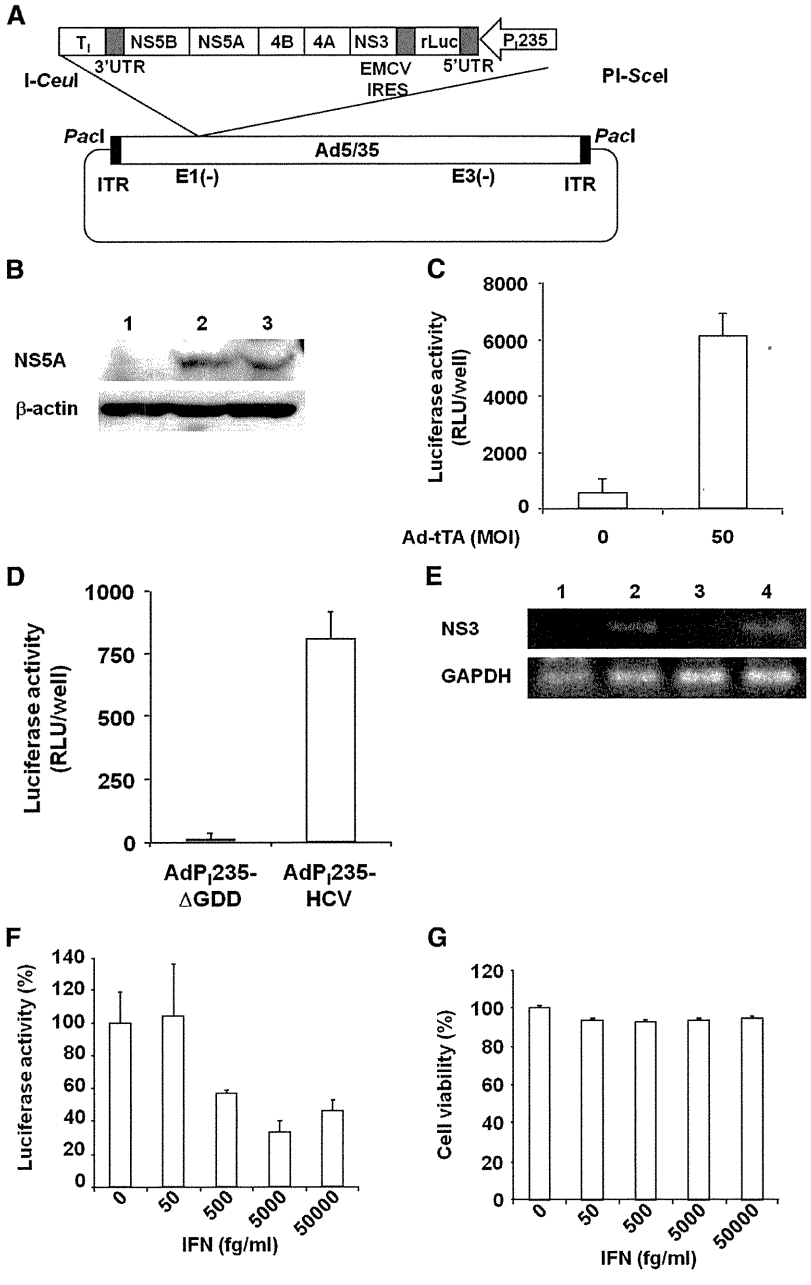

Figure 3. Preparation of Ad vector to monitor HCV replication. (**A**) Construct of Ad vector. The Ad vector contained the chimeric RNA pol I promoter (P_I235) and the HCV replicon to monitor HCV replication as the luciferase expression. (**B**) Expression of HCV NS5A protein in Huh7 cells transfected with AdP_I235-HCV. The cells were transfected with AdP_I235-HCV (10 MOI) and Ad-tTA (50 MOI). After 72 h of incubation, the cells were harvested, and the lysates (30 μg) were subjected to SDS–PAGE, followed by immunoblotting with antibody against NS5A. Huh7 cells and Huh7.5.1 1bFeo cells were used as the negative and positive controls, respectively. Lane 1, Huh7 cells; lane 2, Huh7 cells infected with AdP_I235-HCV; lane 3, Huh7.5.1 1bFeo cells. (**C**) Expression of luciferase in the Ad vector-transfected cells. Huh7 cells were co-infected with AdP_I235-HCV (10 MOI) and 0 or 50 MOI of Ad-tTA. After an additional 48 h of incubation, the luciferase activity was measured. Data represent the mean ± SD ($n = 3$). (**D**) Involvement of NS5B in expression of luciferase in the Ad vector-transfected cells. Huh7 cells were infected with AdP_I235-HCV or AdP_I235-ΔGDD (3 MOI) and Ad-tTA (15 MOI). After 24 h, the cells were treated with 10 μg/ml of Dox for 48 h. Then, the luciferase activity was measured. Data represent the mean ± SD ($n = 3$). (**E**) Expression of minus-stranded HCV RNA in the Ad vector-transfected cells. Huh7 cells were co-infected with AdP_I235-HCV or AdP_I235-ΔGDD at 3 MOI and Ad-tTA at 15 MOI. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 10 μg/ml of Dox for 48 h. Then RT-PCR analysis was performed for detection of minus-stranded HCV NS3 and GAPDH. The PCR products were separated on 2% agarose gel. Huh7 cells and Huh7.5.1 1bFeo cells were used as the negative and positive controls, respectively. Lane 1, Huh7 cells; lane 2, Huh7.5.1 1bFeo cells; lane 3, Huh7 cells infected with AdP_I235-ΔGDD; lane 4, Huh7 cells infected with AdP_I235-HCV. (**F** and **G**) Effect of IFN on the replication of HCV replicon. Huh7 cells were infected with AdP_I235-HCV (10 MOI) and Ad-rtTA (50 MOI). After 1.5 h of infection, the cells were treated with IFN at the indicated concentration for 72 h. Then, the luciferase activity (F) and the cell viability (G) were measured. Data represent the percentage of vehicle-treated cells. Data are the mean ± SD ($n = 3$).

Transgenes delivered by a conventional Ad5 vector are limited to a size of 8.1–8.2-kb (32), and the size of HCV replicon is ~8.2-kb (containing a 1.0-kb luciferase gene and a 7.2-kb fragment of HCV genome) (8). The lack of a successful preparation of Ad5 vector may be partly due to limitation of packaging transgene. Mizuguchi and Hayakawa prepared a chimeric Ad vector containing type 5 and type 35 fiber proteins, which is a package 8.8-kb of foreign gene (26). CD46 is a receptor for Ad type 35 (Ad35), and CD46 is ubiquitously expressed in human cells (33,34). The Ad5/35 chimera vector can transduce various human cells more effectively than Ad5 vectors, indicating that the Ad5/35 vector may be a better system than Ad5 (26,35). In this study, we successfully prepared an Ad5/35 vector coding a tet-regulated RNA pol I-driven HCV replicon, and we found that the Ad5/35 vectors could be applied to evaluation of anti-HCV activity.

In conclusion, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first report to establish a novel strategy for the preparation of Ad vector expressing the HCV genome by using a tet-controllable expression system. Replication-incompetent HCV particles will be a promising candidate for vaccine therapy for HCV. As mentioned above, the packaging size (8.8-kb) of Ad5/35 vector used in the present study is smaller than that of the HCV RNA genome (9.6-kb), and, therefore, the preparation of inactive HCV particles using Ad5/35 vector is impossible. Helper-dependent Ad vector (HDAd), in which all viral coding sequences are deleted, can deliver a large capacity of ~37-kb to cells (36). Tet-controllable RNA pol I HDAd vector might contribute to the development of vaccine therapy for HCV.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary Data are available at NAR Online.

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A Novel Screening System for Claudin Binder Using Baculoviral Display

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Abstract

Recent progress in cell biology has provided new insight into the claudin (CL) family of integral membrane proteins, which contains more than 20 members, as a target for pharmaceutical therapy. Few ligands for CL have been identified because it is difficult to prepare CL in an intact form. In the present study, we developed a method to screen for CL binders by using the budded baculovirus (BV) display system. CL4-displaying BV interacted with a CL4 binder, the C-terminal fragment of *Clostridium perfringens* enterotoxin (C-CPE), but it did not interact with C-CPE that was mutated in its CL4-binding region. C-CPE did not interact with BV and CL1-displaying BV. We used CL4-displaying BV to select CL4-binding phage in a mixture of a scFv-phage and C-CPE-phage. The percentage of C-CPE-phage in the phage mixture increased from 16.7% before selection to 92% after selection, indicating that CL-displaying BV may be useful for the selection of CL binders. We prepared a C-CPE phage library by mutating the functional amino acids. We screened the library for CL4 binders by affinity to CL4-displaying BV, and we found that the novel CL4 binders modulated the tight-junction barrier. These findings indicate that the CL-displaying BV system may be a promising method to produce a novel CL binder and modulator.

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Introduction

Tight junctions (TJ) are intercellular adhesion complexes in epithelial and endothelial cells; TJs are located in the most apical part of the complexes [1]. TJs have a barrier function and a fence function [2–4]. TJs contribute to epithelial and endothelial barrier functions by restricting the diffusion of solutes through the paracellular pathway. TJs maintain cellular polarity by preventing the free movement of membrane proteins between the apical and basal membranes [5]. Loss of cell-cell adhesion and cellular polarity commonly occurs in the early stages of cancer [6]. Modulation of the TJ barrier function can be a method to enhance drug absorption, and TJ components exposed on the surface of cancer cells can be a target for cancer therapy.

Biochemical analyses of TJs have identified TJ components, such as occludin, claudins (CLs) and junction adhesion molecule [7]. The CL family contains more than 20 integral tetra-transmembrane proteins that play pivotal roles in the TJ barrier and fence functions. CL1-deficient mice lack the epidermal barrier, while CL5-deficient mice lack the blood-brain barrier [8,9], indicating that the regulation of the TJ barrier by modulation of CLs may be a promising method for drug delivery. *Clostridium perfringens* enterotoxin (CPE) causes food poisoning in humans [10]. An interaction between the C-terminal domain of CPE (C-CPE) with CL4 deregulates the TJ barrier [11,12]. We previously found that C-CPE enhances jejunal absorption through its interaction with CL4, indicating that a CL binder is a potent drug-delivery system [13].

The majority of lethal cancers are derived from epithelial tissues [14]. Malignant tumor cells frequently exhibit abnormal TJ function, followed by the deregulation of cellular polarity and intercellular contact, which is commonly observed in both advanced tumors and the early stages of carcinogenesis [6]. Some CLs are overexpressed in various types of cancers. For example, CL3 and CL4 are overexpressed in breast, prostate, ovarian, pancreatic and gastric cancers. CL1, CL7, CL10 and CL16 are overexpressed in colon, gastric, thyroid and ovarian cancers, respectively [15,16]. These findings indicate that the CLs may be a target molecule for cancer therapy. A receptor for CPE is CL4 [11,12]. CPE has anti-tumor activity against human pancreatic and ovarian cancers without side effects [17,18]. The CLs binders will be useful for cancer-targeting therapy.

As above, recent investigations of CLs provide new insight into their use as pharmaceutical agents; for example, a CL binder may be used in drug delivery and anti-tumor therapy. Selection of a CL binder by using a recombinant CL protein is a putative method to

prepare a CL binder. However, CLs are four-transmembrane proteins with high hydrophobicity; there has been little success in the preparation of intact CL protein. Recently, a novel type of protein expression system that uses baculovirus has been developed. Membrane proteins are displayed on the budded baculovirus (BV) in their active form [19–21], indicating that the BV system may be useful for the preparation of a CL binder. In the present study, we investigated whether a CL binder was screened by using a CL-displaying BV.

Results

Preparation of CL4-displaying BV

C-CPE is the only known CL binder and modulator [12,13,22]. C-CPE has affinity to CL4 in a nanomolar range [23]. We chose C-CPE and CL4 as models of the CL binder and CL, respectively. Several reports indicate that membrane proteins expressed on the surface of BV are in an intact form [19–21]. To check the expression of CL4 on the BV, we performed immunoblot analysis of the lysate of CL4-BV against CL4. As shown in Fig. 1A, CL4 was detected in the virus lysates. To determine if the CL4 expressed on the virus has an intact form, we performed enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) with CL4-BV-coated immunoplates. C-CPE binds to the extracellular loop domain of CL4 [23]. After the addition of C-CPE to the CL4-BV-coated plate, the C-CPE bound to the CL4-BV-coated plate was detected by anti-his-tag antibody, followed by incubation with horseradish peroxidase-labeled antibody. C-CPE was dose-dependently bound to CL4-BV, whereas C-CPE did not interact with wild-BV (Fig. 1B). Deletion of the CL4-binding region (C-CPE303) attenuated the interaction of C-CPE with CL4-BV (Fig. 1C). Together, these results indicate that the CL4 displayed on BV may have an intact extracellular loop region.

Selection of C-CPE-phage by using CL4-BV

We next examined the interaction between C-CPE-phage and CL4-BV. As shown in Fig. 2A, C-CPE-phage bound to CL4-BV but not to wild-BV, and a scFv-phage did not bind to CL4-BV. To determine if CL-BV can be used to select CL binders, we prepared a mixture of C-CPE-phage and scFv-phage at a ratio of 2:10 and used CL4-BV to select CL4-binding phage in the mixtures. The amount of C-CPE-phage was increased to 11 of 12 clones in the mixture (Fig. 2B), indicating that CL-BV may be useful in the preparation of CL binders.

We previously found that each substitution of S304, S305, S307, N309, S313 and K318 with alanine increased the binding of C-CPE to CL4 [24]. Here, we prepared a phage library for C-CPE by randomly changing the functional 6 amino acids to any of the 20 amino acids. To confirm the diversity of the library, we checked the sequences of 17 randomly isolated clones. Each of the 17 clones had a different sequence, indicating that the library has a diverse population of C-CPE mutants (Table 1).

Then, we screened the CL4-binding phage by their affinity to CL4-BV. After addition of the C-CPE library to CL4-BV-adsorbed tubes, the CL4-BV-bound phages were recovered (1st screening). We repeated this screening process two more times (2nd screening and 3rd screening). If the number of CL4-bound phage is increased during the screening, the ratio of the incubated phage titers to the recovered phage titers will increase. As shown in Fig. 3A, the ratio was increased during screening from 4.5×10^{-7} to 5.5×10^{-5}, indicating that the screening system for CL4 binders may work. Indeed, the number of monoclonal phage clones with high affinity to CL4-BV was increased after the 3rd screening compared with that after the 2nd screening (Fig. 3B).

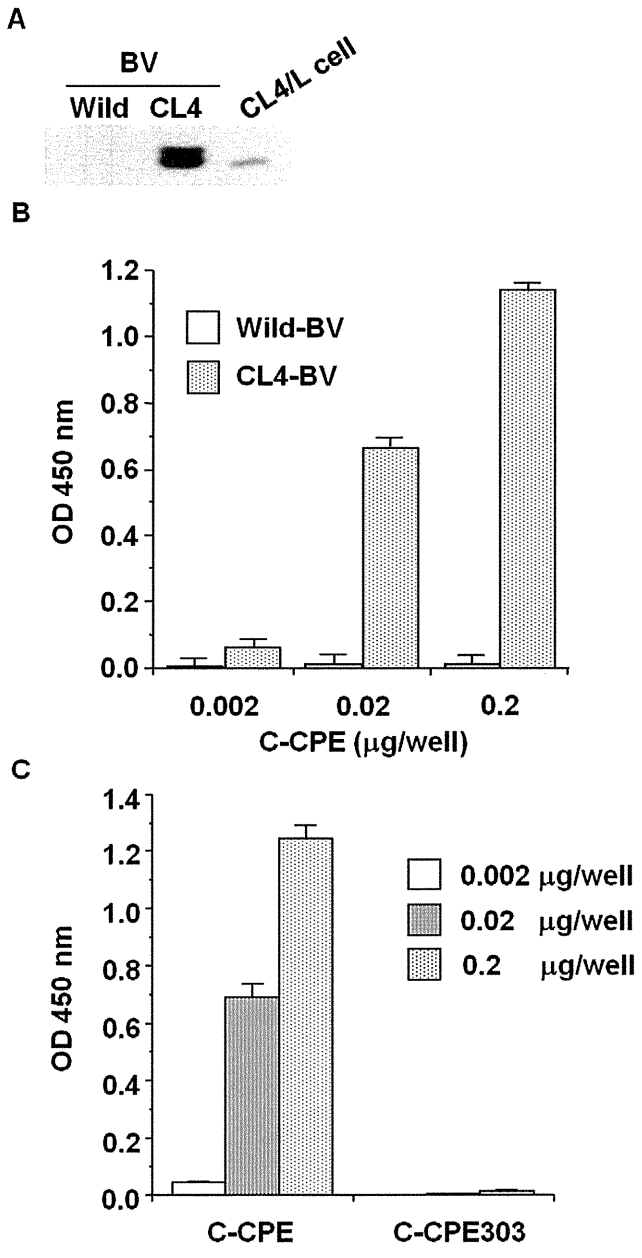

Figure 1. Preparation of CL4-displaying BV. A) Immunoblot analysis. Wild-BV and CL4-BV (0.1 μg/lane) were subjected to SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblot analysis with anti-CL4 antibody. The lysate of CL4-expressing L (CL4/L) cells was used as a positive control. B, C) Interaction of a CL4 binder with CL4-BV. Immunotubes were coated with the wild-BV or CL4-BV, and C-CPE (B) or mutated C-CPE (C) was added to the BV-coated immunotubes at the indicated concentration. C-CPE bound to the BV-coated tubes was detected by ELISA with an anti-his-tag antibody.
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We analyzed the sequences of the CL4-BV-bound phages and got novel CL4-binder candidates with amino acid sequences that differed from the wild-type sequence (Table 2). To investigate their CL4-binding, we prepared the recombinant proteins of the binders and investigated their interaction with CL4 by ELISA with CL-BVs. As shown in Fig. 4A, the novel C-CPE derivatives had affinity to CL4 but not CL1. Next, we investigated whether the novel CL4 binders modulate TJ barrier in Caco-2 monolayer cell sheets, a popular model for the evaluation of TJ barriers [25].

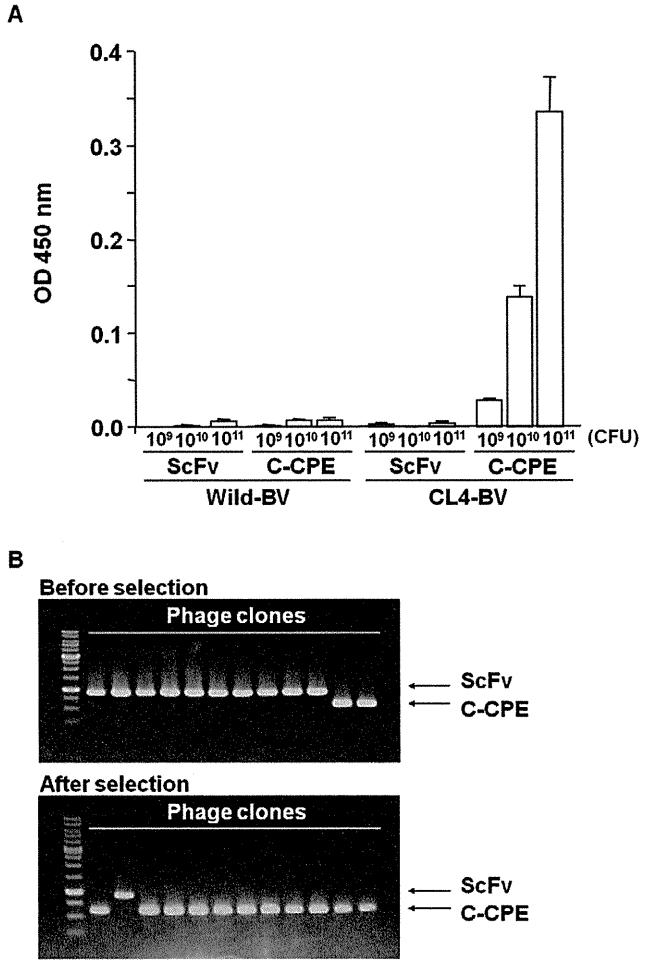

Figure 2. Selection of C-CPE-displaying phage by using the CL4-BV system. A) Interaction of C-CPE-displaying phage with CL4-BV. Wild-BV or CL4-BV was coated on an immunoplate, and then scFv-displaying phage or C-CPE-displaying phage was added to the BV-coated immunoplate at the indicated concentrations. The BV-bound phages were detected by ELISA with anti-M13 antibody as described in Materials and methods. Data are representative of two independent experiments. Data are means ± SD (n = 3). B) Enrichment of C-CPE-displaying phage by the BV system. A mixture of scFv-phage and C-CPE-phage (mixing ratio of scFv-phage to C-CPE-phage = 2:10) was incubated with a CL4-BV-coated immunotube, and the bound phages were recovered. Each phage clone was identified by PCR amplification, followed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Upper and lower pictures are before and after the selection, respectively. The putative sizes of the PCR products are 856 and 523 bp in scFv and C-CPE, respectively. The data are representative of two independent experiments.
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Treatment of the cells with C-CPE resulted in decreased transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) values, a marker of TJ integrity, and the TEER values increased after removal of C-CPE. The C-CPE derivatives (clones 1–5) had TJ-modulating activity similar to that of C-CPE (Fig. 4B).

Discussion

CL is a promising target for pharmaceutical therapy. However, CL has low antigenicity, and there has been little success in the preparation of monoclonal antibody against the extracellular loop region of CL. The three-dimensional structure of CL has never been determined, so it is impossible to perform a theoretical design

Table 1. C-CPE phage library.

	304	305	307	309	313	318
C-CPE	**S**	**S**	**S**	**N**	**S**	**K**
Clone 1	V	T	C	V	N	K
2	C	P	A	H	L	T
3	A	G	G	V	P	P
4	R	G	H	L	E	H
5	A	A	P	S	R	Q
6	P	A	P	D	P	A
7	C	T	T	T	N	K
8	H	P	S	P	G	H
9	R	G	G	R	N	R
10	A	P	S	T	Q	P
11	V	L	G	N	M	R
12	P	P	A	T	F	R
13	G	D	C	S	N	L
14	F	R	V	F	R	N
15	S	Q	Q	W	T	T
16	S	R	L	E	W	Q
17	K	R	E	R	Q	S

Phage clones were randomly picked up from the C-CPE phage library, and the amino acids sequences of C-CPE mutant were analyzed.
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of a CL binder based on the structural information. In the present study, we developed a novel screening system for CL binders by using a BV system and a C-CPE phage display library, and we used this system to identify novel CL4 binders.

In ligand screening, the preparation of a receptor for the ligand is very critical. Membrane proteins are especially difficult to prepare as recombinant protein with an intact structure. Functional membrane proteins such as cell-surface proteins are heterologously expressed on BV in their native forms [19–21]. Interactions between membrane proteins can be detected by using receptor-displaying and ligand-displaying BV [21]. In the present report, we found that CL4-BV interacts with a CL4 binder, C-CPE, but it does not interact with C-CPE303 that lacks the CL4-binding residues of C-CPE. The CL4-binding site of C-CPE corresponds to that of CPE; so, the second extracellular loop of CL appears to be the C-CPE-binding site [23,26]. These findings indicate that CL4 displayed on BV may have native form. We anticipate that CL-BV will be useful for the preparation of CL binders, such as peptides and antibodies.

To the best of our knowledge, the preparation of CL binder has been performed by only four groups. Offner et al. prepared polyclonal antibodies against extracellular domains of CL3 and CL4 [27], Ling et al. screened peptide types of CL4 binder by using a 12-mer peptide phage display library and CL4-expressing cells [28], Suzuki et al. generated a monoclonal antibody against the second extracellular loop of CL4 from mice immunized with a human pancreatic cancer cell line [29] and Romani et al. screened scFv against CL3 by using a human antibody phage display library [30]. However, the CL modulators have never been developed; thus, C-CPE is the only known CL4 modulator [12]. In the present study, we prepared a C-CPE phage library containing C-CPE mutants in which each of the 6 functional amino acids was randomly replaced with an amino acid, and we isolated CL4 binders by using CL4-BV as a screening ligand. Interestingly, all of

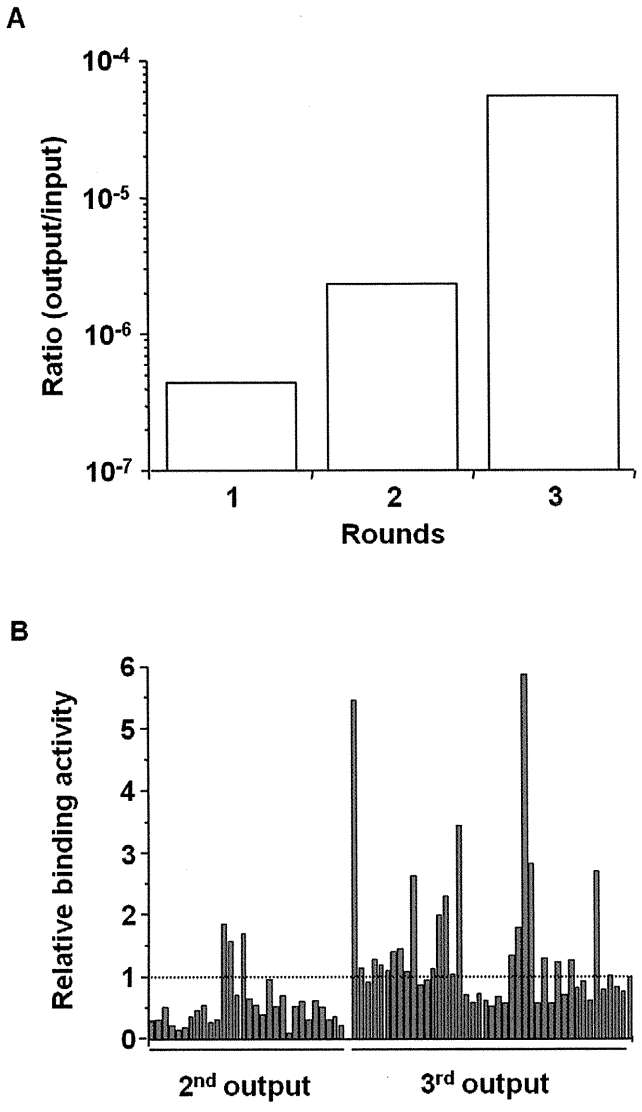

Figure 3. Screening of a novel CL4 binder. A) Enrichment of phages with affinity to CL4-BV. CL4-BVs coated on immunotubes were incubated with the C-CPE-derivative phage library at 1.6×10^{12} CFU titer (1^{st} input phage). The phages bound to CL4-BV were recovered (1^{st} output phage). The CL4-BV-binding phages were subjected to two additional cycles of the incubation and wash step, resulting in 2^{nd}, 3^{rd} output phage. The ratio of output phage to input phage titers was calculated. B) Monoclonal analysis of C-CPE-derivative phage. CL4-BV-bound phage clones were isolated from the 2^{nd} and 3^{rd} output phages, and the interaction of the monoclonal phage with CL4-BV was examined by ELISA with anti-M13 antibody as described in Materials and methods. Data are expressed as relative binding to that of C-CPE-phage indicated by the most right column.
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the CL4 binders modulated TJ barriers. We are investigating why the substitution of the amino acids with the other amino acids modulated CL4. These findings indicate that a BV screening system with a C-CPE library may be a powerful method to develop CL modulators.

The CL family forms various types of TJ barriers through combinations of its more than 20 members in homophilic/heterophilic CL strands [31,32]. Intercellular proteins ZO-1 and ZO-2 determine the localization of CL strands [33]. If a screening system to reconstitute heterogeneous CL strands with ZO-1 and/or ZO-2 is developed, then useful and effective CL modulators can be identified. In this point, the BV system has extremely superior features. G protein and G protein-coupled receptors have been

Table 2. CL4-binding phages.

	304	305	307	309	313	318
C-CPE	**S**	**S**	**S**	**N**	**S**	**K**
Clone 1	R	V	S	A	R	R
2	R	S	V	A	R	K
3	G	D	G	R	T	R
4	S	A	P	R	S	A
5	R	S	L	K	S	K

The sequences of C-CPE mutant in the CL4-binding phages were analyzed.
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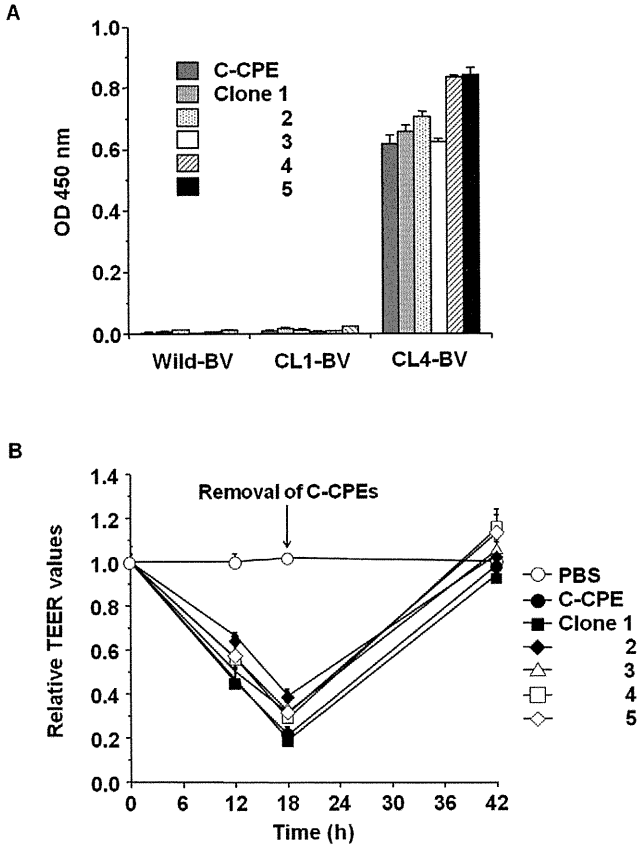

Figure 4. Isolation of a novel CL4 modulator. A) Interaction of the C-CPE derivatives with CL4. C-CPE derivatives were prepared as his-tagged recombinant proteins. The C-CPE derivatives (0.02 μg) were added to CL-BV-coated immunoplates, followed by detection of the C-CPE derivatives bound to CL-BV. Data are means ± SD (n = 4). B) Modulation of tight junction-barriers. Caco-2 cells were cultured on Transwell™ chambers. When TEER values reach a plateau, the cells were treated with C-CPE or C-CPE derivatives at the indicated concentrations. After 18 h of exposure to the C-CPEs, the cells were washed with medium to remove C-CPEs, and then the cells were cultured for an additional 24 h. Changes in TEER values were monitored during the C-CPEs treatment. Relative TEER values were calculated as the ratio of TEER values at 0 h. Data are representative of two independent experiments. The data are means ± SD (n = 4).
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functionally reconstituted in BV [20,34], and functional γ-secretase complexes have also been reconstituted on BV [35]. In the near future, the reconstituted CL system on BV will be developed and used for the screening of CL binders and modulators, hopefully leading to breakthroughs in pharmaceutical therapies that target CLs.

Materials and Methods

Recombinant BV construction and Sf9 cell culture

Recombinant BV was prepared by using the Bac-to-Bac expression system, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen, Gaithersburg, MD). Briefly, mouse CL1 and CL4 cDNA (kind gifts from Dr. M Furuse, Kobe University, Japan) were inserted into pFastBac1, and the resulting plasmids were transduced into DH10Bac *E. Coli* cells. Recombinant bacmid DNA was extracted from the cells. Sf9 cells were transduced with the bacmid coding CL, and the recombinant BV was recovered by centrifugation of the conditioned medium [36].

Preparation of the BV fractions

Sf9 cells (2×10^6 cells) were infected with recombinant BV at a multiplicity of infection of 5. Seventy-two hours after infection, the BV fraction was recovered from the culture supernatant of infected Sf9 cells by centrifugation. The pellets of the BV fraction were resuspended in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) containing 1% protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) and then stored at 4°C until use. The expression of CL1 and CL4 in the BV was confirmed by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and immunoblot analysis with anti-CL antibodies (Zymed Laboratory, South San Francisco, CA).

Preparation of mutant C-CPE library

C-CPE fragments in which the functional amino acids (S304, S305, S307, N309, S313 and K318) [24] were randomly mutated were prepared by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with pET-H_{10}PER as a template, a forward primer (5′-catgccatggccgatatagaaaaagaaatccttgatttagctgctg-3′, Nco I site is underlined) and a reverse primer (5′-ttttcctttgcggccgcaaa*nnn*ttgaaataatat*nnn*ataagggta*nnn*tcc*nnn*ata*nnnnn*attagcttt-3′, Not I site is underlined, and the randomly mutated amino acids are in italics). The PCR fragments were inserted into a pY03 phagemid at the NcoI/NotI sites [22]. The resultant phagemid containing the C-CPE mutant library was transduced into *E. coli* TG1 cells, and then the cells were stored at −80°C.

Preparation of phage

TG1 cells containing phagemid coding a scFv, C-CPE, C-CPE mutant or C-CPE mutant library were culture in 2YT medium containing 2% glucose and ampicillin. When the cells grew to a growing phage, M13K07 helper phages (Invitrogen) were added, and the medium was changed into 2YT medium containing ampicillin and kanamycin. After an additional 6 h of culture, the phages in the conditioned medium were precipitated with polyethylene glycol. The phages were suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and stored at 4°C until use.

ELISA

Wild-BVs or CL-BVs (0.5 μg/well) were adsorbed onto an immunoplate (Greiner Bio-One, Frickenhausen, Germany). The wells were washed with PBS and blocked with TBS containing 1.6% BlockAce (Dainippon Sumitomo Pharma, Osaka, Japan). C-CPEs or phages were incubated in the immunoplate, and the BV-bound C-CPEs or phages were detected by using anti-his-tag antibody (Novagen, Darmstadt, Germany) or anti-M13 antibody (Amersham-Pharmacia Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden), respectively, horseradish peroxidase-labelled secondary antibody and TMB peroxidase substrate (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan). The immunoreactive C-CPEs or phages were quantified by the measurement of absorbance at 450 nm. In the screening of phages, the data were normalized by the amounts of phages, which were quantified by ELISA for the FLAG-tag contained in the coat protein.

Selection of phage by using BV

A total of 0.5 μg of BV was adsorbed onto an immunotube (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark). The tube was washed with PBS and blocked with TBS containing 4.0% BlockAce. The BV-coated tubes were incubated with mixture of phages, and then the tubes were washed 15 times with PBS and 15 times with PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20. The phages bound to the tube were eluted with 100 mM HCl. TG1 cells were infected with the eluted phages, and phages were prepared as described above. The resulting phages were subjected to repeated selection by using the BV-coated immunotubes.

Identification of a phage clone

To identify an isolated phage clone, we performed PCR or sequencing analysis. We amplified the inserted fragment into the phagemid by PCR using forward primer 5′-caggaaacagctatgac-3′ and reverse primer 5′-gtaaatgaattttctgtatgagg-3′. The resultant PCR products were subjected to agarose gel electrophoresis followed by staining with ethidium bromide. We performed a sequence analysis with primer 5′-gtaaatgaattttctgtatgagg-3′.

Measurement of phage titer

To quantify the concentration of phages, we measured the titer (colony formation unit (CFU)/ml) of the phage solution. Briefly, the phage solution was diluted to 10^{-5}–10^{-10} with PBS. The diluted solution was seeded onto Petrifilm™ (Tech-Jam, Osaka, Japan). After 24 h of incubation, the colonies were counted, and the titer was calculated.

Purification of C-CPE mutants

C-CPE and C-CPE303, in which the CL-4 binding region of C-CPE was deleted, were prepared as described previously [13]. To prepare plasmid containing C-CPE mutants, the C-CPE mutant fragment was PCR-amplified by using phagemids coding C-CPE mutants as a template. The resulting PCR fragment was inserted into pET16b, and the sequence was confirmed. The plasmids were transduced into *E. coli* strain BL21 (DE3), and production of mutant C-CPEs was induced by the addition of isopropyl-D-thiogalactopyranoside. The harvested cells were lysed in buffer A (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 400 mM NaCl, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride, 1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, and 10% glycerol) that was supplemented with 8 M urea when necessary. The lysates were applied to HiTrap™ Chelating HP (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK), and mutant C-CPEs were eluted with buffer A containing 100–400 mM imidazole. The buffer was exchanged with PBS by using a PD-10 column (GE Healthcare), and the purified protein was stored at −80°C until use. Purification of the mutant C-CPEs was confirmed by SDS-PAGE, followed by staining with Coomassie Brilliant Blue and by immunoblotting with anti-his-tag antibody (Novagen). Protein was quantified by using a BCA protein assay kit with bovine serum albumin as a standard (Pierce Chemical, Rockford, IL).

TEER assay

Caco-2 cells were seeded in Transwell™ chambers (Corning, NY) at a subconfluent density. The TEER of the Caco-2 monolayer cell sheets on the chamber was monitored by using a Millicell-ERS epithelial volt-ohmmeter (Millipore, Billerica, MA). When TEER values reached a plateau, indicating that TJs were well-developed in the cell sheets, the Caco-2 monolayers were treated with C-CPE or C-CPE mutants on the basal side of the chamber. Changes in TEER values were monitored. The TEER values were normalized by the area of the Caco-2 monolayer, and the TEER value of a blank Transwell™ chamber (background) was subtracted.

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: MK TS TH KY. Performed the experiments: HK AT MK YS TY TS. Analyzed the data: HK AT MK KY. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: HK AK TS TH. Wrote the manuscript: HK MK TY.

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Use of human hepatocyte-like cells derived from induced pluripotent stem cells as a model for hepatocytes in hepatitis C virus infection

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ABSTRACT

Host tropism of hepatitis C virus (HCV) is limited to human and chimpanzee. HCV infection has never been fully understood because there are few conventional models for HCV infection. Human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived hepatocyte-like (iPS-Hep) cells have been expected to use for drug discovery to predict therapeutic activities and side effects of compounds during the drug discovery process. However, the suitability of iPS-Hep cells as an experimental model for HCV research is not known. Here, we investigated the entry and genomic replication of HCV in iPS-Hep cells by using HCV pseudotype virus (HCVpv) and HCV subgenomic replicons, respectively. We showed that iPS-Hep cells, but not iPS cells, were susceptible to infection with HCVpv. The iPS-Hep cells expressed HCV receptors, including CD81, scavenger receptor class B type I (SR-BI), claudin-1, and occludin; in contrast, the iPS cells showed no expression of SR-BI or claudin-1. HCV RNA genome replication occurred in the iPS-Hep cells. Anti-CD81 antibody, an inhibitor of HCV entry, and interferon, an inhibitor of HCV genomic replication, dose-dependently attenuated HCVpv entry and HCV subgenomic replication in iPS-Hep cells, respectively. These findings suggest that iPS-Hep cells are an appropriate model for HCV infection.

1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV), a hepatotropic member of the *Flaviviridae* family, is the leading cause of chronic hepatitis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. Approximately 130–200 million people are estimated to be infected with HCV worldwide. Each year, 3–4 million people are newly infected with HCV [1]. Thus, overcoming HCV is a critical issue for the World Health Organization.

HCV contains a positive strand ~9.6 kb RNA encoding a single polyprotein (~3000 aa), which is cleaved by host and viral proteases to form structural proteins (core, E1, E2, and p7) and nonstructural proteins (NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B) [1]. These virus proteins might be potent targets for anti-HCV drugs. However, combination therapy with interferon and ribavirin, which often causes severe side-effects leading to treatment termination, has been the only therapeutic choice [2]. Very recently, new direct antiviral agents have been approved or are under clinical trials; these agents include NS3 protease inhibitors, NS5A inhibitors, and NS5B polymerase inhibitors [2–4]. However, the emergence of drug resistance is a serious problem associated with the use of direct antiviral agents [5].

Host targets are alternative targets for the development of anti-HCV drugs. A liver-specific microRNA (miRNA), miR-122, facilitates the replication of the HCV RNA genome in cultured liver cells [6]. Administration of a chemically modified oligonucleotide complementary to miR-122 results in long-lasting suppression of HCV with no appearance of resistant HCV in chimpanzees [7]. Epidermal

Abbreviations: HCV, hepatitis C virus; iPS-Hep cells, human induced pluripotent stem cells-derived hepatocyte-like cells; HCVpv, HCV pseudotype virus; SR-BI, scavenger receptor class B type I; miRNA, microRNA; EGF-R, epidermal growth factor receptor; EphA2, ephrin factor A2; iPS cells, human induced pluripotent stem cells; FCS, fetal calf serum; Ad, adenovirus; HNF-4α, hepatocyte nuclear factor-4α; RT, reverse transcription; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; VSV, vesicular stomatitis virus; VSVpv, VSV pseudotype virus; tet, tetracycline; pol, polymerase; MOI, multiplicity of infection; Dox, doxycycline; IFN, interferon-α8; ES cells, embryonic stem cells.

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growth factor receptor (EGF-R) and ephrin factor A2 (EphA2) are host cofactors for HCV entry [8]. Inhibitors of EGF-R and EphA2 attenuated HCV entry, and prevented the appearance of viral escape variants [8]. These findings strongly indicate that identification of host factors associated with infection of human liver by HCV is a potent strategy for anti-HCV drug development. Because the host tropism of HCV is limited to human and chimpanzee [9], there is no convenient model for the evaluation of HCV infections. This has led to a delay in the development of anti-HCV agents targeting host factors.

Takahashi and Yamanaka developed human induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells from human somatic cells [10]. The stem cells can be redifferentiated *in vitro*, leading to new models for drug discovery, including iPS-based models for drug discovery, toxicity assessment, and disease modeling [11,12].

Recently, several groups reported that iPS cells can be successfully differentiated into hepatocyte-like (iPS-Hep) cells that show many functions associated with mature hepatocytes [13–19]. However, whether iPS-Hep cells are suitable as a model for HCV infection has not been fully determined. Here, we investigated HCV entry and genomic replication in iPS-Hep cells by using HCV pseudotype virus (HCVpv) and HCV subgenomic replicons, respectively.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture

Huh7 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS). An iPS cell-line (Dot-com) generated from the human embryonic lung fibroblast cell-line MCR5 was obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources Cell Bank [20,21]. The iPS cells were maintained on a feeder layer of mitomycin C-treated mouse embryonic fibroblasts (Millipore, Billerica, MA) in iPSellon culture medium (Cardio, Hyogo, Japan) supplemented with 10 ng/ml fibroblast growth factor-2.

2.2. In vitro differentiation

Before the initiation of cellular differentiation, the medium of the iPS cells was replaced with a defined serum-free medium, hESF9, and the cells were cultured as previously reported [22]. The iPS cells were differentiated into iPS-Hep cells by using adenovirus (Ad) vectors expressing SOX17, the homeotic gene HEX or hepatocyte nuclear factor 4α (HNF-4α) in addition to the appropriate growth factors, cytokines, and supplements, as described previously [19].

2.3. Reverse transcription (RT)-polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis of HCV receptors

Total RNA samples were reverse-transcribed using the SuperScript VILO cDNA Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA), and the resultant cDNAs were PCR amplified by using Ex Taq DNA polymerase (TaKaRa Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan) and specific paired-primers for CD81 (5′-cgccaaggatgtgaagcagttc-3′ and 5′-tcccggagaagaggtcatcgat-3′), scavenger receptor class B type I (SR-BI; 5′-attccgatcagtgcaa catga-3′ and 5′-cagttttgcttcctgcagcacag-3′), claudin-1 (5′-tcagcact gccctgccccagt-3′ and 5′-tggtgttgggtaagaggttgt-3′), occludin (5′-tca gggaatatccacctatcacttcag-3′ and 5′-catcagcagcagccatgtactcttcac-3′), or glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (5′-tct tcaccaccatggagaag-3′ and 5′-accacctggtgctcagtgta-3′). The expected sizes of the PCR products were 245 bp for CD81, 788 bp for SR-BI, 521 bp for claudin-1, 189 bp for occludin, and 544 bp for GAPDH. The PCR products were separated on 2% agarose gels and visualized by staining with ethidium bromide.

2.4. HCVpv infection

Pseudotype vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) bearing HCV envelope glycoproteins (HCVpv) and VSV envelope glycoproteins (VSVpv) were prepared as described previously [23]. iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were treated with HCVpv or mixtures of HCVpv or VSVpv and anti-CD81 monoclonal antibody (JS-81; BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) or control mouse IgG for 2 h. After an additional 24 h of culture, the luciferase activities were measured by using a commercially available kit (PicaGene, Toyo Ink, Tokyo, Japan).

2.5. Preparation of Ad vector expressing the HCV replicon

Ad vectors expressing a tetracycline (tet)-controllable and RNA polymerase (pol) I promoter-driven HCV subgenomic replicon containing renilla luciferase (AdP_I235-HCV), a replication-incompetent HCV subgenomic replicon containing renilla luciferase (AdP_I235-ΔGDD), tet-responsive trans-activator (Ad-tTA) or a tet-controllable RNA pol-I driven firefly luciferase (AdP_I235-fluc) were prepared by using an *in vitro* ligation method as described previously [24–26]. The biological activity (infectious unit) of the Ad vectors was measured by using an Adeno-X rapid titer kit (Clontech, Mountain View, CA).

2.6. HCV replication assay

iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were infected with AdP_I235-HCV or AdP_I235-ΔGDD at multiplicity of infection (MOI; infectious unit per cell) of 3, and Ad-tTA at MOI of 15. After 24 h, the cells were treated with 10 μg/ml of doxycycline (Dox) for 48 h. Renilla luciferase activities in the lysates were then measured with the use of the Renilla Luciferase Assay System (Promega, Madison, WI). To normalize for the infectivity of Ad vector, iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were co-infected with AdP_I235-fluc (3 MOI) and Ad-tTA (15 MOI). After a 72-h incubation, the firefly luciferase activities in the lysates were measured, and the renilla luciferase activities were normalized by dividing by the corresponding firefly luciferase activities.

2.7. Quantitative analysis of plus- and minus-strand HCV RNA

iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were co-infected with AdP_I235-HCV or AdP_I235-ΔGDD (3 MOI), and Ad-tTA (15 MOI). After 24 h, the cells were treated with 10 μg/ml of Dox for 48 h. Total RNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA by using the Thermoscript reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen) as described previously [27,28]. Real-time PCR was performed with SYBR Premix Ex Taq (TaKaRa Bio Inc.) by using Applied Biosystems StepOne Plus (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The transcription products of the HCV plus-strand RNA, minus-strand RNA, and GAPDH gene, were amplified by using specific primers for HCV plus-strand RNA (RC1 primer, 5′-gtctagccatggcgttagta-3′; and RC21 primer, 5′-ctcccggggcactcgcaagc-3′), HCV minus-strand RNA (tag primer, 5′-ggccgtcatggtggcgaataa-3′; and RC21 primer), and GAPDH (5′-ggtggtctcctctgacttcaaca-3′ and 5′-gtggtcgttgagggcaatg-3′), respectively. The copy numbers of the transcription products of the HCV plus- and minus-strand RNA were normalized with those of the GAPDH gene and infectivity of Ad vector as described in the Section 2.6.

2.8. Inhibition of HCV replication by interferon-α8

iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were infected with AdP_I235-HCV (3 MOI) and Ad-tTA (15 MOI). After 24 h of infection, the cells were treated with 10 μg/ml of Dox and recombinant human interferon-α8 (IFN) at the indicated concentration. After an additional 48-h incubation, renilla luciferase activity in the lysates was measured with the use of the Renilla Luciferase Assay System. Cell

viability was measured with the use of a WST-8 kit (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan).

3. Results

3.1. Infection of iPS-Hep cells with HCVpv

HCV entry requires sequential interaction between the envelope proteins and multiple cellular factors, including CD81, SR-BI, claudin-1, and occludin [29]. To investigate expression of these receptors in iPS-Hep cells, we performed RT-PCR analysis. iPS cells expressed CD81 and occludin, but not SR-BI and claudin-1. In contrast, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells expressed all four receptors (Fig. 1A). HCVpv have been widely used in studies of the mechanism of HCV entry and in screens for inhibitors of HCV infection [30]. We therefore investigated HCVpv infection in iPS-Hep cells. iPS cells showed no susceptibility to HCVpv infection. In contrast, HCVpv dose-dependently infected iPS-Hep cells as well as Huh7 cells, a popular model cell line for HCV research (Fig. 1B). Treatment of the cells with IgG did not affect susceptibility of iPS-Hep or Huh7 cells to HCVpv infection, even at IgG concentrations of 1 μg/ml. In contrast, anti-CD81 antibody dose-dependently inhibited HCVpv infection of iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells, and the antibody treatment did not affect infection of VSVpv with iPS-Hep (Fig. 1C). These findings suggest that iPS-Hep cells are a useful model for HCV infection.

3.2. Replication of subgenomic HCV RNA in iPS-Hep cells

We previously developed Ad vectors containing tet-controllable and RNA pol I-driven HCV RNA subgenomic replicons (AdP_I235-HCV [replication competent], and AdP_I235-ΔGDD [replication incompetent]). The replicons encoded luciferase, and monitoring of luciferase activity in infected cells was a simple and convenient method to evaluate HCV replication [24]. Here, we found cells transduced with the replication-competent HCV replicon expressed luciferase in iPS-Hep cells, but not in iPS cells (Fig. 2A). In contrast, cells transduced with the replication-incompetent HCV replicon did not express luciferase (Fig. 2A). Taken together, these results suggest that replication of the HCV RNA genome occurred in the iPS-Hep cells. To confirm replication of the HCV genome, we investigated production of minus-strand HCV RNA from the positive-strand HCV RNA genome by performing real time-PCR analysis. The results of this analysis showed that minus-strand HCV RNA was produced in iPS-Hep cells and Huh7 cells, but not in iPS cells (Fig. 2B). To investigate whether the iPS-Hep cells could be used to screen for drugs that suppress HCV replication, we treated the cells with a suppressor of HCV replication, IFN. Treatment with IFN resulted in dose-dependent attenuated replication of the HCV genome with no cytotoxicity (Fig. 3A and B). These findings suggest that the iPS-Hep cells are a suitable system to use for monitoring the replication of the HCV RNA genome.

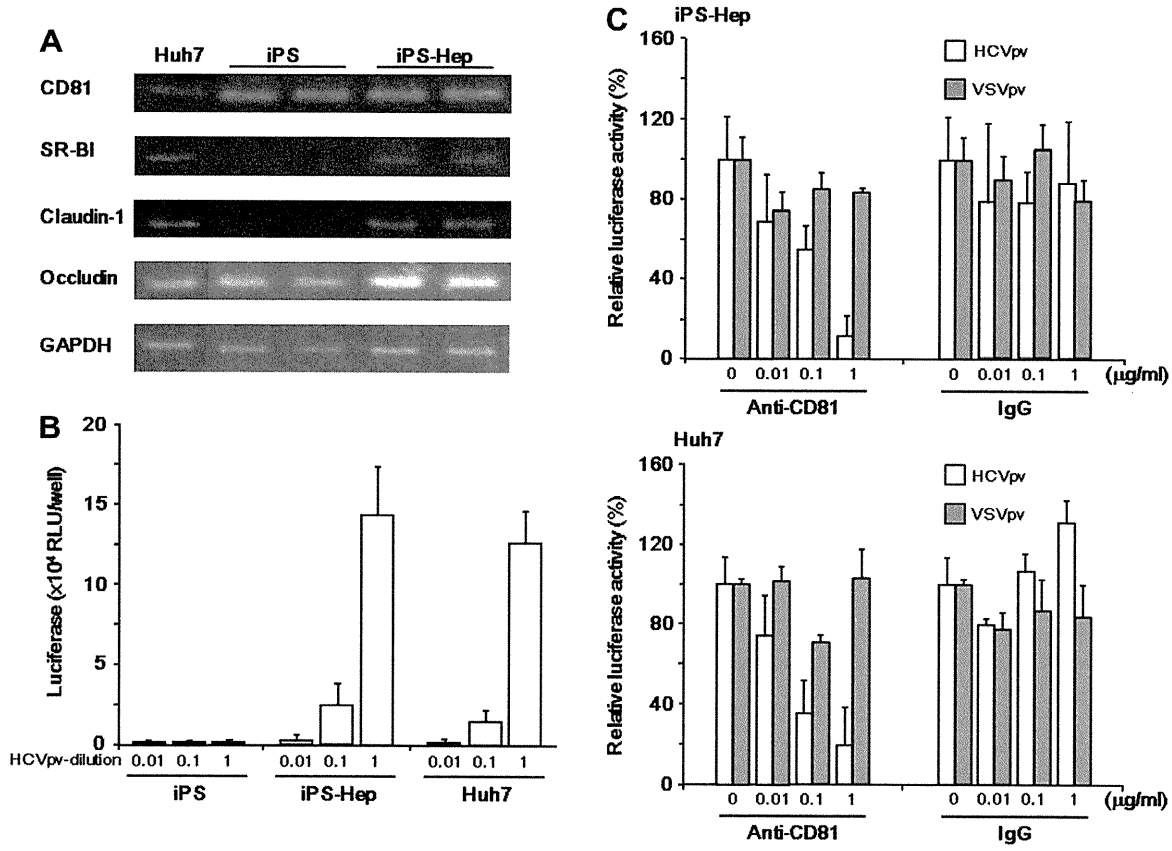

Fig. 1. HCV infection assay in iPS-Hep cells. (A) Expression of HCV receptors in iPS-Hep cells. Total RNA samples from Huh7, iPS, and iPS-Hep cells were subjected to RT-PCR analysis as described in the Section 2. The PCR products were separated on 2% agarose gels, followed by staining with ethidium bromide. (B) Infection of iPS-Hep cells with HCVpv. iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells were infected with HCVpv at the indicated dilution. After 2 h of infection, the cells were cultured with fresh medium for 24 h. Then, luciferase activities were measured. Data are presented as means ± SD ($n = 3$). (C) Effect of anti-CD81 antibody on infection of iPS-Hep cells with HCVpv. iPS-Hep (upper panel) and Huh7 (lower panel) cells were treated with mixtures of HCVpv (open column) or VSVpv (gray column) and anti-CD81 antibody or control mouse IgG at the indicated concentrations. After a 2-h incubation, the cells were cultured with fresh medium for 24 h. Then, the luciferase activities were measured. Data represent the percentage of vehicle-treated cells. Data are presented as means ± SD ($n = 3$).

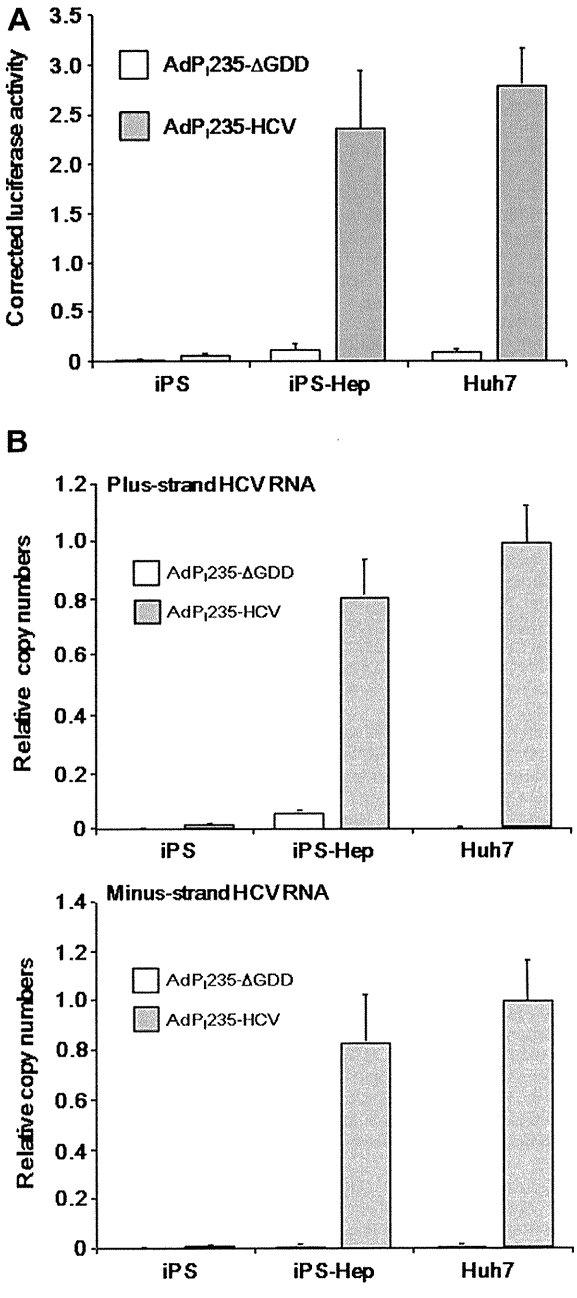

Fig. 2. HCV replication assay in iPS-Hep cells. (A) Comparison of replication of HCV subgenomic replicons, AdP$_I$235-HCV (gray column) and AdP$_I$235-ΔGDD (open column), in iPS, iPS-Hep and Huh7 cells. The cells were infected with replicons, treated with Dox, and renilla luciferase activity was measured, as described in the Section 2. To normalize for infectivity of Ad vector, cells were co-infected with AdP$_I$235-fluc and Ad-tTA. After 72 h, firefly luciferase activity was measured. Corrected luciferase activity was calculated as the ratio of renilla luciferase activity to firefly luciferase activity. (B) Real-time PCR analysis of HCV plus- and minus-strand RNA in iPS-Hep cells. iPS-Hep cells were infected with replicons, and total RNA was subjected to real-time PCR analysis, as described in the Section 2. The copy numbers were shown as ratio of those of Huh7. Data are presented as means ± SD (n = 3).

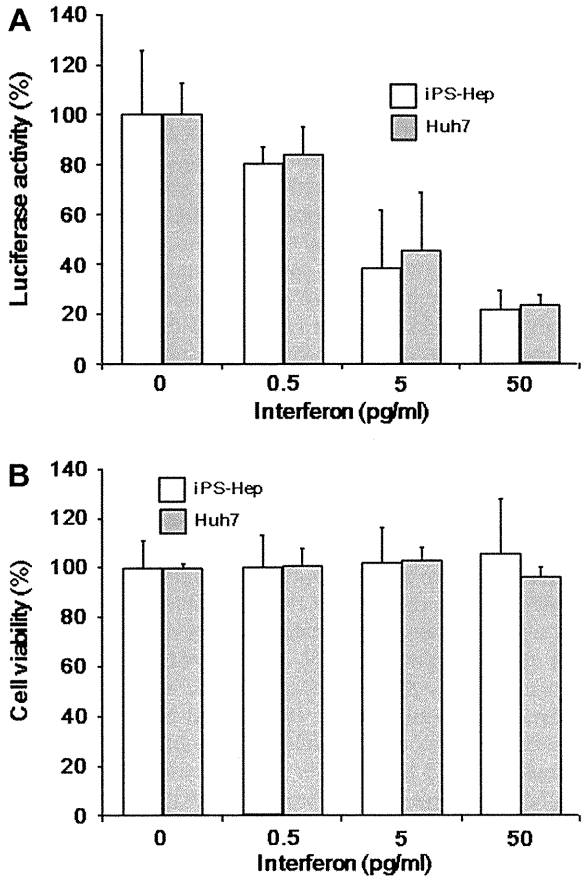

Fig. 3. Effect of interferon on HCV replication in iPS-Hep cells. iPS-Hep (open column) and Huh7 (gray column) cells were infected with AdP$_I$235-HCV and Ad-tTA. After 24 h, the cells were treated with Dox and the indicated concentration of interferon for 48 h. Luciferase activities (A) and cell viabilities (B) were measured as described in the Section 2. Data represent the percentage of the value for vehicle-treated cells, and are presented as means ± SD (n = 3).

4. Discussion

Tropism of HCV is limited to human and chimpanzee. Our understanding of HCV infection has been delayed by the lack of appropriate model systems. In the present study, we demonstrated that iPS-Hep cells are suitable *in vitro* models of hepatocytes for use in the study of HCV infection.

Other *in vitro* model systems of hepatocytes may not accurately reflect the biology of hepatocytes *in vivo*. For instance, expression profiles of mRNAs in embryonic stem (ES) cell-derived hepatocyte-like cells are different from those of primary human hepatocytes [31]. The development of efficient methods to differentiate stem cells into hepatocytes has been a critical issue in the application of stem cell technology to drug discovery. Recently, Mizuguchi and colleagues established efficient differentiation protocols for iPS cells by using adenoviral transfer of SOX17 [17], HEX [18], and HNF-4α [19] in addition to growth factors. Approximately 80% of the differentiated cells showed expression of hepatic-specific proteins, including cytochrome P-450s (CYP2D6, CYP3A4, and CYP7A1) [19]. The iPS-Hep cells were also used as a simple system to evaluate the hepatotoxicity of drugs that are metabolized into toxic substances by cytochromes [19]. Here, we showed that the essential host factors for HCV infection (occludin, claudin-1, SR-BI, and CD81) are expressed in the iPS-Hep cells. HCV RNA genome replication occurred in the cells, and HCVpv infected the cells. An inhibitor of HCV entry (anti-CD81 antibody), and an anti-HCV agent (IFN), attenuated the entry of HCVpv and the replication of the HCV genome in the cells, respectively. These findings suggest that the iPS-Hep cells are useful for understanding HCV infection and for screening anti-HCV drugs.

We found that iPS cells express CD81 and occludin, and are not susceptible to HCV entry, whereas iPS-Hep cells express all four HCV receptors and are susceptible to HCV entry. These findings are consistent with previous studies showing that CD81, occludin,

SR-BI, and claudin-1 are key receptors for HCV [29]. HNF-4α, which promotes the differentiation of iPS cells to iPS-Hep cells, is essential for the expression of a multitude of genes encoding cell junction and adhesion proteins during embryonic development of the mouse liver [32]. For instance, claudin-1 expression is not detected in the liver of HNF-4α-deficient mice [32]. HNF-4α enhances peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-mediated SR-BI transcription [33]. Thus, the susceptibility to HCV entry observed in iPS-Hep cells may be the result of the additional expression of claudin-1 and SR-BI following HNF-4α treatment.

miR-122 is a liver specific miRNA that constitutes 70% of the total miRNA population [34] and is essential for replication of the HCV genome in the liver [6]. ES cells do not express miR-122, whereas expression of miRNA is observed during differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells [35]. Replication of HCV subgenomic replicons was observed in iPS-Hep cells, but not iPS cells (Fig. 2A). Expression of miR-122 might be a key factor controlling the replication of the HCV RNA genome in iPS-Hep cells.

The reasons that 15–20% of people infected with HCV can clear the virus without pharmaceutical intervention, and patients vary in their sensitivity to pharmaceutical treatments, are still unclear [36]. Understanding the basis of these variable responses to infection and treatment would facilitate the discovery of potent targets for drug development for HCV. iPS-derived hepatocytes are a promising system for drug discovery for HCV infection. In the present study, we showed that the iPS-derived hepatocyte-like cells can be used with popular models of HCV infection: HCV subgenomic replicons and HCVpv. Our findings will contribute to our understanding of the mechanisms of HCV infection and to the identification of novel targets for HCV therapy by means of iPS technology.

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PLoS one

Efficient and Directive Generation of Two Distinct Endoderm Lineages from Human ESCs and iPSCs by Differentiation Stage-Specific SOX17 Transduction

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Abstract

The establishment of methods for directive differentiation from human embryonic stem cells (ESCs) and induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) is important for regenerative medicine. Although Sry-related HMG box 17 (SOX17) overexpression in ESCs leads to differentiation of either extraembryonic or definitive endoderm cells, respectively, the mechanism of these distinct results remains unknown. Therefore, we utilized a transient adenovirus vector-mediated overexpression system to mimic the SOX17 expression pattern of embryogenesis. The number of alpha-fetoprotein-positive extraembryonic endoderm (ExEn) cells was increased by transient SOX17 transduction in human ESC- and iPSC-derived primitive endoderm cells. In contrast, the number of hematopoietically expressed homeobox (HEX)-positive definitive endoderm (DE) cells, which correspond to the anterior DE *in vivo*, was increased by transient adenovirus vector-mediated SOX17 expression in human ESC- and iPSC-derived mesendoderm cells. Moreover, hepatocyte-like cells were efficiently generated by sequential transduction of SOX17 and HEX. Our findings show that a stage-specific transduction of SOX17 in the primitive endoderm or mesendoderm promotes directive ExEn or DE differentiation by SOX17 transduction, respectively.

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Introduction

There are two distinct endoderm lineages in early embryogenesis, the extraembryonic endoderm (ExEn) and the definitive endoderm (DE). The first of these lineages, the ExEn plays crucial roles in mammalian development, although it does not contribute to the formation of body cells. In early embryogenesis, a part of the inner cell mass of the blastocyst differentiates into the primitive endoderm (PrE). The PrE differentiates into the ExEn that composes the parietal endoderm, which contributes to the primary yolk sac, and the visceral endoderm, which overlies the epiblast [1,2]. In contrast, the second of the endoderm lineages, the DE arises from the primitive streak (PS), which is called the mesendoderm [3]. The DE has the ability to differentiate into the hepatic and pancreatic tissue [4].

The establishment of human embryonic stem cells (ESCs) [5] and human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) [6,7] has opened up new opportunities for basic research and regenerative medicine. To exploit the potential of human ESCs and iPSCs, it is necessary to understand the mechanisms of their differentiation. Although growth factor-mediated ExEn or DE differentiation is widely performed, it leads to a heterogeneous population [8,9,10,11]. Several studies have utilized not only growth factors but also modulation of transcription factors to control downstream signaling cascades [10,12,13]. Sox17, an Sry-related HMG box transcription factor, is required for development of both the ExEn and DE. In mice, during ExEn and DE development, Sox17 expression is first observed in the PrE and in the anterior PS, respectively [14]. Previous study showed that stable Sox17 overexpression promotes ExEn differentiation from mouse ESCs [12]. On the other hand, another previous study has demonstrated that DE progenitors can be established from human ESCs by stable expression of SOX17 [10]. The mechanism of these discrepancies which occurs in SOX17 transduction still remains unknown. Also, the role of SOX17 in human ExEn differentiation still remains unknown. Therefore, it is quite difficult to promote directive differentiation into either ExEn or DE cells by SOX17 transduction.

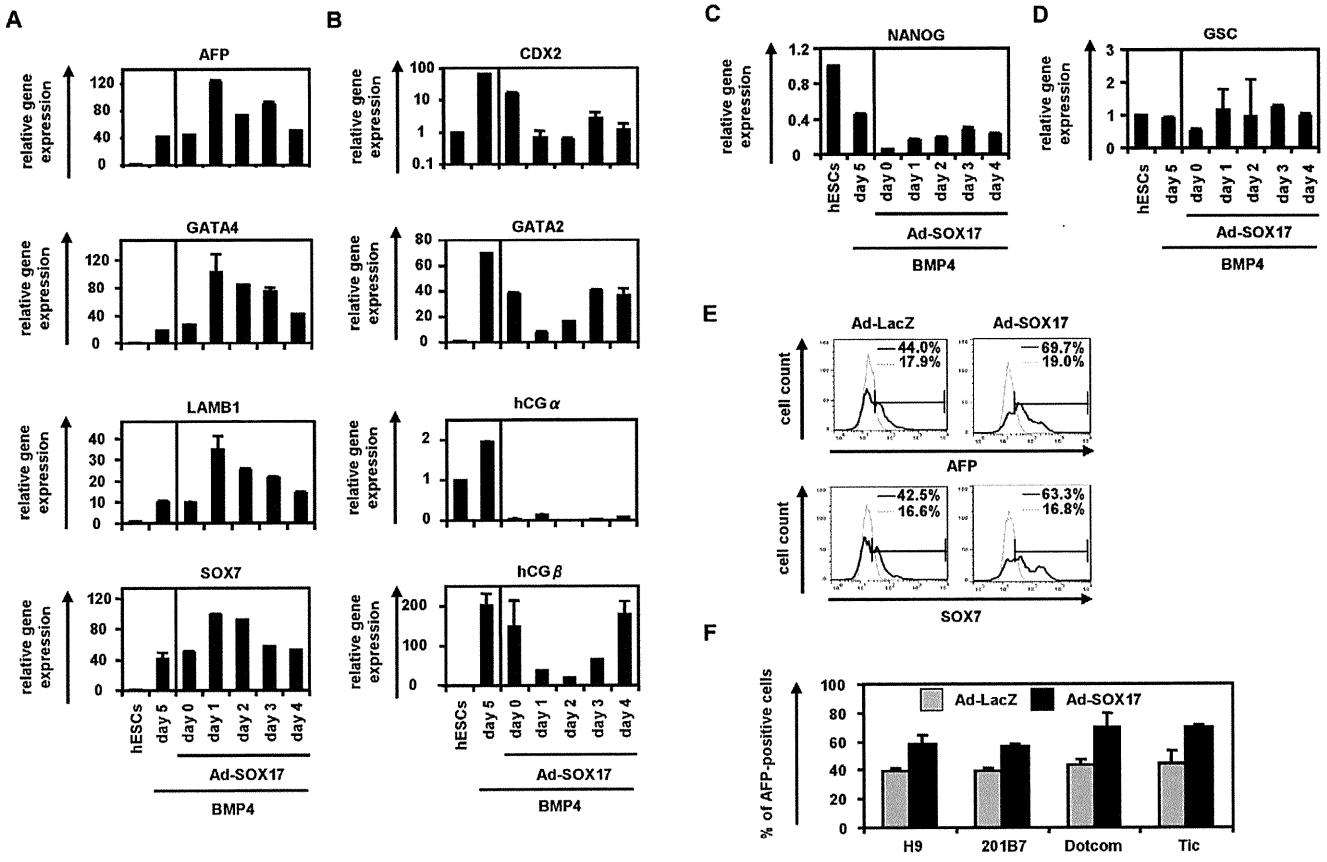

Figure 1. Efficient ExEn differentiation from human ESC- and iPSC-derived PrE cells by SOX17 transduction. (A–D) Undifferentiated human ESCs (H9) and BMP4-induced human ESC-derived cells, which were cultured with the medium containing BMP4 (20 ng/ml) for 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 days, were transduced with 3,000 VP/cell of Ad-SOX17 for 1.5 h. Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were cultured with 20 ng/ml of BMP4, and then the gene expression levels of *(A)* the ExEn markers (AFP, GATA4, LAMB1, and SOX7), (B) the trophectoderm markers (CDX2, GATA2, hCGα, and hCGβ), (C) the pluripotent marker (NANOG), and (D) the DE marker (GSC) were examined by real-time RT-PCR on day 5 of differentiation. The horizontal axis represents the day on which the cells were transduced with Ad-SOX17. The expression levels of undifferentiated human ESCs on day 0 were defined 1.0. (E) On day 1, human ESC-derived PrE cells, which were cultured with the medium containing BMP4 for 1 day, were transduced with Ad-LacZ or Ad-SOX17 and cultured until day 5. The ExEn cells were subjected to immunostaining with anti-AFP or anti-SOX7 antibodies, and then analyzed by flow cytometry. (F) After Ad-LacZ or Ad-SOX17 transduction, the efficacies of ExEn differentiation from the human ES cell line (H9) and the three human iPS cell lines (201B7, Dotcom, and Tic) were compared on day 5 of differentiation. All data are represented as the means±SD ($n=3$).
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In this study, we utilized SOX17 as a stage-specific regulator of ExEn and DE differentiation from human ESCs and iPSCs. The human ESC- and iPSC-derived cells were transduced with SOX17-expressing adenovirus vector (Ad-SOX17), and the resulting phenotypes were assessed for their ability to differentiate into ExEn and DE cells *in vitro*. In addition, we examined whether SOX17-transduced cells have the ability to differentiate into the hepatic lineage. The results showed that stage-specific overexpression of the SOX17 transcription factor promotes directive differentiation into either ExEn or DE cells.

Results

The induction of human ESC-derived PrE cells and human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells

To determine the appropriate stage for SOX17 transduction, ExEn or DE cells were differentiated from human ESCs by a conventional method using BMP4 (20 ng/ml) or Activin A (100 ng/ml), respectively (Figures S1 and S2). Experiments for bidirectional differentiation using BMP4 and Activin A indicated that PrE cells were obtained on day 1 (Figure S1) and mesendoderm cells were obtained on day 3 (Figure S2). We expected that stage-specific SOX17 transduction into PrE cells or mesendoderm cells could promote ExEn or DE differentiation, because the time period of intiation of SOX17 expression was correlated with the time period of formation of PrE cells (day 1) (Figure S1C) and mesendoderm cells (day 3) (Figure S2C), respectively.

PrE stage-specific SOX17 overexpression promotes directive ExEn differentiation from human ESCs

To examine the effect of forced and transient expression of SOX17 on the differentiation of human ESC- and iPSC-derived cells, we used a fiber-modified adenovirus (Ad) vector containing the EF-1α promoter and a stretch of lysine residues (KKKKKKK, K7) peptides in the C-terminal region of the fiber knob. The K7 peptide targets heparan sulfates on the cellular surface, and the fiber-modified Ad vector containing the K7 peptides has been shown to be efficient for transduction into many kinds of cells [15,16].

Because the time period of initiation of SOX17 expression was correlated with the time period of formation of PrE cells (day 1) (Figure S1), we expected that stage-specific SOX17 transduction

into PrE cells would promote ExEn differentiation. Therefore, we examined the stage-specific role of SOX17 in ExEn differentiation. Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed in human ESCs treated with BMP4 for 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 days, and the Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were cultured with medium containing BMP4 until day 5 (Figures 1A–1D). We confirmed the expression of exogenous SOX17 in the human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells transduced with Ad-SOX17 (Figure S3). Since BMP4 is known for its capability to induce both ExEn and trophectoderm [8,9], we analyzed not only the expression levels of ExEn markers but also those of trophectoderm markers by real-time RT-PCR after 5 days of differentiation (Figures 1A and 1B). The transduction of Ad-SOX17 on day 1 led to the highest expression levels of ExEn markers, alpha-fetoprotein (AFP), GATA4, laminin B1 (LAMB1), and SOX7 [17,18,19]. In contrast, the expression levels of the trophectoderm markers CDX2, GATA2, hCGα (human chorionic gonadotropin), and hCGβ [20] were down-regulated in Ad-SOX17-transduced cells as compared with non-transduced cells (Figure 1B). The expression levels of the pluripotent marker NANOG and DE marker GSC were not increased by SOX17 transduction (Figures 1C and 1D). We confirmed that there were no differences between non-transduced cells and Ad-LacZ-transduced cells in gene expression levels of all the markers investigated in Figures 1A–1D (data not shown). Therefore, we concluded that ExEn cells were efficiently induced from Ad-SOX17-transduced PrE cells.

The effects of SOX17 transduction on the ExEn differentiation from human ESC-derived PrE cells were also assessed by quantifying AFP- or SOX7-positive ExEn cells. The percentage of AFP- or SOX7-positive cells was significantly increased in Ad-SOX17-transduced cells (69.7% and 63.3%, respectively) (Figure 1E). Similar results were observed in the human iPS cell lines (201B7, Dotcom, and Tic) (Figure 1F). These findings indicated that stage-specific SOX17 overexpression in human ESC-derived PrE cells enhances ExEn differentiation.

Mesendoderm stage-specific SOX17 overexpression promotes directive DE differentiation from human ESCs

To examine the effects of transient SOX17 overexpression on DE differentiation from human ESCs, we optimized the timing of the Ad-SOX17 transduction. Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed in human ESCs treated with Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 days, and the Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were cultured with medium containing Activin A (100 ng/ml) until day 5 (Figures 2A–2C). Using a fiber-modified Ad vector, both undifferentiated human ESCs and Activin A-induced human ESC-derived cells were efficiently transduced (Figure S4). The transduction of SOX17 on day 3 led to the highest expression levels of the DE markers FOXA2 [21], GSC [22], GATA4 [17], and HEX [23] (Figure 2A). In contrast to the DE markers, the expression levels of the pluripotent marker NANOG [24] were down-regulated in Ad-SOX17-transduced cells as compared with non-transduced cells (Figure 2B). The expression levels of the ExEn marker SOX7 [14] were up-regulated, when Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed into human ESCs treated with Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 0, 1, or 2 days (Figure 2C). On the other hand, the expression levels of the ExEn marker SOX7 were significantly down-regulated, when Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed into human ESCs treated with Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 3 or 4 days, indicating that SOX17 overexpression prior to mesendoderm formation (day 0, 1, and 2) promoted not only DE differentiation but also ExEn differentiation. Similar results were obtained with the human iPS cell line (Tic) (Figure S5). Although the expression levels of the mesoderm marker FLK1 [25] did not exhibit any change when Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed into human ESCs treated with Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 0, 1, or 2 days (Figure 2D), their expression levels were significantly down-regulated when Ad-SOX17 transduction was performed into human ESCs treated with Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 3 or 4 days. These results suggest that SOX17 overexpression promotes directive differentiation from mesendoderm cells into the DE cells, but not into mesoderm cells. We also confirmed that Ad-vector mediated gene expression in the human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells (day 3) continued until day 6 and disappeared on day 10 (Figure S6). SOX17 transduction in the human ESC-derived cells on day 3 and 4 had no effect on cell viability, while that in the cells on day 0, 1, and 2 resulted in severely impaired cell viability (Figure S7), probably because SOX17 transduction directed the cells on day 0, 1, and 2 to differentiate into ExEn cells but the medium containing Activin A (100 ng/ml) was inappropriate for ExEn cells. We confirmed that there were no differences between non-transduced cells and Ad-LacZ-transduced cells in gene expression levels of all the markers investigated in Figures 2A–2D (data not shown). These results indicated that stage-specific SOX17 overexpression in human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells is essential for promoting efficient DE differentiation.

It has been previously reported that human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells and DE cells became CXCR4-positive (>80%) by culturing human ESCs with Activin A (100 ng/ml) [26]. However, Activin A is not sufficient for homogenous differentiation of c-Kit/CXCR4-double-positive DE cells [10,11] or HEX-positive anterior DE cells [23]. Seguin et al. and Morrison et al. reported that the differentiation efficiency of c-Kit/CXCR4-double-positive DE cells was approximately 30% in the absence of stable Sox17 expression and that of HEX-positive anterior DE cells was only about 10% [10,23]. Therefore, we next examined whether Ad-SOX17 transduction improves the differentiation efficiency of c-Kit/CXCR4-double-positive DE cells and HEX-positive anterior DE cells. Human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells were transduced with Ad-SOX17, and the number of CXCR4/c-Kit-double-positive cells was analyzed by using a flow cytometer. The percentage of CXCR4/c-Kit-double-positive cells was significantly increased in Ad-SOX17-transduced cells (67.7%), while that in Ad-LacZ-transduced cells was only 22% (Figure 2E). The percentage of HEX-positive cells was also significantly increased in Ad-SOX17-transduced cells (53.7%), while that in Ad-LacZ-transduced cells was approximately 11% (Figure 2F). Similar results were also observed in the three human iPS cell lines (201B7, Dotcom, and Tic) (Figure 2G). These findings indicated that stage-specific SOX17 overexpression in human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells promotes efficient differentiation of DE cells.

Ad-SOX17-transduced cells tend to differentiate into the hepatic lineage

To investigate whether Ad-SOX17-transduced cells have the ability to differentiate into hepatoblasts and hepatocyte-like cells, Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were differentiated according to our previously described method [13]. Our previous report demonstrated that transient HEX transduction efficiently generates hepatoblasts from human ESC- and iPSC-derived DE cells. The hepatic differentiation protocol used in this study is illustrated in Figure 3A. After the hepatic differentiation, the morphology of human ESCs transduced with Ad-SOX17 followed by Ad-HEX was gradually changed into a hepatocyte morphology: polygonal in shape with distinct round nuclei by day 18 (Figure 3B). We also

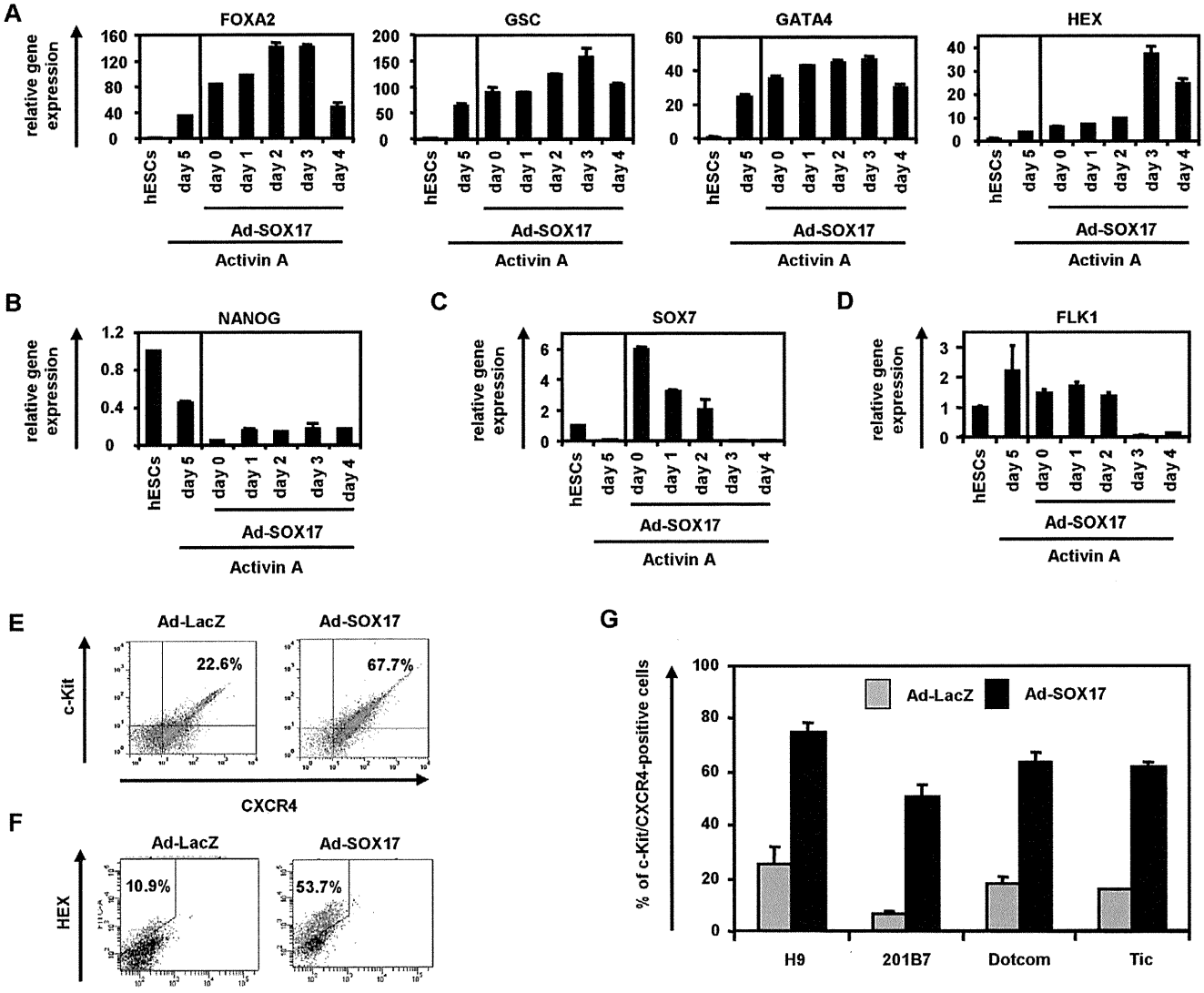

Figure 2. Efficient DE differentiation from human ESC- and iPSC-derived mesendoderm cells by SOX17 transduction. (A–D) Undifferentiated human ESCs (H9) and Activin A-induced human ESC-derived cells, which were cultured with the medium containing Activin A (100 ng/ml) for 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 days, were transduced with 3,000 VP/cell of Ad-SOX17 for 1.5 h. Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were cultured with 100 ng/ml of Activin A, and the gene expression levels of (A) the DE markers (FOXA2, GSC, and GATA4) and anterior DE marker (HEX), (B) the pluripotent marker (NANOG), (C) the ExEn marker (SOX7), and (D) the mesoderm marker (FLK1) were examined by real-time RT-PCR on day 5 of differentiation. The horizontal axis represents the day on which the cells were transduced with Ad-SOX17. The expression levels of human ESCs on day 0 were defined 1.0. (E, F) After human ESCs were cultured with 100 ng/ml of Activin A for 3 days, human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells were transduced with Ad-LacZ or Ad-SOX17 and cultured until day 5. Ad-LacZ- or Ad-SOX17-transduced DE cells were subjected to immunostaining with anti-c-Kit, anti-CXCR4 (E) and anti-HEX antibodies (F) and then analyzed by flow cytometry. (G) After Ad-LacZ or Ad-SOX17 transduction, the DE differentiation efficacies of the human ES cell line (H9) and three human iPS cell lines (201B7, Dotcom, and Tic) were compared at day 5 of differentiation. All data are represented as the means±SD ($n=3$).
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examined hepatic gene and protein expression levels on day18 of differentiation. For this purpose, we used a human ES cell line (H9) and three human iPS cell lines (201B7, Dotcom, Tic). On day 18 of differentiation, the gene and protein expression analysis showed up-regulation of the hepatic markers albumin (ALB) [27], cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6), CYP3A4, and CYP7A1 [28] mRNA and ALB, CYP2D6, CYP3A4, CYP7A1, and cytokeratin (CK)18 proteins in both Ad-SOX17- and Ad-HEX-transduced cells transduced cells as compared with both Ad-LacZ- and Ad-HEX-transduced cells (Figures 4A and 4B). These results indicated that Ad-SOX17-transduced cells were more committed to the hepatic lineage than non-transduced cells.

Discussion

The directed differentiation from human ESCs and iPSCs is a useful model system for studying mammalian development as well as a powerful tool for regenerative medicine [29]. In the present study, we elucidated the bidirectional role of SOX17 on either ExEn or DE differentiation from human ESCs and iPSCs. We initially confirmed that initiation of SOX17 expression was consistent with the time period of PrE or mesendoderm cells formation (Figures S1 and S2). We speculated that stage-specific transient SOX17 transduction in PrE or mesendoderm could enhance ExEn or DE differentiation from human ESCs and iPSCs, respectively.

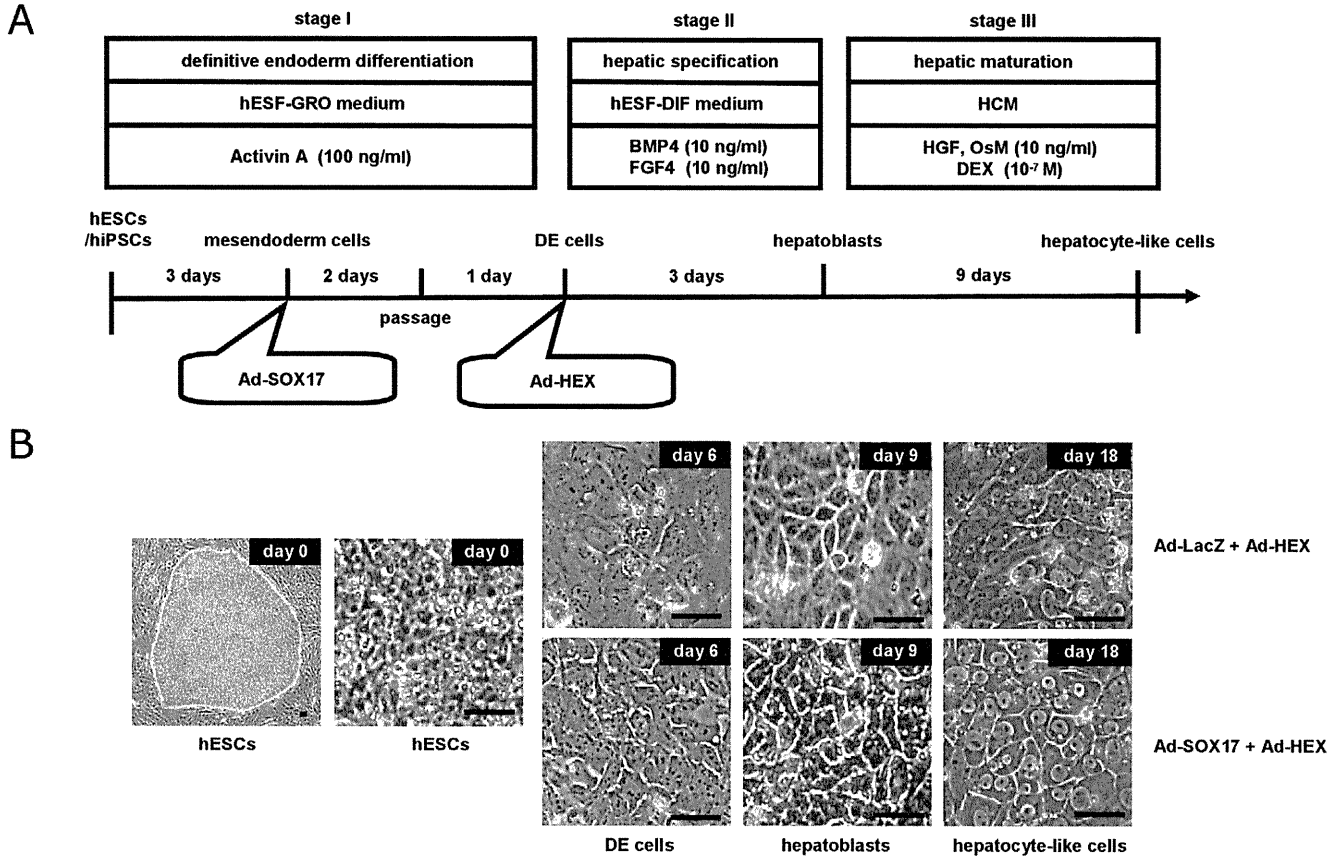

Figure 3. Hepatic Differentiation of Human ESC- and iPSC-Derived DE Cells Transduced with Ad-HEX. (A) The procedure for differentiation of human ESCs and iPSCs into hepatoblasts and hepatocyte-like cells is presented schematically. Both hESF-GRO and hESF-DIF medium were supplemented with 5 factors and 0.5 mg/ml fatty acid-free BSA, as described in the Materials and Methods section. (B) Sequential morphological changes (day 0–18) of human ESCs (H9) differentiated into hepatocyte-like cells via the DE cells and the hepatoblasts are shown. The scale bar represents 50 μm.
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SOX17 transduction at the pluripotent stage promoted random differentiation giving heterogeneous populations containing both ExEn and DE cells were obtained (Figures 2A–2C). Qu et al. reported that SOX17 promotes random differentiation of mouse ESCs into PrE cells and DE cells *in vitro* [30], which is in consistent with the present study. Previously, Niakan et al. and Seguin et al. respectively demonstrated that ESCs could promote either ExEn or DE differentiation by stable SOX17 expression, respectively [10,12]. Although these discrepancies might be attributable to differences in the species used in the experiments (i.e., human versus mice), SOX17 might have distinct functions according to the appropriate differentiation stage. To elucidate these discrepancies, we examined the stage-specific roles of SOX17 in the present study, and found that human ESCs and iPSCs could differentiate into either ExEn or DE cells when SOX17 was overexpressed at the PrE or mesendoderm stage, respectively, but not when it was overexpressed at the pluripotent stage (Figures 1 and 2). This is because endogenous SOX17 is strongly expressed in the PrE and primitive streak tissues but only slightly expressed in the inner cell mass, our system might adequately reflect the early embryogenesis [14,31].

In ExEn differentiation from human ESCs, stage-specific SOX17 overexpression in human ESC-derived PrE cells promoted efficient ExEn differentiation and repressed trophectoderm differentiation (Figures 1A and 1B), although SOX17 transduction at the pluripotent stage did not induce the efficient differentiation of ExEn cells. In our protocol, the stage-specific overexpression of SOX17 could elevate the efficacy of AFP-positive or SOX7-positive ExEn differentiation from human ESCs and iPSCs. The reason for the efficient ExEn differentiation by SOX17 transduction might be due to the fact that SOX17 lies downstream from GATA6 and directly regulates the expression of GATA4 and GATA6 [12]. Although it was previously been reported that Sox17 plays a substantial role in late-stage differentiation of ExEn cells *in vitro* [32], those reports utilized embryoid body formation, in which other types of cells, including endoderm, mesoderm, and ectoderm cells, might have influences on cellular differentiation. The present study showed the role of SOX17 in a homogeneous differentiation system by utilizing a mono-layer culture system.

In DE differentiation from human ESCs, we found that DE cells were efficiently differentiated from the human ESC-derived mesendoderm cells by stage-specific SOX17 overexpression (Figure 2). Therefore, we concluded that SOX17 plays a significant role in the differentiation of mesendoderm cells to DE cells. Although SOX17 overexpression before the formation of mesendoderm cells did not affect mesoderm differentiation, SOX17 transduction at the mesendoderm stage selectively promoted DE differentiation and repressed mesoderm differentiation (Figures 2A and 2D). These results show that SOX17 plays a crucial role in decision of DE differentiation from mesendoderm cells, as previous studies suggested [33,34]. Interestingly, SOX17 transduction at the pluripotent stage promoted not only DE