domain of Fyn (Fig. 3C). This suggests that NS5A Δ127–146 could interact with the SH2 domain of Fyn through NS5A 147–447.

Identification of Tyr^{334} as a tyrosine phosphorylation site in NS5A

In COS cells, full length and a series of deletion mutants of NS5A were tyrosine phosphorylated by PV treatment (Fig. S2). Because NS5A 1–126 could not bind to the SH2 domain of Fyn, we examined the possible involvement of tyrosine residue between amino acids number 127 and 146 for the binding. In this region, there is only one tyrosine residue that appears to be conserved. However, substitution of Tyr^{129} to Phe of truncated NS5A (NS5A 1–146 Y129F) still allowed tyrosine phosphorylation by PV and binding to the SH2 domain of Fyn in COS cells (Fig. S2 and S3). Thus, Tyr^{129} is not critical for the binding of NS5A to the SH2 domain of Fyn. In addition to this region (127 to 146), we examined the conserved tyrosine residues between 147 and 447 of NS5A (Tyr^{182}, Tyr^{321}, and Tyr^{334}). Among those, substitution of Tyr^{334} to Phe (Y334F) reduced tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A 147–447, however this mutant could interact with the SH2 domain of Fyn (Fig. 3D and E). NS5A Y182F and Y321F were tyrosine phosphorylated as NS5A 147–447 (Fig. 3D and data now shown). Therefore, these results suggest that Tyr^{334} is required for tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A, and existence of the multiple mechanisms for the binding of NS5A with Fyn including pTyr-SH2 domain interaction. Furthermore, we could not detect the increase in tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A by *in vitro* kinase reaction with Fyn (data not shown), suggesting that some other protein-tyrosine kinases are required for phosphorylating NS5A.

The SH2 domain of Fyn directly binds to NS5A

Next we examined the mechanism of the interaction of the SH2 domain of Fyn and NS5A. Association of Fyn and NS5A in B cells were tested by the immunoprecipitation study (Fig. 4A). The result showed that NS5A was coprecipitated with anti-Fyn antibody, and vice versa. Therefore, NS5A complexes with Fyn in B cells. Far-western analysis further demonstrated that the SH2 domain of Fyn could directly bind to NS5A, suggesting that NS5A is tyrosine phosphorylated in B cells (Fig. 4B). We have shown that PV treatment of cells stimulates tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A (Fig. 1B). These results demonstrate that NS5A could be tyrosine phosphorylated in B cells and directly associated with the SH2 domain of Fyn. In addition, we demonstrated the subcellular fractionation by sucrose density gradient centrifugation (Fig. 4C). Fractions 2–4 were regarded as low density detergent-insoluble fractions, whereas 5–9 were detergent-soluble fractions. As shown, NS5A broadly located in almost all of the fractions. In contrast, most of Fyn was located in detergent-insoluble fractions because of the lipid modification of Fyn (fractions 2–4), and some were in the detergent-soluble fractions (fractions 5–9). These results demonstrate that some of NS5A and Fyn are located in low density detergent-insoluble fractions in B cells.

Association with NS5A increases autophosphorylation and kinase activity of Fyn

Finally, we examined the effect of the expression of NS5A on the function of Fyn tyrosine kinase (Fig. 4D). Cross-linking of B cell receptor by anti-IgM mAb resulted in the increase in phosphorylation of a tyrosine residue in the activation loop of the kinase domain of Fyn, which parallels to its kinase activity [10]. Immunoprecipitation and immunoblotting experiments demonstrated that coexpression of NS5A increases phosphorylation of activation loop tyrosine and anti-IgM stimulation enhances this phenomenon. Immunoblot quantification also indicated the significant higher phosphorylation of the activation loop of Fyn in the unstimulated state in the NS5A expressing cells. In addition, we examined the biochemical kinase activity of Fyn by *in vitro* kinase assay (Fig. 4E). Coexpression of NS5A enhanced the kinase activity of Fyn as measured by both autophosphorylation and phosphorylation of exogenous substrate (enolase). This result biochemically demonstrated that association with NS5A increases tyrosine kinase activity of Fyn to phosphorylate tyrosine residues on Fyn itself and exogenous substrate. These results suggest that association of NS5A enhances an autophosphorylation and kinase activity of Fyn in B cells.

Discussion

We have demonstrated the possible tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A in B cells and the interaction of NS5A with the SH2 domain of Fyn, in addition to SH3 domain. Previous reports demonstrated that cells harboring HCV replicon possesses the increased kinase activity of Fyn, which supports our conclusion of this study [9]. NS5A contains a highly conserved proline rich regions with Pro-X-X-Pro-X-Arg motif which is capable of the interaction with the SH3 domains of variety of cellular proteins, including Fyn [24]. Our finding reveals the second interaction site of Fyn to associate with NS5A. Therefore, NS5A could associate with both SH3 and SH2 domains. Through the two interactions, via SH3 and SH2 domains, it is predicted that NS5A could alter the conformation of Fyn to open active state. Physiological mechanism has generally been recognized that adaptor proteins with ligands of SH2 and SH3 domains bind to Src family kinases and positively regulates the kinase activity. Consistent with previous reports, our study demonstrated that NS5A protein containing potential ligands for both SH3 and SH2 domains increases autophosphorylation of Fyn in B cells.

Fyn has two tyrosine phosphorylation sites; one tyrosine in the activation loop is phosphorylated by autophosphorylation and the other in the C-terminal tail is phosphorylated by Csk to negatively regulate the kinase activity. In this manuscript, we examine the phosphorylation of tyrosine in the activation loop by using anti-phospho-Src family (Tyr416) antibody, which detects phosphorylated amount of a conserved tyrosine in the activation loop of Src family kinase (Fig. 4D). Therefore, we could conclude that tyrosine phosphorylation of Fyn was occurred in Tyr^{420} in the kinase domain.

The small interference RNA library screening study demonstrated that Csk is one of the protein-tyrosine kinases involved in the replication of HCV [25]. Csk is known to phosphorylate tyrosine residue in the C-terminal tail and negatively regulate Src family kinase, such as Fyn. Knock down of Fyn resulted in up-regulation of HCV replication [25]. This suggests that activation of Fyn suppresses HCV replication. In light of the aberrant increase in autophosphorylation of Fyn by NS5A coexpression, it is possible that NS5A negatively regulates HCV replication with activating Fyn kinase assumedly for persistent infection.

v-Src is the first discovered oncogene, and Fyn is a member of cellular Src family kinases and is also associated with cancer. Overexpression of Fyn in NIH3T3 fibroblast cells exhibited a cancer-like phonotype with increased anchorage-independent growth and prominent morphologic changes. Other studies have revealed that overexpression of Fyn results in promotion of the anti-apoptotic activity of Akt and dysregulation of anchorage-dependent cell growth. In this study, expression of NS5A enhanced autophosphorylation of Fyn in B cells, suggesting that

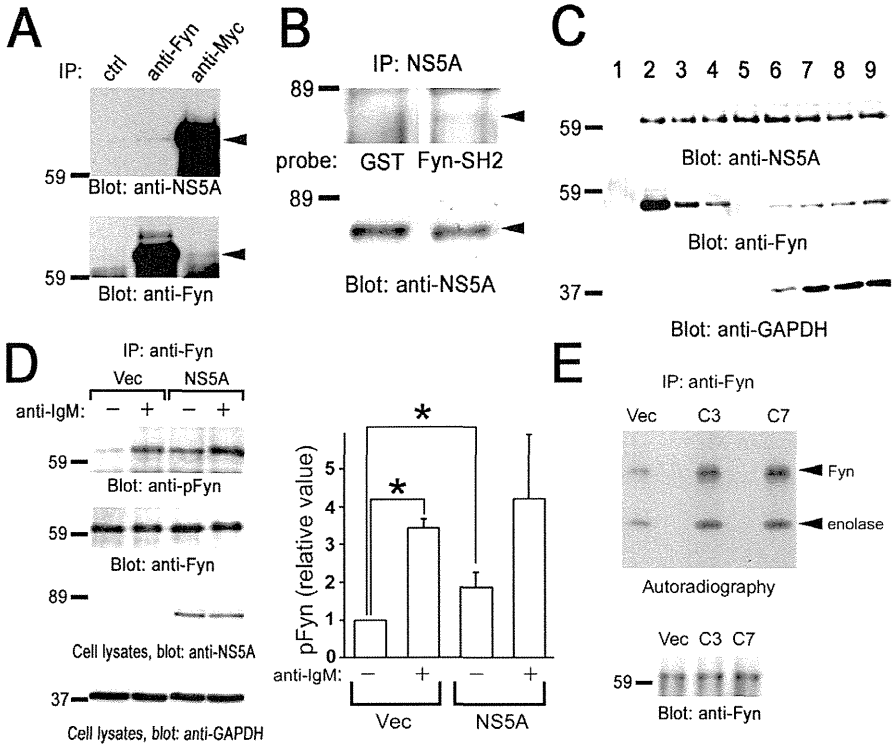

Figure 4. Association with NS5A increases the kinase activity of Fyn in B cells. (A) Endogenous interaction of Fyn with NS5A in BJAB cells. Cells were solubilized in the lysis buffer containing 0.5% Nonidet P-40. Detergent-soluble lysates from BJAB cells expressing Myc-His-NS5A (clone 7) were subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-Fyn or anti-Myc antibodies. Protein interactions between NS5A and Fyn were analyzed by the immunoblotting with anti-NS5A mAb and anti-Fyn antibody, respectively. (B) Anti-Myc immunoprecipitates were separated by SDS-PAGE and subjected to far western analysis with GST or GST-Fyn-SH2 (GST-Fyn-SH2) (upper panel), and immunoblotting analysis with anti-NS5A mAb (lower panel). (C) Cell homogenates were fractionated by sucrose density gradient centrifugation. Proteins from these fractions were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed with immunoblotting with anti-NS5A mAb, anti-Fyn, and anti-GAPDH antibodies. (D) Control cells (Vec) and cells expressing Myc-His-NS5A (clone 7) were unstimulated (−) or stimulated (+) with anti-IgM mAb. Anti-Fyn immunoprecipitates (IP) were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-phospho-Src family (Tyr416) antibody recognizing autophosphorylated Fyn (pFyn) and anti-Fyn antibody. Detergent-soluble lysates were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-NS5A and anti-GAPDH mAbs. Densitometry analysis was performed on three experiments representative of Fig. 4D. Levels of pFyn were normalized to their respective total Fyn protein. The fold changes of pFyn are shown relative to unstimulated control cells. Data represent the mean ± SD of three independent experiments. *, $P<0.05$. (E) Anti-Fyn immunoprecipitates (IP) from control cells (Vec), cells expressing Myc-His-NS5A clone 3 (C3) and clone 7 (C7) were subjected to *in vitro* kinase assay using enolase as an exogenous substrate. Radioactive proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and visualized by autoradiography. Immunoprecipitated Fyn was analyzed by immunoblotting. Molecular sizing markers are indicated at left in kilodalton. The results were representative of three independent experiments. Similar results were obtained when another line was examined.
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HCV-mediated activation of Fyn can promote aberrant growth and anti-apoptotic status leading to B lymphomagenesis [8].

Adaptor proteins have also been recognized candidates to promote oncogenes. For example, v-Crk (CT10 regulator of tyrosine kinase)/Crk-I are adaptor proteins composed of SH2 and SH3 domains but lack negative regulatory region (phosphotyrosine and C-terminal SH3 domain). Those adaptors function as constitutively activated ones, leading to tumorgenesis. Like that, NS5A presumably works constitutive activated adaptor for Fyn kinase [26].

In conclusion, present study demonstrated that NS5A binds to the SH2 domain of Fyn in tyrosine phosphorylation-dependent manner and that NS5A containing ligand for both SH2 and SH3 domains produces an aberrant increase in autophosphorylation and kinase activity of Fyn. Further studies are needed to clarify which tyrosine residues in NS5A are phosphorylated and bind to SH2 domain of Fyn. These data, however, may contribute to our understanding of the mechanisms that HCV infection causes B lymphomagenesis.

Supporting Information

Figure S1 GST-human Fyn-SH2 could react with NS5A. The cDNA for human Fyn-SH2 (Trp^{149}-Arg^{268}) were amplified by PCR using paired primers 5′-GGAATTCATGGTACTTTG-GAAAACTTGGC-3′ and 5′-GATCAACTGCAGGGATTCT-CG -3′, using cDNA from total RNA of BJAB cells as a template. Resulted PCR fragment was subcloned into the pGEX-4T.3 (GE Healthcare) to make domain in-frame with the downstream of GST and verified by DNA sequencing. PV-treated cells expressing Myc-His-NS5A (clone 7) were solubilized in the lysis buffer. Precleared lysates were reacted with GST or GST-human Fyn-SH2 and binding proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed with immunoblotting with anti-NS5A mAb. The amount of GST-fusion proteins was confirmed by CBB staining. Molecular sizing markers are indicated at left in kilodalton. The results are representative of two independent experiments.
(TIF)

Figure S2 Tyrosine phosphorylation of NS5A and its mutants in COS cells. Full length and a series of deletion

mutants of NS5A were transiently expressed in COS cells. Cells were unstimulated (−) or stimulated (+) with PV and solubilized in the lysis buffer. Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-Myc mAb and immunoprecipitated proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed with immunoblotting with anti-pTyr (PY20) and anti-Myc mAbs. Molecular sizing markers are indicated at left in kilodalton. The results were representative of three independent experiments.
(TIF)

Figure S3 Tyr^{129} is not critical for the binding of NS5A to the SH2 domain of Fyn. Indicated mutant forms of NS5A were transiently expressed in COS cells. Cells were unstimulated (−) or stimulated (+) with PV. Cells were solubilized in the binding buffer and precleared lysates were reacted with GST-Fyn-SH2. Detergent-soluble lysates and binding proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and analyzed with immunoblotting with anti-Myc mAb. Molecular sizing markers are indicated at left in kilodalton. The results were representative of three independent experiments.
(TIF)

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: KN KT HH KS. Performed the experiments: KN KT TH XS KS. Analyzed the data: KN KT KC HH KS. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: KN KT KC TH XS LD IS HH KS. Wrote the paper: KN HH KS.

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Hepatitis C Virus Infection Suppresses GLUT2 Gene Expression via Downregulation of Hepatocyte Nuclear Factor 1α

Chieko Matsui,[a] Ikuo Shoji,[a] Shusaku Kaneda,[a] Imelda Rosalyn Sianipar,[a,b] Lin Deng,[a] and Hak Hotta[a]

Division of Microbiology, Center for Infectious Diseases, Kobe University Graduate School of Medicine, Chuo-ku, Kobe, Hyogo, Japan,[a] and Department of Physiology, Faculty of Medicine, Universitas Indonesia, Jakarta, Indonesia[b]

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection causes not only intrahepatic diseases but also extrahepatic manifestations, including type 2 diabetes. We previously reported that HCV replication suppresses cellular glucose uptake by downregulation of cell surface expression of glucose transporter 2 (GLUT2) (D. Kasai et al., J. Hepatol. 50:883–894, 2009). GLUT2 mRNA levels were decreased in both HCV RNA replicon cells and HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells. To elucidate molecular mechanisms of HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 gene expression, we analyzed transcriptional regulation of the GLUT2 promoter using a series of GLUT2 promoter-luciferase reporter plasmids. HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity was abrogated when the hepatocyte nuclear factor 1α (HNF-1α)-binding motif was deleted from the GLUT2 promoter. HNF-1α mRNA levels were significantly reduced in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells. Furthermore, HCV infection remarkably decreased HNF-1α protein levels. We assessed the effects of proteasome inhibitor or lysosomal protease inhibitors on the HCV-induced reduction of HNF-1α protein levels. Treatment of HCV-infected cells with a lysosomal protease inhibitor, but not with a proteasome inhibitor, restored HNF-1α protein levels, suggesting that HCV infection promotes lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein. Overexpression of NS5A protein enhanced lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein and suppressed GLUT2 promoter activity. Immunoprecipitation analyses revealed that the region from amino acids 1 to 126 of the NS5A domain I physically interacts with HNF-1α protein. Taken together, our results suggest that HCV infection suppresses GLUT2 gene expression via downregulation of HNF-1α expression at transcriptional and posttranslational levels. HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α expression may play a crucial role in glucose metabolic disorders caused by HCV.

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the main cause of chronic hepatitis, liver cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma. HCV is a single-stranded, positive-sense RNA virus that is classified into the *Flaviviridae* family, *Hepacivirus* genus (21). More than 170 million people worldwide are chronically infected with HCV. The 9.6-kb HCV genome encodes a polyprotein of approximately 3,010 amino acids (aa). The polyprotein is cleaved co- and posttranslationally into at least 10 proteins by viral proteases and cellular signalases: the structural proteins core, E1, E2, and p7 and the nonstructural proteins NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B (21).

Persistent HCV infection causes not only intrahepatic diseases but also extrahepatic manifestations, such as type 2 diabetes. Clinical and experimental data suggest that HCV infection is an additional risk factor for the development of diabetes (26, 29, 30). HCV-related glucose metabolic changes and insulin resistance have significant clinical consequences, such as accelerated fibrogenesis, reduced virological response to alpha interferon (IFN-α)-based therapy, and increased incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma (29). Therefore, the molecular mechanism of HCV-related diabetes needs to be clarified.

We have sought to identify a novel mechanism of HCV-induced diabetes. We previously demonstrated that HCV suppresses hepatocytic glucose uptake through downregulation of cell surface expression of glucose transporter 2 (GLUT2) in a human hepatoma cell line (19). The uptake of glucose into cells is conducted by facilitative glucose carriers, i.e., glucose transporters (GLUTs). GLUTs are integral membrane proteins that contain 12 membrane-spanning helices. To date, a total of 14 isoforms have been identified in the GLUT family (24). GLUT2 is expressed in the liver, pancreatic β-cells, hypothalamic glial cells, retina, and enterocytes. Glucose is transported into hepatocytes by GLUT2 (34). We previously reported that GLUT2 expression was reduced in hepatocytes obtained from HCV-infected patients (19). We also demonstrated that GLUT2 mRNA levels were lower in HCV replicon cells and in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells than in the control cells. GLUT2 promoter activity was suppressed in HCV-replicating cells. However, the molecular mechanism of HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 gene expression remains to be elucidated.

In the present study, we aimed to clarify molecular mechanisms of HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 gene expression. We analyzed transcriptional regulation of the GLUT2 promoter in HCV replicon cells. We demonstrate that HCV infection downregulates hepatocyte nuclear factor 1α (HNF-1α) expression at both transcriptional and posttranslational levels, resulting in suppression of GLUT2 promoter. We propose that HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α may play a crucial role in glucose metabolic disorders caused by HCV.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture. The human hepatoma cell line Huh-7.5 (4) was kindly provided by Charles M. Rice (The Rockefeller University, New York, NY).

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Address correspondence to Hak Hotta, hotta@kobe-u.ac.jp, or Ikuo Shoji, ishoji@med.kobe-u.ac.jp.

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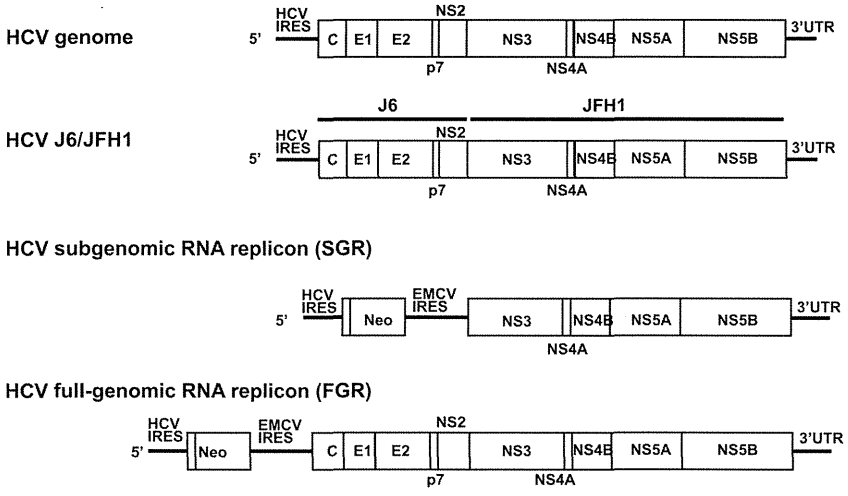

FIG 1 The HCV genome, chimeric HCV J6/JFH1, and the HCV RNA replicons. Schematic diagrams of the HCV genome, the chimeric HCV J6/JFH1 genome, SGR, and FGR are shown. IRES, internal ribosome entry site; EMCV, encephalomyocarditis virus; Neo, neomycin resistance gene.

Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (high glucose) with L-glutamine (Wako, Osaka, Japan) supplemented with 50 IU/ml penicillin, 50 μg/ml streptomycin (Gibco, NY), 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Biowest, France), and 0.1 mM nonessential amino acids (Invitrogen, NY) at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 incubator. Cells were transfected with plasmid DNA using FuGENE 6 transfection reagents (Promega, Madison, WI).

Huh-7.5 cells stably harboring an HCV-1b subgenomic RNA replicon (SGR) were prepared as described previously (18), using pFK5B/2884Gly (a kind gift from R. Bartenschlager, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany). The SGR cells express the genomic region from NS3 to NS5B of the HCV Con1 strain (19) (Fig. 1). Cells harboring a full-genome HCV-1b RNA replicon (FGR) derived from Con1 (27) or pON/C-5B (17, 19) (a kind gift from N. Kato, Okayama University, Okayama, Japan) were also used. The FGR cells express all of the HCV proteins (the region ranging from the core protein to NS5B).

The pFL-J6/JFH1 plasmid that encodes the entire viral genome of a chimeric strain of HCV-2a, J6/JFH1 (23), was kindly provided by Charles M. Rice. The HCV genome RNA was synthesized *in vitro* using pFL-J6/JFH1 as a template and was transfected into Huh-7.5 cells by electroporation (6, 9, 23, 37). The virus produced in the culture supernatant was used for infection experiments (6).

Cells were treated with 1,000 IU/ml of IFN-α (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) for 10 days to eliminate HCV replication (19).

Luciferase reporter assay. We constructed the human GLUT2 promoter-luciferase reporter plasmid by cloning a 1.6-kb genomic fragment that encompasses the human GLUT2 promoter region from −1291 to +308, yielding pGLUT2(−1291/+308)-Luc (2, 19), into the pGL4 vector plasmid (Promega). The pGLUT2(−1291/+308)-Luc construct contains a 1,291-bp fragment of the human GLUT2 promoter upstream of the minimal promoter and the coding sequence of the *Photinus pyralis* (firefly) luciferase. We also used seven different GLUT2 promoter-luciferase reporter plasmids, i.e., pGLUT2(−1193/+308)-Luc, pGLUT2 (−1155/+308)-Luc, pGLUT2(−1100/+308)-Luc, pGLUT2(−1030/+308)-Luc, pGLUT2(−206/+308)-Luc, pGLUT2(+29/+308)-Luc, and pGLUT2(+126/+308)-Luc, which lack the binding sequence of the CCAAT/enhancer binding site (C/EBP), cyclic AMP (cAMP) response element (CRE), AP-1 binding site, HNF-1α binding site, CAAT box, TATA-like motif, and transcriptional initiation, respectively (Fig. 2A). The reporter plasmid pRL-CMV-*Renilla* (where CMV is cytomegalovirus) (Promega) was used as an internal control. Cells were transfected with each pGLUT2-Luc construct together with pRL-CMV-*Renilla*. At 48 h after transfection, samples were harvested and assayed for luciferase activity. The luciferase assays were performed using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega). Luciferase activity was measured by a Lumat LB 9501 instrument (Berthold Technologies GmbH & Co., Bad Wildbad, Germany). Firefly luciferase activity was normalized to *Renilla* luciferase activity for each sample. The number of relative light units (RLU) of the SGR cells or FGR cells transfected with each reporter plasmid is expressed as a ratio of the number of Huh-7.5 cells transfected with each reporter plasmid.

Expression plasmids. Expression plasmids for core protein, p7, NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B were described previously (9, 10, 18). To express E1 and E2 (E1/E2), the cDNA fragment of nucleotides (nt) 825 to 2676 derived from the HCV Con1 strain was amplified by PCR using the plasmid pFKI389neo/core-3′/Con1 (a kind gift from R. Bartenschlager) as a template. Specific primers used for PCR were as follows: sense primer, 5′-CCAGTGTGGTGAATTCAC CATGGTGAACTATGCAACAGGGAA-3′; antisense primer, 5′-CGAAG GGCCCTCTAGAGATGTACCAGGCAGCACAGA-3′. To express NS3 and NS4A (NS3/4A), the cDNA fragment of nt 3420 to 5474 derived from the HCV Con1 strain was amplified by PCR. Specific primers were as follows: sense primer, 5′-CCAGTGTGGTGAATTCACCATGGCGCCTA TTACGGCCTACTC-3′; antisense primer, 5′-CGAAGGGCCCTCTAGA GCACTCTTCCATCTCATCGAA-3′. These amplified PCR products were purified, and each of them was inserted into the EcoRI-XbaI site of pEF1/myc-His A (Invitrogen) using an In-Fusion HD-Cloning kit (Clontech, Mountain View, CA). To express a series of NS5A deletion mutants as hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged proteins, each fragment was amplified by PCR and cloned into the NotI site of pCAG-HA. pEF1A-NS5A (Con1)-myc-His was used as a template (18). The primer sequences used in this study are available from the authors upon request. The sequences of the inserts were extensively verified by sequencing (Operon biotechnology, Tokyo, Japan). The plasmids pEF1A-NS5A(1–126)-myc-His, consisting of residues 1 to 126 in NS5A, and pEF1A-NS5A(1–147)-myc-His were described previously (18).

Antibodies. The mouse monoclonal antibodies (MAbs) used in this study were anti-FLAG (M2) MAb (F-3165; Sigma), anti-NS5A MAb (MAB8694; Millipore), anti-core protein MAb (2H9) (37), and anti-glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) MAb (MAB374; Millipore). Polyclonal antibodies (PAbs) used in this study were anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (sc-8986; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-HNF-1α goat PAb (sc-6548; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-NS5B goat PAb (sc-17532; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-NS3 rabbit PAb (described elsewhere), and anti-actin goat PAb (C-11; Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-mouse IgG antibody

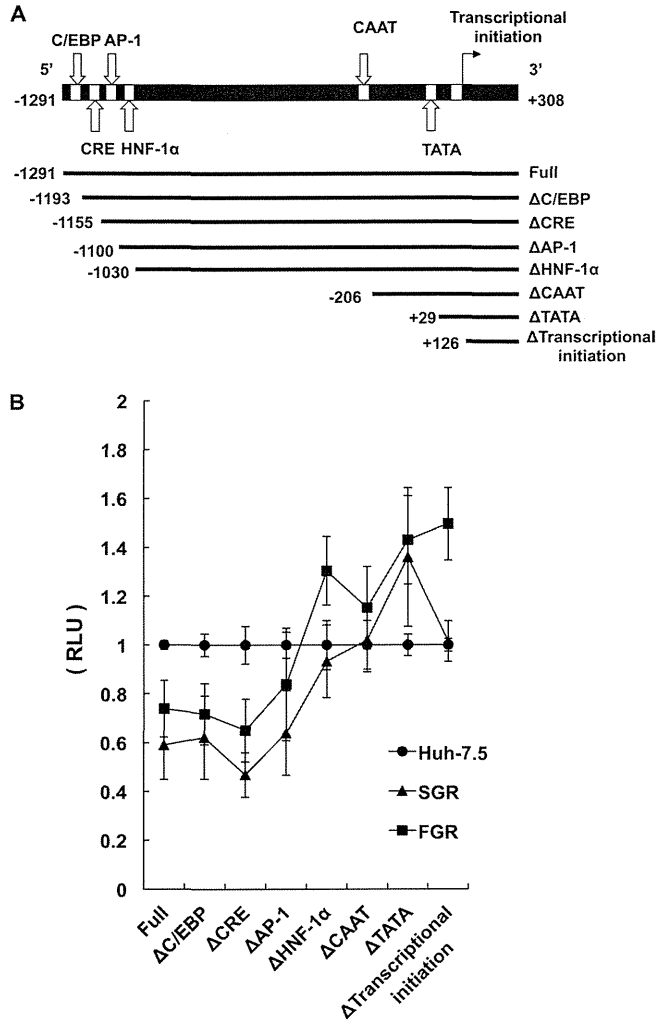

FIG 2 HNF-1α-binding site is important for HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter. (A) A series of constructs in which genomic GLUT2 promoter DNA fragments were fused to a promoterless firefly luciferase gene of the pGL4 vector were generated with the 3′ end always terminating at bases +308 from transcriptional start site. The 5′ ends began at bases −1291, −1193, −1155, −1100, −1030, −206, +29, and +126 The regions that represent potential binding sites for transcription factors are shown, including a CCAAT/enhancer binding site (C/EBP), cAMP response element (CRE), AP-1 binding site, HNF-1α binding site, CAAT box, and TATA-like motif. The nucleotide at the beginning of the construct is indicated. (B) Huh-7.5 cells, SGR cells, and FGR cells (2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate) were transfected with each GLUT2 plasmid (0.5 μg) together with pRL-CMV-*Renilla* (25 ng). pRL-CMV-*Renilla* was used as an internal control. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested and assayed for luciferase activities using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system. RLU is expressed as a ratio of the Huh-7.5 cells transfected with each reporter plasmid.

(Cell signaling), HRP-conjugated donkey anti-goat IgG (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), and HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (Cell signaling) were used as secondary antibodies.

Real-time quantitative reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR). Total cellular RNA was isolated using RNAiso reagent (TaKaRa Bio, Kyoto, Japan), and cDNA was generated using a QuantiTect Reverse Transcription system (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Real-time quantitative PCR was performed using SYBR Premix *Ex Taq* (TaKaRa Bio) with SYBR green chemistry on an ABI Prism 7000 system (Applied Biosystems, Foster, CA), as described previously (11, 19). The β-glucronidase (GUS) gene was used as an internal control. The primers used for real-time PCR are as follows: for HNF-1α (NM_000545), 5′-AGCTACCAACCAAGAAGGGGC-3′ (nt 601 to 621) and 5′-TGACGAGGTTGGAGCCCAGCC-3′ (nt 801 to 781); HNF-1β (NM_000458), 5′-GTTACATGCAGCAACACAACA-3′ (nt 600 to 620) and 5′-TCATATTTCCAGAACTCTGGA-3′ (nt 801 to 782); GUS (NM_000181), 5′-ATCAAAAACGCAGAAAATACG-3′ (nt 1797 to 1817) and 5′-ACGCAGGTGGTATCAGTCTTG-3′ (nt 2034 to 2014).

Immunoblot analysis. Immunoblot analysis was performed essentially as described previously (9, 33). The cell lysates were separated by 8% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA). The membranes were incubated with primary antibody, followed by incubation with peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody. The positive bands were visualized using ECL Western blotting detection reagents (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom). To detect endogenous HNF-1α protein, ECL Plus Western blotting detection reagents were used (GE Healthcare).

Immunoprecipitation. Cultured cells were lysed with a buffer containing 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 0.1% SDS, 1% NP-40, and Complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN). The lysate was centrifuged at 12,000 × *g* for 20 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was immunoprecipitated with appropriate antibodies. Immunoprecipitation was performed as described previously (10). Briefly, the cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with control IgG and Dynabeads protein A (Invitrogen) and incubated with appropriate antibodies at 4°C overnight. After being washed with the washing buffer (0.1 M Na-phosphate buffer, pH 7.4) five times, the immunoprecipitates were analyzed by immunoblotting.

Statistical analysis. Results were expressed as means ± standard errors of the means (SEM). Statistical significance was evaluated by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and statistical significance was defined as a P value of <0.05.

RESULTS

HNF-1α-binding site is important for HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter. To gain an insight into potential regulatory sequences involved in HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 gene transcription, a 1.6-kb genomic fragment that encompasses the human GLUT2 promoter (−1291 to +308) and a series of deletion mutants were analyzed (Fig. 2A). The ability of the upstream region of the GLUT2 gene to function as a promoter was assessed by its capacity to drive the expression of a luciferase reporter gene. GLUT2 promoter activity was assessed by measuring luciferase activity of the cell extracts derived from transiently transfected Huh-7.5 cells, SGR cells, and FGR cells. As shown in Fig. 2B, a deletion of the promoter sequence to −1100 [pGLUT2(−1100/+308)-Luc [ΔAP-1]] showed lower luciferase activities in HCV replicon cells than in the control cells. Successive removal of nucleotides from −1100 to −1030 completely or almost completely abolished the suppression of the luciferase activity in both FGR and SGR cells, suggesting that the HNF-1α-binding site is important for HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter.

HCV infection reduces HNF-1α mRNA levels. It is worth noting that HNF-1α is known to play a crucial role in diabetes. Mutations in the HNF-1α gene have been reported to cause a monogenic form of diabetes mellitus with autosomal dominant inheritance, termed maturity onset diabetes of the young 3 (MODY3) (25, 40). Cha et al. (7) reported that HNF-1α functions as a transcriptional transactivator in human GLUT2 gene expression in a human hepatoma cell line. These findings motivated us to further investigate a role of HNF-1α in HCV-induced glucose metabolic disorders in a human hepatoma cell line. To determine

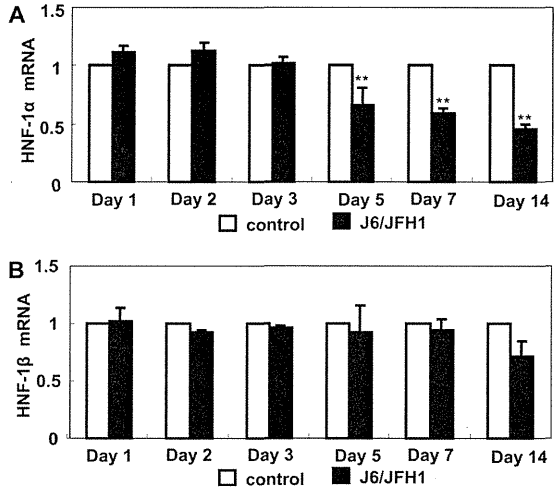

FIG 3 Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of mRNA for HNF-1α and HNF-1β in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells. Huh-7.5 cells (2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate) were infected with HCV J6/JFH1 at a multiplicity of infection of 2. Cells were cultured and harvested at the indicated times. Total RNA was extracted, and the levels of HNF-1α mRNA and HNF-1β mRNA were determined by quantitative RT-PCR. Mock-infected cells served as negative controls. **, $P < 0.01$, compared with mock-infected cells.

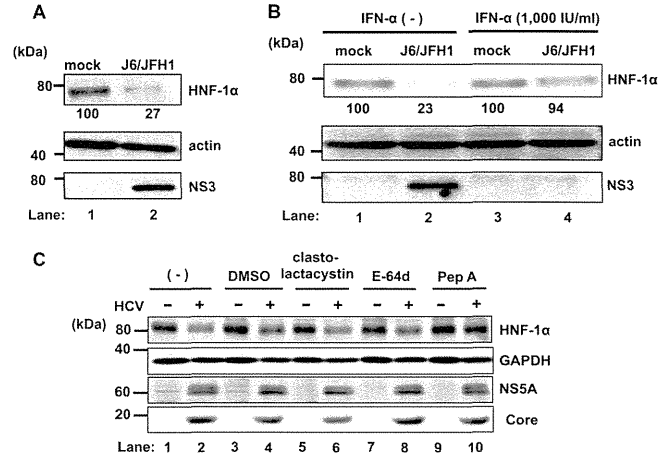

FIG 4 HCV infection induces lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein. (A) HCV infection decreased the levels of HNF-1α protein in Huh-7.5 cells. Huh-7.5 cells (2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate) were infected with HCV J6/JFH1 at a multiplicity of infection of 2. Cells were cultured and harvested at 5 days postinfection. Cells were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HNF-1α, anti-NS3, and anti-actin antibodies. The level of actin served as a loading control. The relative levels of protein expression were quantitated by densitometry and are indicated below the respective lanes. (B) HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α protein was restored by treatment of the cells with IFN-α. Huh-7.5 cells were plated at 2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate and cultured for 12 h. The cells were infected with HCV J6/JFH1 at a multiplicity of infection of 2 and cultured for 5 days. The cells were replated at 2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate and cultured in complete DMEM with or without 1,000 IU/ml IFN-α for 10 days to eliminate HCV. The cells cultured in DMEM without IFN-α served as negative controls. (C) HCV-induced reduction of HNF-1α protein was restored by treatment of the cells with lysosomal protease inhibitor. Huh-7.5 cells were plated at 2.0×10^5 cells/six-well plate and cultured for 12 h. At 5 days postinfection, proteasome inhibitor (30 μM clasto-lactacystin β-lactone) or lysosomal protease inhibitors (40 μM E-64d and 20 μM pepstatin A) were administered to the cells. Cells were cultured for 12 h, harvested, and analyzed by immunoblotting as indicated. The level of GAPDH served as a loading control. DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; PepA, pepstatin A.

whether HCV infection suppresses HNF-1α mRNA expression, we quantified mRNA levels of HNF-1α and HNF-1β in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells and in mock-infected cells by real-time RT-PCR. HNF-1α mRNA levels were significantly reduced in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells from 5 days postinfection (dpi) to 14 dpi (Fig. 3A). On the other hand, HNF-1β mRNA levels remained unchanged until 14 dpi (Fig. 3B). These results suggest that HCV infection specifically downregulates HNF-1α mRNA expression.

HCV infection reduces HNF-1α protein levels. To determine whether HCV infection reduces HNF-1α protein levels, endogenous HNF-1α protein levels were examined by immunoblot analysis. The HNF-1α protein level was much lower in J6/JFH1-infected cells than in the mock-infected control (Fig. 4A, upper panel, lane 2). To determine whether HCV infection is specifically involved in reduction of HNF-1α protein, we eliminated HCV by treatment of the cells with IFN-α (Fig. 4B, lower panel, compare lane 2 with lane 4). Upon elimination of HCV, the HNF-1α protein expression level recovered to the level of the mock-infected control (Fig. 4B, upper panel, compare lane 2 with lane 4). These results suggest that HCV infection specifically reduces HNF-1α protein levels.

HCV-induced reduction of HNF-1α protein is restored by treatment of the cells with a lysosomal protease inhibitor. As shown in Fig. 3A, HNF-1α mRNA levels in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells decreased slowly at day 5 postinfection. One possible explanation is that suppression of HNF-1α mRNA is an indirect effect caused by HCV infection. The degree of the reduction of the HNF-1α protein was larger than that of HNF-1α mRNA (Fig. 4A), suggesting the involvement of protein degradation in reduction of HNF-1α protein levels. To determine whether protein degradation is involved in HCV-induced reduction of HNF-1α protein, we assessed the role of proteasome or lysosome proteases in the reduction of HNF-1α protein. We treated the cells with a proteasome inhibitor, clasto-lactacystin β-lactone, or lysosome protease inhibitors E-64d and pepstatin A. Clasto-lactacystin β-lactone had no effect on the levels of HNF-1α protein (Fig. 4C, upper panel, lane 6). This result suggests that proteasome is not involved in the reduction of HNF-1α protein. E-64d is a cysteine protease inhibitor, and pepstatin A is an aspartic protease inhibitor. Pepstatin A, but not E-64d, restored the levels of HNF-1α protein (Fig. 4C, upper panel, lanes 10 and 8). These results suggest that a lysosomal protease, such as an aspartic protease, is involved in HCV-induced reduction of HNF-1α protein.

Overexpression of NS5A protein suppresses GLUT2 promoter activity. To determine which HCV protein is involved in the suppression of GLUT2 promoter, we examined the effects of transient expression of HCV proteins on GLUT2 promoter activity. Huh-7.5 cells were cotransfected with each HCV protein expression plasmid together with the GLUT2 promoter-luciferase plasmid. The pRL-CMV-*Renilla* plasmid was cotransfected as an internal control. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested and assayed for luciferase activity. As shown in Fig. 5A, overexpression of the NS5A expression plasmid significantly reduced GLUT2 promoter activity. On the other hand, other HCV protein expression plasmids failed to suppress GLUT2 promoter activity (Fig. 5A, left and right panels). These results suggest that NS5A protein is involved in the suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity.

Overexpression of NS5A protein reduces the levels of endogenous HNF-1α protein. To investigate a role of NS5A in the sup-

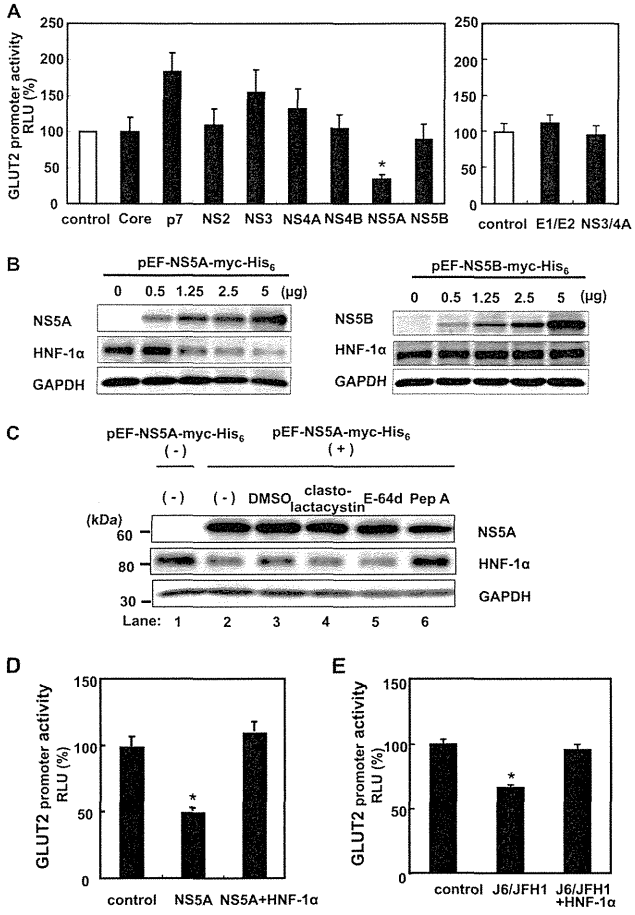

FIG 5 HCV NS5A protein is involved in suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity and lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein. (A) Huh-7.5 cells were plated at 1×10^5 cells/12-well plate. After cells were cultured for 12 h, cells were cotransfected with each HCV protein plasmid (0.5 μg), the human GLUT2 promoter reporter plasmid (0.5 μg), and pRL-CMV-*Renilla* (25 ng). pRL-CMV-*Renilla* was used as an internal control. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested. Luciferase assays were performed by using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system. (B) Huh-7.5 cells were plated at 4×10^5 cells/six-well plate and cultured for 12 h. Cells were transfected with increasing amounts of either NS5A plasmid or NS5B plasmid as indicated. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested. Whole-cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HNF-1α, anti-NS5A, and anti-NS5B antibodies. The level of GAPDH served as a loading control. (C) Huh-7.5 cells (2.5×10^5 cells/six-well plate) were transfected with pEF1A-NS5A-myc-His_6. At 2 days posttransfection, proteasome inhibitor (30 μM clasto-lactacystin β-lactone) or lysosomal enzyme inhibitors (40 μM E-64d and 20 μM pepstatin A) were administered to the cells. Cells were cultured for 12 h and harvested, and the levels of endogenous HNF-1α protein were analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-HNF-1α goat PAb. The level of GAPDH served as a loading control. (D) Huh-7.5 cells (1.0×10^5 cells/12-well plate) were transfected with the human GLUT2 promoter reporter plasmid (0.5 μg) and pRL-CMV-*Renilla* (25 ng). The plasmid pEF1A/myc-His (0.5 μg) was cotransfected to the control cells. Cells were transfected with the plasmid pEF1A-NS5A-myc-His (0.5 μg) together with either empty plasmid pCMV4 (10 ng) or pCMV-HNF-1α (10 ng). At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested. Luciferase assays were performed by using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system. *, $P < 0.05$, compared with control. (E) Huh-7.5 cells (1.2×10^6 cells /10 cm-dish) were infected with HCV J6/JFH1 at a multiplicity of infection of 2 and cultured for 5 days. At day 5 postinfection, cells were plated at 1.0×10^5 cells/12-well plate and cultured for 12 h. Mock-infected cells were plated similarly. Cells were transfected with the human GLUT2 promoter reporter plasmid (0.5 μg) and pRL-CMV-*Renilla* (25 ng) together with either empty plasmid pCMV4 or pCMV-HNF-1α, cultured for 48 h, and harvested. Luciferase assays were performed by using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system. *, $P < 0.05$, compared with control.

pression of the GLUT2 promoter, we examined the effect of NS5A protein on the levels of endogenous HNF-1α protein. Huh-7.5 cells were transfected with increasing amounts of either an NS5A expression plasmid or NS5B expression plasmid. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested, and the levels of endogenous HNF-1α protein were analyzed by immunoblot analysis. To detect endogenous HNF-1α protein, highly sensitive Western blotting detection reagents (ECL Plus Western blotting detection reagents) were used. Overexpression of NS5A (Fig. 5B, left panel) but not NS5B (Fig. 5B, right panel) significantly reduced endogenous HNF-1α protein. These results suggest that NS5A protein specifically reduces endogenous HNF-1α protein levels.

To determine if NS5A-dependent reduction of HNF-1α protein is due to lysosomal degradation, we treated the cells with lysosome protease inhibitors. Pepstatin A, but not E-64d, recovered the levels of HNF-1α protein (Fig. 5C, middle panel, lanes 5 and 6), which is consistent with the results found in HCV-infected cells. These results suggest that NS5A is responsible for HCV-induced lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein. Taken together, our results suggest that HCV infection suppresses GLUT2 promoter activity via NS5A-dependent lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein.

To verify a role of HNF-1α in the HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity, we examined the effects of ectopic expression of HNF-1α on GLUT2 promoter activity in NS5A-transfected cells as well as in HCV J6/JFH1-infected cells. As shown in Fig. 5D, overexpression of NS5A decreased GLUT2 promoter activity, and ectopic expression of HNF-1α restored GLUT2 promoter activity (Fig. 5D). Moreover, HCV J6/JFH1 infection significantly decreased GLUT2 promoter activity, and ectopic expression of HNF-1α restored GLUT2 promoter activity (Fig. 5E). These results are consistent with the notion that HNF-1α protein is a key regulator for HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity.

NS5A protein interacts with HNF-1α protein in Huh-7.5 cells and in FGR Con1 cells. It was previously reported that *in vitro* translated HNF-1 protein was pulled down with glutathione *S*-transferase (GST)-NS5A protein (32). To determine whether NS5A physically interacts with HNF-1α protein in cultured cells, Huh-7.5 cells were cotransfected with each FLAG-tagged NS5A expression plasmid together with the HNF-1α expression plasmid. Immunoprecipitation analysis revealed that HNF-1α protein was coimmunoprecipitated with FLAG-NS5A protein using anti-FLAG MAb (Fig. 6A, third blot, lane 8). No band was detected using control IgG for immunoprecipitation (Fig. 6A, third blot, lane 7). Conversely, immunoprecipitation analysis revealed that NS5A protein was coimmunoprecipitated with HNF-1α protein using anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (Fig. 6B, fourth blot, lane 8). Moreover, NS5A protein was coimmunoprecipitated with endogenous HNF-1α protein (Fig. 6B, fourth blot, lane 6), suggesting that NS5A protein indeed interacts with HNF-1α protein.

To confirm that HCV NS5A protein can interact with HNF-1α protein in HCV-replicating cells, we performed immunoprecipitation analysis using FGR Con1 (RCYM1) cells. NS5A protein was coimmunoprecipitated with endogenous HNF-1α protein (Fig. 6C, fourth blot, lane 2). Transfection of HNF-1α protein increased the level of coimmunoprecipitated NS5A protein (Fig. 6C, fourth blot, lane 4), suggesting that HCV NS5A protein indeed interacts with HNF-1α protein in HCV-replicating cells.

HNF-1α binds domain I of NS5A protein. To map the HNF-

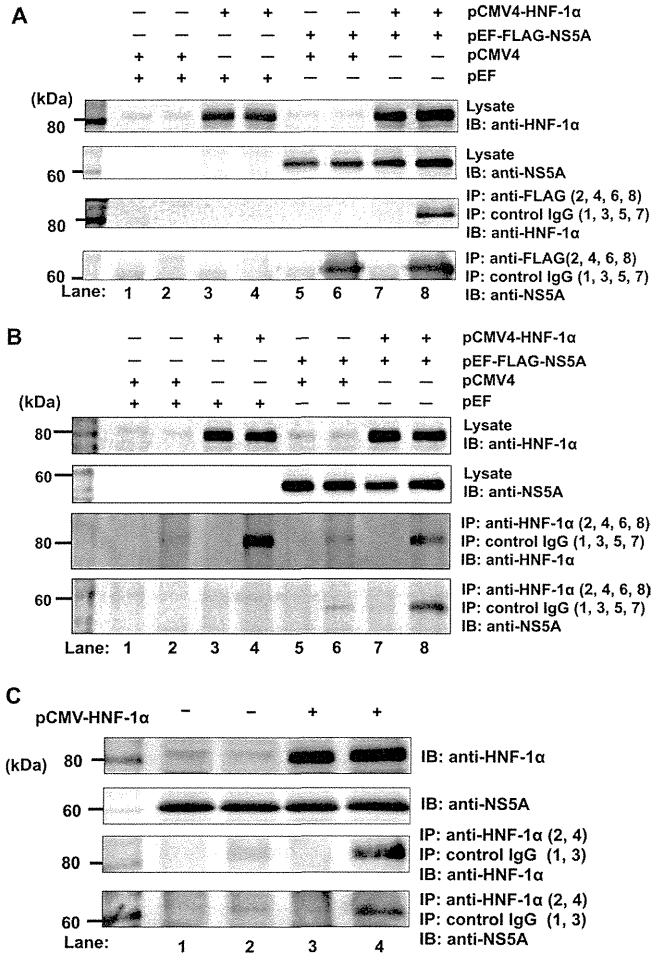

FIG 6 NS5A protein interacts with HNF-1α protein. (A) Huh-7.5 cells were plated at 1.2×10^6 cells/10-cm dish and cultured for 12 h. Cells were transfected with plasmids as indicated. At 48 h after transfection, cells were harvested. Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with either anti-FLAG mouse MAb (lanes 2, 4, 6, and 8) or control IgG (lanes 1, 3, 5, and 7), and bound proteins were immunoblotted with anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (third blot) or anti-NS5A mouse MAb (fourth blot). Protein expression of HNF-1α or FLAG-NS5A was confirmed using the same cell lysates by immunoblotting with either anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (first blot) or anti-NS5A mouse MAb (second blot). (B) Cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with either anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (lanes 2, 4, 6, and 8) or control IgG (lanes 1, 3, 5, and 7), and bound proteins were immunoblotted with either anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (third blot) and anti-NS5A mouse MAb (fourth blot). (C) Full-genome replicon Con1 (RCYM1) cells were plated at 1.2×10^6 cells/10-cm plate and transfected with or without pCMV-HNF-1α plasmid and cultured for 48 h. Cells were harvested and assayed for immunoprecipitation with anti-HNF-1α rabbit PAb (lanes 2 and 4) or control IgG (lanes 1 and 3). Bound proteins were immunoblotted with anti-HNF-1α goat PAb (third blot) or anti-NS5A mouse MAb (fourth blot). Input samples were immunoblotted with either anti-HNF-1α PAb (first blot) or anti-NS5A MAb (second blot). IP, immunoprecipitation; IB, immunoblotting.

1α-binding site on NS5A protein, coimmunoprecipitation analyses were performed. By use of a panel of NS5A deletion mutants (Fig. 7A), FLAG-HNF-1α protein was found to coimmunoprecipitate with all of the HA-NS5A proteins except HA-NS5A consisting of aa 357 to 447 [HA-NS5A(357–447), HA-NS5A(250–447), or HA-NS5A(214–447) (Fig. 7B, lower left panel). These results suggest that domain I of NS5A consisting of aa 1 to 213 is important for HNF-1α binding. FLAG-HNF-1α protein was also found to coimmunoprecipitate with NS5A(1–126)-myc-His_6 and NS5A(1–147)-myc-His_6. These data led to the conclusion that the HNF-1α-binding domain of NS5A protein was aa 1 to 126.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we aimed to clarify molecular mechanisms of HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 gene expression. The reporter assays of the human GLUT2 promoter suggest that the HNF-1α-binding site is crucial for HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 promoter activity (Fig. 2). HCV infection significantly reduced the levels of HNF-1α mRNA (Fig. 3A). Moreover, HCV infection remarkably decreased HNF-1α protein levels (Fig. 4A). Our results suggest that HCV infection suppresses GLUT2 gene expression via NS5A-mediated lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein (Fig. 5). Immunoprecipitation analyses revealed that NS5A protein physically interacts with HNF-1α protein (Fig. 6) and that domain I of NS5A is important for HNF-1α binding (Fig. 7). Taken together, our results suggest that HCV infection suppresses GLUT2 transcription via downregulation of HNF-1α expression at both transcriptional and translational levels (Fig. 8).

We demonstrated that HNF-1α protein levels were greatly reduced compared to the reduced levels of HNF-1α mRNA. We demonstrated that pepstatin A, but not E64-d, restored the levels of HNF-1α protein, suggesting that an aspartic protease is involved in the degradation of HNF-1α protein. Pepstatin A is widely used for investigation of autophagy and lysosomal degradation. Further studies are needed to elucidate how HCV induces lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein and how HNF-1α protein is selectively downregulated by HCV infection. Our data suggest that the HCV NS5A protein is responsible for the HCV-induced degradation of HNF-1α protein. Using a panel of NS5A deletion mutants, we demonstrated that domain I of NS5A is important for association with HNF-1α protein. NS5A domain I is relatively conserved among HCV genotypes compared to domains II and III, suggesting that NS5A–HNF-1α interaction is common to all the HCV genotypes. Domain I coordinates a single zinc atom per protein molecule and is essential for HCV RNA replication (35). The crystal structure of NS5A domain I revealed the presence of a zinc coordination motif and a C-terminal disulfide bond (36). NS5A domain I was found to bind many host proteins, RNA, and membranes (16). It is possible that physical interaction between NS5A protein and HNF-1α protein is important for selective degradation of HNF-1α protein. One possible mechanism is that NS5A protein may recruit HNF-1α protein to the lysosome. Further study is necessary to test this possibility.

We observed that deletion of the GLUT2 transcriptional start site enhances expression of the GLUT2 reporter in FGR cells (Fig. 2B). Cha et al. (7) previously reported that deletion down to nucleotide +73 of the GLUT2 promoter resulted in a marked increase and that further deletion to nucleotide +188 caused a drastic decrease in luciferase activity, indicating the presence of negative- and positive-regulator elements in the 5′ untranslated region. The role of these elements in HCV-infected cells remains to be elucidated.

We demonstrated that HCV J6/JFH1 infection reduced the HNF-1α mRNA level and HNF-1α protein level. Our results contradict an earlier report (32) demonstrating that expression of HNF-1 mRNA was increased in subgenomic replicon Huh.8 cells (3). We observed downregulation of HNF-1α mRNA and

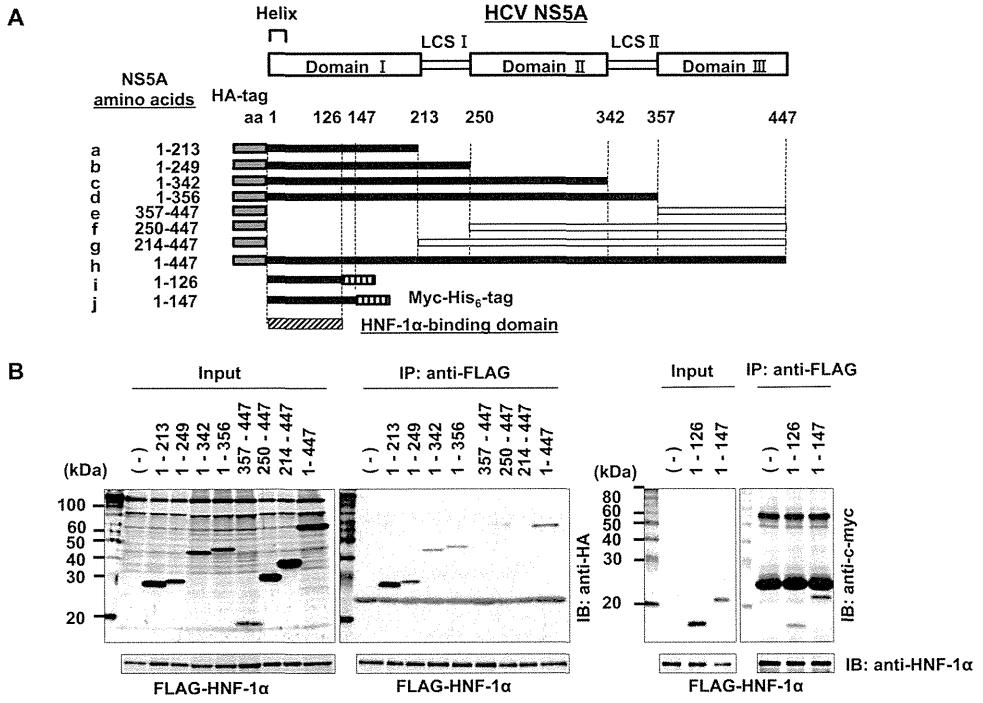

FIG 7 Mapping of the HNF-1α-binding domain for NS5A protein. (A) Schematic representation of the hepatitis C virus NS5A protein. NS5A consists of three domains (domains I, II, and III) with domains separated by low-complexity sequences (LCS I and II). The position of the amino-terminal amphipathic helix membrane anchor is shown (labeled helix). The NS5A deletion mutants (a to j) contain the NS5A amino acids indicated to the left. Each NS5A deletion mutant contains either HA tag in the N terminus (a to h) or myc-His_6 tag in the C terminus (i and j). The gray region of each represents the HA tag sequence. The lattice region of each represents the myc-His_6 tag (i and j). Closed boxes represent proteins that are bound specifically to HNF-1α protein, and open boxes represent those that are not bound. (B) Huh-7.5 cells were transfected with each NS5A mutant plasmid together with a FLAG-HNF-1α expression plasmid. At 48 h posttransfection, cells were harvested, and cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti-FLAG beads. Input samples and immunoprecipitated samples were immunoblotted with anti-HA MAb (two left panels, top), anti-c-myc MAb (two right panels, top), or anti-HNF-1α PAb (all panels, bottom).

HNF-1α protein in SGR cells as well as in FGR cells (data not shown). We also demonstrated that the ectopic expression of NS5A protein decreased the endogenous HNF-1α protein level. The reasons for these discrepancies remain to be elucidated.

We along with other groups previously reported that HCV NS5A protein is involved in mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) production (11, 13, 38). Mitochondrial ROS generation is known to induce the autophagy pathway (22) and lysosomal membrane permeabilization (8). Therefore, it is necessary to determine whether NS5A-induced ROS production enhances autophagic degradation or lysosomal membrane permeabilization. Several groups have reported that autophagy vesicles accumulate in HCV-infected cells and that autophagy proteins can function as proviral factors required for HCV replication (14). Autophagy degrades macromolecules and organelles. Based on the means by which cargo is delivered to the lysosomes, three different autophagy pathways are described: macroautophagy, microautophagy, and chaperone-mediated autophagy (CMA). At first, autophagy was considered a nonselective bulk degradation process. CMA, however, results in specific degradation of the cytosolic proteins in a molecule-by-molecule fashion. Most known substrates for CMA contain a peptide sequence biochemically related to KFERQ (12). Although the typical KFERQ peptide motif is not found in HNF-1α protein, it is possible that KFERQ-like sequences can be generated by post-translational modifications. It is also possible that HNF-1α protein possesses other degradation motifs. The molecular mechanism underlying NS5A-dependent lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein needs to be elucidated.

HNF-1α is a homeodomain-containing transcription factor, which is expressed in the liver, pancreatic β cells, and other tissues (1). Intriguingly, HNF-1α is known to play a crucial role in diabetes. Heterozygous germ line mutations in the gene encoding HNF-1α are responsible for an autosomal dominant form of non-insulin-dependent diabetes, MODY3 (40). Mutations in the HNF-1α gene disrupt GLUT2 function as a glucose sensor in pancreatic β cells, resulting in severe insulin secretory defects (39). It is unclear whether HNF-1α mutations in the liver affect glucose homeostasis in MODY3 patients. Two strains of HNF-1α-deficient mice have been reported. The mice of the first strain, created using standard methods for making knockout mice, are born normally, but most die postnatally around the weaning period after a progressive wasting syndrome (31). Mice of the second strain, created using the Cre-loxP recombination method, had a normal life span (20). The knockout mice of the second strain were dwarfed, diabetic, and infertile. Moreover, the knockout mice had enlarged livers and exhibited progressive liver damage.

HNF-1α was also identified as a tumor suppressor gene involved in human liver tumorigenesis since biallelic inactivating mutations of the HNF-1α gene were found in 50% of hepatocellular adenomas and, in rare cases, of well-differentiated hepatocellular carcinomas developed in the absence of cirrhosis (5).

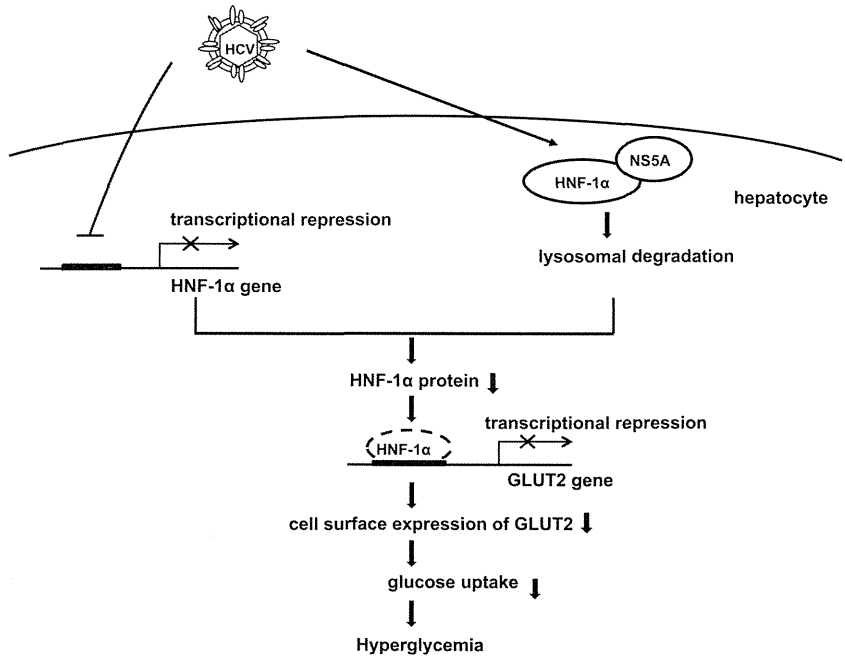

FIG 8 A proposed mechanism of the HCV-induced suppression of GLUT2 via downregulation of HNF-1α. HCV infection downregulates HNF-1α at transcriptional and posttranslational levels, resulting in suppression of GLUT2 gene transcription. HCV NS5A protein physically interacts with HNF-1α protein and enhances lysosomal degradation of HNF-1α protein.

Moreover, HNF-1α has been shown to regulate a large number of genes related to glucose, fatty acid, bile acid, cholesterol, and lipoprotein metabolisms as well as inflammation (1). Therefore, it is possible that HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α may play a crucial role in metabolic disorders as well as tumorigenesis.

To determine which HCV protein is involved in the suppression of the GLUT2 promoter, we examined the effects of transient expression of HCV proteins on GLUT2 promoter activity. Overexpression of NS5A suppressed GLUT2 promoter activity, whereas overexpression of p7 enhanced GLUT2 promoter activity (Fig. 5A). SGR cells express NS5A protein but lack p7 protein. FGR cells express both NS5A protein and p7 protein. However, GLUT2 promoter activity was suppressed in both SGR and FGR cells (Fig. 2B). This discrepancy between transient expression system and replicon cells may result from the differences in trafficking of p7 because it is a complex process potentially regulated by both the cleavage from its upstream signal peptides and targeting signals within the protein sequence (15).

We previously reported that HCV infection promotes hepatic gluconeogenesis in HCV J6/JFH1-infected Huh-7.5 cells (11). HCV infection transcriptionally upregulates the genes for phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (PEPCK) and glucose 6-phosphatase (G6Pase), the rate-limiting enzymes for hepatic gluconeogenesis. We demonstrated that gene expression of PEPCK and G6Pase was regulated by the transcription factor forkhead box O1 (FoxO1) in HCV-infected cells. Phosphorylation of the FoxO1 at Ser319 was markedly diminished in HCV-infected cells, resulting in increased nuclear accumulation of FoxO1. HCV NS5A protein was directly linked with FoxO1-dependent increased gluconeogenesis. HCV-induced downregulation of GLUT2 expression and upregulation of gluconeogenesis may cooperatively contribute to development of type 2 diabetes in HCV-infected patients at least to some extent. HCV-induced downregulation of GLUT2 expression and upregulation of gluconeogenesis may result in high concentrations of glucose in HCV-infected hepatocytes. As suggested in a recent study, low glucose concentrations in the hepatocytes inhibit HCV replication (28). Therefore, high glucose levels in the hepatocytes may confer an advantage in efficient replication of HCV.

In conclusion, we provided evidence suggesting that HCV infection downregulates HNF-1α expression at both transcriptional and posttranslational levels. HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α may play a crucial role in glucose metabolic disorders caused by HCV infection. Strategies aimed at HCV-induced downregulation of HNF-1α protein may lead to the development of new therapeutic agents for HCV-induced diabetes.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE—LIVER, PANCREAS, AND BILIARY TRACT

Geranylgeranylacetone has anti-hepatitis C virus activity via activation of mTOR in human hepatoma cells

Shigeyuki Takeshita · Tatsuki Ichikawa · Naota Taura · Hisamitsu Miyaaki · Toshihisa Matsuzaki · Masashi Otani · Toru Muraoka · Motohisa Akiyama · Satoshi Miuma · Eisuke Ozawa · Masanori Ikeda · Nobuyuki Kato · Hajime Isomoto · Fuminao Takeshima · Kazuhiko Nakao

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Abstract
Background Geranylgeranylacetone (GGA), an isoprenoid compound which includes retinoids, has been used orally as an anti-ulcer drug in Japan. GGA acts as a potent inducer of anti-viral gene expression by stimulating ISGF3 formation in human hepatoma cells. This drug has few side effects and reinforces the effect of IFN when administered in combination with peg-IFN and ribavirin. This study verified the anti-HCV activity of GGA in a replicon system. In addition, mechanisms of anti-HCV activity were examined in the replicon cells.
Methods OR6 cells stably harboring the full-length genotype 1 replicon containing the *Renilla* luciferase gene, ORN/C-5B/KE, were used to examine the influence of the anti-HCV effect of GGA. After treatment, the cells were harvested with Renilla lysis reagent and then subjected to a luciferase assay according to the manufacturer's protocol.
Result The results showed that GGA had anti-HCV activity. GGA induced anti-HCV replicon activity in a time- and dose-dependent manner. GGA did not activate the tyrosine 701 and serine 727 on STAT-1, and did not induce HSP-70 in OR6 cells. The anti-HCV effect depended on the GGA induced mTOR activity, not STAT-1 activity and PKR. An additive effect was observed with a combination of IFN and GGA.
Conclusions GGA has mTOR dependent anti-HCV activity. There is a possibility that the GGA anti-HCV activity can be complimented by IFN. It will be necessary to examine the clinical effectiveness of the combination of GGA and IFN for HCV patients in the future.

Keywords mTOR · STAT-1 · Interferon · HCV · GGA

Abbreviations

IFN	Interferon
HCV	Hepatitis C virus
STAT	Signal transducers and activators of transcription
ISGF-3	IFN-stimulated gene factor 3
ISRE	IFN-stimulated regulatory element
PKR	Double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase
Rapa	Rapamycin
PI3-K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
mTOR	Mammalian target of rapamycin
GGA	Geranylgeranylacetone
siRNA	Small interfering RNA

Introduction

Currently, chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is the major cause of hepatocellular carcinoma worldwide [1]. Therefore, an anti-HCV strategy is important for prevention of carcinogenesis. The treatment of HCV with a combination of pegylated interferon (IFN) and ribavirin is effective in 80% of HCV genotype 2 or 3 cases, but less than 50% of genotype 1 cases. New anti-HCV agents have been developed to inhibit the life cycle of HCV and are

S. Takeshita · T. Ichikawa (✉) · N. Taura · H. Miyaaki · T. Matsuzaki · M. Otani · T. Muraoka · M. Akiyama · S. Miuma · E. Ozawa · H. Isomoto · F. Takeshima · K. Nakao
Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki University, 1-7-1 Sakamoto, Nagasaki 852-8501, Japan
e-mail: ichikawa@net.nagasaki-u.ac.jp

M. Ikeda · N. Kato
Department of Molecular Biology, Graduate school of Medicine and Dentistry, Okayama University, Okayama, Japan

used in combination with IFN-α to ameliorate the salvage rate of HCV infection [2]. It is necessary to improve the salvage rate of HCV infection by clarifying the efficacy of IFN treatment since IFN-α is the most basic agent for HCV treatment. Any agents that can support IFN activity will improve the therapeutic effect for HCV infected patients.

Geranylgeranylacetone (GGA), an isoprenoid compound, which includes retinoids, has been used orally as an anti-ulcer drug developed in Japan [3]. GGA protects the gastric mucosa from various types of stress without affecting gastric acid secretion [4, 5]. Moreover, GGA suppresses cell growth and induces differentiation or apoptosis in several human leukemia cells [6, 7]. Another isoprenoid compound, 3,7,11,15-tetramethyl-2,4,6,-10,14-hexadecapentaenoic acid, which is designated as an acyclic retinoid because it has the ability to interact with nuclear retinoid receptors [8], causes apoptosis in certain human hepatoma cells [9]. GGA acts as a potent inducer of antiviral gene expression by stimulating the ISGF3 formation in human hepatoma cells [10]. GGA induces the expression of antiviral proteins such as 2′5′-oligoadenylate synthetase (2′5′-OAS) and double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase (PKR) in hepatoma cell lines. GGA stimulates 2′5′-OAS and PKR gene expression at the transcriptional level through the formation of interferon-stimulated gene factor 3 (ISGF-3), which regulates the transcription of both genes. GGA induces the expression of signal transducers and activators of transcription 1, 2 (STAT-1, STAT-2) and p48 proteins, components of ISGF3, together with the phosphorylation of STAT1 [10]. However, no anti-HCV activity was observed.

A cell culture HCV replicon system has been developed as a useful tool for the study of HCV replication and mass screening for anti-HCV reagents. OR6 cells stably harboring the full-length genotype 1 replicon containing the *Renilla* luciferase gene, ORN/C-5B/KE [11], were used to examine the influence of the anti-HCV effect of IFN. The luciferase activity in cell lysate of OR6 was correlated with the HCV-RNA concentration, and the IC50 of IFN-α was less than 10 IU/mL [11]. The OR6 system is a useful and sensitive cell culture replicon system.

This study verified the anti-HCV activity of GGA in the OR6 system. In addition, the mechanisms of anti-HCV activity were examined in OR6 cells.

Materials and methods

Reagents

GGA was a generous gift from Eisai Co. (Tokyo, Japan). Recombinant human IFN-α2a was purchased from Nippon Rosche Co. (Tokyo, Japan). Wortmannin, LY294002, Akt inhibitor and rapamycin were purchased from Calbiochem (La Jolla, CA, USA).

HCV replicon system

OR6 cells stably harboring the full-length genotype 1 replicon, ORN/C-5B/KE, were used to examine the influence of the anti-HCV effect of GGA. The cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Gibco-BRL, Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% fatal bovine serum, penicillin and streptomycin and maintained in the presence of G418 (300 mg/L; Geneticin, Invitrogen). This replicon was derived from the 1B-2 strain (strain HCV-o, genotype 1b), in which the *Renilla* luciferase gene is introduced as a fusion protein with neomycin to facilitate the monitoring of HCV replication.

Reporter gene assay

The OR6 cells were grown in 24-well plates. One day later, the cells were incubated in the absence or presence of varying concentrations of chemical blockers and GGA. After treatment, the cells were harvested with Renilla lysis reagent (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and luciferase activity in the cells was determined using a luciferase reporter assay system and a TD-20/20 luminometer. The data were expressed as the relative luciferase activity.

Western blotting and antibodies

Western blotting with anti-STAT-1, anti-PKR (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), anti-tyrosine-701 phosphorylated STAT-1, anti-serine-727 phosphorylated STAT-1, anti-serine-2448 phosphorylated mTOR, anti-mTOR, anti-threonine-389 phosphorylated p70S6K, anti-p70S6K (Cell Signaling, Beverly, MA, USA) and anti-HSP70 (Stressmarq Biosciences Inc, Victoria, Canada) was performed as described previously [10]. Briefly, OR6 cells were lysed by the addition of a lysis buffer (50 mmol/L Tris–HCl, pH 7.4, 1% Np40, 0.25% sodium deoxycholate, 0.02% sodium azide, 0.1% SDS, 150 mmol/L NaCl, 1 mmol/L EDTA, 1 mmol/L PMSF, 1 mg/mL each of aprotinin, leupeptin and pepstatin, 1 mmol/L sodium *o*-vanadate and 1 mmol/L NaF). The samples were separated by electrophoresis on 8–12% SDS polyacrylamide gels and electrotransferred to nitrocellulose membranes, and then blotted with each antibody. The membranes were incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG or anti-mouse IgG, and the immunoreactive bands were visualized using the ECL chemiluminescence system (Amersham Life Science, Buckinghamshire, England).

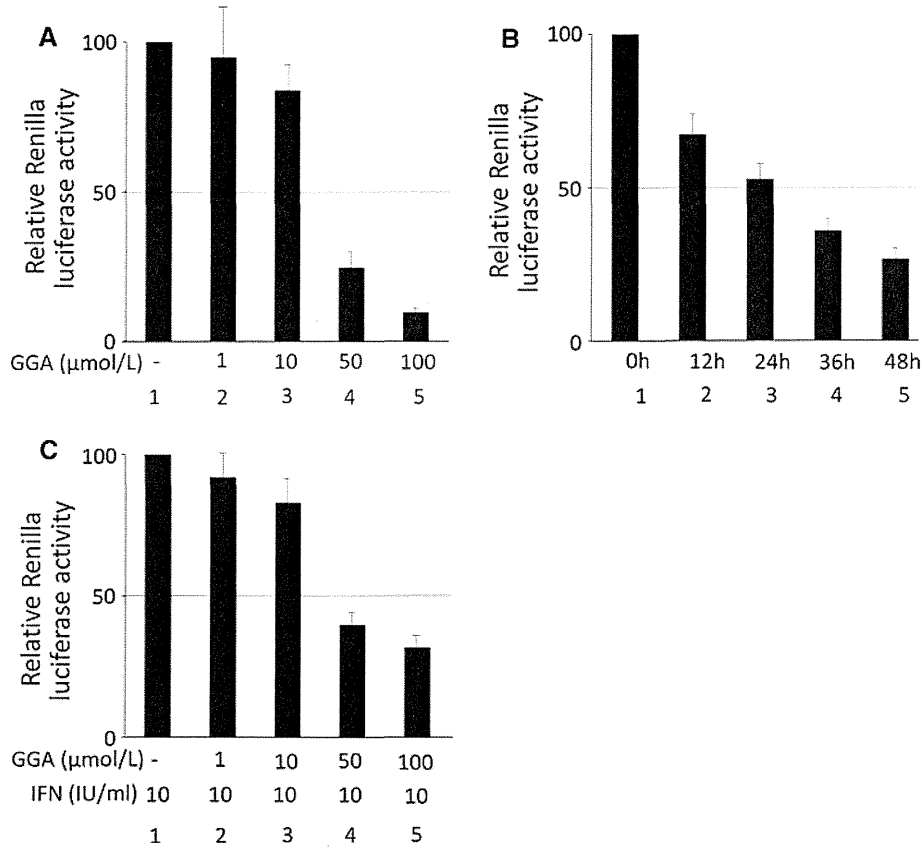

Fig. 1 The effect of GGA on the genome-length HCV RNA replication system. **a** Dose dependent effect of GGA. **b** Time course of GGA suppressed HCV replication. **c** The additive effect of GGA with IFN-α suppressed HCV replication. **a** The OR6 cells were treated with 1–100 μmol/L of GGA (*lanes 2–5*) and *lane 1* was not treated. One day later, *Renilla* luciferase activity was determined by luminometer ($n = 4$). The data are expressed as the mean ± SD and are representative of four similar experiments. The differences between *lane 3* versus *4*, *lane 3* versus *5* and *lane 3* versus *5* were statistically significant. **b** The OR6 cells were treated 50 μmol/L of GGA and at the indicated time, HCV replicon assay was done ($n = 4$). The differences between *lane 1* versus *3–5* and *lane 2* versus *4*, *5* were statistically significant. **c** The OR6 cells were treated with 10 IU/mL of IFN-α in the absence (*lane 1*) or presence of treatment with 1–100 μmol/L of GGA (*lanes 2–5*). Non-treatment OR6 cells has 100% of relative *Renilla* luciferase light unit. The differences between *lane 1* versus *4*, *5* were statistically significant. Statistical significance was accepted as a P value of <0.05. The data are expressed as the mean ± SD and are representative of four similar experiments

siRNA transfection assay

mTOR gene knockdown was performed using siRNA (Cell Signaling, Beverly, MA, USA). OR6 cells were transfected with100 nmol/L mTOR specific and non-targeted siRNA as a control in accordance with the appended manual. One day later, the cells were incubated in either the absence or presence of 50 μmol/L GGA.

mTOR kinase activity assay

The cells were washed two times with TBS and lysed by addition of lysis buffer [50 mM Tris HCl, pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 50 mM β-glycerophosphate, 10% glycerol (w/v), 1% Tween-20 detergent (w/v), 1 mM EDTA, 20 nM microcystin-LR, 25 mM NaF, and a cocktail of protease inhibitors]. The insoluble materials were removed by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 15 min at 4°C, and the supernatants were collected and subjected to analysis of the mTOR kinase activity using a commercially available kit (Calbiochem, San Diego, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Results

GGA with or without IFN had anti-HCV activity

OR6 cells, the full-length HCV replication system, were used to examine the effect of GGA. The cells were treated with 1–100 μmol/L of GGA for 24 h and the amount of HCV replicon was measured by the *Renilla* luciferase assay (Fig. 1a). The relative *Renilla* luciferase activity decreased in a dose-dependent manner. Furthermore, GGA

induced anti-HCV replicon activity was time dependent (Fig. 1b). GGA was combined with IFN-α to examine the additive effect (Fig. 1c). One or 10 μmol/L of GGA combined with IFN-α decreased the relative *Renilla* luciferase activity slightly (Fig. 1c). However, 50 or 100 μmol/L of GGA combined with IFN-α decreased the relative *Renilla* luciferase activity with statistical difference. GGA treatment did not have any statistically significant effect on cell viability from 1 to 100 μmol/L of GGA for 24 h (data not shown).

GGA did not activate the tyrosine-701 and serine-727 on STAT-1, and did not induce PKR and HSP-70 in OR6 cells

GGA mediated phosphorylation of STAT-1 at the tyrosine-701 and serine-727 residues was investigated using antibodies to phospho-specific STAT-1 on OR6 cells. No phosphorylation of tyrosine-701 and serine-727 on STAT-1 was detected in OR6 cells (Fig. 2a). IFN induce anti-viral protein, PKR, and STAT-1 has an interferon stimulating responsive element (ISRE) in the promoter region [12]. The expression levels of both proteins did not change throughout this study, as indicated by a Western blotting analysis (Fig. 2b, c). Next, the role of HSP in the mechanism of GGA activity was examined because GGA is an inducer of HSP. The HSP-70 expression was increased by pre-exposure to heat shock (Fig. 2d, lanes 2, 4), but it did not increase due to the effects of GGA (Fig. 2d, lanes 3, 4).

Rapamycin and mTOR specific siRNA, but not PI3-K inhibitor and Akt inhibitor, were able to cancel the GGA induced anti-HCV activity

The role of the PI3-K-Akt-mTOR pathway the anti-HCV activity of GGA was examined in OR6 cells. The cells were treated with GGA after 3 h in the presence or absence of rapamycin as an mTOR inhibitor, Akt inhibitor, or wortmannin as a PI3-K inhibitor (Fig. 3). Pretreatment with rapamycin attenuated the anti-HCV replication effect

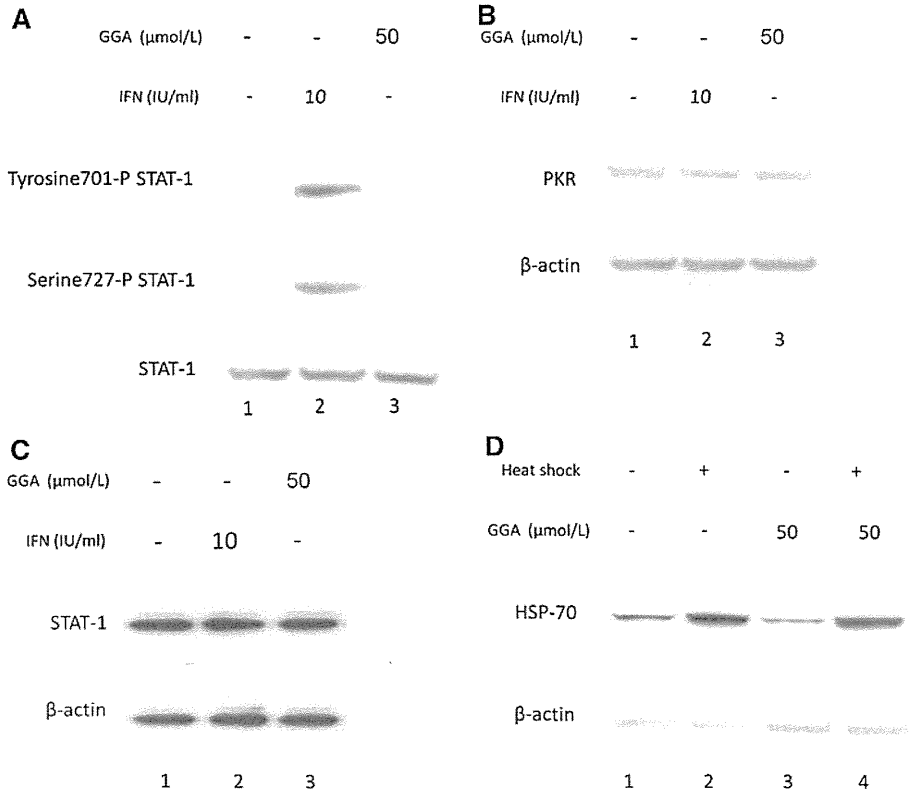

Fig. 2 Effect of GGA on STAT-1 (**a**), PKR (**b**) and HSP-70 (**c**). **a** The OR6 cells were either untreated (*lane 1*) or treated with 10 IU/mL of IFN-α (*lane 2*) for 30 min or treated with 50 μmol/L GGA (*lane 3*) and then were phosphorylated STAT-1 at tyrosine-701 residue (*upper panel*) and at serine-727 residue (*middle panel*), the expression STAT-1 (*lower panel*) was analyzed by Western blotting. **b** The OR6 cells were either untreated (*lane 1*) or treated with 10 IU/mL of IFN-α (*lane 2*) for 30 min or treated with 50 μmol/L GGA (*lane 3*), and then the expression of PKR (*upper panel*) was analyzed by a Western blotting analysis. The β-actin (*lower panel*) protein expression was used as an internal control. **c** The OR6 cells were either untreated (*lane 1*) or given heat shock (at 42°C 15 min, overnight recovery at 37°C) (*lanes 2, 4*) or treated with 50 μmol/L of GGA (*lanes 3, 4*) and then the expression HSP-70 (*upper panel*) was analyzed by Western blotting. β-Actin (*lower panel*) protein is the internal control

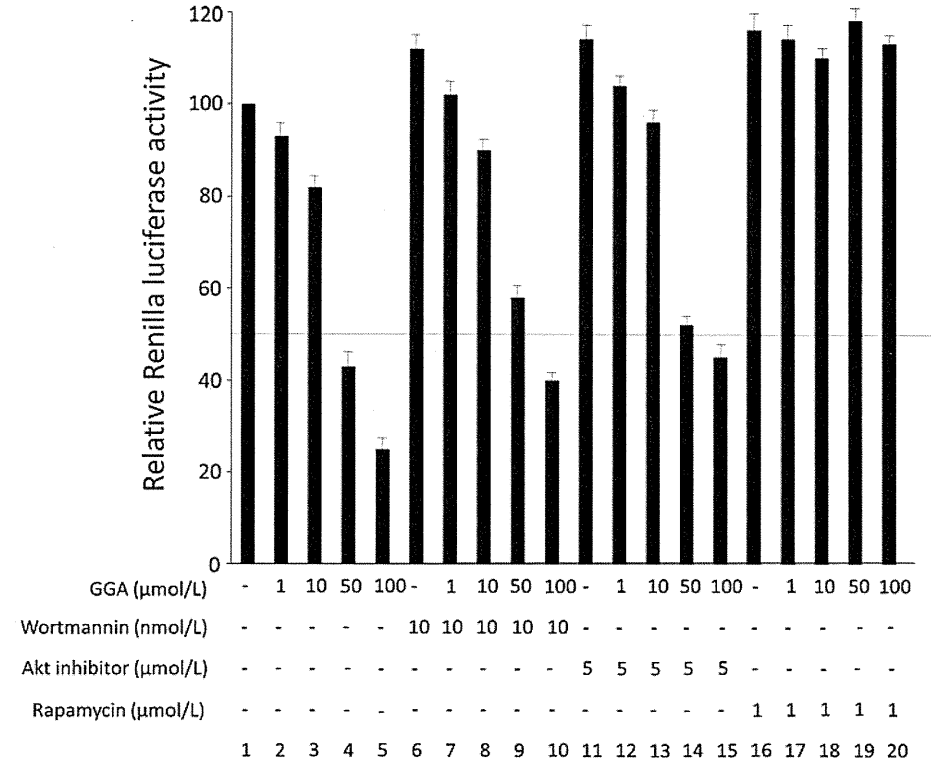

Fig. 3 Changes in GGA suppressed HCV replication by rapamycin, but not PI3-K inhibitor and Akt inhibitor. OR6 cells were treated with 1–100 μmol/L of GGA in the absence (*lanes 2–5*) or presence of pretreatment (*lanes 7–10, 12–15, 17–20*) for 3 h. *Lanes 1, 6, 11* and *16* were not treated with GGA. *Lanes 6, 11* and *16* were treated with wortmannin, an Akt inhibitor, and rapamycin, respectively. One day later, *Renilla* luciferase activity was determined by luminometer ($n = 4$). The data are expressed as the mean ± SD and are representative of four similar experiments

in comparison to GGA alone (Fig. 3, lanes 17–20), whereas pretreatment with wortmannin and Akt inhibitor did not increase the *Renilla* luciferase activity (Fig. 3, lanes 7–10, 12–15). siRNA transfection was used for mTOR knockdown to explore role of mTOR in the anti-HCV activity (Fig. 4). The transfection efficiency of the siRNA was confirmed by a Western blotting analysis. In this experiment, the detectable band intensities were quantified by the National Institutes of Health image software program. Although the transfection efficiency of siRNA was barely 46% (Fig. 4a), GGA-induced anti-HCV activity was clearly inhibited in mTOR-siRNA transfected cells (Fig. 4b, lane 4, 6) in comparison to the control cells (Fig. 4b, lanes 3, 5).

GGA induced mTOR activity, mTOR phosphorylation and p70S6K phosphorylation in OR6 cells

The phosphorylation of the serine-2448 residues of mTOR by 50 μmol/L of GGA was detected 30 min after GGA treatment. The band intensity of serine-2448 phosphorylated mTOR decreased by pretreatment with rapamycin but was almost same as with GGA alone following pretreatment with LY294002 (Fig. 5a). Furthermore, an mTOR activity assay was conducted to confirm the activity mechanism of GGA (Fig. 5b). The mTOR activity was increased by treatment with GGA alone (Fig. 5b, lane 4) and was inhibited by pretreatment with rapamycin (Fig. 5b, lane 6), whereas pretreatment with LY94002 did not suppress the mTOR activity (Fig. 5b, lane 5). Furthermore, to evaluate the mTOR activity, we investigated the level of phospholylated-p70S6K by a Western blotting analysis (Fig. 5c). The phosphorylation of the threonine-389 residue of p70S6K by 50 μmol/L of GGA was detected. Similar to mTOR, the band intensity of phospho-threonine-389 of p70S6K decreased after pretreatment with rapamycin, but the intensity was almost the same as that seen following treatment with GGA alone after pretreatment with LY294002 (Fig. 5c).

Discussion

GGA demonstrated the anti-HCV activity in this study. The anti-HCV effect depended on the GGA induced mTOR activity, not STAT-1 activity. An additive effect was observed with the combination of IFN and GGA.

GGA is a non-toxic heat shock protein (HSP) 70 inducer [13]. Various GGA activities outside of the stomach are also related to HSP induction [14–16]. GGA induced HSP-70 exerts an anti-ischemic stress activity in the heart and liver [16, 17], an anti-inflammatory activity in various cell types [18] and promotes liver regeneration [19]. GGA induces thioredoxin as well as HSP-70 in hepatocytes and other cells [20]. Thioredoxin anti-virus activity, is induced by AP-1 and NF-κB but not HSP-70 [21]. GGA has potent

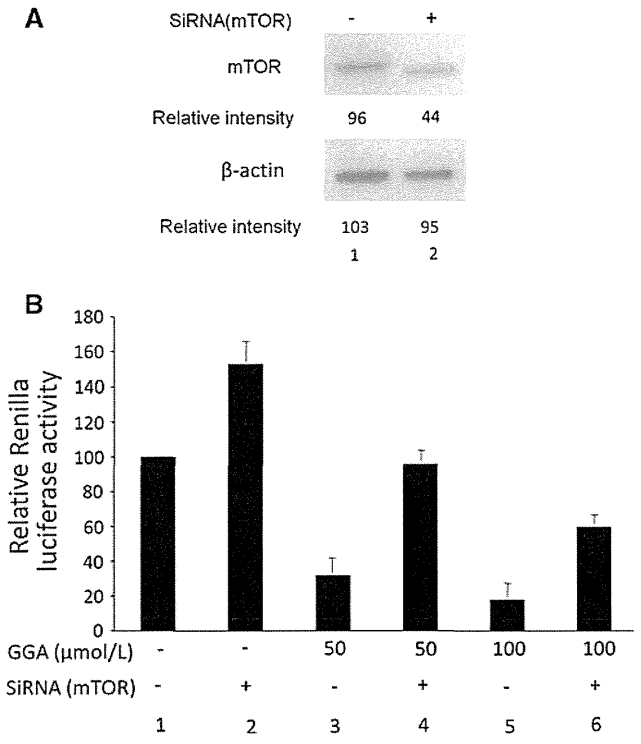

Fig. 4 Changes in GGA suppressed HCV replication by mTOR-siRNA. **a** OR6 cells were transfected with mTOR-siRNA (*lane 1*) or the non-targeted siRNA (*lane 2*). The expression of mTOR was evaluated by a Western blotting analysis. **b** The OR6 cells were transfected with mTOR-siRNA (*lanes 2, 4* and *6*) and the non-targeted siRNA (*lanes 1, 3* and *5*). One day later, the cells were treated with GGA (*lanes 3–6*). The HCV replicon assay is the same as Fig. 3. Non-treatment OR6 cells has 100% of relative *Renilla* luciferase light unit. The *Renilla* luciferase activity increased in the OR6 cells transfected with mTOR-siRNA (*lane 2*) in comparison to the non-targeted siRNA (*lane 1*). However, in OR6 cells treated with GGA, there was a greater elevation of *Renilla* luciferase activity in OR6 cells transfected with mTOR-siRNA (*lanes 4* and *6*) as compared to that with the non-targeted siRNA (*lanes 3* and *5*). The data are expressed as the mean ± SD and are representative example of four similar experiments

antiviral activity via the enhancement of antiviral factors and can clinically provide protection from influenza virus infection [22]. GGA significantly inhibits the synthesis of influenza virus-associated proteins and prominently enhances the expression of human myxovirus resistance 1 (MxA) followed by increased HSP-70 transcription [22]. Moreover, GGA augments the expression of an interferon-inducible double-strand RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR) gene and promotes PKR autophosphorylation and concomitantly alpha subunit of eukaryotic initiation factor 2 phosphorylation during influenza virus infection [22]. These anti-virus activities are related to GGA induced HSP-70. But, HSP-70 protein and PKR were not induced by GGA in OR6 cells in the current study. There is apparently no relationship between the GGA induced anti-HCV activity and HSP, PKR in OR6 cells. Therefore, we thought that HSP and PKR-independent anti-HCV activity induced by GGA was present in this hepatoma-derived cell line.

GGA induction of anti-viral protein is dependent upon STAT-1 tyrosine phosphorylation in HuH-7 and HepG2 [10]. However, GGA did not induce STAT-1 tyrosine phosphorylation and anti-virus protein, PKR, in OR6 cells in this study. Moreover, the GGA induced anti-HCV activity depended on mTOR activity, not STAT-1. OR6 cells are full length HCV replicon transfected HuH-7 cells [11]. HCV virus products inhibit the Jak-STAT pathway [23–25]. The mechanism of inhibition of the Jak-STAT pathway is multi-factorial including the suppressor of cytokine signaling 3 (SOCS-3) expression [26], protein phosphatase 2A (PP2A) induction [27], STAT-3 expression [28] and IL-8 expression [29]. GGA induced STAT-1 tyrosine phosphorylation and inducible PKR protein levels are also minor. Generally, the replicon transfection induces the intrinsic IFN [30], but STAT-1 tyrosine phosphorylation was not detected in combined OR6 cells. HCV replicon produced viral product might be inhibiting GGA-induced STAT-1 tyrosine phosphorylation.

mTOR is associated with the IFN induced anti-HCV signal [31]. The IFN activated mTOR pathway exhibits important regulatory effects in the generation of the IFN responses, including the anti-encephalomyocarditis virus effect [32]. IFN-induced mTOR is LY294002 sensitive and does not affect the IFN-stimulated regulatory element (ISRE) dependent promoter gene activity. A relationship has been observed between the replication of the hepatitis virus and mTOR activity. p21-activated kinase 1 is activated through the mTOR/p70 S6 kinase pathway and regulates the replication of HCV [33]. The IFN induced mTOR activity, independent of PI3K and Akt, is the critical factor for its anti-HCV activity and Jak independent TOR activity involves STAT-1 phosphorylation and nuclear localization, and then PKR is expressed in hepatocytes [31]. No relationship between GGA and mTOR has been reported. However, GGA induced anti-HCV activity depended on mTOR activity independent of PI3-K-Akt, as observed with IFN induced mTOR activity.

When 150 mg of GGA was administered orally, the serum concentration of GGA was approximately 7 μmol/L [34]. The concentration of GGA in the portal blood would be several-fold higher than the serum concentration of GGA; therefore, we speculated that the pharmacological action that would be obtained in clinical practice would be the same as that observed in this study.

GGA, a drug that can be safely administered orally, has mTOR dependent anti-HCV activity. The combination of IFN and GGA has an additive effect on anti-HCV activity. The current results suggest that combination therapy with

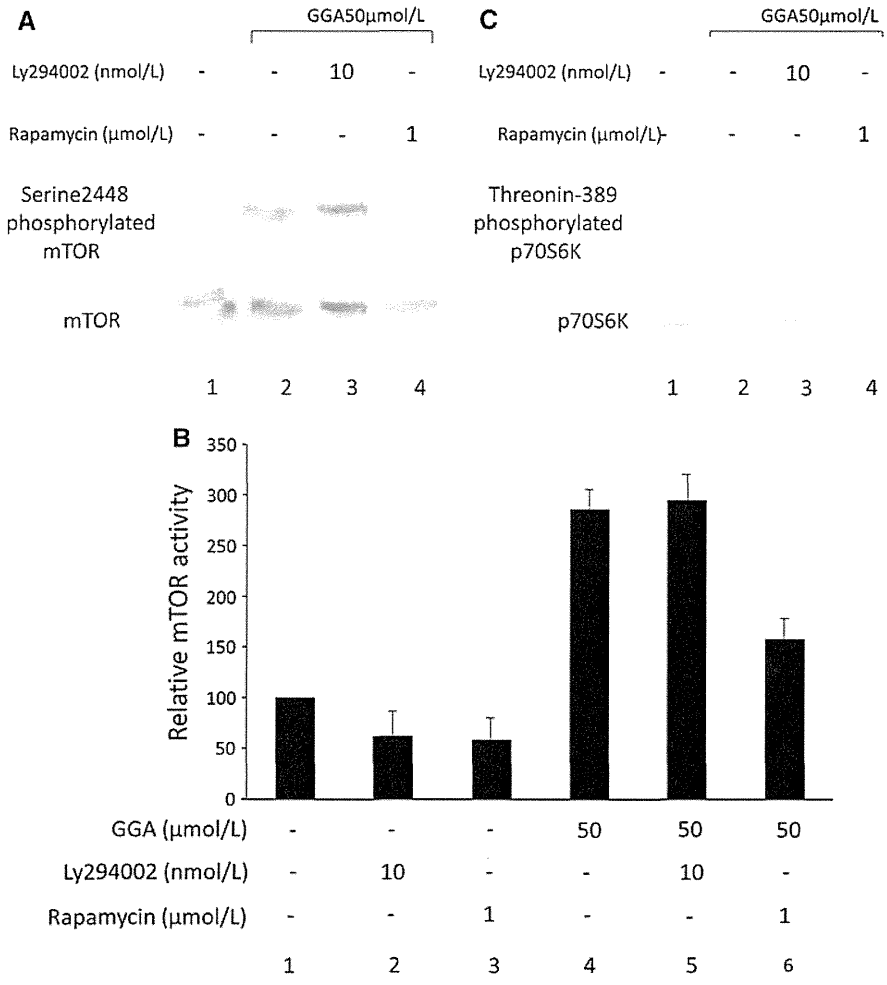

Fig. 5 Effect of GGA on mTOR and effect of LY294002 and rapamycin on GGA-induced serine phosphorylated mTOR and threonine phosphorylated p70S6K. **a** After pretreatment with 10 nmol/L LY294002 (*lane 3*) and 1 μmol/L rapamycin (*lane 4*) for 3 h, the OR6 cells were either untreated (*lane 1*) or treated with 50 μmol/L GGA (*lanes 2–4*) for 30 min and then were phosphorylated mTOR at serine-2448 residue (*upper panel*), the expression of mTOR (*lower panel*) was analyzed by Western blotting. **b** After pretreatment with 10 nmol/L LY294002 (*lanes 2* and *5*) and 1 μmol/L rapamycin (*lanes 3* and *6*) for 3 h, the OR6 cells were either untreated (*lanes 1–3*) or treated with 50 μmol/L GGA (*lanes 4–6*) for 30 min. The mTOR kinase activity was determined by ELISA-based mTOR kinase activity assay kit ($n = 4$). The differences between *lanes 1* and *4*, *lanes 4* and *6*, and *lanes 5* and *6* were statistically significant. The data are expressed as the mean ± SD and are representative of four similar experiments. **c** After pretreatment with 10 nmol/L LY294002 (*lane 3*) and 1 μmol/L, and with rapamycin (*lane 4*) for 3 h, the OR6 cells were either untreated (*lane 1*) or treated with 50 μmol/L GGA (*lanes 2–4*) for 30 min, and then were examined for phosphorylated p70S6K at the threonine-389 residue (*upper panel*), or the expression of p70S6K (*lower panel*) by a Western blotting analysis

GGA and IFN is, therefore, expected to improve the anti-HCV activity. It will, therefore, be necessary to examine the clinical effectiveness of the combination with GGA and IFN for HCV patients in the future.

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