins on the replication of HCV.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plasmids. The plasmids encoding NS5A, FKBP8, VAP-A, VAP-B, and heat shock protein 90 (Hsp90) have been described previously (45). The human FBL2 gene was amplified from the total cDNA of Huh7 by PCR. A cDNA clone containing hB-ind1 cDNA was isolated from a human fetal brain library (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) by the advanced yeast two-hybrid system Matchmaker Two-Hybrid System 3 (Clontech) using an HCV NS5A protein as bait. Each cDNA of N-terminally FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 and its mutants was generated by cloning into pEF FlagGs pGKpuro (23). pSilencer-hB-ind1, carrying a short hairpin RNA (shRNA) targeted to hB-ind1 under the control of the U6 promoter, was constructed by cloning of the oligonucleotide pair 5′-GATCCGGAAAAGCGACCACTGTTTCTCAAGAGAAAACAGTGGTCGCTTTTCCTTTTTTGGAAA-3′–5′-AGCTTTTTCCAAAAAAGGAAAAGCGACCACTGTTTTCTCTTGAGAAACAGTGGTCGCTTTTCCG-3′ between the BamHI and HindIII sites of pSilencer 2.1-U6 hygro (Ambion, Austin, TX). A plasmid encoding a mutant hB-ind1 resistant to shRNA was prepared by introduction of five silent mutations (nucleotides were changed from A to G, G to A, A to C, A to T, and C to T at positions 291, 294, 297, 300, and 301, respectively) into hB-ind1 cDNA by the method of splicing by overlap extension (19). The pSilencer negative-control plasmid (Ambion) has no homology to any human gene. The pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1 plasmid (46) was kindly provided by R. Bartenschlager, and the neomycin-resistant gene was replaced with a firefly luciferase gene. The resulting plasmid was designated pFK-I_{389} FL/NS3-3′/NK5.1. The plasmids used in this study were confirmed by sequencing with ABI Prism genetic analyzer 3130 (Applied Biosystems, Tokyo, Japan).

Cells and virus infection. All cell lines were cultured at 37°C under a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO_2. Human embryo kidney 293T cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin, and 10% fetal calf serum (FCS). The human hepatoma cell line Huh7.5.1 was kindly provided by F. Chisari (74). The Huh7 and Huh7.5.1 cell lines were maintained in DMEM containing nonessential amino acids (NEAA), 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μg/ml streptomycin, and 10% FCS. The Huh9-13 cell line, an Huh7-derived cell line harboring a subgenomic HCV replicon (34), was maintained in DMEM containing 10% FCS, NEAA, and 1 mg/ml G418 (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan). Huh7.5.1 cells were transfected with pSilencer-hB-ind1 or an empty plasmid, and drug-resistant clones were selected by treatment with hygromycin (Wako, Tokyo, Japan) at a final concentration of 10 μg/ml. Plasmids encoding a full-length or truncated (amino acid residues 101 to 277) version of hB-ind1 were transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells, and the cells surviving after selection with 0.1 μg/ml of puromycin for 1 week were used for virus infection. The viral RNA of JFH1 was introduced into Huh7.5.1 cells according to the method of Wakita et al. (62). The supernatant was collected at 7 days posttransfection and used as HCV particles that are infectious in cell culture (HCVcc).

Antibodies. A rabbit anti-hB-ind1 antibody was prepared by immunization with synthetic peptides corresponding to amino acid residues 106 to 117 of hB-ind1. A mouse monoclonal antibody to influenza virus hemagglutinin (HA) was purchased from Covance (Richmond, CA). The mouse anti-FLAG M2 antibody that was conjugated with a horseradish peroxidase and a mouse anti-β-actin monoclonal antibody were purchased from Sigma. The mouse monoclonal antibody to HCV NS5A was obtained from Austral Biologicals (San Ramon, CA).

Yeast two-hybrid assay and library screening. A human fetal brain library prepared with pAct2 was purchased from Clontech and was screened by the yeast two-hybrid system Matchmaker GAL4 Two-Hybrid System 3 (Clontech) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The NS5A cDNA fragment encoding amino acid residues 1973 to 2419 of HCV strain Con1 was amplified by PCR and cloned into pGBKT7 (Clontech); the resulting plasmid was designated pGBKT7 HCV NS5A. The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain AH109, which secretes α-galactosidase under the control of the MEL1 region, was transformed with pGBKT7 HCV NS5A and grown on a medium lacking tryptophan. The clone including the bait plasmid was transformed with the library plasmids. The transformed yeast cells were grown on 2% agar plates of a dropout medium lacking tryptophan, leucine, histidine, and adenine. The resulting colonies grown on the dropout plate were inoculated again on a new dropout plate containing 20 μg/ml X-α-Gal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl-α-*D*-galactopyranoside) and incubated at 30°C for 7 days. The total DNA was prepared from all blue colonies and then introduced into *Escherichia coli* strain JM109. The prey plasmids were recovered from the clones grown on LB agar plates containing 10 μg/ml ampicillin. One positive clone was isolated from among 2 million colonies of the human fetal brain library, and the nucleotide sequence of this clone includes the complete cDNA of hB-ind1 in its frame.

Transfection, immunoblotting, and immunoprecipitation. Transfection and immunoprecipitation analyses were carried out as described previously (16, 45). Immunoprecipitates boiled in loading buffer were subjected to 12.5% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA) and were reacted with the appropriate antibodies. The immune complexes were visualized with SuperSignal West Femto substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL) and detected by an LAS-3000 image analyzer system (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

Gene silencing by siRNA. The short interfering RNAs (siRNAs) Target-4 (5′-GCUGAGUGACGUACAGAAC-3′) and Target-6 (5′-GGAAAAGCGACCACUGUUU-3′) were obtained for knockdown of endogenous hB-ind1 (Ambion, Austin, TX). The negative control, siCONTROL Non-Targeting siRNA 2, which exhibits no downregulation of any human genes, was purchased from Dharmacon (Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom). Huh9-13 cells harboring a subgenomic HCV replicon grown on 6-well plates were transfected with 20 nM siRNA by using siFECTOR (B-Bridge International, Sunnyvale, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The transfected cells were incubated in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS and were then harvested at 96 h posttransfection.

Real-time PCR. The HCV RNA level was estimated by the method described previously (16, 45). Total RNA was prepared from cells by using the RNeasy minikit (Qiagen, Tokyo, Japan). First-strand cDNA was synthesized using an RNA LA PCR kit (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan) and random primers. Each cDNA was estimated by Platinum Sybr green qPCR SuperMix UDG (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Fluorescent signals were analyzed by an ABI Prism 7000 system (Applied Biosystems). The HCV IRES, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), and hB-ind1 genes were amplified using primer pairs 5′-GAGTGTCGTGCAGCCTCCA-3′–5′-CACTCGCAAGCACCCTATCA-3′, 5′-GAAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTC-3′–5′-GAAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTC-3′, and 5′-CACCTGGAGTTCTTAGACCTTGTG-3′–5′-CAGTCGGAGTTTATTTAGGCGCTC-3′, respectively. The values for HCV genomic RNA and hB-ind1 mRNA were normalized to that for GAPDH mRNA. Each PCR product was detected as a single band of the correct size by agarose gel electrophoresis (data not shown).

In vitro transcription and RNA transfection. Plasmids pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1 and pFK-I_{389} FL/NS3-3′/NK5.1 were linearized at the ScaI site and then transcribed in vitro using the MEGAscript T7 kit (Ambion) according to the manufacturer's protocol. To generate capped mRNA encoding *Renilla* luciferase, pRL-CMV was cleaved with BamHI and then transcribed using the mMESSAGE mMACHINE kit (Ambion) according to the manufacturer's protocol. These in vitro-transcribed RNAs were introduced into Huh7.5.1 cells at 4 million cells/0.4 ml by electroporation at 270 V and 960 μF using Gene Pulser (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA).

Colony formation assay. The colony formation assay has been described previously (45). Briefly, in vitro-transcribed RNA was electroporated into Huh7 cells and plated in DMEM containing 10% FCS and NEAA. The medium was replaced with fresh DMEM containing 10% FCS, NEAA, and 1 mg/ml G418 at 24 h posttransfection. The remaining colonies were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and stained with crystal violet at 4 weeks after electroporation.

Luciferase assay. Transfected cells were seeded in a 12-well plate and then lysed in 200 μl of passive lysis buffer (Promega, Madison, WI) at 24 h posttransfection. Luciferase activity was measured in 20-μl aliquots of cell lysates using the Dual-Luciferase reporter assay system (Promega). Firefly luciferase activity was standardized to that of *Renilla* luciferase, and the results are expressed as the increases in relative luciferase units (RLU).

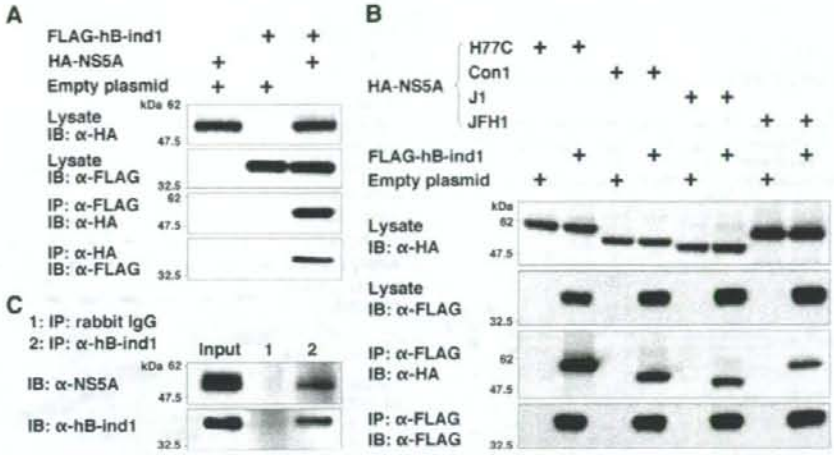

FIG. 1. Interaction of NS5A with hB-ind1 in mammalian cells. (A) HA-NS5A of strain Con1 and FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 were expressed in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated (IP) with an anti-HA or anti-FLAG antibody. Immunoprecipitates were subjected to Western blotting (IB) to detect coprecipitated counterparts. As a negative control, an empty plasmid was used instead of the plasmid encoding FLAG-hB-ind1 or HA-NS5A. Anti-FLAG and anti-HA antibodies did not recognize HA-tagged NS5A and FLAG-tagged hB-ind1, respectively. (B) HA-NS5A protein derived from genotype 1b strain Con1 or J1, genotype 1a strain H77C, or genotype 2a strain JFH1 was coexpressed with FLAG-hB-ind1 in 293T cells, immunoprecipitated with an isotype control or anti-FLAG antibody, and analyzed by Western blotting with an antibody to the FLAG or HA tag. An empty plasmid was used instead of the plasmid encoding FLAG-hB-ind1 as a negative control. (C) Endogenous hB-ind1 in Huh9-13 cells harboring subgenomic HCV replicon RNA was immunoprecipitated with normal rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) (lane 1) or anti-hB-ind1 rabbit IgG (lane 2), and immunoprecipitates were analyzed by Western blotting with specific antibodies.

Statistical analysis. Results are expressed as means ± standard deviations. The significance of differences between the means was determined by Student's *t* test.

RESULTS

hB-ind1 interacts with HCV NS5A of various genotypes. NS5A derived from the genotype 1b strain Con1 was used as bait to screen the human fetal brain cDNA library by a yeast two-hybrid system, and one clone including a gene encoding the open reading frame of the hB-ind1 gene was isolated. To examine whether hB-ind1 could interact with NS5A in mammalian cells, HA-tagged NS5A (HA-NS5A) was coexpressed with FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 (FLAG-hB-ind1) in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an antibody to the HA or the FLAG tag. FLAG-hB-ind1 and HA-NS5A were coimmunoprecipitated by either antibody (Fig. 1A). To determine the interaction of various genotypes of NS5A with hB-ind1, HA-NS5A of the genotype 1a strain H77C, the genotype 1b strain J1, or the genotype 2a strain JFH1 was coexpressed with FLAG-hB-ind1 and immunoprecipitated with the anti-FLAG antibody. An empty plasmid was used as a negative control. FLAG-hB-ind1 was immunoprecipitated with the anti-FLAG antibody at similar levels in cells coexpressing FLAG-hB-ind1 and HA-NS5A of all genotypes. HA-NS5A of various genotypes was coprecipitated with FLAG-hB-ind1 by the anti-FLAG antibody, whereas the anti-FLAG antibody did not precipitate any HA-NS5A of the various genotypes used in this study (Fig. 1B). To further confirm the interaction between hB-ind1 and HCV NS5A in the functional setting, lysates of Huh9-13 cells harboring subgenomic HCV replicon RNA were subjected to immunoprecipitation analysis with a rabbit polyclonal antibody raised against hB-ind1. NS5A was coimmunoprecipitated with endogenous hB-ind1 in the lysates of replicon cells (Fig. 1C). These results indicate that hB-ind1 interacts with NS5A of various HCV genotypes in mammalian cells.

hB-ind1 interacts with NS5A through the amino acid residues from 114 to 134 including the coiled-coil domain. hB-ind1 is composed of 362 amino acid residues and has domains homologous with p23 and PTPLA in the regions from Pro^{8} to Asp^{112} and from Gln^{196} to Leu^{346}, respectively (Fig. 2A). To determine the region responsible for the interaction with NS5A, various deletion mutants of FLAG-hB-ind1 were constructed (Fig. 2B). Each of the mutants was coexpressed with Con1 HA-NS5A in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an anti-HA antibody. An empty plasmid was used as a negative control in the immunoprecipitation analyses. HA-NS5A was coimmunoprecipitated with full-length hB-ind1 and with mutants possessing amino acid residues 114 to 134, corresponding to the coiled-coil domain, which generally participates in protein-protein interactions (Fig. 2B and C), whereas HA-NS5A was not coimmunoprecipitated with hB-ind1 mutants lacking the coiled-coil domain. The anti-HA antibody did not coprecipitate FLAG-hB-ind1 or its mutants. These results indicate that hB-ind1 interacts with HCV NS5A through the coiled-coil domain.

hB-ind1 participates in the replication of HCV RNA and the propagation of infectious HCV particles. To investigate the role(s) of endogenous hB-ind1 in the replication of HCV RNA, an siRNA targeted to hB-ind1 or a control siRNA was transfected into Huh9-13 cells harboring subgenomic HCV

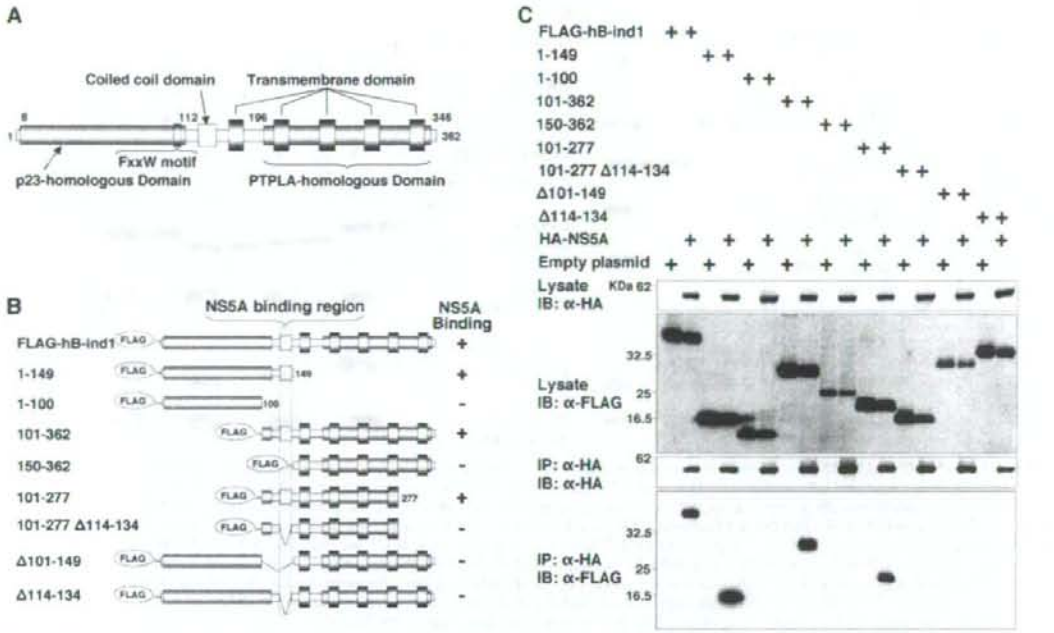

FIG. 2. Determination of the NS5A-binding region in hB-ind1. (A) Structure and functional domains of hB-ind1. (B) Deletion mutants of hB-ind1 used in this study and the results of binding to NS5A. N-terminally FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 mutants encoding the region from residue 1 to 149, 1 to 100, 101 to 362, 150 to 362, or 101 to 277 were designated 1-149, 1-100, 101-362, 150-362, or 101-277, respectively. An N-terminally FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 mutant spanning the region from residue 101 to residue 277 but lacking residues 114 to 134 was designated 101-277 Δ114-134. In addition, N-terminally FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 mutants lacking the region from 101 to 149 or from 114 to 134 were designated Δ101-149 or Δ114-134, respectively. The coiled-coil domain was located at residues 114 to 134. Each mutant gene was inserted into pEF FLAGGs pGKpuro. A summary of immunoprecipitation results is given on the right. (C) Each hB-ind1 mutant was coexpressed with Con1 HA-NS5A in 293T cells, immunoprecipitated with an anti-HA antibody, and analyzed by Western blotting with an anti-FLAG antibody. As a negative control, an empty plasmid was used instead of the plasmid encoding HA-NS5A. The anti-HA antibody did not recognize FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 or its mutants.

replicon RNA. Total RNA was extracted from the transfected cells, and levels of hB-ind1 mRNA and HCV RNA were determined by real-time PCR. At 72 h posttransfection, hB-ind1 mRNA and HCV subgenomic RNA levels in cells transfected with each of the hB-ind1 siRNAs were reduced more than 60% from the levels in cells treated with the control siRNA (Fig. 3A). The levels of expression of hB-ind1 and the HCV NS5A protein were decreased in HCV replicon cells transfected with the hB-ind1 siRNA but not in those transfected with the control siRNA (Fig. 3B).

To examine the effects of the knockdown of hB-ind1 on the replication of HCV RNA and the propagation of HCVcc, we established Huh7.5.1 cell lines stably expressing an shRNA targeted to hB-ind1. Dozens of colonies were obtained from cells transfected with a plasmid encoding the cDNA of the shRNA to hB-ind1 after selection with hygromycin. Although the levels of mRNA and expression of endogenous hB-ind1 were not changed in cells bearing a nonspecific shRNA, they were reduced in the clones bearing shRNAs targeted to hB-ind1, except for clone 1 (Fig. 3C and D). There was no significant difference in growth among the cell lines (Fig. 3E).

The replicon RNA transcribed from pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1 was transfected into the hB-ind1 knockdown cell lines Huh-si2 and Huh-si5, which were cultured for 4 weeks in the presence of G418. The numbers of colonies in the knockdown cell lines were less than one-fourth of those in the control cell line (Huh-c) (Fig. 4A). A FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 wobble mutant (FLAG-rB-ind1), which is resistant to the shRNA targeted to hB-ind1 due to the introduction of silent mutations, was capable of expressing an siRNA-resistant hB-ind1 upon introduction into cells at a level similar to that of the endogenous hB-ind1 (eB-ind1) detected in the control cell line (Fig. 4B). The reduction of colony formation by the knockdown of eB-ind1 in the hB-ind1 knockdown cell lines Huh-si2 and Huh-si5 was canceled by the expression of FLAG-rB-ind1 (Fig. 4A). To further examine the involvement of hB-ind1 in the replication of HCV, a chimeric HCV RNA encoding a firefly luciferase gene under the control of HCV IRES (Fig. 4C) was transfected into the knockdown cell lines. Knockdown of hB-ind1 reduced the RLU in Huh-si2 and Huh-si5 cells by 40% and 70%, respectively, and this reduction was also canceled by the expression of FLAG-rB-ind1. To further examine the effect of hB-ind1 knockdown on the production of HCV infectious particles, HCVcc were inoculated into the hB-ind1 knockdown

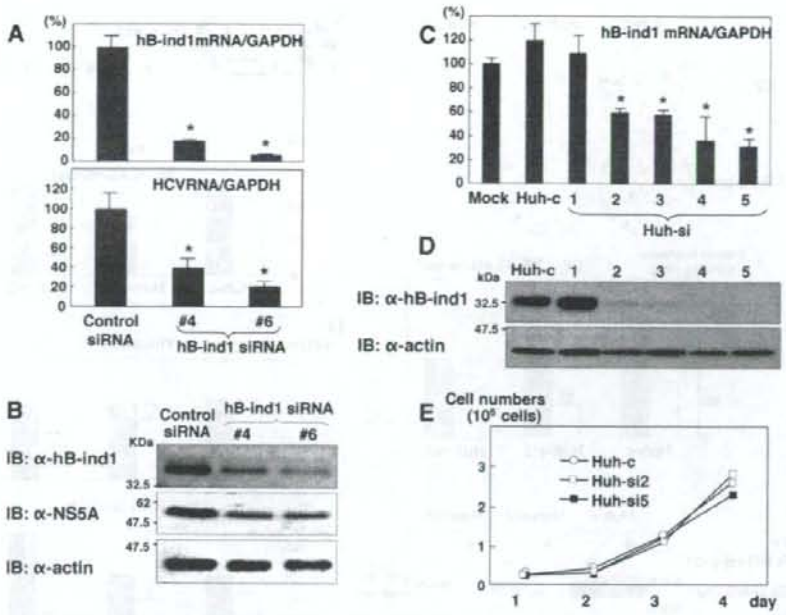

FIG. 3. Effects of hB-ind1 knockdown on HCV replication. (A) Huh9-13 cells were transfected with siRNA 4 or siRNA 6 (#4 or #6, respectively), targeted to the hB-ind1 gene, or with a nonspecific siRNA, at a final concentration of 20 nM, and were harvested at 72 h posttransfection. hB-ind1 mRNA and HCV RNA levels were determined by real-time PCR. The levels of hB-ind1 mRNA and HCV RNA were normalized to the amount of GAPDH mRNA and expressed as percentages of the control value. (B) Huh9-13 cells transfected with siRNAs were lysed at 72 h posttransfection and subjected to Western blotting (IB) with an antibody to hB-ind1, NS5A, or β-actin. (C) Establishment of hB-ind1 knockdown Huh7.5.1 cell lines. Plasmids encoding shRNAs targeted to hB-ind1 (siRNA 6) or nonspecific targets were transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells and cultivated in the presence of hygromycin. Independent clones were established by limiting dilution. The value for hB-ind1 mRNA was normalized to the amount of GAPDH mRNA and expressed as a percentage of the control value. Huh7.5.1 cell lines expressing siRNAs targeted to hB-ind1 (Huh-si1 to Huh-si5) and to a nonspecific target (Huh-c) were established. (D) Expression of hB-ind1 in knockdown cells. The knockdown cell lines were lysed and subjected to Western blotting with an antibody to hB-ind1 or β-actin. (E) Growth curves of the knockdown cell lines were determined by the method of trypan blue dye exclusion. Data in this figure are representative of three independent experiments. Error bars, standard deviations. Asterisks indicate significant differences ($P < 0.01$) from the control value.

cell lines. Both virus titers, determined by focus-forming units at 72 h postinfection in culture supernatants, and HCV RNA levels in Huh-si2 and Huh-si5 cells were significantly reduced, and these reductions were canceled by the expression of FLAG-rB-ind1 (Fig. 4D). These results suggest that hB-ind1 is involved in the replication of HCV RNA and the propagation of HCVcc.

An hB-ind1 mutant retaining the binding region to NS5A has a dominant-negative effect on the replication of HCV. To examine the involvement of hB-ind1 in the replication of HCV in greater detail, deletion mutants of hB-ind1 retaining or lacking the binding region to NS5A were expressed in Huh9-13 cells harboring subgenomic HCV replicon RNA (Fig. 5A). Although the hB-ind1 mutant possessing the NS5A binding region (101-277) and full-length hB-ind1 were detected at similar levels in replicon cells transfected with the expression plasmids (Fig. 5B), HCV RNA replication was reduced only in cells expressing the mutant retaining the binding region to NS5A, not in those expressing full-length hB-ind1 or the mutant lacking the binding region to NS5A (101-277 Δ114-134) (Fig. 5C). However, no significant difference in NS5A expression was observed in Huh9-13 cells transfected with the expression plasmids (Fig. 5B). Production of the infectious HCV particles was also reduced in the culture supernatants of Huh7.5.1 cells expressing the hB-ind1 mutant retaining the binding region to NS5A (101-277) but not in those expressing full-length hB-ind1 or the hB-ind1 101-277 Δ114-134 mutant (Fig. 5D). These dominant-negative effects of the hB-ind1 mutant retaining the binding region to NS5A on the replication of HCV RNA in Huh9-13 cells and on the production of infectious particles in Huh7.5.1 cells further support the notion that hB-ind1 regulates the replication of HCV RNA and the propagation of HCVcc.

hB-ind1 interacts with FKBP8 and Hsp90. Previous reports have suggested that HCV NS5A interacts with several host proteins such as FBL2 (63), VAP-A (59), VAP-B (16), and FKBP8 (45) and that these interactions participate in the replication of HCV. To determine the interplay of the NS5A-binding proteins, FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 was coexpressed with HA-tagged FBL2, VAP-A, VAP-B, or FKBP8 in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody, and FKBP8 was shown to specifically interact with hB-ind1 (Fig. 6A). We have

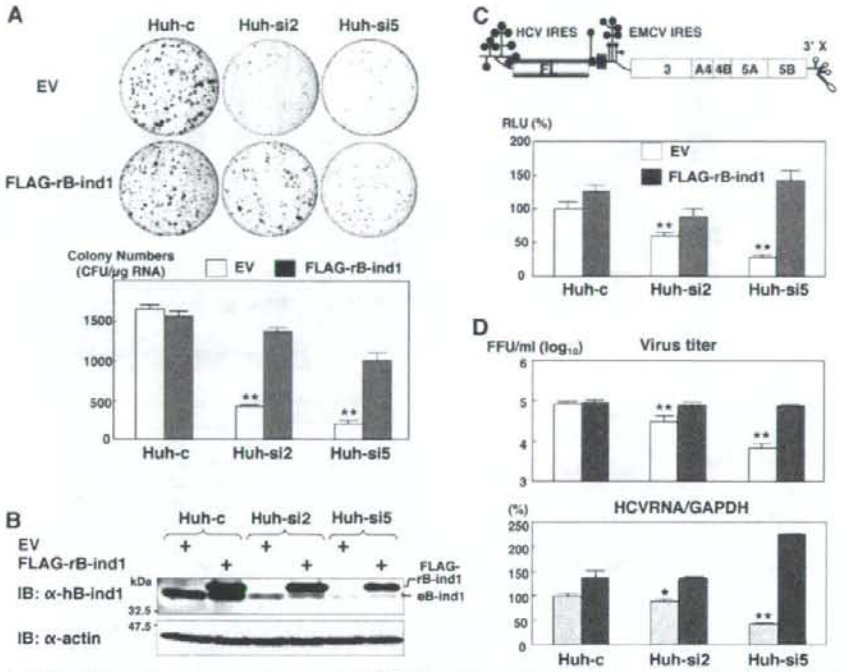

FIG. 4. Effects of hB-ind1 knockdown on the replication of HCV RNA and the production of infectious particles. (A) The hB-ind1 knockdown (Huh-si2 and Huh-si5) and control (Huh-c) cell lines were first transfected with either a plasmid encoding hB-ind1 resistant to siRNA by virtue of the introduction of silent mutations (FLAG-rB-ind1) or an empty vector (EV) and then further transfected with replicon RNA transcribed from pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1. (Upper panel) The cell colonies remaining after cultivation for 4 weeks in the presence of G418 were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and stained with crystal violet. (Lower panel) The number of colonies was standardized to the amount of transfected RNA. (B) The expression of the siRNA-resistant hB-ind1 (FLAG-rB-ind1) and the endogenous hB-ind1 (eB-ind1) in Huh-c, Huh-si2, and Huh-si5 cells transfected with either a plasmid encoding FLAG-rB-ind1 or an empty vector was analyzed by Western blotting (IB) with an antibody to hB-ind1 or β-actin. (C) HCV subgenomic replicon RNA transcribed from pFK-I_{389} FL/NS3-3′/NK5.1 and capped *Renilla* luciferase RNA transcribed from pRL-CMV were cotransfected into Huh-c, Huh-si2, and Huh-si5 cells pretransfected with either a plasmid encoding FLAG-rB-ind1 or an empty vector. The firefly luciferase activity was normalized to that of *Renilla* luciferase. HCV IRES-dependent translational activity was expressed as a percentage of the RLU of Huh-c cells transfected with an empty plasmid. EMCV, encephalomyocarditis virus. (D) HCVcc were inoculated into Huh-c, Huh-si2, and Huh-si5 cells pretransfected with either a plasmid encoding FLAG-rB-ind1 or an empty vector. (Upper panel) The culture supernatants at 72 h postinoculation were subjected to a focus-forming assay, and virus titers are expressed as focus-forming units (FFU) per milliliter. (Lower panel) The amount of intracellular HCV RNA was measured by real-time PCR and normalized to the amount of GAPDH mRNA. The HCV RNA level is expressed as a percentage of that of Huh-c cells transfected with an empty plasmid. Data in this figure are representative of three independent experiments. Error bars, standard deviations. Asterisks indicate significant differences (**, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$) from the control value.

previously shown that FKBP8 is capable of binding to both NS5A and Hsp90 through the tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domain and that the recruitment of Hsp90 to the replication complex plays a crucial role in the replication of HCV (45). Hsp90 is a molecular chaperone and requires various cochaperone proteins such as p23 for efficient chaperone activity. hB-ind1 shows homology to p23 (Fig. 2A), and the FxxW motif, essential for the binding to Hsp90, is conserved in residues $Phe^{107}xxTrp^{110}$ of hB-ind1 (11, 27, 68). To determine whether hB-ind1 interacts with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif as reported for p23, FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 or an hB-ind1 mutant in which Phe^{107} and Trp^{110} had been replaced with Ala (FLAG-hB-ind1AxxA) was coexpressed with HA-tagged Hsp90 in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. Hsp90 was coimmunoprecipitated with wild-type hB-ind1 but not with the mutant hB-ind1, indicating that hB-ind1 interacts with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif (Fig. 6B).

Previously, we showed that the amino acid residues of the carboxylate clump position in the TPR domain of FKBP8 attach to the C-terminal MEEVD motif of Hsp90 (45). To examine the interaction of hB-ind1 with Hsp90 in the absence of association with FKBP8, FLAG-tagged hB-ind1 was first coexpressed with HA-tagged Hsp90 or mutant Hsp90 lacking the MEEVD motif in 293T cells and then immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. Similar levels of hB-ind1 were coprecipitated with Hsp90 irrespective of the deletion of the MEEVD motif of Hsp90 (Fig. 6C), suggesting that hB-ind1 alone is capable of binding to Hsp90 through the FxxW motif irrespective of the association of FKBP8. To further clarify the interplay among hB-ind1, FKBP8, and Hsp90, FLAG-tagged

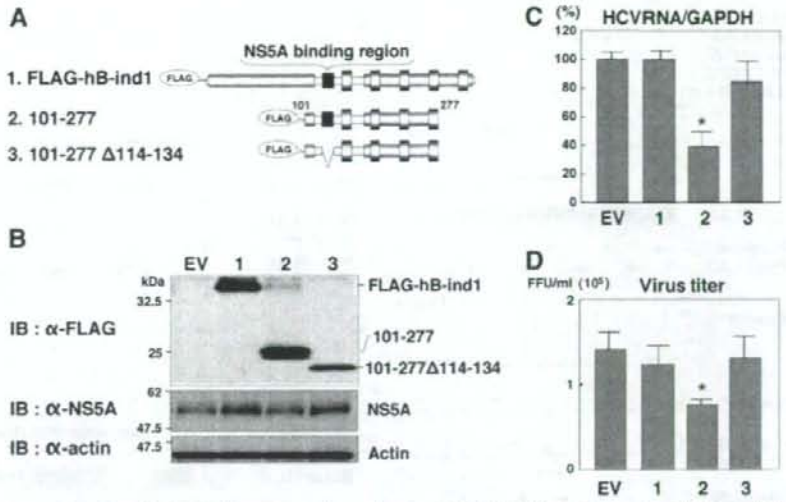

FIG. 5. Dominant-negative effect of an hB-ind1 mutant on the replication of HCV. (A) Plasmids encoding full-length hB-ind1 (construct 1) or deletion mutants of hB-ind1 retaining (construct 2) or lacking (construct 3) the NS5A binding region. (B) One of the three plasmids or an empty vector (EV) was transfected into Huh9-13 cells harboring a subgenomic HCV replicon RNA and was subjected to Western blotting (IB) with specific antibodies at 72 h posttransfection. (C) The amount of intracellular HCV RNA in the Huh9-13 cells was measured at 72 h posttransfection by real-time PCR, normalized to the amount of GAPDH mRNA, and expressed as the percentage of the value for control cells transfected with an empty plasmid. (D) One of the three plasmids or an empty vector was transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells, and then HCVcc were inoculated. Virus production in the culture supernatants at 72 h postinoculation was determined by a focus-forming assay. FFU, focus-forming units. Data in this figure are representative of three independent experiments. Error bars, standard deviations. Asterisks indicate significant differences ($P < 0.01$) from the control value.

hB-ind1 was coexpressed with HA-tagged Hsp90 and/or FKBP8 and then immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. Coprecipitation of Hsp90 with hB-ind1 was increased by additional expression of FKBP8 (Fig. 6D). These results suggest that hB-ind1 interacts with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif and that FKBP8 also participates in the complex formation to enhance the interaction.

hB-ind1 participates in HCV propagation through the interaction with Hsp90. Next, to examine the role of the interaction of hB-ind1 with Hsp90 in the replication of HCV RNA, the replicon RNA transcribed from pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1 was transfected into hB-ind1 knockdown Huh-si5 cells expressing siRNA-resistant FLAG-rB-ind1 or FLAG-rB-ind1AxxA, in which the Hsp90 binding motif FxxW was changed to AxxA. The colony formation in Huh-si5 cells transfected with an empty plasmid was 10% of that in Huh-c cells. The expression of FLAG-rB-ind in Huh-si5 cells recovered the colony formation in Huh-si5 cells to 98% of that in Huh-c cells, although that of FLAG-rB-ind1 AxxA in Huh-si5 cells exhibited only 40% recovery (Fig. 7A). To further examine the role of the interaction between hB-ind1 and Hsp90 in the production of HCVcc, Huh-si5 cells expressing either FLAG-rB-ind1 or FLAG-rB-ind1AxxA were infected with HCVcc, and the virus titer in the culture supernatants and the intracellular HCV RNA level at 72 h postinfection were determined. Virus production was reduced in the culture supernatants, and viral RNA replication in the hB-ind1 knockdown cells was restored by the expression of FLAG-rB-ind1 but not by that of FLAG-rB-ind1AxxA, as seen in colony formation by the replicon RNA (Fig. 7B). Collectively, these results suggest that the interaction of hB-ind1 with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif is required for genomic RNA replication and particle production of HCV.

DISCUSSION

In this study we have shown that hB-ind1 participates in HCV RNA replication and particle production through interaction with NS5A, FKBP8, and Hsp90. hB-ind1 was initially identified as a downstream transducer of Rac1, a member of the small GTP-binding proteins, in mouse fibroblasts treated with sodium butyrate, a multifunctional agent known to inhibit cell proliferation and to induce differentiation by modulating transcription (6, 10). Rac1 possesses diverse biological functions, including cytoskeletal dynamics, membrane ruffling, cell cycle progression, gene transcription, and cell survival (4, 31, 49). Previous studies have suggested that hB-ind1 mediates Rac1 and Jun N-terminal protein kinase–NF-κB signaling and is involved in the regulation of gene expression (6, 10). Inhibition of Rac1 function leads to disruption of cytoskeleton dynamics, resulting in impairment of cell growth (17, 69).

Inhibition of cell growth downregulates HCV RNA replication in the replicon cell line (41, 51), and cell cycle regulation affects HCV IRES-mediated translation (20, 61). Furthermore, cytoskeletal regulation is required for HCV RNA synthesis (3). However, knockdown of hB-ind1 and expression of the deletion mutants exhibited neither morphological change nor suppression of cell growth, suggesting that the suppression

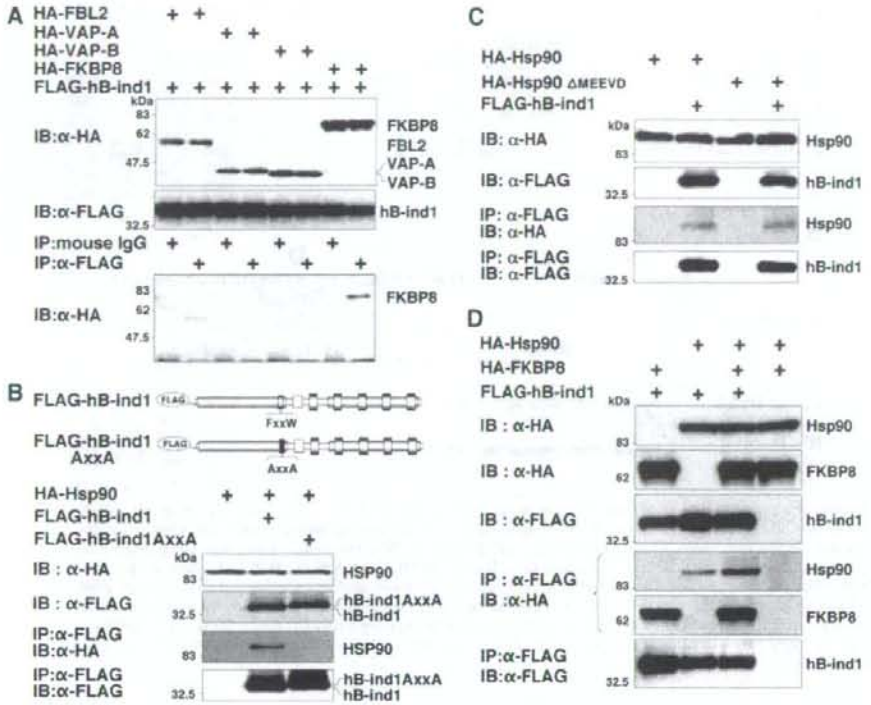

FIG. 6. Interaction of hB-ind1 with other NS5A-binding host proteins. (A) FLAG-hB-ind1 was first coexpressed with HA-tagged FBL2, VAP-A, VAP-B, or FKBP8 in 293T cells and then immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG or control antibody. The immunoprecipitates were detected by Western blotting (IB) with an anti-HA antibody. (B) FLAG-hB-ind1 or FLAG-hB-ind1AxxA, in which Phe^{107} and Trp^{110} had been replaced with Ala, was coexpressed with HA-Hsp90 in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. The immunoprecipitates were detected by Western blotting with an anti-HA or anti-FLAG antibody. (C) FLAG-hB-ind1 was coexpressed with HA-Hsp90 or mutant Hsp90 lacking the MEEVD motif (HA-Hsp90 ΔMEEVD) in 293T cells and was immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. The immunoprecipitates were detected by Western blotting with an anti-HA or anti-FLAG antibody. (D) HA-Hsp90, HA-FKBP8, and FLAG-hB-ind1 were coexpressed in various combinations in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG antibody. The immunoprecipitates were detected by Western blotting with an anti-HA or anti-FLAG antibody. Data in this figure are representative of three independent experiments.

of HCV replication by dysfunction of hB-ind1 is not due to cell growth arrest or cytoskeletal disruption. Murine B-ind1 has been reported to be expressed in all mouse tissues examined, with abundant expression detected in the testis, kidney, brain, and liver (10). Significant levels of endogenous hB-ind1 expression have been detected in the human hepatic cell lines Huh7, HepG2, Hep3B, and FLC4 and in the nonhepatic human cell lines HeLa, 293T, and THP-1 (data not shown); therefore, the tissue specificity of HCV replication could not be explained by the expression of hB-ind1.

Combination therapy with IFN and cyclosporine A has been shown to be effective for patients infected with a high viral load of HCV genotype 1b (24), and cyclosporine A has been shown to suppress HCV RNA replication in vitro through deactivation of the interaction between NS5B and cyclophilin B (66). Cyclophilin and FKBP are classified as immunophilins capable of binding to immunosuppressants cyclosporine A and FK506, respectively (33). The immunophilins do not share a homologous domain with each other, based on their amino acid sequences, substrate specificities, and inhibitor sensitivities. We have recently reported that NS5A binds specifically to FKBP8 but not to other homologous immunophilins such as FKBP52 and cyclophilin D. FKBP8 forms both a homomultimer and a heteromultimer with the chaperone protein Hsp90. Mutation analyses of FKBP8 and Hsp90 suggest that FKBP8 acts as an intermediate between NS5A and Hsp90 via the different position of the TPR domain in FKBP8 and regulates HCV genome replication (45).

The molecular chaperone Hsp90 is one of the most abundant proteins in unstressed cells and generally requires various cochaperone proteins in multiple steps to promote the folding, functional maturation, and stability of its client proteins. Newly synthesized unfolded client proteins are delivered to the Hsp70 complex via Hsp40. In most cases, Hsp70 is able to process the client proteins on its own. Certain substrates require Hsp90 for proper folding or activation. In this case, the scaffold protein Hop connects elements of the Hsp70 and Hsp90 machineries to form an intermediate complex (2, 12, 13, 47). In the late stage, the Hsp70 component dissociates, and at the same time, p23 and immunophilins enter the complex (44, 54) and the

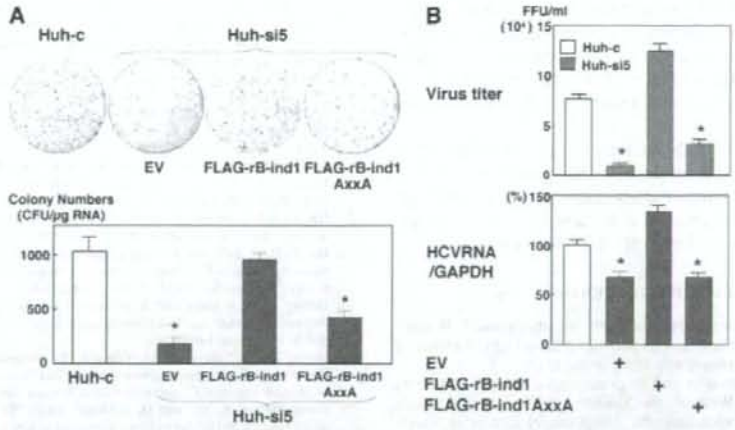

FIG. 7. Role of the interaction of hB-ind1 with Hsp90 in the replication of HCV. (A) hB-ind1 knockdown (Huh-si5) and control (Huh-c) cell lines were transfected either with a plasmid encoding the FLAG-tagged siRNA-resistant hB-ind1 (FLAG-rB-ind1) or FLAG-rB-ind1AxxA (with substitutions in the motif required for binding to Hsp90) or with an empty vector (EV) and were then further transfected with replicon RNA transcribed from pFK-I_{389} neo/NS3-3′/NK5.1. (Upper panel) The cell colonies remaining after cultivation for 4 weeks in the presence of G418 were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and stained with crystal violet. (Lower panel) The number of colonies was standardized to the amount of transfected RNA. (B) (Upper panel) Huh-si5 cells expressing either FLAG-rB-ind1 or FLAG-rB-ind1AxxA were infected with HCVcc, and virus production in the culture supernatants at 72 h postinoculation was determined by a focus-forming assay. (Lower panel) The amount of intracellular HCV RNA was measured at 72 h posttransfection by real-time PCR, normalized to the amount of GAPDH mRNA, and expressed as a percentage of the value for control cells transfected with an empty plasmid. Data in this figure are representative of three independent experiments. Error bars, standard deviations. Asterisks indicate significant differences ($P < 0.01$) from the control value.

client proteins are refolded by Hsp90 chaperone activity to achieve the mature form. After that, p23 enhances the dissociation of the mature client protein from the final complex, and the released Hsp90 enters in the next chaperone cycle (72). It has been reported that Hsp90 cochaperone frequencies differ among client proteins (50). FKBP8 interacts with the C-terminal MEEVD motif of Hsp90 through the carboxylate clump position in the TPR domain of FKBP8 (45).

The C-terminal region of hB-ind1 shares homology with PTPLA (60). Protein tyrosine phosphatases are generally involved in the signaling pathways regulating metabolism, cell growth, differentiation, and cytoskeletal dynamics through the conserved $HC(x)_5R$ motif (57). NS5A also interacts with signal transducer and activator of transcription 1 (STAT1) and impairs IFN signaling through the suppression of STAT1 phosphorylation (30). In addition, intracellular uptake of apoptotic cells expressing NS5A by dendritic cells leads to an increase in the secretion of CXCL-8 and impairment of IFN-induced tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT1 and STAT2 (67). Although hB-ind1 lacks the conserved active motif, the interaction of NS5A with the coiled-coil domain in the central region of hB-ind1 may have an effect on the phosphorylation of host proteins involved in the replication of HCV.

Hsp90 has been shown to be involved in the enzymatic activity and intracellular localization of several viral polymerases, including those of influenza virus (39, 42), herpes simplex virus type 1 (5), and Flock house virus (25). Knockdown and treatment with an Hsp90 inhibitor have revealed that Hsp90 activity is important for the rapid growth of negative-strand RNA viruses (9). Furthermore, Hsp90 has been shown to be required for the activity of hepatitis B virus reverse transcriptase (21, 22). Although the precise mechanisms by which Hsp90 and FKBP8 cooperate with NS5A to improve the in vivo replication of HCV have not been clarified yet, treatment with Hsp90 inhibitors in combination with IFN reduced HCV replication in mice xenotransplanted with human liver fragments (43).

In this study, hB-ind1 was shown to interact with Hsp90 through the FxxW motif in the N-terminal p23 homology domain, and the interaction of hB-ind1 with Hsp90 was shown to be further intensified by the expression of FKBP8, suggesting that FKBP8 and hB-ind1 cooperatively recruit Hsp90 to the HCV replication complex. Furthermore, hB-ind1 was shown to be involved in HCV genomic RNA replication and particle production through the interaction with NS5A and Hsp90. These results suggest that hB-ind1 may be involved in the Hsp90 chaperone pathway in a function similar to that of p23 in cooperation with immunophilins such as FKBP8 and that it plays a crucial role in HCV replication in terms of the correct folding of the replication complex required for efficient enzymatic activity. In addition, cyclophilin B may also participate in the translocation of NS5B, as seen in the polymerase subunits of influenza virus, to facilitate binding to the viral RNA. In contrast to cyclosporine A, FK506 per se exhibits no inhibition of RNA replication in HCV replicon cells (65). FKBP8 is a member of the FKBP family but lacks several amino acid residues required for peptidyl-prolyl *cis-trans* isomerase and FK506 binding activities (29). Therefore, nonimmunosuppressive FK506 derivatives that are capable of binding to FKBP8 may exhibit anti-HCV activity. Recently, geldanamycin, an inhibitor of Hsp90, was shown to drastically impair the replication of poliovirus without any escape mutant emerging (15).

Therefore, elucidation of host proteins, including immunophilins, cochaperones, and chaperones, participating in the HCV replication complex may lead to the development of new therapeutics for chronic hepatitis C with a broad spectrum and a low possibility of emergence of breakthrough viruses against antiviral drugs.

In conclusion, in this study we demonstrated that hB-ind1 is involved in HCV replication through interactions with NS5A, FKBP8, and Hsp90. Further clarification of the relationship between viral and host proteins is needed in order to understand the precise mechanism of HCV replication.

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Critical role of PA28γ in hepatitis C virus-associated steatogenesis and hepatocarcinogenesis

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Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major cause of chronic liver disease that frequently leads to steatosis, cirrhosis, and eventually hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). HCV core protein is not only a component of viral particles but also a multifunctional protein because liver steatosis and HCC are developed in HCV core gene-transgenic (CoreTg) mice. Proteasome activator PA28γ/REGγ regulates host and viral proteins such as nuclear hormone receptors and HCV core protein. Here we show that a knockout of the PA28γ gene induces the accumulation of HCV core protein in the nucleus of hepatocytes of CoreTg mice and disrupts development of both hepatic steatosis and HCC. Furthermore, the genes related to fatty acid biosynthesis and *srebp-1c* promoter activity were up-regulated by HCV core protein in the cell line and the mouse liver in a PA28γ-dependent manner. Heterodimer composed of liver X receptor α (LXRα) and retinoid X receptor α (RXRα) is known to up-regulate *srebp-1c* promoter activity. Our data also show that HCV core protein enhances the binding of LXRα/RXRα to LXR-response element in the presence but not the absence of PA28γ. These findings suggest that PA28γ plays a crucial role in the development of liver pathology induced by HCV infection.

fatty acid | proteasome | sterol regulatory element-binding protein (SREBP) | RXRα | LXRα

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) belongs to the Flaviviridae family, and it possesses a positive, single-stranded RNA genome that encodes a single polyprotein composed of ≈3,000 aa. The HCV polyprotein is processed by host and viral proteases, resulting in 10 viral proteins. Viral structural proteins, including the capsid (core) protein and two envelope proteins, are located in the N-terminal one-third of the polyprotein, followed by nonstructural proteins.

HCV infects >170 million individuals worldwide, and then it causes liver disease, including hepatic steatosis, cirrhosis, and eventually hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (1). The prevalence of fatty infiltration in the livers of chronic hepatitis C patients has been reported to average ≈50% (2, 3), which is higher than the percentage in patients infected with hepatitis B virus and other liver diseases. However, the precise functions of HCV proteins in the development of fatty liver remain unknown because of the lack of a system sufficient to investigate the pathogenesis of HCV. HCV core protein expression has been shown to induce lipid droplets in cell lines and hepatic steatosis and HCC in transgenic mice (4–6). These reports suggest that HCV core protein plays an important role in the development of various types of liver failure, including steatosis and HCC.

Recent reports suggest that lipid biosynthesis affects HCV replication (7–9). Involvement of a geranylgeranylated host protein, FBL2, in HCV replication through the interaction with NS5A suggests that the cholesterol biosynthesis pathway is also important for HCV replication (9). Increases in saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids enhance HCV RNA replication, whereas increases in polyunsaturated fatty acids suppress it (7). Lipid homeostasis is regulated by a family of steroid regulatory element-binding proteins (SREBPs), which activate the expression of >30 genes involved in the synthesis and uptake of cholesterol, fatty acids, triglycerides, and phospholipids. Biosynthesis of cholesterol is regulated by SREBP-2, whereas that of fatty acids, triglycerides, and phospholipids is regulated by SREBP-1c (10–14). In chimpanzees, host genes involved in SREBP signaling are induced during the early stages of HCV infection (8). SREBP-1c regulates the transcription of acetyl-CoA carboxylase, fatty acid synthase, and stearoyl-CoA desaturase, leading to the production of saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids and triglycerides (15). SREBP-1c is transcriptionally regulated by liver X receptor (LXR) α and retinoid X receptor (RXR) α, which belong to a family of nuclear hormone receptors (15, 16). Accumulation of cellular fatty acids by HCV core protein is expected to be modulated by the SREBP-1c pathway because RXRα is activated by HCV core protein (17). However, it remains unknown whether HCV core protein regulates the *srebp-1c* promoter.

We previously reported (18) that HCV core protein specifically binds to the proteasome activator PA28γ/REGγ in the nucleus and is degraded through a PA28γ-dependent pathway. PA28γ is well conserved from invertebrates to vertebrates, and amino acid sequences of human and murine PA28γs are identical (19). The homologous proteins, PA28α and PA28β, form a heteroheptamer in the cytoplasm, and they activate chymotrypsin-like peptidase activity of the 20S proteasome, whereas PA28γ forms a homoheptamer in the nucleus, and it enhances trypsin-like peptidase activity of 20S proteasome (20). Recently, Li and colleagues (21) reported that PA28γ binds to steroid receptor coactivator-3 (SRC-3) and enhances the degradation of SRC-3 in a ubiquitin- and ATP-independent manner. However, the precise physiological functions of PA28γ are largely unknown *in vivo*. In this work, we examine whether PA28γ is required for liver pathology induced by HCV core protein *in vivo*.

Results

PA28γ-Knockout HCV Core Gene Transgenic Mice. To determine the role of PA28γ in HCV core-induced steatosis and the development of HCC *in vivo*, we prepared PA28γ-knockout core gene transgenic mice. The PA28γ-deficient, PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice were born without

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Abbreviations: CoreTg, HCV core gene-transgenic; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; HCV, hepatitis C virus; LXR, liver X receptor; LXRE, liver X receptor-response element; MEF, mouse embryonic fibroblast; ROS, reactive oxygen species; RXR, retinoid X receptor; SRC-3, steroid receptor coactivator-3; SREBP, steroid regulatory element-binding protein.

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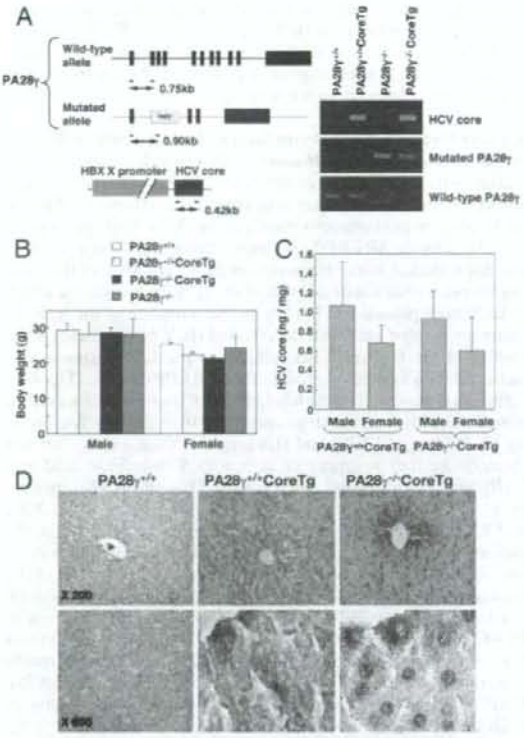

Fig. 1. Preparation and characterization of PA28γ-knockout HCV core-transgenic mice. (*A*) The structures of the wild-type and mutated PA28γ genes and the transgene encoding the HCV core protein under the control of the HBV X promoter were investigated. Positions corresponding to the screening primers and sizes of PCR products are shown. PCR products of the HCV core gene as well as wild-type and mutated PA28γ alleles were amplified from the genomic DNAs of PA28γ$^{+/+}$, PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg, PA28γ$^{-/-}$, and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice. (*B*) Body weights of PA28γ$^{+/+}$, PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg, PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg, and PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice at the age of 6 months. (*C*) HCV core protein levels in the livers of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice were determined by ELISA (mean ± SD, n = 10). (*D*) Localization of HCV core protein in the liver. Liver sections of PA28γ$^{+/+}$, PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg, and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice at the age of 2 months were stained with anti-HCV core antibody.

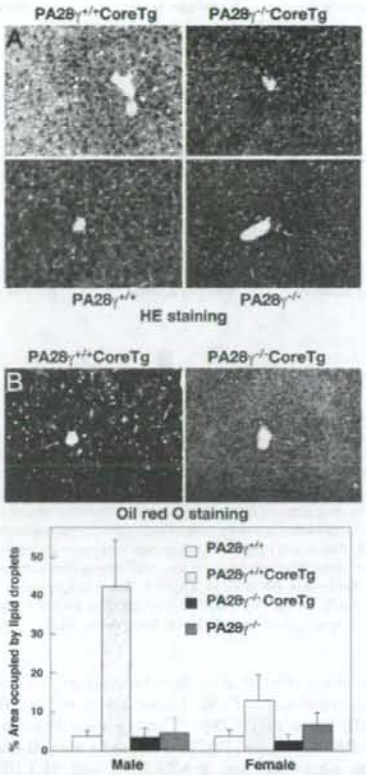

Fig. 2. Accumulation of lipid droplets by expression of HCV core protein. (*A*) Liver sections of the mice at the age of 6 months were stained with hematoxylin/eosin (HE). (*B*) (*Upper*) Liver sections of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice at the age of 6 months were stained with oil red O. (*Lower*) The area occupied by lipid droplets of PA28γ$^{+/+}$ (white), PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg (gray), PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg (black), and PA28γ$^{-/-}$ (dark gray) mice was calculated by Image-Pro software (MediaCybernetics, Silver Spring, MD) (mean ± SD, n = 10).

appreciable abnormalities in all tissues examined, with the exception of a slight retardation of growth (22). HCV core gene-transgenic (PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg) mice were bred with PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice to create PA28γ$^{+/-}$CoreTg mice. The PA28γ$^{+/-}$CoreTg offspring were bred with each other, and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice were selected by PCR using primers specific to the target sequences (Fig. 1*A*). No significant differences in body weight were observed among the 6-month-old mice, although PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice exhibited a slight retardation of growth (Fig. 1*B*). A similar level of PA28γ expression was detected in PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg and PA28γ$^{+/+}$ mice (see Fig. 5*B*). The expression levels and molecular size of HCV core protein were similar in the livers of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (Fig. 1*C*; see also Fig. 5*B*).

PA28γ Is Required for Degradation of HCV Core Protein in the Nucleus and Induction of Liver Steatosis. HCV core protein has been detected at various sites, such as the endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, lipid droplets, and nucleus of cultured cell lines, as well as in hepatocytes of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice and hepatitis C patients (6, 23, 24). Although HCV core protein is predominantly detected in the cytoplasm of the liver cells of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice, as reported in ref. 6, in the present study a clear accumulation of HCV core protein was observed in the liver cell nuclei of PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (Fig. 1*D*). These findings clearly indicate that at least some fraction of the HCV core protein is translocated into the nucleus and is degraded through a PA28γ-dependent pathway. Mild vacuolation was observed in the cytoplasm of the liver cells of 4-month-old PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice, and it became more severe at 6 months, as reported in ref. 25. Hematoxylin/eosin-stained liver sections of 6-month-old PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice exhibited severe vacuolating lesions (Fig. 2*A*), which were clearly stained with oil red O (Fig. 2*B Upper*), whereas no such lesions were detected in the livers of PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg, PA28γ$^{+/+}$, or PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice at the same age. The areas occupied by the lipid droplets in the PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mouse livers were ≈10 and 2–4 times larger than those of male and female of PA28γ$^{+/+}$, PA28γ$^{-/-}$, and PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice, respectively (Fig. 2*B Lower*). These results suggest that PA28γ is required for the induction of liver steatosis by HCV core protein in mice.

PA28γ Is Required for the Up-Regulation of SREBP-1c Transcription by HCV Core Protein in the Mouse Liver. To clarify the effects of a knockout of the PA28γ gene in PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice on lipid

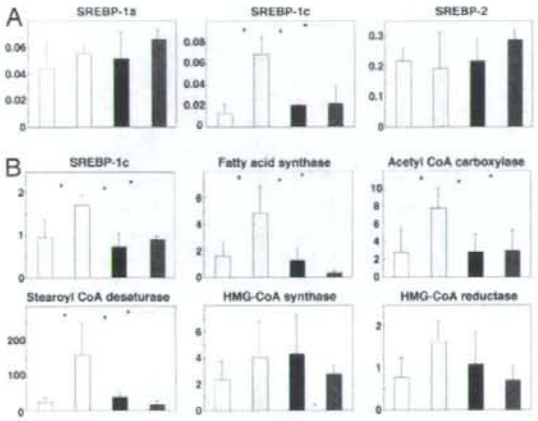

Fig. 3. Transcription of genes regulating lipid biosynthesis in the mouse liver. (*A*) Total RNA was prepared from the livers of 2-month-old mice; and the transcription of genes encoding SREBP-1a, SREBP-1c, and SREBP-2 was determined by real-time PCR. (*B*) The transcription of genes encoding SREBP-1c, fatty acid synthase, acetyl-CoA carboxylase, stearoyl-CoA desaturase, HMG-CoA synthase, and HMG-CoA reductase of 6-month-old mice was measured by real-time PCR. The transcription of the genes was normalized with that of hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase, and the values are expressed as relative activity ($n = 5$; •, $P < 0.05$; ••, $P < 0.01$). The transcription of each gene in PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$, PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$CoreTg, PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$CoreTg, and PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$ mice is indicated by white, gray, black, and dark gray bars, respectively.

metabolism, genes related to the lipid biosyntheses were examined by real-time quantitative PCR. Transcription of SREBP-1c was higher in the livers of PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$CoreTg mice than in those of PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$, PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$, and PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$CoreTg mice at 2 months of age, but no such increases in SREBP-2 and SREBP-1a were observed (Fig. 3*A*). Although transcription of SREBP-1c and its regulating enzymes, such as acetyl-CoA carboxylase, fatty acid synthase, and stearoyl-CoA desaturase, was also enhanced in the livers of 6-month-old PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$CoreTg mice compared with the levels in the livers of PA28$\gamma^{+/+}$, PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$, and PA28$\gamma^{-/-}$CoreTg mice, no statistically significant differences were observed with respect to the transcription levels of cholesterol biosynthesis-related genes that are regulated by SREBP-2 (e.g., HMG-CoA synthase and HMG-CoA reductase) (Fig. 3*B*). These results suggest the following: (*i*) the up-regulation of SREBP-1c transcription in the livers of mice requires both HCV core protein and PA28γ; and (*ii*) the nuclear accumulation of HCV core protein alone, which occurs because of the lack of degradation along a PA28γ-dependent proteasome pathway, does not activate the *srebp-1c* promoter.

HCV Core Protein Indirectly Potentiates *srebp-1c* Promoter Activity in an LXRα/RXRα-Dependent Manner. LXRα, which is primarily expressed in the liver, forms a complex with RXRα and synergistically potentiates *srebp-1c* promoter activity (16). Activation of RXRα by HCV core protein suggests that cellular fatty acid synthesis is modulated by the SREBP-1c pathway, although HCV core protein was not included in the transcription factor complex in the electrophoresis mobility shift assay (EMSA) (17). To analyze the effect of HCV core protein and PA28γ on the activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter, we first examined the effect of HCV core protein on the binding of the LXRα/RXRα complex to the LXR-response element (LXRE) located upstream of the SREBP-1c gene (Fig. 4*A*). Although a weak shift of the labeled LXRE probe was observed by incubation with nuclear extracts prepared from 293T cells expressing FLAG-tagged LXRα and HA-tagged RXRα, a clear shift was obtained by the treatment of cells with 9-*cis*-retinoic acid and 22(*R*)-hydroxylcholesterol, ligands for LXRα and RXRα, respectively. In contrast, coexpression of HCV core protein with LXRα and RXRα potentiated the shift of the probe irrespective of the treatment with the ligands. Addition of 500 times the amount of nonlabeled LXRE probe (competitor) diminished the shift of the labeled probe induced by the ligands and/or HCV core protein. Furthermore, coincubation of the nuclear fraction with antibody to FLAG or HA tag but not with antibody to either HCV core or PA28γ caused a supershift of the labeled probe. These results indicate that HCV core protein does not participate in the LXRα/RXRα–LXRE complex but indirectly enhances the binding of LXRα/RXRα to the LXRE.

The activity of the *srebp-1c* promoter was enhanced by the expression of HCV core protein in 293T cells, and it was further enhanced by coexpression of LXRα/RXRα (Fig. 4*B*). Enhancement of the *srebp-1c* promoter by coexpression of HCV core protein and LXRα/RXRα was further potentiated by treatment with the ligands for LXRα and RXRα. The cells treated with 9-*cis*-retinoic acid exhibited more potent enhancement of the *srebp-1c* promoter than those treated with 22(*R*)-hydroxylcholesterol. HCV core protein exhibited more potent enhancement of the *srebp-1c* promoter in cells treated with both ligands than in those treated with either ligand alone. These results suggest that HCV core protein poten-

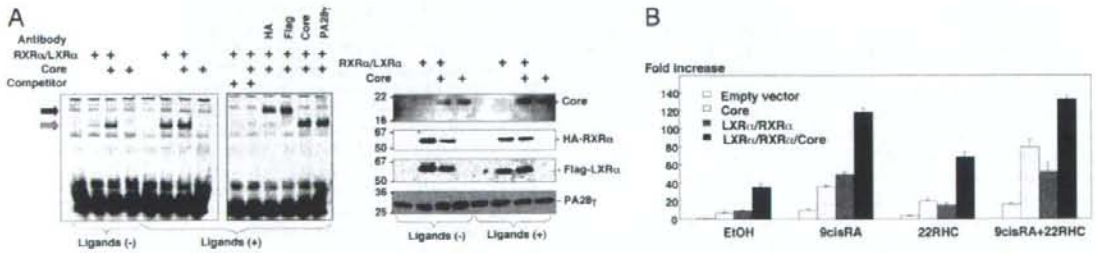

Fig. 4. Activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter by HCV core protein. (*A*) FLAG-LXRα and HA-RXRα were expressed in 293T cells together with or without HCV core protein. Ligands for LXRα and RXRα dissolved in ethanol [Ligands (+)] or ethanol alone [Ligands (−)] were added to the culture supernatant at 24 h posttransfection. Cells were harvested at 48 h posttransfection, and nuclear extracts were mixed with the reaction buffer for EMSA in the presence or absence of antibody (100 ng) against HA, FLAG, HCV core or PA28γ, or nonlabeled LXRE probe (Competitor). (*Left*) The resulting mixtures were subjected to PAGE and blotted with horseradish peroxidase/streptavidin. The mobility shift of the LXRE probe and its supershift are indicated by a gray and black arrow, respectively. (*Right*) Expression of HCV core, HA-RXRα, FLAG-LXRα, and PA28γ in cells was detected by immunoblotting. (*B*) Effects of ligands for RXRα, 9-*cis*-retinoic acid (9cisRA), and for LXRα, 22(*R*)-hydroxylcholesterol (22RHC), on the activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter in 293T cells expressing RXRα, LXRα, and/or HCV core protein. Ligands were added into the medium at 24 h posttransfection at a concentration of 5 μM, and the cells were harvested after 24 h of incubation.

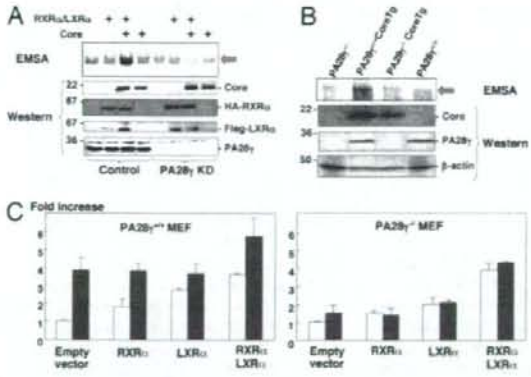

Fig. 5. PA28γ is required for HCV core-dependent activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter. (*A*) Effect of PA28γ knockdown on the LXRα/RXRα–DNA complex. FLAG-LXRα and HA-RXRα were expressed in FLC4 (control) or PA28γ-knockdown (PA28γ KD) cells together with or without HCV core protein. Cells were harvested at 48 h posttransfection, and nuclear extracts were mixed with the reaction buffer for EMSA. (*Upper*) The resulting mixtures were subjected to PAGE and blotted with horseradish peroxidase-streptavidin. The mobility shift of the LXRE probe is indicated by an arrow. (*Lower*) Expression of HCV core, HA-RXRα, FLAG-LXRα, and PA28γ in cells was detected by immunoblotting. (*B*) Effect of PA28γ knockout on the LXRα/RXRα–DNA complex in the mouse liver. (*Upper*) Nuclear extracts were prepared from the livers of 2-month-old PA28γ$^{-/-}$, PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg, PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg, and PA28γ$^{+/+}$ mice and subjected to EMSA. The mobility shift of the LXRE probe is indicated by an arrow. (*Lower*) The expression of HCV core, PA28γ, and β-actin in the livers of the mice was detected by immunoblotting. (*C*) Effect of HCV core protein on *srebp-1* promoter activity in PA28γ-knockout fibroblasts. A plasmid encoding firefly luciferase under the control of the *srebp-1c* promoter was transfected into MEFs prepared from PA28γ$^{+/+}$ (*Left*) or PA28γ$^{-/-}$ (*Right*) mice together with a plasmid encoding a *Renilla* luciferase. An empty plasmid or plasmids encoding mouse RXRα or LXRα were also cotransfected into the cells together with (gray bars) or without (white bars) a plasmid encoding HCV core protein. Luciferase activity under the control of the *srebp-1c* promoter was determined, and it is expressed as the fold increase in relative luciferase activity after standardization with the activity of *Renilla* luciferase.

tiates *srebp-1c* promoter activity in an LXRα/RXRα-dependent manner.

HCV Core Protein Activates the *srepb-1c* Promoter in an LXRα/RXRα- and PA28γ-Dependent Manner. To examine whether PA28γ is required for HCV core-induced enhancement of *srebp-1c* promoter activity in human liver cells, a PA28γ-knockdown human hepatoma cell line (FLC4 KD) was prepared. Enhancement of binding of the LXRE probe to LXRα/RXRα by coexpression of HCV core protein and LXRα/RXRα in FLC4 cells was diminished by knockdown of the PA28γ gene (Fig. 5*A*). Furthermore, formation of the LXRα/RXRα–LXRE complex was enhanced in the livers of PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice but not in those of PA28γ$^{-/-}$, PA28γ$^{+/+}$, or PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (Fig. 5*B*). The expression of the HCV core protein in the mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) of PA28γ$^{+/+}$ mice induced the activation of the mouse *srebp-1c* promoter through the endogenous expression of LXRα and RXRα (Fig. 5*C Left*). Further enhancement of the activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter by HCV core protein in PA28γ$^{+/+}$ MEFs was achieved by the exogenous expression of both LXRα and RXRα. However, no enhancing effect of HCV core protein on *srebp-1c* promoter activity was observed in PA28γ$^{-/-}$ MEFs (Fig. 5*C Right*). These results support the notion that HCV core protein enhances the activity of the *srepb-1c* promoter in an LXRα/RXRα- and PA28γ-dependent manner.

Table 1. HCC in mice at 16–18 months of age

Mouse and sex	Total no. of mice	No. of mice developing HCC	Incidence, %
PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg			
Male	17	5	29.4
Female	28	3	10.7
PA28γ$^{+/-}$			
Male	16	0	0
Female	4	0	0
PA28γ$^{-/-}$			
Male	23	0	0
Female	13	0	0
PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg			
Male	15	0	0
Female	21	0	0

PA28γ Plays a Crucial Role in the Development of HCC in PA28γ$^{+/+}$ CoreTg Mice. The incidence of hepatic tumors in male PA28γ$^{+/+}$ CoreTg mice older than 16 months was significantly higher than that in age-matched female PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice (6). We reconfirmed here that the incidence of HCC in male and female PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice at 16–18 months of age was 29.4% (5 of 17 mice) and 10.7% (3 of 28 mice), respectively. To our surprise, however, no HCC developed in PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (males, 15; females, 21), although, as expected, no HCC was observed in PA28γ$^{+/-}$ (males, 16; females, 4) and PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice (males, 23; females, 13) (Table 1). These results clearly indicate that PA28γ plays an indispensable role in the development of HCC induced by HCV core protein.

Discussion

HCV core protein is detected in the cytoplasm and partially in the nucleus and mitochondria of culture cells and hepatocytes of transgenic mice and hepatitis C patients (6, 23, 24, 26). Degradation of HCV core protein was enhanced by deletion of the C-terminal transmembrane region through a ubiquitin/proteasome-dependent pathway (27). We previously reported (18) that PA28γ binds directly to HCV core protein and then enhances degradation of HCV core protein in the nucleus through a proteasome-dependent pathway because HCV core protein was accumulated in nucleus of human cell line by treatment with proteasome inhibitor MG132. In this work, accumulation of HCV core protein was observed in nucleus of hepatocytes of PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (Fig. 1*D*). This result directly demonstrates that HCV core protein migrates into the nucleus and is degraded through a PA28γ-dependent pathway. However, HCV core protein accumulated in the nucleus because knockout of PA28γ gene abrogated the ability to cause liver pathology, suggesting that interaction of HCV core protein with PA28γ in the nucleus is prerequisite for the liver pathology induced by HCV core protein. We have previously shown (18) that HCV core protein is degraded through a PA28γ-dependent pathway, and Minami *et al.* (28) reported that PA28γ has a cochaperone activity with Hsp90. Therefore, degradation products of HCV core protein by means of PA28γ-dependent processing or correct folding of HCV core protein through cochaperone activity of PA28γ might be involved in the development of liver pathology. We do not know the reason why knockout of the PA28γ gene does not affect the total amount of HCV core protein in the liver of the transgenic mice. PA28γ-dependent degradation of HCV core protein may be independent of ubiquitination, as shown in SRC-3 (21), whereas knockdown of PA28γ in a human hepatoma cell line enhanced the ubiquitination of HCV core protein [supporting information (SI) Fig. 6], suggesting that lack of PA28γ suppresses a ubiquitin-independent degradation but enhances a ubiquitin-dependent degradation of HCV core protein. Therefore, the total amount of HCV

core protein in the liver of the mice may be unaffected by the knockout of the PA28γ gene.

Our results suggest that the interaction of HCV core protein with PA28γ leads to the activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter along an LXRα/RXRα-dependent pathway and the development of liver steatosis and HCC. HCV core protein was not included in the LXRα/RXRα–LXRE complex (Fig. 3*A*), suggesting that HCV core protein indirectly activates the *srebp-1c* promoter. Cytoplasmic HCV core protein was shown to interact with Sp110b, which is a transcriptional corepressor of RARα-dependent transcription, and this interaction leads to the sequestering of Sp110b in the cytoplasm, resulting in the activation of RARα-dependent transcription (29). The sequestration of an unidentified corepressor of the LXRα/RXRα heterodimer in the cytoplasm by HCV core protein may also contribute to the activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter. Although the precise physiological function of PA28γ-proteasome activity in the nucleus is not known, PA28γ has previously been shown (21) to regulate nuclear hormone receptors by means of the degradation of its coactivator SRC-3 and to participate in the fully Hsp90-dependent protein refolding (28). It appears reasonable to speculate that degradation or refolding of HCV core protein in a PA28γ-dependent pathway might be involved in the modulation of transcriptional regulators of various promoters, including the *srebp-1c* promoter. Saturated or monounsaturated fatty acids have been shown to enhance HCV RNA replication in Huh7 cells containing the full-length HCV replicon (7). The up-regulation of fatty acid biosynthesis by HCV core protein may also contribute to the efficient replication of HCV and to the progression of HCV pathogenesis.

Expression of HCV core protein was reported to enhance production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (30), which leads to carbonylation of intracellular proteins (31). Enhancement of ROS production may trigger double-stranded DNA breaks and result in the development of HCC (30, 32, 33). HCV core protein could enhance the protein carbonylation in the liver of the transgenic mice in the presence but not in the absence of PA28γ (SI Fig. 7), suggesting that PA28γ is required for ROS production induced by HCV core protein. Development of HCC was observed in PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice but not in PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice (Table 1). Enhancement of ROS production by HCV core protein in the presence of PA28γ might be involved in the development of HCC in PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice.

It is well known that resistant viruses readily emerge during the treatment with antiviral drugs targeting the viral protease or replicase, especially in the case of infection with RNA viruses. Therefore, antivirals targeting the host factors that are indispensable for the propagation of viruses might be an ideal target for the development of antiviral agents because of a lower rate of mutation than that of viral genome, if they have no side effects to patients. Importantly, the amino acid sequence of PA28γ of mice is identical to that of human, and mouse PA28γ is dispensable because PA28γ knockout mice exhibit no abnormal phenotype except for mild growth retardation. Therefore, PA28γ might be a promising target for an antiviral treatment of chronic hepatitis C with negligible side effects.

In summary, we observed that a knockout of the PA28γ gene from PA28γ$^{+/+}$CoreTg mice induced the accumulation of HCV core protein in the nucleus and disrupted the development of both steatosis and HCC. Activation of the *srebp-1c* promoter was up-regulated by HCV core protein both *in vitro* and *in vivo* through a PA28γ-dependent pathway, suggesting that PA28γ plays a crucial role in the development of liver pathology induced by HCV infection.

Materials and Methods

Histology and immunohistochemistry, real-time PCR, and detection of proteins modified by ROS are discussed in *SI Materials and Methods*.

Plasmids and Reagents. Human PA28γ cDNA was isolated from a human fetal brain library (18). The gene encoding HCV core protein was amplified from HCV strain J1 (genotype 1b) (34) and cloned into pCAG-GS (35). Mouse cDNAs of RXRα and LXRα were amplified by PCR from the total cDNAs of the mouse liver. The RXRα and LXRα genes were introduced into pEF-FLAGGspGBK (36) and pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), respectively. The targeting fragment for human PA28γ knockdown (GGATCCGGTGGATCAGGAAGTGAAGTTCAAGAGACTTCACTTCCTGATCCACCTTTTTTGGAAAAGCTT) was introduced into the BamHI and HindIII sites of pSilencer 4.1 U6 hygro vector (Ambion, Austin, TX). Mouse anti-FLAG (M2) and mouse anti-β-actin antibodies were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Rabbit polyclonal antibody against synthetic peptides corresponding to amino acids 70–85 of PA28γ was obtained from AFFINITI (Exeter, U.K.). Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse and anti-rabbit IgGs were purchased from ICN Pharmaceuticals (Aurora, OH). Rabbit anti-HCV core protein was prepared by immunization with recombinant HCV core protein (amino acids 1-71), as described in ref. 24. Mouse monoclonal antibody to HCV core protein was kindly provided by S. Yagi (37). The plasmid for expression of HA-tagged ubiquitin was described in ref. 27.

Preparation of PA28γ-Knockout HCV CoreTg Mice. The generation of C57BL/6 mice carrying the gene encoding HCV core protein genotype 1b line C49 and that of PA28γ$^{-/-}$ mice have been reported previously (22, 25). Both strains were crossbred with each other to create PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice. PA28γ$^{-/-}$CoreTg mice were identified by PCR targeted at the PA28γ or HCV core gene (22, 25). Using 1 μg of genomic DNA obtained from the mouse tail, the PA28γ gene was amplified by PCR with the following primers: sense, PA28-3 (AGGTGGATCAGGAAGTGAAGCTCAA); and antisense, PA28γ-5cr (CACCTCACTTGTGATCCGCTCTCTGAAAGAATCAACC). The targeted sequence for the PA28γ-knockout mouse was detected by PCR using the PA28-3 primer and the PAKO-4 primer (TGCAGTTCATTCAGGGCACCGGACAG). The transgene encoding HCV core protein was detected by PCR as described in ref. 25. The expression of PA28γ and HCV core protein in the livers of 6-month-old mice was confirmed by Western blotting with mouse monoclonal antibody to HCV core protein, clone 11-10, and rabbit antibody to PA28γ. Mice were cared for according to the institutional guidelines. The mice were given ordinary feed, CRF-1 (Charles River Laboratories, Yokohama, Japan), and they were maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions.

All animal experiments conformed to the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, and they were approved by the Institutional Committee of Laboratory Animal Experimentation (Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University).

Preparation of Mouse Embryonic Fibroblasts. MEFs were prepared as described in ref. 22. MEFs were cultured at 37°C under an atmosphere of 5% CO_2 in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Sigma) supplemented with 10% FBS, penicillin, streptomycin, sodium pyruvate, and nonessential amino acids.

Transfection and Immunoblotting. Plasmid vectors were transfected into the MEFs and 293T cells by liposome-mediated transfection by using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen). The amount of HCV core protein in the liver tissues was determined by an ELISA as described in ref. 37. The cell lysates were subjected to SDS/PAGE (12.5% gel), and they were then transferred onto PVDF membranes. Proteins on the membranes were treated with specific antibody and Super Signal Femto (Pierce, Rockford, IL). The results were then visualized by using an LAS3000 imaging system (Fuji Photo Film, Tokyo, Japan). The method of immunoprecipitation test is described in ref. 18.