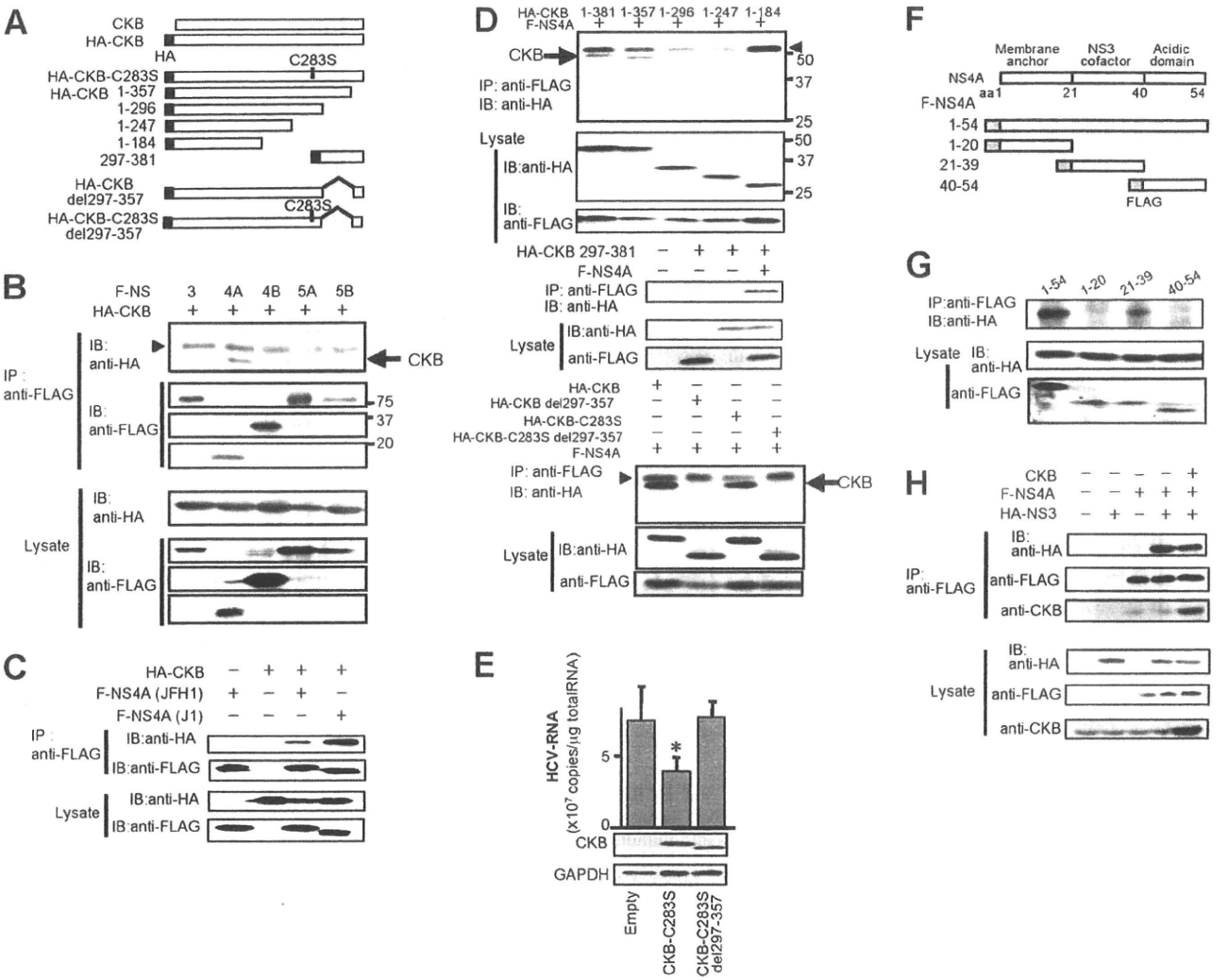

FIG. 3. CKB interacts with HCV NS4A. (A) Structures of CKB constructs used in the present study. A full-length wild-type CKB without an epitope tag (CKB) or with an N-terminal HA tag (HA-CKB), HA-CKB with deletions (aa 1 to 357, aa 1 to 296, aa 1 to 247, aa 1 to 184, and aa 297 to 381 and del297-357), CKB mutant at the catalytic site, Cys-283 (CKB-C283S) or CKB-C283S lacking aa 297 to 357 (CKB-C283Sdel297-357) are shown. HA-CKB was coexpressed with FLAG-tagged versions of each NS protein of strain NIHJ1 (B) or with NS4A of strain JFH-1 (C) in 293T cells and immunoprecipitated (IP) with an anti-FLAG antibody. Immunoprecipitates were subjected to immunoblotting (IB) with anti-HA or anti-FLAG antibody. (D) Each CKB deletion mutant was coexpressed with FLAG-NS4A in 293T cells. Immunoprecipitates were analyzed by immunoblotting. Arrow, CKB; arrowhead, immunoglobulin heavy chain. (E) SGR-JFH1 cells were transfected with the expression plasmid for CKB-C283S, CKB-C283Sdel297-357 or empty vector. At 72 h posttransfection, HCV RNA levels and the expression of CKB and CKB-C283S were determined by real-time RT-PCR and immunoblotting with anti-HA antibody, respectively. For HCV RNA quantitation, data are indicated as averages and standard deviations ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ against the empty vector control. (F) Structure of NS4A and NS4A constructs. FLAG-tagged NS4A (aa 1 to 54) or its truncated mutants (aa 1 to 20, aa 21 to 39, or aa 40 to 54) are shown. (G) Each NS4A deletion mutant was coexpressed with HA-CKB and analyzed as described above. (H) FLAG-NS4A was coexpressed with HA-NS3 or HA-NS3 and CKB, followed by immunoprecipitation with anti-FLAG antibody. Immunoprecipitates were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HA, anti-FLAG or anti-CKB antibody.

formation of the NS3-NS4A complex (Fig. 3G). We therefore investigate whether NS3-NS4A interaction is affected in the presence of CKB and found that exogenous expression of CKB has no influence on NS3-NS4A interaction, and a putative NS3-NS4A-CKB complex was detected in the coimmunoprecipitation analysis (Fig. 3H). Collectively, these results strongly suggest that CKB plays a key role in HCV RNA replication via interaction with NS4A.

Subcellular localization of CKB and NS4A in cells replicating HCV RNA. CKB is distributed throughout cells but is mainly localized in the perinuclear area (31), whereas NS4A is predominantly localized at the endoplasmic reticulum and mitochondrial membranes (37). We examined the possible subcellular colocalization of CKB and NS4A in SGR-N cells by immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 4A). CKB tended to gather in the perinuclear area of HCV replicating cells and was partially colocalized with NS4A in the area, sharing a dotlike structure. To further analyze the subcellular compartments in which CKB and NS4A coexist, we used double-labeling immunoelectron microscopy on SGR-N cells using antibodies against CKB and NS4A, with secondary antibodies coupled to 12- and 18-nm gold particles, respectively. One fraction of

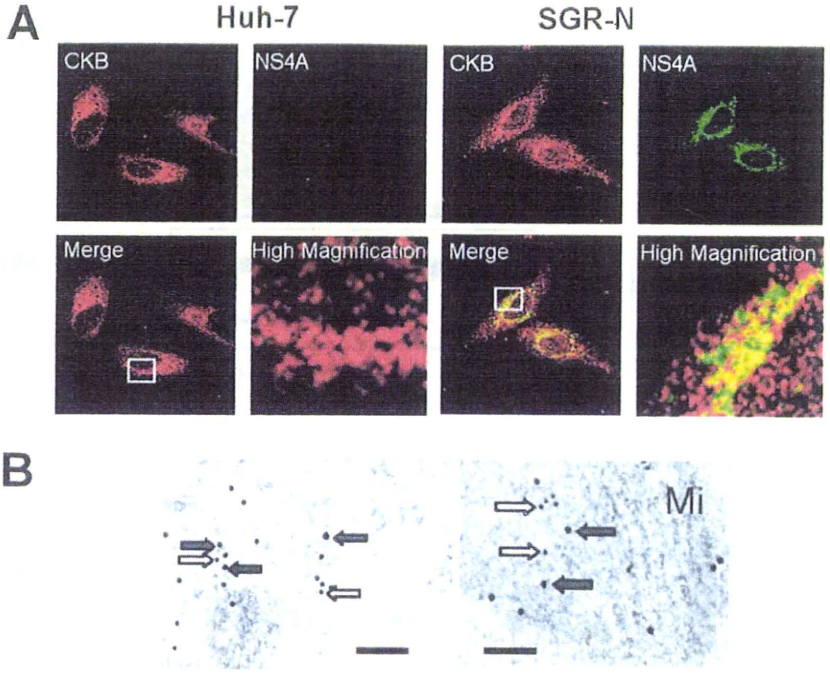

FIG. 4. Colocalization of CKB with HCV NS4A. (A) Indirect immunofluorescence analysis. The primary antibodies used were anti-CKB goat PAb (red) and anti-NS4A MAb (green). Merged images of red and green signals are shown. High-magnification panels are enlarged images of white squares in the merge panels. (B) Immunoelectron microscopic localization of CKB and NS4A. SGR-N cells were double-immunolabeled for CKB (12-nm gold particles; white arrows) and for NS4A (18-nm gold particle; gray arrows). Mi, mitochondria. Bars, 200 nm.

CKB colocalized with NS4A in the cytoplasmic electron-dense regions, presumably derived from altered or folded membrane structures (Fig. 4B, left panel) and mitochondria (Fig. 4B, right panel).

CKB enhances functional HCV replicase and NS3-4A helicase. NS4A is known to mediate membrane association of the NS3-4A complex and to function as a cofactor in NS3 enzyme activity. To understand the mechanism(s) underlying positive regulation of HCV RNA replication through CKB via its interaction with NS4A, we first investigated whether CKB modulates NS3-4A helicase activity. NS3-4A helicase is a member of the superfamily-2 DexH/D-box helicase, which unwinds RNA-RNA substrates in a 3′-to-5′ direction. During RNA replication, the NS3-4A helicase is believed to translocate along the nucleic acid substrate by changing its protein conformation, utilizing the energy of ATP hydrolysis (9). We then tested the effect of CKB on RNA- or DNA-unwinding activity using purified recombinant full-length NS3 and NS3-4A complex (12). As shown in Fig. 5A (left middle panel), both NS3 and NS3-4A helicase activity unwound dsRNA substrate most efficiently when CKB, ATP, and pCr were added to the reaction mixture. The enhancing effect of CKB was observed in the presence of pCr but not in the absence of it, suggesting that catalytic activity of CKB is important for its effect on the HCV helicase activity. Similar results were obtained from the DNA helicase assay using dsDNA substrate (Fig. 5B). To address the specificity of the stimulation by the CKB/pCr system, effects of PK and pPy, which are also involved in the ATP generation, were determined (Fig. 5A, right panels). Exogenous PK and pPy at the same concentrations as those of CKB and pCr used in the study exhibited no effect on the HCV helicase activity.

The effect of CKB on NS3-4A serine protease activity, which is considered to be ATP-independent, was also assessed in an in vitro protease assay using the purified viral proteins as mentioned above (Fig. 5C). As expected, NS3-4A complex exhibited significantly higher activity than NS3 alone; however, CKB did not affect the protease activities of NS3 or NS3-4A.

Finally, we investigated loss and gain of function of CKB in HCV replicase activity, which requires high-energy phosphate, in the context of semi-intact replicon cells. Miyanari et al. (33) reported that the function of the active HCV RC can be monitored in permeabilized replicon cells treated with digitonin. Thus, permeabilized replicon cells in the presence or absence of exogenous CKB were incubated with [α-^{32}P]UTP to detect newly synthesized RNA. As indicated in Fig. 5D, an ~8-kb band corresponding to HCV subgenomic RNA was most abundant in cells in the presence of exogenous CKB, ATP and pCr. The enhancing effect of CKB was observed in the presence but not in the absence of pCr, suggesting that catalytic activity of CKB is important for its effect on the replicase activity. As for the RNA helicase assay, exogenous PK and pPy did not enhance the replicase activity (data not shown). HCV replicase activity in permeabilized cells to which we had introduced siCKB-2 was diminished compared to that in siRNA control-treated cells. Interestingly, the replicase activity in the CKB-depleted cells was recovered by the addition of CKB. Thus, our findings suggest that CKB functions as a key regulator of HCV genome replication by controlling energy-dependent viral enzyme activities.

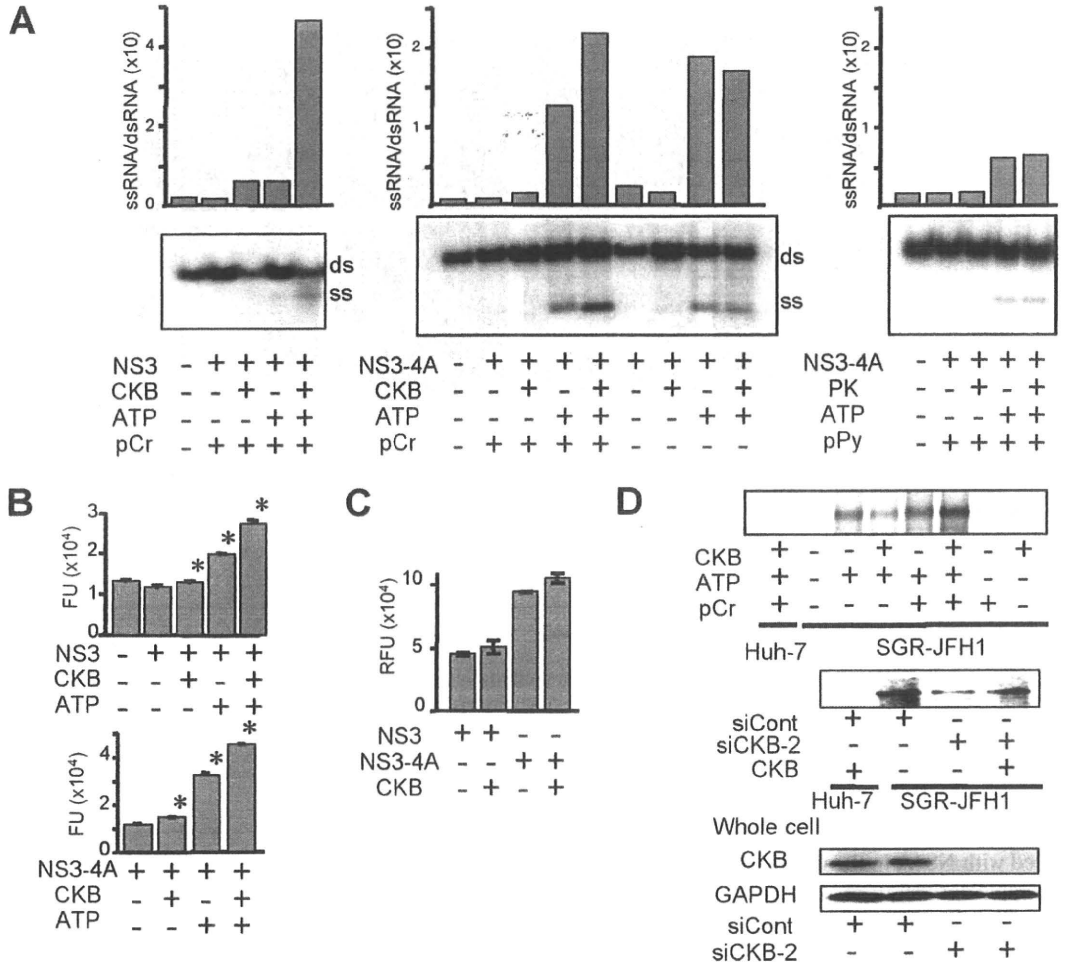

FIG. 5. CKB enhances NS3-4A helicase and HCV replicase activities. (A) In vitro RNA helicase activity of NS3-4A or NS3 was determined by detecting unwound single-strand RNA (ss) derived from the partially dsRNA substrate (ds). Band intensities corresponding to unwound products and those to dsRNA substrates were determined by ImageQuant 5.2 (Molecular Dynamics), and the ssRNA/dsRNA ratios were calculated. The results are representative of three similar experiments. (B) In vitro DNA helicase activity of NS3-4A or NS3 was analyzed by using a commercially available kit. The data represent averages and standard deviations ($n = 3$). *, $P < 0.05$ against the value without supplementation of CKB and ATP. (C) The in vitro HCV protease activity of NS3-4A or NS3 in the presence or absence of CKB was analyzed. Error bars represent standard deviations ($n = 3$). (D) Replicase activity in permeabilized replicon cells. The upper panel shows the activity for synthesis of HCV subgenomic RNA in the digitonin-permeabilized SGR-JFH1 cells with or without supplementation of CKB was measured. The middle panel shows results for SGR-JFH1 or Huh-7 cells that were transfected with siCKB-2 or siCont and permeabilized at 72 h posttransfection. The permeabilized cells with or without supplementation of CKB were subjected to the replicase assay. The lower panel shows the immunoblotting results for whole-cell lysates of siRNA-transfected cells.

DISCUSSION

Viral replication requires energy and macromolecule synthesis, and host cells provide the viruses with metabolic resources necessary for their efficient replication. Thus, it is highly likely that interaction of viruses with host cell metabolic pathways, including energy-generating systems, contributes to the virus growth cycle. In the regulation of HCV genome replication, the functions of the viral NS proteins that comprise the RC might be regulated by association in individual host cell factors. For example, hVAP-A and -B function as cofactors of modulating RC formation via interacting with NS5A and NS5B (13, 18). Cyclophilin B is involved in stimulating viral RNA binding activity via interacting with NS5B (49). FKBP8 (39) and hB-ind1 (45) play an important role in recruiting Hsp90 to RC via interacting with NS5A. However, the association of viral protein(s) with the cellular energy-generating system to directly regulate the activity of the RC has not been well understood.

In the present study, the accumulation of CKB, an ATP-generating enzyme, in the HCV RC-rich membrane fraction of viral replicating cells and its importance in replication of the HCV genome and production of infectious virions have been demonstrated. Enzymatic analyses with semi-intact replicon cells and purified NS3-4A protein revealed that CKB enhances the functional replicase and helicase of HCV. Its enhancing effect was observed in the presence of pCr but not in its absence, suggesting that the catalytic activity of CKB is important for enhancing the replicase and

helicase activities. Moreover, we clearly detected a CKB-NS4A complex using anti-tag antibodies in cotransfection experiments, but the endogenous complex could not be immunoprecipitated from cells expressing only endogenous levels of CKB, probably because of the inefficiency of the available antibodies. Further, a deletion of the NS4A-interacting region within an inactive mutant of CKB (CKB-C283S) resulted in the loss of its dominant-negative effect on HCV replication.

Creatine kinase, an evolutionarily conserved enzyme, is known to be critical for the maintenance and regulation of cellular energy stores in tissues with high and rapidly changing energy demands (48). In mammals, three cytosolic and two mitochondrial isoforms of CK, which share certain conserved regions, are expressed (35). The brain-type CK, CKB, plays a major role in cellular energy metabolism of nonmuscle cells, reversibly catalyzing the ATP-dependent phosphorylation of creatine and, hence, providing an ATP buffering system in subcellular compartments of high and fluctuating energy demand (21, 29). CKB is overexpressed in a wide range of tumor tissues and tumor cell lines, including hepatocellular carcinoma (32), and is used as a prognostic marker of cancer.

Although CK and creatine phosphate have been supplemented to in vitro replicase assays of some RNA viruses (15, 33), understanding of CKB function in the virus life cycle has been limited. One study indicated that the CK substrate analog, Ccr, exhibits antiviral activity against several herpesviruses but not influenza viruses or vesicular stomatitis virus (26). We have demonstrated here that HCV genome replication is downregulated by either treatment with Ccr, siRNA-mediated knockdown of CKB, or the exogenous expression of CKB-C283S. Coimmunoprecipitation experiments revealed that the essential domain within NS4A for the interaction with CKB is the NS4A central domain, aa 21 to 39, which is also responsible for NS3-4A complex formation. However, the NS3-4A interaction was not impaired by overexpression of CKB, and CKB was found to be able to form a complex with NS3-4A (Fig. 3H). Since CKB does not directly interact with NS3 (Fig. 3A), it is likely that NS3-4A-CKB association occurs through two interactions of NS3-4A and NS4A-CKB. We examined whether the formation of the ternary complex affects HCV enzymatic activities, possibly through conformational changes in the viral proteins, and found that CKB has no influence on NS3-4A protease activity (Fig. 5C). With regard to helicase activity, the effect of CKB on RNA unwinding activity by NS3-4A was similar to the effect of NS3 alone in the presence of ATP (Fig. 5A). It is conceivable that interaction with CKB causes no or little global change in the NS3-4A conformation and does not affect the viral helicase and protease activities.

In general, translation initiation in eukaryotes includes an ATP-dependent process such as unwinding the secondary structure in the 5′-untranslated region to permit assembly of 48S ribosomal complexes. It was reported, however, that 48S complex formation on the HCV internal ribosome entry site (IRES) has no requirement for ATP hydrolysis (25). In fact, we found that Huh-7 cells with or without gene silencing of CKB exhibited the same level of HCV IRES activity by transfection with IRES-reporter constructs (data not shown).

Collectively, we conclude that CKB is targeted to the HCV RC through its interaction with NS4A and functions as a positive regulator for the viral replicase by providing ATP. It is likely that the catalytic activity of CKB that associates with the viral RC is important for enhancing the RNA replication. The role of CKB-NS4A interaction in the enhancing effect seems to be limited. Although either knocking down CKB, expression of the dominant-negative mutant of CKB, or Ccr treatment resulted in the reduction of HCV replication (Fig. 2A to C), the total cellular ATP levels were not changed under these conditions (Fig. 2D). This suggests that CKB contributes to enhancing HCV replication through controlling the ATP level in the particular RC compartment. A tight coupling of a fast ATP regeneration and delivery system to the viral RC is advantageous for achieving efficient replication of the viral genome. To our knowledge, the findings presented here provide the first experimental evidence of the involvement of viral protein in recruiting an ATP generating/buffering system to the subcellular compartment for viral genome replication, a site with high-energy turnover. Given that the levels of HCV RNA were not dramatically diminished by the knocking down, dominant-negative mutant or Ccr, CKB may not be absolutely critical for the viral replication. One would argue that energy required for HCV genome replication can be partly complemented from the intracellular ATP pool.

Although there are several isoforms of CK as described above, the most abundant CK species expressed in Huh-7 cells in the present study was CKB, and no other isoenzymes, including mitochondrial CK, were detected by an isoform analysis based on the overlay gel technique (32; data not shown). Thus, the CKB isoenzyme appears to be a key molecule in the energy metabolism of HCV replicating cells. To identify potential HCV RC components, we used a comparative proteome analysis of the DRM fraction in cells harboring HCV subgenomic replicon and the DRM fractions in parental cells and then identified proteins that were more abundant in the fraction of HCV replicating cells. In agreement with similar previously reported approaches using the DRM or lipid raft fraction (30, 53), the functional categories of identified proteins included protein folding or assembly, cell metabolism and biosynthesis, cellular processes, and cytoskeleton organization (Table 1). Interestingly, Mannova et al. found that CKB was upregulated in the fraction of Huh-7 cells carrying the genotype 1b Con1 isolate-derived HCV replicon, as determined using stable isotope labeling by amino acids combined with one-dimensional electrophoresis (30). However, the effect of CKB on regulation of the HCV life cycle was not examined in that study.

In conclusion, CKB interacts with HCV NS4A and is important for efficient replication of the viral genome. Recruitment of CKB to the HCV replication machinery through its interaction with NS4A may have important implications for the maintenance or enhancement of the functional replicase activity in the RC compartment, where high-energy phosphoryl groups are required. A strategy for specific interception of energy supply at the subcellular site of HCV genome replication by disruption of the NS4A-CKB interface may lead to development of a new type of antiviral agent.

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Proteasomal Turnover of Hepatitis C Virus Core Protein Is Regulated by Two Distinct Mechanisms: a Ubiquitin-Dependent Mechanism and a Ubiquitin-Independent but PA28γ-Dependent Mechanism▽

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We have previously reported on the ubiquitylation and degradation of hepatitis C virus core protein. Here we demonstrate that proteasomal degradation of the core protein is mediated by two distinct mechanisms. One leads to polyubiquitylation, in which lysine residues in the N-terminal region are preferential ubiquitylation sites. The other is independent of the presence of ubiquitin. Gain- and loss-of-function analyses using lysineless mutants substantiate the hypothesis that the proteasome activator PA28γ, a binding partner of the core, is involved in the ubiquitin-independent degradation of the core protein. Our results suggest that turnover of this multifunctional viral protein can be tightly controlled via dual ubiquitin-dependent and -independent proteasomal pathways.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) core protein, whose amino acid sequence is highly conserved among different HCV strains, not only is involved in the formation of the HCV virion but also has a number of regulatory functions, including modulation of signaling pathways, cellular and viral gene expression, cell transformation, apoptosis, and lipid metabolism (reviewed in references 9 and 15). We have previously reported that the E6AP E3 ubiquitin (Ub) ligase binds to the core protein and plays an important role in polyubiquitylation and proteasomal degradation of the core protein (22). Another study from our group identified the proteasome activator PA28γ/REG-γ as an HCV core-binding partner, demonstrating degradation of the core protein via a PA28γ-dependent pathway (16, 17). In this work, we further investigated the molecular mechanisms underlying proteasomal degradation of the core protein and found that in addition to regulation by the Ub-mediated pathway, the turnover of the core protein is also regulated by PA28γ in a Ub-independent manner.

Although ubiquitylation of substrates generally requires at least one Lys residue to serve as a Ub acceptor site (5), there is no consensus as to the specificity of the Lys targeted by Ub (4, 8). To determine the sites of Ub conjugation in the core protein, we used site-directed mutagenesis to replace individual Lys residues or clusters of Lys residues with Arg residues in the N-terminal 152 amino acids (aa) of the core (C152), within which is contained all seven Lys residues (Fig. 1A). Plasmids expressing a variety of mutated core proteins were generated by PCR and inserted into the pCAGGS (18). Each core-expressing construct was transfected into human embryonic kidney 293T cells along with the pMT107 (25) encoding a Ub moiety tagged with six His residues (His_6). Transfected cells were treated with the proteasome inhibitor MG132 for 14 h to maximize the level of Ub-conjugated core intermediates by blocking the proteasome pathway and were harvested 48 h posttransfection. His_6-tagged proteins were purified from the extracts by Ni^{2+}-chelation chromatography. Eluted protein and whole lysates of transfected cells before purification were analyzed by Western blotting using anticore antibodies (Fig. 1B). Mutations replacing one or two Lys residues with Arg in the core protein did not affect the efficiency of ubiquitylation: detection of multiple Ub-conjugated core intermediates was observed in the mutant core proteins comparable to the results seen with the wild-type core protein as previously reported (23). In contrast, a substitution of four N-terminal Lys residues (C152K6-23R) caused a significant reduction in ubiquitylation (Fig. 1B, lane 9). Multiple Ub-conjugated core intermediates were not detected in the Lys-less mutant (C152KR), in which all seven Lys residues were replaced with Arg (Fig. 1B, lane 11). These results suggest that there is not a particular Lys residue in the core protein to act as the Ub acceptor but that more than one Lys located in its N-terminal region can serve as the preferential ubiquitylation site. In rare cases, Ub is known to be conjugated to the N terminus of proteins; however, these results indicate that this does not occur within the core protein.

To investigate how polyubiquitylation correlates with proteasome degradation of the core protein, we performed kinetic analysis of the wild-type and mutated core proteins by use of the Ub protein reference (UPR) technique, which can compensate for data scatter of sample-to-sample variations such as levels of expression (10, 24). Fusion proteins expressed from UPR-based constructs (Fig. 2A) were cotranslationally cleaved by deubiquitylating enzymes, thereby generating equimolar quantities of the core proteins and the reference protein, dihydrofolate reductase-hemagglutinin (DHFR-HA) tag-modified Ub, in which the Lys at aa 48 was replaced by Arg to prevent its polyubiquitylation (Ub^{R48}). After 24 h of transfec-

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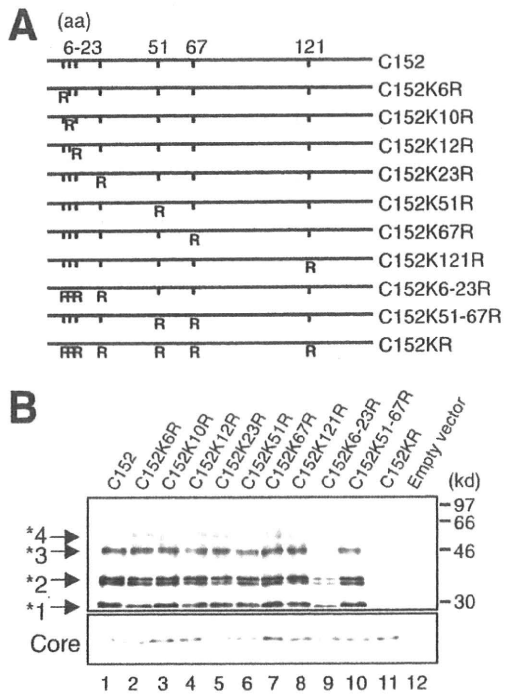

FIG. 1. In vivo ubiquitylation of HCV core protein. (A) The HCV core protein (N-terminal 152 aa) is represented on the top. The positions of the amino acid residues of the core protein are indicated above the bold lines. The positions of the seven Lys residues in the core are marked by vertical ticks. Substitution of Lys with Arg (R) is schematically depicted. (B) Detection of ubiquitylated forms of the core proteins. The transfected cells with core expression plasmids and pMT107 were treated with the proteasome inhibitor MG132 and harvested 48 h after transfection. His_6-tagged proteins were purified and subsequently analyzed by Western blot analysis using anticore antibody (upper panel). Core proteins conjugated to a number of His_6-Ub are denoted with asterisks. Whole lysates of transfected cells before purification were also analyzed (lower panel). Lanes 1 to 11, C152 to C152KR, as indicated for panel A. Lane 12; empty vector.

tion with UPR constructs, cells were treated with cycloheximide and the amounts of core proteins and DHFR-HA-Ub^{R48} at the indicated time points were determined by Western blot analysis using anticore and anti-HA antibodies. The mature form of the core protein, aa 1 to 173 (C173) (13, 20), and C152 were degraded with first-order kinetics (Fig. 2B and D). MG132 completely blocked the degradation of C173 and C152 (Fig. 2B), and C152K6-23R and C152KR were markedly stabilized (Fig. 2C). The half-lives of C173 and C152 were calculated to be 5 to 6 h, whereas those of C152K6-23R and C152KR were calculated to be 22 to 24 h (Fig. 2D), confirming that the Ub plays an important role in regulating degradation of the core protein. Nevertheless, these results also suggest possible involvement of the Ub-independent pathway in the turnover of the core protein, as C152KR is more destabilized than the reference protein (Fig. 2C and 2D).

We have shown that PA28γ specifically binds to the core protein and is involved in its degradation (16, 17). Recent studies demonstrated that PA28γ is responsible for Ub-independent degradation of the steroid receptor coactivator SRC-3 and cell cycle inhibitors such as p21 (3, 11, 12). Thus, we next investigated the possibility of PA28γ involvement in the deg-

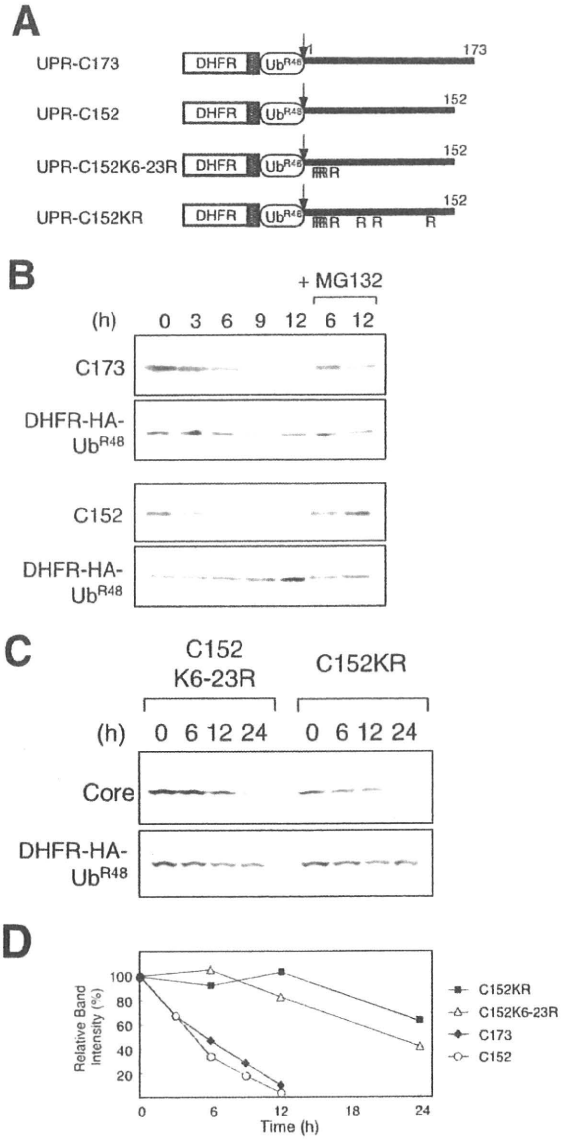

FIG. 2. Kinetic analysis of degradation of HCV core proteins. (A) The fusion constructs used in the UPR technique. Open boxes indicate the DHFR sequence, which is extended at the C terminus by a sequence containing the HA epitope (hatched boxes). Ub^{R48} moieties bearing the Lys-Arg substitution at aa 48 are represented by open ellipses. Bold lines indicate the regions of the core protein. The amino acid positions of the core protein are indicated above the bold lines. The arrows indicate the sites of in vivo cleavage by deubiquitylating enzymes. (B and C) Turnover of the core proteins. After a 24-h transfection with each UPR construct, cells were treated with 50 μg of cycloheximide/ml in the presence or absence of 10 μM MG132 for the different time periods indicated. Cells were lysed at the different time points indicated, followed by evaluation via sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and Western blot analysis using antibodies against the core protein and HA. (D) Quantitation of the data shown in panels B and C. At each time point, the ratio of band intensity of the core protein relative to the reference DHFR-HA-Ub^{R48} was determined by densitometry and is plotted as a percentage of the ratio at time zero.

radation of either C152KR or C152. Since C152KR carries two amino acid substitutions in the PA28γ-binding region (aa 44 to 71) (17), we tested the influence of the mutations of C152KR on the interaction with PA28γ by use of a coimmunoprecipi-

tation assay. When Flag-tagged PA28γ (F-PA28γ) was expressed in cells along with C152 or C152KR, F-PA28γ precipitated along with both C152 and C152KR, indicating that PA28γ interacts with both core proteins (Fig. 3A). Figure 3B reveals the effect of exogenous expression of F-PA28γ on the steady-state levels of C152 and C152KR. Consistent with previous data (17), the expression level of C152 was decreased to a nearly undetectable level in the presence of PA28γ (Fig. 3B, lanes 1 and 3). Interestingly, exogenous expression of PA28γ led to a marked reduction in the amount of C152KR expressed (Fig. 3B, lanes 5 and 7). Treatment with MG132 increased the steady-state level of the C152KR in the presence of F-PA28γ as well as the level of C152 (Fig. 3B, lanes 4 and 8).

We further investigated whether PA28γ affects the turnover of Lys-less core protein through time course experiments. C152KR was rapidly destabilized and almost completely degraded in a 3-h chase experiment using cells overexpressing F-PA28γ (Fig. 3C, left panels). A similar result was obtained using an analogous Lys-less mutant of the full-length core protein C191KR (Fig. 3C, right panels), thus demonstrating that the Lys-less core protein undergoes proteasomal degradation in a PA28γ-dependent manner. These results suggest that PA28γ may play a role in accelerating the turnover of the HCV core protein that is independent of ubiquitylation.

Finally, we examined gain- and loss-of-function of PA28γ with respect to degradation of full-length wild-type (C191) and mutated (C191KR) core proteins in human hepatoma Huh-7 cells. As expected, exogenous expression of PA28γ or E6AP caused a decrease in the C191 steady-state levels (Fig. 4A). In contrast, the C191KR level was decreased with expression of PA28γ but not of E6AP. We further used RNA interference to inhibit expression of PA28γ or E6AP. An increase in the abundance of C191KR was observed with PA28γ small interfering RNA (siRNA) but not with E6AP siRNA (Fig. 4B). An increase in the C191 level caused by the activity of siRNA against PA28γ or E6AP was confirmed as well.

Taking these results together, we conclude that turnover of the core protein is regulated by both Ub-dependent and Ub-independent pathways and that PA28γ is possibly involved in Ub-independent proteasomal degradation of the core protein. PA28 is known to specifically bind and activate the 20S proteasome (19). Thus, PA28γ may function by facilitating the delivery of the core protein to the proteasome in a Ub-independent manner.

Accumulating evidence suggests the existence of proteasome-dependent but Ub-independent pathways for protein degradation, and several important molecules, such as p53, p73, Rb, SRC-3, and the hepatitis B virus X protein, have two distinct degradation pathways that function in a Ub-dependent and Ub-independent manner (1, 2, 6, 7, 14, 21, 27). Recently, critical roles for PA28γ in the Ub-independent pathway have been demonstrated; SRC-3 and p21 can be recognized by the 20S proteasome independently of ubiquitylation through their interaction with PA28γ (3, 11, 12). It has also been reported that phosphorylation-dependent ubiquitylation mediated by GSK3 and SCF is important for SRC-3 turnover (26). Nevertheless, the precise mechanisms underlying turnover of most of the proteasome substrates that are regulated in both Ub-dependent and Ub-independent manners are not well understood. To our knowledge, the HCV core protein is the first

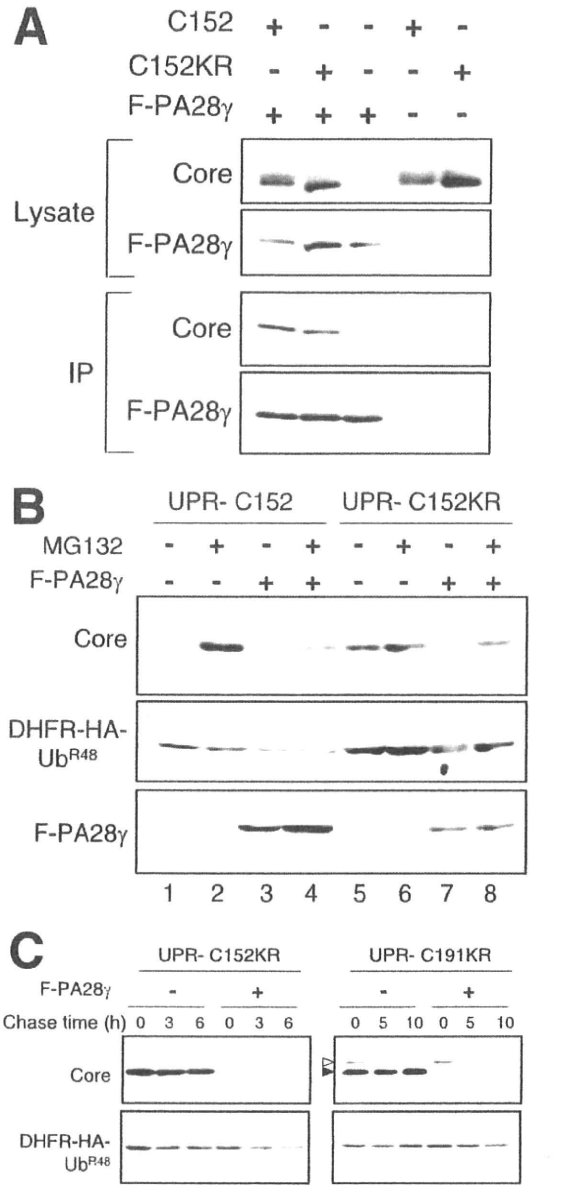

FIG. 3. PA28γ-dependent degradation of the core protein. (A) Interaction of the core protein with PA28γ. Cells were cotransfected with the wild-type (C152) or Lys-less (C152KR) core expression plasmid in the presence of a Flag-PA28γ (F-PA28γ) expression plasmid or an empty vector. The transfected cells were treated with MG132. After 48 h, the cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-Flag antibody and visualized by Western blotting with anticore antibodies. Western blot analysis of whole cell lysates was also performed. (B) Degradation of the wild-type and Lys-less core proteins via the PA28γ-dependent pathway. Cells were transfected with the UPR construct with or without F-PA28γ. In some cases, cells were treated with 10 μM MG132 for 14 h before harvesting. Western blot analysis was performed using anticore, anti-HA, and anti-Flag antibodies. (C) After 24 h of transfection with UPR-C152KR and UPR-C191KR with or without F-PA28γ (an empty vector), cells were treated with 50 μg of cycloheximide/ml for different time periods as indicated (chase time). Western blot analysis was performed using anticore and anti-HA antibodies. The precursor core protein and the core that was processed, presumably by signal peptide peptidase, are denoted by open and closed triangles, respectively.

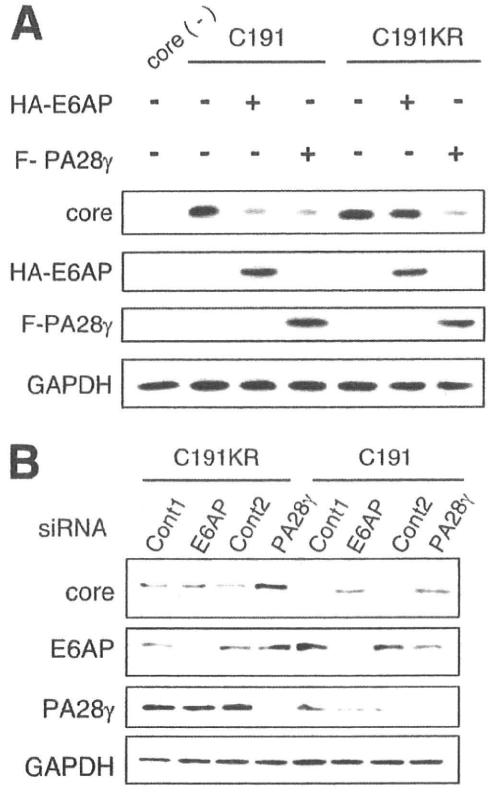

FIG. 4. Ub-dependent and Ub-independent degradation of the full-length core protein in hepatic cells. (A) Huh-7 cells were cotransfected with plasmids for the full-length core protein (C191) or its Lys-less mutant (C191KR) in the presence of F-PA28γ or HA-tagged-E6AP expression plasmid (HA-E6AP). After 48 h, cells were lysed and Western blot analysis was performed using anticore, anti-HA, anti-Flag, or anti-GAPDH. (B) Huh-7 cells were cotransfected with core expression plasmids along with siRNA against PA28γ or E6AP or with negative control siRNA. Cells were harvested 72 h after transfection and subjected to Western blot analysis.

viral protein studied that has led to identification of key cellular factors responsible for proteasomal degradation via dual distinct mechanisms. Although the question remains whether there is a physiological significance of the Ub-dependent and Ub-independent degradation of the core protein, it is reasonable to consider that tight control over cellular levels of the core protein, which is multifunctional and essential for viral replication, maturation, and pathogenesis, may play an important role in representing the potential for its functional activity.

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Intramembrane Processing by Signal Peptide Peptidase Regulates the Membrane Localization of Hepatitis C Virus Core Protein and Viral Propagation▽

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Hepatitis C virus (HCV) core protein has shown to be localized in the detergent-resistant membrane (DRM), which is distinct from the classical raft fraction including caveolin, although the biological significance of the DRM localization of the core protein has not been determined. The HCV core protein is cleaved off from a precursor polyprotein at the lumen side of Ala[191] by signal peptidase and is then further processed by signal peptide peptidase (SPP) within the transmembrane region. In this study, we examined the role of SPP in the localization of the HCV core protein in the DRM and in viral propagation. The C terminus of the HCV core protein cleaved by SPP in 293T cells was identified as Phe[177] by mass spectrometry. Mutations introduced into two residues (Ile[176] and Phe[177]) upstream of the cleavage site of the core protein abrogated processing by SPP and localization in the DRM fraction. Expression of a dominant-negative SPP or treatment with an SPP inhibitor, L685,458, resulted in reductions in the levels of processed core protein localized in the DRM fraction. The production of HCV RNA in cells persistently infected with strain JFH-1 was impaired by treatment with the SPP inhibitor. Furthermore, mutant JFH-1 viruses bearing SPP-resistant mutations in the core protein failed to propagate in a permissive cell line. These results suggest that intramembrane processing of HCV core protein by SPP is required for the localization of the HCV core protein in the DRM and for viral propagation.

The hepatitis C virus (HCV), which has infected an estimated 170 million people worldwide, leads to chronic hepatitis, which in turn causes severe liver diseases, including steatosis, cirrhosis, and eventually hepatocellular carcinoma (47). HCV possesses a positive-sense single-stranded RNA with a nucleotide length of 9.6 kb, which encodes a single large precursor polyprotein composed of about 3,000 amino acids. The viral polyprotein is processed by cellular and viral proteases into structural and nonstructural proteins (24). The development of efficient therapies for hepatitis C had been hampered by the lack of a reliable cell culture system, as well as by the absence of a small-animal model. Lohmann et al. established an HCV replicon, which consisted of an antibiotic selection marker and a genotype 1b HCV RNA, and showed that it replicated autonomously in the intracellular compartments of a human hepatoma cell line, Huh7 (16). The replicon system has been used as an important tool in the investigation of HCV replication, and it has served as a cell-based assay system for the evaluation of antiviral compounds. Recently, cell culture systems for in vitro replication and infectious-virus production were established based on the full-length HCV genome of a genotype 2a isolate, which was recovered from a fulminant hepatitis C patient (15, 45, 50). However, the molecular mechanism of the HCV life cycle in host cells has not been well characterized.

Several viruses have been reported to utilize a lipid raft composed of cholesterol and sphingolipids upon entry (34). The lipid raft is characterized by resistance to nonionic detergents at 4°C and includes caveolin, glycolipids, and other substances (40). Several nonenveloped viruses enter cells through a caveola/raft-mediated endosome, designated the caveosome, and then translocate to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), endosome, or nucleus (34, 35), although enveloped viruses generally enter host cells through a clathrin-dependent pathway (18). HCV is enclosed by a host cell-derived membrane and belongs to the family *Flaviviridae*. Several reports suggest that HCV enters host cells through general endocytosis, such as by a clathrin-mediated pathway (5, 6, 22). However, HCV has been suggested to replicate on a detergent-resistant membrane (DRM), including some characteristic membrane structures such as lipid rafts and membranous webs (8, 9, 38). In a previous report, an HCV replication complex prepared from a cell fraction treated with a nonionic detergent was shown to be enzymatically active (2). HCV nonstructural proteins remodel the intracellular membrane to form a replication complex that includes several host proteins (8, 46). The HCV core protein has a C-terminal transmembrane region that is anchored on intracellular compartments such as the ER and mitochondria and on the surfaces of lipid droplets (10, 30, 42). Recent studies have indicated that assembly of HCV particles occurs around lipid droplets that are surrounded by the remodeled membranes (23). Although the HCV core protein functions as a capsid protein, it is found in the DRM fraction, which is

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distinct from the classical lipid rafts (20). However, the biological function of the HCV core protein localized in the DRM has not been clarified.

The HCV core protein is cleaved from a precursor polyprotein by a signal peptidase (SP) to liberate it from the envelope protein E1 and is then further processed by a signal peptide peptidase (SPP) (21). However, the biological significance of the intramembrane processing of the HCV core protein by SPP remains largely unknown. Furthermore, the C-terminal end of the mature HCV core protein expressed in insect cells has been reported to be Phe^{177} or Leu^{179} (12, 29), while that in mammalian cells has not been determined. Expression of SPP enhanced the accumulation of nonenveloped nucleocapsid and reduced that of enveloped nucleocapsid in yeast cells, suggesting that maturation of core protein is carried out after the formation of enveloped particles (17). However, the effect of SPP cleavage on viral assembly in mammalian cells has not been well characterized. Randall et al. have reported that introduction of a small interfering RNA targeted to SPP reduced the production of infectious HCV particles (36), suggesting that SPP is required for the production of HCV particles. In this study, we determined the cleavage site of the mature HCV core protein expressed in human cells and examined the biological significance of the intramembrane processing of the core protein by SPP for the localization of the core protein in the DRM and the production of infectious particles.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines and HCV infection. HCV subgenomic RNA was removed from the replicon cell line 9-13 (16) by treatment with alpha interferon. A cell line that was highly permissive for JFH-1 infection was cloned from the resulting crude populations by the limited-dilution method and designated Huh7OK1 (32). The Huh7OK1 cell line retained the ability to produce type I interferons through the RIG-I-dependent signaling pathway upon infection with RNA viruses and exhibited a cell surface expression level of human CD81 comparable to that of the parental cell line. The detailed characteristics of this cell line will be described in a future communication. The HuhOK1 and Huh7.5.1 cell lines (the latter was kindly provided by F. Chisari) and the human embryonic kidney cell line 293T were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and nonessential amino acids (Sigma, St. Louis, MO). Huh7OK1 or Huh7.5.1 cells were infected with HCV strain JFH-1 as described by Wakita et al. (45). The plasmid carrying strain JFH-1 cDNA under the control of the polI promoter (19) was transfected into Huh7OK1 or Huh7.5.1 cells, and propagation of the JFH-1 virus was determined by the production of HCV core protein (as described below) and by the titration of infectious particles (39). The persistently infected Huh7OK1 cells were maintained under normal conditions after 8 passages before use. The 9-13 cell line, which possesses an HCV subgenomic replicon (16), was cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and 1 mg/ml G418.

Plasmids. Genes encoding the N-terminally FLAG-tagged and/or C-terminally hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged core proteins derived from the HCV genotype 1b strain J1 or its mutants were introduced into plasmid vector pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) as described previously (30). Each insert gene was transferred into a pCAGGS vector (28) at the PmeI site. The resulting plasmids encoded the HCV core protein (amino acid residues 1 to 191) with or without FLAG and HA tags at the N and C termini, respectively. All of the core proteins with these tags (FLAG-core-HA proteins) had a mutation of Ala^{191} to Arg in order to prevent cleavage by the SP (7). Plasmid pHH21/JFH-1, carrying a full genomic cDNA of strain JFH-1 under the control of the polI promoter, was used to produce the infectious JFH-1 virus (19). An adaptive mutation of Leu to Val at amino acid position 758 in the p7 region was introduced during a long-term passage of the JFH-1 virus into Huh7.5.1 cells (data not shown). To improve the replication efficiency of the JFH-1 virus, a mutation of Leu to Val was introduced into pHH21/JFH-1 by site-directed mutagenesis, and the resulting plasmid was designated pHH21/JFH-1/L758V. To generate plasmids encoding the mutant JFH-1 viruses, the following substitutions were introduced into pHH21/JFH-1/L758V: Val^{139}, Val^{140}, and Leu^{144} were replaced with Ala (JFH-1/VVL/3A); $Ile^{176}$and Phe^{177} were replaced with Ala and Leu, respectively (JFH-1/IF/AL); Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} were replaced with Val, Leu, and Val, respectively (JFH-1/ASC/VLV); and Asp^{2736} was replaced with Asn (JFH-1/GND).

Antibodies and reagents. Antisera against HCV genotype 1 or 2a core proteins were raised in rabbits by immunization with peptides corresponding to the region spanning residues 103 to 115, conserved among genotypes 1a and 1b, or to the region from residue 101 to 119 of genotype 2a (strain JFH-1). These peptides were synthesized and conjugated with keyhole limpet hemocyanin (Scrum Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Antisera were purified with an affinity column conjugated with the antigenic peptides. A monoclonal antibody to HCV NS5A (5A27) was prepared from BALB/c mice (CLEA Japan, Tokyo, Japan) immunized with the recombinant domain I of NS5A by a method described previously (31). Antibodies to caveolin-1, calreticulin, and the FLAG tag (M2) were purchased from Sigma. Antibodies to the HA tag and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) were purchased from Babco (Richmond, CA) and Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA), respectively. The aspartic protease inhibitors $(Z\text{-}LL)_2$ ketone and L685,458 were purchased from the Peptide Institute (Osaka, Japan). These inhibitors were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide and stored at −20°C until use.

Transfection, SDS-PAGE, and Western blotting. Huh7.5.1 and 293T cells were transfected with plasmids by lipofection with *Trans* IT LT-1 (Mirus, Madison, WI) and Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen), respectively, according to the manufacturers' protocols. Cells were lysed on ice in Triton lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 135 mM NaCl, 1% Triton-X 100, 10% glycerol) supplemented with a protease inhibitor mix (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) at 24 or 48 h after transfection and were then subjected to sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) using Tris-glycine buffer and Western blotting using appropriate antibodies as previously described (30). The stained protein bands were visualized using the SuperSignal West Femto enhanced-chemiluminescence substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL) and an LAS3000 imaging system (Fuji Photo Film, Tokyo, Japan).

Determination of the expression of the C terminus of the mature HCV core protein in mammalian cells. Two million 293T cells cultured in a collagen-coated dish (diameter, 10 cm) were transfected with pCAGGS-FLAG-core (26) by lipofection, harvested at 20 h posttransfection with a rubber policeman after two washes with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and collected by centrifugation at 1,000 × *g* for 5 min. The cells were lysed with 0.1 ml of triple-detergent lysis buffer (45 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4] containing 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 135 mM NaCl, and a protease inhibitor mix [Nacalai Tesque]) (24). The lysate was stored at −80°C until use. The lysate was thawed on ice and then centrifuged at 20,000 × *g* for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was mixed with 20 μl of 50% (vol/vol) anti-FLAG M2 affinity gel (Sigma) and then rotated at 4°C for 90 min. The gel beads were washed with the triple-detergent lysis buffer and then suspended in 30 μl of the loading buffer. The suspended gel beads were boiled for 5 min and then centrifuged at 20,000 × *g* for 5 min at room temperature. The resulting supernatant was subjected to SDS-PAGE, and the gel was stained with Sypro Ruby dye (Invitrogen). The portion of the gel including proteins with an expected molecular size of 20 kDa was excised from the stained gel, washed twice with 200 μl of 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 dissolved in 50% acetonitrile (vol/vol), and then immersed in 100 μl of 100% acetonitrile for dehydration. The dehydrated gel was incubated in 10 mM dithiothreitol and 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 at 56°C for 1 h. To prevent the digestion of Cys residues at the C termini by endoproteinase Asp-N, alkylation of the gels was carried out in 55 mM iodoacetamide and 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 at 25°C for 45 min in the dark. Finally, gel pieces were washed twice with 100 mM ammonium carbonate dissolved in acetonitrile and were dried completely before digestion. An immersed volume of endoproteinase Asp-N solution (10 μg/ml Asp-N and 50 mM NH_4HCO_3) was added to the dried gel and incubated at 37°C overnight, and the supernatant (the digested solution) after centrifugation was transferred to a new centrifuge tube. The precipitated gels were washed first with 20 μl of 20 mM NH_4HCO_3 and then with 20 μl of 50% (vol/vol) acetonitrile in 5% (vol/vol) formic acid, and the washed solutions were mixed with the digested solution and dried completely under a vacuum. The digested mixtures were applied to a ZipTip C_{18} column (Millipore, Tokyo, Japan). After a wash with 0.1% (vol/vol) trifluoroacetic acid, the peptides were eluted with 1 μl of 0.1% (vol/vol) trifluoroacetic acid dissolved in 75% (vol/vol) acetonitrile. Samples with 10 mg of 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid per ml of 33% acetonitrile matrix were analyzed by matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization–time-of-flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) using a MALDI-quadrupole-TOF tandem MS (MS-MS) QStar Pulsar *i* system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) in the linear positive-ion mode following the method of Hitachi Science Systems (Ibaraki, Japan).

Flotation assay. The flotation assay was carried out according to the method of Lecat et al. (14). Briefly, 10 million transfected or infected cells were washed with ice-cold PBS and then harvested with a rubber policeman. Collected cells were suspended in 0.6 ml of TNE buffer (25 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4] containing 150 mM NaCl, a protease inhibitor mix [Nacalai Tesque], and 5 mM EDTA) and then homogenated with a Dounce homogenizer or suspended with a 24-gauge needle. Each homogenate was incubated for 30 min on ice with or without 1% Triton X-100. The lysates were mixed with 0.4 ml of Optiprep (Sigma) to a final concentration of 40%. This mixture was overlaid with 1.2 ml of 30%, 1.2 ml of 25%, and 0.8 ml of 5% Optiprep and was then centrifuged at 42,000 rpm and 4°C for 5 h in an SW50 rotor (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA). Each fraction was collected as 0.4 ml from the top of the centrifuging tube and was then precipitated with 4 volumes of cold acetone. The pellets were resolved in the loading buffer, boiled, and then subjected to SDS-PAGE and Western blotting. The fractions containing calreticulin, which is resident in the ER, in the absence and presence of the detergent were defined as the membrane and detergent-soluble fractions, respectively. In the presence of the detergent, the fractions with caveolin-1 were defined as the detergent-resistant fractions.

Quantitative real-time PCR. Total RNA was prepared from Huh7OK1 cells persistently infected with the JFH-1 virus or 9-13 cells by using an RNeasy minikit (Qiagen, Tokyo, Japan). The HCV genomic RNA was reverse transcribed and amplified by using a TaqMan EZ RT-PCR reagent kit (Applied Biosystems) with sense (5′-GAG TGT CGT GCA GCC TCC A-3′) and antisense (5′-CAC TCG CAA GCA CCC TAT CA-3′) primers corresponding to nucleotides 98 to 116 and 294 to 313, respectively. The kinetics of cDNA amplification were monitored by an ABI Prism 7000 sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems) using a reporter probe corresponding to nucleotides 238 to 267 of the 5′-conserved region for the HCV genotypes (5′-GCC CGC AAG ACT GCT AGC CGA GTA GTG TTG G-3′) conjugated with 6-carboxyfluorescein and 6-carboxytetramethylrhodamine at the 5′ and 3′ termini, respectively. A serial dilution of the partial HCV RNA synthesized by in vitro transcription from plasmids encoding the 5′-terminal region of HCV cDNA under the control of a T7 promoter was used as the standard for HCV genomic RNA. Intracellular GAPDH mRNA was also amplified using the TaqMan Pre-Developed Assay Reagent human GAPDH (Applied Biosystems). The values for HCV genomic RNA were normalized to those for GAPDH mRNA.

Quantitative detection of HCV core protein by ELISA. HCV core protein was quantified by using an Ortho HCV antigen enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Ortho Clinical Diagnostics, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Huh7.5.1 cells were transfected with pHH21/JFH-1/L758V or its mutants by lipofection. Cells and culture supernatants were harvested at 2, 4, 6, or 8 days after transfection. To determine the amounts of the intracellular core protein, cells were lysed with Triton lysis buffer on ice and subjected to the ELISA after 100- to 10,000-fold dilutions with PBS. Total protein levels were determined with a Micro BCA protein assay reagent kit (Pierce). Amounts of intracellular and extracellular core protein were normalized to total-protein amounts.

Immunofluorescent assay. Transfected Huh7.5.1 cells were fixed with a cold acetone-and-methanol mixture (50:50, vol/vol). After being blocked with 1% normal goat serum, cells were incubated with a mouse monoclonal antibody to NS5A at 4°C for 16 h, washed three times with PBS containing 0.5% Tween 20, and then incubated with an Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated antibody to mouse immunoglobulin G (Invitrogen). Cell nuclei were stained with Hoechst dye. The stained cells were washed three times with PBS containing 0.5% Tween 20 and then observed with a FluoView FV1000 laser scanning confocal microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

RESULTS

Mutation in the HCV core protein confers resistance to SPP cleavage. Amino acid residues Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} of the HCV core protein have been shown by others to be essential for intramembrane processing by SPP (10, 21), although our data suggested that Ile^{176} and Phe^{177}, but not Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184}, were required for the processing of the HCV core protein by SPP (30). To clarify this discrepancy, we constructed an N-terminally FLAG-tagged and C-terminally HA-tagged wild-type HCV core protein and similarly tagged mutant core proteins in which Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} were replaced with Val, Leu, and Val, respectively (referred to below as Core ASC/VLV, or M1) (21), or Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} were replaced with Ala and Leu, respectively (referred to below as Core IF/AL, or M2) (30). We then expressed these core proteins in 293T cells (Fig. 1). Ala^{191} was replaced with Arg in these FLAG-core-HA constructs to prevent cleavage by SP (7), and only the SPP-resistant core protein was detected by an anti-HA

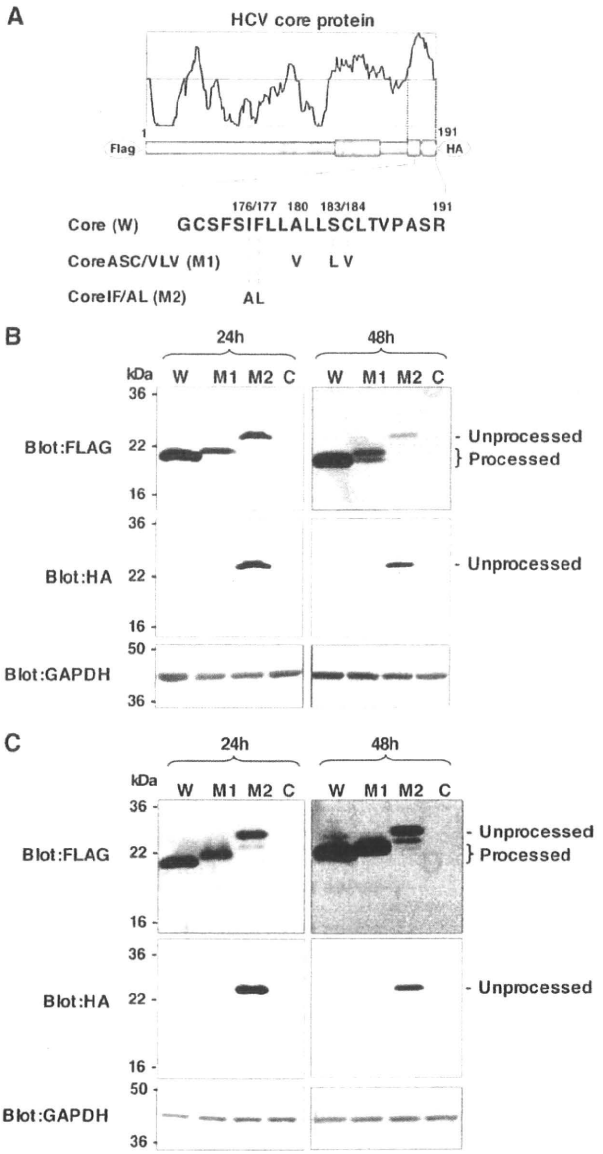
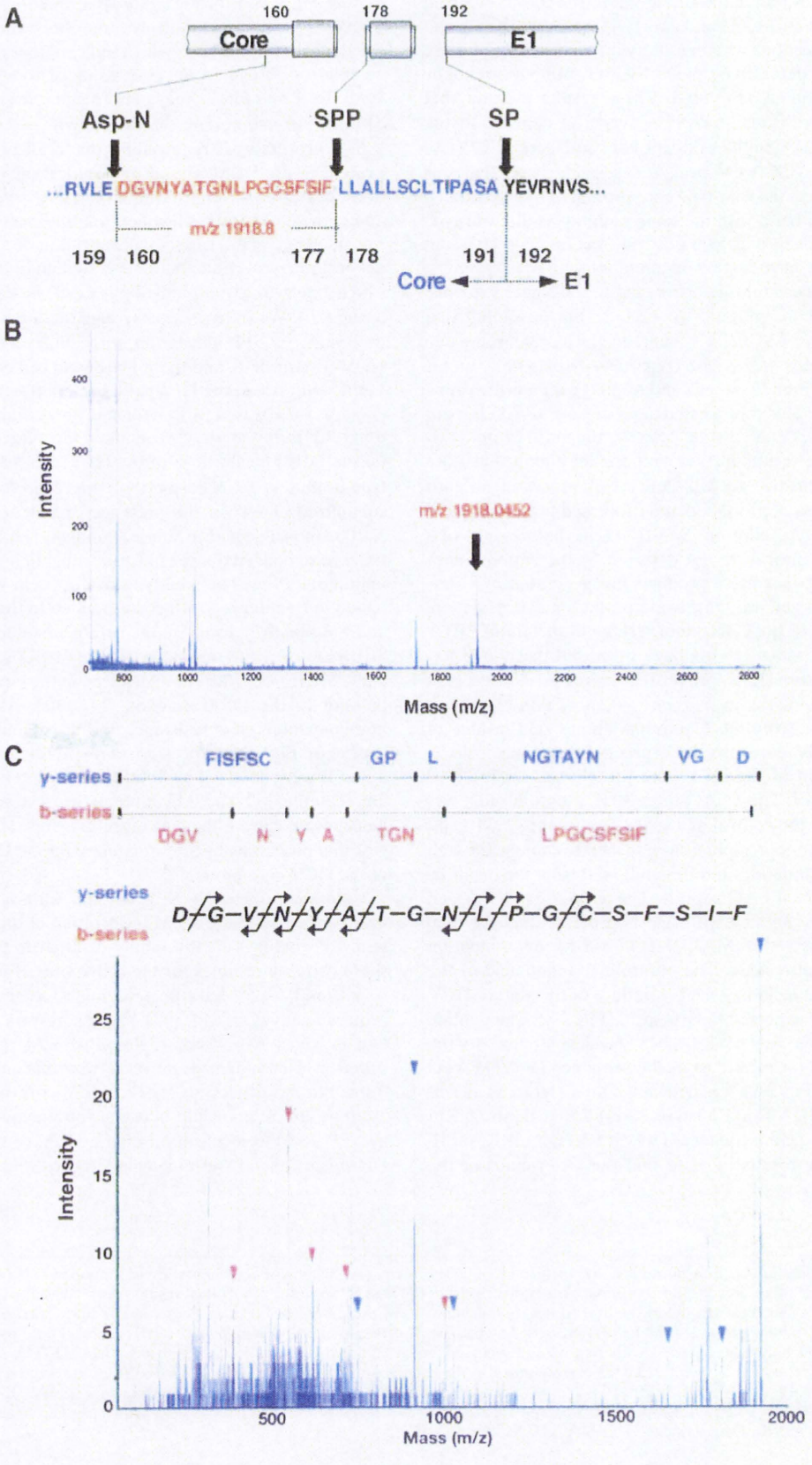


FIG. 1. Effects of mutations in the HCV core protein on cleavage by SPP. (A) cDNA constructs encoding the N-terminally FLAG- and C-terminally HA-tagged wild-type HCV core protein (W), Core ASC/VLV (M1), and Core IF/AL (M2). The Ala at amino acid residue 191 of all constructs was mutated to Arg in order to prevent the processing of an HA tag by SP. (B) Each of the core constructs or an empty vector (lane C) was transfected into 293T cells. Cell lysates harvested at 24 or 48 h posttransfection were subjected to Western blotting using antibodies against the indicated proteins. (C) Cells transfected with each of the core constructs or an empty vector were treated with 15 μM MG132 for 5 h and examined as described for panel B.



antibody in this experimental setting. Core IF/AL was detected in cells by both anti-FLAG and anti-HA antibodies at 24 h and 48 h posttransfection, whereas the wild-type core and Core ASC/VLV were detected by an anti-FLAG antibody but not by an anti-HA antibody (Fig. 1B). These results indicate that Core IF/AL is resistant to SPP cleavage, in contrast to the complete processing of the wild-type core and Core ASC/VLV. Although Core ASC/VLV exhibited a single band that was slightly larger than the wild-type core protein at 24 h posttransfection, an extra band with the same mobility as the wild-type core protein appeared at 48 h posttransfection (Fig. 1B), suggesting that the introduction of mutations in Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} induces multiple processing in the signal sequence of the mutant core protein. To exclude the possibility that unprocessed Core ASC/VLV is degraded by a proteasome due to misfolding, each of the core constructs or the empty vector was transfected into 293T cells and treated with a proteasome inhibitor for 5 h. The unprocessed band of Core IF/AL, but not that of Core ASC/VLV, was detected by the anti-HA antibody (Fig. 1C). These results further support the notion that Core ASC/VLV is sensitive to SPP-dependent processing. Bands observed between unprocessed and processed proteins in cells expressing wild-type core or Core IF/AL in the presence of a proteasome inhibitor were not detected by the anti-HA antibody, suggesting that these products are generated by C-terminal truncation and are sensitive to proteasome degradation.

Identification of the C-terminal residue of the mature HCV core protein. Previous reports have suggested that the C terminus of the mature HCV core protein expressed in insect cells by using a baculovirus expression system is Phe^{177} (29) or Leu^{179} (12). To clarify the C-terminal amino acid residue of the mature HCV core protein expressed in human cells, a purified fragment of the HCV core protein was analyzed by MALDI-TOF MS. The FLAG-tagged HCV core protein was expressed under the control of a CAG promoter in 293T cells, purified by immunoprecipitation with beads conjugated with the anti-FLAG antibody, and then released from the beads by the addition of free FLAG peptide. The purified FLAG-tagged core protein was digested with Asp-N protease, and the final sample was subjected to MALDI-TOF MS for determination of the C-terminal residue. The N-terminal amino acid of the peptide fragment including the C terminus of the mature HCV core protein was expected to be Asp^{160} (Fig. 2A). The peptide fragment with an *m/z* of 1,918.0452, which is close to the calculated value (*m/z* 1,918.8) of the sequence DGVNYATG NLPGCSFSIF (Fig. 2A), was detected, and no larger peak was evident (Fig. 2B). MS-MS analysis showed that the fragment has the amino acid sequence DGVNYATGNLPGCSFSIF (Fig. 2C). These results indicate that the C terminus of the mature HCV core protein expressed in human cells is Phe^{177}. This is consistent with our previous observation (30) and with the data shown in Fig. 1, which indicate that the M2 mutation completely abrogated the processing of core protein by SPP. Both Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} may play crucial roles in recognition by SPP for intramembrane cleaving activity.

SPP processing is required for the localization of HCV core protein in the DRM. Based on confocal microscopy observations, Matto et al. reported that the HCV core protein associates with a DRM that is distinct from the classical raft fraction, as evidenced by the lack of colocalization of typical raft markers, including caveolin-1 and the B subunit of the cholera toxin, which binds to glycosphingolipid GM1 in the plasma membrane (20). We have previously suggested that intramembrane processing by SPP affects the intracellular localization of the HCV core protein, and the replacement of Leu^{139}, Val^{140}, and Leu^{144} with Ala in the HCV core protein (Core LVL/3A [M3]) (Fig. 3A) abrogated SPP-mediated processing and ER retention (30). In this study, we examined the effect of SPP cleavage on the DRM localization of the HCV core protein. The wild-type or mutant HCV core protein was expressed in 293T cells, solubilized at 4°C in the presence or absence of 1% Triton X-100, and subjected to sucrose gradient centrifugation. Fractions were collected after ultracentrifugation and analyzed by immunoblotting. The wild-type core protein was partially detected in fraction 3, which corresponded to the DRM fraction, and was mainly detected in the detergent-soluble fraction (Fig. 3B). However, the mutant core proteins Core LVL/3A (M3) and Core IF/AL (M2) were localized in the membrane fraction but not in the DRM fraction (Fig. 3B). Although the M2 mutant exhibits clear resistance to SPP-dependent cleavage, as shown in Fig. 1B, processed core proteins of M2 and M3 mutants were detected by flotation analyses (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the M2 and M3 mutants are cleaved by unknown mechanisms during the concentration step. These results suggest that processing by SPP is required for the DRM localization of the HCV core protein.

A dominant-negative SPP mutant inhibits the intramembrane processing and DRM localization of the HCV core protein. SPP belongs to the family of aspartic proteases, which share two Asp residues for the active sites of protease activity. Asp^{219} and Asp^{264} have been identified as active sites for the protease activity of SPP (48). Overexpression of the SPP mutant in which Asp^{219} was replaced with Ala (SPPD219A) resulted in a dominant-negative activity that prevented the intramembrane processing of the HCV core protein (30). To examine the relationship between intramembrane processing by SPP and the localization of the HCV core protein in the DRM fraction, a C-terminally HA-tagged wild-type (SPP-HA)

FIG. 2. Determination of the C termini of the mature HCV core protein. (A) Schematic representation of the junction between the core and E1 proteins. The cleavage sites for the exogenous Asp-N protease and the host SP were the N-terminal residue Asp^{160} and the C-terminal residue Ala^{191}, respectively. The cleavage site of the host SPP was determined to be the C-terminal residue Phe^{177} in this study. The expected *m/z* of the peptide fragment (spanning residues 160 to 177) processed by the Asp-N protease and SPP is indicated. (B) The FLAG-core protein was purified with an anti-FLAG antibody, digested with Asp-N, and analyzed on a 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid matrix by MALDI-TOF MS in the linear positive-ion mode. The peak at *m/z* 1,918.0452 corresponded to the expected fragment (*m/z* 1,918.8) derived from the Asp-N- and SPP-digested core protein, DGVNYATGNLPGCSFSIF. (C) The peak at *m/z* 1,918.0452 was subjected to MS-MS analysis with a MALDI-Qq-TOF MS-MS QStar Pulsar *i* system. The resulting spectrum was applied to MASCOT to determine the amino acid sequence. The analyzed peak at *m/z* 1,918.0452 corresponded to the sequence DGVNYATGNLPGCSFSIF.

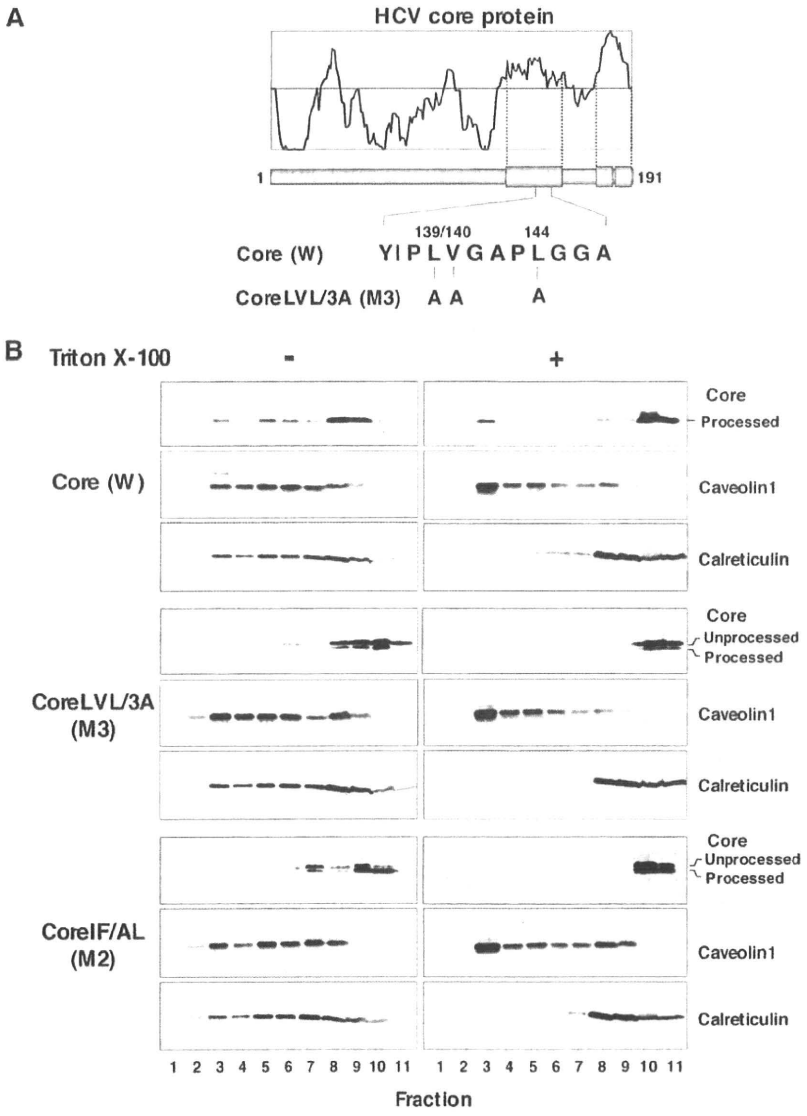


FIG. 3. HCV core protein partially migrates to the DRM after SPP processing. (A) cDNAs encoding authentic wild-type (W) and Core LVL/3A (M3) HCV core proteins. (B) Each plasmid was transfected into 293T cells, lysed with or without 1% Triton X-100, and then subjected to a flotation assay. Proteins in each fraction were concentrated with cold acetone and then subjected to Western blotting using antibodies against core protein, caveolin-1, and calreticulin. Membrane (left panels, lanes 1 to 9), DRM (right panels, lanes 1 to 7), and detergent-soluble (right panels, lanes 8 to 11) fractions were identified based on the localization of the marker proteins.

or D219A mutant (SPPD219A-HA) SPP was coexpressed with FLAG-core-HA in 293T cells (Fig. 4A). Overexpression of SPP-HA showed no effect on the localization of the HCV core protein, and the processed HCV core protein was partially localized in the DRM fraction (Fig. 4B, left). In contrast, overexpression of SPPD219A-HA inhibited the processing of the HCV core protein by endogenous SPP, and the level of unprocessed core protein, which was detected in the detergent-soluble fraction but not in the DRM fraction, was increased, whereas part of the processed core protein was localized in the DRM fraction (Fig. 4B, right). These results suggest that SPP cleavage is a prerequisite for the localization of HCV core protein in the DRM fraction. We have previously shown that the HCV core protein is degraded through proteasome pathways (26, 39, 43). To rule out the possibility of proteasome-dependent degradation of the unprocessed HCV core protein in the DRM fraction, we examined the effect of the proteasome inhibitor MG132 on the localization of HCV core protein. The processed HCV core protein, but not the unprocessed core protein, was partially localized in the DRM fraction, irrespective of treatment with MG132 (Fig. 4C). These results indicate that the failure of the unprocessed HCV core protein to localize in the DRM fraction was not due to selective degradation of the unprocessed core protein by proteasomes.

An SPP inhibitor prevents the processing of HCV core protein and its localization in the DRM. To further assess the role

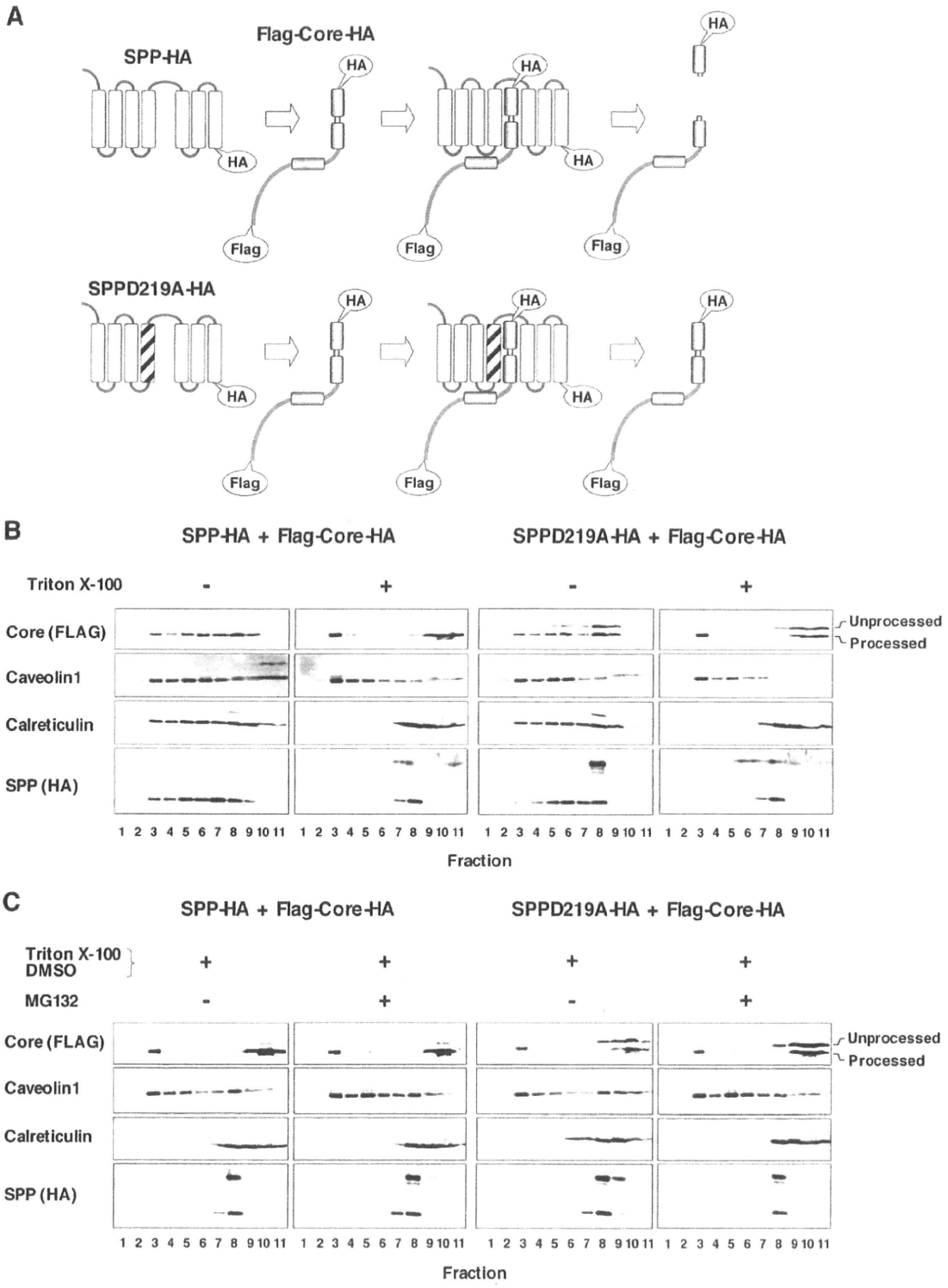


FIG. 4. The dominant-negative mutant of SPP prevents the cleavage of HCV core protein by SPP and its localization in the DRM. (A) Schematic representation of the processing of FLAG-core-HA by a wild-type SPP (SPP-HA) (top) and the dominant-negative effect of SPPD219A-HA (bottom). (B) FLAG-core-HA was coexpressed with SPP-HA or SPPD219A-HA in 293T cells, lysed in the presence or absence of detergent, and subjected to a flotation assay. (C) Effect of a proteasome inhibitor, MG132, on the DRM localization of the HCV core protein. Proteins in each fraction were concentrated with acetone and analyzed by immunoblotting using antibodies against the FLAG epitope tag, caveolin-1, calreticulin, and the HA epitope tag. The membrane (lanes 1 to 9 in the absence of Triton X-100), DRM (lanes 1 to 7 in the presence of Triton X-100), and detergent-soluble (lanes 8 to 11 in the presence of Triton X-100) fractions were identified based on the localization of the marker proteins.

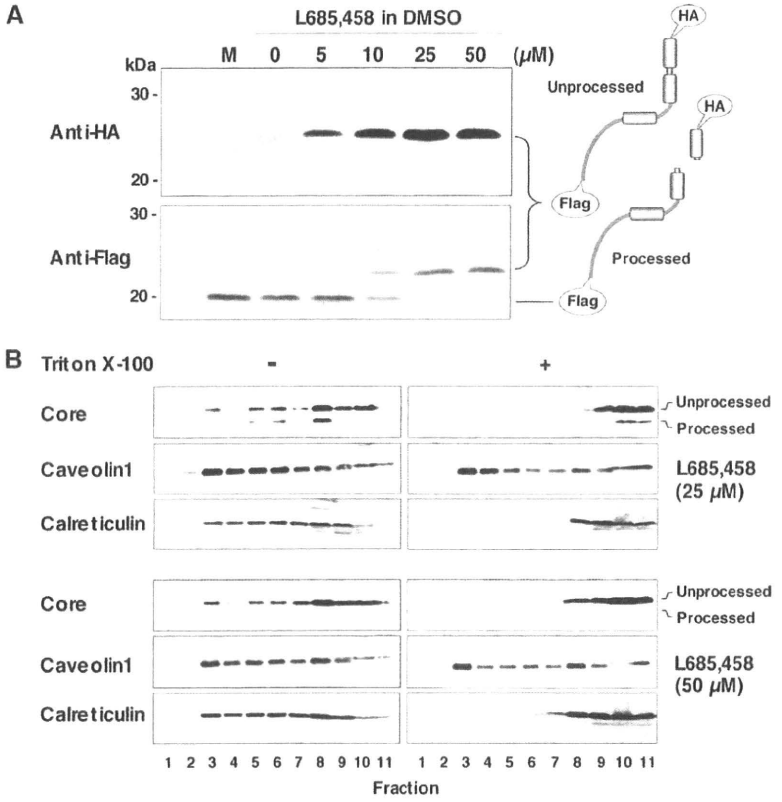


FIG. 5. Effect of an SPP inhibitor on the cleavage of HCV core protein by SPP. The HCV core protein was expressed in 293T cells, and L685,458 was added to the culture supernatant, at the indicated concentrations, at 5 h posttransfection. Cells harvested at 29 h posttransfection were lysed with 1% Triton X-100 and subjected to Western blotting (A) or a flotation assay (B). DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide. In the flotation assay, proteins in each fraction were concentrated with acetone and analyzed by immunoblotting using antibodies against core protein, caveolin-1, and calreticulin. The membrane (left panels, lanes 1 to 9), DRM (right panels, lanes 1 to 7), and detergent-soluble (right panels, lanes 8 to 11) fractions were identified based on the localization of the marker proteins.

of intramembrane processing by SPP on the localization of HCV core protein in the DRM, we examined the effect of the SPP inhibitors $(Z\text{-}LL)_2$ ketone and L685,458 on the processing of the HCV core protein. Although $(Z\text{-}LL)_2$ ketone was insoluble at a concentration of 10 μM and was highly toxic to 293T, Huh7, and Huh7-derived cell lines (data not shown), L685,458 was capable of penetrating the plasma membrane (49) and showed no visible cytotoxicity to the cell lines examined. Treatment with L685,458 inhibited the cleavage of the HCV core protein by SPP in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 5A). As determined by flotation analyses of 293T cells expressing HCV core protein, the processed core protein was no longer localized in the DRM fraction following treatment with 25 or 50 μM L685,458 (Fig. 5B). These results further support the notion that intramembrane processing by SPP is required for the localization of HCV core protein in the DRM.

Processing of the HCV core protein by SPP participates in viral propagation. To examine the effect of the processing of the HCV core protein by SPP on the propagation of strain JFH-1, Huh7OK1 cells persistently infected with the JFH-1 virus were treated with 25 μM L685,458, and the cells were examined for processing of the HCV core protein and replication of viral RNA. The processed core protein of strain JFH-1 was clearly detected in the DRM fraction in untreated control cells, whereas processing of the core protein was impaired by treatment with L685,458, corresponding to the decrease in the level of processed core protein in the DRM (Fig. 6A). In Huh7OK1 cells infected with strain JFH-1, intracellular viral RNA levels were reduced 30% by treatment with L685,458 at 2 days posttreatment but showed no reduction at 1 day (Fig. 6B, left), and viral RNA levels in the culture supernatant were reduced 60% to 70% by treatment with the compound at 1 and 2 days posttreatment (Fig. 6B, center). To exclude the possibility of deleterious effects of L685,458 on cellular proteins involved in viral replication, we determined the effect of L685,458 on viral RNA replication by using HCV subgenomic-replicon cells. The replication of the RNA lacking the region coding for structural proteins showed a slight enhancement rather than suppression at 1 and 2 days after treatment with L685,485 (Fig. 6B, right), suggesting that the SPP inhibitor treatment used in this study is not toxic to the cellular proteins involved in HCV RNA replication. The slight decrease in the level of intracellular HCV RNA in infected cells after treatment with L685,458 (Fig. 6B, left), but not in replicon cells, may be attributable to the ER stress induced by the accumulation of unprocessed core proteins in infected cells.

Although no effect of the inhibitor treatment on the expression of the intracellular core was observed, the secretion of core protein was slightly reduced (Fig. 6C). Furthermore, the production of infectious viral particles in the culture supernatants was clearly impaired by treatment with the SPP inhibitor (Fig. 6D).

The amino acid residues Val^{140}, Leu^{144}, Ile^{176}, Phe^{177}, Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} were conserved within the core proteins of the genotype 1b strain J1 and the genotype 2a strain JFH-1, while the hydrophobic amino acid residues Leu and Val were found at position 139 in the core proteins of strains J1 and JFH-1, respectively. In order to examine the role of SPP-mediated cleavage of the HCV core protein on the growth of HCV strain JFH-1, mutations of Val^{139}, Val^{140}, and Leu^{144} to Ala (JFH-1/VVL/3A), of Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} to Ala and Leu (JFH-1/IF/AL), or of Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} to Val, Leu, and Val, respectively (JFH-1/ASC/VLV), in the core protein, or mutation of the Gly-Asp-Asp motif to Gly-Asn-Asp in NS5B (JFH-1/GND) as a negative control, were introduced into cDNAs encoding strain JFH-1. The plasmid carrying each cDNA under the control of the polI promoter (19) was transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells, and the propagation of the JFH-1 viruses was determined. The expression of the core protein both in the culture medium and in cells transfected with the wild-type strain JFH-1 was increased during incubation, whereas it was severely impaired in the culture medium and cells transfected with JFH-1/VVL/3A, JFH-1/IF/AL, or the replication-deficient mutant JFH-1/GND. In contrast to JFH-1/VVL/3A and JFH-1/IF/AL, JFH-1/ASC/VLV was still capable of producing the core protein at a lower level than the wild-type strain JFH-1 (Fig. 6E). Furthermore, production of infectious particles was completely abrogated in the culture supernatants of cells transfected with JFH-1/VVL/3A, JFH-1/IF/AL, or the replication-deficient mutant JFH-1/GND, whereas JFH-1/ASC/VLV was still capable of producing infectious particles at a lower level than the wild-type strain JFH-1 (Fig. 6E, right). Expression of NS5A proteins was detected by immunofluorescent analyses in cells transfected with wild-type JFH-1, JFH-1/VVL/3A, JFH-1/IF/AL, or JFH-1/ASC/VLV but not in those transfected with JFH-1/GND, suggesting that JFH-1/VVL/3A and JFH-1/IF/AL are capable of replicating in cells but incapable of generating infectious particles (Fig. 6F). The propagation of JFH-1/ASC/VLV, bearing mutations in Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184}, residues that are suggested to be essential for the processing of the HCV core protein by SPP (10, 30), further supports our notion that mutation of these residues is unable to completely abrogate the intramembrane cleavage of the core protein (30). Collectively, these results suggest that the processing of the HCV core protein by SPP plays crucial roles in viral propagation.

DISCUSSION

A previous report has suggested that the amino acid residues Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} in the signal sequence are essential for the intramembrane proteolysis by SPP of the core protein of the HCV genotype 1a strain Glasgow expressed in the BHK and Huh7 cell lines by using the Semliki Forest virus expression system (21). However, we have shown that Leu^{139}, Val^{140}, and Leu^{144} in the hydrophobic region and Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} in the region upstream of the cleavage site, but not Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, or Cys^{184}, are required for the ER retention and SPP cleavage of the core proteins derived from the genotype 1b strain J1 and the genotype 1a strain H77 expressed in 293T cells by transfection of expression plasmids (30). Subsequently, Hope et al. suggested that these discrepancies were attributable to differences in the SDS-PAGE systems used to separate the processed and unprocessed core proteins, not to any difference in the HCV strains or expression systems, indicating that the core protein cleaved by SPP could be separated by a Tris/Bicine-buffered system but not by a Tris/glycine system (10). In this study, we added an HA tag at the C terminus of each core protein in order to easily distinguish between the cleaved and uncleaved HCV core proteins, and we then examined the processing of the wild-type and mutant core proteins by SDS-PAGE using Tris/glycine buffer. The resistance of Core IF/AL to SPP cleavage was consistent with the finding that Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} are located just upstream of the SPP cleavage site identified in this study. In contrast, Core ASC/VLV was not detected by the anti-HA antibody, indicating that Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} in the signal sequence of the HCV core protein are not required for processing by SPP. A similar result was also obtained by immunoblotting using a Tris/Bicine-buffered system (data not shown). Furthermore, treatment with the SPP inhibitor L685,458 suppressed the cleavage of the core protein and abrogated both the localization of the mature core protein in the DRM and the propagation of strain JFH-1, suggesting that the intramembrane cleavage of the HCV core protein by SPP plays crucial roles in the DRM localization of the HCV core protein and the propagation of HCV. To further confirm the biological significance of the cleavage of the HCV core protein with respect to infectivity, we generated mutant viruses carrying mutations identical to each mutation of core protein described above. A JFH-1 mutant virus carrying the same mutation as Core ASC/VLV, but not other mutants, was still sufficiently viable to propagate in Huh7.5.1 cells. These findings clearly indicate that mutation of Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} to Val, Leu, and Val, respectively, in the signal sequence of the HCV core protein is not able to completely abrogate the cleavage of the core protein by SPP.

Interestingly, the Core ASC/VLV mutant exhibited an extra band that was identical in size to the band of the wild-type core protein, in addition to a slow-migrating band, on the SDS-PAGE gel at 48 h posttransfection (Fig. 1B). Vauloup-Fellous et al. also reported that the Core ASC/VLV mutant expressed by a recombinant Semliki Forest virus in mammalian cells or by a baculovirus in insect cells exhibited bands between the mature (21 kDa) and the immature (23 kDa) core protein (44). If Core ASC/VLV was cleaved at the same site as the wild-type core protein, the processed core protein should have the same molecular size as the processed wild-type core protein, because the mutations in Core ASC/VLV were introduced into the region downstream of the cleavage site. These results suggest that Core ASC/VLV is first processed downstream of the authentic SPP cleavage site and is then further processed at the residue close to Phe^{177}. Presenilins, which are involved in the cleavage of amyloid β protein precursor (APP), belong to the same aspartic protease family as SPP, which contains two Asp residues in the enzymatic active site (48). SPP might be able to cleave a substrate at multiple sites, as observed in the

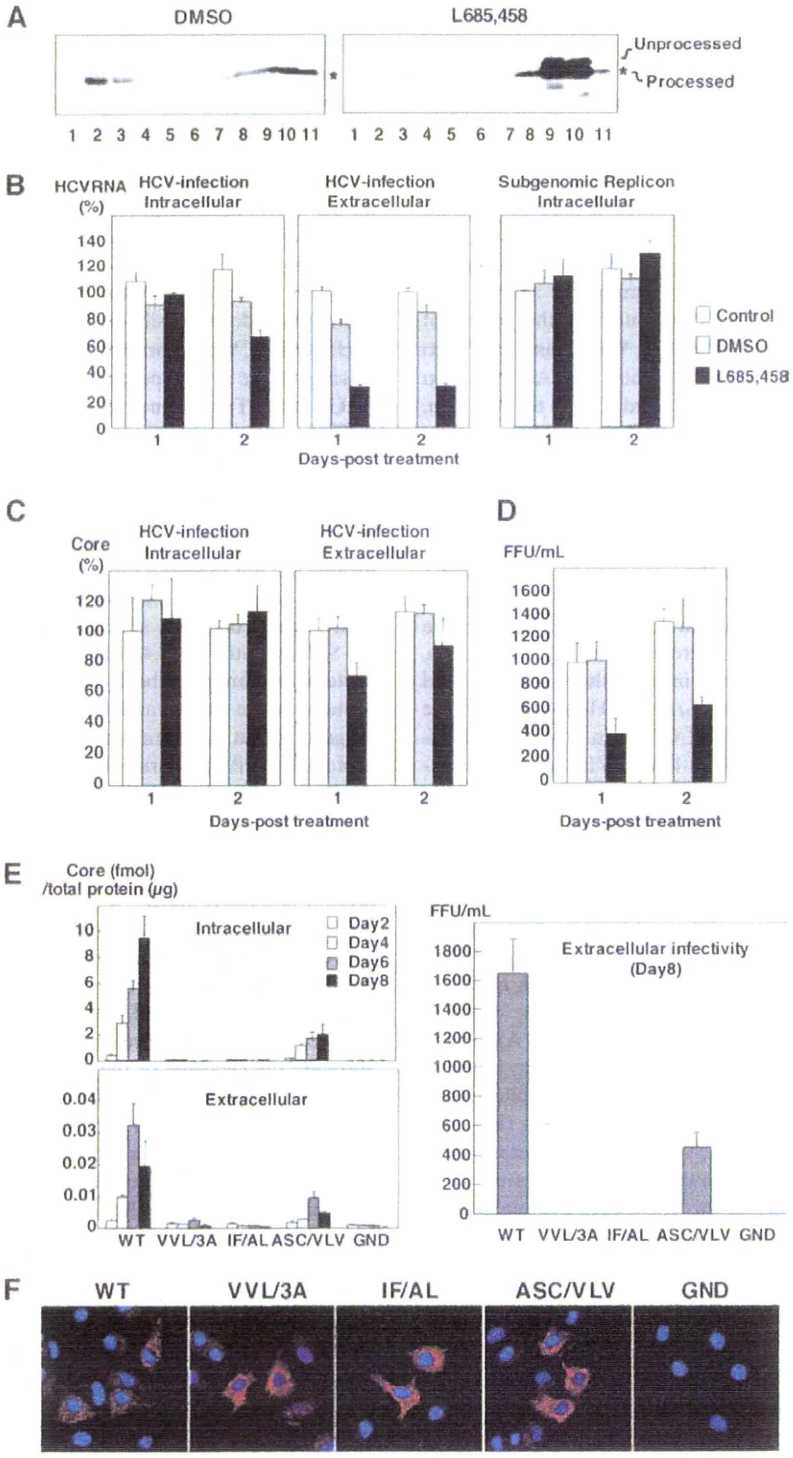


FIG. 6. Effect of the processing of HCV core protein by SPP on the propagation of JFH-1 virus. (A) L685,458 was added, at a concentration of 25 μM, to the culture supernatant of Huh7OK1 cells persistently infected with HCV strain JFH-1. Cells harvested at 24 h after treatment were lysed with 1% Triton X-100 and subjected to a flotation assay. DRM (lanes 1 to 7) and detergent-soluble (lanes 8 to 11) fractions were identified based on the localization of the marker proteins (data not shown). Asterisks indicate processed core proteins. DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide. (B to D) Cells persistently infected with HCV strain JFH-1 were harvested at 1 or 2 days after treatment with the inhibitor. The data shown in each panel are representative of three independent experiments. (B) Total RNA was prepared from the cells (left) and the culture supernatant (center). Levels of HCV viral RNA and GAPDH mRNA were determined by real-time quantitative PCR. Values for the levels of viral DNA were normalized to that for GAPDH mRNA as described in Materials and Methods. The subgenomic-replicon cell line 9-13 was treated with the inhibitor, and total

processing of APP by presenilins (33, 37). The Core ASC/VLV mutant may exhibit a preference for cleaving at the site between Asp^{178} and Ala^{191} rather than at that between Phe^{177} and Leu^{178}. However, we still do not know whether SPP can cleave multiple sites within the C-terminal transmembrane region of the wild-type HCV core protein, because our mass spectrometry data show that there was no peptide larger than *m/z* 1,918.0452, the size corresponding to the amino acid residues from position 160 to 177 (Fig. 2).

Although the wild-type HCV core protein is known to be partially localized in the DRM fraction (20), Core LVL/3A and Core IF/AL, which are resistant to cleavage by SPP, were detected in the detergent-soluble fraction. Furthermore, overexpression of a dominant-negative SPP mutant or treatment with an SPP inhibitor increased the amount of unprocessed core protein in the detergent-soluble fraction irrespective of the presence of the proteasome inhibitor. These results suggest that processing of the HCV core protein by SPP is a prerequisite for stable localization of the mature core protein in the DRM. Indeed, the biological significance of the DRM localization of the mature HCV core protein is still unclear. In addition, we still do not know how HCV core protein migrates into the DRM fraction, and we could not exclude the possibility of involvement of other cellular and viral proteins in the DRM localization of HCV core protein. The DRM fraction is suggested to consist of various membrane microdomains that include lipid rafts, which are enriched in cholesterol and sphingolipids. The immunofluorescent analyses by Matto et al. showed that the DRM fraction containing the HCV core protein in replicon cells harboring a full genomic HCV RNA was different from the classical lipid raft, as evidenced by the lack of colocalization of the typical lipid raft markers, including caveolin-1 and the cholera toxin B subunit (20). However, Aizaki et al. suggested that the HCV replication complex was localized in a lipid-raft-like DRM fraction that included sphingolipids (2). Previous studies have indicated that the HCV core protein is localized in lipid droplets (1, 10, 20, 21, 23) and that processing by SPP is essential for the localization of the HCV core protein in lipid droplets (21). Furthermore, it was shown that the HCV core protein of strain JFH-1 recruits the replication complex to the lipid-droplet-associated membranes, and HCV particles were detected in close proximity to the lipid droplets, suggesting that the lipid droplets and the lipid-droplet-associated membranes induced by the core protein participate in the assembly of HCV particles (23). In addition, lipid droplets including the core protein surrounded by nonstructural proteins were also detected in cells expressing the nonstructural proteins of strain JFH-1 (23). Based on these observations, it might be feasible to speculate that the HCV core protein is matured through processing by the SP and SPP and is then translocated to the DRM and to the lipid droplets for viral assembly. A recent report by Aizaki et al. shows that HCV particles are enriched with cholesterol and sphingolipids (3), suggesting that the DRM is involved in viral assembly. On the other hand, some fraction of the core protein has been shown to migrate into the nucleus, where it is degraded by nuclear proteasomes (26, 41).

An alanine-scanning mutagenesis study of the HCV core protein has suggested that numerous residues within the carboxy-terminal two-thirds of the core protein are dispensable for RNA replication but essential for efficient infectious-virus production and that alanine substitution of the residues between positions 137 and 144 or 177 and 180 abrogated the extracellular release and intracellular stability of the mutant core proteins of chimeric JFH-1 viruses (27). This is consistent with the severe impairment of virus production by the JFH-1/VVL/3A mutant, in which Val^{139}, Val^{140}, and Leu^{144} are all replaced with Ala, and by the JFH-1/IF/AL mutant, in which Ile^{176} and Phe^{177} are replaced with Ala and Leu, respectively, in spite of the substantial RNA replication in the cells (Fig. 6E and F). The impairment of viral assembly by the introduction of SPP-resistant mutations in the core protein and the reduction of viral production by treatment with an SPP inhibitor, without any effect on subgenomic-RNA replication, also support the notion that SPP-dependent cleavage of the HCV core protein is required for viral assembly rather than for viral replication. Furthermore, the lack of significant effects on viral production and on the stability of the core protein in cells infected with JFH-1 mutants in which residues from 181 to 190 were replaced with Ala (27) is also consistent with the incomplete inhibition of the replication of the JFH-1/ASC/VLV mutant, in which Ala^{180}, Ser^{183}, and Cys^{184} are replaced with Val, Leu, and Val, respectively.

Increases in the levels of saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids enhance HCV RNA replication, in contrast to its suppression by polyunsaturated fatty acids (13), suggesting that enzymes associated with lipid biosynthesis are also involved in HCV replication. SREBP-1c regulates the transcription of acetyl coenzyme A carboxylase, fatty acid synthase, and stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase, leading to the production of saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids and triglycerides (11). Expression of the HCV core protein induces the production of lipid droplets composed mainly of triglycerides (4). Our recent study suggests that SREBP-1c was upregulated in the livers of transgenic mice expressing the HCV core protein through the LXRα/RXRα-dependent pathway, which leads to the development of fatty liver (25). The upregulation of SREBP-1c in the transgenic mice was required for the expression of PA28γ, an HCV core-binding host protein involved in the activation of nuclear proteasome activity (26). The HCV core protein cleaved by SPP may

RNA was prepared from the cells (right). The amount of RNA is represented as a percentage of the amount in the untreated sample at 24 h after treatment (taken as 100%). (C) The amounts of intracellular (left) and extracellular (right) core protein were quantified by a quantitative ELISA. (D) Virus production in the culture supernatants was determined by a focus-forming assay. FFU, focus-forming units. (E) Plasmids coding for the full-length of the wild-type (WT) JFH-1 virus or a mutant (VVL/3A, IF/AL, ASC/VLV, or GND) were transfected into Huh7.5.1 cells. (Left) The amounts of intracellular and extracellular core protein were quantified by a quantitative ELISA at 2, 4, 6, and 8 days posttransfection. (Right) Virus production in the culture supernatants of Huh7.5.1 cells at 8 days after transfection with each plasmid was determined by a focus-forming assay. The data in each panel are representative of three independent experiments. (F) Detection of HCV RNA replication by NS5A immunofluorescence. At 6 days after transfection, NS5A and nuclei were stained red and blue, respectively.