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Limitation of immunoaffinity column for the removal of abundant proteins from plasma in quantitative plasma proteomics

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ABSTRACT: In plasma proteomics, before a proteome analysis, it is essential to prepare protein samples without high-abundance proteins, including albumin, via specific preparation techniques, such as immunoaffinity capture. However, our preliminary experiments suggested that functional changes with use alter the ability of the immunoaffinity column. Thus, in this study, to evaluate the changes of the removal ability of abundant proteins from plasma by the immunoaffinity column, plasma proteome analysis was performed for the long-term test for the reproducibility of the affinity column using the fluorogenic derivatization–liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry method combined with an IgY column. The specific adsorption for albumin decreased with an increase in the number of the column usage before its expiration date. Moreover, it was demonstrated that hydrophobic high molecular weight compounds in plasma adsorbed onto the column materials surface contributed to the functional changes from specific immunoaffinity adsorption into hydrophobic interaction. These results suggested that, in quantitative plasma proteomics studies, it is important to keep in mind the risk of not only the nonselective loss but also the changes in the adsorption ability of the immunoaffinity column. Copyright © 2008 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Keywords: plasma; proteomics; immunoaffinity column; abundant protein; FD-LC-MS/MS method

Introduction

Blood samples can be taken at a particular point in time with little burden on patients and the constituents of the blood samples could reflect a developing or existing illness because tissue-specific proteins may be released into the blood stream from the damaged or dead cells. Therefore, it is generally recognized in proteomics studies that blood samples represent the greatest potential source of information on the proteins related to human diseases. However, plasma proteome analysis aiming at quantitative protein profiling and biomarker discovery is not easily done. Since several high-abundance proteins, such as albumin, typically constitute greater than 90% of total protein mass, the detection of lower-abundance proteins which presumably are the biologically interesting population is interfered with by the dominant proteins. To address the complexity of these samples, it is essential to prepare samples via specific preparation techniques to remove high-abundance proteins from the samples before the proteome analysis (Linke *et al.*, 2007; Martosella *et al.*, 2005; Qian *et al.*, 2006; Steel *et al.*, 2003). There are a number of approaches for removing proteins based on their biochemical and biophysical features, such as molecular weight, mass, density, hydrophobicity, surface charge and isoelectric point. Among these techniques, immunoaffinity capture using antibodies is rapidly becoming the pre-fractionation method of choice in proteomics analysis. Commercial kits using an avian immunoglobulin yolk (IgY) have recently become available due to its high avidity and lesser cross-reactivity with heterologous human proteins (Huang *et al.*, 2005; Linke *et al.*, 2007; Qian *et al.*, 2006). A number of researchers have already indicated its utility and the improvement of the detection of low-abundance proteins by the elimination of the high-abundance proteins using the IgY affinity column (Gong *et al.*,

2006; Huang *et al.*, 2005; Linke *et al.*, 2007; Liu *et al.*, 2006; Qian *et al.*, 2006).

We have recently developed a highly sensitive and quantitative proteomics method called fluorogenic derivatization–liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (FD-LC-MS/MS) (Masuda *et al.*, 2004; Toriumi and Imai, 2003). The method consists of separation of the fluorogenic derivatized proteins by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), isolation of the target protein obtained by HPLC, hydrolysis and identification of the target protein by LC-MS/MS with the probability-based protein identification algorithm. This highly selective, sensitive and reproducible method enables the post-translational proteins and isoforms to be distinguished. The method was applied to the extracts of *Caenorhabditis elegans*, mouse liver and breast cancer cell lines, and revealed the proteins related to early-stage Parkinson's

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Abbreviations used: DAABD-Cl, 7-Chloro-N-[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]-2,1,3-benzoxadiazole-4-sulfonamide; FD, fluorogenic derivatization; HCCA, α -cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid; TCEP, Tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride; TFA, trifluoroacetic acid; TOF, time-of-flight.

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disease (Ichibangase *et al.*, 2008), hepatocarcinogenesis (Ichibangase *et al.*, 2007) and tumor progression and metastasis (Imai *et al.*, 2008). During the course of our studies, we applied the FD-LC-MS/MS method to plasma proteomics. To detect plasma biomarkers that are probably masked by the high-abundant proteins, an IgY affinity column was utilized for the removal of the dominant proteins, such as albumin, from plasma before the fluorogenic derivatization (FD) of the plasma proteins. On the preliminary experiments, the quantitative changes of the peaks on the chromatograms obtained from the same samples were observed on every occasion of sample treatment with the affinity column. Since the detectability of the fluorogenic derivatized proteins by the HPLC-fluorescence detector is always constant, the change in the removal ability of the IgY column for the abundant proteins could be monitored during the usage of the column. Although it was reported that there was a risk of loss by inadvertent capture of low-abundance proteins (Bjorhall *et al.*, 2005; Gong *et al.*, 2006; Linke *et al.*, 2007; Plavina *et al.*, 2007; Yocum *et al.*, 2005), there are no reports of long-term tests for the reproducibility of the affinity column in quantitative proteome analysis.

In this study, to evaluate the removal ability of abundant proteins from plasma by the affinity column, we performed proteome analysis of plasma sample and protein standards by FD-LC-MS/MS combined with the IgY technique and investigated the cause of the quantitative changes of the chromatograms mentioned above.

Experimental

Materials and Methods

Reagents. 7-Chloro-*N*-[2-(dimethylamino)ethyl]-2,1,3-benzoxadiazole-4-sulfonamide (DAABD-Cl) and 6.0 M guanidine hydrochloride (pH 8.7 buffer solution) were purchased from Tokyo Chemical Industry (Tokyo, Japan). Ethylenediamine-*N,N,N',N'*-tetraacetic acid sodium salt (Na₂EDTA) and 3-[(3-Cholamidopropyl) dimethylammonio]-1-propanesulfonate (CHAPS) were from Dojindo Laboratories (Kumamoto, Japan). Tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride (TCEP) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). Acetonitrile and trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) for the HPLC-fluorescence detection were HPLC grade and were obtained from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Osaka, Japan). All other reagents used were of analytical grade.

Affinity Columns

The prepacked IgY-R7 Spin Column and Seppro[®]-IgY12 were obtained from Beckman Coluter (Fullerton, CA, USA) and GenWay Biotech (San Diego, CA, USA), respectively. The IgY-R7 Spin Column (1.2 mL spin column) removes seven high-abundance proteins in rodent plasma (albumin, IgG, α 2-antitrypsin, IgM, transferrin, haptoglobin and fibrinogen) and utilizes centrifugation as the force for affinity separation. The column is said to be reusable 100 times under proper conditions. The Seppro[®]-IgY12 column is optimized for human plasma and removes 12 high-abundance proteins (IgA, α 1-acid glycoprotein, α 2-macroglobin, apolipoproteins A-I and apolipoproteins A-II besides the above seven proteins). This column is used with the high-throughput automated proteomic sample processing instrument (Magtration System SA-1; Precision System Science, Chiba, Japan) and is said to be able to be used 30 times. Both companies are corporate partners for the exclusive marketing of the IgY microbeads technology, and both column materials are the same except for recognized animal species to the IgY.

Plasma Samples

For the IgY-R7 Spin Column, plasma samples were obtained from C57BL/6N male mice (10 and 19 months; Clea Japan, Tokyo, Japan) by centrifugation at 5510 rpm for 10 min at 4°C, and frozen at -80°C until use. On the other hand, the human control plasma sample purchased from Sigma-Aldrich was used for the Seppro[®]-IgY12 column. The control plasma sample was passed through a 0.45 μ m filter before use.

Treatment of Mouse Plasma with the IgY-R7 Spin Column

Mouse plasma treated with the spin column was carried out according to the manufacturer-instructed column usage and loading capacity [10 μ L plasma diluted with dilution/washing buffer: 10 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4 (TBS)]. Three buffers (dilution/washing buffer; stripping buffer: 100 mM glycine, pH 2.5; neutralization buffer: 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0) were used under the separation scheme that consisted of sample loading-washing-eluting-neutralization followed by a re-equilibration scheme for a total cycle time of 40 min. To increase the recovery of the non-specific proteins, the resulting flow-through fraction and the washing fractions were collected and concentrated to 10 μ L with 3.0 kDa molecular weight cutoff device according to the manufacturer's instructions (Microcon YM-3; Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA).

Treatment of Protein Standards and Control Human Plasma Sample with the Seppro[®]-IgY12 Column

The molecular weight standards, consisting of phosphorylase B, serum albumin, ovalbumin, carbonic anhydrase, trypsin inhibitor and lysozyme for electrophoresis (Table 1; 12 mg/mL protein amount; low range; Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA), were employed in sample processing without dilution to evaluate the recovery of non-specific proteins from the column. The injected amount of the protein standards was 2.4 mg protein per injection to the affinity column. Since, in the instructions, 15 μ L of plasma (generally corresponding to 70–80 mg proteins/mL) was diluted to 500 μ L and loaded to the affinity column, the injected amount of the standards was compatible. According to the manufacturer's instructions, the protein standards were set in the sample holding and then the flow-through fraction was obtained.

The control human plasma sample was also treated according to the manual. Briefly, 15 μ L of plasma sample was diluted with the dilution/washing buffer to 500 μ L, and the sample was set in the sample holding, as in the case of the protein standards. The resulting flow-through fraction of the plasma was concentrated

Table 1. Protein standards and the number of labeled region with DAABD-Cl

Protein	Source	MW (kDa)	No. of labeled region
Phosphorylase B	Rabbit muscle	97.4	10
Serum albumin	Bovine	66.2	35
Ovalbumin	Hen egg white	45	5
Carbonic anhydrase	Bovine	31	2
Trypsin inhibitor	Soybean	21.5	5
Lysozyme	Hen egg white	14.4	6

to 15 μL with a Microcon YM-3 device. A series cycle including the sample loading–washing–eluting–neutralization finished in 65 min.

FD-LC-MS/MS Conditions

Each FD condition was optimized for the protein standards and for plasma samples in order to obtain the highest peak on the chromatograms. For the protein standards, a 2.5 μL aliquot of the flow-through fraction was mixed with 30 μL of a mixture of 0.83 mM TCEP, 3.3 mM Na_2EDTA and 16.6 mM CHAPS in the pH 8.7 buffer solution, 12.5 μL of the buffer solution and 5.0 μL of 8.0 mM DAABD-Cl in acetonitrile. The mixture was reacted at 50°C for 5.0 min, and the reaction was stopped with 1.5 μL of 20% TFA. A 20 μL aliquot of the above reaction mixture was injected to the HPLC system (Hitachi L-2000 series; Hitachi Instruments, Tokyo, Japan) using a column of Intrada WP-RP (30 nm pore size, 250 \times 4.6 mm i.d., Imtakt Co, Kyoto, Japan) at 60°C with a flow rate of 0.55 mL/min. The eluent (A) and eluent (B) were water–acetonitrile–TFA (90:10:0.15, v/v/v) and water–acetonitrile–TFA (30:70:0.05, v/v/v), respectively. The gradient condition was established from 5 to 100% eluent (B) over a period of 60 min. For mouse and control plasma samples, a 6.0 μL aliquot of the flow-through fraction was mixed with 30 μL of the above mixture of TCEP, Na_2EDTA and CHAPS, 10 μL of the buffer solution and 4.0 μL of 825 mM DAABD-Cl in dioxane. After the FD reaction (50°C for 5.0 min), the reaction was stopped with 2.0 μL of 20% TFA. An aliquot (10 μL) of the reaction mixture was injected, and the longer column (Intrada WP-RP 30 nm pore size, 500 \times 4.6 mm i.d., Imtakt Co) together with a precolumn (Intrada WP-RP 30 nm pore size, 5.0 \times 2.0 mm i.d., Imtakt Co) at 60°C was adopted with a flow rate of 0.55 mL/min on the HPLC system. The mobile phases consisted of water–acetonitrile–TFA (A) 90:10:0.15 and (B) 30:70:0.05. Mobile phase (C) was the same as (A), except with 0.05% TFA. The gradient condition is described in Fig. 1. Fluorescence detection was carried out at 395 and 505 nm for the excitation and emission wavelengths, respectively. The peak height of each protein peak obtained from the HPLC chromatograms was calculated by HITACHI EZChrom Elite™ Chromatography Data System (Hitachi Instruments) and the identification of the standard proteins was accomplished according to the previous report (Ichibangase *et al.*, 2007).

Scanning Electron Microscopy and Matrix-assisted Laser Desorption/Ionization MS Analysis

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization (MALDI) MS analyses were conducted in Jeol Datum (Tokyo, Japan) and Bruker Daltonics Japan (Kanagawa, Japan), respectively.

For SEM analysis, the column materials were diluted with phosphate buffer (300 mOsm) and fixed with fixative (2.5% glutaraldehyde in PBS, pH 7.0) for 10 min. The fixed sample was captured on the filter (SEM-Pore: 0.6 μm i.d.; 10 μm) and washed with the buffer. After the osmium-fix (2% OsO_4) and a brief rinse with the fixative solutions, specimens were dehydrated in a series of graded ethanol (30–100%). The immersed specimens in ethanol were replaced with isoamyl phenylacetate and subjected to critical point drying. The dried samples were coated with osmium using a plasma coater (OPC80N, Jeol). Images were acquired using a Jeol JSM-7401F in normal SEM mode. For the low power

microscope images for the whole picture of a material, a lower electron image (LEI) was applied.

For MALDI MS analysis, the column materials were washed and spotted on a plate. α -Cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (HCCA) was used as matrix. MALDI mass spectra were acquired with time-of-flight (TOF) MS (autoflex III, Bruker Daltonics) in positive linear mode.

Results and Discussion

Quantitative Functional Changes of the IgY-R7 Spin Column after a Number of Treatments with Mouse Plasma

For the detection of low-abundance proteins in mouse plasma, the removal of high-abundance proteins from mouse plasma with the affinity column was performed prior to the FD-LC-MS/MS proteome analysis. Typical chromatograms are shown in Fig. 1(A), obtained from the same mouse plasma sample treated with 80 and 86 cycles of the same spin column, respectively. All peak heights obtained from the 86 cycles of the spin column were clearly higher compared with those obtained from the 80 cycles. Although a difference between column lots might exist, there were also significant differences in the removability of the affinity column between the second (column lot no. 2) and the 44th cycles (column lot no. 1) of the treated spin column [Fig. 1(B)]. The relative standard deviation (RSD) of the protein peaks was calculated between-day ($n = 3$) using samples provided by the same treatment number of the column. The RSD values were less than 21.6%, obtained from the peak in Fig. 1(A), suggesting that the detectability of the fluorogenic derivatized proteins by HPLC is constant. Therefore, it was considered that the quantitative changes of the peaks on the chromatograms might result from the changes in the affinity column by the sample treatment.

Evaluation of Seppro®-IgY12 Column for the Adsorption of Protein Standards using an Automatic Instrument

To eliminate a manual usage error from the sample processing, a high-throughput automated instrument, SA-1, for the removal of high-abundance proteins from human plasma samples with a Seppro®-IgY12 column was investigated. For the evaluation of the exact adsorption ratio of specific and non-specific proteins to the affinity column, the affinity column was periodically treated with protein standards after treatment with a control human plasma sample some dozen times. Since the other investigator has reported the non-specific adsorption of the protein by concentration methods such as a centrifugal filter to be about 15% (Linke *et al.*, 2007), the flow-through fraction of the injected protein standards from the affinity column was subjected directly to the FD-LC-MS/MS analysis without a protein concentration step in this study.

At first, to eliminate the non-specific adsorption to the affinity column, the protein standards mixture was divided into two parts and one was subjected into the untreated affinity column, and the flow-through fraction was derivatized with the fluorogenic reagent, DAABD-Cl, and separated by the HPLC system (4.8 μg protein/HPLC injection). Another part of the protein standards mixture was diluted and derivatized with DAABD-Cl, and injected onto the HPLC system (4.8 μg protein/HPLC injection). The obtained chromatograms are depicted in Fig. 2. Each protein peak was collected, digested in peptide mixtures, and identified by applying the peptides to HPLC-MS/MS with a

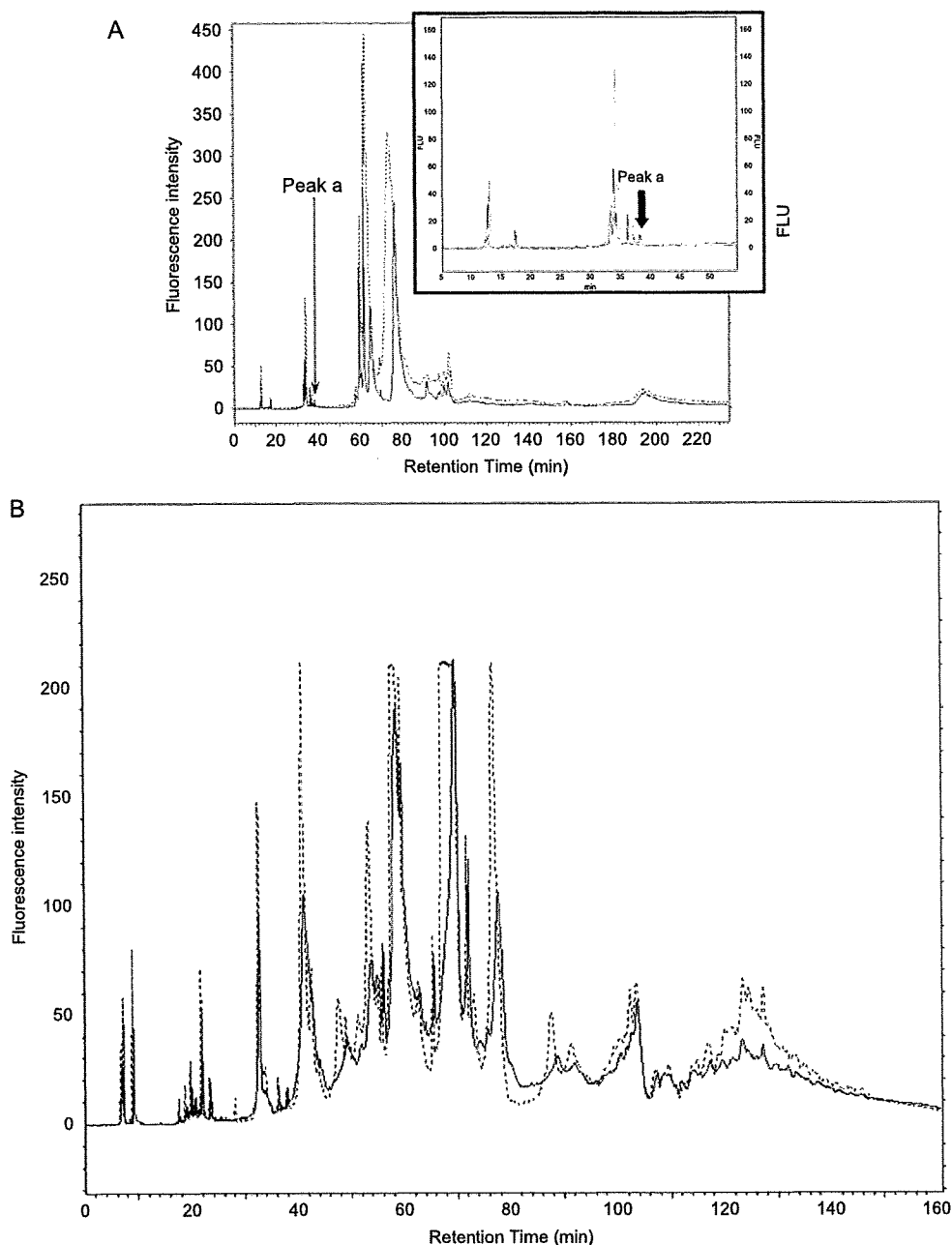


Figure 1. Chromatograms of mouse plasma samples treated with IgY-R7 Spin Columns. (A) The mouse plasma (19 months, C57BL/6N) treated 80 times (solid line) and 86 times (dotted line) in the same spin column. The gradient conditions were as follows: time (min), 0 → 10 → 20 → 44 → 48 → 68 → 80 → 90 → 108 → 120 → 130 → 160 → 180 → 230; B (%): 5 → 5 → 30 → 30 → 35 → 38 → 39.2 → 39.2 → 42 → 43 → 44 → 45 → 47 → 58; C (%): 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 60.8 → 58 → 57 → 56 → 55 → 53 → 42. (B) The mouse plasma samples (10 months, C57BL/6N) were treated with the second cycle (column lot no. 2; solid line) and the 44th cycle (column lot no. 1; dotted line) of each spin column. The gradient conditions were as follows: time (min), 0 → 5 → 10 → 22 → 24 → 34 → 54 → 60 → 60.1 → 80 → 130 → 140 → 150 → 160 → 170; B(%): 5 → 5 → 30 → 30 → 35 → 38 → 42 → 43 → 43 → 47 → 58 → 60 → 60 → 75 → 78; C(%): 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 0 → 57 → 53 → 42 → 40 → 40 → 25 → 22.

database-searching algorithm. Table 2 shows the adsorption ratio of the proteins to the untreated column and the identified protein names. The protein names of peak 1 and 2 could not be identified since these peaks were peptides coexisting in the protein standards. Also, carbonic anhydrase and ovalbumin could not be detected. Since carbonic anhydrase has only two cysteine

residue for labeling with DAABD-Cl, its detection might be difficult. The reason for the undetected ovalbumin was not clear. Since this study was aimed at investigating the changes in the adsorption of the specific and non-specific proteins using the column, this issue was not examined further. Consequently, although the affinity column was able to efficiently remove bovine serum

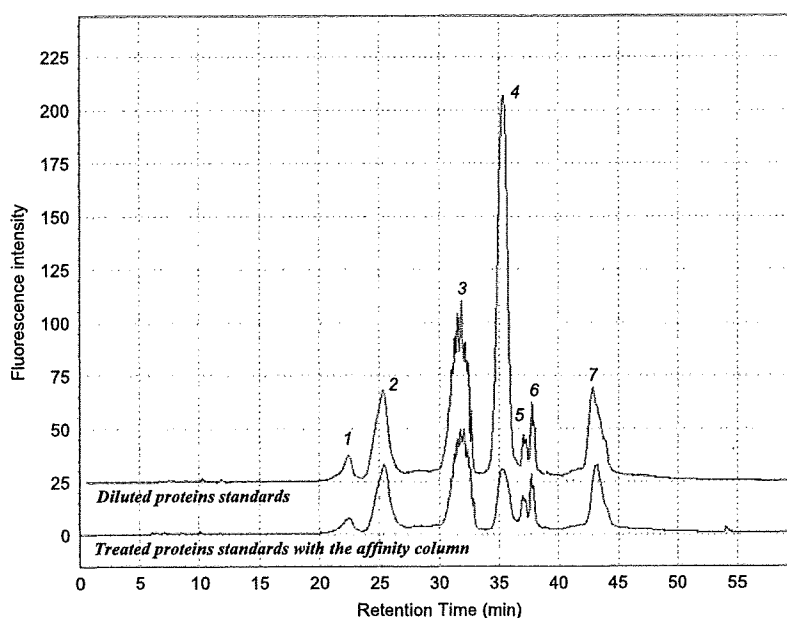


Figure 2. Chromatograms of the protein standards which were treated with Seppro[®]-IgY12 column and diluted to the same protein amount (4.8 µg/HPLC injection) as the amount for the column treatment. The peak numbers correspond to Table 2.

Table 2. Adsorption ratio to the untreated Seppro[®]-IgY12 column and protein names obtained by FD-LC-MS/MS method

Peak no.	Adsorption ratio to the untreated Seppro [®] -IgY12	Protein name
1	38.5%	Peptide
2	30.6%	Peptide
^a 3	45.9%	Lysozyme
4	83.9%	Bovine serum albumin (BSA)
^b 5	18.3%	Trypsin inhibitor
6	28.5%	Trypsin inhibitor
7	30.4%	Phosphorylase B

^a3, ^b5: Most highest peak

albumin (BSA; 83.9%) as compared with the other proteins in the standards, non-specific binding to the column materials or to carrier proteins such as albumin itself was observed in the 18.3–45.9% range and could result in the loss of presumed biomarkers.

Next, the time series changes of the specific and non-specific adsorption of proteins to the column were investigated. The protein standards mixture was treated with the column periodically after 10 and 20 cycles of treatment of the control plasma sample. The relation of the changes of the protein standards adsorption to the number of uses of the affinity column is shown in Fig. 3(A). The specific adsorption of BSA decreased with an increase in the number of times the column was used. However, the non-specific adsorption for lysozyme, trypsin inhibitor and phosphorylase B reached a maximum at 11 cycles and decreased at 21 cycles. Since the affinity column was optimized for human plasma, the absorption of BSA for the column might be weaker than for plasma albumin. However, the adsorp-

tion of albumin in control plasma also decreased with an increase in the number of times the column was used (data not shown). Moreover, since the slopes of decrease differed among the protein standards, the correlation of each adsorption with molecular weight of each protein was calculated [Fig. 3(B)]. The open dots show the value of BSA in Fig. 3(B). The correlation coefficient value was the closest to 1.00 ($R^2 = 0.813$) for 21 cycles [Fig. 3(B-3)], demonstrating that the adsorption ability of the column does not depend any longer on the affinity of the antibody but on the hydrophobicity of the protein. In contrast, the correlation of the values obtained from the first cycle [Fig. 3(B-1); $R^2 = 0.077$] was not fairly observed between the adsorption ability and the hydrophobicity, and the value for BSA was apart from those for other proteins. Therefore, BSA was specifically removed as compared with the other protein standards by the immunoaffinity adsorption. Also, as shown in Fig. 3(B-2), the result obtained from 11 cycles ($R^2 = 0.012$) demonstrated that all proteins bound to the surface of the affinity column materials equally. Therefore, the present data demonstrates that the quantitative changes of the adsorption for the affinity column appear before the limited use of the column (30 times in the manufacturer's instructions).

Understanding the State of the Plasma-treated Column Materials

To understand the state of the column materials of the Seppro[®]-IgY12 column, the untreated and 11- and 21-times-treated column materials were subjected to electron microscopy and MALDI-TOF-MS analysis.

As shown in Fig. 4, the SEM images show an obvious difference between the untreated and treated materials. The attachment of the unknown bio-molecules to the materials surface appeared and increased with an increase in the number of treatments.

Next, in order to characterize the attached compounds, the same materials were subjected to MALDI-TOF-MS analysis. Since

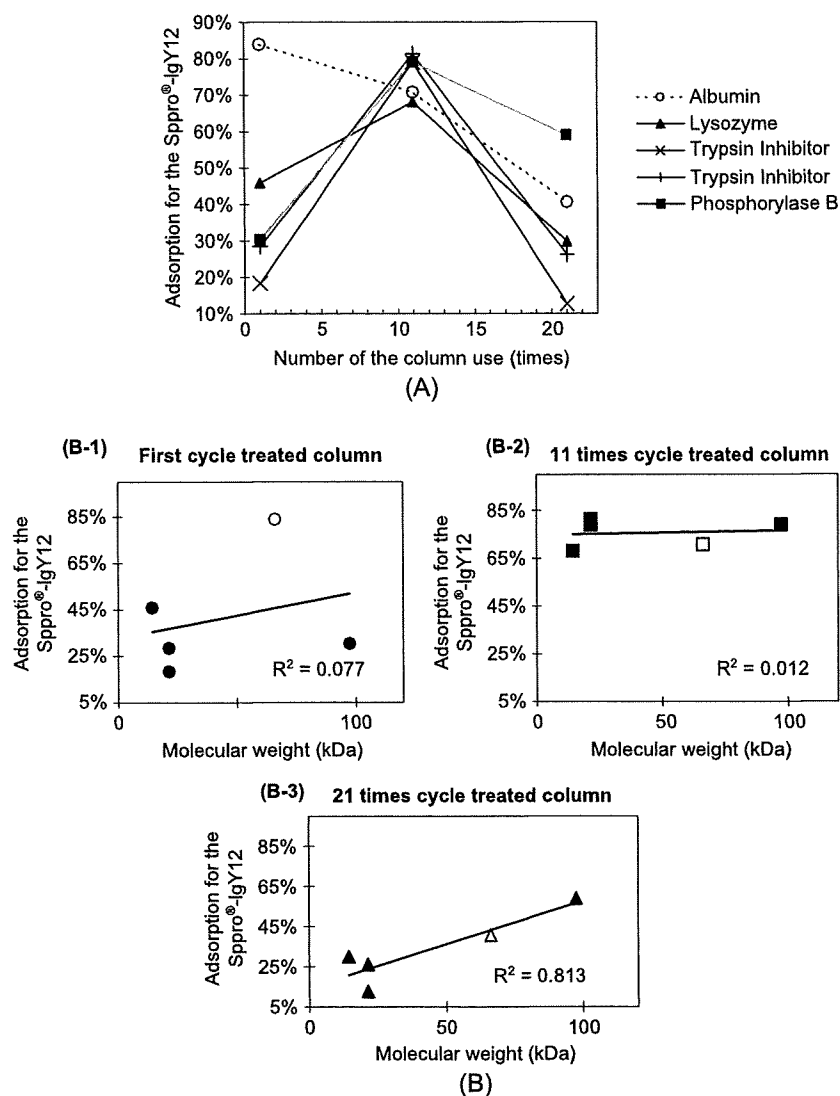


Figure 3. Changes of the adsorption ratio of protein standards for Seppro®-IgY12 column. (A) Relation of the adsorption ratio to the number of times the column was used. (B) Correlation of the adsorption ratio for the column with molecular weight of each protein standard using the column treader one (B-1), 11 (B-2) and 21 (B-3). The open dots show the value for BSA.

direct laser irradiation of the materials could affect the instrument, the positions to be irradiated were the points of the existence of many matrices on a few column materials. Although several peaks existed of less than 70,000 m/z in each mass spectrum, the higher molecular weight peaks (7266, 9689, 14,532 and 29,041 m/z) appeared in the treated but not in the untreated materials (Fig. 5). After the materials were washed with acetonitrile, the higher molecular weight peaks in the treated materials disappeared (data not shown). Therefore, the compounds attached to the material surface should be hydrophobic high-molecular-weight compounds existing in human plasma.

Two analyses of the column materials surface demonstrated that the hydrophobic high-molecular-weight compounds in plasma adsorbed onto the surface of the affinity column materials and contributed to the changes in the adsorption ability of plasma protein from immunoaffinity into hydrophobic interactions. However, further studies are needed to characterize the exact details of the compounds.

Conclusions

To investigate the ability to remove abundant proteins from plasma by immunoaffinity using the IgY column, FD-LC-MS/MS method was applied to the long-term test of the reproducibility of the column. It was demonstrated that the immunoaffinity column was effective in removing BSA from the protein standards mixture, but, in addition, removing other proteins in the 18.3–45.0% range. The results suggested that the proteins of possible biomarkers could be lost and their quantification made difficult. Moreover, the specific adsorption of BSA in the protein standards mixture and of albumin in the control human plasma samples decreased with an increase in the number of times the column was used with both samples before its use expired. To examine the cause of the functional changes of the immunoaffinity, the correlations between the adsorption ratio for the affinity column and molecular weight of the adsorbed proteins were calculated, and the column materials surface was also investigated by SEM and

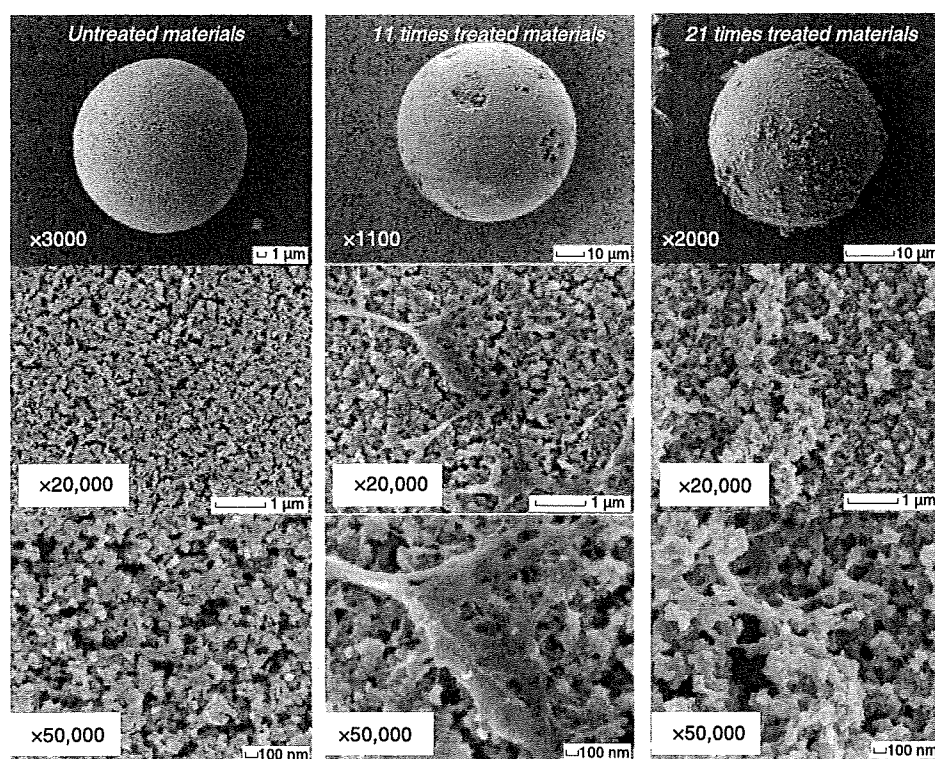


Figure 4. SEM images of the untreated and 11- and 21-times-treated column material surfaces. Magnification in SEM was controlled in a range of $\times 1100$ – 3000 to show the whole picture of the material.

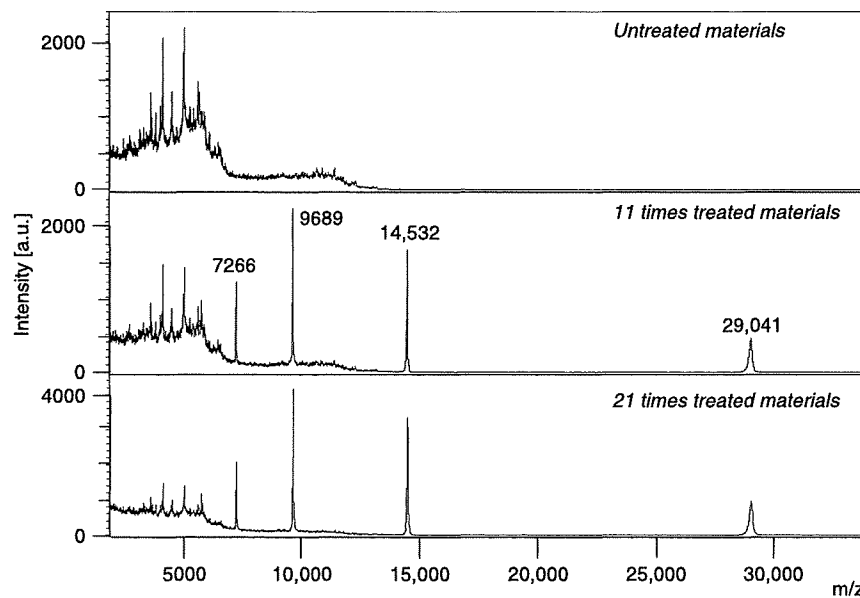


Figure 5. MALDI-TOF-mass spectrum of the untreated and 11- and 21-times-treated column material surface.

MALDI MS analysis. These data demonstrated the attachment of the hydrophobic high-molecular-weight compounds in plasma to the surface, suggesting that on every sample treatment with the affinity column, the adsorption ability of plasma protein changed into hydrophobic interactions. Further studies to characterize the attached compounds are required, and the elucidation

of the compounds might lead to the improvement of the affinity column technique and contribute to progress in quantitative plasma proteomics.

Reproducibility is prerequisite for accurate quantitative proteome analysis of clinical samples for biomarker identification and quantification. For this purpose, it is generally essential to

prepare protein samples without high-abundance proteins via specific pre-fractionation techniques to enhance the detection of low-abundance proteins in plasma, and thus, immunoaffinity separation is now chosen as a reliable pre-fractionation method. However, this study indicated that, in quantitative plasma proteomics studies, it is important to keep in mind the risk of not only nonselective loss but also functional changes of the adsorption ability for the immunoaffinity column.

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Review Article

Animal models for hepatitis C and related liver disease

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Persistent infection with hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major risk toward development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). The elucidation of pathogenesis of HCV-associated liver disease is hampered by the absence of appropriate animal models: there has been no animal model for HCV infection/pathogenesis except for the chimpanzee. In contrast, a number of transgenic mouse lines carrying the cDNA of the HCV genome have been established and evaluated in the study of HCV pathogenesis. The studies using transgenic mouse models, in which the HCV proteins such as the core protein are expressed, indicate the direct pathogenicity of HCV, including oncogenic activities. HCV transgenic mouse models also show a close relationship between HCV and some hepatic and extrahepatic manifestations such as hepatic steatosis, insulin resistance or Sjögren's syndrome. A crucial role of hepatic steatosis and insulin resistance in the pathogenesis of liver disease in HCV infection has been

demonstrated, implying hepatitis C to be a metabolic disease. Besides the data connecting liver fibrosis progression and the disturbance in lipid and glucose metabolisms in hepatitis C patients, a series of evidence was found showing the association between these two conditions and HCV infection, chiefly using transgenic mouse carrying the HCV genome. Furthermore, the persistent activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- α has recently been found, yielding dramatic changes in the lipid metabolism and oxidative stress overproduction in cooperation with the mitochondrial dysfunction. These results would provide a clue for further understanding of the role of lipid metabolism in pathogenesis of hepatitis C including liver injury and hepatocarcinogenesis.

Key words: core protein, hepatitis C, hepatocellular carcinoma, insulin resistance, steatosis, transgenic mouse.

INTRODUCTION

HEPATITIS C VIRUS (HCV) infection frequently evolves into a persistent state, leading to the development of chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and, eventually, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). For understanding of the mechanism of entry into hepatocytes, replication and the pathogenesis of HCV, an *in vitro* replication system or animal models for HCV infection/pathogenesis have been eagerly awaited. An *in vitro* HCV replication system was not established until the development of a subgenomic, non-structural region HCV replicon system or an infectious genotype 2a HCV clone, JFH-1.¹ There has been no animal model for HCV infection/pathogenesis except for the chimpanzee.²

Recently, however, several small animal models for HCV infection have been evaluated, including *Tupaia*³ and genetically engineered mice that are chimeric for human hepatocytes.⁴ On the other hand, a number of transgenic mouse lines carrying the cDNA of HCV genome have been established and evaluated in the study of HCV pathogenesis, as described hereafter. These mice, including those that are transgenic for the core gene of HCV, show the features resembling those of chronic hepatitis C patients, such as hepatic steatosis, insulin resistance and HCC. These animal models provide us a molecular understanding of the pathogenesis of HCV infection and a perspective for the future development of treatment and prophylaxis of liver disease occurring in HCV infection.

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THE CHIMPANZEE MODEL

AS EARLY AS the discovery of the cDNA clone of HCV, or even before that, the chimpanzee has been known to be susceptible to HCV (or the non-A, non-B

hepatitis agent), and has long been used as a sole animal model for HCV infection.² However, due to ethical reasons and vast costs, the use of this animal for HCV research is limited: the data on this animal model were obtained from the studies chiefly conducted in the USA. The serum samples from hepatitis C patients were inoculated to chimpanzees, and the natural course was evaluated in biochemical, virological or histological methods. These studies demonstrated that the course of HCV infection in this animal is similar to that in human beings, warranting the chimpanzee to be a good animal model for HCV infection, albeit HCC being a rare occurrence in chimpanzees.

In 1997, potential infectious HCV clones, which were produced by several study groups, were evaluated for *in vivo* infectivity using chimpanzees. The chimpanzees were also used for the evaluation of a role of cellular immunity in acute HCV infection: intrahepatic CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T-cell response was found to play a crucial role in the eradication of HCV from the liver. Recently, this animal is also used for the evaluation of candidates for HCV vaccines and the assessment of *in vivo* infectivity of JFH-1 HCV viral clone, which shows a robust replication in human HCC-derived HuH-7 cells.¹ Immunization with virus-like particles of chimpanzees induced an HCV-specific immune response of CD4⁺ or CD8⁺ T cells, thereby suppressing the development of high viral loads in chimpanzees that were challenged with HCV.⁵ Also, inoculation of the non-structural proteins of HCV using recombinant adenovirus vector induced HCV-specific immune T-cell response, leading to a significant suppression of replication of genotype 1a HCV that was challenged after immunization.⁶

In general, the liver lesions observed in HCV-inoculated chimpanzees are milder than those in human chronic hepatitis C patients, for example, cirrhosis or HCC rarely develops, but the morphological changes and inflammatory responses are similar to those in humans.² Therefore, the studies using chimpanzees are indispensable now and in the future for the analyses of viral replication, pathogenesis of liver disease and the evaluation of candidates for HCV vaccines.

THE SMALL PRIMATES MODEL

TUPAIA (*TUPAIA BELANGERI chinensis*), a small primate resembling the squirrel, has been reported to be susceptible to hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection in 1996,³ and was used for the study of HCV infection.⁷ However, only a quarter of inoculated individuals con-

tracted HCV infection, and developed only a transient or intermittent viremia with low viral loads. Another study group reported on the usefulness of how a primary culture of hepatocytes from the liver of Tupaia can be infected with serum- or plasma-derived HCV from infected humans, as measured by de novo synthesis of HCV RNA, analysis of viral quasispecies evolution, and detection of viral proteins.^{8,9}

While the development of liver disease (a cirrhosis-like lesion) in HCV-infected Tupaia was presented at scientific meetings, a scientific paper describing it has not appeared yet. In conclusion, the value of Tupaia in HCV research is limited, but it may be utilized for the analysis of viral entry or replication when HCV particles other than JFH-1 are used for the study.

HCV

THE DEVELOPMENT OF transgenic mouse technology was a great step forward in biotechnology in that this technology provides opportunities to examine *in vivo* an exceptionally wide variety of biological questions that were previously examined only *in vitro*. The selective addition of defined genes to the genome of a living animal is useful for investigating the consequences of expression of dominant genes, and thus a number of exogenous genes including oncogenes and humoral factor genes have been introduced into mouse eggs. Viral genes have also been transferred to define the complex cascades of events that can be triggered *in vivo* in response to the expression of a viral protein.

Hepatitis C virus is an enveloped RNA virus of the *Flavivirus* family, in which a positive-sense, single-stranded RNA genome of approximately 9600 nucleotides (nt) is contained within the nucleocapsid.¹⁰ The genome consists of a large translational open reading frame (ORF) encoding a polyprotein of approximately 3010 amino acids (aa) (Fig. 1). The ORF is flanked by highly conserved untranslated regions (UTR) at both the 5' and 3' termini. The complete 5' UTR consists of 341 nt and acts as an internal ribosomal entry site. This feature leads to the translation of the RNA genome using a cap-independent mechanism, rather than ribosome scanning from the 5' end of a capped molecule.

The polyprotein is processed by both the cellular and viral proteases to generate the viral gene products, which are subdivided into the structural and non-structural proteins. The structural proteins, which are encoded by the NH₂-terminal quarter of the genome, include the

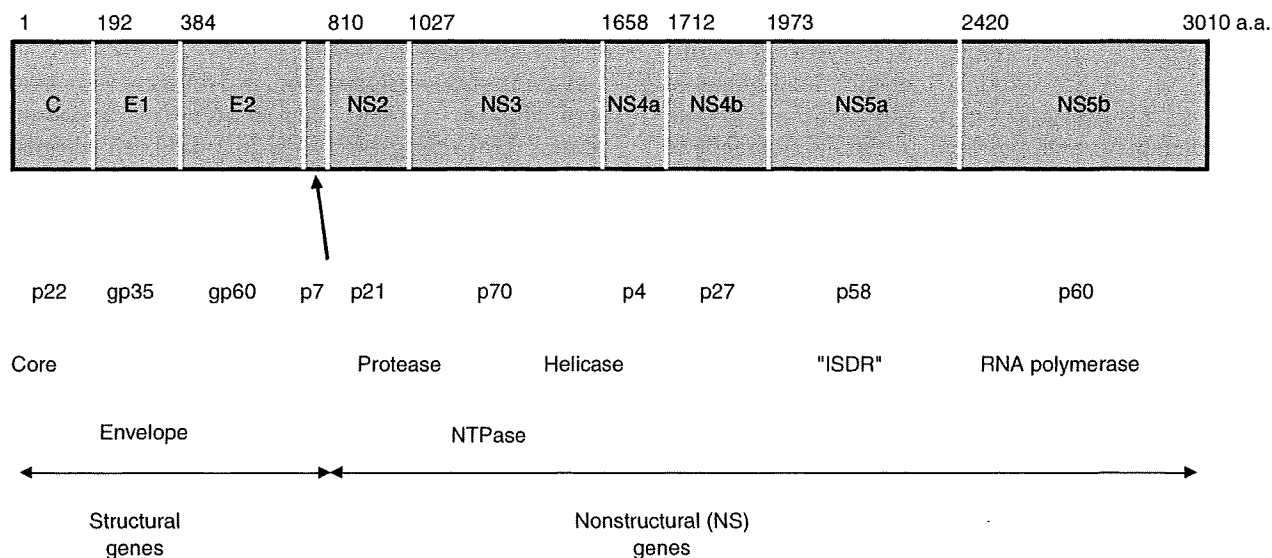


Figure 1 The structure of hepatitis C virus (HCV) genome. The HCV genome RNA encodes a polyprotein of 3010 amino acids (a.a.), which is processed to structural and non-structural proteins by the cellular or viral proteases. ISDR, interferon sensitivity-determining region.

core protein and the envelope proteins, E1 and E2. The E2 has an alternative form, E2-p7, though it is not clear whether or not the p7 composes the viral particle. The NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A and NS5B are the non-structural proteins that are coded in the remaining portion of the polyprotein. These include serine protease (NS3/4A), NTPase/helicase (NS3) and RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (NS5B).

The core protein of HCV occupies residues 1–191 of the precursor polyprotein and is cleaved between the core and E1 protein by host signal peptidase. The C-terminal membrane anchor of the core protein is further processed by host signal peptide peptidase.¹¹ The mature core protein is estimated to consist of 177–179 amino acids and shares high homology among HCV genotypes. The HCV core protein possesses the hydrophilic N-terminal region “domain 1” (residues 1–117) followed by a hydrophobic region called “domain 2”, which is located from residue 118–170. The domain 1 is rich in basic residues, and is implicated in RNA-binding and homo-oligomerization. The amphipathic helices I and II spanning from residue 119–136 and residue 148–164, respectively, in domain 2 are involved in the association of HCV core protein with lipid.¹² In addition, the region spanning from residue 112–152 is associated with membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondria.¹³ The core protein is also localized into the nucleus^{14,15} and binds to the nuclear

proteasome activator PA28 γ /REG γ , resulting in PA28 γ -dependent degradation of the core protein.¹⁶

A recent report suggests that ubiquitination and adenosine triphosphate (ATP) are not required for PA28 γ -dependent proteasome activity.¹⁷ HCV core protein is also known to be ubiquitinated by E3 ligase E6AP and degraded in the ubiquitin/ATP-dependent pathway.¹⁴ Thus, the HCV core protein is degraded in at least two different ways. To further assess the pathological significance of the interaction of core protein with PA28 γ , Core-Tg/PA28 γ -knockout mice have been generated and analyzed as described below (section 9).¹⁵

POSSIBLE ROLE OF HCV IN HEPATOCARCINOGENESIS

THE MECHANISM UNDERLYING hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection is not fully understood yet, despite the fact that nearly 80% of patients with HCC in Japan are persistently infected with HCV.^{18–20} HCV infection is also common in patients with HCC in other countries albeit to a lesser extent. These lines of evidence prompted us to seek to determine the role of HCV in hepatocarcinogenesis. Inflammation induced by HCV should be considered, of course, in a study on the hepatocarcinogenesis in hepatitis viral infection: necrosis of hepatocytes due to chronic inflammation followed by regeneration enhances genetic aberrations in host cells,

the accumulation of which culminates in HCC. This theory presupposes an indirect involvement of hepatitis viruses in HCC through hepatic inflammation. However, this context leaves us with a serious question: can inflammation alone result in the development of HCC in such a high incidence (90% in 15 years) or the multicentric nature of HCV infection?

The other role of HCV would have to be weighed against a rare occurrence of HCC in patients with autoimmune hepatitis in which severe inflammation in the liver persists indefinitely, even after the development of cirrhosis. These backgrounds and reasonings lead to a possible activity of viral proteins for inducing neoplasia. This possibility has been evaluated by introducing genes of HCV into hepatocytes in culture with little success. One of the difficulties in using cultured cells is the carcinogenic capacity of HCV, if any, which would be weak and would take a long time to manifest itself. Actually, it takes 30–40 years for HCC to develop in individuals infected with HCV. On the basis of these viewpoints, we started to investigate carcinogenesis in chronic hepatitis C, *in vivo*, by transgenic mouse technology.

TRANSGENIC MOUSE LINES CARRYING THE HCV GENOME

AS DESCRIBED ABOVE, the HCV proteins have been characterized chiefly using *in vitro* translation or cultured cells. Little is known, however, about the role of HCV or its proteins in the pathogenesis of hepatitis and subsequent liver diseases, cirrhosis and HCC. One of the major issues regarding the pathogenesis of HCV-associated liver lesions is whether the HCV proteins have direct effects on pathological phenotypes. Although several strategies have been used to characterize the hepatitis C viral proteins, the relationship between the protein expression and disease phenotype has not been clarified. For this purpose, several lines of mice have been established which were transgenic for the HCV cDNA (Table 1). They include the ones carrying the entire coding region of the HCV genome,³³ the core region only,^{21,29} the envelope region only,^{30,31} the core and envelope regions^{33,34} and the core to NS2 regions.⁴¹ Although detection of mRNA from the NS regions of the HCV cDNA has been reported,^{33,37} the detection of HCV NS proteins in the transgenic mouse liver have not been successful. The reason for this failure in detecting NS proteins is unclear, but the expression of the NS enzymes may be harmful to

mouse development and may allow the establishment of only low-expression mice.

In terms of expression system, two different ways have been applied; transient and constitutive expression systems. One transgenic mouse line has been reported which expresses the HCV genes using a transient expression system. Wakita *et al.* utilized the *Cre/loxP* system, by which a gene under silent can be switched on by the introduction of Cre recombinase. They established a transgenic mouse line that had the core, envelopes and NS2 genes of HCV in a silent state. After the injection of the recombinant adenovirus that had Cre recombinase in the mice, the HCV genes expressed transiently.⁴¹ These mice developed acute hepatitis, which was blocked by the administration of anti-CD4 and CD8 antibodies. This mouse system would provide a good animal model for acute hepatitis C and be useful for the study of immunological aspects of hepatitis. The possibility, however, that the greatly overexpressed HCV proteins had caused the death of hepatocytes and provoked the immune response thereafter still remains.

We have engineered transgenic mouse lines carrying the HCV genome by introducing the genes from the cDNA of the HCV genome of genotype 1b.^{21,22} Established are three different kinds of transgenic mouse lines, which carry the core gene, envelope genes or non-structural genes, respectively, under the same transcriptional regulatory element. Among these mouse lines, only the transgenic mice carrying the core gene developed HCC in two independent lineages (Fig. 2).²² The envelope gene transgenic mice do not develop HCC, despite high expression levels of both E1 and E2 proteins,^{31,32} and the transgenic mice carrying the entire non-structural genes have developed no HCC.

The core gene transgenic mice express the core protein of an expected size, and the level of the core protein in the liver is similar to that in chronic hepatitis C patients. Early in life, these mice develop hepatic steatosis, which is one of the histological characteristics of chronic hepatitis C, along with lymphoid follicle formation and bile duct damage.⁴³ Thus, the core gene transgenic mouse model well reproduces the feature of chronic hepatitis C. Of note, any pictures of significant inflammation are not observed in the liver of this animal model. Late in life, these transgenic mice develop HCC. Notably, the development of steatosis and HCC has been reproduced by other HCV transgenic mouse lines, which harbor the entire HCV genome or structural genes including the core gene.^{29,33,34} These outcomes indicate that the core protein per se of HCV has an oncogenic potential when expressed *in vivo*.

Table 1 Transgenic mouse lines constitutively expressing hepatitis C virus proteins

HCV gene	Genotype	Promoter	Protein expression	Phenotypes	References
Core	1b	HBV	Similar to patients	Steatosis, HCC, insulin resistance, oxidative stress	Moriya 1997 ²¹ & 1998 ²² Tsutsumi 2002 ²³ & 2003 ²⁴ Morishi 2003 ¹⁶ & 2007 ²⁵ Shintani 2004 ²⁶ Miyamoto 2007 ¹⁵ Tanaka 2008 ^{27,28} Machida 2006 ²⁹
Core	1b	EF-1a	Similar to patients	Steatosis, adenoma, HCC, oxidative stress	
Core, E2 truncated	1b	MUP	(-)	None	Pasquinelli 1998 ³⁰
E1-E2	1b	HBV	Abundant	None in the liver	Koike 1995, ³¹ Koike 1997 ³²
Core-E1-E2	1b	Albumin	Similar to patients	Steatosis, HCC, oxidative stress	Lerat 2003 ³³
Core-E1-E2	1a	CMV	Similar to patients	Steatosis, HCC	Naas 2005 ³⁴
Core or structural proteins	1b	Alb	Low	Larger tumor development with DEN treatment	Kamegaya 2005 ³⁵
Structural proteins	1b	MUP	Low	None	Kawamura 1998 ³⁶
Structural proteins	1b	MHC	Low in the liver	Hepatitis	Honda 1999 ³⁷
Entire polyprotein	1b	Albumin	Only mRNA detectable	Steatosis, HCC	Lerat 2003 ³³
Entire polyprotein	1a	A1-antitrypsin		Steatosis, intrahepatic T cell recruitment	Alonzi 2004 ³⁸
N53/4A	1a	MUP		None (modulation of immunity)	Frelin 2006 ³⁹
N55A	1a	apoE		None (resistance to TNF)	Majumder 2002 ⁴⁰

HBV, hepatitis B virus; EF, elongation factor; MUP, major urinary protein; Alb, albumin; CMV, cytomegalovirus; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; AT, anti-trypsin; apo E, apolipoprotein E.

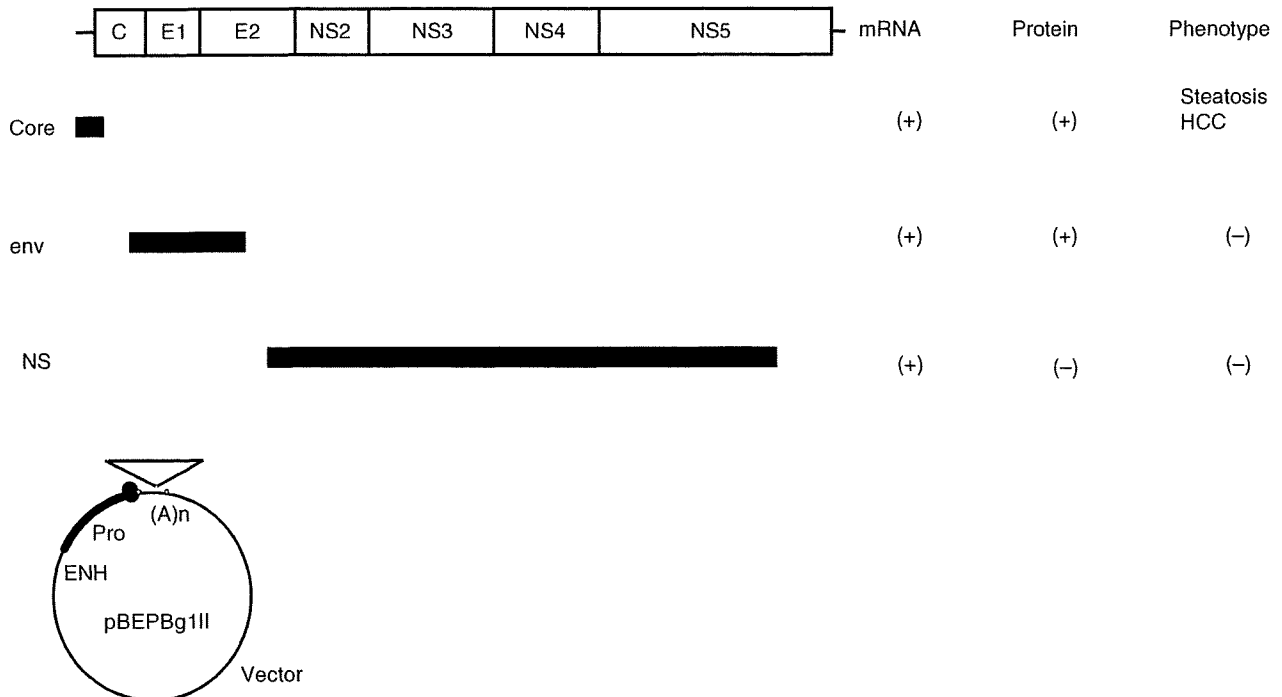


Figure 2 Transgenic mouse lines carrying the hepatitis C virus (HCV) genome.^{21,22,31,32,42} Three different kinds of transgenic mouse lines, carrying the core gene, envelope genes or non-structural genes of HCV, respectively, were established under the control of the same regulatory elements. Among these mouse strains, only the transgenic mice carrying the HCV core gene develop hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) after an early phase with hepatic steatosis in two independent lineages. The mice transgenic for the envelope genes or non-structural genes do not develop HCC. env, envelope genes; NS, nonstructural genes.

OXIDATIVE STRESS AND INTRACELLULAR SIGNALING IN HCV-ASSOCIATED PATHOGENESIS

IT IS DIFFICULT to elucidate the mechanism underlying the development of HCC, even for our simple model in which only the core protein is expressed in otherwise normal liver. There is a notable feature in the localization of the core protein in hepatocytes; while the core protein predominantly exists in the cytoplasm associated with lipid droplets, it is also present in the mitochondria and nuclei.^{14,22} On the basis of this finding, the pathways related to these two organelles, the mitochondria and nuclei, were thoroughly investigated.

One effect of the core protein is an increased production of oxidative stress in the liver. We would like to draw particular attention to the fact that the production of oxidative stress is increased in our transgenic mouse model in the absence of inflammation in the liver. This reflects a state of an overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the liver, or predisposition to it, which is staged by the HCV core protein without any interven-

ing inflammation.^{44,45} The overproduction of oxidative stress results in the generation of deletions in the mitochondrial and nuclear DNA, an indicator of genetic damage. In addition, analysis of the antioxidant system revealed that some antioxidative molecules are not increased despite the overproduction of ROS in the liver of core gene transgenic mice. These results suggest that HCV core protein not only induces overproduction of ROS but also attenuates some of the antioxidant system, which may explain the mechanism underlying the production of a strong oxidative stress in HCV infection compared to other forms of hepatitis.

Thus, in the absence of inflammation, the core protein induces oxidative stress overproduction, which may, at least in part, contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection. If inflammation were added to the liver with the HCV core protein, the production of oxidative stress would be escalated to an extent that cannot be scavenged anymore by a physiological antagonistic system. This suggests that the inflammation in chronic HCV infection would have a characteristic different in its quality from those of other types of

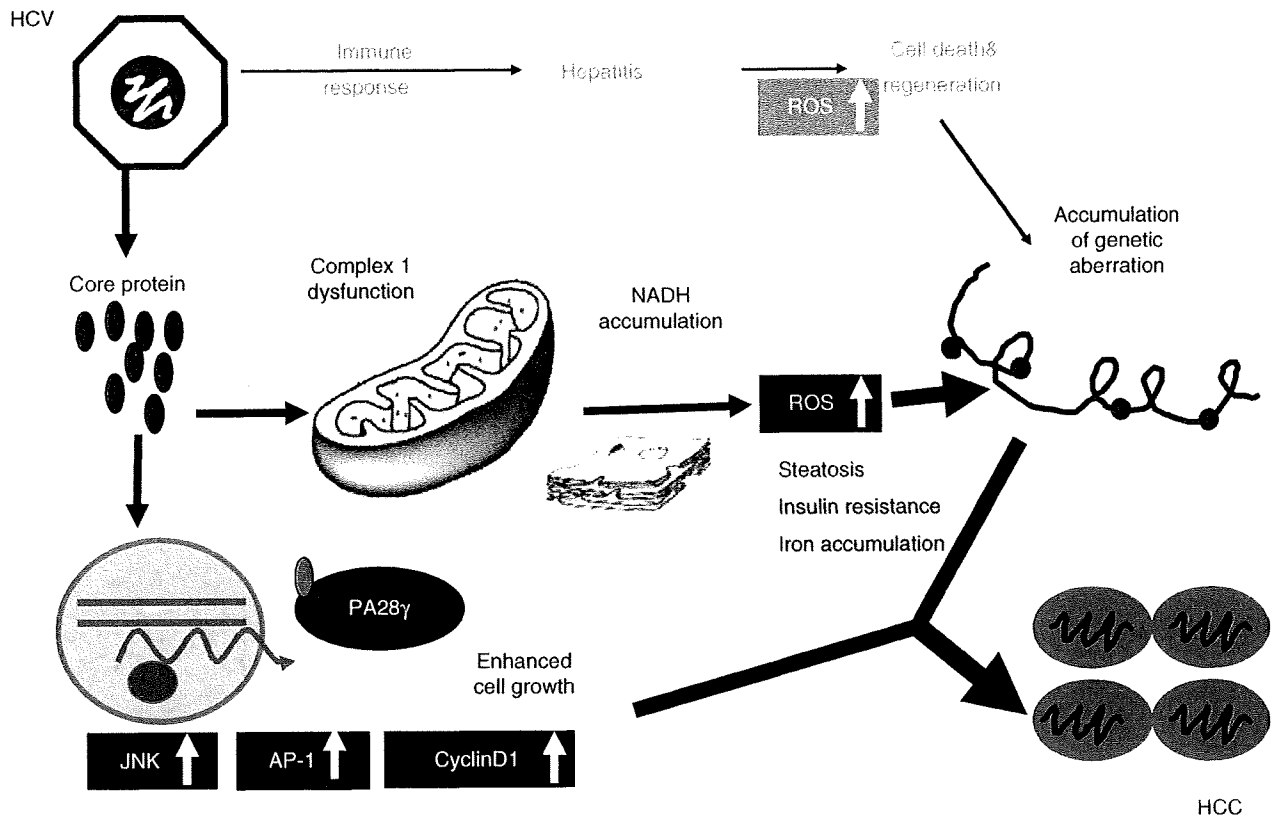


Figure 3 Mechanism of hepatocarcinogenesis in hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection. The core protein is localized in the nuclei of hepatocytes in addition to cytoplasm and may interact with nuclear factors, thereby deregulating the cell growth and death. The core protein may also affect the cell growth by its accumulating lipid in the hepatocytes, because lipid such as triglycerides are now known to be ligands for some nuclear receptors. Accumulated lipid may also cause genetic aberrations through its alteration to peroxy lipid. AP-1, activating protein-1; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; NADH, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; PA28, proteasome activator 28; ROS, reactive oxygen species.

hepatitis, such as autoimmune hepatitis. The basis for the overproduction of oxidative stress may be ascribed to the mitochondrial dysfunction.^{22,44} The dysfunction of the electron transfer system of the mitochondrion is suggested in association with the presence of the HCV core protein.⁴⁶

Other pathways in hepatocarcinogenesis would be the alteration of the expression of cellular genes and modulation of intracellular signaling pathways. For example, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α and interleukin (IL)-1 β have been found transcriptionally activated.²³ The mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascade is also activated in the liver of the core gene transgenic mouse model. The MAPK pathway, which consists of three routes, c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK), p38 and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK), is involved

in numerous cellular events including cell proliferation. In the liver of the core gene transgenic mouse model prior to HCC development, only the JNK route is activated. In the downstream of the JNK activation, transcription factor activating protein (AP)-1 activation is markedly enhanced.^{23,24} Far downstream, both the mRNA and protein levels of cyclin D1 and cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK)4 are increased. Thus, the HCV core protein modulates the intracellular signaling pathways and gives advantage to cell proliferation to hepatocytes (Fig. 3).

METABOLIC ASPECTS OF HCV INFECTION

STEATOSIS IS FREQUENTLY observed in chronic hepatitis C patients, and is significantly associated

Table 2 Cellular genes differentially expressed in hepatitis C virus core transgenic mouse³⁶

Liver	Upregulated	Downregulated
Lipid metabolism	NPC1	Stearoyl-CoA desaturase
	Catalase	Sterol-carrier protein X
	Very long chain acyl-CoA	α -Enolase carnitine acetyltransferase
	Dehydrogenase	Gal- β 1,4(3) GlcNAc- α 2,3-Sialyltransferase
	Carboxylesterase	Very long chain acyl-CoA synthetase
	Selenoprotein P	Liver transferrin
	Carbonic anhydrase	4-Hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase
	Adipose differentiation	LAF1 transketolases-adenosylmethionine synthetase
	Related protein	Apolipoprotein A-II
	Bilirubin/phenol family UDP	
Transcription and cell proliferation	Glucuronosyltransferase	
	Int-6	Human guanine nucleotide regulatory protein
	GCN5L1	alpha-fetoprotein
	<i>Homo sapiens</i> 8.2 kDa differentiation factor	Retinol binding protein
	USF1	
	Initiation factor eIF-4A1	
	Human elongation factor-1- δ	
Inflammation	Sui1	
	α -1 Protease inhibitor 3	α -2-Macroglobulin
Others	Hemopexin	LMW prekininogen
		Complement component C3
		AHSG (α -2 HS-glycoprotein) homolog
	Microvascular endothelial differentiation gene 1	Vitronectin
	Diazepam-binding inhibitor	Epithelin 1 and 2
	Argininosuccinate synthetase	Murinoglobulin
	Skeletal muscle- α tropomyosin	
	Ampd3 gene	
	DNA-binding protein	

with increased fibrosis and progression rate of fibrosis of the liver.⁴⁷ A comprehensive analysis of gene expression in the liver of core gene transgenic mice, in which steatosis develops from early in life, revealed that a number of genes related to lipid metabolism are significantly up- or downregulated (Table 2).

The composition of fatty acids that are accumulated in the liver of core gene transgenic mice is different from that in fatty liver due to simple obesity. Carbon 18 mono-unsaturated fatty acids (C18:1) such as oleic or vaccenic acids are significantly increased. This is also the case in the comparison of liver tissues from hepatitis C patients and simple fatty liver patients due to obesity.⁴⁵ The mechanism of steatogenesis in hepatitis C was investigated using this mouse model. There are at least three pathways for the development of steatosis. One is the frequent presence of insulin resistance in hepatitis C patients as well as in the core gene transgenic mice, which occurs through the inhibition of tyrosine-phosphorylation of insulin receptor substrate (IRS)-1.²⁶

Insulin resistance increases the peripheral release and hepatic uptake of fatty acids, resulting in an accumulation of lipid in the liver. The second pathway is the suppression of the activity of microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (MTP) by HCV core protein.⁴⁸ This inhibits the secretion of very low density protein (VLDL) from the liver, yielding an increase of triglycerides in the liver. The last one involves the sterol regulatory element-binding protein (SREBP)-1c, which regulates the production of triglycerides and phospholipids. In HCV core gene transgenic mice, SREBP-1c is activated, while neither SREBP-2 nor SREBP-1a is upregulated.²⁵ This corroborates the results in *in vitro* studies^{49,50} and a chimpanzee study.⁵¹ In humans, McPherson *et al.* have reported that there was no significant difference in the level of SREBP-1c mRNA in the liver tissues of chronic hepatitis C patients and normal subjects.⁵² However, the number of samples in that study was small, and a larger number must be examined to draw a conclusion in human patients.

PROTEASOME ACTIVATOR 28 γ AND HCV

INTERESTINGLY, WE FOUND recently that a protein interacting with the core protein, proteasome activator (PA)28 γ , is indispensable for the core protein to exert its function for the development of steatosis, insulin resistance and HCC.^{15,25} The pathogenic mechanisms underlying the core protein-induced diseases are summarized in Figure 3. Steatosis is defined as an accumulation of lipid droplets, the majority of which are triglycerides. Biosynthesis of triglycerides is mainly regulated by SREBP-1c. Transcription of SREBP-1c is controlled by a heterodimer of nuclear hormone receptors, liver X receptor (LXR)- α and retinoid X receptor (RXR)- α . Indeed, it has been reported that many genes regulated by SREBP were induced during the early stage of HCV infection in the livers of chimpanzees.⁵³ Our study has demonstrated that the core protein enhances the binding activity of the LXR- α -RXR- α complex to the *srebp-1c* promoter in a PA28 γ -dependent manner, resulting in upregulation of SREBP-1c and its regulating genes.²⁵ The activation may be mediated by the direct interaction between the core protein and RXR- α ⁵⁴ or by suppression of a co-repressor such as Sp110b, a negative regulator of RAR- α , by sequestering it in the cytoplasm through interaction with the cytoplasmic core protein.⁵⁵ Another mechanism is thought to be suppression of lipid secretion. Reduced serum levels of cholesterol and apolipoprotein B have been reported in patients with severe hepatitis C and the core gene transgenic mice.⁵⁶ As stated before, the MTP regulates the assembly and secretion of VLDL consisting of apolipoprotein B, cholesterol and triglycerides. In the core gene transgenic mice, MTP-specific activity is significantly decreased.⁴⁸ Therefore, the downregulation of MTP may be involved in the development of the steatosis cooperating with upregulation of SREBP-1c, although the precise role of HCV core protein is still unclear. Recently, it has been reported that the assembly and budding of HCV occur around the accumulated lipid droplets within the endoplasmic reticulum.⁵⁷ Furthermore, increases in saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids enhance HCV RNA replication.⁵⁸ These data suggest that regulation of lipid metabolism by the core protein plays crucial roles in the HCV life cycle. Obesity and hepatic steatosis often result in insulin resistance. However, 1- to 2-month-old core gene transgenic mice, which do not exhibit apparent steatosis and obesity, already exhibit insulin resistance due to a decrease in insulin sensitivity in the liver.^{15,26} Moreover, the core gene transgenic mice have been shown to exhibit overt diabetes when fed a high-fat diet,

while control mice do not.²⁶ Binding of insulin to the insulin receptor triggers tyrosine phosphorylation of the IRS proteins, leading to the following signal transductions to increase glucose uptake and inhibit the net production of glucose in the liver. An inflammatory cytokine, TNF- α , is known to impair the insulin-signaling pathway through inhibition of tyrosine phosphorylation of IRS. In fact, the overproduction of TNF- α has been reported to reduce the phosphorylation of IRS-1 and Akt in the core gene transgenic mice despite the absence of hepatic steatosis.^{15,26} Moreover, in the latter study, hyperinsulinemia was cured by depletion of TNF- α , suggesting that upregulation of TNF- α contributes to the core protein-induced insulin resistance.²⁶ Our previous study has indicated that the core protein-induced overexpression of TNF- α is also dependent on the presence of PA28 γ .¹⁵

In relation to lipid metabolism, the core protein has also been found to interact with RXR- α .⁵⁹ RXR- α is one of the nuclear receptors, which forms a homodimer or heterodimers with other nuclear receptors including peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- α , and plays a pivotal role in the regulation of the expression of genes relating to lipid metabolism, cell differentiation and proliferation. In fact, the core protein of HCV activates genes that have an RXR- α -responsive element as well as those with a PPAR- α -responsive element, in both mice and cultured cells.⁵⁵ Based on these results, we then examined the expression and function of PPAR- α in the liver of core gene transgenic mice.

PPAR- α AND “FATTY ACID SPIRAL” IN HCV-ASSOCIATED HEPATOCARCINOGENESIS

PEROXISOME PROLIFERATOR-ACTIVATED receptor- α is one of the PPAR genes, and plays a central role, as a heterodimer with RXR- α , in regulating fatty acid transport and catabolism. It is also known as a molecular target for lipid-lowering fibrate drugs.⁶⁰ On the other hand, a prolonged administration of PPAR- α agonists causes HCC in rodents. Currently, there is little evidence that the low-affinity fibrate ligands are associated with human cancers, but it is possible that chronic activation of high-affinity ligands could be carcinogenic in humans.⁵⁶

The level of PPAR- α protein was increased in the liver of core gene transgenic mice as early as 9 months old. PPAR- α protein is accumulated with age in the nuclei of hepatocytes together with cyclin D1 protein. However, the level of PPAR- α mRNA was not increased at any age.

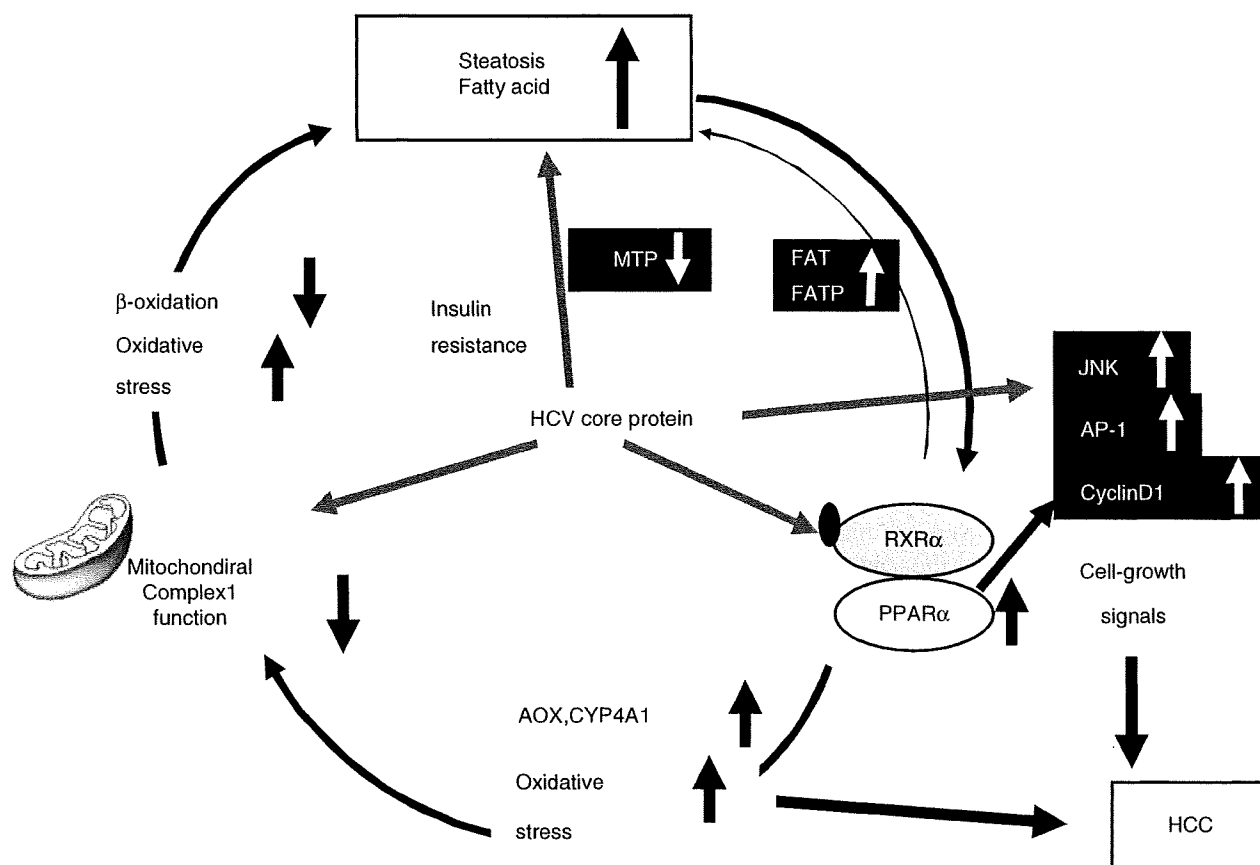


Figure 4 Hepatitis C virus (HCV) core protein causes “fatty acid spiral”. In HCV infection, the core protein induces steatosis through several pathways, leading to “fatty acid spiral” in the presence of the mitochondrial complex 1 dysfunction and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- α (PPAR- α) activation, both of which are also caused by the core protein. These intracellular alterations would contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis by inducing oxidative stress overproduction and cell-growth signal activation. In such a sense, the core protein of HCV is not a classical type oncoprotein, but rather seems to contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis by modulating intracellular metabolism and signaling. AOX, acyl-CoA oxidase; AP-1, activating protein-1; CYP, cytochrome P450; FAT, fatty acid translocase; FATP, fatty acid transport protein; HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; MTP, microsomal triglyceride transfer protein; RXR- α , retinoid X receptor- α .

By the pulse-chase experiment, the stability of nuclear PPAR- α turned out to be increased in the presence of the core protein. In line with the increase of PPAR- α protein, target genes of PPAR- α were activated in the liver of core gene transgenic mice; these genes include cyclin D1, CDK4, acy-CoA oxidase, and peroxisome thiolase.²⁷ However, in general, the activation of PPAR- α leads to improvement but not aggravation of steatosis. Then, what is the function of PPAR- α activation that is observed in the core gene transgenic mice?

To clarify the role of PPAR- α activation in pathogenesis of steatosis and HCC, we mated core gene transgenic mouse with PPAR- α knockout (KO) mouse, and studied the phenotype. PPAR- α KO mice have reduced

expressions of target genes of PPAR- α , and have mild steatosis in the liver as expected.²⁸ It was unanticipated, however, that steatosis was absent in PPAR- α -null or -heterozygous core gene transgenic mice but present in PPAR- α -intact core gene transgenic mice at the age of 9 or 24 months.²⁷ 8-Hydroxy deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) and peroxy lipids, both of which are markers for oxidative stress, were decreased in PPAR- α KO core gene transgenic mice. Mitochondrial dysfunction in the core gene transgenic mice, which contributes to an overproduction of oxidative stress,^{46,61} was also improved in PPAR- α KO core gene transgenic mice.

Finally, PPAR- α KO core gene transgenic mice did not develop HCC at the age of 24 months, while approxi-

mately one-third of PPAR- α -intact core gene transgenic mice did. It should be noted that core gene transgenic mice that are heterozygous for the PPAR- α gene neither developed HCC.²⁸ When clofibrate, a peroxisome proliferator, was administered for 24 months to PPAR- α -heterozygous mice, either with or without the core gene, HCC developed in a higher rate in the core-gene⁺ mice with a greater PPAR- α activation. It should be noted that steatosis was present only in core-gene⁺ PPAR- α -heterozygous mice. In summary, steatosis and HCC developed in PPAR- α -intact but not in PPAR- α -heterozygous or PPAR- α -null core gene transgenic mice, indicating that not the presence but the persistent activation of PPAR- α would be important in hepatocarcinogenesis by HCV core protein. In general, PPAR- α acts to ameliorate steatosis, but with the presence of mitochondrial dysfunction, which is also provoked by the core protein, the core-activated PPAR- α may exacerbate steatosis. A persistent activation of PPAR- α with "strong" ligands such as the core protein of HCV could be carcinogenic in humans, although the low-affinity fibrate ligands are not likely associated with human cancers.

Figure 4 illustrates our current hypothesis for the role of lipid metabolism in HCV-associated hepatocarcinogenesis. Immune-mediated inflammation should also play a pivotal role in hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection. However, in HCV infection, the core protein induces steatosis through the above-mentioned pathways, leading to "fatty acid spiral" in the presence of the mitochondrial complex 1 dysfunction and PPAR- α activation, both of which are caused by the core protein. These intracellular alterations would contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis by inducing oxidative stress overproduction and cell-growth signal activation. In such a sense, the core protein of HCV is not a classical type oncoprotein, but rather seems to contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis by modulating intracellular metabolism and signaling.

CONCLUSION

THE RESULTS OF our studies on transgenic mice have indicated a carcinogenic potential of the HCV core protein *in vivo*; thus, HCV would be directly involved in hepatocarcinogenesis. In research studies of carcinogenesis, the theory by Kinzler and Vogelstein⁶² has gained a wide popularity. They have proposed that the development of colorectal cancer is induced by the accumulation of a complete set of cellular gene mutations. They have deduced that mutations in the

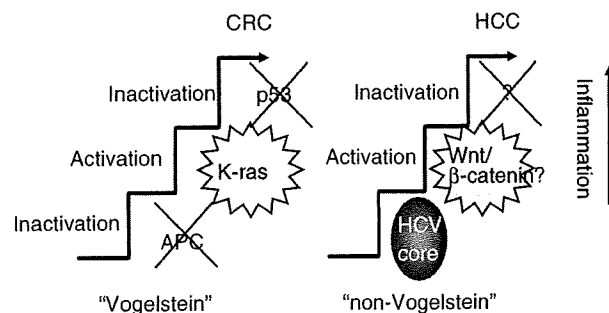


Figure 5 The role of hepatitis C virus (HCV) in hepatocarcinogenesis. Multiple steps are required in the induction of all cancers; it would be mandatory for hepatocarcinogenesis that genetic mutations accumulate in hepatocytes. However, in HCV infection, some of these steps may be skipped in the development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in the presence of the core protein. The overall effects achieved by the expression of the core protein would be the induction of HCC, even in the absence of a complete set of genetic aberrations, required for carcinogenesis. By considering such a "non-Vogelstein-type" process for the induction of HCC, a plausible explanation may be given for many unusual events happening in HCV carriers. APC, adenomatous polyposis coli; CRC, colorectal cancer.

adenomatous polyposis coli gene for inactivation, those in K-ras for activation and those in the p53 gene for inactivation accumulate, which cooperate toward the development of colorectal cancer.⁶² Their theory has been extended to the carcinogenesis of other cancers as well, called "Vogelstein-type" carcinogenesis (Fig. 5).

On the basis of the results we obtained for the induction of HCC by the HCV core protein, we would like to introduce a different mechanism for the hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection. We allow multi-stages in the induction of all cancers; it would be mandatory for hepatocarcinogenesis that many mutations accumulate in hepatocytes. Some of these steps, however, may be skipped in the development of HCC in HCV infection to which the core protein would contribute (Fig. 5). The overall effects achieved by the expression of the viral protein would be the induction of HCC, even in the absence of a complete set of genetic aberrations, required for carcinogenesis.

By considering such a "non-Vogelstein-type" process for the induction of HCC, a plausible explanation may be given for many unusual events happening in HCV carriers.⁴² Now it does not seem so difficult as before to determine why HCC develops in persistent HCV infection at an outstandingly high incidence.