

Fig. 6. NS5A suppresses hyperosmolarity stress-induced Syk-mediated tyrosine phosphorylation of cellular proteins. (a) Myc-tagged NS5A was expressed in Huh-7 cells with or without FLAG-tagged Syk. The cells were incubated with or without 400 mM sorbitol for 30 min and then lysed in lysis buffer. Half of the cell lysate was probed with anti-phosphotyrosine (p-Tyr) antibody (upper panel) and the remaining half with anti-FLAG and anti-Myc antibodies (bottom). (b) Cell lysates were probed with anti-p-Syk(Tyr³⁵²) (upper panel) or anti-p-Syk(Tyr^{525/526}) antibody (lower panel). (c) Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated using anti-PLC-γ1 antibody and probed with anti-p-Tyr antibody (upper panel). Efficient immunoprecipitation of PLC-γ1 was verified (lower panel).

(Coopman *et al.*, 2000) and airway epithelial cells (Ulanova *et al.*, 2005), nasal fibroblasts (Yamada *et al.*, 2001) and hepatocytes (Tsuchida *et al.*, 2000). These results suggest that Syk plays a general physiological role in non-haematopoietic cells as well. The first report of Syk having a role in cancer was a study of mammary epithelial cells (Coopman *et al.*, 2000). Since then, there have been several reports that Syk functions as a tumour suppressor in the process of malignant tumour development, such as gastric cancer (Wang *et al.*, 2004) and leukaemia (Goodman *et al.*, 2001). To look into the possible relevance of Syk in HCV-infected hepatocytes and also the possible involvement of Syk in HCC development, we first examined Syk expression in hepatocytes obtained from HCV-infected and uninfected subjects. We found that Syk was expressed near the plasma membrane of hepatocytes of HCV-infected patients, with a patchy pattern, whereas it was expressed rather diffusely in the cytoplasm of normal, uninfected hepatocytes (Fig. 1).

We also demonstrated that NS5A interacted with Syk and inhibited its kinase activity when expressed ectopically in Huh-7 cells (Figs 2, 5 and 6). The NS5A interaction with Syk was observed even in the context of HCV RNA replication (Fig. 7a, b) and Syk kinase activity was inhibited

in HCV RNA replicon-harboring cells (Fig. 7c). It is likely, therefore, that Syk is a binding partner of NS5A and is functionally inhibited in HCV-infected hepatocytes as well. Whilst an N-terminal portion of NS5A (aa 1–175) was responsible for the binding to Syk, a central portion (aa 237–302) was also required for the inhibition of Syk kinase activity (Figs 3 and 5). It has been reported that NS5A associates with the non-receptor protein tyrosine kinases Lyn and Fyn, members of the Src family kinases, through the proline-rich region of NS5A (aa 343–356) and the SH3 domain of the kinases, thereby inhibiting and activating the kinase activities of Lyn and Fyn, respectively (Macdonald & Harris, 2004; Macdonald *et al.*, 2004). In contrast, Syk does not possess an SH3 domain but has two tandem SH2 domains. These SH2 domains are known to interact with diphosphorylated ITAM of immune receptors, resulting in activation of Syk in an autocrine or paracrine manner (Sada *et al.*, 2001; Yanagi *et al.*, 1995). However, it is unlikely that the NS5A–Syk interaction occurs through its ITAM-related sequence in the same manner as that observed for immune receptors, as NS5A mutants with a mutated ITAM-like sequence still interacted with Syk (Fig. 3). Also, the SH2 domains of Syk are not the only binding sites for NS5A (Fig. 4). These results suggest that the mechanism

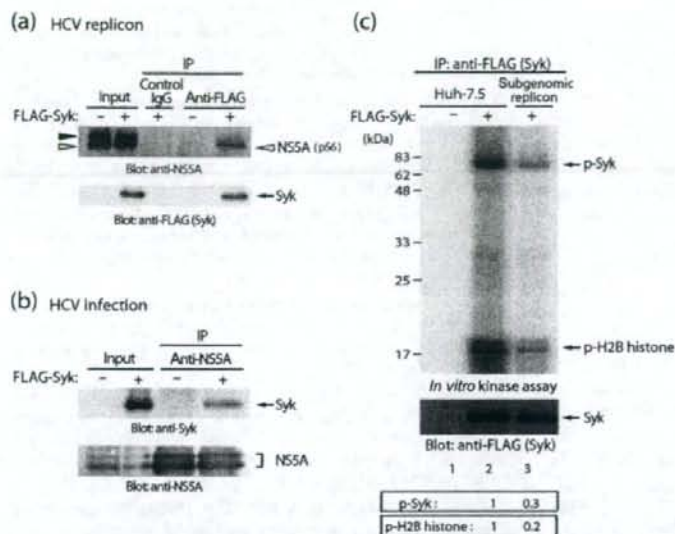


Fig. 7. NS5A expressed in the context of HCV RNA replication interacts with Syk and inhibits its kinase activity. (a) FLAG-tagged Syk was expressed in HCV RNA replicon-harboring Huh-7.5 cells. Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG antibody or control IgG and probed with anti-NS5A (upper panel) or anti-FLAG antibody (lower panel). Filled and open arrowheads indicate the hyperphosphorylated (p58) and hypophosphorylated forms of NS5A (p56), respectively. (b) FLAG-tagged Syk was expressed in HCV J6/JFH-1-infected Huh-7.5 cells. Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-NS5A polyclonal antibody and probed with anti-Syk monoclonal antibody. (c) FLAG-tagged Syk was expressed in HCV RNA replicon-harboring Huh-7.5 cells. Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG antibody and the immunoprecipitates were subjected to an *in vitro* kinase assay using H2B histone as substrate. Phosphorylation of Syk (p-Syk) and H2B histone (p-H2B histone) was visualized by autoradiography (upper panel). Efficient immunoprecipitation of Syk was verified (lower panel). Arbitrary units of Syk kinase activities, represented by the phosphorylation values of p-Syk and p-H2B histone normalized to the amounts of immunoprecipitated Syk, are shown at the bottom.

underlying the NS5A–Syk interaction differs from what has been observed for Syk and its interacting proteins in immune cells. It is possible that multiple regions of NS5A are involved in the interaction with Syk. Alternatively, NS5A may interact with Syk indirectly through the other host protein(s) that binds directly to Syk.

Syk is activated by cytokine stimulation, hyperosmolarity shock, oxidative stress and engagement with integrin (Corey *et al.*, 1994; Gao *et al.*, 1997; Miah *et al.*, 2004). However, the biological relevance of Syk in hepatocytes has not yet been demonstrated. We have shown in the present study that hyperosmolarity stress-induced activation of Syk resulted in increased tyrosine phosphorylation of endogenous PLC- γ 1 (Fig. 6c). This result suggests that activated Syk sends signals to PLC- γ 1 in hepatocytes, as observed in immune cells (Law *et al.*, 1996). Our findings that NS5A associates with Syk strongly suggest that NS5A affects the Syk signalosome to alter the signal transduction elicited by the Syk–PLC- γ 1 interaction.

Phosphorylation of tyrosine residues in the linker region of Syk is required for immune receptor signalling. Genetic studies have demonstrated that phosphorylation of Tyr³⁴⁸ and Tyr³⁵² in the linker region of Syk is involved in regulating tyrosine phosphorylation of LAT (linker for

activating T cells), SLP-76 and PLC- γ 1 and - γ 2, and affects Ca²⁺ mobilization triggered by aggregation of the high-affinity IgE receptor (Simon *et al.*, 2005; Zhang *et al.*, 2002). We observed that NS5A downregulated phosphorylation of Tyr³⁵² of Syk (Fig. 6b), which correlated with the inhibition of Syk kinase activity. The phosphorylation state of Tyr³⁵² also correlated well with the tyrosine phosphorylation state of PLC- γ 1. This suggests the possibility that Ca²⁺ mobilization is affected in HCV-infected hepatocytes through the NS5A-mediated downregulation of Tyr³⁵² phosphorylation on Syk.

Unlike ectopically expressed Syk, endogenously expressed Syk in B cells under normal conditions is not tyrosine phosphorylated (Wienands *et al.*, 1996). Pervanadate stimulation is known to induce tyrosine phosphorylation of endogenous Syk. We examined the possible interaction of endogenous Syk and NS5A. Our results demonstrated that NS5A interacted with endogenous Syk when the cells were treated with pervanadate, but not when the cells were left untreated (Fig. 2d). These results suggest that NS5A interacts with the tyrosine-phosphorylated, active form of Syk.

Whilst Syk is commonly expressed in normal human breast tissues, benign breast lesions and low-tumorigenic breast

cancer cell lines, only a minimal or even an undetectable level of Syk expression has been demonstrated in invasive breast carcinoma tissues and cell lines (Coopman *et al.*, 2000). DNA methylation of the CpG sites in the *syk* gene promoter has been reported to be responsible for the loss or marked reduction of Syk expression in breast cancer (Yuan *et al.*, 2001). Moreover, Yuan *et al.* (2006) reported that DNA methylation of the *syk* gene in hepatitis B virus-associated HCC cancerous tissue was highly correlated with Syk expression and that the patients with a methylated *syk* gene had a significantly lower overall survival rate after hepatectomy than those with an unmethylated *syk* gene. In contrast, our results revealed that the expression levels of Syk did not differ between normal and HCV-infected hepatocytes (Fig. 1k) or between cancerous and non-cancerous hepatocytes (data not shown). At the functional level, however, NS5A downregulated Syk kinase activity in Huh-7 cells (Fig. 6). Moreover, Syk kinase activity was downregulated in cells harbouring an HCV RNA replicon (Fig. 7c). These results collectively suggest that NS5A is involved, at least partly, in the suppression of Syk kinase activity in HCV-infected cells. It is also interesting to assume that the NS5A-mediated Syk inhibition plays an important role in the development of HCC, although the precise molecular mechanism(s) is yet to be determined. Recently, a possible mechanism by which breast cancer cells become invasive was proposed: human breast cancer cells express and secrete a group of chemokines called growth-related oncogene (GRO)- α , GRO- β and GRO- γ , and their production is regulated by Syk (Li & Sidell, 2005). It would be interesting to examine the possible effects of NS5A and HCV RNA replication on the levels of GRO expression and secretion.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors are grateful to Dr R. Bartenschlager (University of Heidelberg, Germany) for providing the HCV RNA replicon and Dr C. M. Rice (The Rockefeller University, USA) for pL-16/JFH1 and Huh-7.5 cells. Thanks are also due to Dr I. Fuke (Osaka University, Japan) for providing monoclonal antibodies against NS3, NS4A and NS5A, and Dr K. Shimotohno (Institute for Virus Research, Kyoto University, Japan) for anti-NS5A polyclonal antibody. This work was supported in part by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) and the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, Japan. This study was also carried out as part of the Program of Founding Research Centers for Emerging and Reemerging Infectious Diseases, MEXT Japan, and the 21st Century COE Program at Kobe University Graduate School of Medicine.

REFERENCES

Blight, K. J., McKeating, J. A. & Rice, C. M. (2002). Highly permissive cell lines for subgenomic and genomic hepatitis C virus RNA replication. *J Virol* **76**, 13001–13014.

Cheng, A. M., Rowley, B., Pao, W., Hayday, A., Bolen, J. B. & Pawson, T. (1995). Syk tyrosine kinase required for mouse viability and B-cell development. *Nature* **378**, 303–306.

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

Chung, K. M., Lee, J., Kim, J. E., Song, O. K., Cho, S., Lim, J., Seedorf, M., Hahn, B. & Jang, S. K. (2000). Nonstructural protein 5A of hepatitis C virus inhibits the function of karyopherin β 3. *J Virol* **74**, 5233–5241.

Coopman, P. J., Do, M. T., Barth, M., Bowden, E. T., Hayes, A. J., Basyuk, E., Biancato, J. K., Vezza, P. R., McLeskey, S. W. & other authors (2000). The Syk tyrosine kinase suppresses malignant growth of human breast cancer cells. *Nature* **406**, 742–747.

Corey, S. J., Burkhardt, A. L., Bolen, J. B., Geahlen, R. L., Tkatch, L. S. & Tweardy, D. J. (1994). Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor receptor signaling involves the formation of a three-component complex with Lyn and Syk protein-tyrosine kinases. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **91**, 4683–4687.

Costello, P. S., Turner, M., Walters, A. E., Cunningham, C. N., Bauer, P. H., Downward, J. & Tybulewicz, V. L. (1996). Critical role for the tyrosine kinase Syk in signalling through the high affinity IgE receptor of mast cells. *Oncogene* **13**, 2595–2605.

Deng, L., Nagano-Fujii, M., Tanaka, M., Nomura-Takigawa, Y., Ikeda, M., Kato, N., Sada, K. & Hotta, H. (2006). NS3 protein of hepatitis C virus associates with the tumor suppressor p53 and inhibits its function in an NS3 sequence-dependent manner. *J Gen Virol* **87**, 1703–1713.

Doi, H., Apichartpiyakul, C., Ohba, K. I., Mizokami, M. & Hotta, H. (1996). Hepatitis C virus (HCV) subtype prevalence in Chiang Mai, Thailand, and identification of novel subtypes of HCV major type 6. *J Clin Microbiol* **34**, 569–574.

Evans, M. J., Rice, C. M. & Goff, S. P. (2004). Phosphorylation of hepatitis C virus nonstructural protein 5A modulates its protein interactions and viral RNA replication. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **101**, 13038–13043.

Gale, M., Jr, Blakely, C. M., Kwieciszewski, B., Tan, S. L., Dossett, M., Tang, N. M., Korth, M. J., Polyak, S. J., Gretch, D. R. & Katze, M. G. (1998). Control of PKR protein kinase by hepatitis C virus nonstructural 5A protein: molecular mechanisms of kinase regulation. *Mol Cell Biol* **18**, 5208–5218.

Gao, J., Zoller, K. E., Ginsberg, M. H., Brugge, J. S. & Shattil, S. J. (1997). Regulation of the pp72^{syk} protein tyrosine kinase by platelet integrin α _{IIb} β ₃. *EMBO J* **16**, 6414–6425.

Gao, L., Aizaki, H., He, J. W. & Lai, M. M. (2004). Interactions between viral nonstructural proteins and host protein hVAP-33 mediate the formation of hepatitis C virus RNA replication complex on lipid raft. *J Virol* **78**, 3480–3488.

Ghosh, A. K., Majumder, M., Steele, R., Yaciuk, P., Chirvia, J., Ray, R. & Ray, R. B. (2000). Hepatitis C virus NS5A protein modulates transcription through a novel cellular transcription factor SRCAP. *J Biol Chem* **275**, 7184–7188.

Goodman, P. A., Wood, C. M., Vassilev, A., Mao, C. & Uckun, F. M. (2001). Spleen tyrosine kinase (Syk) deficiency in childhood pro-B cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia. *Oncogene* **20**, 3969–3978.

Hamamoto, I., Nishimura, Y., Okamoto, T., Aizaki, H., Liu, M., Mori, M., Abe, T., Suzuki, T., Lai, M. M. C. & other authors (2005). Human VAP-B is involved in hepatitis C virus replication through interaction with NS5A and NS5B. *J Virol* **79**, 13473–13482.

He, Y., Nakao, H., Tan, S. L., Polyak, S. J., Neddermann, P., Vijaysri, S., Jacobs, B. L. & Katze, M. G. (2002). Subversion of cell signaling pathways by hepatitis C virus nonstructural 5A protein via interaction with Grb2 and P85 phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase. *J Virol* **76**, 9207–9217.

- Hidajat, R., Nagano-Fujii, M., Deng, L., Tanaka, M., Takigawa, Y., Kitazawa, S. & Hotta, H. (2005). Hepatitis C virus NS3 protein interacts with ELKS- δ and ELKS- α , members of a novel protein family involved in intracellular transport and secretory pathways. *J Gen Virol* **86**, 2197–2208.
- Kaneko, T., Tanji, Y., Satoh, S., Hijikata, M., Asabe, S., Kimura, K. & Shimotohno, K. (1994). Production of two phosphoproteins from the NS5A region of the hepatitis C virus genome. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **205**, 320–326.
- Kurosaki, T., Johnson, S. A., Pao, L., Sada, K., Yamamura, H. & Cambier, J. C. (1995). Role of the Syk autophosphorylation site and SH2 domains in B cell antigen receptor signaling. *J Exp Med* **182**, 1815–1823.
- Law, C. L., Chandran, K. A., Sidorenko, S. P. & Clark, E. A. (1996). Phospholipase C- γ 1 interacts with conserved phosphotyrosyl residues in the linker region of Syk and is a substrate for Syk. *Mol Cell Biol* **16**, 1305–1315.
- Li, J. & Sidell, N. (2005). Growth-related oncogene produced in human breast cancer cells and regulated by Syk protein-tyrosine kinase. *Int J Cancer* **117**, 14–20.
- Lindenbach, B. D., Evans, M. J., Syder, A. J., Wolk, B., Tellinghuisen, T. L., Liu, C. C., Maruyama, T., Hynes, R. O., Burton, D. R. & other authors (2005). Complete replication of hepatitis C virus in cell culture. *Science* **309**, 623–626.
- Lohmann, V., Korner, F., Dobierzewska, A. & Bartenschlager, R. (2001). Mutations in hepatitis C virus RNAs conferring cell culture adaptation. *J Virol* **75**, 1437–1449.
- Macdonald, A. & Harris, M. (2004). Hepatitis C virus NS5A: tales of a promiscuous protein. *J Gen Virol* **85**, 2485–2502.
- Macdonald, A., Crowder, K., Street, A., McCormick, C. & Harris, M. (2004). The hepatitis C virus NS5A protein binds to members of the Src family of tyrosine kinases and regulates kinase activity. *J Gen Virol* **85**, 721–729.
- Maeda, N., Watanabe, M., Okamoto, S., Kanai, T., Yamada, T., Hata, J., Hozumi, N., Katsume, A., Nuriya, H. & other authors (2004). Hepatitis C virus infection in human liver tissue engrafted in mice with an infectious molecular clone. *Liver Int* **24**, 259–267.
- Majumder, M., Ghosh, A. K., Steele, R., Ray, R. & Ray, R. B. (2001). Hepatitis C virus NS5A physically associates with p53 and regulates p21/waf1 gene expression in a p53-dependent manner. *J Virol* **75**, 1401–1407.
- Mellor, J., Holmes, E. C., Jarvis, L. M., Yap, P. L. & Simmonds, P. (1995). Investigation of the pattern of hepatitis C virus sequence diversity in different geographical regions: implications for virus classification. *J Gen Virol* **76**, 2493–2507.
- Miah, S. M., Sada, K., Tuazon, P. T., Ling, J., Maeno, K., Kyo, S., Qu, X., Tohyama, Y., Traugh, J. A. & Yamamura, H. (2004). Activation of Syk protein tyrosine kinase in response to osmotic stress requires the interaction with p21-activated protein kinase Pak2/ γ -PAK. *Mol Cell Biol* **24**, 71–83.
- Miyazawa, Y., Atsuzawa, K., Usuda, N., Watashi, K., Hishiki, T., Zayas, M., Bartenschlager, R., Wakita, T., Hijikata, M. & Shimotohno, K. (2007). The lipid droplet is an important organelle for hepatitis C virus production. *Nat Cell Biol* **9**, 1089–1097.
- Muramatsu, S., Ishido, S., Fujita, T., Itoh, M. & Hotta, H. (1997). Nuclear localization of the NS3 protein of hepatitis C virus and factors affecting the localization. *J Virol* **71**, 4954–4961.
- Okamoto, K., Moriishi, K., Miyamura, T. & Matsuura, Y. (2004). Intramembrane proteolysis and endoplasmic reticulum retention of hepatitis C virus core protein. *J Virol* **78**, 6370–6380.
- Poole, A., Gibbins, J. M., Turner, M., van Vugt, M. J., van de Winkel, J. G., Saito, T., Tybulewicz, V. L. & Watson, S. P. (1997). The Fc receptor γ -chain and the tyrosine kinase Syk are essential for activation of mouse platelets by collagen. *EMBO J* **16**, 2333–2341.
- Qadri, I., Iwahashi, M. & Simon, F. (2002). Hepatitis C virus NS5A protein binds TBP and p53, inhibiting their DNA binding and p53 interactions with TBP and ERCC3. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1592**, 193–204.
- Reed, K. E. & Rice, C. M. (2000). Overview of hepatitis C virus genome structure, polyprotein processing, and protein properties. *Curr Top Microbiol Immunol* **242**, 55–84.
- Robertson, B., Myers, G., Howard, C., Brettin, T., Bukh, J., Gaschen, B., Gojobori, T., Maertens, G., Mizokami, M. & other authors (1998). Classification, nomenclature, and database development for hepatitis C virus (HCV) and related virus: proposals for standardization. *Arch Virol* **143**, 2493–2503.
- Sada, K., Zhang, J. & Siraganian, R. P. (2000). Point mutation of a tyrosine in the linker region of Syk results in a gain of function. *J Immunol* **164**, 338–344.
- Sada, K., Takano, T., Yanagi, S. & Yamamura, H. (2001). Structure and function of Syk protein-tyrosine kinase. *J Biochem* **130**, 177–186.
- Schneider, F. & Kieser, A. (2004). A novel assay to quantify cell death after transient expression of apoptotic genes in B- and T-lymphocytes. *J Immunol Methods* **292**, 165–174.
- Shi, S. T., Polyak, S. J., Tu, H., Taylor, D. R., Gretch, D. R. & Lai, M. M. (2002). Hepatitis C virus NS5A localizes with the core protein on lipid droplets and interacts with apolipoproteins. *Virology* **292**, 198–210.
- Shiue, L., Green, J., Green, O. M., Karas, J. L., Morgenstern, J. P., Ram, M. K., Taylor, M. K., Zoller, M. J., Zydowsky, L. D. & other authors (1995). Interaction of p72^{NS5A} with the γ and β subunits of the high-affinity receptor for immunoglobulin E, Fc ϵ RI. *Mol Cell Biol* **15**, 272–281.
- Simon, M., Vanes, L., Geahlen, R. L. & Tybulewicz, V. L. (2005). Distinct roles for the linker region tyrosines of Syk in Fc ϵ RI signaling in primary mast cells. *J Biol Chem* **280**, 4510–4517.
- Song, J., Fujii, M., Wang, F., Itoh, M. & Hotta, H. (1999). The NS5A protein of hepatitis C virus partially inhibits the antiviral activity of interferon. *J Gen Virol* **80**, 879–886.
- Street, A., Macdonald, A., Crowder, K. & Harris, M. (2004). The hepatitis C virus NS5A protein activates a phosphoinositide 3-kinase-dependent survival signaling cascade. *J Biol Chem* **279**, 12232–12241.
- Taguchi, T., Nagano-Fujii, M., Akutsu, M., Kadoya, H., Ohgimoto, S., Ishido, S. & Hotta, H. (2004). Hepatitis C virus NS5A protein interacts with 2',5'-oligoadenylate synthetase and inhibits antiviral activity of IFN in an IFN sensitivity-determining region-independent manner. *J Gen Virol* **85**, 959–969.
- Takigawa, Y., Nagano-Fujii, M., Deng, L., Hidajat, R., Tanaka, M., Mizuta, H. & Hotta, H. (2004). Suppression of hepatitis C virus replicon by RNA interference directed against the NS3 and NS5B regions of the viral genome. *Microbiol Immunol* **48**, 591–598.
- Tan, S. L., Nakao, H., He, Y., Vijaysri, S., Neddermann, P., Jacobs, B. L., Mayer, B. J. & Katze, M. G. (1999). NS5A, a nonstructural protein of hepatitis C virus, binds growth factor receptor-bound protein 2 adaptor protein in a Src homology 3 domain/ligand-dependent manner and perturbs mitogenic signaling. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **96**, 5533–5538.
- Taniguchi, T., Kobayashi, T., Kondo, J., Takahashi, K., Nakamura, H., Suzuki, J., Nagai, K., Yamada, T., Nakamura, S. & Yamamura, H. (1991). Molecular cloning of a porcine gene *syk* that encodes a 72-kDa protein-tyrosine kinase showing high susceptibility to proteolysis. *J Biol Chem* **266**, 15790–15796.

- Tellinghuisen, T. L., Marcotrigiano, J. & Rice, C. M. (2005). Structure of the zinc-binding domain of an essential component of the hepatitis C virus replicase. *Nature* **435**, 374–379.
- Tsuchida, S., Yanagi, S., Inatome, R., Ding, J., Hermann, P., Tsujimura, T., Matsui, T. & Yamamura, H. (2000). Purification of a 72-kDa protein-tyrosine kinase from rat liver and its identification as Syk: involvement of Syk in signaling events of hepatocytes. *J Biochem* **127**, 321–327.
- Turner, M., Mee, P. J., Costello, P. S., Williams, O., Price, A. A., Duddy, L. P., Furlong, M. T., Geahlen, R. L. & Tybulewicz, V. L. (1995). Perinatal lethality and blocked B-cell development in mice lacking the tyrosine kinase Syk. *Nature* **378**, 298–302.
- Turner, M., Schweighoffer, E., Colucci, F., Di Santo, J. P. & Tybulewicz, V. L. (2000). Tyrosine kinase SYK: essential functions for immunoreceptor signalling. *Immunol Today* **21**, 148–154.
- Ulanova, M., Puttagunta, L., Marcet-Palacios, M., Duszyk, M., Steinhoff, U., Duta, F., Kim, M. K., Indik, Z. K., Schreiber, A. D. & Befus, A. D. (2005). Syk tyrosine kinase participates in β 1-integrin signaling and inflammatory responses in airway epithelial cells. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol* **288**, L497–L507.
- Wang, S., Ding, Y. B., Chen, G. Y., Xia, J. G. & Wu, Z. Y. (2004). Hypermethylation of Syk gene in promoter region associated with oncogenesis and metastasis of gastric carcinoma. *World J Gastroenterol* **10**, 1815–1818.
- Weiss, A. & Littman, D. R. (1994). Signal transduction by lymphocyte antigen receptors. *Cell* **76**, 263–274.
- Wienands, J., Larbolette, O. & Reth, M. (1996). Evidence for a preformed transducer complex organized by the B cell antigen receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **93**, 7865–7870.
- Yamada, T., Fujieda, S., Yanagi, S., Yamamura, H., Inatome, R., Sunaga, H. & Saito, H. (2001). Protein-tyrosine kinase Syk expressed in human nasal fibroblasts and its effect on RANTES production. *J Immunol* **166**, 538–543.
- Yanagi, S., Kurosaki, T. & Yamamura, H. (1995). The structure and function of nonreceptor tyrosine kinase p72^{SYK} expressed in hematopoietic cells. *Cell Signal* **7**, 185–193.
- Yanagi, S., Inatome, R., Ding, J., Kitaguchi, H., Tybulewicz, V. L. & Yamamura, H. (2001). Syk expression in endothelial cells and their morphologic defects in embryonic Syk-deficient mice. *Blood* **98**, 2869–2871.
- Yasui, K., Wakita, T., Tsukiyama-Kohara, K., Funahashi, S. I., Ichikawa, M., Kajita, T., Moradpour, D., Wands, J. R. & Kohara, M. (1998). The native form and maturation process of hepatitis C virus core protein. *J Virol* **72**, 6048–6055.
- Yuan, Y., Mendez, R., Sahin, A. & Dai, J. L. (2001). Hypermethylation leads to silencing of the SYK gene in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res* **61**, 5558–5561.
- Yuan, Y., Wang, J., Li, M., Yan, Z., Zhang, C. & Dai, J. L. (2006). Frequent epigenetic inactivation of spleen tyrosine kinase gene in human hepatocellular carcinoma. *Clin Cancer Res* **12**, 6687–6695.
- Zech, B., Kurtenbach, A., Krieger, N., Strand, D., Blencke, S., Morbitzer, M., Salassidis, K., Cotten, M., Wissing, J. & other authors (2003). Identification and characterization of amphiphysin II as a novel cellular interaction partner of the hepatitis C virus NS5A protein. *J Gen Virol* **84**, 555–560.
- Zhang, J., Berenstein, E. & Siraganian, R. P. (2002). Phosphorylation of Tyr342 in the linker region of Syk is critical for Fc ϵ RI signaling in mast cells. *Mol Cell Biol* **22**, 8144–8154.

HEPATOLOGY

Inhibition of hepatitis C virus infection and expression *in vitro* and *in vivo* by recombinant adenovirus expressing short hairpin RNA

Naoya Sakamoto,*¹ Yoko Tanabe,* Takanori Yokota,² Kenichi Satoh,³ Yuko Sekine-Osajima,* Mina Nakagawa,*¹ Yasuhiro Itsui,* Megumi Tasaka,* Yuki Sakurai,* Chen Cheng-Hsin,* Masahiko Yano,⁴ Shogo Ohkoshi,⁵ Yutaka Aoyagi,⁶ Shinya Maekawa,¹¹ Nobuyuki Enomoto,¹¹ Michinori Kohara³ and Mamoru Watanabe*

Departments of *Gastroenterology and Hepatology, ¹Hepatitis Control, and ²Neurology and Neurological Science, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, ³Department of Microbiology and Cell Biology, The Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Tokyo, ⁴Gastroenterology and Hepatology Division, Graduate School of Medical and Dental Sciences, Niigata University, Niigata, and ¹¹First Department of Medicine, Yamanashi University, Yamanashi, Japan

Key words

adenovirus vector, hepatitis C virus, RNA interference.

Accepted for publication 12 April 2007.

Correspondence

Dr Naoya Sakamoto, Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, 1-5-45 Yushima, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8519, Japan. Email: nsakamoto.gast@tmd.ac.jp

NS and YT have contributed equally to this paper.

Abstract

Background and Aim: We have reported previously that synthetic small interfering RNA (siRNA) and DNA-based siRNA expression vectors efficiently and specifically suppress hepatitis C virus (HCV) replication *in vitro*. In this study, we investigated the effects of the siRNA targeting HCV-RNA *in vivo*.

Methods: We constructed recombinant retrovirus and adenovirus expressing short hairpin RNA (shRNA), and transfected into replicon-expressing cells *in vitro* and transgenic mice *in vivo*.

Results: Retroviral transduction of Huh7 cells to express shRNA and subsequent transfection of an HCV replicon into the cells showed that the cells had acquired resistance to HCV replication. Infection of cells expressing the HCV replicon with an adenovirus expressing shRNA resulted in efficient vector delivery and expression of shRNA, leading to suppression of the replicon in the cells by $\sim 10^{-3}$. Intravenous delivery of the adenovirus expressing shRNA into transgenic mice that can be induced to express HCV structural proteins by the Cre/loxP switching system resulted in specific suppression of virus protein synthesis in the liver.

Conclusion: Taken together, our results support the feasibility of utilizing gene targeting therapy based on siRNA and/or shRNA expression to counteract HCV replication, which might prove valuable in the treatment of hepatitis C.

Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV), which affects 170 million people worldwide, is one of the most important pathogens causing liver-related morbidity and mortality.¹ The difficulty in eradicating HCV is attributable to limited treatment options against the virus and their unsatisfactory efficacies. Even with the most effective regimen with pegylated interferon (IFN) and ribavirin in combination, the efficacies are limited to less than half of the patients treated.² Given this situation, the development of safe and effective anti-HCV therapies is one of our high-priority goals.

RNA interference (RNAi) is a process of sequence-specific, post-transcriptional gene silencing that is initiated by double-stranded RNA.^{3,4} Because of its potency and specificity, RNAi rapidly has become a powerful tool for basic research to analyze gene functions and for potential therapeutic applications. Recently,

successful suppression of various human pathogens by RNAi have been reported, including human immunodeficiency viruses,^{5,6} poliovirus,⁷ influenza virus,⁸ severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) virus⁹ and hepatitis B virus (HBV).¹⁰⁻¹³

We and other researchers have reported that appropriately designed small interfering RNA (siRNA) targeting HCV genomic RNA can efficiently and specifically suppress HCV replication *in vitro*.¹⁴⁻¹⁹ We have tested siRNA designed to target the well-conserved 5'-untranslated region (5'-UTR) of HCV-RNA, and identified the most effective target, just upstream of the translation initiation codon. Furthermore, transfection of DNA-based vectors expressing siRNA was as effective as that of synthetic siRNA in suppressing HCV replication.¹⁴

In this study, we explored the further possibility that efficient delivery and expression of siRNA may be effective in suppression and elimination of HCV replication and that delivery of such

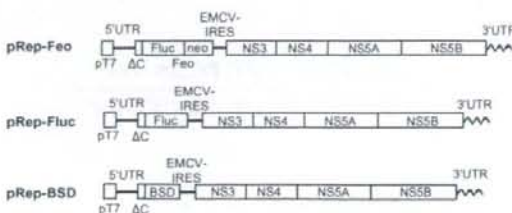


Figure 1 Structures of HCV replicon plasmids. The pRep-Feo expressed a chimeric reporter protein of firefly luciferase (Fluc) and neomycin phosphotransferase (GenBank accession No. AB119282).^{14,20} The pRep-Fluc expressed the Fluc protein. The pRep-BSD expressed the blasticidin S (BSD) resistance gene. pT7, T7 promoter; 5'UTR, HCV 5'-untranslated region; ΔC, truncated HCV core region (nt. 342–377); neo, neomycin phosphotransferase gene; EMCV, encephalomyocarditis virus; NS3, NS4, NS5A and NSSB, genes that encode HCV non-structural proteins; 3'UTR, HCV 3'-untranslated region.

HCV-directed siRNA *in vivo* may be effective in silencing viral protein expression in the liver. Here, we report that HCV replication was suppressed *in vitro* by recombinant retrovirus and adenovirus vectors expressing short hairpin RNA (shRNA) and that the delivery of the adenovirus vector to mice *in vivo* specifically inhibited viral protein synthesis in the liver.

Methods

Cells and cell culture

Huh7 and Retro Pack PT67 cells (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA, USA) were maintained in Dulbecco's modified minimal essential medium (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum at 37°C under 5% CO₂. To maintain cell lines carrying the HCV replicon, G418 (Wako, Osaka, Japan) was added to the culture medium to a final concentration of 500 µg/mL.

HCV replicon constructs and transfection

HCV replicon plasmids, pRep-Feo, pRep-Fluc and pRep-BSD were constructed from a virus, HCV-N strain, genotype 1b.²¹ The pRep-Feo expressed a chimeric reporter protein of firefly luciferase (Fluc) and neomycin phosphotransferase.^{14,20} The pRep-Fluc and the pRep-BSD expressed the Fluc and blasticidin S (BSD) resistance genes, respectively (Fig. 1). The replicon RNA synthesis and the transfection protocol have been described previously.²²

Synthetic siRNA and siRNA-expression plasmid

The design and construction of HCV-directed siRNA vectors have been described.¹⁴ Briefly, five siRNA targeting the 5'-UTR of HCV RNA were tested for their efficiency to inhibit HCV replication, and the most effective sequence, which targeted nucleotide position of 331 through 351, was used in the present study. To construct shRNA-expressing DNA cassettes, oligonucleotide inserts were synthesized that contained the loop sequence (5'-TTC AAG AGA-

3') flanked by sense and antisense siRNA sequences (Fig. 2a). These were inserted immediately downstream of the human U6 promoter. To avoid a problem in transcribing shRNA because of instability of the DNA strands arising from the tight palindrome structure, several C-to-T point mutations, which retained completely the silencing activity of the shRNA, were introduced into the sense strand of the shRNA sequences (referred to as 'm').²³ A control plasmid, pUC19-shRNA-Control, expressed shRNA directed towards the Machado-Joseph disease gene, which is a mutant of ataxin-3 gene and is not normally expressed. We have previously described the sequence specific activity of the shRNA-Control.²⁴

Prior to construction of the virus vectors, we tested silencing efficiency of five shRNA constructs of different lengths that covered the target sequence (Fig. 2a). The shRNA-HCV-19, shRNA-HCV-21 and shRNA-HCV-27 had target sequences of 19, 21 and 27 nucleotides, respectively. Transfection of these shRNA constructs into Huh7/pRep-Feo showed that shRNA with longer target sequences had better suppressive effects (Fig. 2b). Therefore, we used shRNA-HCV-27m (abbreviated as shRNA-HCV) in the following study.

Recombinant retrovirus vectors

The U6-shRNA expression cassettes were inserted into the *Sma*I/*Hind*III site of a retrovirus vector, pLNCX2 (Clontech) to construct pLNCshRNA-HCV and pLNCshRNA-Control (Fig. 2c). The plasmids were transfected into the packaging cells, Retro Pack PT67. The culture supernatant was filtered and added onto Huh7 cells with 4 µg/mL of polybrene. Huh7 cell lines stably expressing shRNA were established by culture in the presence of 500 µg/mL of G418.

Recombinant adenovirus

Recombinant adenoviruses expressing shRNA were constructed using an Adenovirus Expression Vector Kit (Takara, Otsu, Japan). The U6-shRNA expression DNA cassette was inserted into the *Sma*I site of pAxcw to construct pAxshRNA-HCV and pAxshRNA-Control. The adenoviruses were propagated according to the manufacturer's protocol (AxshRNA-HCV and AxshRNA-Control; Fig. 2c). A 'multiplicity of infection' (MOI) was used to standardize infecting doses of adenovirus. The MOI stands for the ratio of infectious virus particles to the number of cells being infected. An MOI = 1 represents equivalent dose to introduce one infectious virus particle to every host cell that is present in the culture.

Plasmids for assays of interferon responses

pISRE-TA-Luc (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) contained five copies of the consensus interferon stimulated response element (ISRE) motifs upstream of the Fluc gene. pTA-Luc (Invitrogen), which lacks the enhancer element, was used for background determination. The pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen) was used as an empty vector for mock transfection. pRL-CMV (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), which expresses the *Renilla* luciferase protein, was used for normalization of transfection efficiency.²⁵ A plasmid, pEGFPneo (Invitrogen), was used to monitor percentages of transduced cells.

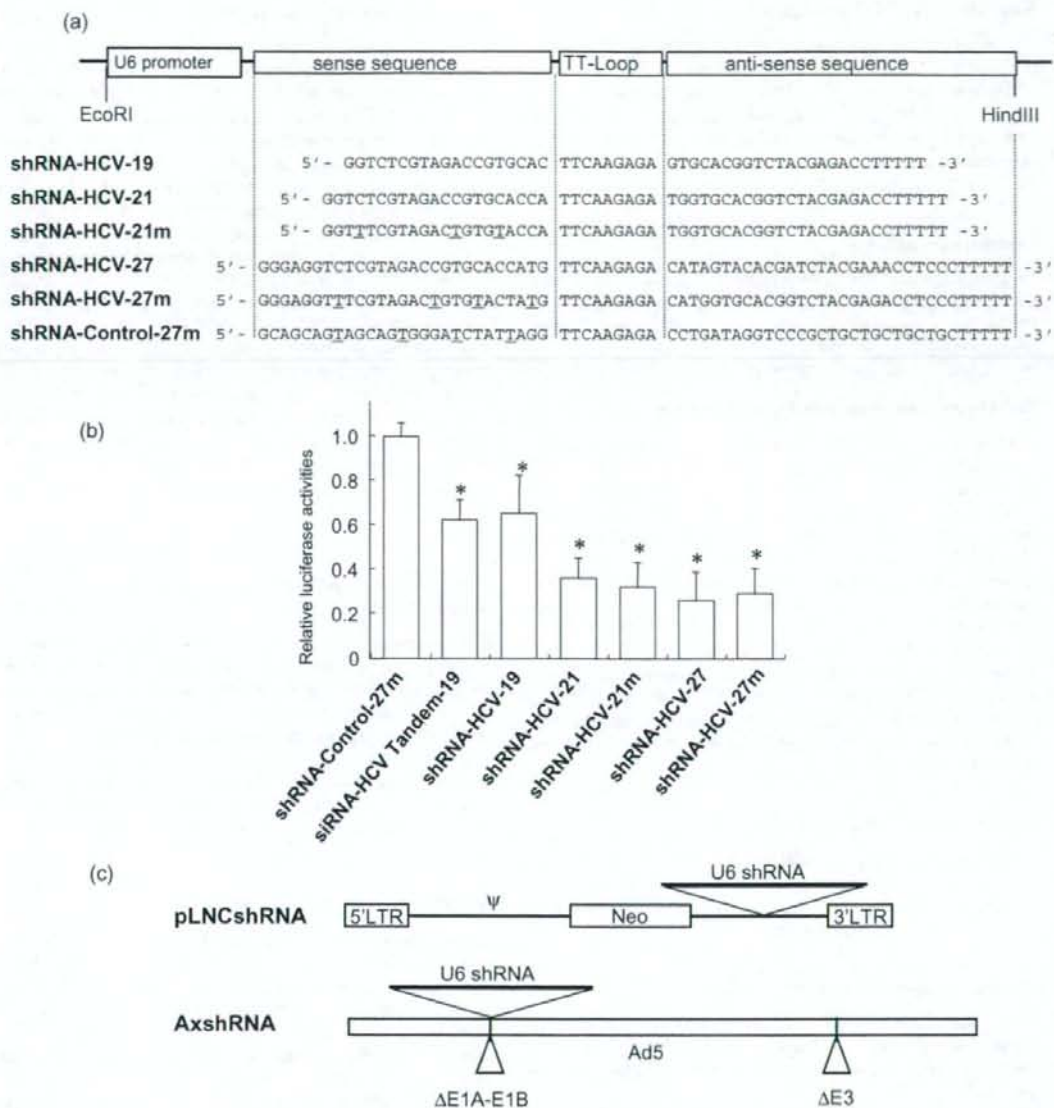


Figure 2 Structure of shRNA-expression constructs and shRNA sequences. (a) Structure of shRNA-expression cassette and shRNA sequences. TT-Loop, the loop sequence. The shRNA-Control was directed toward an unrelated target, Machado–Joseph disease gene. Underlined letters indicate C-to-T point mutations in the sense strand. (b) The shRNA-expression plasmids were transfected into Huh7/pRep-Feo cells, and internal luciferase activities were measured at 48 h of transfection. Each assay was done in triplicate, and the values are displayed as mean + SD. * $P < 0.05$. (c) pLNCshRNA, structure of a recombinant retrovirus expressing shRNA. Ψ , the retroviral packaging signal sequence. AxshRNA, structure of a recombinant adenovirus expressing shRNA.

Real-time RT-PCR analysis

Total cellular RNA was extracted from cultured cells or liver tissue using ISOGEN (Nippon Gene, Tokyo, Japan). Total cellular RNA (2 µg) was used to generate cDNA from each sample using the SuperScript II reverse-transcriptase (Invitrogen). The mRNA expression levels were measured using the Light Cycler PCR and detection system (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) and Light Cycler Fast Start DNA Master SYBR Green 1 mix (Roche).

Luciferase assays

Luciferase activity was measured using a luminometer, Lumat LB9501 (Promega) and the Bright-Glo Luciferase Assay System (Promega) or the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega).

Northern and western hybridization

Total cellular RNA was separated by denaturing agarose-formaldehyde gel electrophoresis, and transferred to a nylon membrane. The membrane was hybridized with a digoxigenin-labeled probe specific for the full-length replicon sequence, and subsequently with a probe specific for beta-actin. The signals were detected by chemiluminescence reaction using a Digoxigenin Luminescent Detection Kit (Roche), and visualized by Fluoro-Imager (Roche). For the western blotting, 10 µg of total cell lysate was separated on NuPAGE 4.12% Bis-TrisGel (Invitrogen), and blotted onto an Immobilon PVDF Membrane (Roche). The membrane was incubated with monoclonal antibodies specific for HCV-NS5A (BioDesign, Saco, ME, USA), NS4A (Virogen, Watertown, MA, USA), or beta-actin (Sigma), and detected by a chemiluminescence reaction (BM Chemiluminescence Blotting Substrate; POD, Roche).

Transient-replication assays

A replicon, pRep-Fluc, was transfected into cells and the luciferase activities of the cell lysates were measured serially. To correct the transfection efficiency, each value was divided by the luciferase activity at 4 h after the transfection.

Stable colony formation assays

Cells were transfected with a replicon, pRep-BSD, and were cultured in the presence of 150 µg/mL of BSD (Invitrogen). BSD-resistant cell colonies appeared after ~3 weeks of culture, and were counted.

HCV-JFH1 virus cell culture

An *in-vitro* transcribed HCV-JFH1 RNA²⁶ was transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells.²⁷ Naive Huh7.5.1 cells were subsequently infected by the culture supernatant of the JFH1-RNA transfected Huh-7.5.1 cells, and subjected to siRNA or drug treatments. Replication levels of HCV-RNA were quantified by the realtime RT-PCR by using primers that targeted HCV-NS5B region, HCV-JFH1 sense: 5'-TCA GAC AGA GCC TGA GTC CA-3', and HCV-JFH1 anti-sense: 5'-AGT TGC TGG AGG GCT TCT GA-3'.

Mice and adenovirus infection

Transgenic mice, CN2-29, inducibly express mRNA for the HCV structural proteins (genotype1b, nucleotides 294–3435) by the Cre/loxP switching system.²⁸ The transgene does not contain full-length HCV 5'-UTR, but shares the target sequence of the shRNA-HCV. Although the transgenic mouse CN2 has been previously reported as expressing higher levels of the viral proteins, the expression levels of the viral core protein in the CN2-29 mice are modest and similar to that in the liver of HCV patients. Thus, we chose CN2-29 mice in the present study.

The mice were infected with AxshRNA-HCV or controls (AxshRNA-Control or AxCAw1) in combination with AxCAN-Cre, which expressed Cre recombinase. Three days after the infection, the mice were killed and HCV core protein in the liver was measured as described below. The BALB/c mice were maintained in the Animal Care Facility of Tokyo Medical and Dental University, and transgenic mice were in the Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science. Animal care was in accordance with institutional guidelines. The review board of the university approved our experimental animal studies and all experiments were approved by the institutional animal study committees.

Measurement of HCV core protein in mouse liver

The amounts of HCV core protein in the liver tissue from the mice was measured by a fluorescence enzyme immunoassay (FEIA)²⁹ with a slight modification. Briefly, the 5F11 monoclonal anti-HCV-core antibody was used as the first antibody on the solid phase, and the 5E3 antibody conjugated with horseradish peroxidase was the second antibody. This FEIA can detect as little as 4 pg/mL of recombinant HCV-core protein. Contents of the HCV core protein in the liver samples were normalized by the total protein contents and expressed as pg/mg total protein.

Immunohistochemical staining

Liver tissue was frozen with optimal cutting temperature (OTC) compound (Tissue Tek; Sakura Finetechnical, Tokyo, Japan). The sections (8 µm thick) were fixed with a 1:1 solution of acetone:methanol at -20°C for 10 min and then washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Subsequently, the sections were incubated with the IgG fraction of an anti-HCV core rabbit polyclonal antibody (RR8)³⁸ in blocking buffer or antialbumin rabbit polyclonal antibody (Dako Cytomation, Glostrup, Denmark) in PBS overnight at 4°C. The sections were incubated with secondary antibody, Alexa-antirabbit IgG (Invitrogen) or TRITIC-antirabbit IgG (Sigma), for 2 h at room temperature. Fluorescence was observed using a fluorescence microscope.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using Student's *t*-test; *P*-values of less than 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

Results

Retrovirus transduction of shRNA can protect from HCV replication

Retrovirus vectors propagated from pLNCshRNA-HCV and pLNCshRNA-Control were used to infect Huh7 cells, and cell lines were established that constitutively express shRNA-HCV and shRNA-Control (Huh7/shRNA-HCV and Huh7/shRNA-Control, respectively). There were no differences in the cell morphology or growth rate between shRNA-transduced and non-transduced Huh7 cells (data not shown). The HCV replicon, pRep-Fluc, was transfected into Huh7/shRNA-HCV, Huh7/shRNA-Control and naive Huh7 cells by electroporation. In Huh7/shRNA-Control and naive Huh7 cells, the initial luciferase activity at 4 h decreased temporarily, which represents decay of the transfected replicon RNA, but increased again at 48 h and 72 h, which demonstrate *de novo* synthesis of the HCV replicon RNA. In contrast, transfection into Huh7/shRNA-HCV cells resulted in a decrease in the initial luciferase activity, reaching background by 72 h (Fig. 3a). Similarly, transfection of the replicon, pRep-BSD, into Huh7 cells and BSD selection yielded numerous BSD-resistant colonies in the naive Huh7 (832 colonies) and Huh7/shRNA-Control cell lines (740 colonies), while transfection of Huh7/shRNA-HCV, which expressed shRNA-HCV, yielded obviously fewer colonies (five colonies), indicating reduction of colony forming units by $\sim 10^2$ (Fig. 3b). There was no difference in shape, growth or viability between cells expressing the shRNA or not. These results indicated that cells expressing HCV-directed shRNA following retrovirus transduction acquired resistance to HCV replication.

Effect of recombinant adenoviruses expressing shRNA on *in vitro* HCV replication

We investigated subsequently the effects of recombinant adenovirus vectors expressing shRNA. AxshRNA-HCV and AxshRNA-Control were used separately to infect Huh7/pRep-Feo cells, and the internal luciferase activities were measured sequentially (Fig. 4a). AxshRNA-HCV caused continuous suppression of HCV RNA replication. Six days postinfection, the luciferase activities fell to background levels. In contrast, the luciferase activities of the Huh7/pRep-Feo cells infected with AxshRNA-Control did not show any significant changes compared with untreated Huh7/pRep-Feo cells (Fig. 4a). The dimethylthiazol carboxymethoxyphenyl sulfophenyl tetrazolium (MTS) assay showed no significant difference between cells that were infected by recombinant adenovirus and uninfected cells (Fig. 4b). In the northern blotting analysis, the cells were harvested 6 days after infection with the adenovirus at an MOI of 1. Feo-replicon RNA of 9.6 kb, which was detectable in the untreated Huh7/pRep-Feo cells and in the cells infected with AxshRNA-Control, diminished substantially following infection with the AxshRNA-HCV (Fig. 4c). Densitometries showed that the intracellular levels of the replicon RNA in the Huh7/pRep-Feo cells correlated well with the internal luciferase activities. Similarly in the western blotting, cells were harvested 6 days after infection with adenovirus. Levels of the HCV NS4A and NS5A proteins that were translated from the HCV replicon decreased following infection with the AxshRNA-HCV

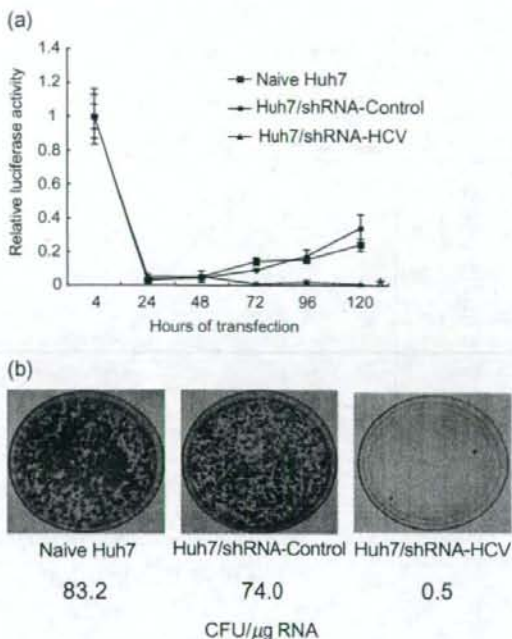
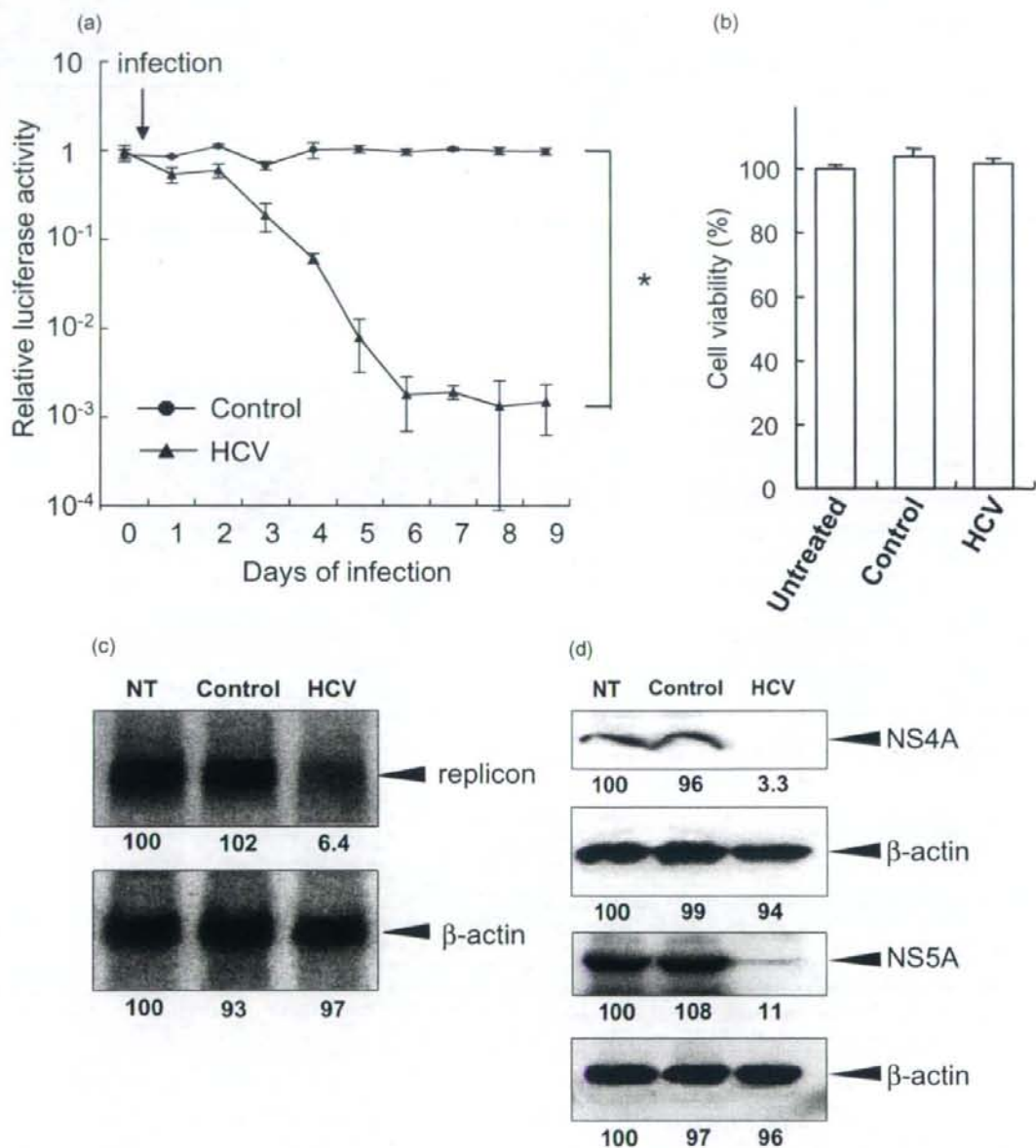


Figure 3 HCV replication can be inhibited by shRNA-HCV which was stably transfected into cells. Huh7/shRNA-HCV and Huh7/shRNA-Control stably express shRNA-HCV or shRNA-Control, respectively, following retroviral transduction. (a) Transient replication assay. An HCV replicon RNA, pRep-Fluc, was transfected into naive Huh7, Huh7/shRNA-HCV and Huh7/shRNA-Control cells. Luciferase activities of the cell lysates were measured serially at the times indicated, and the values were plotted as ratios relative to luciferase activities at 4 h. The luciferase activities at 4 h represent transfected replicon RNA. The data are mean \pm SD. An asterisk denotes a *P*-value of less than 0.001 compared with the corresponding value of the naive Huh7 cells. (b) Stable colony formation assay. The HCV replicon, pRep-BSD, was transfected into naive Huh7, Huh7/shRNA-HCV and Huh7/shRNA-Control cells. The cells were cultured in the presence of blasticidin S (BSD) in the medium for ~ 3 weeks, and the BSD-resistant colonies were counted. These assays were repeated twice. The colony-forming units per microgram RNA (CFU/ μ g RNA) are shown at the bottom.

(Fig. 4d). These results indicated that the decrease in luciferase activities was due to specific suppressive effects of shRNA on expression of HCV genomic RNA and the viral proteins, and not due to non-specific effects caused by the delivery of shRNA or to toxicity of the adenovirus vectors.

Absence of interferon-stimulated gene responses by siRNA delivery

It has been reported that double-stranded RNA may induce interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) responses which cause instability of mRNA, translational suppression of proteins and apoptotic cell



death.^{18,20,31} Therefore, we examined the effects of the shRNA-expressing plasmids and adenoviruses on the activation of ISG expression in cells. The ISRE-reporter plasmid, pISRE-TA-Luc, and a control plasmid, pEGFPneo, were transfected into Huh7 cells

with plasmid pUC19-shRNA-HCV or pUC19-shRNA-Control, or adenovirus, AxshRNA-HCV or AxshRNA-Control, and the ISRE-mediated luciferase activities were measured. On day 2, the ISRE-luciferase activities did not significantly change in cells in which

Figure 4 Effect of a recombinant adenovirus expressing shRNA on HCV replicon. (a) Huh7/pRep-Feo cells were infected with AxshRNA-HCV or shRNA-Control at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1. The cells were harvested, and internal luciferase activities were measured on day 0 though day 9 after adenovirus infection. Each assay was done in triplicate, and the value is displayed as a percentage of no treatment and as mean \pm SD. An asterisk indicates a *P*-value of less than 0.05. (b) Dimethylthiazol carboxymethoxyphenyl sulfophenyl tetrazolium (MTS) assay of Huh7/pRep-Feo cells. Cells were infected with indicated recombinant adenoviruses at an MOI of 1. The assay was done at day 6 of infection. Error bars indicate mean \pm SD. (c) Northern blotting. The upper panel shows replicon RNA, and the lower panel shows beta-actin mRNA. (d) Western blotting. Total cell lysates were separated on NuPAGE gel, blotted and incubated with monoclonal anti-NS4A or anti-NS5A antibodies. The membrane was re-blotted with antibeta-actin antibodies. NT, untreated Huh7/pRep-Feo cells; Control, cells infected with AxshRNA-Control; HCV, cells treated with AxshRNA-HCV. In panels (b) and (c), cells were harvested on day 6 after adenovirus infection at an MOI of 1.

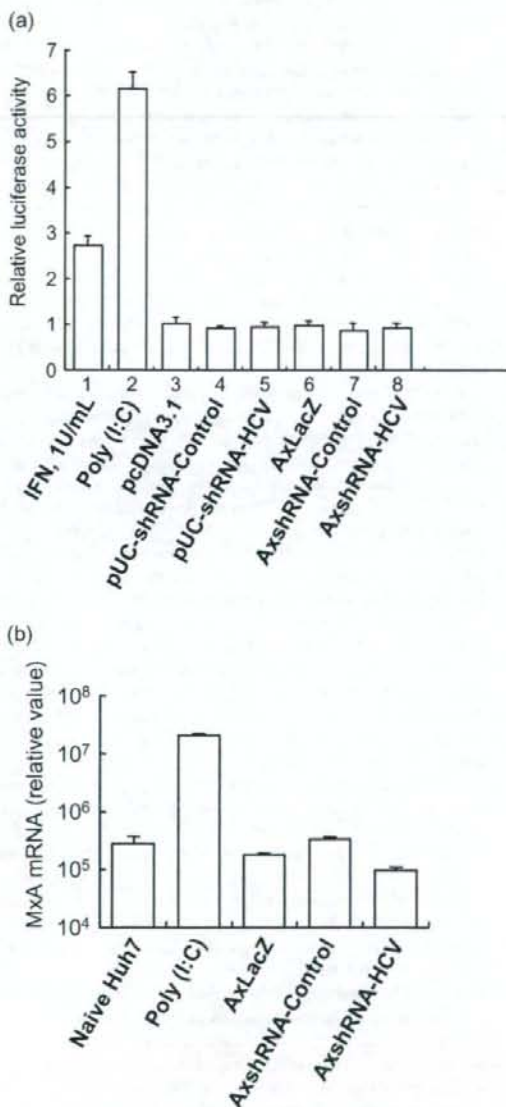


Figure 5 Interferon-stimulated gene responses by transfection of siRNA vectors. (a) Huh7 cells were seeded at 5×10^4 per well in 24-well plates on the day before transfection. As a positive control, 200 ng of pSRE-TA-Luc, or pTA-Luc, 1 ng of pRL-CMV, were transfected into a well using FuGENE-6 Transfection Reagent (Roche), and the cells were cultured with 1 U/mL of interferon (IFN) in the medium (lane 1). Lanes 3–5: 200 ng of pSRE-TA-Luc or pTA-Luc, and 1 ng of pRL-CMV were cotransfected with (lane 2) 300 ng of poly (I:C), or 200 ng of plasmids (lane 3) pcDNA3.1, (lane 4) pUC19-shRNA-Control or (lane 5) pUC19-shRNA-HCV. Lanes 6–8: 200 ng of pSRE-TA-Luc or pTA-Luc, and 1 ng of pRL-CMV were transfected, and MOI = 1 of adenoviruses, (lane 6) AxLacZ, which expressed the beta-galactosidase (LacZ) gene under control of the chicken beta-actin (CAG) promoter as a control, (lane 7) AxshRNA-Control or (lane 8) AxshRNA-HCV were infected. Dual luciferase assays were performed at 48 h after transfection. The Fluc activity of each sample was normalized by the respective Rluc activity, and the respective pTA luciferase activity was subtracted from the pSRE luciferase activity. The experiment was done in triplicate, and the data are displayed as means \pm SD. (b) Huh7 cells were infected with indicated recombinant adenoviruses, AxLacZ, AxshRNA-Control and AxshRNA-HCV. RNA was extracted from each sample at day 6, and mRNA expression levels of an interferon-inducible MxA protein were quantified by the real-time RT-PCR analysis. Primers used were as follows: human MxA sense, 5'-CGA GGG AGA CAG GAC CAT CG-3'; human MxA antisense, 5'-TCT ATC AGG AAG AAC ATT TT-3'; human beta-actin sense, 5'-ACA ATG AAG ATC AAG ATC ATT GCT CCT CCT-3'; and human beta-actin antisense, 5'-TTT GCG GTG GAC GAT GGA GGG GCC GGA CTC-3'.

negative- or positive-control shRNA plasmids was transfected. (Fig. 5a). Similarly, the expression levels of an interferon-inducible MxA protein did not significantly change by transfection of shRNA-expression vectors (Fig. 5b). These results demonstrate that the shRNA used in the present study lack induction of the ISG responses both in the form of the expression plasmids and the adenovirus vectors.

Effect of siRNA and shRNA adenoviruses on HCV-JFH1 cell culture

The effects of HCV-targeted siRNA- and shRNA-expressing adenoviruses were confirmed by using HCV-JFH1 virus cell culture system. Transfection of the siRNA #331¹⁴ into HCV-infected Huh7.5.1 cells resulted in substantial decrease of intracellular HCV RNA, while a control siRNA showed no effect (Fig. 6a). Similarly, infection of AxshRNA-HCV into Huh7.5.1/HCV-JFH1 cells specifically suppressed expression of HCV RNA (Fig. 6b).

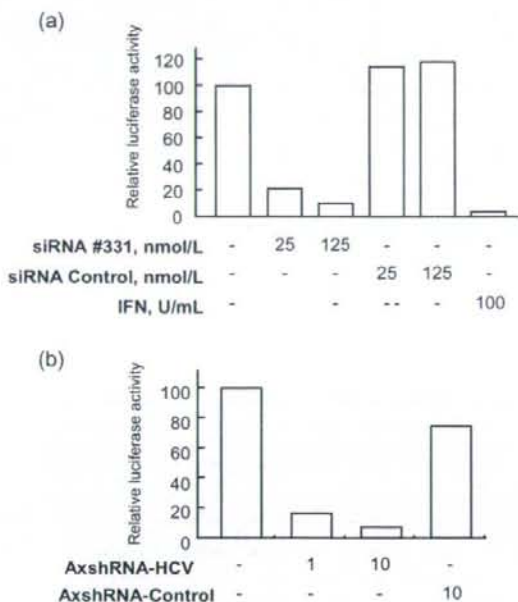


Figure 6 Effects of an siRNA and adenovirus expressing shRNA on HCV-JFH1 cell culture. (a) The siRNA #331, the siRNA-Control¹⁴, (b) AxshRNA-HCV or AxshRNA-Control were, respectively, transfected or infected onto HCV-JFH1-infected Huh7.5.1 cells. Seventy-two hours of the transfection or infection, expression level of HCV-RNA was quantified by real-time RT-PCR. The assays were repeated twice, and consistent results were obtained. IFN, recombinant interferon- α 2b.

Suppression of HCV-IRES-mediated translation *in vivo* by adenovirus expressing shRNA

The effects of the shRNA expression on the expression of the viral structural proteins *in vivo* were investigated using conditional HCV cDNA-transgenic mice, CN2-29.²⁴ Adenoviruses, AxshRNA-HCV, AxshRNA-Control or AxCAw1 were injected into CN2-29 mice in combination with AxCANCre, an adenovirus expressing Cre DNA recombinase. The mice were killed on the fourth day after the injection, and the hepatic expression of the HCV core protein was measured. The expressed amounts of the core protein were 143.0 ± 56.2 pg/mg and 108.5 ± 42.4 pg/mg in AxCAw1 and AxshRNA-Control-infected mice, respectively, and the expressed amount was significantly lower in mice injected with AxshRNA-HCV (28.7 ± 7.0 pg/mg, $P < 0.05$, Fig. 7a). Similarly, the induced expression of HCV core protein was not detectable by immunohistochemistry in AxshRNA-HCV infected liver tissue (Fig. 7c). Staining of a host cellular protein, albumin, was not obviously different between the liver infected with AxCAw1, AxshRNA-HCV and AxshRNA-Control (Fig. 7d). The expression levels of two ISG, IFN- β and Mx1, in the liver tissue were not significantly different between individuals with

and without injection of the adenovirus vectors (Fig. 7b). These results indicate specific shRNA silencing of HCV structural protein expression in the liver.

Discussion

The requirements to achieve a high efficiency using RNAi are: (i) selection of target sequences that are the most susceptible to RNAi; (ii) persistence of siRNA activity; and (iii) efficient *in vivo* delivery of siRNA to cells. We have used an shRNA sequence that was derived from a highly efficient siRNA (siRNA331), and constructed a DNA-based shRNA expression cassette that showed competitive effects with the synthetic siRNA (Fig. 2).¹⁴ The shRNA-expression cassette does not only allow extended half-life of the RNAi, but also enables use of gene-delivery vectors, such as virus vectors. As shown in the results, a retrovirus vector expressing shRNA-HCV could stably transduce cells to express HCV-directed shRNA, and the cells acquired protection against HCV subgenomic replication (Fig. 3). An adenovirus vector expressing shRNA-HCV resulted in suppression of HCV subgenomic and protein expression by around three logs to almost background levels (Fig. 4). Consistent results were obtained by using an HCV cell culture (Fig. 6). More importantly, we have demonstrated *in-vivo* effects on viral protein expression in the liver using a conditional transgenic mouse model (Fig. 7). These results suggest that efficient delivery of siRNA could be effective against HCV infection *in vivo*.

An obstacle to applying siRNA technology to treat virus infections is that viruses are prone to mutate during their replication.³² HCV continuously produces mutated viral strains to escape immune defense mechanisms. Even in a single patient, the circulating HCV population comprises a large number of closely related HCV sequence variants called quasispecies. Therefore, siRNA targeting the protein-coding sequence of the HCV genome, which have been reported by others,¹⁵⁻¹⁹ may vary considerably among different HCV genotypes, and even among strains of the same genotype.³³ Our shRNA sequence targeted the 5'-UTR of HCV RNA, which is the most conserved region among various HCV isolates.³³ In addition, the structural constraints on the 5'-UTR, in terms of its requirement to direct internal ribosome entry and translation of viral proteins, might not permit the evolution of escape mutations. Our preliminary results have shown that the siRNA-HCV suppressed replication of an HCV genotype 2a replicon³⁴ to the same extent as the HCV 1b replicon.

Although the siRNA techniques rely on a high degree of specificity, several studies report siRNA-induced non-specific effect that may result from induction of ISG responses.^{18,31} These effects may be mediated by activation of double-strand RNA-dependent protein kinase, toll-like receptor 3,³⁵ or possibly by a recently identified RNA helicase, RIG-I.³⁶ It remains to be determined whether these effects are generally induced by every siRNA construct. Sledz *et al.* have reported that transfection of two siRNA induced cellular interferon responses,³⁷ while Bridge *et al.* report that shRNA-expressing plasmids induced an interferon response but transfection of synthetic siRNA did not.³¹ Speculatively, these effects on the interferon system might be construct dependent. Our shRNA-expression plasmids and adenoviruses did not activate ISG responses *in vitro* (Fig. 5a,b) or *in vivo* (Fig. 7b). We have preliminarily detected phosphorylated PKR (P-PKR) by western

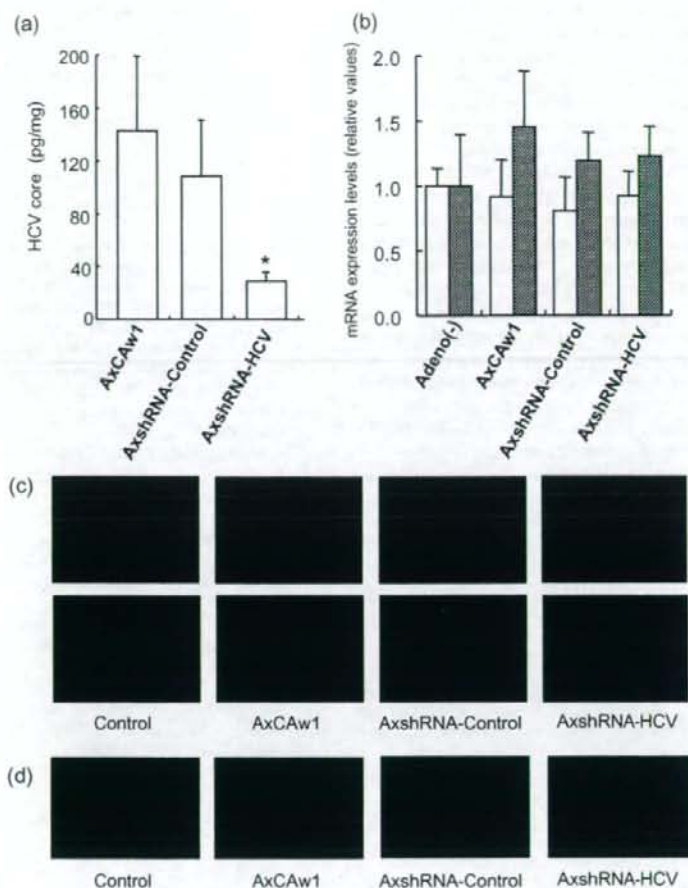


Figure 7 Effects of a recombinant adenovirus expressing shRNA on HCV core protein expression in CN2-29 transgenic mice. CN2-29 transgenic mice were administered with 1×10^9 PFU of AxCANCre combined with 6.7×10^8 PFU of AxshRNA-HCV, AxshRNA or AxCaW1. The mice were killed on day 4 after injection. (a) Quantification of HCV core protein in liver. Liver tissues were homogenized and used to determine the amount of HCV core protein. Each assay was done in triplicate, and the values are displayed as mean \pm SD. Asterisk indicates *P*-value of less than 0.05. (b) Expression levels of mouse interferon-beta (white bars) and Mx1 (shaded bars) mRNA in the mouse liver tissue were quantified by the real-time RT-PCR analyses. Primers used were as follows: mouse interferon-beta sense, 5'-ACA GCC CTC TCC ATC AAC TA-3'; mouse interferon-beta antisense, 5'-CCC TCC AGT AAT AGC TCT TC-3'; mouse Mx1 sense, 5'-AGG AGT GGA GAG GCA AAG TC-3'; mouse Mx1 antisense, 5'-CAC ATT GCT GGG GAC TAC CA-3'; mouse beta-actin sense, 5'-ACT CCT ATG TGG GTG ACG AG-3'; mouse beta-actin antisense, 5'-ATA GCC CTC GTA GAT GGG CA-3'. Adeno (-) denotes mice without adenovirus administration. (c) Immunofluorescence microscopy of HCV core protein in the liver tissue. Liver sections of mice were stained using rabbit anticore polyclonal antibody and normal rabbit IgG as a negative control. The upper photographs were obtained at 400x magnification, and the lower photographs were at 1000x. (d) Immunofluorescence microscopy of albumin in liver. Liver sections from the mice were fixed and stained using rabbit antialbumin antibody and normal rabbit IgG as a negative control.

blotting, and found no apparent increase of P-PKR (data not shown). These results indicate that these target sequences and structures are of sufficient specificity to silence the target gene without eliciting non-specific interferon responses.

Beside the canonical action of siRNA, a sequence-specific cleavage of target mRNA, the siRNA could act as a micro-RNA

that suppresses translational initiation of mRNA,³⁸ or it could mediate transcriptional gene silencing.³⁹ Regarding our *in-vivo* experiments, it was difficult to differentially analyze the effect of siRNA at individual sites of action because post-translational effect of siRNA concomitantly destabilizes target mRNA, which leads to apparent decrease of mRNA transcripts.

Efficiency and safety of gene transfer methods are the key determinants of the clinical success of gene therapy and an unresolved problem. There are several reports of delivery of siRNA or siRNA-expression vectors to cells *in vivo*;^{12,40,41} however, gene delivery methods that are safe enough to apply to clinical therapeutics are currently under development. Adenovirus vectors are one of the most commonly used carriers for human gene therapies.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ Our present results demonstrate that the adenoviral delivery of shRNA is effective in blocking HCV replication *in vitro* and virus protein expression *in vivo*. Adenovirus vectors have several advantages of efficient delivery of transgene both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and natural hepatotropism when administered *in vivo*. The AxshRNA-HCV specifically blocked expression of HCV structural proteins in a conditional transgenic mouse expressing those proteins. The current adenovirus vectors may cause inflammatory reactions in the target organ,⁴⁵ however, and produce neutralizing antibodies which make repeated administration difficult. These problems may be overcome by the improved constructs of virus vectors with attenuated immunogenicity or by the development of non-viral carriers for gene delivery.⁴⁶

In conclusion, our results demonstrate the effectiveness and feasibility of the siRNA expression system. The efficiency of adenovirus expressing shRNA that target HCV suggests that delivery and expression of siRNA in hepatocytes may eliminate the virus and that this RNA-targeting approach might provide a potentially effective future therapeutic option for HCV infection.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by grants from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, 15590629 and 16590580, and partly supported by a grant from the Viral Hepatitis Research Foundation of Japan.

References

- Alter MJ. Epidemiology of hepatitis C. *Hepatology* 1997; **26**: 62S-65S.
- Hadziyannis SJ, Sette H Jr, Morgan TR *et al.* Peginterferon-alpha2a and ribavirin combination therapy in chronic hepatitis C: a randomized study of treatment duration and ribavirin dose. *Ann. Intern. Med.* 2004; **140**: 346-55.
- Fire A, Xu S, Montgomery M, Kostas S, Driver S, Mello C. Potent and specific genetic interference by double-stranded RNA in *Caenorhabditis elegans*. *Nature* 1998; **391**: 806-11.
- Elbashir SM, Harborth J, Lendeckel W, Yalcin A, Weber K, Tuschli T. Duplexes of 21-nucleotide RNAs mediate RNA interference in cultured mammalian cells. *Nature* 2001; **411**: 494-8.
- Coburn GA, Cullen BR. Potent and specific inhibition of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 replication by RNA interference. *J. Virol.* 2002; **76**: 9225-31.
- Jacque JM, Triques K, Stevenson M. Modulation of HIV-1 replication by RNA interference. *Nature* 2002; **418**: 435-8.
- Gitlin L, Karelisky S, Andino R. Short interfering RNA confers intracellular antiviral immunity in human cells. *Nature* 2002; **418**: 430-4.
- Ge Q, Filip L, Bai A, Nguyen T, Eisen HN, Chen J. Inhibition of influenza virus production in virus-infected mice by RNA interference. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2004; **101**: 8676-81.
- Wang C, Pflügheber J, Sumpter R Jr *et al.* Alpha interferon induces distinct translational control programs to suppress hepatitis C virus RNA replication. *J. Virol.* 2003; **77**: 3898-912.
- Klein C, Bock CT, Wedemeyer H *et al.* Inhibition of hepatitis B virus replication *in vivo* by nucleoside analogues and siRNA. *Gastroenterology* 2003; **125**: 9-18.
- Konishi M, Wu CH, Wu GY. Inhibition of HBV replication by siRNA in a stable HBV-producing cell line. *Hepatology* 2003; **38**: 842-50.
- McCaffrey AP, Meuse L, Pham TT, Conklin DS, Hannon GJ, Kay MA. RNA interference in adult mice. *Nature* 2002; **418**: 38-9.
- Shlomai A, Shaul Y. Inhibition of hepatitis B virus expression and replication by RNA interference. *Hepatology* 2003; **37**: 764-70.
- Yokota T, Sakamoto N, Enomoto N *et al.* Inhibition of intracellular hepatitis C virus replication by synthetic and vector-derived small interfering RNAs. *EMBO Rep.* 2003; **4**: 602-8.
- Kapadia SB, Brideau-Andersen A, Chisari FV. Interference of hepatitis C virus RNA replication by short interfering RNAs. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2003; **100**: 2014-18.
- Kronke J, Kittler R, Buchholz F *et al.* Alternative approaches for efficient inhibition of hepatitis C virus RNA replication by small interfering RNAs. *J. Virol.* 2004; **78**: 3436-46.
- Randall G, Grakoui A, Rice CM. Clearance of replicating hepatitis C virus replicon RNAs in cell culture by small interfering RNAs. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2003; **100**: 2014-18.
- Seo MY, Abrignani S, Houghton M, Han JH. Letter to the editor: small interfering RNA-mediated inhibition of hepatitis C virus replication in the human hepatoma cell line Huh-7. *J. Virol.* 2003; **77**: 810-12.
- Wilson JA, Jayasena S, Khvorova A *et al.* RNA interference blocks gene expression and RNA synthesis from hepatitis C replicons propagated in human liver cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2003; **100**: 2783-8.
- Guo JT, Bichko VV, Seeger C. Effect of alpha interferon on the hepatitis C virus replicon. *J. Virol.* 2001; **75**: 8516-23.
- Tanabe Y, Sakamoto N, Enomoto N *et al.* Synergistic inhibition of intracellular hepatitis C virus replication by combination of ribavirin and interferon-alpha. *J. Infect. Dis.* 2004; **189**: 1129-39.
- Maekawa S, Enomoto N, Sakamoto N *et al.* Introduction of NS5A mutations enables subgenomic HCV-replicon derived from chimpanzee-infectious HC-J4 isolate to replicate efficiently in Huh-7 cells. *J. Virol. Hepat.* 2004; **11**: 394-403.
- Miyagishi M, Sumimoto H, Miyoshi H, Kawakami Y, Taira K. Optimization of a siRNA-expression system with an improved hairpin and its significant suppressive effects in mammalian cells. *J. Gene Med.* 2004; **6**: 715-23.
- Li Y, Yokota T, Matsumura R, Taira K, Mizusawa H. Sequence-dependent and independent inhibition specific for mutant ataxin-3 by small interfering RNA. *Ann. Neurol.* 2004; **56**: 124-9.
- Kanazawa N, Kurosaki M, Sakamoto N *et al.* Regulation of hepatitis C virus replication by interferon regulatory factor-1. *J. Virol.* 2004; **78**: 9713-20.
- Wakita T, Pietschmann T, Kato T *et al.* Production of infectious hepatitis C virus in tissue culture from a cloned viral genome. *Nat. Med.* 2005; **11**: 791-6.
- Zhong J, Gastaminza P, Cheng G *et al.* Robust hepatitis C virus infection *in vitro*. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2005; **102**: 9294-9.
- Wakita T, Taya C, Katsume A *et al.* Efficient conditional transgene expression in hepatitis C virus cDNA transgenic mice mediated by the Cre/loxP system. *J. Biol. Chem.* 1998; **273**: 9001-6.
- Kashiwakuma T, Hasegawa A, Kajita T *et al.* Detection of hepatitis C virus specific core protein in serum of patients by a sensitive fluorescence enzyme immunoassay (FEIA). *J. Immunol. Methods* 1996; **28**: 79-89.

- 30 Baglioni C, Nilsen TW. Mechanisms of antiviral action of interferon. *Interferon* 1983; **5**: 23–42.
- 31 Bridge A, Pebernard S, Ducraux A, Nicolaz A, Iggo R. Induction of an interferon response by RNAi vectors in mammalian cells. *Nat. Genet.* 2003; **34**: 263–4.
- 32 Carmichael GG. Silencing viruses with RNA. *Nature* 2002; **418**: 379–80.
- 33 Okamoto H, Okada S, Sugiyama Y *et al.* Nucleotide sequence of the genomic RNA of hepatitis C virus isolated from a human carrier: comparison with reported isolates for conserved and divergent regions. *J. Gen. Virol.* 1991; **72**: 2697–704.
- 34 Kato T, Date T, Miyamoto M *et al.* Efficient replication of the genotype 2a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon. *Gastroenterology* 2003; **125**: 1808–17.
- 35 Alexopoulou L, Holt AC, Medzhitov R, Flavell RA. Recognition of double-stranded RNA and activation of NF- κ B by Toll-like receptor 3. *Nature* 2001; **413**: 732–8.
- 36 Yoneyama M, Kikuchi M, Natsukawa T *et al.* The RNA helicase RIG-I has an essential function in double-stranded RNA-induced innate antiviral responses. *Nat. Immunol.* 2004; **5**: 730–7.
- 37 Sledz C, Holko M, de Veer M, Silverman R, Williams, B. Activation of the interferon system by short-interfering RNAs. *Nat. Cell. Biol.* 2003; **5**: 834–9.
- 38 Doench JG, Petersen CP, Sharp PA. siRNAs can function as miRNAs. *Genes Dev.* 2003; **17**: 438–42.
- 39 Morris KV. siRNA-mediated transcriptional gene silencing: the potential mechanism and a possible role in the histone code. *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 2005; **62**: 3057–66.
- 40 Xia H, Mao Q, Paulson HL, Davidson BL. siRNA-mediated gene silencing *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Nat. Biotechnol.* 2002; **20**: 1006–10.
- 41 Zender L, Hutker S, Liedtke C *et al.* Caspase 8 small interfering RNA prevents acute liver failure in mice. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 2003; **100**: 7797–802.
- 42 Akli S, Caillaud C, Vigne E *et al.* Transfer of a foreign gene into the brain using adenovirus vectors. *Nat. Genet.* 1993; **3**: 224–8.
- 43 Bajocchi G, Feldman SH, Crystal RG, Mastrangeli A. Direct *in vivo* gene transfer to ependymal cells in the central nervous system using recombinant adenovirus vectors. *Nat. Genet.* 1993; **3**: 229–34.
- 44 Davidson BL, Allen ED, Kozarsky KF, Wilson JM, Roessler BJ. A model system for *in vivo* gene transfer into the central nervous system using an adenoviral vector. *Nat. Genet.* 1993; **3**: 219–23.
- 45 Yang Y, Wilson JM. Clearance of adenovirus-infected hepatocytes by MHC class I-restricted CD4+ CTLs *in vivo*. *J. Immunol.* 1995; **155**: 2564–70.
- 46 Fleury S, Driscoll R, Simeoni E *et al.* Helper-dependent adenovirus vectors devoid of all viral genes cause less myocardial inflammation compared with first-generation adenovirus vectors. *Basic Res. Cardiol.* 2004; **99**: 247–56.



Comparative aspects on the role of polypyrimidine tract-binding protein in internal initiation of hepatitis C virus and picornavirus RNAs

T. Nishimura^{a,e}, M. Saito^a, T. Takano^{a,b,c}, A. Nomoto^d,
M. Kohara^b, K. Tsukiyama-Kohara^{a,b,c,*}

^aDepartment of Experimental Phylaxiology, Faculty of Medical and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kumamoto University 1-1-1, Honjo, Kumamoto 860-8556, Japan

^bDepartment of Microbiology and Cell Biology, The Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Tokyo 113-8613, Japan

^cLaboratory Animal Research Center, Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo 108-8639, Japan

^dGraduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan

^eThe Chemo-Sero-Therapeutic Research Institute, Tokyo 869-1298, Japan

Accepted 6 July 2007

Abstract

We compared the effects of polypyrimidine tract-binding protein (PTB) on hepatitis C virus (HCV genotype IIa), encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV) and poliovirus internal ribosome entry site (IRES) activities *in vitro*. It bound strongly to EMCV IRES, but weakly to PV and HCV RNAs. PV IRES showed the strongest dependency to PTB and it showed less than one-tenth of IRES activity after the immuno-depletion of PTB from HeLa S10 lysate with pre-coated anti-PTB IgG beads, comparing to the normal IgG beads-treated S10 lysate. EMCV IRES activity was approximately 40% of that of normal control after PTB depletion.

*Corresponding author. Department of Experimental Phylaxiology, Faculty of Medical and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kumamoto University 1-1-1, Honjo, Kumamoto 860-8556, Japan.

Tel./fax: +81 96 373 5560.

E-mail address: kkohara@kumamoto-u.ac.jp (K. Tsukiyama-Kohara).

Especially, HCV IRES activity was approximately 95%, and most weakly affected by the depletion of PTB. Repletion of PTB to depleted S10 lysate restored activities of PV and EMCV IRESs. The data suggest that PTB plays an important role in picornaviral IRESs, but not in HCV IRES.

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Keywords: PTB; HCV; IRES; EMCV; PV; HeLa

Résumé

Dans notre étude, nous avons comparé les effet de la 'polypyrimidine track-binding' (PTB) virus de l'hépatite C (génotype IIa) et l'activité du virus encéphalomyocardite (EMCV) et de l'IRES du poliovirus *in vitro*. La PTB se fixe de manière résistante à l'IRES de l'EMCV mais de manière fragile à l'ARN du PV et du VHC. L'IRES du PV montre la dépendance la plus forte à la PTB et il montre une activité d'IRES de moins de un dixième après immunodéplétion de la PTB du lysat HeLa10 par des billes d'IgG anti-PTB prêtes à l'emploi, par rapport au HeLa10 traité par des billes d'IgG normales. L'activité de l'IRES de l'EMCV était approximativement égale à 40% de celle sous contrôle normal après déplétion de la PTB. L'activité de l'IRES du VHC était approximativement égale à 95% et la moins sensible à la déplétion de la PTB. La réplétion de la PTB au lysat S10 appauvri rétablit les activités des IRES du PV et de l'EMCV. Les données suggèrent que la PTB joue un rôle important dans les IRES picornaviraux mais pas dans les IRES du VHC. De plus,

© 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

Mots clés: PTB; VHC; PTB; IRES; PV; HeLa

1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) possesses a single-stranded RNA (approximately 9610 nucleotides), and classified into the family *Flaviviridae* [1–4]. HCV is a major causative agent of non-A non-B hepatitis, and likely progresses into the chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.

The 5' untranslated region (5'UTR) of HCV RNA genome is 341 nucleotides and an internal ribosome entry site (IRES) has been proven to exist in this region [5]. Activities of IRESs of HCV were different from each genotype, and genotype IIa showed almost two-fold higher IRES activity than genotype Ib [6,7].

The IRESs have been discovered in the *Picornavirus* genomes and have a complex RNA secondary structure [5,8]. The importance of secondary structure to IRES function is understood by studies that sequence substitutions within the IRES are accompanied by compensatory mutations that act to maintain the RNA secondary structure. The 40S ribosome subunit is recruited within these IRES without binding to the m⁷G cap and eIF4E [9,10]. IRESs can be classified into at least 3 groups, according to their features. IRESs derived from entero- and rhinoviruses are classified into type I (poliovirus), and oligopyrimidine tract is located in 50–100 nucleotides past the 3' end of the IRES [11,12]. The oligopyrimidine tract

immediately follows the 3' end of type 2 (cardio- and aphthoviruses) IRES. Encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV) and foot and mouse disease virus possess type 2 IRESs and utilizes eIF4G and 4B [13,14]. The HCV and classical swine fever virus (CSFV) possess type 3 IRESs which interact directly to 40S ribosome subunit and eIF3 [15]. In addition to the requirement for eIF in each IRESs, the existence of internal initiation trans-acting factors (ITAFs) has been reported [16,17]. One of ITAFs binds to picornavirus and HCV IRES commonly is polypyrimidine tract-binding protein (PTB) [11,18–20]. PTB may work in each IRESs, however, its exact role in internal initiation has been still unclear at present. In the present study, requirement of PTB in poliovirus, EMCV and HCV IRESs has been characterized, and compared in *in vitro* translation system by depletion and complementation of PTB.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Isolation of cDNA clones and construction of expression vectors

HCV cDNA that corresponds to nucleotide positions 1-418 (GenBank) was isolated by PCR from plasma of HCV type IIa infected patients [5], using a sense primer, 5'-GATCTAGAGCCCCGCCCCCTGATGGGGGCGA-3', and antisense primer 5'-TGTCCTGCAGTTCAAGGGCCC-3'. The amplified cDNA was digested with XbaI and AatII, and replaced with an XbaI and AatII fragment (5'UTR) of pkIV [5]. A whole cDNA which was excised by XbaI-HindIII was filled up with Klenow fragment (Takara) and cloned into StuI site of pNar3 [5], and the resulting plasmid was designated as pNII5'.

Poliovirus cDNA expression vector T7M2, CAT gene with 5'UTR of EMCV (pBSECAT) and T7CAT were constructed, as described previously [19,21].

PTB cDNA that encodes whole coding region (amino acids no. 1-531) [22] or C terminal half (amino acids no. 291-531) of PTB was synthesized by RT-PCR, and cloned into the downstream of glutathione S transferase (GST) protein in frame in pGEX-KG vector, and was designated as pGST-PTB.

2.2. Expression of PTB and production of specific antibodies

The pGST-PTB was transformed in *Escherichia coli* strain SCS-1 and induced expression with 1 mM IPTG induction. *E. coli* culture (40 ml) was pelleted by centrifuge and lysed with lysozyme (1 mg/ml) and sonicated with 1% TritonX100 and 10 mM DTT. The supernatant was reacted to Glutathione Sepharose 4B (Amersham Bioscience), cleaved by thrombin (SIGMA) and purified with ploy U Sepharose 4B (Amersham Bioscience), as described previously [22]. Rabbits or guinea pigs immunized were over four times intradermal and subcutaneously or intraperitoneally with purified recombinant whole or C-terminal half of PTB (200 µg). These hyperimmune sera were purified by the protein G Sepharose 4B (Amersham Bioscience). The anti PTB rabbit IgG was further purified by the affinity

column of PTB cross-linking Formyl Cellulofine (Seikagaku Kogyo Co.), as described by manufacturer's instruction manual.

2.3. UV cross-linking assays and immunoprecipitation

RNA probes corresponding to nucleotide(nt.) 1-341 of the HCV 5'UTR, nt. 260-833 of the EMCV 5'UTR and nt. 1-747 of the PV 5'UTR were generated by the digestion of pNII5' with BspHI, pBSECAT with Ball and pM1(T7) with HgiAI, respectively, and transcribed by using Megascript™ T7 RNA polymerase kit (Ambion) with [α - 32 P]UTP (NEN). Labelled RNA probes were purified by the Nuc Trap™ push columns (Stratagene). Probes ($1-5 \times 10^6$ cpm) were incubated with or without competitor RNA in HeLa S10 lysate (10 μ g) at 30 °C for 20 min and irradiated on ice for 20 min in a UV Stratalinker (Stratagene). Unbound RNAs were digested with 10 μ g of RNase A (Sigma), 200 units of RNase T1 (Gibco BRL) and 1 unit of phosphodiesterase I (Amersham Bioscience). Samples were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and dried gel was exposed to imaging plate (Fuji) or X-ray film (Kodak). Radioactivity was measured by the Bio-image analyzer BAS 2000 (Fuji).

HeLa S10 or recombinant PTB which was UV cross-linked to labeled HCV RNA was solubilized by single lysis buffer containing 1% NP40, reacted with affinity-purified anti-PTB Ig (4 μ g) and precipitated by affigel protein A (Bio Rad) beads. Precipitated protein was further characterized by SDS-PAGE.

2.4. Immuno-depletion test

Affigel protein A (Bio Rad) 50 μ l was pretreated with HeLa S10 100 μ l at 37 °C for 1 h. The affinity purified anti-PTB Rabbit IgG (500 μ g) was added, and rotated at room temperature for 3 h. These IgG beads were coated by 10% FCS-0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 8.0) at 37 °C for 1 h, washed with S10 dialysis buffer (10 mM Hepes-KOH pH7.5, 90 mM KOAc, 1.5 mM Mg(OAc) $_2$), and reacted to HeLa S10 lysate (150 μ l) at 4 °C overnight. The supernatants of each reaction were utilized for *in vitro* translation.

2.5. Competitive ELISA

Serocluster 'U' vinyl plate with 96 wells (Costar) was coated with affinity purified rabbit anti-PTB-C term IgG (2.5 μ g/ml) at 4 °C overnight. After blocking with 1% casein PBS (-) at 25 °C for 2 h, non-treated or immunodepleted HeLa S10 lysate were added to each well, and incubate at 25 °C for 2 h. Purified recombinant PTB was used for standard and non-treated or immunodepleted HeLa S10 lysates were added to each well, and incubate at 25 °C for 2 h. Then anti-PTB guinea pig IgG (1 μ g/ml) was reacted at 37 °C for 1 h, and finally anti-guineapig -IgG HRP (Dako 1:2000) was reacted at 37 °C for 1 h. *Ortho*-phenylene diamine was added to each well as substrate, and the absorbance was measured by microplate reader Model 450 (Bio Rad).