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A Single Amino Acid of Toll-like Receptor 4 That Is Pivotal for Its Signal Transduction and Subcellular Localization*

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Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) is essential for recognizing a Gram-negative bacterial component, lipopolysaccharide (LPS). A single amino acid mutation at position 712 of murine TLR4 leads to hyporesponsiveness to LPS. In this study we determined that an amino acid, a leucine at position 815 of human TLR4, is also pivotal for LPS responsiveness and subcellular distribution. By replacing the leucine with alanine, the mutant TLR4 lost responsiveness to LPS and did not localize on the plasma membrane. In addition, it does not coprecipitate with myeloid differentiation-2, an accessory protein that is necessary for TLR4 to recognize LPS. These results suggest that the leucine at position 815 is required for the normal maturation of TLR4 and for formation of the TLR4-MD-2 complex.

Toll-like receptors (TLRs)³ play essential roles in both innate and adaptive immunity (1). Thirteen members of the TLR family have been identified in mammals. TLRs have leucine-rich-repeats in their extracellular domains and a Toll/Interleukin-1 receptor (TIR) in their cytoplasmic domains, the latter of which mainly mediates intracellular signaling. Signaling pathways of TLRs, except for TLR3, depend on an adapter protein, MyD88 (myeloid differentiation factor 88), which interacts with the TIR domain of TLRs. This pathway leads to the activation of the transcription fac-

tor NF- κ B and production of cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor- α and interleukin-6. Another important signaling pathway mediated by TLR3 and TLR4 that exploits the TIR domain is the MyD88-independent pathway. This pathway involves different adapter proteins, such as the TIR domain-containing adaptor inducing interferon- β (TRIF) and TRIF-related adaptor molecule (2–4), and is essential for production of type I interferon through activation of interferon regulatory factor-3.

TLRs recognize as ligands several microbial pathogen-associated molecular patterns. One such pathogen-associated molecular pattern is lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is recognized by TLR4. LPS triggers severe immunologic reactions by the host in Gram-negative bacterial infections and has drawn attention in many clinical situations. TLR4 is the first mammalian TLR to be discovered in the context of immunology. TLR4 was identified in the search for the genes responsible for LPS hyporesponsiveness (5, 6). The defect was found to stem from a single amino acid mutation, replacement of proline with histidine at position 712, in the cytoplasmic tail of murine TLR4. The study led to the discovery of the importance of TLR4 in innate immunity.

A variety of cells are activated by LPS stimulation through TLR4. TLR4 forms a receptor complex with an accessory protein, myeloid differentiation-2 (MD-2). MD-2 first associates with TLR4 in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and *cis*-Golgi, and both proteins move together to the plasma membrane (7, 8). Upon recognition of LPS, the TLR4-MD-2 complex receives LPS on the cell surface and initiates intracellular signaling. The expression of TLR4 in the absence of MD-2 does not confer full responsiveness to LPS stimuli in experimental cell lines (9). An analysis of MD-2 knockout mice revealed that MD-2 is important not only for LPS sensing but also for cellular distribution of TLR4.

In this study we hypothesized that the cytoplasmic tail of TLR4 contains regions that control both localization and signaling. Using truncation and mutation analysis, and paying particular attention to the TIR domain, we identified a single amino acid that is pivotal for both TLR4 signaling and subcellular distribution. The site we found was on the C-terminal portion of the TIR domain for which no specific function has been yet determined.

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³ The abbreviations used are: TLR, Toll-like receptor; TIR, Toll/Interleukin-1 receptor; TRIF, TIR domain-containing adaptor inducing interferon- β ; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MD-2, myeloid differentiation-2; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; GFP, green fluorescent protein; EGFP, enhanced GFP; RLA, relative luciferase activity; Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin, sulfosuccinimidyl-2-(biotinamido)ethyl-1,3-dithiopropionate.

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EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Reagents and Other Materials—Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Escherichia coli* O55:B5 was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and applied without repurification. FLAG- and hexa-histidine (His₆)-tagged human TLR4 expression plasmid (pEFBOS/humanTLR4flaghis) and FLAG- and His₆-tagged human MD-2 expression plasmid (pEFBOS/humanMD-2flaghis) were generous gifts from Dr. Kensuke Miyake (Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, Japan). Human CD14 cDNA plasmid (pCMV6-XL5/humanCD14) was purchased from OriGene (Rockville, MD). Fluorescent protein expression vector pEGFP-N3 was purchased from Clontech (Mountain View, CA). Anti-TLR4 monoclonal antibody (clone HTA125) was purchased from Abcam (Cambridge, MA). Anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody (clone M2) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Anti-A.v. (GFP) monoclonal and polyclonal antibodies were purchased from Clontech. Control immunoglobulins for immunoprecipitation were purchased from BD Biosciences (San Jose, CA). Horseradish peroxidase-labeled anti-immunoglobulins antibodies were purchased from Dako (Glostrup, Denmark). BlockAce (DS Pharma Biomedical, Osaka, Japan) solution was used as blocking buffer for Western blotting.

Cell Culture—Human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293T cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum supplemented with penicillin-streptomycin solution (Invitrogen). FuGENE 6 transfection reagent (Roche Applied Science) was used for transient cotransfection according to the manufacturer's instructions. Culture dishes or plates were prepared to 70% confluence prior to transfection. Cells were used for experiments 36 h later. The transfection conditions were optimized for microscopic observation of the expressed fluorescent protein and were kept unchanged in other experiments.

Expression Vector Subcloning and Mutagenesis—Wild-type TLR4 cDNA was excised from pEFBOS/humanTLR4flaghis and subcloned into pEGFP-N3 so that when expressed enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) would be fused at the C terminus of TLR4 (pEGFP-N3/humanTLR4). All mutations were introduced into pEFBOS/humanTLR4flaghis and pEGFP-N3/humanTLR4 using the QuikChange site-Directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and were confirmed by sequencing. For the truncation analysis, two identical unique restriction sites were prepared in the TLR4-coding region of pEFBOS/humanTLR4 using a QuikChange kit, and the DNA fragment to be removed, which was a part of the C terminus of TLR4, was excised enzymatically. After agarose gel purification, the linear double-stranded DNA was ligated to re-form a circular plasmid. Restriction sites were designed so as not to cause a frameshift between TLR4 and EGFP.

Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy of Cells—Samples were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde-phosphate-buffered saline at 37 °C for 10 min. Fluorescence images of fixed samples were recorded using a FluoView FV1000 Confocal Microscope (an inverted confocal laser scanning microscope, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

Immunoprecipitation—Transfected cells were lysed in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1 mM 1,4-dithiothreitol, and proteinase inhibitor mixture), sonicated, and centrifuged at 4 °C. Antibody was added to the supernatant, and the sample was rotated 1 h at 4 °C followed by the addition of protein G-Sepharose (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Piscataway, NJ) and an additional 8-h incubation at 4 °C. Bound protein was washed three times in lysis buffer. Proteins were eluted by boiling in SDS sample buffer.

Biotinylation and Purification of Cell Surface Proteins—Prior to surface biotinylation, HEK 293T cells plated in a 100-mm dish were transiently transfected as described above. Surface biotinylation and subsequent purification of biotinylated proteins were performed using a Cell Surface Protein Biotinylation and Purification Kit (Pierce) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, membrane-impermeable sulfo-succinimidyl-2-(biotinamido)ethyl-1,3-dithiopropionate (Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin) was added to cell monolayers in the culture dishes and covalently bound to amines in proteins exposed on the cell surface. The affinity resin that binds to the biotin end of Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin was used to collect the biotinylated proteins. Reduction by 1,4-dithiothreitol causes cleavage of the disulfide bond in Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin, and the elute contains the biotinylated cell surface proteins. Each final sample obtained was considered to contain proteins from an equal amount of cells, because all culture plates were treated equally and grown to full confluence. All samples were sonicated and subjected to SDS-PAGE and Western blotting. The membrane to which protein was transferred was blocked in blocking buffer for 1 h. Then the membrane was incubated with a primary antibody, followed by incubation with horseradish peroxidase-labeled anti-immunoglobulins antibody. The protein bands were then visualized by using a chemiluminescence reagent, Immobilon Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrate (Millipore, Billerica, MA), according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Cell Stimulation Assays—HEK293T cells were plated and transiently transfected for assays. Thirty-six hours after the transfection, LPS was added to fresh culture medium in each well of the culture plates at the stated concentration. The duration of LPS stimulation was 7 h.

Dual Luciferase Reporter Assays for NF- κ B Activation—HEK293T cells were plated in 12-well culture plates (4×10^4 cells/well), and experimental cDNA plasmids were transiently transfected 36 h later using the FuGENE 6 transfection reagent with 0.5 μ g of NF- κ B reporter plasmid expressing firefly luciferase (pNF- κ B-Luc, Stratagene) and 0.05 μ g of constitutively active *Renilla* luciferase reporter plasmid (pRL-TK, Promega, Madison, WI) in addition to 0.5 μ g each of TLR4-EGFP plasmid and MD-2 plasmid. Stimulation experiments were performed 36 h later. Firefly luciferase and *Renilla* luciferase activities were measured using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) and the Genelight55 luminometer (Microtech, Chiba, Japan). Relative luciferase activity (RLA) was obtained as the ratio of firefly luciferase activity to *Renilla* luciferase activity. Results are expressed as the ratio of RLA with LPS stimulation to RLA without LPS stimulation ($\{RLA_{LPS+}\}/\{RLA_{LPS-}\}$). This ratio should ideally approach 1 when no response to LPS stimulation is observed.

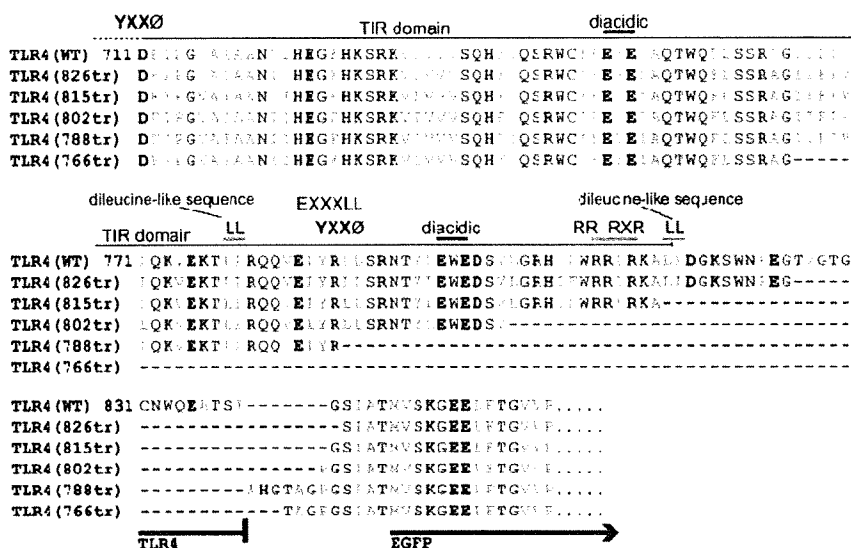


FIGURE 1. Alignment of the cytoplasmic domains of EGFP fusion TLR4 truncation mutants used in this study. TLR4 (766tr) signifies the mutant truncated at position 766. Others are named in the same manner. The amino acids are colored based on their physicochemical properties: pink, basic; blue, acidic; green, polar and neutral; and orange, hydrophobic. The black overline represents the TIR domain. Colored overlines indicate amino acid sequences identical to known sorting signal motifs except for two LLs, which are dileucine motif-like sequences in that they consist of solely two consecutive leucines without preceding aspartate or glutamate. Capital letters on the line signify the single-letter code for amino acids: E, glutamic acid; L, leucine; R, arginine; and Y, tyrosine. X signifies any amino acid, and Ø signifies an amino acid residue with a bulky hydrophobic side chain.

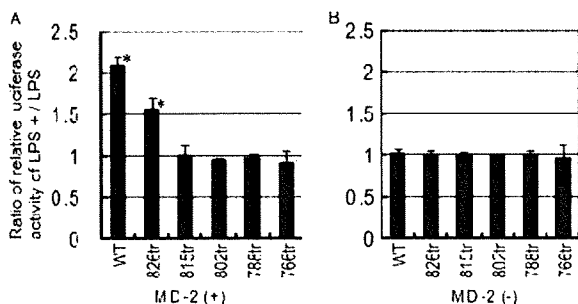


FIGURE 2. LPS responsiveness measured by NF- κ B luciferase assay. HEK293T cells were transfected with plasmids containing the gene for wild-type TLR4 or a truncated human TLR4-EGFP fusion protein, in addition to a luciferase reporter and human MD-2 plasmid (A) or unmodified plasmids (control) (B). After 36 h, cells were stimulated with LPS (10 ng/ml) for 7 h, and luciferase reporter gene activity was measured. All results were expressed as the ratio of relative luciferase activity with LPS stimulation to that without stimulation. The data were from three independent experiments. Small bars indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean (*p* values for * are: TLR4 (WT)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.002; TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.016).

Statistical Analyses—All quantitative experiments were repeated three times, and each experiment was done in triplicate. The ratio of relative luciferase activity of LPS+ to LPS- was calculated as the index of the responsiveness to the stimuli as explained above. When positive response is observed, the ratio should significantly exceed one. The means of the ratio were represented in bar graphs. The 95% confidence interval of the mean of the ratio was calculated and indicated on each bar in the graph, and *p* values were calculated using Student's *t* distribution compared with the hypothetical mean, one.

RESULTS

Truncation Analysis of TLR 4—To identify amino acid sequences in the cytoplasmic tail of TLR4 that are involved in

both signal transduction and sub-cellular distribution, first we generated five truncation mutants of TLR4 with a fluorescent protein (EGFP) at the C terminus of TLR4.

Although there are no known definite sorting signal motifs in the cytoplasmic tail of TLR4, some amino acid sequences are similar or identical to known general sorting signal motifs as shown in Fig. 1. YXXØ, a form of tyrosine-based sorting signal, and EXXXLL, a form of dileucine (LL)-based sorting signal, both control protein internalization, lysosomal targeting, and basolateral targeting (10), where “X” represents any amino acid, “Ø” stands for an amino acid residue with a bulky hydrophobic side chain, and other letters are single-letter abbreviations for the amino acids. “Diacidic” signals such as DXE mediate export from the ER (11). RR or RXR is another example of an ER export signal (12). Truncation sites were chosen so that some of these amino acid sequences were deleted in each mutant. Because the TIR domain, which is essential in TLR4 signaling and possibly sub-cellular localization (13), spans most of the cytoplasmic domain of TLR4, four out of five mutants have involvement in the TIR domain, which we hypothesized could result in impaired signal transduction and a change in subcellular distribution. Part of the cytoplasmic portion of the amino acid sequence of the truncation mutants is shown in Fig. 1. The five truncation mutant proteins lost their C-terminal tails at positions 826, 815, 802, 788, and 766, respectively, and were conjugated with EGFP *in vitro*. Actual truncation and ligation sites of all actual mutants were confirmed to have the designed DNA alignment by sequencing.

We utilized the luciferase reporter assay to assess NF- κ B transcription activity as an indicator of TLR4 response to LPS stimuli. MD-2 is reported to be essential for this response (9). However, because it is not known whether MD-2 is necessary for transduction of the truncated TLR4 signal as well, we performed the assays with and without MD-2. The index of cell responsiveness to the stimulation was measured as the ratio between RLA with LPS stimulation and RLA without LPS stimulation. Only cells transfected with TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP in combination with MD-2 retained responsiveness to LPS stimulation. One exception was wild-type TLR4-EGFP (Fig. 2A). HEK293T cells transfected with TLR4 but without MD-2 did not respond to LPS stimuli regardless of the TLR4-EGFP genotype (Fig. 2B).

Next, we compared the localization of wild-type and truncated mutants of TLR4-EGFP in HEK293T by fluorescence microscopy (Fig. 3A). The wild-type TLR4 cotransfected with MD-2 was expressed on the plasma membrane and also in the

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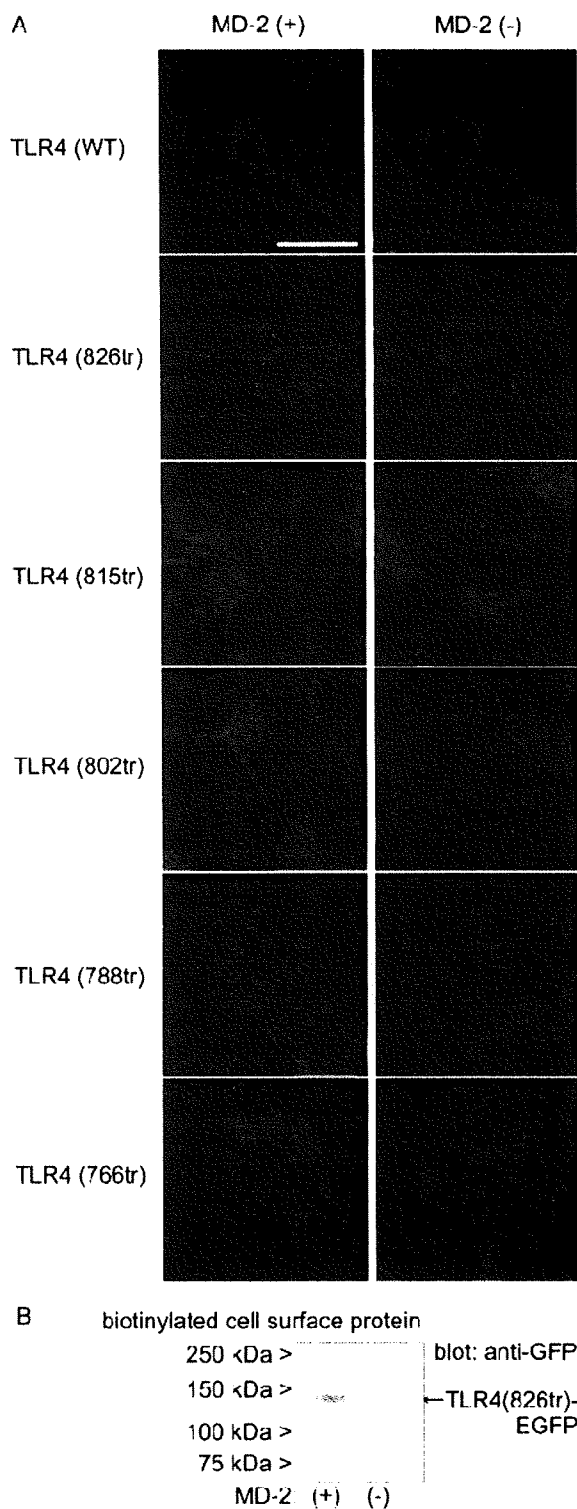


FIGURE 3. Residues 815–826 of TLR4 contain a region necessary for plasma membrane localization. *A*, cells were cultured on coverslips in 12-well plates and transfected as in Fig. 2. EGFP-tagged TLR4 was visualized by laser confocal microscopy. Fluorescence from EGFP was observed in green. Each genotype of TLR4-EGFP was cotransfected with a human MD-2 plasmid or empty vector. Bar, 20 μ m. *B*, TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP with or without coexpression of MD-2 were tagged by biotinylation of the cell surface proteins and affinity-purified. TLR4 was visualized by immunoblotting using an anti-GFP monoclonal antibody. Samples from both combinations of DNAs were prepared from the same number of cells.

perinuclear area. These findings were consistent with observations by others (14, 15). TLR4 is reported to localize in the Golgi apparatus as well as on the plasma membrane. Our observation of TLR4-EGFP accumulation in the perinuclear area does not contradict the report that TLR4 partly localizes in the Golgi apparatus (14).

TLR4-EGFP truncation mutants, 815tr, 802tr, 788tr, and 766tr apparently did not localize at the plasma membrane. No particular fluorescence pattern that might be characteristic of localization to a specific intracellular compartment was observed. Only TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP, which has the shortest truncation, was expressed on the plasma membrane and in the perinuclear area, and the fluorescence pattern was similar to that of wild-type (Fig. 3*A*). No TLR4 genotypes, including wild-type TLR4-EGFP, clearly localized on the plasma membrane in the absence of MD-2 (Fig. 3*A*). MD-2 is reported to be necessary for localization of wild-type TLR4 at the plasma membrane (15), which is consistent with our observation. Intracellular distribution of mutant TLR4 varied depending on the genotype, but no particular cellular structure was identified as an alternative target site. Furthermore, we examined the plasma membrane expression of TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP by cell surface protein biotinylation. The expression level of TLR4 (826tr)-EGFP was markedly decreased without coexpression of MD-2 (Fig. 3*B*), which is compatible with the microscope observation.

Removal of the C-terminal segment of TLR4 at residue 826 does not qualitatively affect LPS responsiveness and subcellular distribution. However, when more residues, up to position 815, were removed, both signal transduction and plasma membrane localization were impaired. These results suggest that residues 815–826 of TLR4 contain at least one segment that is critical for those functions.

Amino Acid Sequence Replacement Analysis—To identify critical amino acid sequences in this region, we generated an amino acid replacement mutant of TLR4 instead of truncation mutants. As shown in Fig. 1, although it is not a canonical sequence, leucine-leucine at 815–816 partially fits a known sorting signal motif, a dileucine motif, (D/E)XXXL(L/I) or DXXLL, which plays an important role in internalization of plasma membrane protein or sorting from the *trans*-Golgi network (10). Thus, as has been done in a similar study (16), a mutant was generated in which alanines were substituted for both leucines at positions 815 and 816.

We measured the NF- κ B activity of TLR4 (L815A/L816A)-EGFP, the mutant in which both leucines were replaced with alanines, under LPS stimulation (Fig. 4*A*). This mutant protein did not respond to LPS stimuli. Microscopic observation revealed that TLR4 (L815A/L816A)-EGFP was not expressed on the plasma membrane regardless of whether MD-2 was cotransfected (Fig. 4*B*). The phenotype of this doubly substituted mutant appeared to be the same as that of the truncation mutants. These results imply that the leucines in positions 815 and 816 play an important role in TLR4 plasma membrane localization.

Analysis of Single Amino Acid Substitution Mutants—As previously mentioned, the amino acid sequence leucine-leucine at positions 815 and 816 does not completely match the dileucine motif, *i.e.* it lacks a preceding acidic amino acid. Therefore it

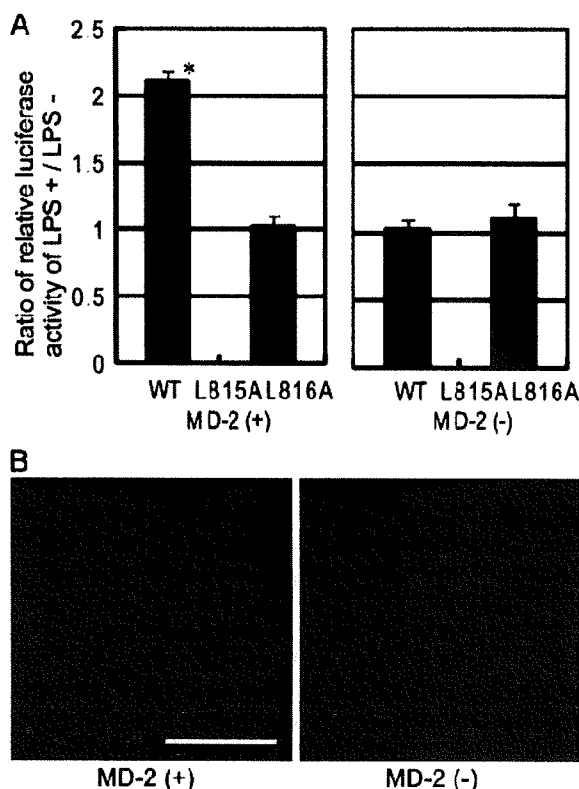


FIGURE 4. Leucines at positions 815–816 of TLR4 are responsible for impairment of LPS responsiveness and plasma membrane expression. **A**, the LPS stimulation assay was done for TLR4 (L815A/L816A)-EGFP as in Fig. 2. The data were from three independent experiments. Small bars indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean (p value for * are: TLR4 (WT)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), $p = 0.002$). **B**, TLR4 (L815A/L816A)-EGFP expression in HEK293T cells was observed by laser confocal microscopy. Bar, 20 μm .

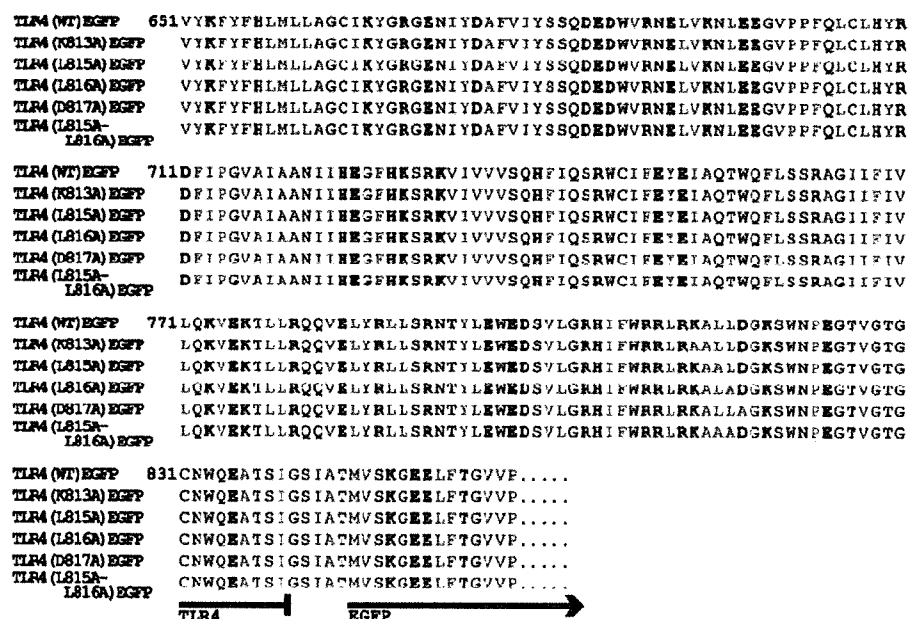


FIGURE 5. Alignment of the cytoplasmic domain of EGFP fusion TLR4 amino acid-replacement mutants used in this study. TLR4 (L813A) signifies a mutant with leucine replaced with alanine at position 813. Others are named in the same manner. The amino acids are colored as in Fig. 1. All amino acids are designated using the single-letter code.

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was reasonable to explore whether leucines 815 and 816 need to be adjacent to each other. We created five genotypes of single amino acid mutants of TLR4: TLR4 (K813A)-EGFP, TLR4 (L815A)-EGFP, TLR4 (L816A)-EGFP, and TLR4 (D817A)-EGFP. We excluded the amino acid at position 814 from the analysis, because the amino acid in position 814 of wild-type TLR4 is alanine. The amino acid sequence alignment of wild-type TLR4 and the single amino acid replacement mutants is shown in Fig. 5. DNA sequences were confirmed by sequencing.

As was done with truncation mutants, we measured NF- κ B activity of wild-type TLR4-EGFP, TLR4 (K813A)-EGFP, TLR4 (L815A)-EGFP, TLR4 (L816A)-EGFP, and TLR4 (D817A)-EGFP in response to LPS stimulation. All mutants except TLR4 (L815A)-EGFP showed responsiveness to LPS stimulation with coexpression of MD-2 (Fig. 6A). Without MD-2, no genotype of TLR4-EGFP responded to LPS stimulation (Fig. 6B). LPS stimulation was performed in an identical manner as with truncation mutants.

We analyzed the subcellular distribution of single amino acid mutants of TLR4-EGFP with and without MD-2 coexpression by fluorescence microscopy. TLR4 (K813A)-EGFP and TLR4 (D817A)-EGFP showed a similar fluorescence pattern to the wild-type, which localized at the plasma membrane when coexpressed with MD-2. No genotypes of TLR4-EGFP localized on the plasma membrane without MD-2 (Fig. 7). The cells transfected with TLR4 (L815A)-EGFP coexpressed with MD-2 did not show plasma membrane fluorescent pattern. Also, TLR4 (L815A)-EGFP showed comparatively weaker fluorescence than other mutants, possibly due to lower expression of the protein. Fluorescence of TLR4 (L816A)-EGFP with MD-2 was ambiguous as for the plasma membrane expression. Some kind of membranous structure was observed in the cytoplasmic area, but the intensity of the plasma membrane green fluorescence

was obscure. Together with the results from the LPS stimulation experiment, the leucines at positions 815 and 816 are considered to play important roles in signal transduction and/or subcellular distribution of TLR4.

Because EGFP consists of 239 amino acids, which is about one-third the size of the complete TLR4 protein, the experimental results obtained using TLR4-EGFP could have been influenced by the presence of the EGFP fused at the C terminus of TLR4. To rule out this possibility, we tested the functional integrity of both TLR4 (L815A) and TLR4 (L816A) with and without EGFP at the C terminus. Reporter assays were performed under the same conditions except that the shorter tag, FLAG-His₆, which has only 21-amino acid tags at the C terminus, was fused to TLR4 in place of EGFP. There was no difference

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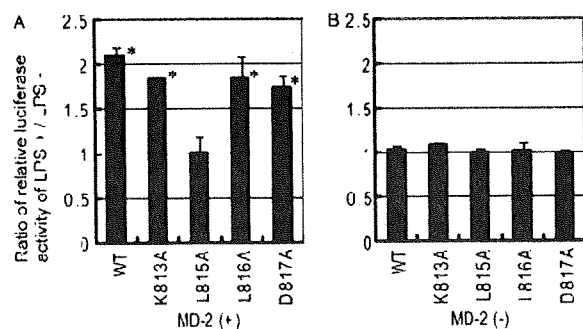


FIGURE 6. Leucine at position 815 of TLR4 is pivotal for LPS responsiveness as measured by NF- κ B luciferase assay. *A*, HEK293T cells were transfected with single amino acid replacement mutants of the human TLR4-EGFP fusion protein plasmid, human MD-2 plasmid, and luciferase reporter and control plasmids. After 36 h, cells were stimulated with LPS (10 ng/ml) for 7 h, and luciferase reporter gene activity was measured. *B*, instead of MD-2, an empty vector was cotransfected with TLR4-EGFP plasmid and reporter assay vectors. LPS stimulation was done as in *A*. All results were expressed in the ratio of relative luciferase activity with LPS stimulation to that without the stimulation as in Fig. 2. The data were from three independent experiments. Small bars indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean (*p* values for * are: TLR4 (WT)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.002; TLR4 (K813A)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.000; TLR4 (L816A)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.018; and TLR4 (D817A)-EGFP/MD-2 (+), *p* = 0.007).

between EGFP-tagged proteins and FLAG-His₆-tagged proteins in the relative pattern of responsiveness against LPS stimulation (Fig. 8A). Because CD14 is also important for LPS recognition by TLR4, we examined the effect of CD14 coexpression on the phenotypic changes of the mutants (17, 18). Coexpression of CD14 did not change the phenotypes of wild-type TLR4, TLR4 (L815A), and TLR4 (L816A) in terms of LPS responsiveness (data not shown).

Cell surface expressions of the wild-type, L815A mutant, and L816A mutant TLR4-FLAG-His₆ fusion proteins were also examined. Live cells transfected with wild-type TLR4, the L815A mutant or the L816A mutant as well as human MD-2 and CD14 were biotinylated on the cell surface, and the biotinylated proteins were affinity-purified and subjected to Western blotting. Fig. 8B shows the marked difference in cell surface expression of wild-type and mutants L815A and L816A. Note that biotinylated proteins have additional residues on every amine of the extracellular domain, which leads to a band shift during electrophoresis. Although both mutants were detected far less than the wild-type on the cell surface, comparatively more L816A mutant was expressed on the plasma membrane than L815A mutant, and the amount of L815A mutant seemed to be negligible compared with the wild type. These results may clarify the ambiguity of the microscopic observation of TLR4 (L815A) and TLR4 (L816A). Plasma membrane expression of TLR4 was impaired when the leucine at 815 or 816 was replaced to alanine. But the leucine at 815 is more critical, and the mutant L816A may show the weaker phenotypic change.

To further investigate the characteristics of the TLR4 (L815A) mutant, we performed an immunoprecipitation assay of wild-type and mutant TLR4. Cells were transfected with a human MD-2-FLAG-His₆ expression vector and either the wild-type or the mutant (L815A) TLR4-EGFP expression vector. Anti-TLR4 monoclonal antibody (clone HTA125), anti-GFP polyclonal antibody, or anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody

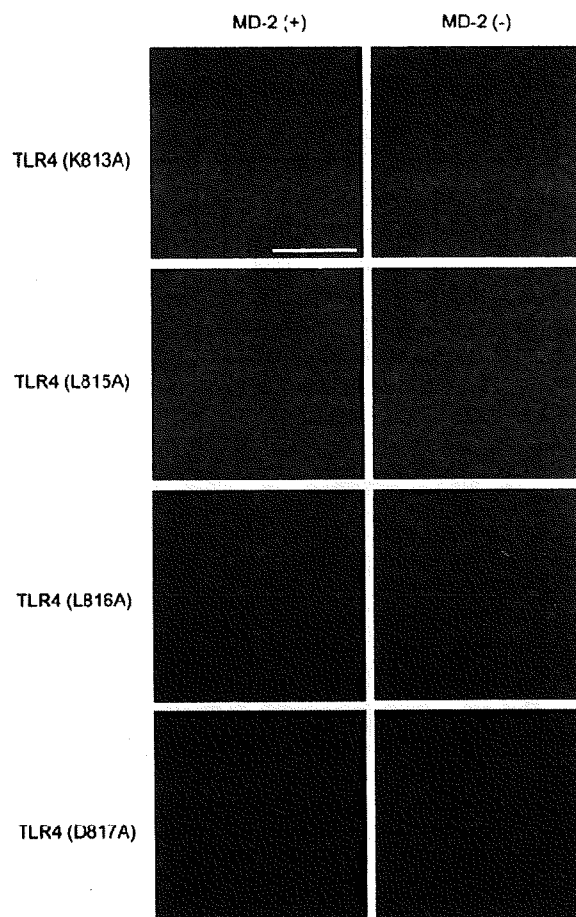


FIGURE 7. Leucines at the position 815 and 816 of TLR4 are responsible for full plasma membrane expression. Cells were cultured on coverslips in 12-well plates and transfected as in Fig. 2. EGFP-tagged TLR4 was visualized by laser confocal microscopy. Each genotype of TLR4-EGFP was cotransfected with human MD-2 plasmid or empty vector. Bar, 20 μ m.

was added to the lysate and precipitated with Protein G-Sepharose beads. Collected proteins were eluted and subjected to Western blotting. The results are shown in Fig. 8C. TLR4 (L815A) was not immunoprecipitated with anti-TLR4 antibody (HTA125). HTA125 antibody was raised against TLR4-expressing cells (9) and recognizes the extracellular portion of TLR4. This result suggests that the amino acid replacement at position 815 may cause a change in the extracellular portion of TLR4 and/or that the replacement may also inhibit cell surface expression of the mutant protein. On the other hand, both wild-type TLR4-EGFP and mutant TLR4-EGFP were immunoprecipitated with anti-GFP polyclonal antibody, which recognized EGFP. However, of the two bands of TLR4, the heavier band seems to be somewhat faint in the mutant, whereas in the wild type the heavier band is at least as dense as the lighter one. TLR4 can be detected as two separate bands in a Western blot (19), especially under transient transfection conditions. The difference in proportion of the heavy and light bands between wild-type and mutant TLR4 may suggest that there is some difference in glycosylation. Furthermore, wild-type TLR4 was coprecipitated with MD-2-FLAG-His₆, but the mutant TLR4 could not be detected (Fig. 8C, lanes 4 and 8). Because MD-2 is

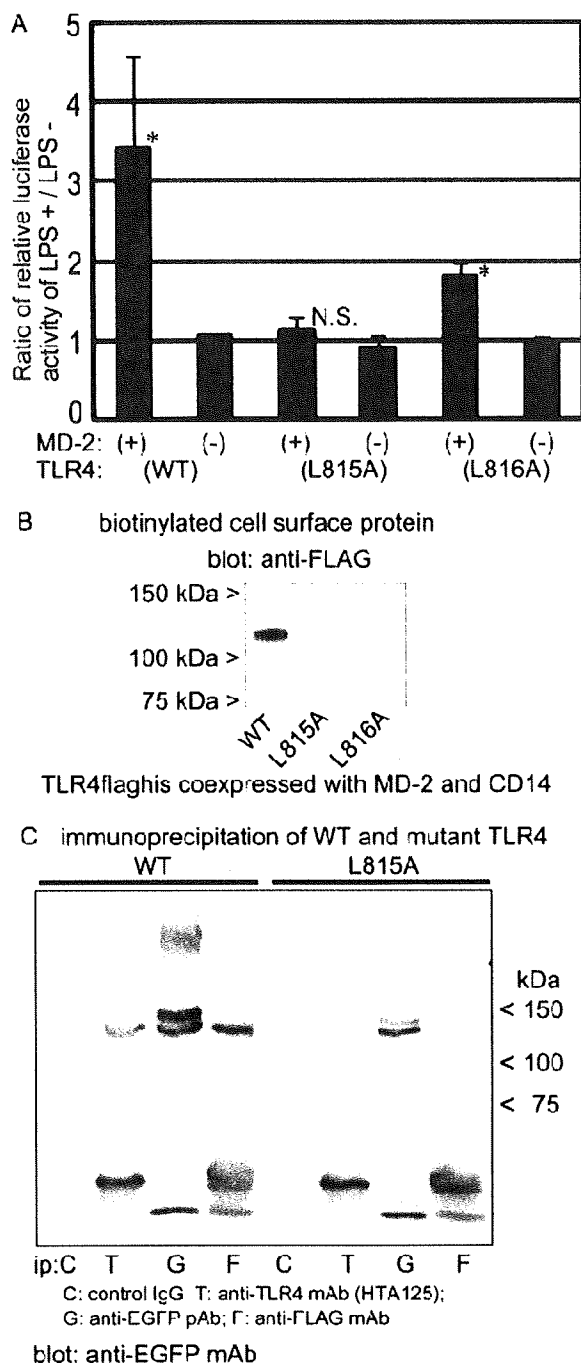


FIGURE 8. A, TLR4 mutants L815A and L816A with and without EGFP fusion exhibit the same phenotypes in LPS responsiveness and plasma membrane expression. HEK293T cells were transfected with the wild-type, the L815A or L816A mutant TLR4flaghis plasmid plus the human MD-2 plasmid and luciferase reporter, or control plasmids. After 36 h, cells were stimulated with LPS (10 ng/ml) for 7 h, and luciferase reporter gene activity was measured. The data were from three independent experiments. *Small bars* indicate 95% confidence intervals of the mean (*p* values for * are: TLR4 (WT) flaghis/MD-2 (+), $p = 0.046$; TLR4 (L816A) flaghis/MD-2 (+), $p = 0.003$). N.S.: not significant. B, wild-type and mutant TLR4s L815A and L816A were tagged by biotinylation of the cell surface proteins and affinity-purified. Human MD-2 and CD14 were coexpressed. TLR4 was visualized by immunoblotting using an anti-FLAG monoclonal antibody (*mAb*). Faint bands below 100 kDa are considered to be unbiotinylated intracellular TLR4 proteins that were not washed off during the process. Samples from TLR4 (WT), TLR4 (L815A), and TLR4 (L816A),

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associated with TLR4 (9), it is logical to expect that immunoprecipitating MD-2-FLAG-His₆ with anti-FLAG antibody should cause TLR4 to be coprecipitated with it. It is suggested by the result here that the association of the TLR4 mutant with MD-2 is impaired.

DISCUSSION

In this research, we performed mutagenesis analyses of particular amino acid residues in TLR4 to explore the mechanisms of TLR4 intracellular signal transduction and subcellular distribution. We found the candidate residues by analyzing truncation mutants of TLR4 in the cytoplasmic region, in which both signaling and normal subcellular distribution of TLR4 are disturbed. Because we are focusing on a common mechanism for the impaired signaling and distribution, we finally picked a single amino acid mutant that does not respond to LPS stimuli, as measured with NF- κ B reporter luciferase assay, and one that does not localize on the plasma membrane. TLR4 (L815A) is a mutant that meets these conditions, and our results suggest that the leucine at position 815 of TLR4 is required for both signal transduction and plasma membrane localization.

The best known single amino acid mutant of TLR4 is TLR4 (P712H) known as the *Lps^d* mutation in the C3H/HeJ mouse, which corresponds to position 714 in this study of human TLR4 (5, 6, 20). Mice carrying this mutation opened up the rediscovery of TLR4 as a key player in innate immunity. Because this proline residue at this position is within the TIR domain and is conserved among TLRs or TLR4s of other species, it is assumed that the residue plays an important role in TLR4 function. The association of TLR4 (P712H) with its adapter proteins is reported to be intact, and the explanation for the functional impairment of TLR4 (P712H) is not clear (21–23).

Some single amino acid variants are found in humans, and these are related to the incidence or prognosis of some infections and other diseases. A growing body of data suggests that the ability of certain individuals to respond properly to TLR4 ligands may be impaired by single-nucleotide polymorphisms within TLR4 genes (24). The D299G and T399I alleles of the TLR4 gene have been associated with increased risk of severe infections (25).

By clarifying the subcellular component where the mutant protein is retained, or by clarifying to which compartment the mutant is not delivered, the abnormal intracellular sorting that is caused by the mutation in TLR4 (L815A) could be elucidated more precisely. Usually a sorting signal motif is composed of several amino acids. In this regard, if the leucine at position 815 is a part of a motif, there should be other amino acids that are also members of the motif. Although replacement of leucine with alanine at position 816 did not cause an apparent signal transduction impediment, plasma membrane expression of TLR4 (L816A) was impaired to a certain extent. Positive

respectively, were prepared from the same number of cells as for the biotinylation experiment. C, immunoprecipitation with antibodies further reveals the characteristics of TLR4 (L815A). Anti-TLR4 monoclonal antibody (HTA125) does not precipitate the mutant TLR4, whereas anti-GFP polyclonal antibody (*pAb*) precipitates both wild-type and mutant TLR4. Mutant TLR4 was not coprecipitated with MD-2-FLAG-His₆. Lysates were prepared from cells transiently expressing wild-type or mutant TLR4-EGFP and MD-2-FLAG-His₆.

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response to LPS stimulation by TLR4(L816A) could be attributable to this small amount of expression on the plasma membrane. Mutagenesis analyses of neighboring amino acids of the leucine at 815 were not definitive, but the results could be suggestive that the adjacent leucine at 816 may work together with the leucine at 815. Leucines at position 815 and 816 could be in the same motif, and the leucine at position 816 may be less critical.

Several proteins have been reported to be involved in TLR4 cell surface expression. Heat shock protein gp96 is necessary for TLR4 association with MD-2 in the ER and for subsequent cell surface expression (26). PRAT4A and PRAT4B are associated with TLR4 and regulate TLR4 cell surface expression (27, 28). In embryonic fibroblasts of MD-2 knockout mice, TLR4 localization on the cell surface is severely impaired, and most TLR4 is retained in the ER or Golgi apparatus (15). MD-2 binds to TLR4 at its extracellular domain and is essential for LPS recognition by TLR4 (29). Although proteins such as CD14 and LPS-binding protein are reported to have important roles in LPS recognition by TLR4, in an *in vitro* setting HEK293T cells gain LPS responsiveness by introducing only TLR4 and MD-2 genes when measured by NF- κ B reporter assay (9, 30). Without transfection, HEK293 cells do not express TLR4, MD-2, or CD14, which are involved in LPS-induced intracellular signaling (31, 32). In this study, we show that the association of the TLR4 mutant and MD-2 is impaired (Fig. 8C).

Post-translational modification is another important factor for TLR4 function. Asparagine residues in the extracellular portion of TLR4 need to be glycosylated for plasma membrane expression of TLR4 (15, 19, 33). TLR4•MD-2 association is necessary for this glycosylation as well. The difference in the proportion of the heavy band to lighter band between wild-type and L815A mutant TLR4 immunoprecipitated with anti-GFP polyclonal antibody suggests that there may be some difference in glycosylation between wild-type and L815A mutant TLR4 (Fig. 8C). Although leucine at position 815 is located in the cytoplasmic tail of TLR4, we speculated that substitution of leucine at position 815 may cause a conformational change in the extracellular portion of the protein, which may interfere with the association between L815A mutant TLR4 and MD-2, leading to inhibition of glycosylation and cell surface expression of the mutant protein. Further investigation may reveal the mechanism involved in this phenotypic change in TLR4 (L815A), which would lead to better understanding of the mechanism of wild-type TLR4 signaling and trafficking.

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Steatosis, liver injury, and hepatocarcinogenesis in hepatitis C viral infection

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In addition to the link with development of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is associated with several hepatic and extrahepatic manifestations. A role of hepatic steatosis in the pathogenesis of chronic hepatitis C has been shown, implying hepatitis C as a metabolic disease. Furthermore, recent epidemiological studies have suggested a linkage between insulin resistance and chronic HCV infection. In addition to the data indicating the presence of lipid metabolism disturbance and insulin resistance in the cohort of chronic hepatitis C patients, we found evidence showing the association between these two conditions and HCV infection using mice transgenic for the HCV core gene. These mice develop HCC late in life after the phase of hepatic steatosis and insulin resistance. The nonappearance of both steatosis and HCC in HCV core gene transgenic mice that are null for the proteasome activator 28 γ implies a close relationship between lipid metabolism disturbance and hepatocarcinogenesis. Also, the core protein is shown to bind with retinoid X receptor (RXR)- α , resulting in the upregulation of some lipid metabolism enzymes, including cellular retinol binding protein II and acyl-CoA oxidase. In addition, the persistent activation of peroxisome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR)- α has recently been found in the liver of HCV core gene transgenic mice, yielding dramatic changes in lipid metabolism and hepatocyte proliferation, including HCC development. These results would provide a clue for further understanding of the role of lipid metabolism in pathogenesis of HCV infection, including liver injury and hepatocarcinogenesis.

Key words: lipid metabolism, transgenic mouse, oxidative stress, intracellular signal transduction, peroxisome proliferator activated receptor

Introduction

Worldwide, approximately 170 million people are persistently infected with hepatitis C virus (HCV), which induces a spectrum of chronic liver diseases from chronic hepatitis to cirrhosis and, eventually, to hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC).¹ HCV has been given increasing attention because of its wide and deep penetration in the community, tied with a very high incidence of HCC in persistent HCV infection. Once liver cirrhosis is established in hosts persistently infected with HCV, HCC develops at a yearly rate of approximately 7%,² resulting in the development of HCC in nearly 90% of HCV-associated cirrhotic patients in 15 years. In addition, the outstanding features in the mode of hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection, i.e., development of HCC in a multicentric fashion and at a very high incidence, are not common in other malignancies except for hereditary cancers such as familial polyposis of the colon. Knowledge of the mechanism underlying HCC development in persistent HCV infection, therefore, is imminently required for the prevention of HCC.

In addition to the link with development of HCC, HCV infection is associated with several hepatic and extrahepatic manifestations.³ A role of hepatic steatosis in the pathogenesis of chronic hepatitis C has been shown, implicating hepatitis C as a metabolic disease.⁴ Moreover, recent epidemiological studies have suggested a linkage between insulin resistance and chronic HCV infection.⁵ In addition to the epidemiological data indicating the presence of lipid metabolism disturbance and insulin resistance in the cohort of chronic hepatitis C patients, detailed analyses on the relationship between

metabolic disorders and chronic hepatitis C have revealed evidence showing a close association between the progression of liver fibrosis and metabolic abnormalities in HCV infection.⁶ However, it is unclear yet whether a causative relationship exists between these medical conditions. Moreover, it is unclear whether such metabolic disorders contribute to hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection.

Possible roles of HCV in hepatocarcinogenesis

The mechanism underlying hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection is not yet fully understood, despite the fact that nearly 80% of patients with HCC in Japan are persistently infected with HCV.^{1,7,8} 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 caused by 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 via 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 multicentric nature in HCV infection?

The other role of HCV would have to be weighed against an extremely rare occurrence of HCC in patients with autoimmune hepatitis in which severe inflammation in the liver persists indefinitely, even after the development of cirrhosis. This background and reasoning 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. Actually, it takes 30–40 years for HCC to develop in individuals infected with HCV. On the basis of these points of view, we started to investigate carcinogenesis in chronic hepatitis C, *in vivo*, by transgenic mouse technology.

HCV core protein has an *in vivo* oncogenic activity as revealed by animal studies

Transgenic mouse lines carrying the HCV genome were engineered by introducing the genes from the cDNA of

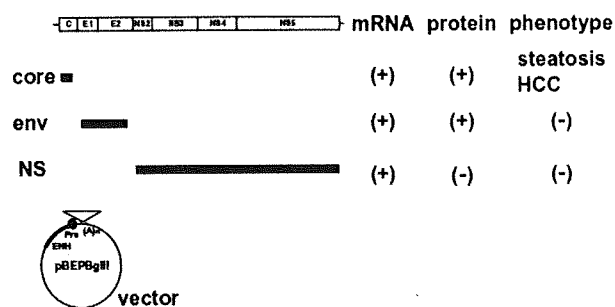


Fig. 1. Transgenic mouse lines carrying the hepatitis C virus (HCV) genome. Three different kinds of transgenic mouse lines, carrying the *core* gene, envelope genes, or nonstructural genes of HCV, respectively, were established under the control of the same regulatory elements. Among these mouse strains, 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 nonstructural genes do not develop HCC. HCC, hepatocellular carcinoma; *env*, envelope genes; *NS*, nonstructural genes

the HCV genome of genotype 1b.^{9,10} Established are three different kinds of transgenic mouse lines, which carry the core gene, envelope genes, or nonstructural 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.¹⁰ The envelope gene transgenic mice do not develop HCC, despite high expression levels of both E1 and E2 proteins,^{11,12} and the transgenic mice carrying the entire nonstructural genes have developed no HCC (Fig. 1).

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.¹³ Thus, the core gene transgenic mouse model reproduces well the features of chronic hepatitis C. Of note, no pictures of significant inflammation are 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.^{14–16} These outcomes indicate that the core protein, *per se*, of HCV has an oncogenic potential when expressed *in vivo*.

Oxidative stress overproduction and intracellular signaling pathway activation are the major pathways in the core-induced liver pathology

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.^{10,17} 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 finding reflects a state of overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the liver,¹⁸ or predisposition to it, which is staged by the HCV core protein without any intervening inflammation.^{19,20} The overproduction of oxidative stress results in the generation of deletions in mitochondrial and nuclear DNA, an indicator of genetic damage. In addition, analysis of antioxidant system revealed that some antioxidative molecules are not increased despite the overproduction of ROS in the liver of core gene transgenic mice: hemeoxygenase-1 and glutathione peroxidase are not augmented whereas catalase and glutathione S-transferase levels are increased and enhanced by iron overloading (Moriya et al., manuscript in preparation). These results suggest that HCV core protein not only induces overproduction of ROS but also attenuates some of the antioxidant systems, which may explain the mechanism underlying the production of a strong oxidative stress in HCV infection compared to other forms of hepatitis.

In the absence of inflammation, thus, 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 can no longer be scavenged by a physiological antagonistic system. This idea suggests that the inflammation in chronic HCV infection would have a characteristic difference in its quality from those of other types of hepatitis, such as autoimmune hepatitis. The basis for the overproduction of oxidative stress may be ascribed to the mitochondrial dysfunction.^{10,19} The dysfunction of the electron transfer system of the mitochondrion is suggested in association with the presence of the HCV core protein.²¹

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-1 β have been found to be transcriptionally activated.²² 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 before HCC development, only the JNK route is activated. Downstream of JNK activation, transcription factor activating protein (AP)-1 activation is markedly enhanced.^{20,21} At far downstream, both the mRNA and protein levels of cyclin D1 and CDK4 are increased. Thus, the HCV core protein modulates the intracellular signaling pathways and gives an advantage for cell proliferation to the hepatocytes. Interestingly, we found recently that a protein interacting with the core protein, proteasome activator 28 γ (PA28 γ), is indispensable for the core protein to exert its function for the development of steatosis, insulin resistance, and HCC.^{23,24}

Lipid metabolism and HCV infection

Steatosis is frequently observed in chronic hepatitis C patients and is significantly associated with increased fibrosis and progression rate of fibrosis of the liver.⁶ 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 upregulated or downregulated (Table 1).

The composition of fatty acids that are accumulated in the liver of core gene transgenic mice is different from that in fatty liver resulting from simple obesity. Carbon-18 monounsaturated 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 patients with simple fatty liver due to obesity.²⁰ 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)-1.²⁵ 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

Table 1. Cellular genes differentially expressed in hepatitis C virus (HCV) core transgenic mouse liver

| | Upregulated | Downregulated |
|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| Lipid metabolism | NPC1 Catalase Very long chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase Carboxylesterase selenoprotein P Carbonic anhydrase Adipose differentiation-related protein Bilirubin/phenol family UDP glucuronosyltransferase | Stearoyl-CoA desaturase Sterol-carrier protein X Alpha-enolase carnitine acetyltransferase Gal beta 1,4(3) GlcNAc alpha 2,3-sialyltransferase Very long chain acyl-CoA synthetase Liver transferrin 4-Hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase LAF1 transketolase <i>s</i> -Adenosylmethionine synthetase Apolipoprotein A-II Human guanine nucleotide regulatory protein Alpha-fetoprotein Retinol binding protein |
| Transcription and cell proliferation | Int-6 GCN5L1 <i>H. sapiens</i> 8.2k-Da differentiation factor USF1 Initiation factor eIF-4AI Human elongation factor-1-delta Suil | |
| Inflammation | Alpha-1 protease inhibitor 3 Hemopexin | Alpha-2-macroglobulin LMW prekininogen Complement component C3 AHSG(alpha 2 HS-glycoprotein) homologue Vitronectin Epithelin 1 and 2 Murinoglobulin |
| Others | Microvascular endothelial differentiation gene 1 Diazepam-binding inhibitor Argininosuccinate synthetase Skeletal muscle alpha-tropomyosin Ampd3 gene DNA-binding protein | |

microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (MTP) by HCV core protein²⁶; this inhibits the secretion of very low density protein (VLDL) from the liver, yielding an increase of triglycerides in the liver. The last pathway involves 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, whereas neither SREBP-2 nor SREBP-1a is upregulated.²⁷

In relation to lipid metabolism, the core protein has also been found to interact with retinoid X receptor (RXR)- α .²⁸ RXR- α is one of the nuclear receptors, which forms a homodimer or heterodimers with other nuclear receptors, including PPAR (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor)- 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, both in mice and in cultured cells.²⁸ Based on these results, we, then, examined the expression and function of PPAR- α in the liver of core gene transgenic mice.

PPAR- α activation in HCV-associated hepatocarcinogenesis

PPAR- α , one of the PPAR genes, 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.²⁹ On the other hand, 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.²⁹

The level of PPAR- α protein was increased in the liver of core gene transgenic mice as early as 9 months of age. 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. By pulse-chase experiment, the stability of nuclear PPAR- α was 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, cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK)-4, acyl-CoA oxidase, and peroxisome thiolase.³⁰ 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 a core gene transgenic mouse with a PPAR- α knockout (KO) mouse and studied the phenotype. PPAR- α KO mice have reduced expression of target genes of PPAR- α , and have mild steatosis in the liver, as expected.³¹ 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.³⁰ 8-Hydroxy deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) and peroxylipids, 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 overproduction of oxidative stress,¹⁹ 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, whereas about 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 also did not develop HCC.³² 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 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. 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.

HCV core protein causes "fatty acid spiral"

Figure 2 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

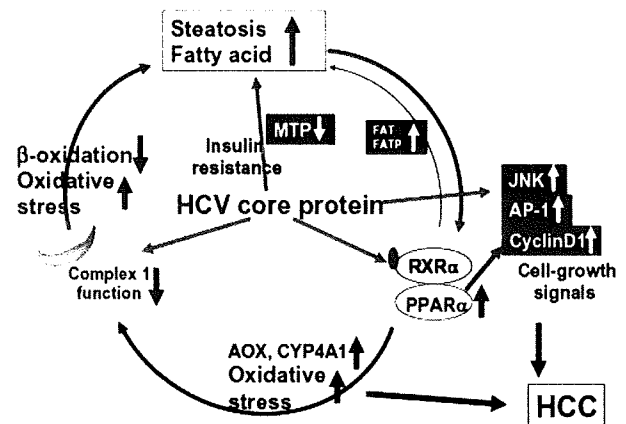


Fig. 2. "Fatty acid spiral" by HCV core protein. In HCV infection, the core protein induces steatosis via several pathways, leading to "fatty acid spiral" in the presence of the mitochondrial complex 1 dysfunction and PPAR- α activation, both of which are also caused by the core protein. These intracellular 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. *HCV*, hepatitis C virus; *HCC*, hepatocellular carcinoma; *ROS*, reactive oxygen species; *JNK*, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; *ERK*, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; *AP-1*, activating protein-1; *RXR- α* , retinoid X receptor- α ; *PPAR- α* , peroxisome proliferator activated receptor- α ; *AOX*, acyl-CoA oxidase; *CYP*, cytochrome P450; *MTP*, microsomal triglyceride transfer protein; *FAT*, fatty acid translocase; fatty acid transport protein

infection. However, in HCV infection, the core protein induces steatosis through the aforementioned 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.

The HCV protein may allow some steps in multistep hepatocarcinogenesis to be skipped

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 outlined by Kinzler and Vogelstein³³ has gained wide popularity. They have proposed that the

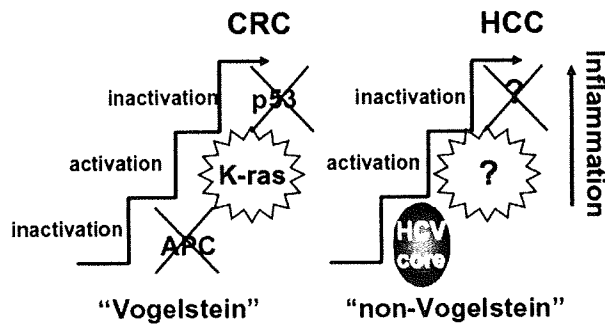


Fig. 3. Mechanism of HCV-associated hepatocarcinogenesis. Multiple steps are required in the induction of all cancers; it would be mandatory for hepatocarcinogenesis that genetic mutations accumulate in hepatocytes. However, in HCV infection, some of these steps may be skipped in the development of HCC 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

development of colorectal cancer is induced by the accumulation of a complete set of cellular gene mutations. They have deduced that mutations in the APC 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.³³ Their theory has been extended to the carcinogenesis of other cancers as well, called "Vogelstein-type" carcinogenesis (Fig. 3).

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 hepatocarcinogenesis in HCV infection. We do allow multistages 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 (see Fig. 3). The overall effect 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.³⁴ Now it does not seem so difficult as before to determine why HCC develops in persistent HCV infection at an outstandingly high incidence. Our theory may also give an account of the nonmetastatic and multicentric de novo occurrence characteristics of HCC, which would be the result of persistent HCV infection.

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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 prefractionation 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 (Magstration 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

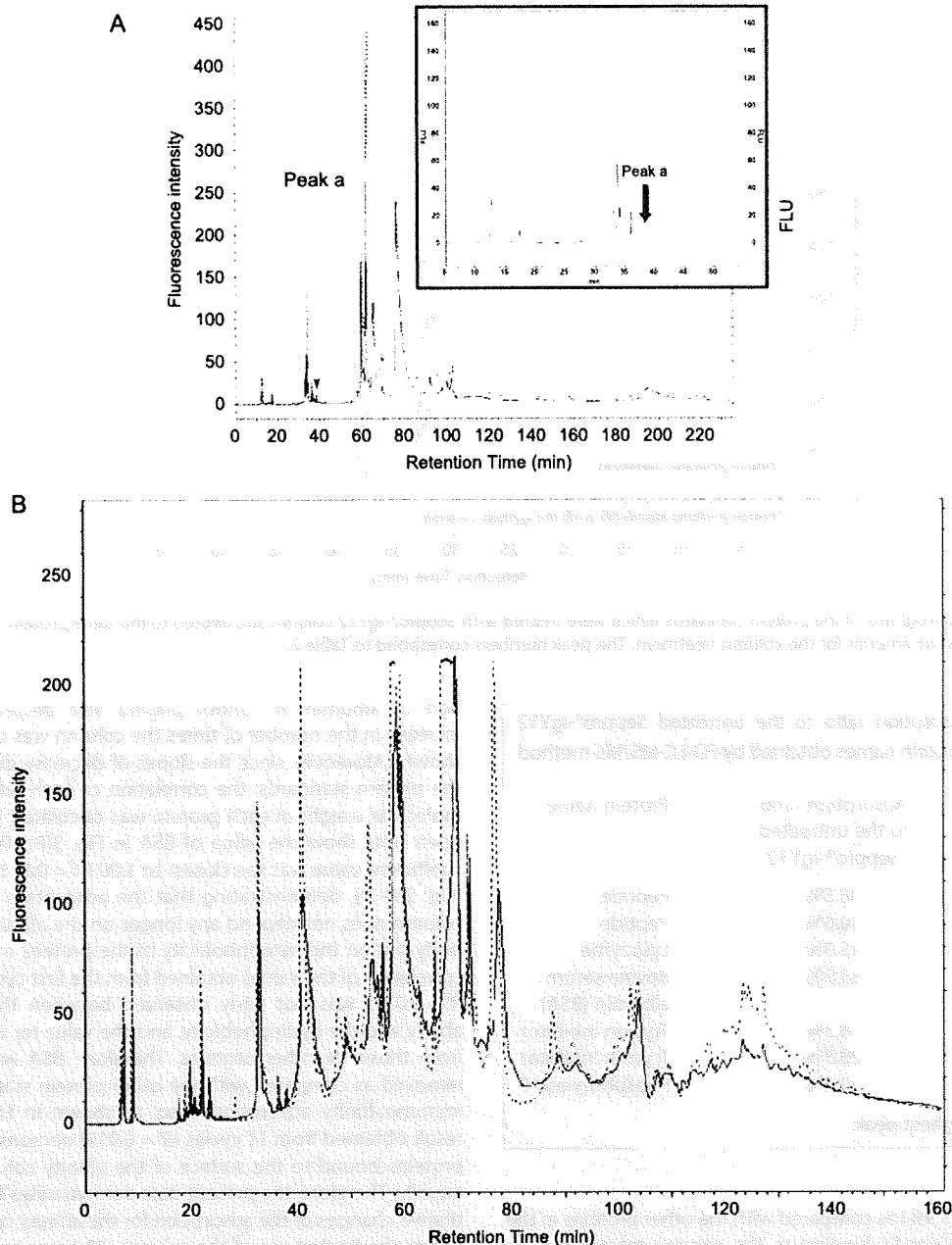


Figure 1. Chromatograms of mouse plasma samples treated with IgY-R7 Spin Columns. (A) The mouse plasma (19 months, C57BL/6N) treated 80 times (solid line) and 86 times (dotted line) in the same spin column. The gradient conditions were as follows: time (min), 0 → 10 → 20 → 44 → 48 → 68 → 80 → 90 → 108 → 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