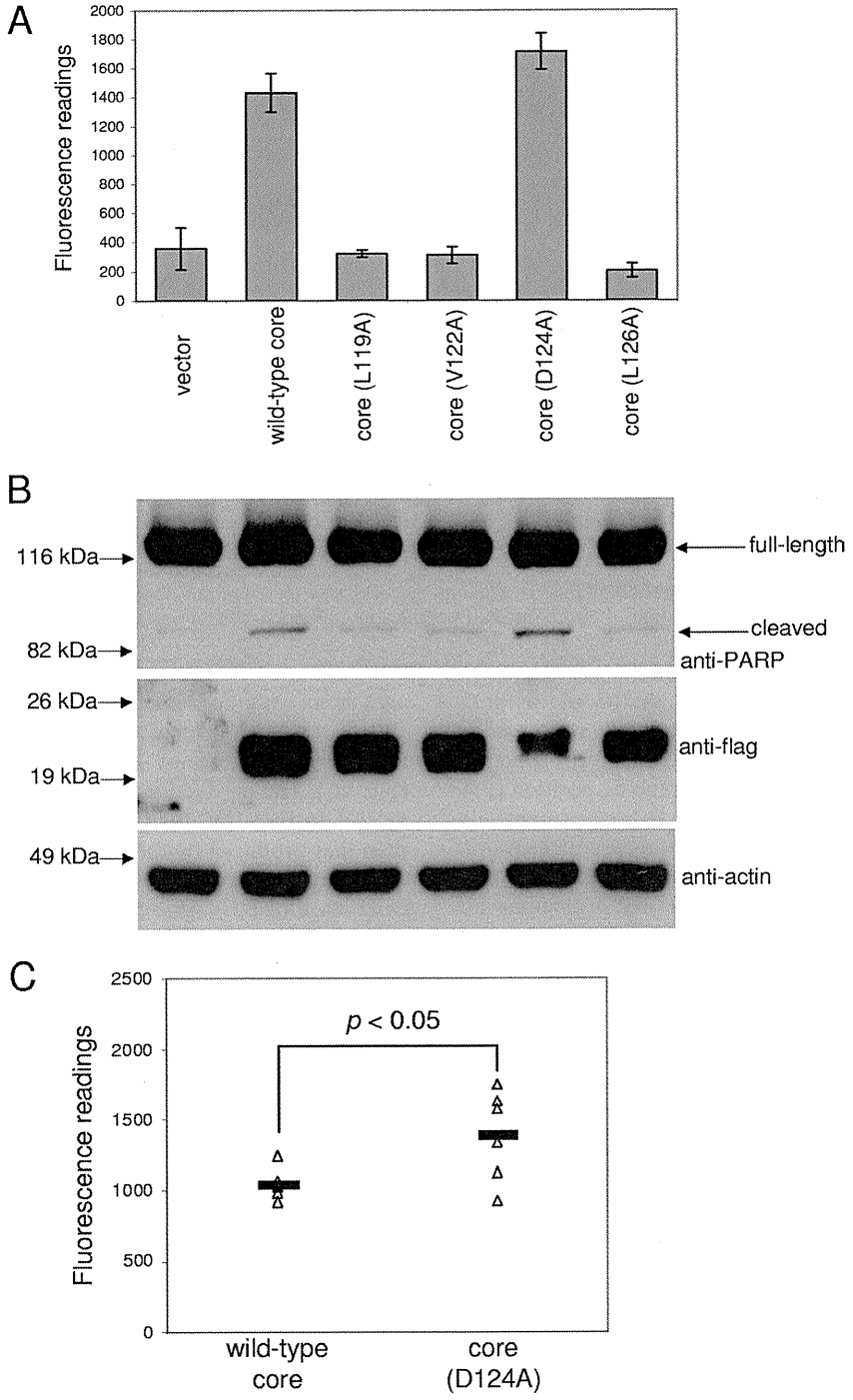

FIG. 6. Effects of alanine substitutions on the proapoptotic property of the core protein. (A) A CaspACE fluorometric assay system from Promega Corporation (Madison, WI) was used to measure the activation of caspase-3 in Huh7 cells that were transfected with vector only, wild-type core, or alanine substitution mutants. All experiments were performed in triplicate, and the average values with standard deviations are plotted. (B) Western blot analysis also was performed to determine the cleavage of endogenous PARP (top) and expression levels of the core proteins (middle). The amounts of total cell lysates loaded were verified by measuring the levels of endogenous actin (bottom). (C) The levels of activated caspase-3 induced by the wild-type core protein and the D124A mutant in six independent experiments were compared using the two-tailed Student's *t* test, and the difference was found to be statistically significant ($P < 0.05$). The values from each of the experiments are plotted as open triangles, and the average values are plotted as solid lines.

by interfering at different apoptotic checkpoints (see reviews in references 8, 23, 27, and 43).

Unlike the multi-BH domain members, the BH3-only members of the Bcl-2 family contain a single BH3 domain. Although all BH3-only proteins can bind to the hydrophobic grooves on the surfaces of the prosurvival members, recent quantitative measurements have revealed that the affinities of association between different pairs of BH3-only and prosur-

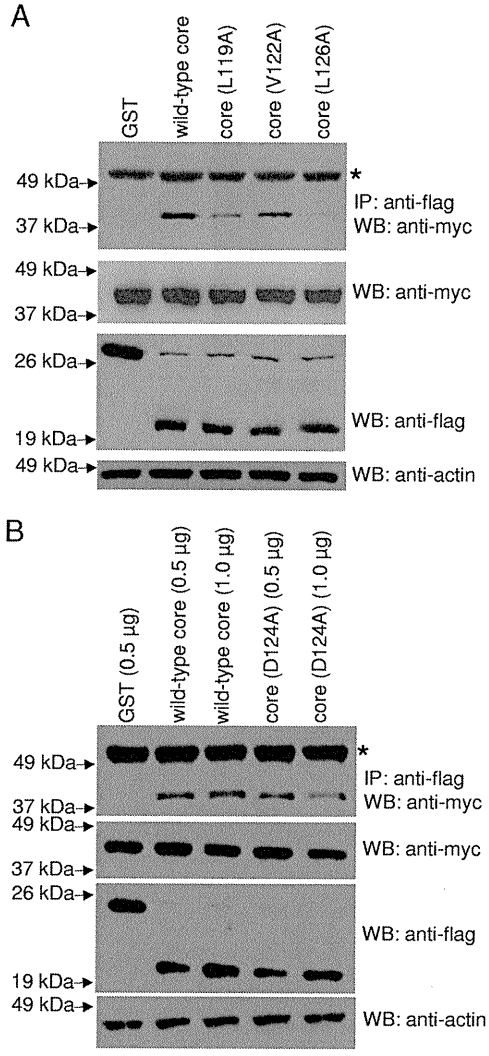

FIG. 7. Effects of alanine substitutions on the binding of the core protein to Mcl-1. (A) Huh7 cells were transfected with cDNA constructs (1.0 μg) for expressing flag-GST (negative control), flag-tagged wild-type core protein, or single-alanine-substitution mutants (L119A, V122A, and L126A). All cells were cotransfected with myc-tagged Mcl-1 (1.5 μg). (B) Huh7 cells were transfected with cDNA constructs for expressing flag-GST (negative control, 0.5 μg), flag-tagged wild-type core protein (0.5 or 1.0 μg), or single-alanine-substitution mutant D124A (0.5 or 1.0 μg). All cells were cotransfected with myc-tagged Mcl-1 (1.5 μg). Coimmunoprecipitation then was performed as described in the legend to Fig. 3A. The amount of myc-tagged proteins that coimmunoprecipitated (IP) with the flag-tagged proteins was determined by Western blot analysis (WB) with an anti-myc rabbit polyclonal antibody (top). The amounts of myc-tagged and flag-tagged proteins in the lysates before IP were determined by subjecting aliquots of the lysates to Western blot analysis (middle). The amounts of total cell lysates loaded were verified by measuring the levels of endogenous actin (bottom). The protein marked with an asterisk represents the heavy chain of the antibody used for IP (top). Similar results were obtained in four independent experiments, and a representative set of data is presented.

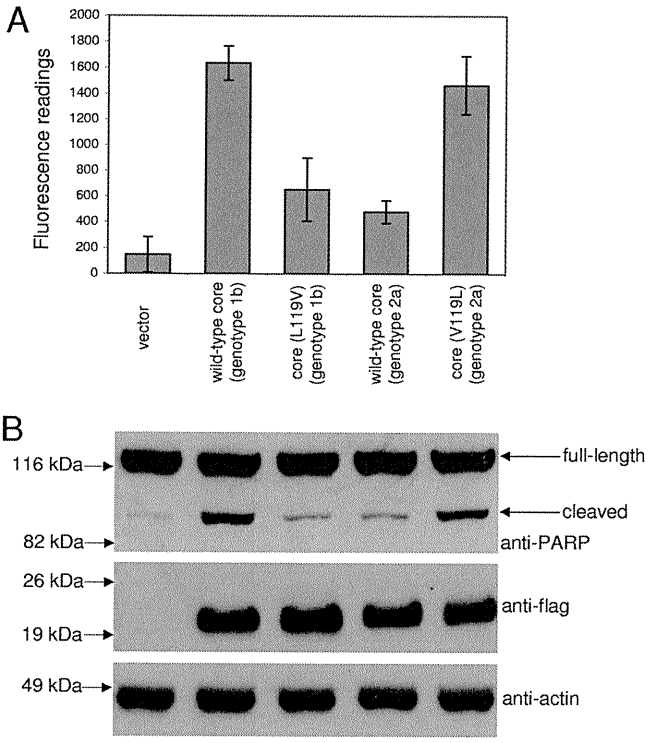

FIG. 8. Comparison of the proapoptotic properties of the core proteins of genotypes 1b and 2a. (A) A CaspACE fluorometric assay system from Promega Corporation (Madison, WI) was used to measure the activation of caspase-3 in Huh7 cells that were transfected with vector only, wild-type core of genotype 1b or 2a, or their substitution mutants. All experiments were performed in triplicate, and the average values with standard deviations are plotted. (B) Western blot analysis also was performed to determine the cleavage of endogenous PARP (top) and expression levels of the core proteins (middle). The amounts of total cell lysates loaded were verified by measuring the levels of endogenous actin (bottom).

vival members vary greatly (11, 32). For example, Bim and Puma bind all prosurvival members tested, while Noxa binds strongly only to Mcl-1 and A1. On the other hand, Bad binds much more strongly to Bcl-2, Bcl-X_L, and Bcl-w than Mcl-1.

Taken together with results from successive studies, it becomes clear that the BH3-only members can be classified into subclasses (see reviews in references 21, 24, 58, and 71). In this study, we demonstrate that the HCV core protein is a BH3-only viral homologue of the Bcl-2 family, and its BH3 domain is essential for the induction of apoptosis (Fig. 1 and 2). In coimmunoprecipitation experiments, the core protein interacted specifically with the prosurvival Mcl-1 protein but not with prosurvival proteins Bcl-X_L and Bcl-w (Fig. 3), suggesting that its property is most similar to that of Noxa (11). Consistently, the overexpression of Mcl-1 protects against core protein-induced apoptosis (Fig. 4). However, the overexpression of Bcl-X_L also protects against core protein-induced apoptosis (Fig. 4). This may be due to the ability of a high level of Bcl-X_L to prevent the complementation between the core protein and endogenous Bad protein, which binds strongly to Bcl-X_L (11), as we have observed that a combination of the core protein and Bad peptide mimetics caused efficient cytochrome *c* release from the mitochondria (Fig. 5). The complementation between Bad and the core protein is similar to that observed between Bad and Noxa, which act in combination to neutralize the two classes of prosurvival proteins, one comprised of Bcl-2, Bcl-X_L, and Bcl-w and the other of Mcl-1 and A1 (11). In overexpres-

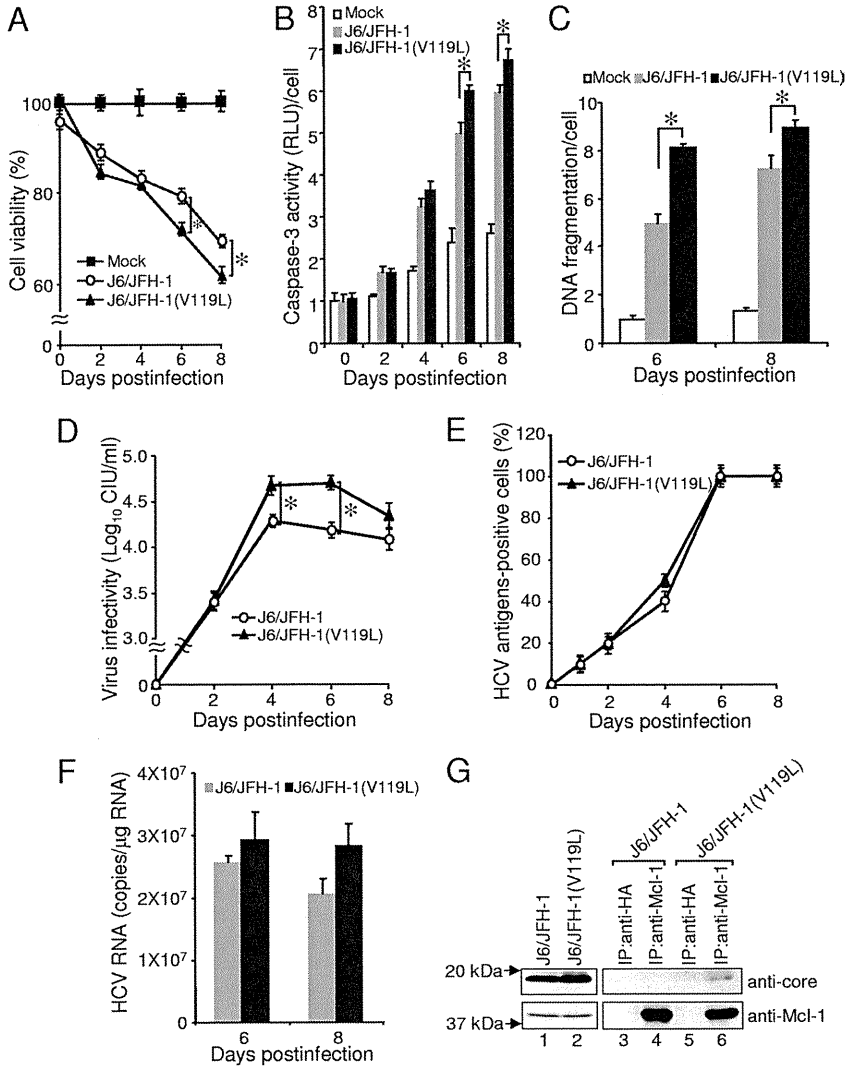

FIG. 9. Comparison of parental J6/JFH-1 and mutant J6/JFH-1(V119L) recombinant viruses. Huh7.5 cells were infected with recombinant HCV at a multiplicity of infection of 0.1 CIU/cell or with a mock preparation, and various assays were performed at different days after infection. (A) Cell viabilities were determined. (B) Caspase-3 activity per cell was determined. (C) The amount of DNA fragmentation per cell was determined. (D) The production of cell-free infectious virus particles was determined. (E) Virus spread in the culture was quantitated. (F) HCV RNA replication was determined by quantitative real-time PCR analysis. (G) Interaction of the core protein with Mcl-1 was determined by coimmunoprecipitation experiments at 3 days p.i. IP was performed using anti-Mcl-1 or anti-HA rabbit polyclonal antibodies and protein A agarose beads. The amounts of the core protein in the lysates before (lanes 1 and 2) and after IP (lanes 3 to 6) were determined by Western blot analysis with an anti-core monoclonal antibody (top). Similarly, the amounts of endogenous Mcl-1 in the samples were determined using an anti-Mcl-1 monoclonal antibody (bottom). Statistical analysis was performed using the one-way analysis of variance to determine if the differences between parental and mutant viruses were statistically significant, and those with P values of <0.05 (marked by asterisks) are considered statistically significant. Data were obtained from three independent experiments, each with triplicate cultures.

sion studies, the core protein and Noxa also induced comparable levels of apoptosis (see Fig. S3 and S5 in the supplemental material). Taken together, these findings suggest that core can mimic Noxa and interfere directly with the prosurvival function of Mcl-1.

A comparison of the BH3 domain of the core protein to the corresponding domains of other BH3-containing proteins (Fig. 1A) revealed that it contains three out of the four hydrophobic residues that can be accommodated within the hydrophobic pockets of previously described BH3 binding grooves (see reviews in references 50 and 69). Alanine substitution experiments revealed that all three hydrophobic residues in the BH3 domain of the core protein are essential for apoptosis induction (Fig. 6). In coimmunoprecipitation experiments, these alanine substitution mutants also bound Mcl-1 to a lesser extent than the wild-type core protein (Fig. 7A). Since these alanine substitution mutants still can bind Mcl-1, albeit at a lower level than that of the wild-type core protein, it appears that the interactions between these mutants and Mcl-1 are not sufficient to induce apoptosis. In several mutagenesis studies, the interaction between Bcl-2 family members and apoptosis regulation have been observed to be discordant. For example, two mutants of the BH3-only protein Bik, Bik-(43-94) and Bik-(43-120), heterodimerized with prosurvival Bcl-2 and Bcl-X_L but

were unable to induce efficient cell death (19). A Bad mutant containing an alteration of a critical residue within its BH3 domain, E113 to K, also was found to have significantly reduced apoptotic activity compared to that of wild-type Bad, despite binding to Bcl-2 and/or Bcl-X_L to the same extent as wild-type Bad (35). Therefore, the induction of apoptosis by the core protein may be controlled by a critical threshold affinity of binding between the core protein and Mcl-1, or there are contributions from a yet-to-be characterized pathway(s). Two of these residues (V122 and L126) are conserved in the major genotypes of HCV, but residue 119 is a V in genotype 2a (Fig. 1B). When L119 of the genotype 1b core protein was replaced with V, its ability to induce apoptosis was greatly reduced (Fig. 8). Conversely, when V119 of the genotype 2a core protein was replaced with L, its ability to induce apoptosis was greatly enhanced. Thus, the results suggest that the genotype 1b core protein induces apoptosis efficiently via a BH3 domain, while genotype 2a core protein is comparatively less efficient. Another highly conserved residue in the BH3 domain of the core protein is D124. However, the replacement of D124 with A did not reduce the proapoptotic function of the core protein (Fig. 6). Thus far, there are only a few known functional BH3 domains that do not contain D at this position (61, 62). Unlike most BH3-only proteins, the core protein has a charged residue (R115) in the h1 position (Fig. 1A). Interestingly, the second BH3 domain of mouse Noxa (mNoxaB) also has a charged residue (E74) in this position. Indeed, the nuclear magnetic resonance structure of the complex between mouse Mcl-1 and a peptide mimetic of mNoxaB shows that E74 is tolerated at the h1 position because its charged carboxyl group is coordinated by another charged residue, K215, in mouse Mcl-1 (15). However, R115 of the core protein is basic instead of acidic, and how this residue can be accommodated in the hydrophobic groove of Mcl-1 is unclear. Interestingly, replacing the residue at the h1 position (I58) of a novel BimBH3 variant, Bim_S2A, with A also has little effect on its interaction with Mcl-1 (34). Thus, it appears that the residue in the h1 position is not always involved in the interaction between BH3-only proteins and Mcl-1, but further biophysical and biochemical studies are required to delineate the precise structure-function relationship for the interaction between core and Mcl-1.

To determine if the results from overexpression studies are relevant to the modulation of apoptosis in host cells during HCV infection, the J6/JFH-1-based (genotype 2a) system was used to generate HCV carrying a substitution at residue 119 of the core protein. While the parental wild-type and mutant viruses replicated efficiently in Huh7.5 cells, the J6/JFH-1(V119L) virus (which expresses the core protein with L at the h2 position of the BH3 domain) caused a significantly higher level of apoptosis in the infected cells than the parental J6/JFH-1 virus (which expresses the core protein with V at the h2 position of the BH3 domain) (Fig. 9). This is in good agreement with the overexpression studies and indicates that the BH3 domain of the core protein contributes to the induction of apoptosis in HCV-infected cells. Thus, it appears that core protein-mediated apoptosis during infection by HCV of genotype 2a is less efficient than that of the other genotypes having L at residue 119 of the core protein (Fig. 1B). Coimmunoprecipitation experiments revealed that the core protein of J6/JFH-1(V119L), but not that of J6/JFH-1, interacted with Mcl-l in virus-infected cells (Fig. 9). This result is consistent with the overexpression studies and suggests the possibility that the core protein induces apoptosis, at least partly, through the interaction with Mcl-1 in HCV-infected cells. Interestingly, more progeny virus is released from cells infected with the J6/JFH-1(V119L) virus than by those infected with the parental J6/JFH-1, while there is no difference in the efficiency of infection or amount of HCV replication inside the cells (Fig. 9).

However, it also is apparent that the parental J6/JFH-1 virus still caused a high level of apoptosis in the infected cells, and for the early time points there was no significant difference in the levels of apoptosis induced by the parental J6/JFH-1 virus and the J6/JFH-1(V119L) mutant virus (Fig. 9). This implies that there are other viral factors that contribute to the induction of apoptosis during HCV infection. For example, several nonstructural HCV proteins, like NS3, NS4A, NS5A, and NS5B, can induce apoptosis when they are overexpressed in certain types of cells (see recent reviews in references 20 and 28). In addition, other domains in the core protein have been shown to bind host proteins and may contribute to apoptosis regulation by interfering with different cellular pathways (see reviews in references 33, 42, and 52). For example, the N-terminal domain (aa 1 to 75) of the core protein interacts with Hsp60, leading to the production of reactive oxygen species and enhancement of tumor necrosis factor alpha-mediated apoptosis (30), while a C-terminal domain (aa 153 to 192) facilitates Fas oligomerization and is required for apoptosis induction in Jurkat cells (46). However, the relative contribution of these various factors to apoptosis induction during HCV infection remains to be determined.

We further examined the importance of residue 119 of the core protein in HCV replication. In multiple independent transfection experiments, we observed that the J6/JFH-1 mutant possessing A at position 119 [J6/JFH-1(V119A)] barely replicated in the cells and did not produce any infectious virus particles in the culture supernatants (data not shown). This result suggests the possibility that this single point mutation impairs the interaction of the core protein with other viral and/or cellular protein(s) that is required for HCV RNA replication and infectious virion production. Similarly, the J6/JFH-1 mutants each possessing A at positions 122 [J6/JFH-1(V122A)], 124 [J6/JFH-1(D124A)], or 126 [J6/JFH-1(L126A)] barely replicated in the cells and did not produce any infectious virion in the culture supernatants (data not shown), with the results suggesting an important role(s) for these residues as well as for position 119. In this connection, the essential role for the HCV core protein in infectious virion production recently has been confirmed, and numerous residues required for this role have been identified (47).

By using the JFH-1 infectious clone, recent studies have revealed that the association of the core protein with the lipid droplet (LD) is critical for the production of infectious virus particles (6, 45). Boulant and coworkers reported that there are two amphipathic α-helices in the so-called D2 domain of the core protein (~118 to 179 aa) (5, 7), and the hydrophobic residues within this domain are critical for the efficient attachment of the core protein to LD (5). Our results showed that residues L119, V122, and L126 of the core protein are essential

for the induction of apoptosis, and these residues are found on the hydrophobic face of the first α-helix of the D2 domain. Interestingly, the replacement of L119 with E did not affect LD association, while the replacement of L126 with E significantly reduced LD association (5). The contribution of V122 to LD association was not investigated. Consistently, the J6/JFH-1(V119L) virus, but not the J6/JFH-1(L126A) virus, replicated efficiently to produce infectious virus particles. Since L119 of the genotype 1b core protein, which occupies the crucial h2 position in the BH3 domain, is essential for its proapoptotic property but not for its association with LD, it is clear that the BH3 domain of the core protein is an independent motif that partially overlaps with the LD association domain.

Recently, Makes caterpillars floppy 1 (Mcf1), a bacterial toxin, was reported to contain a BH3-like domain (18). In addition, HBSP, a spliced hepatitis B viral protein, also contains a BH3-like domain (39). Here, we show that the HCV core protein is another BH3-like viral homologue, and it contributes directly to the induction of apoptosis during HCV infection. Our results also reveal that it is a bona fide BH3-only protein that appears to interfere with the prosurvival property of Mcl-1 in a manner similar to that of Noxa. Our observation that the enhanced apoptotic activity of the J6/JFH-1(V119L) virus is correlated with an increase in infectious progeny HCV release seems to be counterintuitive, as many viruses adopted strategies to prevent apoptosis in the infected cells so as to allow viral replication and the packaging of progeny genomes within the cells (14, 26, 51, 70). However, enhanced releases of virus from infected cells that are undergoing apoptosis also have been reported for other viruses, like the infectious bursal disease virus, adenovirus, and Aleutian mink disease parvovirus (4, 44, 73), indicating that apoptosis can be advantageous for viral spreading at the late stages of infection. Future studies to define the precise manner by which the BH3 domain of the core protein modulates apoptosis during infection will provide important insights into HCV replication as well as pathogenesis.

Besides the genotype 1b core protein, the properties of the genotype 1a core protein also have been examined in various studies. The apoptotic property of the genotype 1a core protein has yet to be studied using the JFH-1-based infectious clone system, although previous studies have attributed both prosurvival and proapoptotic properties to it (25, 30, 46, 57). Similar observations also have been described in overexpression studies using the genotype 1b core protein and appear to be dependent on the death stimuli and types of cells used (3, 9, 10, 36, 49, 53, 56, 60, 76). Several studies have identified domains or regions within the core protein that interfere with specific apoptosis pathways. For instance, the interaction of the N-terminal domain (residues 1 to 75) of the genotype 1a core protein with Hsp60 enhanced tumor necrosis factor alpha-mediated apoptosis, while its C-terminal region (residues 153 to 192) is required for Fas ligand-independent apoptosis (30, 46). The genotype 1b core protein (residues 1 to 153) binds to the death domain of FADD, resulting in enhanced apoptosis (76). However, an overlapping domain spanning the first 46 aa of the core protein is involved in ASPP2 interaction, which leads to the inhibition of p53-mediated apoptosis (9). These findings suggest that multiple domains present in the core protein contribute to the modulation of apoptosis via diverse pathways. Therefore, the net apoptotic effect of the core protein may be dependent on the relative strength of its prosurvival and proapoptotic properties. Unlike the genotype 2a core protein, the BH3 domains of the genotype 1b core protein and the genotype 1a core protein share an identical sequence (Fig. 1B) and are expected to function in a similar manner. However, we cannot rule out that there may be differences in the manner in which the core proteins of genotypes 1a and 1b modulate apoptosis during infection. For example, they may be involved in different virus-virus or virus-host interactions. Thus, more studies are needed to understand the contributions of genotype-dependent factors to the regulation of apoptosis during HCV infection.

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Efficient production of infectious hepatitis C virus with adaptive mutations in cultured hepatoma cells

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Robust production of infectious hepatitis C virus (HCV) in cell culture was realized by using the JFH1 strain and the homologous chimeric J6/JFH1 strain in Huh-7.5 cells, a highly HCV-permissive subclone of Huh-7 cells. In this study, we aimed to establish a more efficient HCV-production system and to gain some insight into the adaptation mechanisms of efficient HCV production. By serial passaging of J6/JFH1-infected Huh-7.5 cells, we obtained culture-adapted J6/JFH1 variants, designated P-27, P-38 and P-47. Sequence analyses revealed that the adaptive mutant viruses P-27, P-38 and P-47 possessed eight mutations [four in E2, two in NS2, one in NS5A and one in NS5B), 10 mutations [two additional mutations in the 5′-untranslated region (5′-UTR) and core] and 11 mutations (three additional mutations in 5′-UTR, core and NS5B), respectively. We introduced amino acid substitutions into the wild-type J6/JFH1 clone, generated recombinant viruses with adaptive mutations and analysed their infectivity and ability to produce infectious viruses. The viruses with the adaptive mutations exhibited higher expression of HCV proteins than did the wild type in Huh-7.5 cells. Moreover, we provide evidence suggesting that the mutation N534H in the E2 glycoprotein of the mutant viruses conferred an advantage at the entry level. We thus demonstrate that an efficient HCV-production system could be obtained by introducing adaptive mutations into the J6/JFH1 genome. The J6/JFH1-derived mutant viruses presented here would be a good tool for producing HCV particles with enhanced infectivity and for studying the molecular mechanism of HCV entry.

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INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the main cause of chronic hepatitis, liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (Choo *et al.*, 1989; Kuo *et al.*, 1989; Saito *et al.*, 1990). As more than 170 million people worldwide are infected chronically with HCV (Poynard *et al.*, 2003) and because the current antiviral therapy, interferon and ribavirin, produces sustained virus clearance in <50 % of treated patients (Manns *et al.*, 2007), HCV infection is clearly a problem of major proportions. HCV is a single-stranded, positive-sense RNA virus that is classified in the genus *Hepacivirus* in the family *Flaviviridae*. The approximately 9.6 kb HCV genome encodes one large open reading frame (ORF) that is flanked at the 5′ and 3′ ends by untranslated regions (UTRs) (Choo *et al.*, 1991). The HCV polyprotein is processed into at least 10 proteins by viral proteases and cellular signalases (Grakoui *et al.*, 1993; Hijikata *et al.*, 1993a; McLauchlan *et al.*, 2002). The structural proteins core, E1 and E2 are located in the N terminus of the polyprotein, followed by p7 and the non-structural (NS) proteins NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A and NS5B (Bartenschlager & Sparacio, 2007).

Study of the HCV life cycle and virus–host interaction has been hampered severely by the lack of a robust *in vitro* cell-culture system and small-animal models of HCV infection (Bartenschlager & Sparacio, 2007). The development of HCV replicon systems has made an important contribution to the study of HCV translation and RNA replication in the human hepatoma cell line Huh-7 (Blight *et al.*, 2000; Lohmann *et al.*, 1999). Sequence analyses of multiple HCV replicons have revealed that several adaptive mutations enhance RNA replication to varying degrees (Bartenschlager & Sparacio, 2007; Blight *et al.*, 2000; Lohmann *et al.*, 2001). Such adaptive mutations were primarily identified in a central portion of the NS5A protein. Although the extent to which these adaptive mutations enhance RNA replication was subsequently studied by using various transient replication assays, the molecular mechanism underlying replication enhancement still remains elusive (Bartenschlager & Sparacio, 2007). The HCV replicons containing adaptive mutations do not produce infectious virus particles in culture and are severely attenuated (Blight *et al.*, 2002; Pietschmann *et al.*, 2002). Using recombinant HCV envelope glycoproteins

and HCV pseudoparticles, several cell-surface molecules have been shown to interact with HCV during virus binding and entry, including the tetraspanin CD81 (Bartosch *et al.*, 2003; Pileri *et al.*, 1998), the scavenger receptor class B member I (SR-BI) (Bartosch *et al.*, 2003; Scarselli *et al.*, 2002) and the tight junction protein claudin-1 (CLDN1) (Evans *et al.*, 2007).

The major breakthrough was made by establishing an HCV-production system using HCV strain JFH1, a genotype 2a isolate, and Huh-7 cells (Wakita *et al.*, 2005). Two other groups reported a robust production of infectious virus using a homologous chimeric FL-J6/JFH1 strain (Lindenbach *et al.*, 2005) or using Huh-7.5.1 cells (Zhong *et al.*, 2005) derived from the cell line Huh-7.5, which has a defect in the RIG-I pathway (Sumpter *et al.*, 2005). Upon transfection of Huh-7 cells with the *in vitro*-transcribed HCV JFH1 genome or the chimera FL-J6/JFH1, infectious HCV particles were secreted in an envelope glycoprotein-dependent manner (Lindenbach *et al.*, 2005; Wakita *et al.*, 2005; Zhong *et al.*, 2005). Using HCV-production systems, adaptive or compensatory mutations that promote the production of infectious virus from wild-type JFH1 (Delgrange *et al.*, 2007; Kaul *et al.*, 2007; Russell *et al.*, 2008; Zhong *et al.*, 2006) or chimeric viruses (Gottwein *et al.*, 2007; Yi *et al.*, 2006, 2007) have been identified. However, the molecular mechanisms of adaptive mutations are poorly understood.

In this study, we aimed to establish an efficient HCV-production system and to gain more insight into the determinants of efficient virus production. By serial passaging of Huh-7.5 cells infected with the HCV J6/JFH1 strain, we identified adaptive mutations in the clones and analysed the mutations by examining the production of the recombinant mutant viruses.

METHODS

Cell culture. Huh-7.5 cells (Blight *et al.*, 2002), a highly HCV-permissive subclone of Huh-7 cells, were kindly provided by Dr C. M. Rice (Rockefeller University, New York, NY, USA). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Wako) supplemented with 10 % fetal bovine serum (FBS; Biowest), 0.1 mM non-essential amino acids (Invitrogen), 100 IU penicillin ml^{-1} and 100 μg streptomycin ml^{-1} (Invitrogen). DMEM containing 10 % FBS was designated complete DMEM. Cells were grown at 37 °C in a CO_2 incubator.

Antibodies. The mouse monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) used in this study were anti-core (2H9) mAb (Wakita *et al.*, 2005) and anti-HCV NS3 mAb (Chemicon). Goat anti-actin polyclonal antibody (C-11) (Santa Cruz Biotech) was used. Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (MBL) and HRP-conjugated donkey anti-goat IgG (Santa Cruz Biotech) were used as secondary antibodies.

Plasmids. Plasmid pFL-J6/JFH1 (Lindenbach *et al.*, 2005) containing the full-length chimeric HCV genome was used to generate infectious HCV. Amino acid substitutions were introduced by site-directed mutagenesis using a QuikChange site-directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene). All PCR-amplified DNA fragments were verified extensively by using an ABI PRISM 3100-Avant Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). The primer sequences used in this study are available from the authors upon request.

HCV RNA transfection and virus production. The pFL-J6/JFH1 plasmid was linearized with *Xba*I and *in vitro*-transcribed by using the T7 RiboMAX Express large-scale RNA production system (Promega) following the manufacturer's instructions. The quality of synthesized RNA was examined by agarose gel electrophoresis. Cells were trypsinized and washed with serum-free DMEM. In total, 6×10^6 cells were suspended in 500 μl serum-free DMEM and mixed with 10 μg *in vitro*-transcribed RNA in a 4 mm cuvette (Bio-Rad). The synthesized RNA was introduced into Huh-7.5 cells by electroporation using a Bio-Rad Gene Pulser system with a single pulse at 270 V, 975 μF. The cells were then plated in 10 cm culture dishes containing complete DMEM.

Indirect immunofluorescence. Immunofluorescence staining was performed essentially as described previously (Takigawa *et al.*, 2004). Cells seeded on glass coverslips in a 24-well plate at a density of 4×10^4 cells per well were infected with HCV. Cells were cultured, washed with PBS and fixed with 3.7 % paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min at room temperature, followed by permeabilization in 0.1 % Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. After being washed twice with PBS, cells were blocked with 5 % goat serum in PBS and then incubated with the serum of an HCV-infected patient with a high titre of anti-HCV antibodies. Fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated goat anti-human IgG (MBL) was used as a secondary antibody. The cells were washed with PBS, counterstained with Hoechst 33342 solution (Molecular Probes) at room temperature for 10 min, mounted on glass slides and examined under a fluorescence microscope (BX51; Olympus).

Virus titration. Culture supernatants were diluted serially 10-fold in complete DMEM and used to infect 2×10^5 naïve Huh-7.5 cells per well in 24-well plates. The inoculum was incubated with cells for 6 h at 37 °C and then supplemented with fresh complete DMEM. The level of HCV infection was determined 1 day post-infection by immunofluorescence using anti-HCV polyclonal antibody. The virus titre was expressed in focus-forming units (ml supernatant)$^{-1}$ (f.f.u. ml^{-1}), as determined by the mean number of HCV-positive foci detected at the highest dilutions according to a previously described method (Zhong *et al.*, 2005).

Immunoblotting. Immunoblotting was performed essentially as described previously (Muramatsu *et al.*, 1997). To detect the expression of HCV proteins, the immune complexes were visualized by an ECL Western blotting detection kit (GE Healthcare) following the manufacturer's instructions.

HCV RNA quantification. Total RNA was extracted by using RNAiso (TaKaRa) according to the manufacturer's instructions. One microgram of isolated RNA was reverse-transcribed by using a QuantiTect reverse transcription kit (Qiagen) with random primers. RT-qPCR analysis was performed as described previously (Zhong *et al.*, 2005). HCV RNA was monitored by using the PCR primers 5′-TCTGCGGAACCGGTGAGTA-3′ (sense) and 5′-TCAGGCAGTACCACAAGGC-3′ (antisense). HCV transcript levels were determined relative to a standard curve comprising serial dilutions of plasmid containing the HCV J6/JFH1 cDNA.

HCV RNA genome sequencing. HCV RNA was isolated from 140 μl viral supernatant by using a QIAamp Viral RNA Mini kit (Qiagen), and then used as a template to generate cDNA in a reverse-transcription reaction using SuperScript One-Step RT-PCR with Platinum *Taq* (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instruc-

tions. PCR primers of between 20 and 26 bases, designed using the sequence of J6/JFH1, were used to amplify four fragments of HCV cDNA (nt 49–3517, 2582–5966, 5832–8038 and 7870–9286) to cover most of the HCV genome. In addition, the 5′-end sequence was amplified by using the 5′ RACE System for Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends (Invitrogen) and the 3′-end sequence was amplified by using a 3′-Full RACE Core set (TaKaRa). The sequences of the amplified DNA were determined by using an ABI PRISM 3100-Avant Genetic Analyzer.

Quantification of HCV core protein. HCV core protein in the cells or cell-culture supernatants was quantified by using a highly sensitive enzyme immunoassay (Ortho HCV antigen ELISA kit; Ortho Clinical Diagnostics). To determine intracellular amounts of core, cell lysates were prepared as described by Schaller *et al.* (2007).

Blocking of virus attachment and entry with anti-CD81 antibody. Blocking of virus attachment and entry with anti-CD81 antibody was performed essentially as described previously (Wakita *et al.*, 2005). Huh-7.5 cells (6×10^4 cells per 24-well plate) were pretreated with anti-CD81 antibody (clone JS-81; BD Biosciences) or an isotype-matched control antibody (purified mouse IgG1, κ isotype control; BD Biosciences) as indicated for 1 h. Cells were then infected with the wild-type or mutant viruses at an m.o.i. of 0.5 or 0.01 for 6 h. The viruses were removed, and the cells were washed with PBS and then supplemented with complete DMEM. The efficiency of infection was monitored 1 day after infection by counting the number of HCV-positive foci by immunofluorescence.

Statistical analysis. A two-tailed Student's *t*-test was applied to evaluate the statistical significance of differences measured from the datasets. A *P* value of <0.05 was considered to be statistically significant.

RESULTS

Increase in HCV infectivity titres during serial passage

To produce infectious HCV particles, *in vitro*-transcribed genomic J6/JFH1 RNA was electroporated into Huh-7.5 cells. Transfected Huh-7.5 cells were maintained and the infectivity titre of the culture supernatant reached 6×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1} at 20 days post-infection. This culture supernatant was designated P-1.

To generate higher infectivity titres for HCV, naïve Huh-7.5 cells (3×10^5 cells per six-well plate) were infected with 1 ml virus stock of P-1 (6×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1}) at an m.o.i. of 0.2 and the infected cells were passaged serially every 3–4 days to maintain a subconfluent culture for 6 months. The culture medium was replaced with fresh complete DMEM every day. The extracellular infectivity titres fluctuated in the beginning after transfection and became lowest at the 22nd passage (Fig. 1a). Thereafter, the extracellular infectivity titres increased again and reached highest infectivity at the 47th passage. Therefore, we further examined the supernatants at the 27th, 38th and 47th passages, and the viruses were designated P-27, P-38 and P-47, respectively. The infectivity titres were determined to be 7.0×10^3 f.f.u. ml^{-1} for P-27, 1.7×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1} for P-38 and 3.3×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1} for P-47 (Fig. 1a). These viruses were used as inocula in the following experiments.

Kinetics of virus production after infection with putative adaptive J6/JFH1 mutants

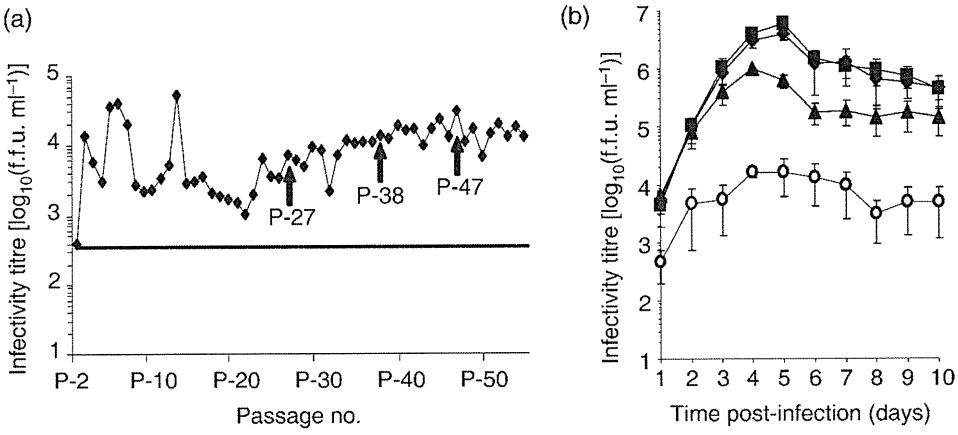
To examine the virus-production kinetics of these viruses in Huh-7.5 cells, naïve Huh-7.5 cells (3×10^4 cells per 24-well plate) were infected with each inoculum (6×10^3 f.f.u.) at an m.o.i. of 0.2. After infection, the culture supernatants were harvested each day for 10 days and assayed for infectivity titres (Fig. 1b). The P-1 virus showed a peak infectivity titre of 2.3×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1} at 4 days post-infection, whereas the P-27, P-38 and P-47 viruses showed peak titres of 1.0×10^6, 2.3×10^6 and 6.0×10^6 f.f.u. ml^{-1} at 4–5 days post-infection, respectively (Fig. 1b), suggesting that these three viruses produce infectious HCV particles more efficiently than the P-1 virus. The increased infectivity titres may have been due to an increase in the absolute number of released HCV particles or an increased proportion of infectious relative to non-infectious particles. To address this question, we compared the specific infectivities of the mutant viruses with those of the wild-type virus. The ratio of viral infectivity titre (f.f.u. ml^{-1}) to HCV RNA content [genome equivalents (GE) ml^{-1}] was determined as shown in Table 1. The mutant viruses, P-27, P-38 and P-47, had higher specific-infectivity titres (1 : 21, 1 : 10 and 1 : 10, respectively) than the wild-type virus P-1 (1 : 133), suggesting that the mutant viruses are more infectious than the wild type and that the mutant viruses possess adaptive mutations in the virus genomes.

Sequence analysis of genetic mutations in the adaptive mutants

To identify the genetic changes in the virus genomes that are responsible for the adaptation to Huh-7.5 cells, we sequenced the whole genomes of the viruses. No mutation was found in the P-1 virus, whereas several mutations were identified in the P-27, P-38 and P-47 viruses (Fig. 1c). The sequencing analysis of P-27 identified eight mutations that were located in the E2, NS2, NS5A and NS5B regions as follows: T396A, T416A, N534H and A712V in E2; Y852H and W879R in NS2; F2281L in NS5A; and M2876L in NS5B (Fig. 1c). P-38 possessed 10 mutations, the same mutations as in P-27 and two additional mutations. The additional mutations were found at nucleotide position 146 (U to A) in the 5′-UTR and an amino acid change, K78E, in the core region. P-47 contained 11 mutations, including the same 10 mutations as P-38 and one additional mutation, T2925A in NS5B. Thus, the first eight mutations were all present in the genomes of the three viruses, and the results suggested that these eight mutations contribute to the enhanced infectivity.

Effects of individual mutations on the production of infectious HCV

To determine which mutation is responsible for the enhancement of infectivity, recombinant genomes containing only one of the selected mutations were constructed



(c)

Virus	Position changed										
	5′-UTR	Core	E2				NS2		NS5A	NS5B	
	(nt 146)	78	396	416	534	712	852	879	2281	2876	2925
Wild-type	U	Lys	Thr	Thr	Asn	Ala	Tyr	Trp	Phe	Met	Thr
P-1	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
P-27	–	–	Ala	Ala	His	Val	His	Arg	Leu	Leu	–
P-38	A	Glu	Ala	Ala	His	Val	His	Arg	Leu	Leu	–
P-47	A	Glu	Ala	Ala	His	Val	His	Arg	Leu	Leu	Ala

Fig. 1. Increase in HCV infectivity titres during serial passage. (a) Serial passage of HCV J6/JFH1-infected Huh-7.5 cells. Huh-7.5 cells (3×10^5 cells per six-well plate) were infected with 1 ml stock of wild-type J6/JFH1 virus (P-1) (6×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1}) at an m.o.i. of 0.2, and the infected cells were passaged serially every 3–4 days to maintain a subconfluent culture for 6 months. The culture medium was replaced with fresh complete DMEM each day. The extracellular infectivity titres were determined by titration assay and are expressed as f.f.u. ml^{-1}. Arrows show the time points at which we collected the putative adapted viruses, designated P-27, P-38 and P-47. (b) Kinetics of virus production after infection with putative J6/JFH1 adaptive mutants in Huh-7.5 cells. Huh-7.5 cells were infected with the wild-type J6/JFH1 virus (○, P-1) or putative adaptive mutants (▲, P-27; ◆, P-38; ■, P-47) at an m.o.i. of 0.2. After infection, the culture supernatants were harvested every day until 10 days post-infection. Infectivity titres were measured by immunofluorescence assay and are expressed as f.f.u. ml^{-1}. Error bars represent SD for triplicate measurements. (c) Genetic mutations identified during passage. Numbers indicate the amino acid position where mutations were identified. The nucleotide position with mutation is given in parentheses.

(Fig. 2a). The *in vitro*-transcribed mutant J6/JFH1 RNAs were electroporated into Huh-7.5 cells and mutant viruses were generated. Then, naïve Huh-7.5 cells were infected with each virus at an m.o.i. of 0.01 and cultured for 12 days. The culture supernatant was collected every day from 1 to 12 days post-infection. The ability of each mutant virus to release infectious virus particles was examined by titration assay. As shown in Fig. 2(b), the recombinant viruses with single point mutations did not enhance the production of infectious virus particles, suggesting that a single point mutation is not enough for the enhanced infectivity.

Table 1. Specific-infectivity titres of the adaptive J6/JFH1 mutant viruses

Virus	HCV RNA copies [$\log_{10}$(GE ml^{-1})]	Infectivity titre [$\log_{10}$(f.f.u. ml^{-1})]	Specific infectivity (f.f.u. : GE)
P-1	6.7±0.1	4.6±0.1	1 : 133
P-27	7.3±0.1	6.0±0.2	1 : 21
P-38	7.4±0.1	6.4±0.0	1 : 10
P-47	7.3±0.1	6.3±0.2	1 : 10

Effects of combination of adaptive mutations on the production of infectious HCV

We then generated recombinant viruses with several mutations, as shown in Fig. 3(a). Naïve Huh-7.5 cells were infected with each virus at an m.o.i. of 0.01 and cultured for 12 days. The culture supernatant was collected every day from 1 to 12 days post-infection. The ability of each mutant virus to release infectious virus particles was examined by titration assay. The R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses reached higher titres than the wild type and other mutant viruses, suggesting that all of the mutations in E2, NS2, NS5A and NS5B were important for the enhancement of infectivity (Fig. 3b). To determine the specific infectivities of the mutant viruses, the ratio of the viral infectivity titre (f.f.u. ml^{-1}) to the HCV RNA content (GE

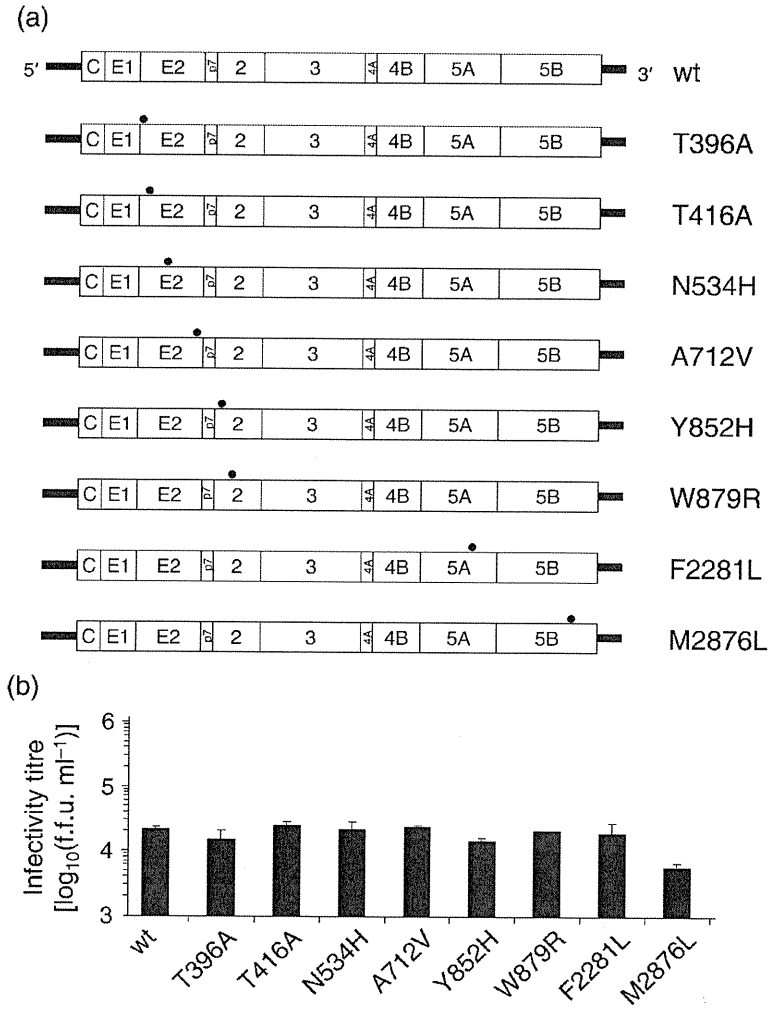


Fig. 2. Effects of individual mutations on the production of infectious HCV. (a) Schematic representation of the wild-type (wt) and mutant chimeric HCV J6/JFH1 genomes. HCV J6/JFH1 mutants with a single point mutation are shown. The adaptive mutations T396A, T416A, N534H, A712V, Y852H, W879R, F2281L and M2876L are indicated by ●. (b) The *in vitro*-transcribed mutant J6/JFH1 RNAs were electroporated into Huh-7.5 cells to generate recombinant mutant viruses. The infectivity titres of the culture supernatants were measured by titration assay. Then, naïve Huh-7.5 cells were infected with each virus at an m.o.i. of 0.01 and cultured for 12 days. The culture supernatant was collected every day from 1 to 12 days post-infection. The ability of each mutant virus to release infectious virus particles was examined by titration assay. Infectivity titres reached maximal levels at 10 days post-infection and the maximal infectivity titres were plotted. Error bars represent SD for triplicate measurements.

ml^{-1}) was calculated as shown in Table 2. The recombinant mutant viruses, R-27, R-38 and R-47, had higher specific-infectivity titres (1:46, 1:35 and 1:54, respectively) than the wild-type virus P-1 (1:197), suggesting that the particles released from cells infected with the R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses are more infectious than those released from cells infected with the wild-type J6/JFH1 virus.

Efficient expression of HCV proteins in Huh-7.5 cells infected with the adaptive mutants

To investigate further the mechanism of adaptive mutations, we performed immunofluorescence staining of the infected cells. Huh-7.5 cells (6×10^4 cells per 24-well plate) were infected with the P-1, R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses (1.2×10^4 f.f.u.) at an m.o.i. of 0.2. Cells were fixed 5 days post-infection and stained for immunofluorescence. Approximately 90% of the cells were HCV-positive in the P-1-, R-27-, R-38- and R-47-infected cells (Fig. 4a). We next examined protein synthesis by immunoblotting for the HCV core and NS3 proteins. Immunoblot analysis of the cell lysates demonstrated that the levels of the core and NS3 proteins in cells infected with the R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses were 2.0- to 2.5-fold higher than those in cells infected with the P-1 virus (Fig. 4b, c), suggesting that these mutant viruses have a replicative advantage.

Growth curves of infectious HCV after transfection of RNAs or infection with HCV

To determine whether the replicative advantage is at the level of entry or replication/translation of the genome, we examined one-step growth curves by transfecting equivalent amounts of RNAs of the wild-type and the mutant viruses into Huh-7.5 cells by means of electroporation (Fig. 5a, b). The intracellular and extracellular core protein levels were quantified by core protein-specific ELISA at the indicated times. The one-step growth curves showed that the intracellular and extracellular core protein levels increased with very similar kinetics in the cells transfected with the wild-type and adapted RNAs (Fig. 5a, b).

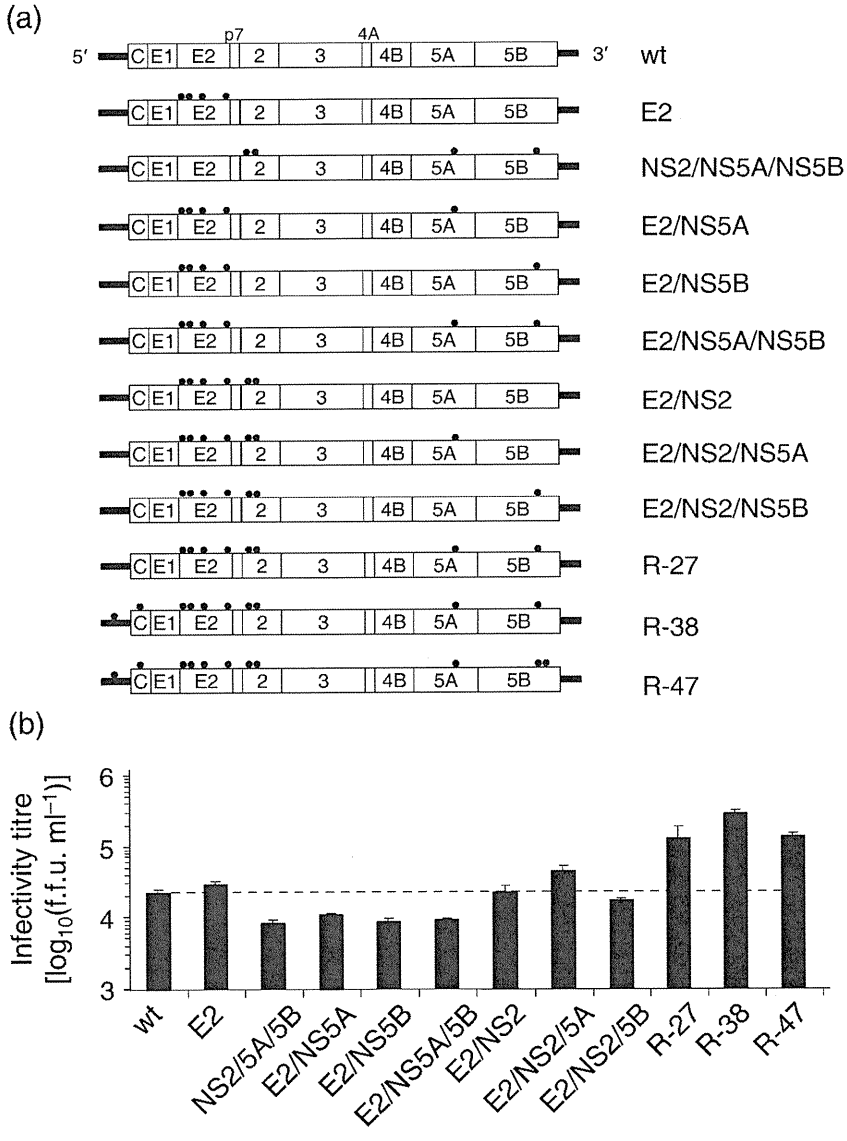


Fig. 3. Effects of combination of adaptive mutations on the production of infectious HCV. (a) Schematic representation of the wild-type (wt) and mutant chimeric HCV J6/JFH1 genomes. The HCV J6/JFH1 genomes with a combination of adaptive mutations at nt 146 (U to A) in the 5′-UTR and amino acid changes at K78E, T396A, T416A, N534H, A712V, Y852H, W879R, F2281L and M2876L are indicated by ●. (b) Recombinant mutant viruses with a combination of mutations were generated. Naïve Huh-7.5 cells were infected with each virus at an m.o.i. of 0.01 and cultured for 12 days. The ability of each mutant to release infectious virus particles was examined by titration assay. Infectivity titres reached maximal levels at 10 or 11 days post-infection and the maximal infectivity titres were plotted. Error bars represent SD for triplicate measurements.

We next examined the growth curves of the core protein levels by infecting cells with the recombinant viruses. The intracellular and extracellular core protein levels in cells infected with the P-1, R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses were quantified. Huh-7.5 cells (1.2×10^5 cells per 12-well plate) were infected with these viruses at an m.o.i. of 0.2. The intracellular core protein levels in cells infected with the R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses were 3- to 5-fold higher at day 1 post-infection than those in the P-1-infected cells. The intracellular core protein levels in the cells infected with the mutant viruses were 7- to 11-fold higher at day 3 post-infection than those in the P-1-infected cells (Fig. 5c). The extracellular core protein levels in the P-1-infected cells were comparable to the levels in cells infected with mutant viruses at day 1 post-infection. However, the extracellular core protein levels in cells infected with the R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses increased more rapidly and reached 4.4- to 5.8-fold higher at day 3 post-infection than those in cells infected with the P-1 virus (Fig. 5d). Taken together, these data suggest that the adaptive mutants have advantages at the entry level, rather than the virus replication/translation level.

Table 2. Specific-infectivity titres of the recombinant adaptive mutant viruses

Virus	HCV RNA copies [$\log_{10}$(GE ml^{-1})]	Infectivity titre [$\log_{10}$(f.f.u. ml^{-1})]	Specific infectivity (f.f.u.:GE)
P-1	6.6±0.1	4.3±0.1	1:197
R-27	6.8±0.1	51±0.2	1:46
R-38	6.9±0	15.4±0.1	1:35
R-47	6.9±0.1	5.1±0.1	1:54

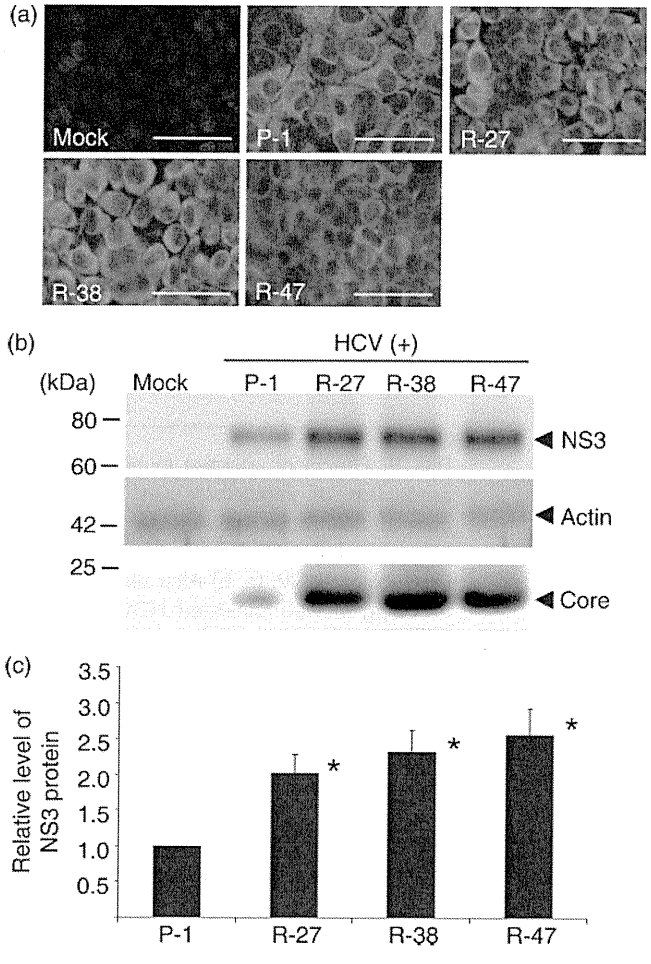


Fig. 4. Efficient expression of HCV proteins in Huh-7.5 cells infected with the adaptive mutants. Huh-7.5 cells (6×10^4 cells per 24-well plate) were infected with 200 µl P-1, R-27, R-38 or R-47 virus (6×10^4 f.f.u. ml^{-1}) at an m.o.i. of 0.2. (a) Cells were fixed 5 days post-infection and stained for immunofluorescence with anti-HCV-positive sera. Bars, 10 µm. (b) Immunoblot analysis of core and NS3 proteins in Huh-7.5 cells infected with R-27, R-38 and R-47 viruses. Data are representative of three independent experiments. (c) Quantification of the data shown in (b). Intensities of the gel bands were quantified by using the Scion Image for Windows program. The level of actin served as a loading control. Error bars represent SD for triplicate measurements. The difference between P-1 and the adaptive mutant (R-27, R-38 or R-47) was significant (*$P<0.05$ by Student's *t*-test).

Blocking of virus attachment and entry with anti-CD81 antibody

To determine whether the adapted mutant viruses have advantages at the entry level, we examined CD81-dependent entry into Huh-7.5 cells. Naïve Huh-7.5 cells were incubated with CD81-specific or non-specific antibody prior to inoculation. We scored infection by immunofluorescence at 24 h post-infection. As shown in Fig. 6(a), the anti-CD81 antibody inhibited the entry of the mutant viruses R-27, R-38 and R-47, as well as the wild-type virus, in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting that interaction between CD81 and HCV E2 glycoprotein is crucial for virus entry for all of these viruses. However, infections by the mutant viruses R-27, R-38 and R-47 were less dependent on CD81 than the wild-type virus. This result suggests that the mutations in the E2 glycoprotein confer an advantage to the mutant viruses at the entry level. We further analysed the mutant viruses to determine which mutation(s) is important for the advantage at the entry level. We infected Huh-7.5 cells with mutant viruses with a single point mutation in the E2 glycoprotein, such as T396A, T416A, N534H or A712V, or with all of the four mutations in E2. Blocking of virus entry with the anti-CD81 antibody was examined as shown in Fig. 6(b). Infection by the mutant virus N534H, as well as the mutant viruses E2, R-27, R-38 and R-47, was less dependent on CD81 than infection by the wild-type virus, whereas the other mutant viruses T396A, T416A and A712V showed a similar pattern to the wild type. These results indicate that the N534H mutation in the E2 region confers an advantage to the adaptive mutant viruses at the entry level.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we established an efficient HCV-production system by serial passaging of Huh-7.5 cells infected with the chimeric HCV J6/JFH1. Sequence analyses revealed that the adapted viruses possessed more than eight non-synonymous mutations in the genomes. Reverse-genetics analysis revealed that the recombinant viruses R-27, R-38 and R-47 exhibited higher expression of the HCV proteins than the wild-type virus. Moreover, we demonstrated that the N534H mutation in the E2 glycoprotein confers an advantage to the mutant viruses at the entry level.

The adaptive mutant viruses possessed four mutations (T396A, T416A, N534H and A712V) in E2. Two of these mutations (T416A and N534H) are in the regions that are involved in E2–CD81 binding and are, therefore, the possible target for neutralizing antibodies inhibiting E2–CD81 interactions (Helle & Dubuisson, 2008). The blocking of virus attachment and entry with CD81-specific antibody in this study revealed that the infections by the E2 R-27, R-38, R-47 and N534H mutants were less dependent on the CD81 molecule than that by the wild type J6/JFH1, suggesting that the N534H mutation gives the mutant viruses a selective advantage at the entry level. The N534H mutation is located in the sixth of 11 *N*-glycosylation sites, and is predicted to remove this *N*-glycosylation. The removal of *N*-glycosylation sites has been shown to have variable effects on CD81 binding and infectivity (Owsianka *et al.*, 2006; Roccasecca *et al.*, 2003). The glycans at positions 417, 532 and 645 (E2N1, E2N6 and E2N11) were shown to reduce the sensitivity of HCV pseudoparticles to antibody neutralization and to reduce the access of CD81 to its binding site on E2 (Goffard *et al.*, 2005). JFH-1 virus with the N534K mutation spread faster than the wild-type

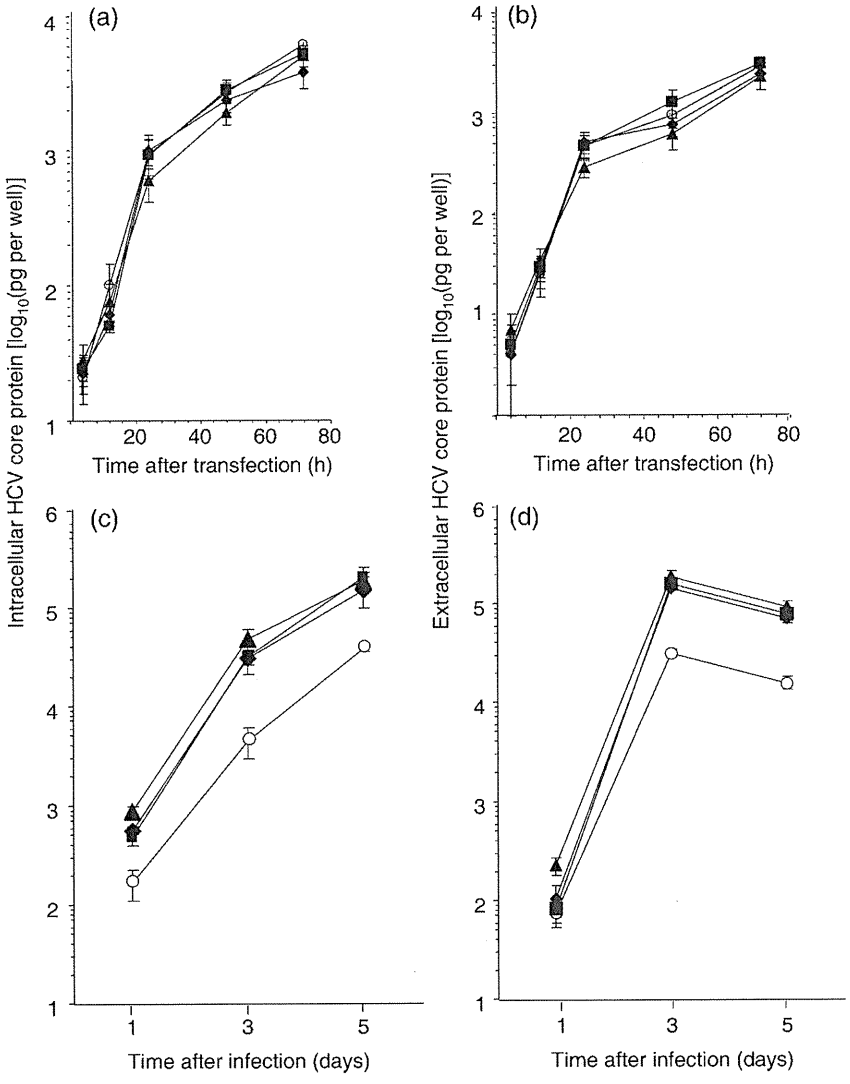


Fig. 5. Effects of adaptive mutations on the production of intracellular and extracellular core protein after transfection of *in vitro*-translated HCV RNAs or after infection of recombinant HCV. (a, b) After electroporation of 10 μg *in vitro*-translated HCV RNAs P-1 (○), R-27 (▲), R-38 (◆) and R-47 (■) into Huh-7.5 cells (5×10^6), the cells were divided into five sets, replated into a six-well plate and cultured. The cells and culture supernatants were harvested at the time points given. Intracellular (a) and extracellular (b) core protein levels were quantified by core protein-specific ELISA. (c, d) After Huh-7.5 cells (1.2×10^5 cells per 12-well plate) were infected with the P-1 (○), R-27 (▲), R-38 (◆) and R-47 (■) viruses at an m.o.i. of 0.2, the cells and culture supernatants were harvested at the time points given. Intracellular (c) and extracellular (d) core protein levels were quantified by core protein-specific ELISA.

JFH-1 virus after two successive amplifications in naïve cells, although the numbers of infectious viruses in the supernatant of transfected cells were initially low (Delgrange *et al.*, 2007). Our results in the growth curves of the viruses in the transfected cells and infected cells were consistent with their report. The CD81 inhibition assay in this study demonstrated clearly that the N534H mutation of the J6/JFH-1 virus confers a selective advantage for J6/JFH-1 at the entry level. To our knowledge, the present study is the first to prove that the mutation at site N534 gives infectious HCV a selective advantage at the entry level. These results raise two possibilities. One is that the N534H mutation in the E2 glycoprotein removes *N*-glycosylation and this mutant E2 glycoprotein possesses a higher affinity for the CD81 molecule, resulting in efficient entry to the cells. Another possibility is that the E2 glycoprotein with the N534H mutation gains higher affinity for other HCV receptors. Further investigation will be required to elucidate the mechanism of this adaptive mutation.

Our results showed that a combination of the mutations in E2, together with four additional mutations in NS2, NS5A and NS5B, resulted in higher infectivity of HCV, suggesting that the additional four mutations possess an advantage at different steps.

NS2 is a membrane-associated cysteine protease (Grakoui *et al.*, 1993; Hijikata *et al.*, 1993b; Lorenz *et al.*, 2006). The N terminus of NS2 consists of one or more transmembrane domains, whilst the C-terminal domain of NS2, together with the N-terminal one-third of NS3, forms the NS2–3 protease, an enzyme that catalyses a single cleavage at the NS2/NS3 boundary. The crystal structure of the C-terminal domain of NS2 has recently been determined and reveals a dimeric protease containing two composite active sites (Lorenz *et al.*, 2006). Jones *et al.* (2007) showed that NS2 and p7 are essential for HCV infectivity. The Y852 and W879 residues are located in the hydrophobic region of NS2. Although the exact topology of NS2 is disputed, the Y852H and W879R mutations would be predicted to lie

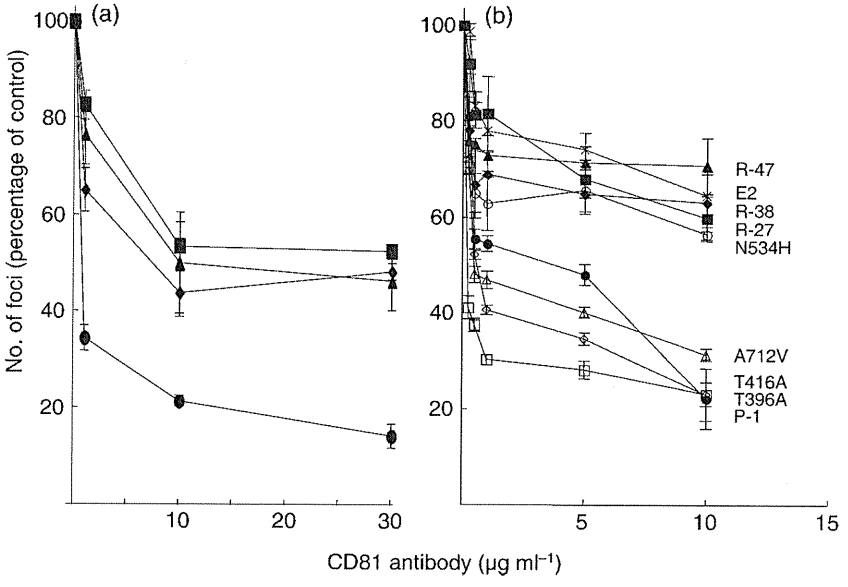


Fig. 6. Blocking of virus attachment and entry with anti-CD81 antibody. (a) Huh-7.5 cells (2×10^5 cells per six-well plate) were pretreated with 0, 1, 10 or 30 μg CD81 antibody (clone JS-81) ml^{-1} for 1 h and then infected with the wild-type (●, P-1) or recombinant mutant (■, R-27; ◆, R-38; ▲, R-47) viruses at an m.o.i. of 0.5. The cells were cultured for 24 h. The infection was monitored by HCV immunofluorescence and the numbers of HCV-positive foci were counted. Each result is expressed as a fraction of the number of foci observed in wells that received the control antibody instead of anti-CD81. Error bars represent SD for triplicate measurements. (b) Huh-7.5 cells (2×10^5 cells per six-well plate) were pretreated with 0, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 5 or 10 μg CD81 antibody ml^{-1} for 1 h and then infected with the wild-type (●, P-1) or recombinant (■, R-27; ◆, R-38; ▲, R-47; ×, E2; □, T396A; ◇, T416A; ○, N534H; △, A712V) viruses at an m.o.i. of 0.01. Blocking of virus entry with anti-CD81 antibody was examined. The infection was monitored by HCV immunofluorescence and the number of HCV-positive foci was counted.

within the second and third transmembrane domains, respectively (Yamaga & Ou, 2002). Murray *et al.* (2007) demonstrated that the A880P mutation increased infectious virus production significantly in the context of the J6/JFH1 genome, suggesting that the mutations in the transmembrane domain of NS2 play an important role in HCV infectivity. It is possible that the Y852H and W879R mutations in the transmembrane domain affect the topology and localization of NS2, and thereby HCV infectivity. Interestingly, NS2 has been found to interact with all other HCV NS proteins in *in vitro* pull-down assays, as well as cell-based colocalization and co-immunoprecipitation experiments (Dimitrova *et al.*, 2003; Hijikata *et al.*, 1993b), suggesting a role for NS2 as part of the replication complex.

Sequence analyses of HCV replicon cells revealed that highly adaptive mutations lie within the NS4B, NS5A and NS5B coding regions, with the majority clustering in NS5A. However, the mechanism underlying the replication enhancement is not known (Bartenschlager & Sparacio, 2007). The mutant viruses possessed an F2281L mutation that was located in domain II of NS5A. NS5A is an RNA-binding phosphoprotein composed of three domains that are separated by trypsin-sensitive low-complexity sequences (LCS I and LCS II) and an N-terminal amphipathic α-helix that anchors the protein stably to intracellular membranes (Brass *et al.*, 2002; Penin *et al.*, 2004; Tellinghuisen *et al.*, 2004). According to the X-ray crystal structure of domain I, it forms a dimer with a claw-like shape that can accommodate a single-stranded RNA molecule (Tellinghuisen *et al.*, 2005). Domain III of NS5A plays an important role in virus assembly and the production of infectious particles (Appel *et al.*, 2008; Masaki *et al.*, 2008; Tellinghuisen *et al.*, 2008). However, the role played by domain II of NS5A in the HCV replication cycle is unknown. Further examination will be required to clarify the effects of the F2281L mutation on the infectivity of the virus. Kaul *et al.* (2007) reported the V2941M mutation in NS5B in the context of the JFH1 genome. Lohmann *et al.* (2001) reported the R2884G mutation in the context of Con1-based replicon cells. Amino acid substitutions within NS5B may favour HCV replication and virus production in ways that remain to be determined.

Miyanari *et al.* (2007) proposed that HCV NS proteins and replication complexes are recruited to lipid droplet-associated membranes by the HCV core protein and that this recruitment is critical for producing infectious viruses. Cholesterol and sphingolipid associated with HCV particles are important for virion maturation and infectivity (Aizaki *et al.*, 2008). We speculate that the additional four mutations in NS2, NS5A and NS5B may confer an advantage in the maturation of virus particles or modification of virus envelopes with cholesterol and sphingolipid. Further investigation will be necessary to elucidate the mechanism of the adaptive mutations in NS2, NS5A and NS5B.

In conclusion, we have developed an efficient HCV-production system by passaging HCV J6/JFH1-infected Huh-7.5 cells. We have demonstrated that an efficient HCV-production system could be obtained by introducing adaptive mutations into the J6/JFH1 genome. The J6/JFH1-derived mutant viruses presented here would be a good tool for producing HCV particles with enhanced infectivity and for studying the molecular mechanism of HCV entry.

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HCV replication suppresses cellular glucose uptake through down-regulation of cell surface expression of glucose transporters☆

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See Editorial, pages 845–847

***Background/Aims*: Persistent infection with hepatitis C virus (HCV) causes extrahepatic diseases, including diabetes. We investigated the possible effect(s) of HCV replication on cellular glucose uptake and expression of the facilitative glucose transporter (GLUT) 2 and 1.**

***Methods*: We used Huh-7.5 cells harboring either an HCV subgenomic RNA replicon (SGR) or an HCV full-genomic RNA replicon (FGR), HCV-infected cells, and the respective cells treated with interferon (IFN). We also used liver tissue samples obtained from patients with or without HCV infection.**

***Results*: Glucose uptake and surface expression of GLUT2 and GLUT1 were suppressed in SGR, FGR and HCV-infected cells compared to the control cells. Expression levels of GLUT2 mRNA, but not GLUT1 mRNA, were lower in SGR, FGR and HCV-infected cells than in the control. Luciferase reporter assay demonstrated decreased GLUT2 promoter activities in SGR, FGR and HCV-infected cells. IFN treatment restored glucose uptake, GLUT2 surface expression, GLUT2 mRNA expression and GLUT2 promoter activities. Also, GLUT2 expression was reduced in hepatocytes of liver tissues obtained from HCV-infected patients.**

***Conclusions*: HCV replication down-regulates cell surface expression of GLUT2 partly at the transcriptional level, and possibly at the intracellular trafficking level as suggested for GLUT1, thereby lowering glucose uptake by hepatocytes.**

***Keywords*: Diabetes mellitus; Down-regulation; Glucose uptake; GLUT1; GLUT2; Hepatitis C virus; Hepatocyte; Interferon; Replicon**

1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a small, enveloped RNA virus, which belongs to the genus *Hepacivirus* within the family *Flaviviridae*. The viral genome consists of single-stranded, positive-sense RNA of 9.6 kb that encodes a polyprotein of about 3000 amino acids. There are six major genotypes of HCV worldwide, with each genotype being further classified into a number of subtypes, such as HCV-1a and -1b [1,2]. The polyprotein is processed by host cellular and viral proteases to yield at least 10 structural and nonstructural (NS) proteins, such

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Abbreviations: FGR, full-genome RNA replicon; GLUT, glucose transporter; HBV, hepatitis B virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; IFN, interferon; SGR, subgenomic RNA replicon.

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as core protein, envelope glycoproteins (E1 and E2), p7, NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A and NS5B [3,4].

HCV prevails in most parts of the world with an estimated number of about 170 million carriers and, hence, HCV infection is a major global healthcare problem [5]. Persistent infection with HCV causes not only liver diseases, including hepatitis, but also extrahepatic manifestations, such as type 2 diabetes [6–8]. While it has been known that liver cirrhosis impairs the glucose metabolism of the liver, there are some reports showing that HCV-infected patients over 40 years old have an increased risk for type 2 diabetes – three times higher than that for patients without HCV infection [9,10]. These reports imply the possibility that HCV infection directly predisposes the host towards type 2 diabetes. However, the precise mechanism(s) is poorly understood.

Glucose is transported into the cell via various isoforms of the facilitative glucose transporter (GLUT) that are present in most cells. Currently, a total of 14 isoforms have been identified in the GLUT family [11–13]. GLUT2 is expressed tissue-specifically in the liver, pancreatic β-cells, hypothalamic glial cells, retina and enterocytes [14]. On the other hand, GLUT1 is expressed at high levels in all fetal tissues and, in adults, it is widely expressed but most abundant in erythrocytes, endothelial cells of the blood–brain barrier, renal tubules of the kidney, and any kind of malignant cells including hepatocellular carcinoma [13].

In the present study, we demonstrated that HCV infection suppressed hepatocytic glucose uptake through down-regulation of surface expression of GLUT in a human hepatocellular carcinoma-derived cell line Huh-7.5. We also demonstrated that GLUT2 expression in hepatocytes of the liver tissues from HCV-infected patients was lower than in those from patients without HCV infection. We propose that HCV replication decreases glucose uptake and cell surface expression of GLUT, which would eventually lead to glucose metabolism disorder.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture, HCV RNA replication, HCV infection and IFN treatment

A human hepatoma-derived cell line, Huh-7.5, which is highly permissive to HCV RNA replication [15], was kindly provided by Dr. C.M. Rice (The Rockefeller University, New York, NY, USA). The cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum.

Huh-7.5 cells stably harboring an HCV-1b subgenomic RNA replicon (referred to as SGR cells, hereafter) were prepared as describe previously [16–18], using pFK5B/2884Gly (a kind gift from Dr. R. Bartenschlager, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany). In SGR cells, the HCV subgenomic RNA replicon autonomously replicates to express NS3 to NS5B of HCV (Fig. 1). Cells harboring a full-length HCV-1b RNA replicon derived from pON/C-5B (referred to as FGR cells, hereafter) were described previously [19,20]. In FGR cells, the genome-size HCV RNA replicon autonomously replicates to express all the HCV proteins (the core protein, E1, E2, p7, NS2, NS3 to NS5B).

The pFL-J6/JFH1 plasmid that encodes the entire viral genome of a chimeric strain of HCV-2a, J6/JFH1 [21], was kindly provided by Dr. C.M. Rice. The HCV RNA genome was transcribed *in vitro* from pFL-J6/JFH1 and transfected to Huh-7.5 cells. The virus produced in the culture supernatant was used for infection experiments at multiplicities of infection of 1.0 and cultured for 5 days after virus infection.

In some experiments, SGR and FGR cells, as well as HCV-infected cells at 5 days after virus infection, were treated with 1000 IU/ml of IFN (Sigma, St. Louis, MI, USA) for 10 days to eliminate HCV replication.

2.2. Immunofluorescence

Cells were fixed with 3.7% paraformaldehyde and incubated with mouse monoclonal antibody against HCV NS5A (Chemicon International, Inc., Temecula, CA, USA) or HCV core (Abcam, Tokyo, Japan). The cells were then incubated with fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (MBL Co. Ltd., Nagoya, Japan), and observed under a fluorescent microscope (BX51; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

2.3. Immunoblotting

Cells were solubilized in lysis buffer as reported previously [22]. The cell lysates were electrophoresed subjected to 8% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA, USA). The membranes were incubated with mouse monoclonal antibodies against HCV NS5A or NS3 (Chemicon), followed by incubation with peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (MBL). The positive bands were visualized by using ECL detection system (GE Healthcare UK Ltd., Buckinghamshire, UK).

2.4. Uptake of 2-deoxy-D-glucose and thymidine

Cells cultured in 12-well plates were deprived of serum by incubation in serum-free medium for 12 h. The cells were then pre-incubated for 20 min in 450 μl of KRH (25 mM Hepes, 120 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1.2 mM $MgSO_4$, 1.3 mM $CaCl_2$, 1.3 mM KH_2PO_4 and 0.1% BSA, pH 7.4). Glucose uptake assay was performed as describe previously [23]. In brief, glucose uptake was initiated by addition of 50 μl of reaction solution (KRH containing 0.5 mM, 0.25 μCi 2-deoxy-D-[1,2-^{3}H]glucose) to each well. As a negative control, 100 μM phloretin was added to reaction solution. After 10 min, transport was terminated by washing the cells with ice-cold KRH buffer containing 100 μM phloretin. The cells were solubilized by 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, and the incorporated radioactivity was measured by liquid scintillation counter (LS6500; Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA). In some experiments, GLUT1 and GLUT2 were ectopically expressed by using the pCAGGS expression vector [24] and glucose uptake was measured as described above.

2.5. Flow cytometry

To examine cell surface expression of GLUT1 and GLUT2, cells harvested in PBS containing 0.2% EDTA were incubated with rabbit polyclonal antibodies against GLUT1 or GLUT2 (1:200; Alpha Diagnostic International, San Antonio, TX, USA) on ice for 1 h. After being washed, the cells were incubated with FITC-labeled goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:200; BD Pharmingen, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) on ice for another 1 h. Analysis was carried out using flow cytometer and a total of 10,000 live cell events were measured. Results were displayed graphically as overlaying histograms demonstrating the shift of the mean FITC staining value.