

Solution Structures of MDA5 CTD and LGP2 CTD

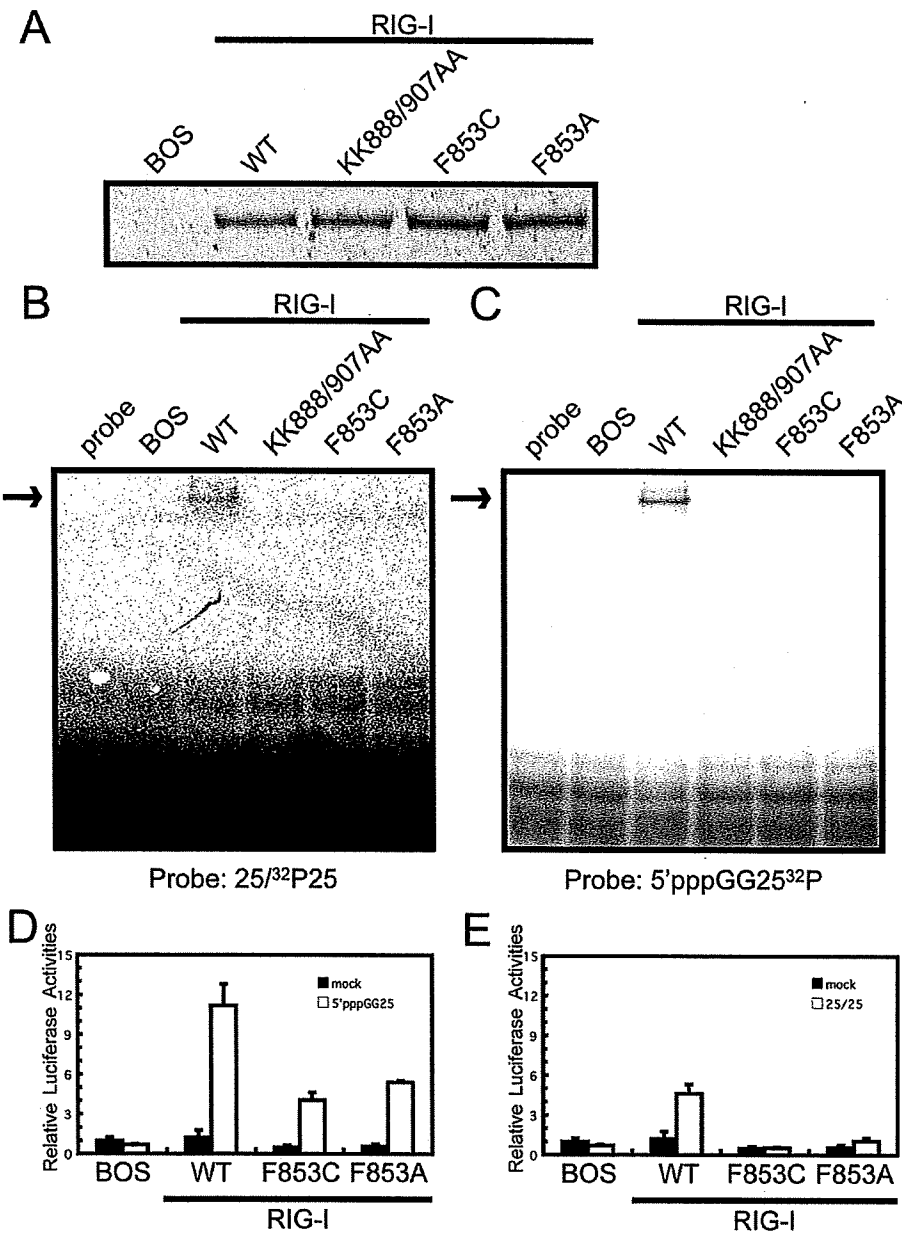


FIGURE 6. Functional analysis of the basic surface and the RNA binding loop mutants of RIG-I. Full-length wild type RIG-I and mutants were produced in 293T cells and purified by anti FLAG antibody. *A*, silver staining of the purified recombinant RIG-I. The recombinant RIG-I was subjected to EMSA using ³²P-labeled dsRNA (*B*; 25/25c) or 5'ppp-ssRNA (*C*; 5'pppGG25) as probe. *D* and *E*, interferon-β promoter activation by wt RIG-I and mutants. RIG-I^{-/-} mouse embryo fibroblasts were transfected with the reporter gene, p-125Luc, and pRL-tk, together with the expression vector for RIG-I and mutants. Cells were stimulated by transfection with 25/25c (*D*) or 5'pppGG25 (*E*) and subjected to a dual-luciferase assay. The values are the means ± S.D. from triplicate experiments. The relative luciferase activity was calculated by considering the luciferase activity from cells transfected with empty vector (*BOS*) as 1.0.

closely reflecting those of CTD (Fig. 1C) and that mutations at critical residues prevented the RNA binding.

DISCUSSION

The experiments reported here compared the RNA-binding activity of CTDs of RLRs. The results of SPR and EMSA assays suggested that LGP2 CTD bound to dsRNA and 5'ppp-ssRNA with higher affinity than RIG-I, but that MDA5 CTD exhibited weaker binding.

single dsRNA molecules. Our model (Fig. 4C) allows binding of multiple CTDs with single dsRNA. Formation of RLR multimers on dsRNA or 5'ppp-ssRNA may facilitate signaling through CARD oligomerization (14).

Further, despite a low binding affinity, MDA5 CTD also recognizes dsRNA, and the residues present in the basic surface are critical for the signaling activity of MDA5 (Figs. 4 and 5), suggesting that MDA5 CTD participates in dsRNA recognition. However it is also known that full-length MDA5 exhibits lower

The solution structure of the CTD revealed several critical features shared among or unique to each RLR. There is an RNA binding loop in all the CTDs, and the NMR structure and titration studies as well as the functional studies showed that the RNA binding loop in RIG-I and LGP2 are critical for RNA recognition but that it seems to be less important in MDA5. *In silico* docking with RIG-I (Fig. 4C) suggests that dsRNA lies on the basic groove of the RIG-I CTD, and that multiple interactions between the basic residues and phosphate backbone of the RNA maintains the complex. In the structure of the dsRNA-bound model of RIG-I CTD, the aromatic moiety of Phe-853 is stacked into the groove of the dsRNA via the hydrophobic interaction with a ribose moiety of the dsRNA. This interaction would anchor the position of both dsRNA and the RNA binding loop and allow the side chain of the conserved Lys-851 to form a stable electrostatic interaction with dsRNA. Whereas, in MDA5, the aromatic residue in this position is replaced by Cys, which would impair the hydrophobic interaction. Moreover, the flat surface formed by the RNA binding loop is not favorable for the binding between MDA5 and dsRNAs. On the other hand, the Phe-601 of LGP2 is located in a similar position and may similarly interact with the sugar moiety as is suggested in RIG-I (Fig. 4C). Taken together, both RIG-I CTD and LGP2 CTD bind to dsRNA and 5'ppp-ssRNA with high affinity. It is to be noted that slower migrating complexes are observed at higher protein concentrations, particularly with LGP2 (Fig. 1C). These complexes are likely multiple LGP2 molecules bound to

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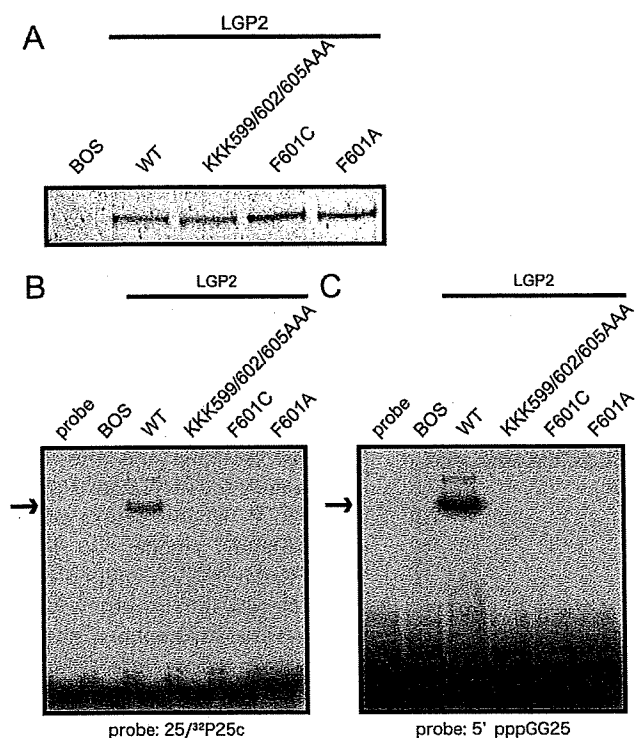


FIGURE 7. Effect of the mutations of LGP2 on RNA recognition. Full-length wild-type LGP2 and mutants on the RNA binding loop were produced in 293T cells and purified by anti FLAG antibody. *A*, silver staining of the purified recombinant LGP2. The recombinant LGP2 were subjected to EMSA using (*B*) 32 P-labeled dsRNA (25/25c) or (*C*) 5' ppp-ssRNA (C; 5' pppGG25) as probe. The arrows indicate the RNA-LGP2 complex.

binding affinity compared with LGP2 and RIG-I (22), suggesting that MDA5 may utilize some other RNA recognition protein. Related to this, LGP2^{-/-} mice exhibit hypersensitivity to encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV) infection (7), detection of which is mediated by MDA5 (5). Further, our preliminary result suggests that LGP2 and MDA5 bind to poly(I:C) in a cooperative manner (not shown).

Both RIG-I and LGP2 recognize dsRNA and 5'ppp-ssRNA, the two distinct non-self RNA patterns. In the case of 5'ppp-ssRNA recognition, 5'-end triphosphate is an apparent determinant of a non-self RNA. Although the model here provides a recognition mechanism of dsRNA by the CTD of RIG-I and LGP2, the recognition of 5'ppp-ssRNA by RIG-I and LGP2 need to be further substantiated. Interestingly, mutagenesis studies indicate that critical residues for dsRNA recognition are also indispensable for 5'ppp-ssRNA recognition (8) (Figs. 5–7), suggesting common structural features of these patterns. In summary, our functional and structural analyses have uncovered the mechanism underlying the different functions of each RLR molecule. During revision of the manuscript a report describing crystal structure of LGP2 CTD and dsRNA was published (24). The report essentially describes recognition of dsRNA ends by LGP2. However, the EMSA result shows that

the end structure of dsRNA does not affect recognition by LGP2 (supplemental Fig. 4). Apparently, further analyses are required to elucidate the mechanism of dsRNA recognition by RLR.

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Arsenic Trioxide Inhibits Hepatitis C Virus RNA Replication through Modulation of the Glutathione Redox System and Oxidative Stress[∇]

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Arsenic trioxide (ATO), a therapeutic reagent used for the treatment of acute promyelocytic leukemia, has recently been reported to increase human immunodeficiency virus type 1 infectivity. However, in this study, we have demonstrated that replication of genome-length hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA (O strain of genotype 1b) was notably inhibited by ATO at submicromolar concentrations without cell toxicity. RNA replication of HCV-JFH1 (genotype 2a) and the release of core protein into the culture supernatants were also inhibited by ATO after the HCV infection. To clarify the mechanism of the anti-HCV activity of ATO, we examined whether or not PML is associated with this anti-HCV activity, since PML is known to be a target of ATO. Interestingly, we observed the cytoplasmic translocation of PML after treatment with ATO. However, ATO still inhibited the HCV RNA replication even in the PML knockdown cells, suggesting that PML is dispensable for the anti-HCV activity of ATO. In contrast, we found that *N*-acetyl-cysteine, an antioxidant and glutathione precursor, completely and partially eliminated the anti-HCV activity of ATO after 24 h and 72 h of treatment, respectively. In this context, it is worth noting that we found an elevation of intracellular superoxide anion radical, but not hydrogen peroxide, and the depletion of intracellular glutathione in the ATO-treated cells. Taken together, these findings suggest that ATO inhibits the HCV RNA replication through modulation of the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the causative agent of chronic hepatitis, which progresses to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. HCV is an enveloped virus with a positive single-stranded 9.6-kb RNA genome, which encodes a large polyprotein precursor of approximately 3,000 amino acid residues. This polyprotein is cleaved by a combination of the host and viral proteases into at least 10 proteins in the following order: core, envelope 1 (E1), E2, p7, nonstructural 2 (NS2), NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B (30).

Alpha interferon has been used as an effective anti-HCV reagent in clinical therapy for patients with chronic hepatitis C. The current combination treatment with pegylated alpha interferon and ribavirin, a nucleoside analogue, has been shown to improve the sustained virological response rate to more than 50% (15). However, the adverse effects of the combination therapy and the limited efficacy against genotype 1b warrant the development of new anti-HCV reagents.

Arsenic trioxide (ATO) (As₂O₃, arsenite) has been used as a therapeutic reagent in acute promyelocytic leukemia, which bears an oncogenic PML-retinoic acid receptor alpha fusion protein resulting from chromosomal translocation (51, 52, 68, 70). The ATO treatment induces complete remission through degradation of the aberrant PML-retinoic acid receptor α (70). The PML tumor suppressor protein is required for formation

of the PML nuclear body (PML-NB), also known as nuclear dot 10 or the PML oncogenic domain, which is often disrupted by infection with DNA viruses, such as herpes simplex virus type 1, human cytomegalovirus, and Epstein-Barr virus (17). The treatment with ATO results in degradation of the PML protein and disruption of the PML-NB (70). Therefore, ATO has become a useful probe for investigating the functions of the PML-NB, including cell growth, apoptosis, stress response, and viral infection. Indeed, ATO has been shown to increase retroviral infectivity, such as human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) and murine leukemia virus infectivity, but the mechanisms of this change are not well understood (5, 6, 32, 44, 47, 50, 57). In contrast, ATO was recently reported to inhibit the replication of HCV subgenomic replicon RNA (24). However, it also remains unclear how ATO inhibits the HCV RNA replication. In this study, using genome-length HCV RNA replication systems, we investigated the molecular mechanism(s) of the anti-HCV activity of ATO, and we provide evidence that ATO inhibits HCV RNA replication through modulation of the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents. ATO, *N*-acetyl-cysteine (NAC), ascorbic acid (vitamin C), and *L*-buthionine sulfoximine (BSO) were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Arsenic pentoxide (APO) (As₂O₅, arsenate) was purchased from Wako (Osaka, Japan). Both ATO and APO were dissolved in 1 N NaOH at 0.1 M as a stock solution. An inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) inhibitor, 1400W, was purchased from Calbiochem (Merck Biosciences, Darmstadt, Germany).

Cell culture. 293FT cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. The following four HuH-7-derived cell lines or their parental HuH-7 cells

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were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium with 10% fetal bovine serum as described previously (25): O cells, harboring a replicative genome-length HCV-O RNA (O strain of genotype 1b) (25); OR6 cells, harboring the genome-length HCV-O RNA with luciferase as a reporter (25); sO cells, harboring the subgenomic replicon RNA of HCV-O (31); and RSc cured cells, which cell culture-generated HCV-JFH1 (JFH1 strain of genotype 2a) (58) could infect and effectively replicate in (2, 3). The O, OR6, and sO cells were maintained in the presence of G418 (300 µg/ml Geneticin; Invitrogen).

RNA interference. Oligonucleotides with the following sense and antisense sequences were used for the cloning of short hairpin RNA (shRNA)-encoding sequences targeted to PML (56) in a lentiviral vector: 5'-GATCCCCAGATGC AGCTGTATCCAAGTCAAGAGACTTGGATACAGCTGCATCTTTTTTG GAAA-3' (sense) and 5'-AGCTTTTCCAAAAAGATGCAGCTGTATCCAA GTCTCTTGAACCTGGATACAGCTGCATCTGGG-3' (antisense). These oligonucleotides were annealed and subcloned into the BglII-HindIII site, downstream from an RNA polymerase III promoter of pSUPER (8), to generate pSUPER-PMLi. To construct pLV-PMLi, the BamHI-SalI fragments of pSUPER-PMLi were subcloned into the BamHI-SalI site of pRDI292, an HIV-1-derived self-inactivating lentiviral vector containing a puromycin resistance marker allowing for the selection of transduced cells (7). pLV-Chk2i was described previously (3).

Lentiviral vector production. The vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) G-pseudotyped HIV-1-based vector system has been described previously (42). The lentiviral vector particles were produced by transient transfection of the second-generation packaging construct pCMV-ΔR8.91 (1, 71) and the VSV G envelope-expressing plasmid pMDG2 as well as pRDI292 into 293FT cells with FuGene6 (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany).

HCV infection experiments. The supernatants was collected from cell culture-generated HCV-JFH1 (58)-infected RSc cells (2, 3) at 5 days postinfection and stored at -80°C after filtering through a 0.45-µm filter (Kurabo, Osaka, Japan) until use. For infection experiments with HCV-JFH1 virus, RSc cells (1×10^5 cells/well) were plated onto six-well plates and cultured for 24 h. We then infected the cells with 50 µl (equivalent to a multiplicity of infection of 0.05 to 0.1) of inoculum. The culture supernatants were collected at 97 h postinfection, and the levels of the core protein were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Mitsubishi Kagaku Bio-Clinical Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan). Total RNA was isolated from the infected cellular lysates using an RNeasy minikit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for quantitative reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR) analysis of intracellular HCV RNA. The level of intracellular HCV RNA in the RSc cells was $>10^8$ copies/µg total RNA at 4 days postinfection.

Quantitative RT-PCR Analysis. The quantitative RT-PCR analysis for HCV RNA was performed by real-time LightCycler PCR (Roche) as described previously (25). We used the following forward and reverse primer sets for the real-time LightCycler PCR: PML, 5'-GAGGAGTTCAGTTTCTGCG-3' (forward), 5'-GCGCCTGGCAGATGGGAC-3' (reverse); β-actin, 5'-TGACGG GGTACCCACACTG-3' (forward), 5'-AAGCTGTAGCCGCGCTCGGT-3' (reverse); HCV-O, 5'-AGAGCCATAGTGGTCTGCGG-3' (forward), 5'-CTT TCGCGACCAACTAC-3' (reverse); and HCV-JFH1, 5'-5'-AGAGCCAT AGTGGTCTGCGG-3' (forward), 5'-CTTTGCAACCAACGCTAC-3' (reverse).

Western blot analysis. Cells were lysed in buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 4 mM EDTA, 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 1 mM dithiothreitol, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Supernatants from these lysates were subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, followed by immunoblot analysis using anti-PML (A301-168A-1; Bethyl Laboratories, Montgomery, TX), anti-Chk2 (DCS-273; Medical & Biological Laboratories, MBL, Nagoya, Japan), anti-HCV core (CP-9 and CP-11; Institute of Immunology, Tokyo, Japan), anti-HCV NS5A (no. 8926; a generous gift from A Takamizawa, The Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases of Osaka University, Japan), anti-signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (anti-STAT3) (BD Bioscience, San Jose, CA), anti-phospho-STAT3 (Tyr705) (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA) anti-poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase 1 (anti-PARP-1) (C-2-10; Calbiochem), or anti-β-actin antibody (Sigma).

MTT assay. HuH-7 or O cells (5×10^3 cells/well) were plated onto 96-well plates and cultured for 24 h. The cells were treated with ATO, APO, or NaOH for 24, 48, or 72 h and then subjected to the colorimetric 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (cell proliferation kit I; Roche). The absorbance was read using a microplate reader (model 2550; Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) at 550 nm with a reference wavelength of 690 nm.

RL assay. OR6 cells (1.5×10^4 cells/well) were plated onto 24-well plates and cultured for 24 h. The cells were treated with each reagent for 72 h and then

subjected to the *Renilla* luciferase (RL) assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (Promega, Madison, WI). A Lumat LB9507 luminometer (Berthold, Bad Wildbad, Germany) was used to detect RL activity.

FL assay. Plasmids were transfected into O cells (2×10^4 cells/well in 24-well plates) using FuGene6 and cultured for 24 h. The cells were treated with or without 1 µM ATO for 24 h, and then firefly luciferase (FL) assays were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Promega).

Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopic analysis. Cells were fixed in 3.6% formaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), permeabilized in 0.1% NP-40 in PBS at room temperature, and incubated with anti-PML antibody (PM001; MBL) at a 1:300 dilution in PBS containing 3% bovine serum albumin at 37°C for 30 min. They were then stained with fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-rabbit antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA) at a 1:300 dilution in PBS containing bovine serum albumin at 37°C for 30 min, followed by staining with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) at room temperature for 15 min. Following extensive washing in PBS, the cells were mounted on slides using a mounting medium of 90% glycerin-10% PBS with 0.01% *p*-phenylenediamine added to reduce fading. Samples were viewed under a confocal laser-scanning microscope (LSM510; Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

Measurement of intracellular O_2^- and H_2O_2 production. The intracellular superoxide anion radical (O_2^-) levels were measured with an oxidation-sensitive fluorescent probe, dihydroethidium (DHE) (Invitrogen Molecular Probes), that is highly selective for detection of O_2^- among reactive oxygen species (ROS). DHE is cell permeable and reacts with O_2^- to form ethidium, which in turn intercalates in DNA, thereby exhibiting a red fluorescence. The intracellular hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) levels were measured with another oxidation-sensitive fluorescent probe dye, 6-carboxy-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (carboxy- H_2 DCFDA) (Invitrogen Molecular Probes). Carboxy- H_2 DCFDA was intracellularly deacetylated with esterase and further oxidized with peroxidase to the fluorescent 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein (DCF). The ATO- or BSO-treated O cells were washed with PBS and incubated with 5 µM DHE and 20 µM carboxy- H_2 DCFDA in PBS at 37°C for 30 min. Cells were then washed twice with PBS. The DHE or DCF fluorescence intensity was measured using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer. For each sample, 10,000 events were collected. The O_2^- or H_2O_2 levels are indicated as mean fluorescence intensities, which were determined with the CellQuest software (BD Bioscience).

Detection of intracellular glutathione. Intracellular glutathione levels were analyzed using CellTracker Green (5-chloromethylfluorescein diacetate [CMFDA]; Molecular Probes, Invitrogen). CMFDA is a membrane-permeable dye used to determine intracellular glutathione levels. Cytoplasmic esterase converts the nonfluorescent CMFDA to the fluorescent 5-chloromethylfluorescein (CMF), which can then react with glutathione. The excitation peak is at 492 nm, and the fluorescence emission peak is at 517 nm. O cells treated with 1 µM ATO for 72 h were washed with PBS and incubated with 5 µM CMFDA at 37°C for 30 min. The CMF fluorescence intensity was measured using a FACSCalibur flow cytometer. For each sample, 10,000 events were collected. The glutathione levels are given as the relative mean fluorescence intensities, which were determined with CellQuest software.

RESULTS

ATO inhibits HCV RNA replication. First, we quantitatively examined the effect of ATO on the HCV RNA replication in HuH-7-derived O cells harboring a replicative genome-length HCV-O RNA (25). We found that submicromolar concentrations of ATO markedly inhibited genome-length HCV-O RNA replication in the O cells at 72 h after administration (Fig. 1A). The 50% effective concentration (EC_{50}) of ATO required for inhibition of genome-length HCV-O RNA replication was 0.19 µM (Fig. 1A). Consistent with this finding, the expression levels of the HCV core and NS5A proteins were also significantly decreased in the cell lysates of O cells treated with ATO for 72 h (Fig. 1B). In addition, ATO markedly inhibited the replication of the subgenomic replicon RNA (31), with an EC_{50} of 0.48 µM at 72 h after the treatment (Fig. 1C). We next examined the effect of ATO on HCV reproduction by HCV-JFH1 infection (58). The results revealed that ATO significantly inhibited the intracellular RNA replication of HCV-

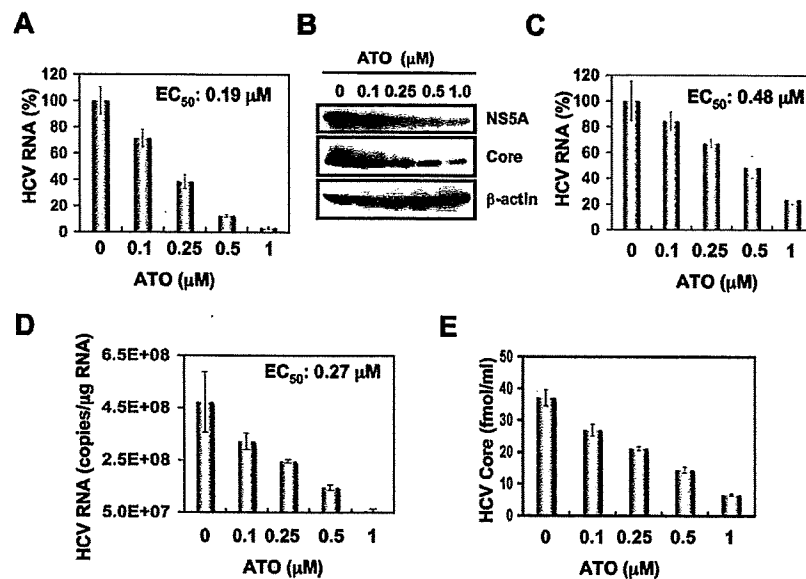


FIG. 1. Inhibition of HCV RNA replication by ATO. (A) The level of genome-length HCV RNA in O cells after the treatment with ATO was monitored by real-time LightCycler PCR. Experiments were done in triplicate and, bars represent the mean percentage of HCV RNA. Error bars indicate standard deviations. (B) HCV core and NS5A protein expression levels in O cells after treatment with ATO. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-HCV core, anti-HCV NS5A, or anti- β -actin antibody in O cells at 72 h after treatment with ATO at the indicated concentration are shown. (C) The level of subgenomic replicon RNA was monitored by real-time LightCycler PCR. Results from three independent experiments conducted as described for panel A are shown. (D) The level of intracellular genome-length HCV-JFH1 RNA was monitored by real-time LightCycler PCR. RSc cells were pretreated with the indicated concentration of ATO for 13 h, followed by inoculation of the HCV-JFH1 virus, and then the infected cells were further incubated with ATO for 97 h. Results from three independent experiments conducted as described for panel A are shown. (E) The levels of the core protein in the culture supernatants treated as described for panel D were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Experiments were done in triplicate, and bars represent the mean core protein levels.

JFH1, with an EC_{50} of 0.27 μ M, as well as the release of core protein into the culture supernatants in HuH-7-derived RSc cells at 97 h after inoculation of the HCV-JFH1 virus (Fig. 1D and E). Thus, we have demonstrated for the first time that ATO can inhibit the reproduction of HCV and particularly HCV RNA replication.

Effect of APO on HCV replication. Arsenic is known to exist in two oxidation states, As(III) in ATO and As(V) in APO. As ATO in the lower valence state has been reported to be more toxic than APO (48), we compared their anti-HCV activities using an OR6 assay system, which was recently developed as a luciferase reporter assay system for monitoring genome-length HCV RNA replication in HuH-7-derived OR6 cells (Fig. 2A) (25). The results showed that APO could not strongly suppress HCV replication at submicromolar concentrations, while ATO strongly inhibited it, with an EC_{50} of 0.33 μ M (Fig. 2B and C), indicating that ATO has unique anti-HCV activity. In this context, it is relevant that the expression level of HCV core protein was also remarkably decreased in the cell lysates of O cells treated with ATO, but not those treated with APO, for 72 h (Fig. 2D). Thus, APO seems to be a useful negative probe to clarify the mechanism of the anti-HCV activity of ATO.

ATO does not affect cell growth at submicromolar concentrations. ATO has been reported to induce apoptosis (11, 14, 20, 21, 26–28, 33, 48, 66). Therefore, such an ATO-induced apoptosis may be involved in the anti-HCV activity. To test this possibility, we examined the effect of ATO or APO at various concentrations on cell proliferation by colorimetric MTT assay. In this context, we demonstrated that ATO did not affect

the cell proliferation of O cells or the parental HCV-negative HuH-7 cells at submicromolar concentrations (Fig. 3A and E). In contrast, 4 or 8 μ M ATO significantly inhibited cell proliferation (Fig. 3B and F). Similarly, APO did not affect the cell proliferation at less than 2 μ M (Fig. 3C and D). Consistent with the above results, ATO-treated O cells exhibited normal growth rates and cell viabilities, at least at 1 μ M for 72 h (Fig. 3G). Furthermore, we did not observe the cleavage of PARP-1, which is known to be an important substrate for activated caspase 3, in O cells treated with 1 μ M ATO at least until 72 h (Fig. 3H), indicating that 1 μ M ATO did not induce apoptosis in O cells. Thus, we concluded that the anti-HCV activity was independent of ATO-induced apoptosis or cell toxicity, at least at submicromolar concentrations.

PML and Chk2 are dispensable for the anti-HCV activity of ATO. Since PML is known to be a target of ATO (70), we first examined the subcellular localization of PML in O cells treated with either 1 μ M ATO or 1 μ M APO for 72 h by means of an anti-PML antibody (PM001; MBL) that can recognize most of the PML splicing variants and is useful for immunofluorescence analysis. The results showed that PML was localized predominantly in punctate nuclear speckles termed PML-NBs in control O cells (Fig. 4A). Interestingly, we noticed that some nuclear PML, but not all, disappeared and was translocated into discrete cytoplasmic bodies in the O cells treated with 1 μ M ATO (Fig. 4A). We also observed cytoplasmic translocation of PML in the O cells treated with 1 μ M APO for 72 h (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, we observed a similar cytoplasmic translocation of PML in the HCV-negative 293FT or HeLa

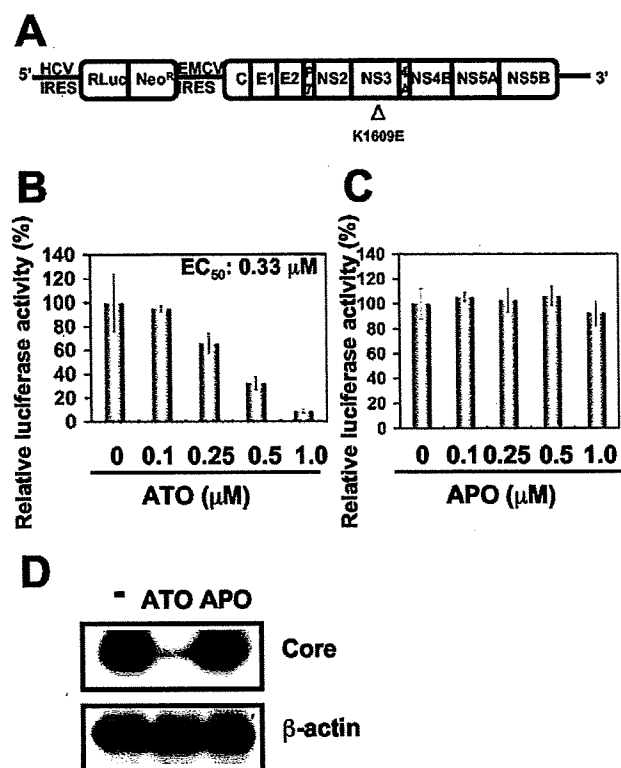


FIG. 2. Effect of APO on HCV replication. (A) Schematic representation of genome-length HCV RNA encoding the RL gene as a reporter (ORN/C-5B/KE RNA) replicated in OR6 cells. The RL is expressed as a fusion protein with neomycin phosphotransferase (Neo^R). The position of an adaptive mutation, K1609E in NS3, is indicated by an open triangle. (B) Effect of ATO on genome-length HCV RNA replication. At 72 h after treatment of OR6 cells with ATO at the indicated concentrations, the replication level of HCV RNA was monitored by the RL assay. The relative RL activity is shown. The results shown are means from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate standard deviations. (C) Effect of APO on genome-length HCV RNA replication. At 72 h after treatment of OR6 cells with APO at the indicated concentrations, the replication level of HCV RNA was monitored by the RL assay as described for panel B. (D) HCV core protein expression level in O cells after treatment with either ATO or APO. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-HCV core or anti-β-actin antibody in O cells at 72 h after treatment with either 1 μM ATO or 1 μM APO are shown.

cells after the treatment with ATO (data not shown). Thus, we concluded that the cytoplasmic translocation of PML after the treatment with ATO was not associated with anti-HCV activity. Next, Western blot analysis to compare PML expression in the lysates of O cells treated with 1 μM ATO or 1 μM APO for 72 h was performed using another anti-PML antibody, A301-168A-1 (a gift from Bethyl Laboratories), which can recognize the longest isoform, PML I, but not shorter PML isoforms such as PML VI and which has been proven useful for Western blot analysis. Consistent with the previous finding that ATO promotes PML degradation (70), the expression level of the PML I protein was lower in the ATO-treated O cells than in the APO-treated O cells (Fig. 4B), suggesting that PML degradation by ATO is associated with anti-HCV activity. To further examine whether PML is directly involved in the anti-HCV

activity of ATO, we used lentiviral vector-mediated RNA interference to stably knock down PML in the O cells. To express an shRNA targeted to all PML isoforms (56), we used the VSV G-pseudotyped HIV-1-based vector system (1, 42, 71). We used the puromycin-resistant pooled cells at 10 days after the lentiviral transduction in this experiment. Immunofluorescence and Western blot analysis demonstrated a very effective knock-down of PML in the O cells (Fig. 4C and D). We quantitatively examined the level of HCV RNA in the PML knockdown O cells treated with or without either 1 μM ATO (Fig. 4E) or 1 μM APO (Fig. 4F) for 72 h. The results showed that the replication level of genome-length HCV-O RNA in the untreated PML knockdown cells was similar to that in control cells (Fig. 4E), suggesting that PML is dispensable in HCV RNA replication. Importantly, ATO effectively inhibited the HCV RNA replication in both the PML knockdown cells and control cells compared with that of the APO-treated cells (Fig. 4E and F). Thus, we concluded that PML was dispensable for the anti-HCV activity of ATO. Since the Chk2 checkpoint kinase has recently been implicated in ATO-induced apoptosis and in association with PML (27, 63, 64, 66), we examined the anti-HCV activity in the ATO-treated Chk2 knockdown O cells (3). As we previously described, Western blot analysis demonstrated very effective knockdown of Chk2 in O cells (Fig. 4G). Accordingly, we examined the level of HCV RNA in Chk2 knockdown cells treated with or without either 1 μM ATO (Fig. 4H) or 1 μM APO (Fig. 4I) for 72 h. Consistent with our recent finding that Chk2 is required for HCV RNA replication, the replication of genome-length HCV RNA in the untreated Chk2 knockdown cells was remarkably suppressed (Fig. 4H). However, ATO strongly inhibited the HCV RNA replication in the Chk2 knockdown cells compared with that in the APO-treated Chk2 knockdown cells (Fig. 4H and I), suggesting that Chk2 is not implicated in the anti-HCV activity of ATO.

Effect of ATO on the stress-signaling pathways. To date, the focus has been on PML and PML-retinoic acid receptor α as major targets of ATO (70). On the other hand, arsenic has been reported to modulate other cell-signaling pathways, especially stress-responsive transcription factors, such as nuclear factor κB (NF-κB), activator protein 1 (AP-1), and STAT3 (12, 37, 38, 62). Therefore, we examined the involvement of several stress-responsive pathways in the anti-HCV activity of ATO by luciferase-based reporter assays or Western blot analysis using an antibody which specifically recognizes STAT3 phosphorylated at tyrosine 705. Although it has been reported that ATO inhibited the NF-κB signaling pathway through a direct interaction with IKKβ at a high concentration (more than 10 μM) (29), neither 1 μM ATO nor 1 μM APO affected the endogenous NF-κB transcriptional activity in the present study (Fig. 5A and B). Conversely, ATO at least slightly stimulated mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase (MEKK)-mediated NF-κB activation (Fig. 5A and B). Since NF-κB activation has been shown to stimulate HCV replication (60), the NF-κB pathway would seem not to be essential for the anti-HCV activity of ATO. Next, regarding the AP-1 signaling pathway, both ATO and APO are known to activate c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) (45). Importantly, there was no stimulation of JNK activity at a dose below 30 μM (45). In fact, 50 μM ATO but not 50 μM APO strongly stimulates AP-1 activity by in-

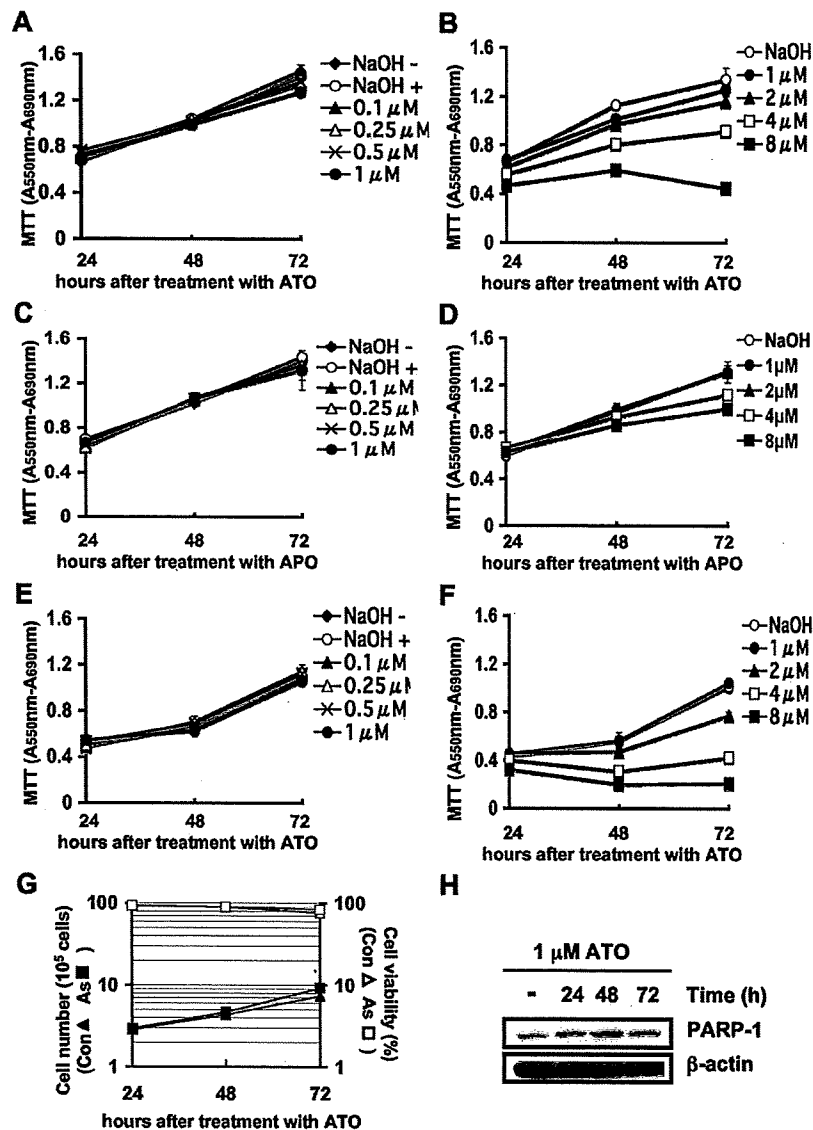


FIG. 3. Effect of ATO on cell growth and viability. (A and B) MTT assay of O cell lysates at the indicated times after treatment with ATO at various concentrations. NaOH (10 μ M) was used as the solvent for ATO. The results shown are means from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate standard deviations. (C and D) MTT assay of O cell lysates at the indicated times after treatment with APO at various concentrations. (E and F) MTT assay of HuH-7 cell lysates at the indicated times after treatment with ATO at various concentrations. (G) Growth curve and viability of O cells after treatment with either 10 μ M NaOH (Con) or 1 μ M ATO (As). (H) Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-PARP-1 or anti- β -actin antibody in O cells at the indicated times after treatment with 1 μ M ATO.

hibiting a JNK phosphatase (10). Consistently, we found that both 1 μ M ATO and 1 μ M APO had a marginal effect on the AP-1 signaling pathway (Fig. 5C and D), suggesting that the AP-1 pathway is also not involved in the anti-HCV activity of ATO. Regarding the STAT3 signaling pathway, ATO has been reported to inhibit the phosphorylation of the STAT3 tyrosine at 705, leading to inactivation of the JAK-STAT signaling pathway (12, 62). In contrast, it has been reported that HCV constitutively phosphorylates and activates STAT3 (49, 59, 67). In this context, we observed constitutive tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT3 in untreated O cells (Fig. 5E). Furthermore, the marginal effect of 1 μ M ATO on STAT3 phosphorylation

and interleukin-6-mediated STAT3 activation was also observed (Fig. 5E and F). Taken together, these results at least suggest that the NF- κ B, AP-1, and STAT3 pathways may not be associated with the anti-HCV activity of ATO at submicromolar concentrations.

The anti-HCV activity of ATO is associated with the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress. Finally, we focused on the involvement of the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress in the anti-HCV activity of ATO. For this, we analyzed the HCV replication level after combination treatment with ATO and antioxidants such as NAC and vitamin C using the OR6 assay system. When OR6 cells were treated with

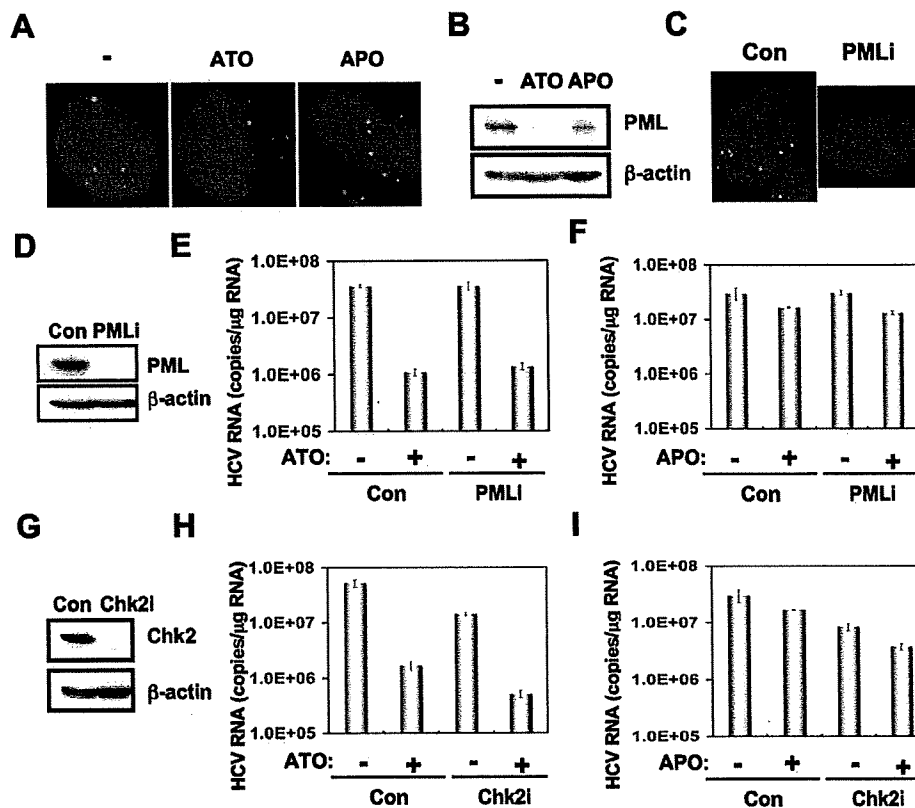


FIG. 4. PML and Chk2 are not required for the anti-HCV activity of ATO. (A) Subcellular localization of PML in O cells at 72 h after treatment with 10 μM NaOH (-), 1 μM ATO, or 1 μM APO. PML was detected by indirect immunofluorescence analysis with anti-PML antibody (PM001). DAPI staining of the nuclear DNA is also shown. (B) Induction of PML degradation by ATO but not by APO. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates of O cells at 72 h after treatment with 10 μM NaOH (-), 1 μM ATO, or 1 μM APO with anti-PML (A301-168A-1) or anti-β-actin antibody are shown. (C) Stable knockdown of PML by shRNA-producing lentiviral vector in O cells. PML was detected by indirect immunofluorescence analysis with anti-PML antibody (PM001) in O cells expressing shRNA targeted to PML (PMLi) as well as in O cells transduced with a control lentiviral vector (Con). (D) Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-PML (A301-168A-1) or anti-β-actin antibody in PML knockdown O cells (PMLi) as well as in control O cells (Con). (E and F) The level of genome-length HCV-O RNA was monitored by real-time LightCycler PCR in PML knockdown O cells (PMLi) as well as in control O cells (Con) after treatment with 10 μM NaOH (-), 1 μM ATO (+) (E), or 1 μM APO (+) (F) for 72 h. Results from three independent experiments conducted as described in the legend to Fig. 1A are shown. (G) Inhibition of Chk2 expression by shRNA-producing lentiviral vector. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-Chk2 or anti-β-actin antibody in O cells expressing shRNA targeted to Chk2 (Chk2i) as well as in O cells transduced with a control lentiviral vector (Con) are shown. (H and I) The level of genome-length HCV-O RNA was monitored by real-time LightCycler PCR in Chk2 knockdown O cells (Chk2i) as well as in control O cells (Con) after treatment with 10 μM NaOH (-), 1 μM ATO (+) (H), or 1 μM APO (+) (I) for 72 h. Results from three independent experiments conducted as described in the legend to Fig. 1A are shown.

either 100 μM vitamin C or 10 mM NAC alone for 24 h or 72 h, the HCV replication was slightly enhanced (Fig. 6A and B), indicating that the antioxidant can activate HCV replication. Although the anti-HCV activity in the OR6 cells treated with 1 μM ATO and in combination with 100 μM vitamin C for 24 h was weakly reduced, 10 mM NAC completely and partially eliminated the anti-HCV activity of ATO after 24 h (Fig. 6A) and 72 h (Fig. 6B) of treatment, respectively, suggesting that oxidative stress and the glutathione redox system are associated with the anti-HCV activity of ATO. In contrast, the iNOS inhibitor 1400W did not suppress the HCV RNA replication or eliminate the anti-HCV activity of ATO, suggesting that NO is not involved in the anti-HCV activity of ATO (Fig. 6C). To further examine the involvement of oxidative stress in the anti-HCV activity of ATO, we examined ROS production in ATO-treated cells using two oxidative-sensitive fluorescent

probes, DHE for detection of intracellular O_2^- and DCF for detection of intracellular H_2O_2 . We found that 1 μM ATO could generate a significant level of intracellular O_2^- but not intracellular H_2O_2 , while 2 μM BSO, an inhibitor of glutathione synthesis (14, 20, 33), could induce both O_2^- and H_2O_2 (Fig. 6D to H). Importantly, NAC diminished the ATO-dependent O_2^- induction (Fig. 6F). Since glutathione is a major antioxidant in cells and can clear away superoxide anion free radical, we also analyzed the changes of the intracellular glutathione level in ATO-treated O cells using CMF fluorescence, which can react with glutathione. As a result, we observed significant glutathione depletion in the cells treated with at least 1 μM ATO (Fig. 6I). To further confirm the involvement of glutathione in the anti-HCV activity of ATO, we examined the effect of cotreatment with ATO and BSO. When the OR6 cells were treated with 1 μM BSO alone, the HCV replication

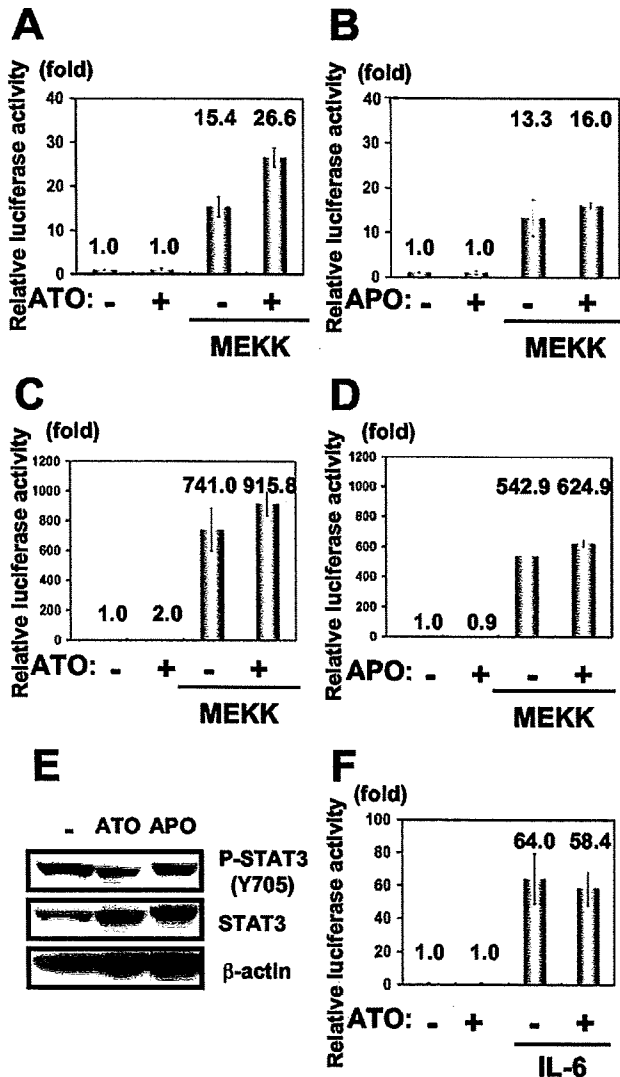


FIG. 5. Effect of ATO on the stress-signaling pathways. (A and B) Effect of ATO or APO on the NF- κ B signaling pathway. O cells were transfected with 100 ng of reporter plasmid, pNF- κ B-Luc, and/or 100 ng of pFC-MEKK (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). Cells were treated with either 1 μ M ATO (A) or 1 μ M APO (B), and an FL assay was performed 24 h later. The results shown are means from three independent experiments. The relative FL activity is shown. (C and D) Effect of ATO or APO on the AP-1 signaling pathway. O cells were transfected with 100 ng of pAP-1-Luc and/or 100 ng of pFC-MEKK (Stratagene). Cells were treated with either 1 μ M ATO (C) or 1 μ M APO (D), and an FL assay was performed 24 h later as described for panels A and B. (E) Effect of ATO on the phosphorylation level of STAT3 at tyrosine 705. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-phospho-STAT3 (Tyr705), anti-STAT3, or anti- β -actin antibody in O cells treated with either 1 μ M ATO or 1 μ M APO for 24 h are shown. (F) Effect of ATO on the STAT3 signaling pathway. O cells were transfected with 100 ng of STAT3 reporter APRE-Luc (41) (STAT3-Luc, a generous gift from T. Hirano, Osaka University, Japan). Cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO for 19 h and then stimulated with 100 ng/ml of interleukin-6 for 5 h, and an FL assay was performed as described for panels A and B.

level was suppressed by about 30% compared with that of the control cells, and this occurred without cell toxicity (data not shown). However, consistent with previous reports in which ATO-induced apoptosis was enhanced by BSO (14, 20, 33), most of the cells died, possibly through apoptosis, when the OR6 cells were cotreated with 1 μ M ATO and 1 μ M BSO for 72 h (data not shown), suggesting that ATO and BSO synergistically generate ROS and deplete glutathione, resulting in induction of oxidative damage. Taken together, these results suggest that ATO may inhibit the HCV RNA replication by modulating the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress.

DISCUSSION

ATO has been reported to affect multiple biological functions, such as PML-NB formation, apoptosis, differentiation, stress response, and viral infection (38). Indeed, ATO has been shown to increase retroviral infectivity, including infectivity of HIV-1, HIV-2, feline immunodeficiency virus, simian immunodeficiency virus from rhesus macaques, and murine leukemia virus, although the mechanisms responsible for these changes are not well understood (5, 6, 32, 44, 47, 50, 57). PML, which is involved in host antiviral defenses, is required for the formation of the PML-NB, which is often disrupted or sequestered in the cytoplasm by infection with DNA or RNA viruses (17). The fact that ATO promotes the degradation of PML and alters the morphology or distribution of PML-NBs suggests that ATO enhances HIV-1 infection by antagonizing an antiviral activity associated with PML. In fact, HIV-1 infection has been reported to alter PML localization (57), although others have failed to confirm this finding (5). Furthermore, Berthoux et al. demonstrated that ATO stimulated retroviral reverse transcription (5). Moreover, ATO has been shown to have an inhibitory effect on host restriction factors, such as TRIM5a, Ref1, and Lv1, in a cell type-dependent manner (5, 6, 32, 44, 47, 50). In contrast, we have demonstrated that ATO strongly inhibited genome-length HCV RNA replication without cell toxicity (Fig. 1A and 2A). In addition, we observed the cytoplasmic translocation of PML in the HCV RNA-replicating O cells after the treatment with ATO (Fig. 4A). However, PML was dispensable for the anti-HCV activity of ATO as well as HCV RNA replication (Fig. 4E). In this regard, it is worth noting the recent report by Herzer et al. that the HCV core protein interacts with PML isoform IV and abrogates the PML function (22). Thus, PML may be involved in the HCV life cycle. In any case, the sensitivity to ATO and the cellular target of ATO seem to be different between HCV and HIV-1.

HCV infection has been shown to cause a state of chronic oxidative stress like that seen in chronic hepatitis C, which may contribute to fibrosis and carcinogenesis in the liver (16, 18, 40). In particular, HCV replication has been associated with the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), where HCV causes ER stress. Indeed, HCV NS5A and core, the ER-associated proteins, have been reported to trigger ER stress (4, 55). Therefore, HCV infection causes production of ROS and lowering of mitochondrial transmembrane potential through calcium signaling (4, 36). Among the HCV proteins, core, E1, NS3, and NS5A have been shown to be potent ROS inducers, and these HCV proteins also alter intracellular calcium levels and induce oxidative stress, thereby inducing DNA damage, and constitu-

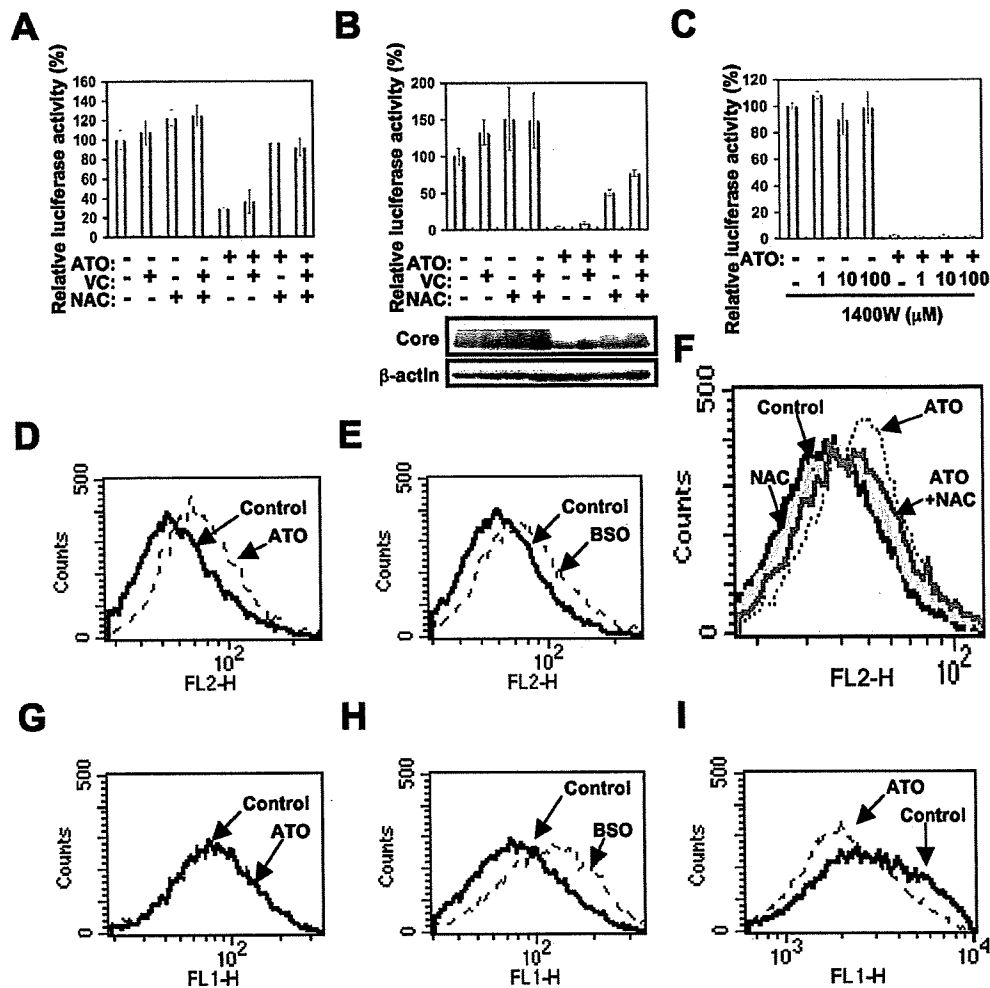


FIG. 6. The anti-HCV activity of ATO is associated with the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress. (A and B) The anti-HCV activity of ATO is eliminated by treatment with the antioxidant NAC. OR6 cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO alone and in combination with 100 μ M vitamin C (VC), with or without 10 mM NAC, for 24 h (A) or 72 h (B). The replication level of HCV RNA was monitored by the RL assay. The relative RL activity is shown. The results shown are means from three independent experiments; error bars indicate standard deviations. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-HCV core or anti- β -actin antibody in OR6 cells at 72 h after the treatment with 1 μ M ATO alone and in combination with 100 μ M VC, with or without 10 mM NAC, are also shown. (C) Effect of combination treatment with ATO and the iNOS inhibitor 1400W on HCV RNA replication. OR6 cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO alone and in combination with 1400W at the indicated concentrations for 72 h. The replication level of HCV RNA was monitored by the RL assay as described for panels A and B. (D and E) Effect of ATO on production of a ROS, O_2^- , in O cells. O cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO (D) or 2 μ M BSO (E) for 24 h. The intracellular O_2^- level was measured by flow cytometry using DHE as described in Materials and Methods. (F) Inhibition of ATO-dependent O_2^- induction by NAC. O cells were treated with either 1 μ M ATO or 10 mM NAC alone and in combination with 10 mM NAC for 24 h. (G and H) Effect of ATO on production of a ROS, H_2O_2 , in O cells. O cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO (G) or 2 μ M BSO (H) for 24 h. The intracellular H_2O_2 level was measured by flow cytometry using DCF as described in Materials and Methods. (I) Effect of ATO on the intracellular glutathione level in O cells. O cells were treated with 1 μ M ATO for 72 h. The intracellular glutathione level was measured by flow cytometry using CellTracker Green CMFDA as described in Materials and Methods.

tively activate STAT3 and NF- κ B, which are associated with HCV pathogenesis (19, 34, 36, 43, 49, 59, 60, 67). In fact, oxidative stress has been shown to trigger STAT3 tyrosine phosphorylation and nuclear translocation, which correlate with the activation of STAT3, leading to its DNA-binding activity (9). In contrast, ATO inhibited the STAT3 tyrosine phosphorylation through direct interaction with JAK kinase, thereby suppressing the transcriptional activity of STAT3 (12, 62). Importantly, STAT3 activation has been reported to be associated with HCV RNA replication (59, 69). The STAT3

Tyr705 dominant negative mutant has been shown to inhibit HCV RNA replication, suggesting that STAT3 positively regulates HCV replication (59). In contrast, others have reported that STAT3 induces anti-HCV activity (69). In this study, we analyzed the potential effect of ATO treatment on a set of stress-signaling events, including the NF- κ B, AP-1, and STAT3 pathways, since ATO is known to modulate various signaling pathways. However, at 1 μ M, which exerted an anti-HCV activity, the respective signaling pathways were not affected, arguing that the anti-HCV activity is independent of these

pathways (Fig. 5). In this regard, these stress-signaling pathways have been reported to be constitutively activated in HCV core- or NS5A-expressing cells (19, 36, 49, 59, 60, 67). In addition, previous studies demonstrated that ATO modulates the NF- κ B, AP-1, and STAT3 pathways at higher concentrations (NF- κ B, $>10 \mu\text{M}$; AP-1, $>30 \mu\text{M}$; STAT3, $>4 \mu\text{M}$). Therefore, we may have only observed the marginal effect of ATO in this study (Fig. 5). On the other hand, the HCV core or NS3 protein as well as HCV infection induces NO, leading to induction of double-stranded DNA breaks and accumulation of mutations of cellular genes (35). However, the iNOS inhibitor 1400W could not suppress HCV RNA replication and the anti-HCV activity of ATO, indicating that NO is not associated with the anti-HCV activity or with HCV replication (Fig. 6C).

It has been indicated that oxidative damage plays an important role in the effect of ATO (38). ROS generated in response to ATO exposure lead to accumulation of intracellular H_2O_2 . Glutathione peroxidase and catalase are key enzymes regulating the levels of ROS and protecting cells from ATO-induced damage (26). However, the gastrointestinal glutathione peroxidase was drastically downregulated in cells harboring HCV replicons, which are rendered more susceptible to oxidative stress (39). The glutathione redox system has been implicated in the cellular defense system (14, 20). Glutathione, a major antioxidant in cells, is a tripeptide synthesized from cysteine, glutamic acid, and glycine, and it can scavenge superoxide anion free radicals. ATO has been shown to bind to the sulfhydryl group of glutathione and deplete the intracellular glutathione, resulting in enhancement of the sensitivity to oxidative damage (20, 33). Conversely, the antioxidant NAC is readily taken up by cells and serves as a precursor to elevate intracellular glutathione (53). In fact, ATO-induced apoptosis has been shown to be inhibited by NAC (11, 14, 21, 28). In this study, we have demonstrated that the anti-HCV activity of ATO was completely eliminated by treatment with NAC for 24 h (Fig. 6A). In addition, we found that ATO increased intracellular O_2^- but not H_2O_2 and depleted the intracellular glutathione in HCV RNA-replicating cells (Fig. 6D to I). Importantly, NAC diminished the ATO-dependent O_2^- induction (Fig. 6F). This finding could strengthen the link between ATO-dependent oxidative stress and anti-HCV activity. Similarly, Wen et al. reported an increase in ROS and enhanced susceptibility to glutathione depletion in the HCV core-expressing HepG2 cells (61). Accordingly, ROS have been shown to significantly suppress RNA replication in HCV replicon-harboring cells treated with H_2O_2 (13). In addition, HCV replication has been shown to be inhibited by lipid peroxidation of arachidonate, and this peroxidation could be blocked by lipid-soluble antioxidants such as vitamin E (23). Conversely, several antioxidants, such as vitamin C, vitamin E, and NAC, enhanced HCV replication in the present study (Fig. 6A and B) (65). Thus, we suggest that ATO inhibited HCV RNA replication by modulating the glutathione redox system and oxidative stress. In contrast to the above findings with HCV, NAC has been shown to suppress HIV-1 replication by preventing the activation of HIV-1 long terminal repeat transcription by NF- κ B, suggesting a correlation between a decrease in glutathione levels and activation of HIV-1 replication (46, 53, 54). In this context, ATO has shown opposite

effects on HIV-1 and HCV replication, stimulating the former and inhibiting the latter. Considering all of these results together, ATO can be regarded as a useful, novel anti-HCV reagent. In addition, the host redox system may be critical for HCV replication and may represent a pivotal target for the clinical treatment of patients with chronic hepatitis C.

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Oxidative Stress Induces Anti-Hepatitis C Virus Status via the Activation of Extracellular Signal-Regulated Kinase

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Recently, we reported that β -carotene, vitamin D₂, and linoleic acid inhibited hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA replication in hepatoma cells. Interestingly, in the course of the study, we found that the antioxidant vitamin E negated the anti-HCV activities of these nutrients. These results suggest that the oxidative stress caused by the three nutrients is involved in their anti-HCV activities. However, the molecular mechanism by which oxidative stress induces anti-HCV status remains unknown. Oxidative stress is also known to activate extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK). Therefore, we hypothesized that oxidative stress induces anti-HCV status via the mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK)/ERK kinase (MEK)–ERK1/2 signaling pathway. In this study, we found that the MEK1/2-specific inhibitor U0126 abolished the anti-HCV activities of the three nutrients in a dose-dependent manner. Moreover, U0126 significantly attenuated the anti-HCV activities of polyunsaturated fatty acids, interferon- γ , and cyclosporine A, but not statins. We further demonstrated that, with the exception of the statins, all of these anti-HCV nutrients and reagents actually induced activation of the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway, which was inhibited or reduced by treatment not only with U0126 but also with vitamin E. We also demonstrated that phosphorylation of ERK1/2 by cyclosporine A was attenuated with *N*-acetylcysteine treatment and led to the negation of inhibition of HCV RNA replication. We propose that a cellular process that follows ERK1/2 phosphorylation and is specific to oxidative stimulation might lead to down-regulation of HCV RNA replication. **Conclusion:** Our results demonstrate the involvement of the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway in the anti-HCV status induced by oxidative stress in a broad range of anti-HCV reagents. This intracellular modulation is expected to be a therapeutic target for the suppression of HCV RNA replication. (HEPATOLOGY 2009;50: 678–688.)

Abbreviations: AA, arachidonic acid; BC, β -carotene; CsA, cyclosporine A; CyPA, cyclophilin A; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; EGF, epidermal growth factor; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; FBS, fetal bovine serum; FLV, fluvastatin; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IFN, interferon; LA, linoleic acid; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MEK, MAPK/ERK kinase; NS5A, nonstructural 5A; PTV, pitavastatin; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; RL, renilla luciferase; ROS, reactive oxygen species; VD₂, vitamin D₂; VE, vitamin E.

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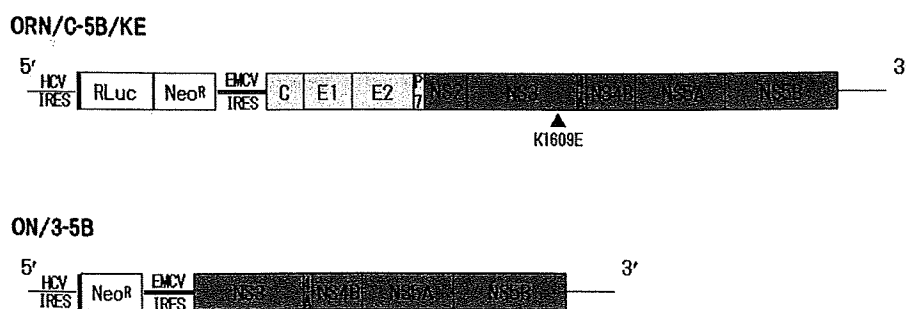
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Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV), which belongs to the family Flaviviridae, is a single-stranded positive-sense RNA virus of approximately 9.6 kb.^{1,2} Persistent infection with HCV causes chronic hepatitis, which often leads to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma.³ Therefore, HCV infection is a major health problem worldwide. Interferon (IFN)-based therapies, including the combination of pegylated IFN with ribavirin, are the current standard strategies for chronic hepatitis, but their sustained virological response rates are unsatisfactory.^{4,5} There is thus an urgent need for novel partners with IFN or more effective reagents that may improve the sustained virological response rate.

Following the development in 1999 of a cell culture system to support efficient HCV RNA replication,⁶ numerous studies have identified reagents that inhibit HCV RNA replication and enhance the effect of IFN treatment.^{7–9} Some of these reagents are already available for clinical use. Previously, we also developed a genome-length HCV RNA (strain O of genotype 1b) replication system (OR6) with Renilla luciferase (RL) as a reporter in hepatoma cell lines.¹⁰ Using this OR6 assay system, we found that mizoribine,¹¹ as an immunosuppressant, and

Fig. 1. Schematic gene organization of the genome-length and sub-genomic HCV RNA used in this study. ORN/C-5B/KE encoding the RL gene was replicated in OR6 cells and ON/3-5B in sO cells. RL in OR6 cells was expressed as a fusion protein with neomycin phosphotransferase (Neo^R). The arrowhead indicates the position of K1609E, an adaptive mutation.



fluvastatin (FLV) and pitavastatin (PTV),^{9,12} as the reagents for hypercholesterolemia, suppressed genome-length HCV RNA replication. Furthermore, in a recent study¹³ in which we comprehensively analyzed the activities of ordinary nutrients on HCV RNA replication, three nutrients, β -carotene (BC), vitamin D₂ (VD2), and linoleic acid (LA), were found to suppress HCV RNA replication and enhance the antiviral activity of IFN- α or cyclosporine A (CsA) in an additive or a synergistic manner. Because the anti-HCV activities of these three nutrients, as well as CsA, were canceled by treatment with antioxidants such as vitamin E (VE) or selenium, we suggested that oxidative stress might be involved in the anti-HCV activities of these three nutrients and CsA. However, the detailed molecular mechanism via which the oxidative effects of these three nutrients and CsA suppress HCV RNA replication has not been explored.

The production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) plays a pivotal role in various cellular processes, including cell proliferation, differentiation, and apoptosis.¹⁴ Whereas high-level production of ROS resulting from external stimuli is recognized as an important component of the pathogenesis of inflammatory and cancerous diseases, endogenously produced ROS at low concentrations are shown to function as signaling mediators of cellular responses.^{15,16} Emerging evidence indicates that these ROS-triggered responses are mediated primarily via cellular signaling cascades, including a signaling pathway of extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)1/2, namely p44/42 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), which belongs to the MAPK family.^{17,18}

Several studies have revealed that certain viral proteins initiate activation of the MAPK/ERK kinase (MEK)-ERK1/2 signaling pathway, which may facilitate the viral replication and infectivity in the infected cells.^{19,20} The HCV core protein²¹ and the envelope protein²² have also been reported to up-regulate this signaling pathway. However, another study reported that the HCV non-structural 5A (NS5A) protein suppressed activating protein-1 activation by inhibiting the phosphorylation of

ERK1/2 in replicon cells.²³ Moreover, recent studies using an inhibitor specific to the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway reported that the direct anti-HCV activities of IFN- γ ²⁴ and acetylsalicylic acid²⁵ are mediated in part through the induction of this cascade.

We demonstrate that the activation of MEK-ERK1/2 signaling plays a significant role in the anti-HCV activity caused by oxidative stress in a broad range of anti-HCV reagents.

Materials and Methods

Reagents and Antibodies. Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), BC, VD2, VE, LA, arachidonic acid (AA), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA), docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), and IFN- γ were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO), and CsA, FLV, U0126, PD98059, SB203580, and c-Jun N-terminal kinase inhibitor II were obtained from Calbiochem (San Diego, CA). Epidermal growth factor (EGF) was purchased from Toyobo (Osaka, Japan). PTV was purchased from Kowa Company, Ltd. (Tokyo, Japan). Anti-HCV core antibody (CP11) was purchased from the Institute of Immunology (Tokyo, Japan), and anti-HCV NS5A antibody was the generous gift of Dr. A. Takamizawa (Research Foundation for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University). Antibodies specific to ERK1/2 (p44/42 MAPK), MEK1/2, and phosphorylated (S217/221) MEK1/2 were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Beverly, MA), and anti-phosphorylated (T202/Y204) ERK1/2 antibody was obtained from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA). Anti- β -actin antibody was purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

Cell Cultures. The cell lines OR6 and sO were cloned from ORN/C-5B/KE RNA and subgenomic replicon RNA (ON/3-5B)-replicating cells, respectively (Fig. 1). These cells were derived from the hepatoma cell line HuH-7, cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), peni-

cillin, streptomycin, and 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ of G418 (Geneticin; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), and passaged twice a week at a 5:1 split ratio. ORN/C-5B/KE and ON/3-5B were derived from HCV-O (strain O of genotype 1b).¹⁰

OR6 Reporter Assay. For the RL assay, $1.0\text{--}1.5 \times 10^4$ OR6 cells were plated onto 24-well plates in triplicate and precultured for 24 hours. The cells were pretreated with DMSO or a specific inhibitor for 1 hour and then were treated with each anti-HCV nutrient or compound in either the absence (DMSO) or presence of a specific inhibitor for 72 hours. After the treatment, the cells were harvested with Renilla lysis reagent (Promega, Madison, WI) and subjected to RL assay according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Western Blot Analysis. For analysis of the effect of a specific inhibitor on the anti-HCV activity, $6.0\text{--}6.5 \times 10^4$ OR6 cells were plated onto 6-well plates and precultured for 24 hours. The pretreatment with DMSO or a specific inhibitor for 1 hour and subsequent treatment for 72 hours was performed in the same manner as for the OR6 reporter assay. For analysis of the activities of each anti-HCV nutrient or reagent on the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway, 1.0×10^5 OR6 or sO cells were plated onto 6-well plates and precultured in 10% FBS-containing medium for 24 hours. After the preculture, the culture medium was changed to FBS-free medium and the cells were cultured for 48 hours prior to treatment with each nutrient or reagent. When the effect of a specific inhibitor or VE on ERK1/2 phosphorylation was analyzed, the cells were pretreated with the specific inhibitor or VE for 1 hour prior to each treatment. Preparation of the cell lysates, sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and immunoblotting were then performed as described.²⁶

Measurement of ROS. OR6 cells in 24-well plates were left untreated or were treated with hydrogen peroxide (1 mM), LA (200 μM), and CsA (15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) for 30 minutes and then incubated with dihydrodichlorocarbonyfluorescein diacetate (Invitrogen) (5 μM) for 15 minutes. Fluorescence was measured with a FLUOROSKAN ASCENT fluorescence plate reader (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) at an excitation wavelength of 485 nm and emission wavelength of 535 nm.

Cell Growth Assay. To examine the activity of EGF on OR6 cell growth, $6.0\text{--}6.5 \times 10^4$ OR6 cells were plated onto 6-well plates in triplicate and were pre-cultured for 24 hours. The cells were treated with or without EGF for 72 hours, and the number of viable cells was counted after trypan blue dye treatment as described.¹¹

Statistical Analysis. Statistical comparison of the luciferase activities between the various treatment groups was performed using the Student *t* test. *P* values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Effects of MEK1/2-Specific Inhibitors on the Anti-HCV Activities of BC, VD2, and LA in OR6 Cells.

Our recent study suggested the involvement of oxidative stress in the suppressive mechanism of three anti-HCV nutrients: BC, VD2, and LA.¹³ Because there have been reports of negative regulation of HCV RNA replication via the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway,^{24,25} which is one of the oxidative stress-induced cellular signaling pathways, we hypothesized that the suppression of HCV RNA replication by these three nutrients might be mediated via this cascade (Supporting Fig. 1). To test this hypothesis, we first used an OR6 assay system to examine the effects of U0126 and PD98059, inhibitors specific to MEK1/2, on the three anti-HCV nutrients at 60% inhibitory concentration. As shown in Fig. 2A, treatment with either 5 μM of U0126 or 10 μM of PD98059 slightly enhanced HCV RNA replication in comparison with the control. However, U0126 attenuated the anti-HCV activities of the three nutrients more clearly than PD98059 (Fig. 2A,B). U0126 prevented the anti-HCV activities of the three nutrients in a significant and dose-dependent manner and exerted complete inhibition against the anti-HCV activities of BC and LA (Fig. 2C,D), while the inhibitory effect of PD98059 was more mild (Fig. 2E,F). As shown in Fig. 2G, we also found that U0126 treatment restored the expressions of HCV proteins, core, and NS5A in a dose-dependent manner. We further demonstrated that knockdown of MEK1 or MEK2 by small interfering RNA negated the anti-HCV activity of LA (Supporting Fig. 2A-C). These inhibitions by U0126 against the anti-HCV activities of the three nutrients were not due to the enhancement of encephalomyocarditis virus/internal ribosomal entry site-driven RL activity, because this activity was not increased by U0126 (data not shown). Moreover, treatment with neither SB203580 (an inhibitor specific to p38 MAPK) nor *c-Jun* N-terminal kinase inhibitor, both of which belong to the same cascade family as MEK-ERK1/2, significantly affected the anti-HCV activities of the three nutrients (data not shown). These results imply that the activation of the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway might be required for the suppression of genome-length HCV RNA replication by the three nutrients in cell culture.

Effect of U0126 on the Suppressive Effects of Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids and Anti-HCV Reagents in OR6 Cells. Previous studies using a cell culture system have shown that polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs), including LA, act as anti-HCV nutrients.^{27,28} A recent study reported that lipid peroxidation of PUFAs was correlated with their anti-HCV activities, which were pre-

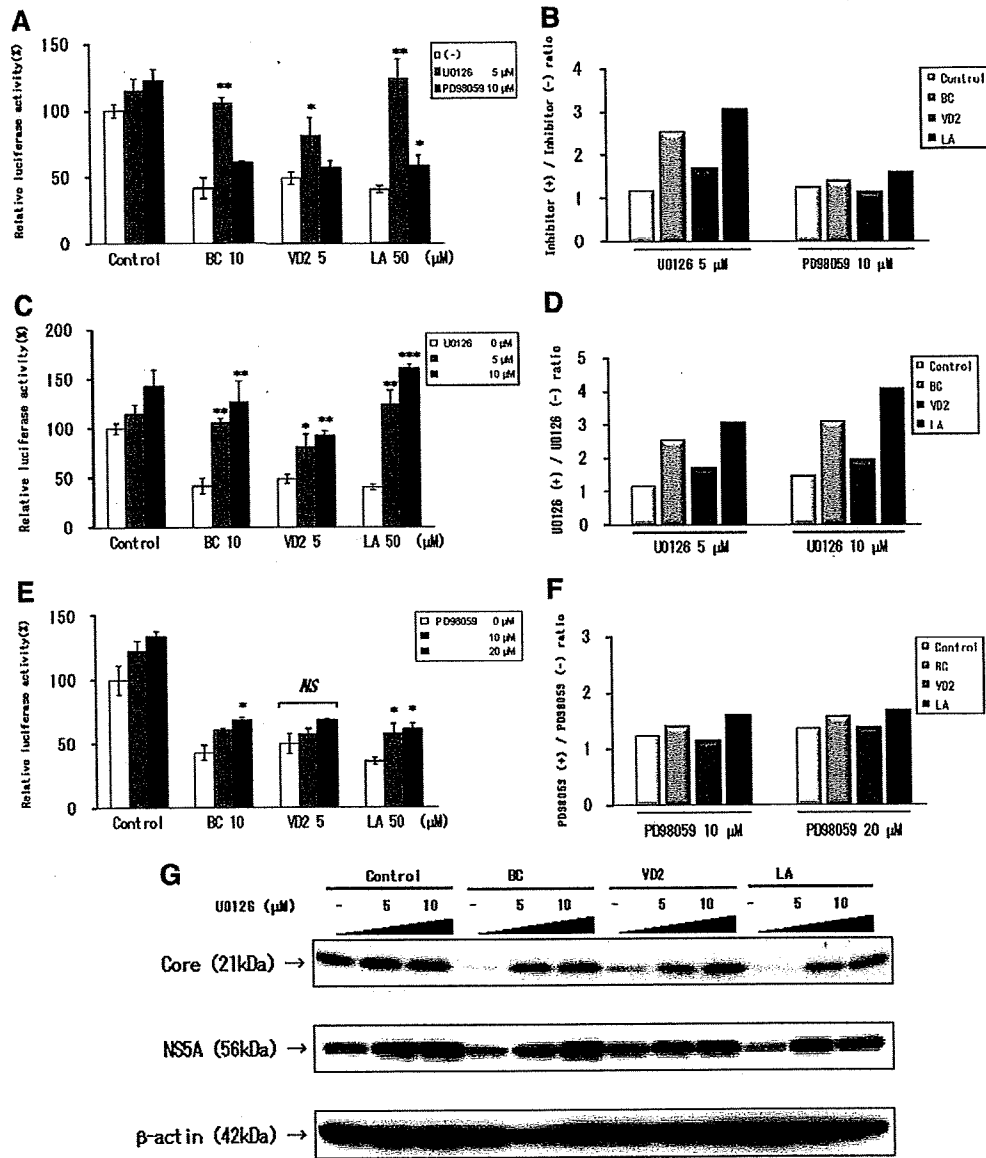


Fig. 2. U0126 strongly inhibited the anti-HCV activities of the anti-HCV nutrients BC, VD2, and LA in OR6 cells. (A,B) Effects of MEK-specific inhibitors on the three nutrients at the 60% inhibitory concentration. OR6 cells were pretreated with DMSO, 5 μ M U0126, or 10 μ M PD98059 for 1 hour. The cells were then treated with control medium, 10 μ M BC, 5 μ M VD2, or 50 μ M LA in either the absence (DMSO) or presence of each specific inhibitor for 72 hours. After treatment, RL assay was performed as described in Materials and Methods. Shown here is the relative luciferase activity (%) calculated when the RL activity of the control was assigned as 100%. Data are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation of triplicate samples from at least three independent experiments. Asterisks indicate significant difference from treatment with DMSO (* P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01) (A). The ratio of the RL activity in the presence of the MEK-specific inhibitor to the RL activity in the absence of the inhibitor was then calculated (B). (C-F) OR6 reporter assays of the dose effects of MEK1/2-specific inhibitors on the three nutrients. OR6 cells were pretreated with DMSO, U0126 (C), or PD98059 (E) at the indicated concentrations for 1 hour. Treatment of the cells with control medium or each of the three nutrients in either the absence (DMSO) or presence of each specific inhibitor and the RL assay of harvested OR6 cell samples were performed as described in panels A and B. Asterisks indicate significant difference from treatment with DMSO (* P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001; NS, not significant). Next, we calculated the ratio of RL activity in the presence of the MEK-specific inhibitor, U0126 (D), or PD98059 (F), to the RL activity in the absence of the inhibitor. (G) Western blot analysis of the dose effects of U0126 on three nutrients. OR6 cells were pretreated and then treated as in panel C. The production of HCV core and NS5A in the cells was analyzed by way of immunoblotting using antibodies specific to HCV core (top row) and NS5A (middle row). β -actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane (bottom row).

vented by treatment with VE.²⁹ This result coincides with our previous observations on the effects of LA.¹³ We proposed that the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway might be involved in the anti-HCV activity of PUFAs, including LA, because lipid peroxidation is known to be a ROS-triggered cellular modification.¹⁶ As expected, treatment with U0126 attenuated the anti-HCV activities of four representative PUFAs in a significant and dose-dependent manner (Fig. 3A,B).

Moreover, because the anti-HCV activities of BC, VD2, LA, and CsA, but not FLV, were found to be negated by VE,¹³ we were also interested in the potent role of the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway in the anti-HCV mechanism of CsA. Furthermore, the previous study using a subgenomic replicon system had already shown the partial involvement of this cascade in the antiviral activity of IFN- γ .²⁴ Therefore, we examined the effects of U0126 on various anti-HCV reagents: IFN- γ , CsA, and statins (FLV and PTV). We confirmed that also in genome-length HCV RNA replication cells, U0126 significantly inhibited the anti-HCV activity of IFN- γ (Fig. 3C,D). Interestingly, consistent with the effects of treatment with VE,¹³ the anti-HCV activity of CsA was completely abrogated by U0126 in a significant and dose-dependent manner, whereas statins were unaffected (Fig. 3C,D).

U0126 restored the reduced expression of HCV proteins by PUFAs, IFN- γ , and CsA in a dose-dependent manner, whereas statins were unaffected (Fig. 3E,F). These results were supported by additional real-time reverse-transcription polymerase chain reaction and immunofluorescence analyses (Supporting Fig. 3A-C). We also observed that knockdown of MEK1 or MEK2 by small interfering RNA did not affect the anti-HCV activity of PTV (Supporting Fig. 2A-C). Collectively, these findings suggest that the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway may play a critical role in the negative regulation of HCV RNA replication by the anti-HCV nutrients BC and VD2, PUFAs, and the anti-HCV reagents IFN- γ and CsA, but not statins.

Activation of the MEK–ERK1/2 Signaling Pathway by Anti-HCV Nutrients and Reagents. To further ensure the involvement of the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway in the suppressive mechanisms of anti-HCV nutrients and reagents, we next examined whether these nutrients and reagents could actually initiate the activation of this signaling pathway. After treating the HCV RNA replicating cells with each of the nutrients and reagents, we performed immunoblotting specific to the phosphorylation of ERK1/2 and MEK1/2. In the same way as EGF, a potent activator of these kinases, the three anti-HCV nutrients (BC, VD2, and LA) enhanced the phosphorylation of ERK1/2 and MEK1/2 in both genome-

length and subgenomic HCV RNA replication cells (Fig. 4A,B). IFN- γ , CsA, and all of the PUFAs also up-regulated this cascade in OR6 cells (Fig. 4C,D). The increase in phosphorylation of ERK1/2 was not observed after either statin treatment (Fig. 4D). The activation of MEK–ERK1/2 by the three anti-HCV nutrients was apparent until 1 hour after their application and subsequently attenuated, although EGF exhibited persistent enhancement of MEK–ERK1/2 phosphorylation (Fig. 4E). Because the experiments regarding ERK1/2 phosphorylation were performed in FBS-free conditions, we checked the anti-HCV activity of PTV, CsA, and LA in FBS-free medium. The results revealed that these anti-HCV reagents and nutrients also inhibited HCV RNA replication in FBS-free conditions (Supporting Fig. 4). Taken together, these findings indicate that the anti-HCV nutrients and reagents activated the MEK–ERK1/2 signaling pathway in HCV RNA replicating cells, providing further confirmation that this signaling cascade might be involved in their anti-HCV activities.

MEK1/2-Specific Inhibitors Attenuated the Increased Phosphorylation of ERK1/2 by Anti-HCV Nutrients/Reagents and EGF. We next tested whether MEK1/2-specific inhibitors could prevent not only the suppression of HCV RNA replication but also the activation of ERK1/2 by the anti-HCV nutrients BC, VD2, and PUFAs and the anti-HCV reagents IFN- γ and CsA. Consistent with the inhibitory effects on their anti-HCV activities, U0126 more markedly abrogated the increase in ERK1/2 phosphorylation by anti-HCV nutrients, reagents, and EGF than did PD98059 (Fig. 5A,B). As shown in Fig. 5C, the enhanced ERK1/2 phosphorylation by the three nutrients and EGF was reduced by U0126 in a dose-dependent manner.

VE Attenuated the Increased Phosphorylation of ERK1/2 by Anti-HCV Nutrients/Reagents and EGF. Because the suppression of HCV RNA replication by BC, VD2, LA, and CsA were completely negated by the treatment with VE in our recent study,¹³ we investigated whether VE could also inhibit ERK1/2 activation by anti-HCV nutrients and reagents. As expected, VE also attenuated the enhanced phosphorylation of ERK1/2 by not only anti-HCV nutrients and CsA but also IFN- γ and EGF (Fig. 6A,B). We also demonstrated that phosphorylation of ERK1/2 by CsA was attenuated with *N*-acetylcysteine treatment and led to the negation of inhibition of HCV RNA replication (Supporting Fig. 5A-C). The anti-HCV nutrients and reagents, whose activities were negated by U0126, were also inhibited by VE. In contrast, the anti-HCV activities of statins were not negated by U0126 or VE. We also demonstrated that LA and CsA induce ROS (Fig.

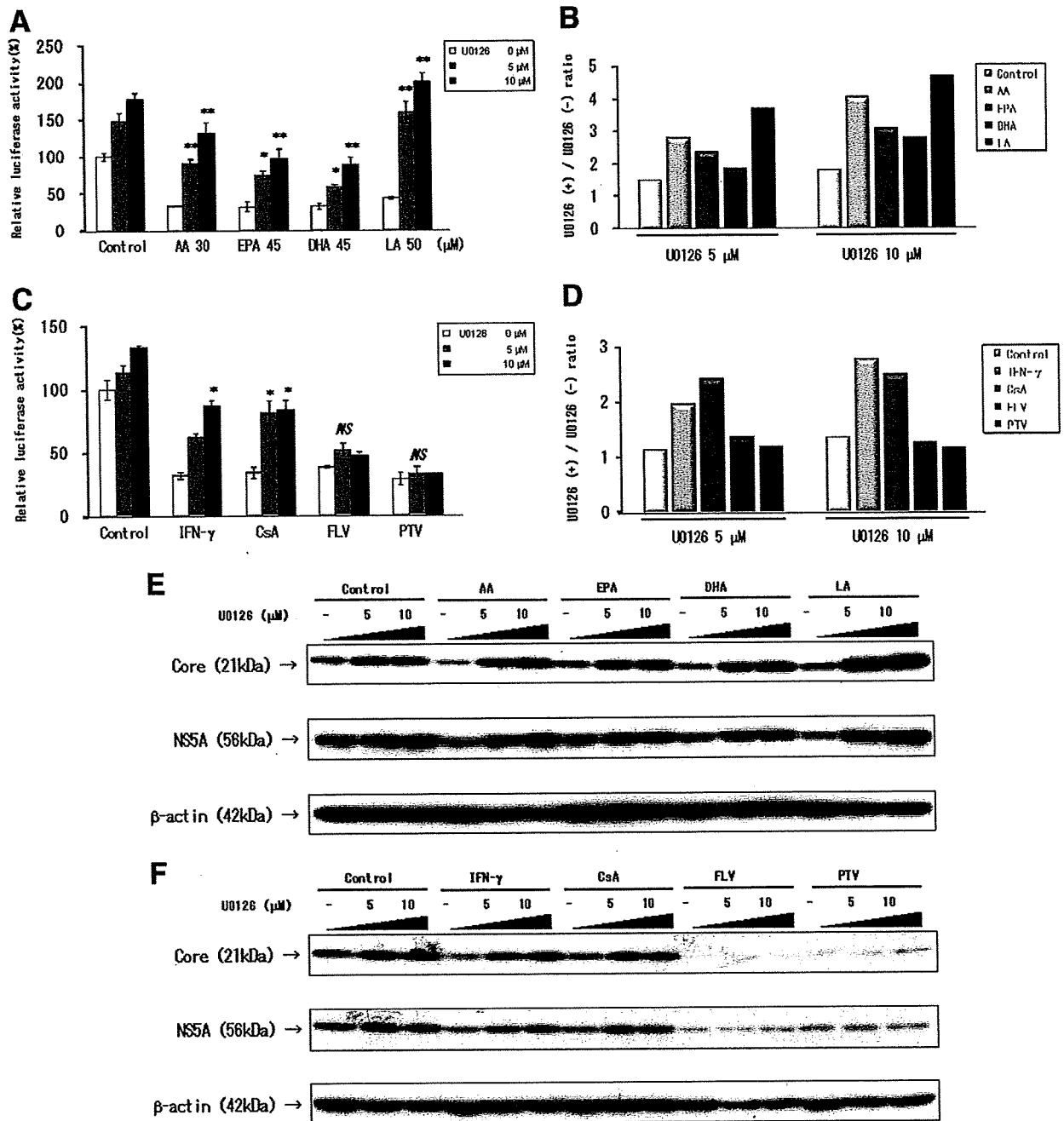


Fig. 3. U0126 dose-dependently attenuated the anti-HCV activities of PUFAs, IFN-γ, and CsA, but not the statins. (A-D)-OR6 reporter assays of the dose effects of U0126 on the PUFAs and anti-HCV reagents at the 60% inhibitory concentration. OR6 cells were pretreated with DMSO or U0126 as in Fig. 2C and then treated with control medium, 30 μM AA, 45 μM EPA, 45 μM DHA, or 50 μM LA (A) and control medium, 0.4 IU/mL IFN-γ, 0.2 μg/mL CsA, 3 μM FLV, or 1 μM PTV (C), respectively, in either the absence (DMSO) or presence of U0126 for 72 hours. After the treatment, the RL assay of harvested OR6 cell samples was performed as described in Fig. 2A and 2B. Asterisks indicate significant difference from treatment with DMSO (**P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; NS, not significant). The ratio of the RL activity in the presence of U0126 to the RL activity in the absence of U0126 was then calculated (B, D). (E, F) Western blot analysis of the dose effects of U0126 on the PUFAs and anti-HCV reagents. The production of HCV core (top row) and NS5A (middle row) in the cells treated as in panel A (E) and panel C (F) was analyzed as described in Fig. 2G. β-actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane (bottom row).

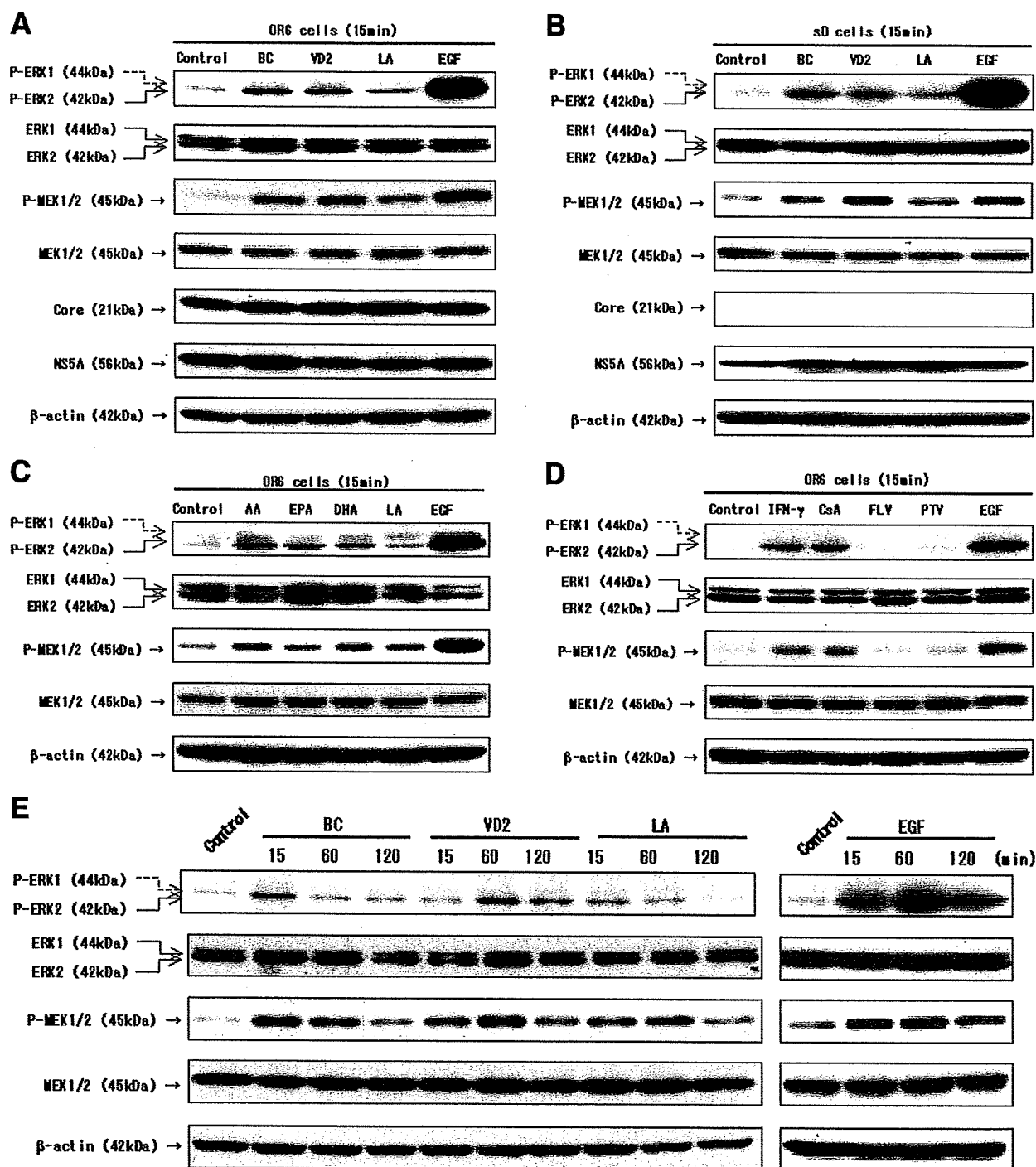


Fig. 4. UO126 attenuated the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway activated by anti-HCV nutrients and reagents. (A, B) Three anti-HCV nutrients—BC, VD2, and LA—increased the phosphorylation of MEK-ERK1/2 in both full-length and subgenomic HCV RNA replication cells. OR6 cells (A) or sO cells (B) were maintained in FBS-free medium for 48 hours and then treated with control medium, 20 μ M BC, 10 μ M VD2, 100 μ M LA, or 50 ng/mL EGF for 15 minutes. After treatment, cell lysates underwent western blot analysis using antibodies specific to phosphorylated ERK1/2, ERK1/2, phosphorylated MEK1/2, and MEK1/2. The appropriate expression of HCV core and NS5A was determined by way of immunoblotting with their respective antibodies. (C, D) IFN- γ , CsA, and the PUFAs, but not the statins, increased the phosphorylation of MEK-ERK1/2 in OR6 cells. OR6 cells were precultured as described in panels A and B, then treated with control medium, 100 μ M AA, EPA, DHA, or LA, or 50 ng/mL EGF (C) and control medium, 2 IU/mL IFN- γ , 2 μ g/mL CsA, 5 μ M of FLV or PTV, or 50 ng/mL EGF (D), respectively, for 15 minutes. (E) Time-course western blot analysis of the increase of MEK-ERK1/2 phosphorylation by the three anti-HCV nutrients and EGF. Samples for analysis were harvested prior to treatment with the control medium, 20 μ M BC, 10 μ M VD2, 100 μ M LA, or 50 ng/mL EGF (0 time point) and at 15, 60, and 120 minutes posttreatment. After all of the treatments (C-E), cell lysates were subjected to western blot analysis of the activation of the MEK-ERK1/2 signaling pathway as described in panels A and B. β -actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane in all analyses.