Virus Genes (2012) 44:374–381
DOI 10.1007/s11262-012-0712-2

Development of a drug assay system with hepatitis C virus genome derived from a patient with acute hepatitis C

Kyoko Mori · Youki Ueda · Yasuo Ariumi · Hiromichi Dansako · Masanori Ikeda · Nobuyuki Kato

Received: 5 October 2011 / Accepted: 1 January 2012 / Published online: 18 January 2012

Abstract We developed a new cell culture drug assay system (AH1R), in which genome-length hepatitis C virus (HCV) RNA (AH1 strain of genotype 1b derived from a patient with acute hepatitis C) efficiently replicates. By comparing the AH1R system with the OR6 assay system that we developed previously (O strain of genotype 1b derived from an HCV-positive blood donor), we demonstrated that the anti-HCV profiles of reagents including interferon-γ and cyclosporine A significantly differed between these assay systems. Furthermore, we found unexpectedly that rolipram, an anti-inflammatory drug, showed anti-HCV activity in the AH1R assay but not in the OR6 assay, suggesting that the anti-HCV activity of rolipram differs depending on the HCV strain. Taken together, these results suggest that the AH1R assay system is useful for the objective evaluation of anti-HCV reagents and for the discovery of different classes of anti-HCV reagents.

Keywords HCV · Acute hepatitis C · Anti-HCV drug assay system · Anti-HCV activity of rolipram

Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection frequently causes chronic hepatitis, which progresses to liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. HCV is an enveloped virus with a positive single-stranded 9.6 kb RNA genome, which encodes a large polyprotein precursor of approximately 3,000 amino acid (aa) residues [1, 2]. This polyprotein is cleaved by a combination of the host and viral proteases into at least 10 proteins in the following order: Core, envelope 1 (E1), E2, p7, non-structural 2 (NS2), NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B [1].

Human hepatoma HuH-7 cell culture-based HCV replicon systems derived from a number of HCV strains have been widely used for various studies on HCV RNA replication [3, 4] since the first replicon system (based on the Con1 strain of genotype 1b) was developed in 1999 [5]. Genome-length HCV RNA replication systems (see Fig. 2 for details) derived from a limited number of HCV strains (H77, N, Con1, O, and JFH-1) are also sometimes used for such studies, as they are more useful than the replicon systems lacking the structural region of HCV, although the production of infectious HCV from the genome-length HCV RNA has not been demonstrated to date [3, 4]. Furthermore, these RNA replication systems have been improved enough to be suitable for the screening of anti-HCV reagents by the introduction of reporter genes such as luciferase [3, 4, 6]. We also developed an HuH-7-derived cell culture assay system (OR6) in which genome-length HCV RNA (O strain of genotype 1b derived from an HCV-positive blood donor) encoding renilla luciferase (RL) efficiently replicates [7]. Such reporter assay systems could save time and facilitate the mass screening of anti-HCV reagents, since the values of luciferase correlated well with the level of HCV RNA after treatment with anti-HCV reagents. Furthermore, OR6 assay system became more useful as a drug assay system than the HCV subgenomic replicon-based reporter assay systems developed to date [3, 4], because the older systems lack the Core-NS2 regions containing structural proteins likely to be involved in the events that take place in the HCV-infected human liver.

K. Mori · Y. Ueda · Y. Ariumi · H. Dansako · M. Ikeda · N. Kato (✉)
Department of Tumor Virology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmaceutical Sciences, 2-5-1 Shikata-cho, Okayama 700-8558, Japan
e-mail: nkato@md.okayama-u.ac.jp

Indeed, by the screening of preexisting drugs using the OR6 assay system, we have identified mizoribine [8], statins [9], hydroxyurea [10], and teprenone [11] as new anti-HCV drug candidates, indicating that the OR6 assay system is useful for the discovery of anti-HCV reagents.

On the other hand, we previously established for the first time an HuH-7-derived cell line (AH1) that harbors genome-length HCV RNA (AH1 strain of genotype 1b) derived from a patient with acute hepatitis C [12]. In that study, we noticed different anti-HCV profiles of interferon (IFN)-γ or cyclosporine A (CsA) between AH1 and O cells supporting genome-length HCV RNA (O strain) replication [7]. From these results, we supposed that the diverse effects of IFN-γ or CsA were attributable to the difference in HCV strains [12].

To test this assumption in detail, we first developed an AH1 strain-derived assay system (AH1R) corresponding to the OR6 assay system, and then performed a comparative analysis using AH1R and OR6 assay systems. In this article, we report that the difference in HCV strains causes the diverse effects of anti-HCV reagents, and we found unexpectedly by AH1R assay that rolipram, an anti-inflammatory drug, is an anti-HCV drug candidate.

Materials and methods

Reagents

IFN-α, IFN-γ, and CsA were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Rolipram was purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Industries (Osaka, Japan).

Plasmid construction

The plasmid pAH1RN/C-5B/PL,LS,TA,$(VA)_3$ was constructed from pAH1 N/C-5B/PL,LS,TA,$(VA)_3$ encoding genome-length HCV RNA clone 2 (See Fig. 2) obtained from AH1 cells [12], by introducing a fragment of the RL gene from pORN/C-5B into the *Asc*I site before the neomycin phosphotransferase (Neo^R) gene as previously described [7].

RNA synthesis

The plasmid pAH1RN/C-5B/PL,LS,TA,$(VA)_3$ DNA was linearized by *Xba*I, and used for RNA synthesis with T7 MEGAscript (Ambion, Austin TX) as previously described [7].

Cell cultures

AH1R and OR6 cells supporting genome-length HCV RNAs were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 0.3 mg/mL of G418 (Geneticin; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). AH1c-cured cells, which were created by eliminating HCV RNA from AH1 cells [12] by IFN-γ treatment, were also cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS.

RNA transfection and selection of G418-resistant cells

Genome-length HCV (AH1RN/C-5B/PL,LS,TA,$(VA)_3$) RNA synthesized in vitro was transfected into AH1c cells by electroporation, and the cells were selected in the presence of G418 (0.3 mg/mL) for 3 weeks as described previously [13].

RL assay for anti-HCV reagents

To monitor the effects of anti-HCV reagents, RL assay was performed as described previously [14]. Briefly, the cells were plated onto 24-well plates (2×10^4 cells per well) in triplicate and cultured with the medium in the absence of G418 for 24 h. The cells were then treated with each reagent at several concentrations for 72 h. After treatment, the cells were subjected to a luciferase assay using the RL assay system (Promega, Madison, WI). From the assay results, the 50% effective concentration (EC_{50}) of each reagent was determined.

Quantification of HCV RNA

Quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) analysis for HCV RNA was performed using a real-time LightCycler PCR (Roche Applied Science, Indianapolis, IN, USA) as described previously [7]. The experiments were done in triplicate.

IFN-α treatment to evaluate the assay systems

To monitor the anti-HCV effect of IFN-α on AH1R cells, 2×10^4 cells and 5×10^5 cells were plated onto 24-well plates (for luciferase assay) and 10 cm plates (for quantitative RT-PCR assay) in triplicate, respectively, and cultured for 24 h. The cells were then treated with IFN-α at final concentrations of 0, 1, 10, and 100 IU/mL for 24 h, and subjected to luciferase and quantitative RT-PCR assays as described above.

Western blot analysis

The preparation of cell lysates, sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and immunoblotting analysis with a PVDF membrane were performed as described previously [13]. The antibodies used in this study were those against HCV Core (CP11 monoclonal antibody;

Institute of Immunology, Tokyo), NS5B, and E2 (generous gifts from Dr. M. Kohara, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Japan). Anti-β-actin antibody (AC-15; Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane. Immunocomplexes were detected with the Renaissance enhanced chemiluminescence assay (Perkin-Elmer Life Sciences, Boston, MA).

WST-1 cell proliferation assay

The cells were plated onto 96-well plates (1×10^3 cells per well) in triplicate and then treated with rolipram at several concentrations for 72 h. After treatment, the cells were subjected to the WST-1 cell proliferation assay (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol. From the assay results, the 50% cytotoxic concentration (CC_{50}) of rolipram was estimated. The selective index (SI) value of rolipram was also estimated by dividing the CC_{50} value by the EC_{50} value.

RT-PCR and sequencing

To amplify the genome-length HCV RNA, RT-PCR was performed separately in two fragments as described previously [7, 15]. Briefly, one fragment covered from 5′-untranslated region to NS3, with a final product of approximately 6.2 kb, and the other fragment covered from NS2 to NS5B, with a final product of approximately 6.1 kb. These fragments overlapped at the NS2 and NS3 regions and were used for sequence analysis of the HCV open reading frame (ORF) after cloning into pBR322MC. PrimScript (Takara Bio) and KOD-plus DNA polymerase (Toyobo, Osaka, Japan) were used for RT and PCR, respectively. The nucleotide sequences of each of the three independent clones obtained were determined using the Big Dye terminator cycle sequencing kit on an ABI PRISM 310 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA).

Statistical analysis

Differences between AH1R and OR6 cell lines were tested using Student's t test. P values <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

Development of a luciferase reporter assay system that facilitates the quantitative monitoring of genome-length HCV-AH1 RNA replication

To develop an HCV AH1 strain-derived assay system corresponding to the OR6 assay system [7], a genome-length HCV RNA encoding RL (AH1RN/C-5B/PL,LS,TA,$(VA)_3$) was transfected into AH1c cells. Following 3 weeks of culturing in the presence of G418, more than 10 colonies were obtained, and then 8 colonies (#2, #3, #4, #5, #6, #8, #13, and #14) were successfully proliferated. We initially selected colonies #2, #3, and #14 because they had high levels of RL activity ($>4 \times 10^6$ U/1.6×10^5 cells) (Fig. 1a). However, RT-PCR and the sequencing analyses revealed that the genome-length HCV-AH1 RNAs obtained from these colonies each had an approximately 1 kb deletion in the E2 region (data not shown). In this regard, we previously observed similar phenomenon and described the difficulty of the development of a luciferase reporter assay system using the genome-length HCV RNA of more than 12 kb [7], suggesting that the NS5B polymerase possesses the limited elongation ability (probably up to a total length of 12 kb). Indeed, in that study, we could overcome this obstacle by the selection of the colony harboring a complete genome-length HCV RNA among the obtained G418-resistant colonies [7]. Therefore, we next carried out the selection among the other colonies. Fortunately, we found that colony #4, showing a rather high level of RL activity (2×10^6 U/1.6×10^5 cells), possessed a complete genome-length HCV-AH1 RNA without any deleted forms, although most of the other colonies possessed some amounts of a deleted form in addition to a complete genome-length HCV-AH1 RNA (data not shown). We demonstrated that the HCV RNA sequence was not integrated into the genomic DNA in colony #4 (data not shown). From these results, we finally selected colony #4, and it was thereafter referred to as AH1R and used for the following studies.

We first demonstrated that AH1R cells expressed sufficient levels of HCV proteins (Core, E2, and NS5B) by Western blot analysis for the evaluation of anti-HCV reagents, and the expression levels were almost equivalent to those in OR6 cells (Fig. 1b). In this analysis, we confirmed that the size of the E2 protein in AH1R cells was 7 kDa larger than that in OR6 cells (Fig. 1b), as observed previously [12]. This result indicates that AH1R cells express AH1 strain-derived E2 protein possessing two extra N-glycosylation sites [12]. We next demonstrated good correlations between the levels of RL activity and HCV RNA in AH1R cells (Fig. 1c), as we previously demonstrated in OR6 cells treated with IFN-α for 24 h [7]. These correlations indicate that AH1R cells were as useful as OR6 cells as a luciferase assay system.

Aa substitutions detected in genome-length HCV RNA in AH1R cells

To examine whether or not genome-length HCV RNA in AH1R cells possesses additional conserved mutations such as adaptive mutations, we performed a sequence analysis of HCV RNA in AH1R cells. The results (Fig. 2) revealed that

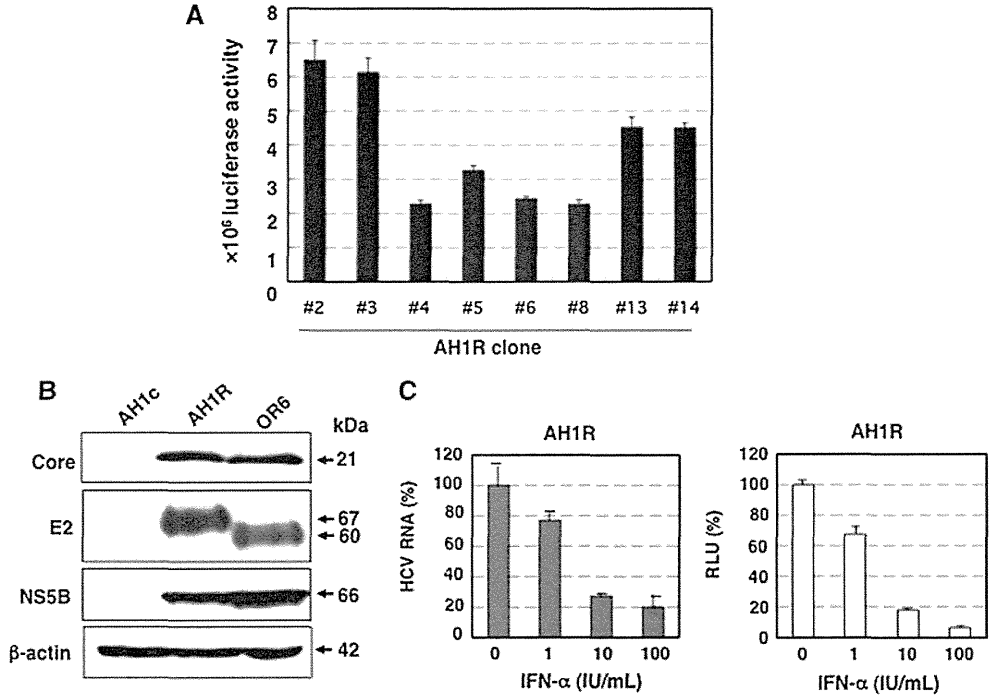

Fig. 1 Characterization of AH1R cells harboring genome-length HCV RNA. **a** Selection of G418-resistant cell clones. The levels of HCV RNA in G418-resistant cells were monitored by RL assay. **b** Western blot analysis. AH1c, AH1R, and OR6 cells were used for the comparison. *Core, E2,* and *NS5B* were detected by Western blot analysis. β-actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane. **c** RL activity is correlated with HCV RNA level. The AH1R cells were treated with IFN-α (0, 1, 10, and 100 IU/mL) for 24 h, and then a luciferase reporter assay (*right panel*) and quantitative RT-PCR (*left panel*) were performed. The relative luciferase activity (RLU) (%) or HCV RNA (%) calculated at each point, when the level of luciferase activity or HCV RNA in non-treated cells was assigned to be 100%, is presented here

two additional mutations accompanying aa substitutions (W860R (NS2) and A1218E (NS3)) were detected commonly among the three independent clones sequenced, suggesting that these additional mutations are required for the efficient replication or stability of genome-length HCV RNA. The P1115L (NS3), L1262S (NS3), V1897A (NS4B), and V2360A (NS5A) mutations derived from the sAH1 replicon [12] were conserved in AH1R cell-derived clones. However, AH1-clone-2-specific mutations (T1338A and V1880A) were almost reverted to the consensus sequences of AH1 RNA [12] except for V1880A in AH1R clone 2 (Fig. 2). In addition, the Q63R (Core) mutation was observed in two of three clones (Fig. 2).

Comparison between the AH1R and OR6 assay systems regarding the sensitivities to IFN-α, IFN-γ, and CsA

Using quantitative RT-PCR analysis, we previously examined the anti-HCV activities of IFN-α, IFN-γ, and CsA in AH1 and O cells, and noticed different anti-HCV profiles of IFN-γ and CsA between AH1 and O cells [12]. In that study, AH1 cells seemed to be more sensitive than the O cells to CsA (significant difference was observed when 0.063, 0.12, or 0.25 μg/mL of CsA was used). Conversely, AH1 cells seemed to be less sensitive than the O cells to IFN-γ (significant difference was observed when 1 or 10 IU/mL of IFN-γ was used). However, we were not able to determine precisely the EC_{50} values of these reagents, because of the unevenness of the data obtained by RT-PCR.

After developing the AH1R assay system in this study, we determined the EC_{50} values of IFN-α, IFN-γ, and CsA using the AH1R assay and compared the values with those obtained by the OR6 assay. The results revealed that AH1R assay was more sensitive than OR6 assay to IFN-α (EC_{50}; 0.31 IU/mL for AH1R, 0.45 IU/mL for OR6) (Fig. 3a) and CsA (EC_{50}; 0.11 μg/mL for AH1R, 0.42 μg/mL for OR6) (Fig. 3b), and that the OR6 assay was more sensitive than the AH1R assay to IFN-γ (EC_{50}; 0.69 IU/mL for AH1R, 0.28 IU/mL for OR6) (Fig. 3c). Regarding these anti-HCV reagents, the anti-HCV activities observed between the AH1R and OR6 assays differed significantly in all of the concentrations examined (Fig. 3). In addition, regarding these anti-HCV reagents, cell growth was not suppressed within the concentrations used. Regarding IFN-γ and CsA, the present results clearly support those of our previous

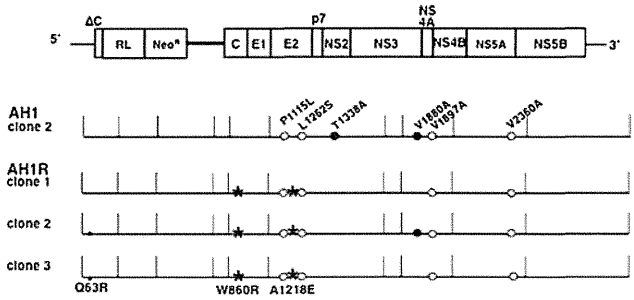

Fig. 2 Aa substitutions detected in intracellular AH1R genome-length HCV RNA. The *upper portion* shows schematic gene organization of genome-length HCV RNA encoding the *RL* gene developed in this study. Genome-length HCV RNA consists of 2 cistrons. In the first cistron, RL is translated as a fusion protein with Neo^R by HCV-IRES, and in the second cistron, all of HCV proteins (C-NS5B) are translated by encephalomyocarditis virus (EMCV)-IRES introduced in the region upstream of C-NS5B regions. Genome-length HCV RNA-replicating cells possess the G418-resistant phenotype because Neo^R is produced by the efficient replication of genome-length HCV RNA. Therefore, when genome-length HCV RNA is excluded from the cells or when its level is decreased, the cells are killed in the presence of G418. In this system, anti-HCV activity is able to evaluate the value of the reporter (RL activity) instead of the quantification of HCV RNA or HCV proteins. In addition, it has been known that the infectious HCV is not produced from this RNA replication system [3, 4, 6]. Core to NS5B regions of three independent clones (*AH1R clones 1–3*) sequenced are presented. W860R and A1218E conserved substitutions are indicated by *asterisks*. Q63R substitutions detected in two of three clones are each indicated by a *small dot*. Core to NS5B regions of *AH1 clone 2*, used to establish the AH1R cell line, are also presented. AH1-specific conserved substitutions and *AH1-clone-2*-specific substitutions are indicated by *open circles* and *black circles*, respectively

study [12]. Therefore, we suggest that the diverse effects of these anti-HCV reagents are due to the difference in HCV strains, although we are not able to completely exclude the possibility that AH1R cells are compromised cells causing the different responses against anti-HCV reagents. In summary, the previous and present findings suggest that the AH1R assay system is also useful for the evaluation of anti-HCV reagents as an independent assay system.

Anti-HCV activity of rolipram was clearly observed in the AH1R assay, but not in the OR6 assay

From the above findings, we supposed that the anti-HCV reagents reported to date might show diverse effects between the drug assay systems derived from the different HCV strains. To test this assumption, we used the AH1R and OR6 assay systems to evaluate the anti-HCV activity of more than 10 pre-existing drugs (6-Azauridine, bisindoly maleimide 1, carvedilol, cehalotaxine, clemizole, 2′-deoxy-5-fluorouridine, esomeprazole, guanazole, hemin, homoharringtonine, methotrexate, nitazoxanide, resveratrol, rolipram, silibinin A, Y27632, etc.), which other groups had evaluated using an assay system derived from the Con1 strain (genotype 1b) or JFH-1 strain (genotype 2a). The results revealed that most of these reagents in the AH1R assay showed similar levels of anti-HCV activities compared with those in the OR6 assay or those of the previous studies (data not shown). However, we found that only rolipram, a selective phosphodiesterase 4 (PDE4) inhibitor [16] that is used as an anti-inflammatory drug, showed moderate anti-HCV activity (EC_{50} 31 μM; $CC_{50} > 200$ μM; $SI > 6$) in the AH1R assay, but no such activity in the OR6 assay (upper panel in Fig. 4a). This remarkable difference was confirmed by Western blot analysis (lower panel in Fig. 4a). It is unlikely that rolipram's anti-HCV activity is due to the inhibition of exogenous RL, Neo^R or encephalomyocarditis virus internal ribosomal entry site (EMCV-IRES), all of which are encoded in the genome-length HCV RNA, because the AH1R and OR6 assay systems possess the same structure of genome-length HCV RNA except for HCV ORF. To demonstrate that rolipram's anti-HCV activity is not due to the clonal specificity of the cells or the specificity of genome-length HCV RNA, we examined the anti-HCV activity of rolipram using the monoclonal HCV replicon RNA-replicating cells (sAH1 cells for AH1 strain [12], and sO cells for O strain [13]). The results

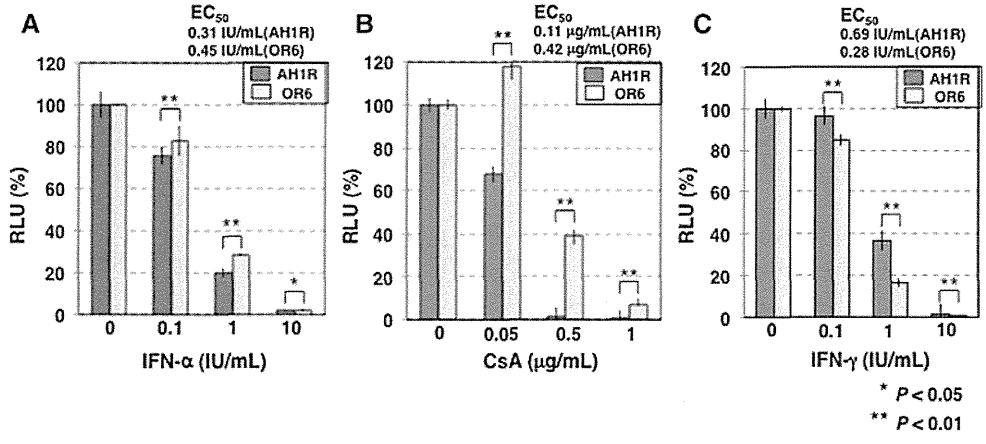

Fig. 3 The diverse effects of anti-HCV reagents on AH1R and OR6 assay systems. AH1R and OR6 cells were treated with anti-HCV reagents for 72 h, and then the RL assay was performed as described in Fig. 1**c**. **a** Effect of IFN-α. **b** Effect of CsA. **c** Effect of IFN-γ

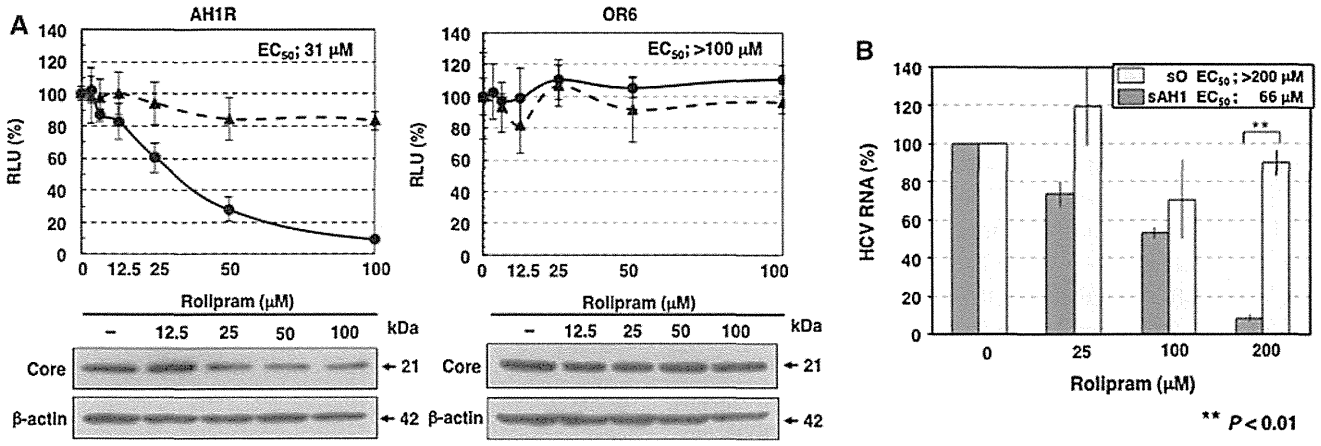

Fig. 4 Anti-HCV activity of rolipram. **a** Rolipram sensitivities on genome-length HCV RNA replication in AH1R and OR6 assay systems. AH1R and OR6 cells were treated with rolipram for 72 h, followed by RL assay (*black circle* with *linear line* in the *upper panels*) and WST-1 assay (*black triangle* with *broken line* in the *upper panels*). The relative value (%) calculated at each point, when the level in non-treated cells was assigned to 100%, is presented here. Western blot analysis of the treated cells for the HCV Core was also performed (*lower panels*). **b** Rolipram sensitivities on HCV replicon RNA replication in sAH1 and sO cells. sAH1 and sO cells were treated with rolipram for 72 h, and extracted total RNAs were subjected to quantitative RT-PCR for HCV 5′ untranslated region as described previously [7]. The HCV RNA (%) calculated at each point, when the level of HCV RNA in non-treated cells was assigned to be 100%, is presented here

revealed by quantitative RT-PCR that rolipram showed moderate anti-HCV activity (EC_{50} 66 μM) in sAH1 cells, but no such activity in sO cells (Fig. 4b). Anti-HCV activity of rolipram in sAH1 cells was a little weaker than that in AH1R cells (Fig. 4b). The similar phenomenon that the anti-HCV activity in genome-length HCV RNA-based reporter assay is stronger than that in HCV subgenomic replicon-based reporter assay was observed regarding other anti-HCV reagents in our previous studies [14, 17, 18]. This result suggests that the anti-HCV activity of rolipram is not either a clone-specific or genome-length HCV RNA-specific phenomenon. In our previous studies also [14, 18], we demonstrated that anti-HCV activities of several reagents including ribavirin and statins were not due to the clonal specificity of the cells. On the other hand, it was recently reported that rolipram did not show anti-HCV activity in the JFH-1 strain-derived assay [19]. Taken together, the previous and present results suggest that rolipram's anti-HCV activity differs depending on the HCV strain. In summary, rolipram was identified as a new anti-HCV candidate using the AH1R assay system.

Discussion

In the present study, we developed for the first time a drug assay system (AH1R), derived from the HCV-AH1 strain (from a patient with acute hepatitis C), in which HCV-AH1 RNA is efficiently replicated. Using this system, we found that rolipram, an anti-inflammatory drug, had potential anti-HCV activity. This potential had not been detected by preexisting assay systems such as OR6, in which HCV-O RNA was derived from an HCV-positive blood donor. Since an HCV replicon harboring the sAH1 cell line, the parent of the AH1R cell line, was obtained from OR6-cured cells [12], the divergence in rolipram's effects between AH1R and OR6 cells is probably attributable to the difference in HCV strains rather than to the difference in cell clones. Indeed, rolipram's anti-HCV activity was not observed in another ORL8 assay system (O strain), which was recently developed using a new hepatoma Li23 cell line (data not shown) [15]. Therefore, we propose that multiple assay systems derived from different HCV strains are required for the discovery of anti-HCV reagents such as rolipram or for the objective evaluation of anti-HCV activity.

Comparative evaluation analysis of anti-HCV activities of IFN-α, IFN-γ, and CsA using AH1-strain-derived AH1R and O-strain-derived OR6 assay systems demonstrated that each of these anti-HCV reagents showed significantly diverse antiviral effects between the two systems. Regarding IFN-γ and CsA, the present results obtained using a luciferase reporter assay fully supported our previous findings [12] using quantitative RT-PCR analysis. However, in the present analysis, we noticed that IFN-α also showed significantly diverse effects (especially at less than 1 IU/mL) between the AH1R and OR6 assays.

The differences in IFN-α sensitivity may be attributable to the difference in aa sequences in the IFN sensitivity-determining region (ISDR; aa 2209-2248 in the HCV-1b genotype), in which aa substitutions correlate well with IFN sensitivity in patients with chronic hepatitis C [20], because the AH1 strain possesses three aa substitutions (T2217A, H2218R, and A2224 V) in ISDR, whereas the O strain possesses no aa substitutions. However, no report has demonstrated the correlation between IFN sensitivity and the substitution numbers in ISDR using the cell culture-based HCV RNA replication system.

Alternatively, Akuta et al. [21] reported that aa substitutions at position 70 and/or position 91 in the HCV Core region of patients infected with the HCV-1b genotype are pretreatment predictors of null virological response (NVR) to pegylated IFN/ribavirin combination therapy. In particular, substitutions of arginine (R) by glutamine (Q) at position 70, and/or leucine (L) by methionine (M) at position 91, were common in NVR. The patients with position-70 substitutions often showed little or no decrease in HCV RNA levels during the early phase of IFN-α treatment [21]. Regarding this point, it is interesting that position 70 in the AH1 strain is R (wild type) and that in the O strain is Q (mutant type), whereas position 91 is L (wild type) in both strains. Therefore, wild-type R in position 70 of the AH1 strain may contribute to the high sensitivity to IFN-α in the AH1R assay. Regarding positions 70 and 91 of the HCV Core, it is noteworthy that, among all of the HCV strains used thus far to develop HCV replicon systems, only the AH1 strain possesses double wild-type aa (data not shown). Therefore, the AH1R assay system may be useful for further study of sensitivity to IFN/ribavirin treatment.

The anti-HCV activity of rolipram, which is currently used as an anti-inflammatory drug, is interesting, although its anti-HCV mechanism is unclear. As a selective PDE4 inhibitor [16], rolipram may attenuate fibroblast activities that can lead to fibrosis and may be particularly effective in the presence of transforming growth factor (TGF)-β1-induced fibroblast stimulation [22]. On the other hand, HCV enhances hepatic fibrosis progression through the generation of reactive oxygen species and the induction of TGF-β1 [23]. Taken together, the previous and present results suggest that rolipram may inhibit both HCV RNA replication and HCV-enhanced hepatic fibrosis. However, it is unclear that rolipram shows anti-HCV activity against the majority of HCV strains, because rolipram has been effective for AH1 strain, but not for O strain. Although rolipram's anti-HCV activity would be HCV-strain-specific, it is not clear which HCV strain is the major type regarding the sensitivity to rolipram. Since developed assay systems using genome-length HCV RNA-replicating cells are limited to several HCV strains including O and AH1 strains to date, further analysis using the assay systems of other HCV strains will be needed to clarify this point.

In this study, we demonstrated that the AH1R assay system, which was for the first time developed using an HCV strain derived from a patient with acute hepatitis C, showed different sensitivities against anti-HCV reagents in comparison with assay systems in current use, such as OR6 assay. Therefore, AH1R assay system would be useful for various HCV studies including the evaluation of anti-HCV reagents and the identification of antiviral targets.

Acknowledgment This study was supported by grants-in-aid for research on hepatitis from the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan. K. M. was supported by a Research Fellowship for Young Scientists from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

References

1. N. Kato, Acta Med. Okayama **55**, 133–159 (2001)
2. N. Kato, M. Hijikata, Y. Ootsuyama, M. Nakagawa, S. Ohkoshi, T. Sugimura, K. Shimotohno, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **87**, 9524–9528 (1990)
3. R. Bartenschlager, S. Sparacio, Virus Res. **127**, 195–207 (2007)
4. D. Moradpour, F. Penin, C.M. Rice, Nat. Rev. Microbiol. **5**, 453–463 (2007)
5. V. Lohmann, F. Korner, J. Koch, U. Herian, L. Theilmann, R. Bartenschlager, Science **285**, 110–113 (1999)
6. M. Ikeda, N. Kato, Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev. **59**, 1277–1289 (2007)
7. M. Ikeda, K. Abe, H. Dansako, T. Nakamura, K. Naka, N. Kato, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. **329**, 1350–1359 (2005)
8. K. Naka, M. Ikeda, K. Abe, H. Dansako, N. Kato, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. **330**, 871–879 (2005)
9. M. Ikeda, K. Abe, M. Yamada, H. Dansako, K. Naka, N. Kato, Hepatology **44**, 117–125 (2006)
10. A. Nozaki, M. Morimoto, M. Kondo, T. Oshima, K. Numata, S. Fujisawa, T. Kaneko, E. Miyajima, S. Morita, K. Mori, M. Ikeda, N. Kato, K. Tanaka, Arch. Virol. **155**, 601–605 (2010)
11. M. Ikeda, Y. Kawai, K. Mori, M. Yano, K. Abe, G. Nishimura, H. Dansako, Y. Ariumi, T. Wakita, K. Yamamoto, N. Kato, Liver Int. **31**, 871–880 (2011)
12. K. Mori, K. Abe, H. Dansako, Y. Ariumi, M. Ikeda, N. Kato, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. **371**, 104–109 (2008)
13. N. Kato, K. Sugiyama, K. Namba, H. Dansako, T. Nakamura, M. Takami, K. Naka, A. Nozaki, K. Shimotohno, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. **306**, 756–766 (2003)
14. K. Mori, M. Ikeda, Y. Ariumi, H. Dansako, T. Wakita, N. Kato, Virus Res. **157**, 61–70 (2011)
15. N. Kato, K. Mori, K. Abe, H. Dansako, M. Kuroki, Y. Ariumi, T. Wakita, M. Ikeda, Virus Res. **146**, 41–50 (2009)
16. S.J. MacKenzie, M.D. Houslay, Biochem. J. **347**, 571–578 (2000)
17. M. Yano, M. Ikeda, K. Abe, H. Dansako, S. Ohkoshi, Y. Aoyagi, N. Kato, Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. **51**, 2016–2027 (2007)
18. G. Nishimura, M. Ikeda, K. Mori, T. Nakazawa, Y. Ariumi, H. Dansako, N. Kato, Antiviral Res. **82**, 42–50 (2009)
19. P. Gastaminza, C. Whitten-Baue, F.V. Chisari, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **107**, 291–296 (2010)
20. N. Enomoto, I. Sakuma, Y. Asahina, M. Kurosaki, T. Murakami, C. Yamamoto, Y. Ogura, N. Izumi, F. Marumo, C. Sato, N. Engl. J. Med. **334**, 77–81 (1996)

21. N. Akuta, F. Suzuki, Y. Kawamura, H. Yatsuji, H. Sezaki, Y. Suzuki, T. Hosaka, M. Kobayashi, M. Kobayashi, Y. Arase, K. Ikeda, H. Kumada, J. Med. Virol. **79**, 1686–1695 (2007)
22. S. Togo, X. Liu, X. Wang, Am. J. Physiol. Lung Cell. Mol. Physiol. **296**, L959–L969 (2009)
23. W. Lin, W.L. Tsai, R.X. Shao, G. Wu, L.F. Peng, L.L. Barlow, W.J. Chung, L. Zhang, H. Zhao, J.Y. Jang, R.T. Chung, Gastroenterology **138**, 2509–2518 (2010)

AAC
Journals.ASM.org

ENT1, a Ribavirin Transporter, Plays a Pivotal Role in Antiviral Efficacy of Ribavirin in a Hepatitis C Virus Replication Cell System

Minami Iikura,[a] Tomomi Furihata,[a] Misa Mizuguchi,[a] Miki Nagai,[a] Masanori Ikeda,[b] Nobuyuki Kato,[b] Akihito Tsubota,[c] and Kan Chiba[a]

Laboratory of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Chiba University, Chiba, Japan[a]; Department of Tumor Virology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmaceutical Science, Okayama, Japan[b]; and Institute of Clinical Medicine and Research, Jikei University School of Medicine, Chiba, Japan[c]

We previously showed that equilibrative nucleoside transporter 1 (ENT1) is a primary ribavirin transporter in human hepatocytes. However, because the role of this transporter in the antiviral mechanism of the drug remains unclear, the present study aimed to elucidate the role of ENT1 in ribavirin antiviral action. OR6 cells, a hepatitis C virus (HCV) replication system, were used to evaluate both ribavirin uptake and efficacy. The ribavirin transporter in OR6 cells was identified by mRNA expression analyses and transport assays. Nitrobenzylmercaptopurine riboside (NBMPR) and micro-RNA targeted to ENT1 mRNA (miR-ENT1) were used to reduce the ribavirin uptake level in OR6 cells. Our results showed that ribavirin antiviral activity was associated with its accumulation in OR6 cells, which was also closely associated with the uptake of the drug. It was found that the primary ribavirin transporter in OR6 cells was ENT1 and that inhibition of ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake by NBMPR significantly attenuated the antiviral activity of the drug as well as its accumulation in OR6 cells. The results also showed that even a small reduction in the ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake, achieved in this case using miR-ENT1, caused a significant decrease in its antiviral activity, thus indicating that the ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake level determined its antiviral activity level in OR6 cells. In conclusion, our results show that by facilitating its uptake and accumulation in OR6 cells, ENT1 plays a pivotal role in the antiviral effectiveness of ribavirin and therefore provides an important insight into the efficacy of the drug in anti-HCV therapy.

Chronic hepatitis C is a major cause of liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma, and a combination of interferon-α (IFN-α) and ribavirin is a standard anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) therapy. Since the addition of ribavirin to IFN-α significantly improves the rate of sustained virologic response (SVR) (40 to 60% in genotype 1 patients) (5), the drug plays a key role in current anti-HCV therapy.

Ribavirin, a purine nucleoside analog, is phosphorylated intracellularly to form mono-, di-, and tri-phosphates, which then accumulate within cells at high concentrations (4, 13). While the primary anti-HCV mechanisms of the drug are still under debate, it is considered likely that the important actions take place within the cells themselves, and several mechanisms have been proposed to explain what occurs there. These include inhibition of inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (reviewed in references 4 and 7 and references therein). Additionally, a recent study revealed that ribavirin potentiates IFN-α action by augmenting IFN-stimulated induction of gene expression (16).

Taking into consideration the above-mentioned mechanisms, it is reasonable to assume that the uptake of ribavirin into hepatocytes is a prerequisite for its antiviral activity. Since ribavirin is a hydrophilic molecule, import of the drug into cells requires host nucleoside transporters, which are divided into two families: equilibrative nucleoside transporters (such as ENT1 to ENT4) and concentrative nucleoside transporters (such as CNT1 to CNT3) (9). ENTs are facilitated transporters, while CNTs are sodium-dependent active transporters. These transporters differ in tissue distribution, substrate preference, and inhibitor sensitivity. For example, sensitivities to inhibition by nitrobenzylmercaptopurine riboside (NBMPR) are different between ENT1 and ENT2 (20).

Our recent investigations into the ribavirin uptake system in human hepatocytes determined that ENT1 is a primary ribavirin uptake transporter (6). In addition, Morello et al. (12) reported the association of an intronic single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) of the *SLC29A1* (ENT1) gene with rapid virologic response (RVR; defined as an undetectable serum HCV RNA level at week 4) of treatment of genotype-1 Caucasian patients. More recently, Tsubota and colleagues revealed that another intronic SNP in the *SLC29A1* gene is associated with SVR, as well as RVR, in genotype-1 Japanese patients (18). Based on these findings, it can be hypothesized that ENT1 plays an essential role in ribavirin anti-HCV activity.

In the present study, along with a detailed characterization of ribavirin uptake and its relationship to antiviral activity, we tested the above-mentioned hypothesis through the use of OR6 cells, which have been established as an efficient replication system for the HCV RNA genome. The HCV replication level was evaluated by monitoring the level of *Renilla* luciferase activity (8), which enabled us to simultaneously evaluate both ribavirin uptake and its antiviral activity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture. OR6 cells were cloned from ORN/C-5B/KE cells (derived from Huh-7 cells) supporting genome-length HCV RNA (strain O of

Received 20 September 2011 Returned for modification 24 October 2011
Accepted 27 December 2011
Published ahead of print 9 January 2012
Address correspondence to Tomomi Furihata, tomomif@faculty.chiba-u.jp.
Supplemental material for this article may be found at http://aac.asm.org/.

doi:10.1128/AAC.05762-11

genotype 1b) containing the *Renilla* luciferase reporter gene, and the cells were cultured as described previously (8). Huh-7 cells were obtained from the Institute of Development, Aging and Cancer, Tohoku University (Sendai, Japan). The Huh-7 cells were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO_2–95% air in RPMI 1640 medium (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) with 10% fetal bovine serum, 50 U/ml penicillin, and 50 μg/ml streptomycin.

Luciferase reporter assay. OR6 cells were plated 1 day prior to the assay on 24-well plates at 1.5×10^4 to 2.5×10^4 cells/well, followed by treatment with ribavirin (Wako, Osaka, Japan) in the absence of G418 and at the indicated concentrations for 24, 48, and 72 h. The cells were then subjected to the luciferase assay using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega, Madison, WI) according to the manufacturer's protocol. For data normalization, the protein contents were determined with a Pierce 660-nm protein assay reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The relative luciferase activity value of the untreated or vehicle treated cells (dimethyl sulfoxide [DMSO] for NBMPR and sterile water for others) was set to 100%. NBMPR (Sigma, St. Louis, MO), hypoxanthine (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH), and formycin B (Berry & Associates, Ann Arbor, MI) were included in inhibition analyses at various concentrations.

Western blot analysis. OR6 cells treated with ribavirin at various concentrations in the absence of G418 for 24, 48, and 72 h were harvested and homogenized. The homogenates (60 μg/well) were resolved in a sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)–15% polyacrylamide gel and then transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane. The membrane was blocked with 5% skim milk and then incubated with either antibodies against the HCV core protein (2,000-fold dilution; Institute of immunology, Tokyo, Japan) or antibodies against β-actin (500-fold dilution; Sigma). Immunocomplexes were detected with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) Western blotting detection reagents (GE Healthcare, Giles, United Kingdom).

Accumulation assay. OR6 cells were plated 1 day prior to the assay on 24-well plates, after which the cells were incubated with 0.5 μCi/ml [^{3}H]ribavirin (Moravek Biochemicals, Brea, CA) and nonradiolabeled ribavirin at various concentrations. NBMPR was included in inhibition analyses at concentrations of 0.1, 1, 3, 10, 31, and 100 μM. After treatment for 9.6, 24, 48, or 72 h, the cells were washed twice with ice-cold Na^+-free Krebs-Henseleit buffer (KHB) and lysed with 0.2% SDS. Radioactivity was measured using a liquid scintillation counter (LSC 5100; Aloka, Tokyo, Japan). The protein contents were determined as described above. To completely inhibit ENT-mediated ribavirin uptake, 30 μM dipyridamole (Wako) was used in the same experimental sets (20). The data were calculated by subtracting the accumulation values obtained with dipyridamole from those without dipyridamole at the same ribavirin concentrations. All assays were performed at 37°C.

Transport assays. Transport assays were performed using the previously described centrifugal filtration method (6). OR6 cells were collected and resuspended in ice-cold Na^+-containing KHB or Na^+-free KHB at 1.4×10^6 cells/ml. NBMPR, troglitazone (Wako), hypoxanthine, and formycin B were included in the inhibition analyses. Since the rate of ribavirin uptake by OR6 cells was linear for at least 60 s in the preliminary assays, the incubation time was set to 30 s. The radioactivity and protein contents of the cells used in the assay were measured as described above. The same experiments were also performed at 4°C, and the data were obtained by subtracting the uptake levels at 4°C from those at 37°C at the same ribavirin concentrations.

Total RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis, reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR), and quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR). Total RNA preparation, cDNA synthesis, RT-PCR, and qPCR were performed using previously described procedures (6). Among the nucleoside transporters, ENT1, ENT2, CNT2, and CNT3 mRNAs were examined by RT-PCR because they have been identified as ribavirin transporters (21). The primers for RT-PCR and qPCR are listed in Table S1 in the supplemental material. The UPL universal probes used were no. 9 (ENT1), no. 48 (ENT2), and no. 60 (glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase [GAPDH]).

Knockdown of ENT1 mRNA expression in OR6 cells. The BLOCK-iT Pol II miR RNAi expression vector kit (Invitrogen) was used to suppress ENT1 mRNA expression in OR6 cells. The oligonucleotide containing micro-RNA targeted to ENT1 mRNA (miR-ENT1) was cloned into the pcDNA6.2-GW/EmGFP-miR vector. The control plasmid pcDNA6.2-GW/EmGFP-miR-neg, carrying an insert that is not known to target any identified vertebrate genes (miR-Neg), was used as a negative control. The sequences of inserts are shown in Table S1 in the supplemental material. The plasmids were transfected into OR6 cells using Lipofectamine LTX (Invitrogen). Two days after transfection, the culture medium was replaced with fresh medium containing 4 μg/ml blasticidin to obtain cells stably expressing miR-ENT1 (OR6/miR-ENT1) and cells stably expressing miR-Neg (OR6/miR-Ng).

Data analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using Student's *t* test. The four-parameter logistic model was used to calculate the 50% effective concentration (EC_{50}).

RESULTS

Concentration- and time-dependent anti-HCV activity and accumulation of ribavirin in OR6 cells. The inhibitory effects of ribavirin (1 to 3,162 μM) on HCV replication in OR6 cells were analyzed by monitoring the luciferase activity and HCV core protein expression levels. It was found that the HCV replication activity and core protein levels decreased in a ribavirin concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 1A and B), while the level of ribavirin accumulation increased in a saturable manner (Fig. 1C). Next, the time course of anti-HCV activity of ribavirin at concentrations of 10, 100, and 1,000 μM was examined. The results of our examination showed that, similar to the concentration-dependent profile, the HCV replication activity and core protein amounts decreased over time at each of the ribavirin concentrations tested (Fig. 1D and E) and that the levels of ribavirin accumulation increased linearly or saturably over time (Fig. 1F). These results suggest that ribavirin exerts concentration- and time-dependent antiviral activity that could be associated with the concentration- and time-dependent intracellular accumulation of the drug.

Identification of the ribavirin uptake transporter in OR6 cells. To identify the ribavirin uptake transporter in OR6 cells, we characterized the uptake profile of the drug and the nucleoside transporters mRNA expression in the cells. The ribavirin (1 to 3,162 μM) uptake level in Na^+-plus KHB was found to increase linearly up to 3 mM (Fig. 2A), and the uptake activities of the drug (nmol/mg protein/30 s) at 10, 100 (data not shown), and 1,000 μM were recorded as 0.03 ± 0.01, 0.33 ± 0.02 and 3.2 ± 0.3, respectively (Fig. 2B). The removal of Na^+ from the transport medium did not affect the uptake activities at any of the ribavirin concentrations tested, indicating that all the uptake activities of the drug were sodium independent. These activities were mostly abolished by the addition of 100 μM NBMPR, an inhibitor of ENT1 and ENT2. Consistently, the results of RT-PCR showed that ENT1 and ENT2 mRNAs were abundantly expressed in OR6 cells, while hardly any CNT2 and CNT3 mRNAs were expressed (Fig. 2C). During the above-described experiments, we found that a low concentration of NBMPR (100 nM) failed to inhibit ribavirin uptake by OR6 cells (M. Iikura, unpublished data). Considering that ENT1-mediated nucleoside uptake is generally sensitive to NBMPR inhibition at 100 nM (20), it was hypothesized that ENT2 should have contributed to ribavirin uptake in OR6 cells. However, our previous results indicated that ENT2 cannot transport ribavirin (6). Therefore, to clearly distinguish between ENT1- and

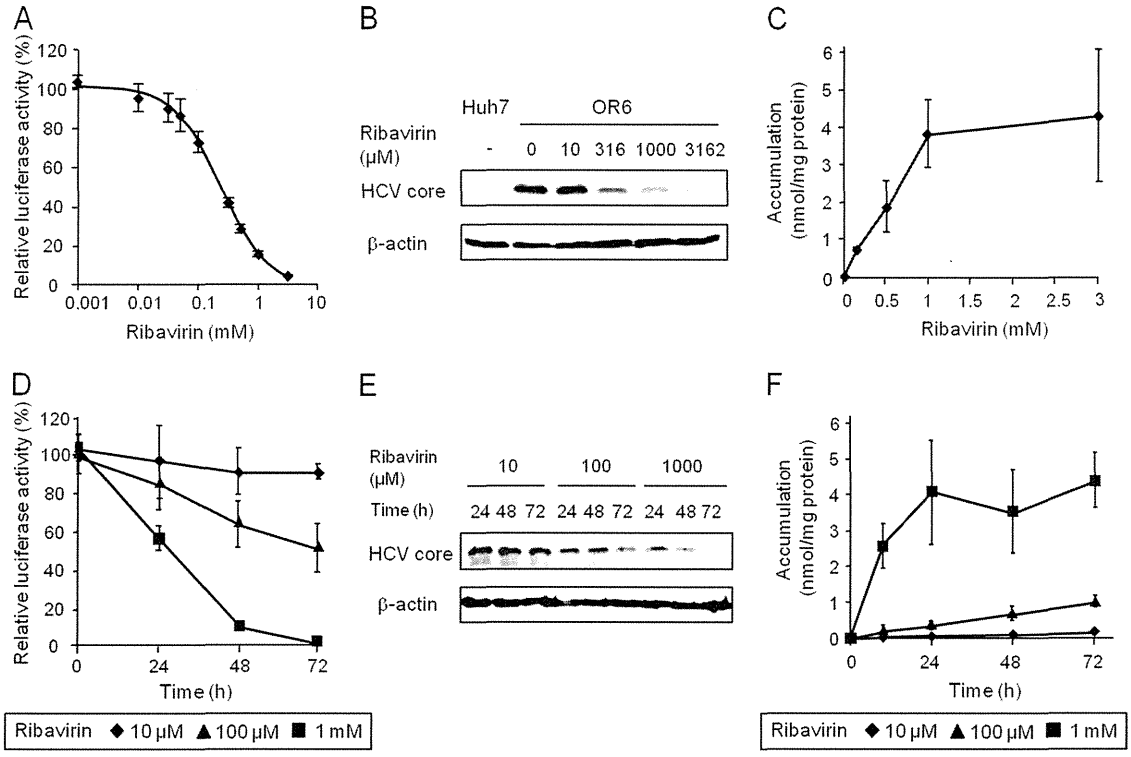

FIG 1 Concentration- and time-dependent profiles of anti-HCV activity and accumulation of ribavirin in OR6 cells. (A) OR6 cells were treated with ribavirin at concentrations of 0, 1, 10, 31, 50, 100, 316, 500, 1,000 and 3,162 μM for 48 h. The value of relative luciferase activity in the absence of ribavirin was set to 100%. (B) Expression levels of HCV core protein in OR6 cells treated with ribavirin for 48 h were examined by Western blot analysis. β-Actin was used as a loading control. Huh-7 cells were used as a negative control. (C) OR6 cells were treated with ribavirin at concentrations of 0.1, 0.5, 1, and 3 mM for 48 h, after which the radioactivity within the cells was determined. (D) OR6 cells were treated with ribavirin. The value of relative luciferase activity in the absence of ribavirin at each time point was set to 100%. (E) Expression levels of HCV core protein in OR6 cells treated with ribavirin were examined by Western blot analysis. (F) OR6 cells were treated with ribavirin, after which the radioactivity within the cells was determined. Values are means and standard deviations (SD) of the relative luciferase activity or the accumulation for three independent experiments. Each experiment was performed in duplicate. For Western blotting, the representative result for three independent assays was shown.

ENT2-mediated ribavirin uptake, inhibition analysis was performed using troglitazone (60 μM), hypoxanthine (5 mM), and formycin B (50 μM). Troglitazone has been reported to specifically inhibit ENT1 activity (10). Hypoxanthine and formycin B, at the indicated concentrations, were previously reported to preferentially inhibit ENT2 activity (3, 22), and we confirmed the inhibitory effects of these compounds on ENT2 activity by using HeLa cells (see Fig. S1 in the supplemental material). The results of the inhibition analysis showed that troglitazone completely inhibited the ribavirin uptake activity, while neither hypoxanthine nor formycin B inhibited uptake of the drug in OR6 cells (Fig. 2D). Taken together, the results indicated that, even though the affinity of ENT1 of OR6 cells for NBMPR was somehow reduced, ENT1 was exclusively responsible for the ribavirin uptake in OR6 cells.

Effect of inhibition of ribavirin uptake on its anti-HCV activity. After it was determined that ENT1 was responsible for ribavirin uptake in OR6 cells, the role of ENT1 in the anti-HCV activity of the drug (100 μM and 1 mM) was examined by chemical inhibition of ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake in OR6 cells. Since troglitazone itself somewhat repressed HCV replication in OR6 cells (Iikura, unpublished), NBMPR was used as an ENT1 inhibitor. As shown in Fig. 3A, NBMPR decreased the level of ribavirin uptake in a dose-dependent manner and, accordingly, decreased the accumulation level of the drug in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 3B). In association with these decreases, it was determined that the ribavirin antiviral effect was weakened by NBMPR in a concentration-dependent manner (Fig. 3C). We confirmed that ENT1 protein expression was not changed in the cells treated with the highest ribavirin and NBMPR concentrations for 48 h (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). To further clarify the importance of ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake in its antiviral effects, the concentration and time dependencies of the antiviral effects of the drug were examined in cells treated with NBMPR or its vehicle (0.1% DMSO). The concentration of NBMPR was set to 7 μM, which is near the EC_{50} against ENT1 activity calculated from the results of Fig. 3A, indicating that the ENT1 activity level of NBMPR-treated cells was approximately half that of the vehicle-treated cells. As shown in Fig. 3D, the EC_{50} of ribavirin in the NBMPR-treated cells was 399 $\pm$ 22 μM, which was significantly higher than that of the vehicle-treated cells (203 $\pm$ 47 μM, P = 0.0005) (The results of the individual experiments are shown in Fig. S3 in the supplemental material.) In addition, the response to ribavirin in the NBMPR-treated cells was significantly delayed in comparison to that in the vehicle-treated cells (Fig. 3E). We also examined the constraining effects of ENT2 inhibitors on ribavirin antiviral activity but found that hypoxanthine (5 mM) and formycin B (50 μM) had no effect (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material). Furthermore, NBMPR, hypoxanthine and formycin B

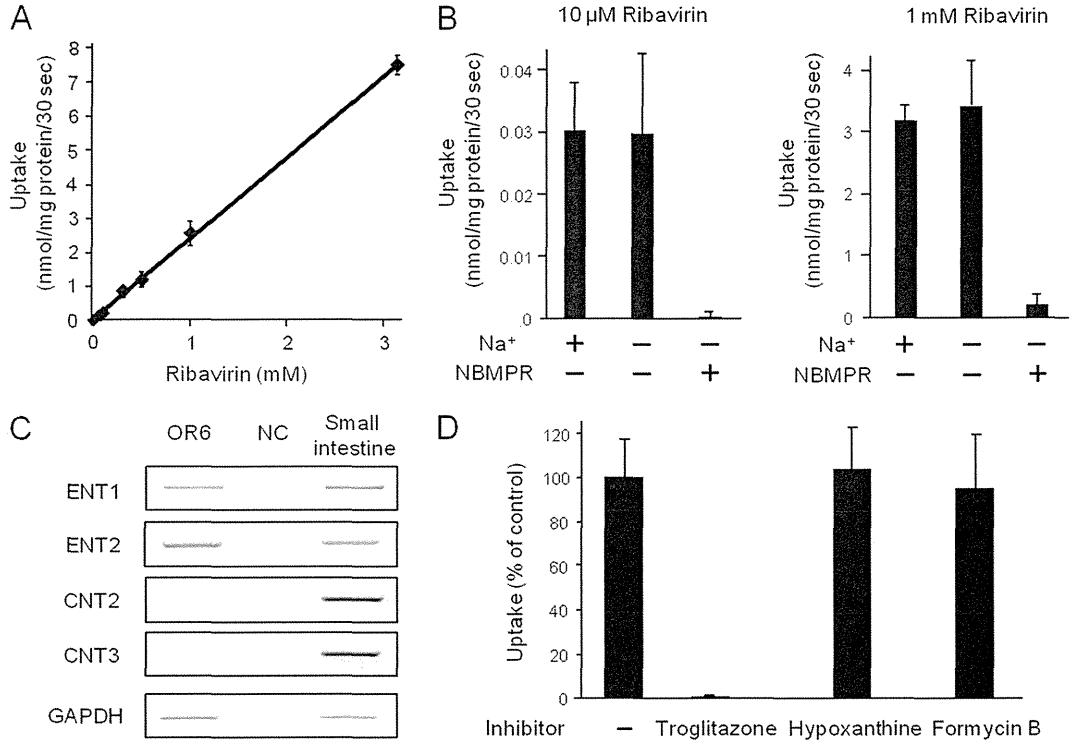

FIG 2 Identification of the ribavirin uptake transporter in OR6 cells. (A) The concentration dependence of ribavirin uptake (concentrations are given in the legend to Fig. 1A) by OR6 cells was analyzed in Na^+-containing KHB. (B) Ribavirin uptake by OR6 cells was analyzed in Na^+-containing KHB and Na^+-free KHB. In inhibition assays, the effect of 100 μM NBMPR on ribavirin uptake was analyzed in Na^+-free KHB. (C) ENT1, ENT2, CNT2, CNT3 and GAPDH mRNA expression was examined by RT-PCR. Small intestine cDNA was used as a PCR control. NC, nontemplate control. Representative results from one of three independent analyses are shown. (D) To clearly distinguish between ENT1- and ENT2-mediated ribavirin uptake, inhibition analysis of ribavirin (100 μM) uptake by OR6 cells was performed in Na^+-free KHB in the absence of inhibitor (−) or the presence of troglitazone (ENT1 inhibitor, 60 μM), hypoxanthine (ENT2 inhibitor, 5 mM), or formycin B (ENT2 inhibitor, 50 μM). The value of the transport activity of the control (no inhibitor) was set to 100%. In the above-described experiments, each value is the mean plus SD from three independent experiments, each performed in duplicate.

were found to have no effect on HCV replication activity in the above-described experiments (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material), and NBMPR (7 μM) failed to affect telaprevir antiviral activity (see Fig. S5 in the supplemental material).

These results clearly show that inhibition of ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake significantly attenuates ribavirin antiviral effectiveness by reducing the accumulation level of the drug in the cells.

Effect of ENT1 mRNA knockdown on ribavirin anti-HCV activity. The above-mentioned results prompted us to investigate whether a small change in ENT1 activity would similarly affect ribavirin antiviral effectiveness. miRNA targeted to ENT1 mRNA was used in this examination. We found that when stably expressed in OR6 cells (OR6/miR-ENT1), miR-ENT1 reduced the ENT1 mRNA expression level to 72.5 ± 3.4% of that of the control cells (OR6/miR-Ng) without affecting the ENT2 mRNA expression level (Fig. 4A). Accordingly, the ribavirin uptake level in OR6/miR-ENT1 cells was about 66.7 ± 14.0% of that in OR6/miR-Ng cells (Fig. 4B). To determine the degree to which this ENT1 mRNA knockdown affected ribavirin antiviral action, concentration dependencies of ribavirin action in OR6/miR-ENT1 and OR6/miR-Ng cells were characterized. We found that the EC_{50} of ribavirin in OR6/miR-ENT1 cells was 212 ± 11 μM, which was significantly higher than the EC_{50} in OR6/miR-Ng cells (143 ± 33 μM; $P = 0.013$) (The results of the individual experiments are shown in Fig. S3 in the supplemental material.) These results showed that even a small reduction in the ENT1 mRNA expression level could decrease the ribavirin uptake level, thus causing a reduction in the antiviral efficacy of the drug.

Toxicological analyses. Concurrent with the above-described experiments, the cytotoxic effects of ribavirin and other reagents on OR6 cells were examined independently and/or simultaneously (see the supplemental methods in the supplemental material). As shown in Table S2 and Fig. S6 of the supplemental materials, the lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release assay results showed that no severe cytotoxicity in OR6 cells occurred in any treatments (less than 10%). Microscopic observation also showed that the cells were viable upon treatment with ribavirin (3,162 μM) together with NBMPR (100 μM) for 48 h (see Fig. S2 in the supplemental material). We further performed the MTS assay, which can detect different types of toxicity, to confirm the results of the LDH assay. The results showed that even though marginal toxicity was observed at the highest ribavirin and NBMPR concentrations tested (at most 25%), most treatments did not display severe cytotoxicity for OR6 cells (less than 10%; see Table S2 in the supplemental material).

DISCUSSION

In this paper, we provide results supporting our hypothesis that ENT1 plays an essential role in the anti-HCV activity of ribavirin

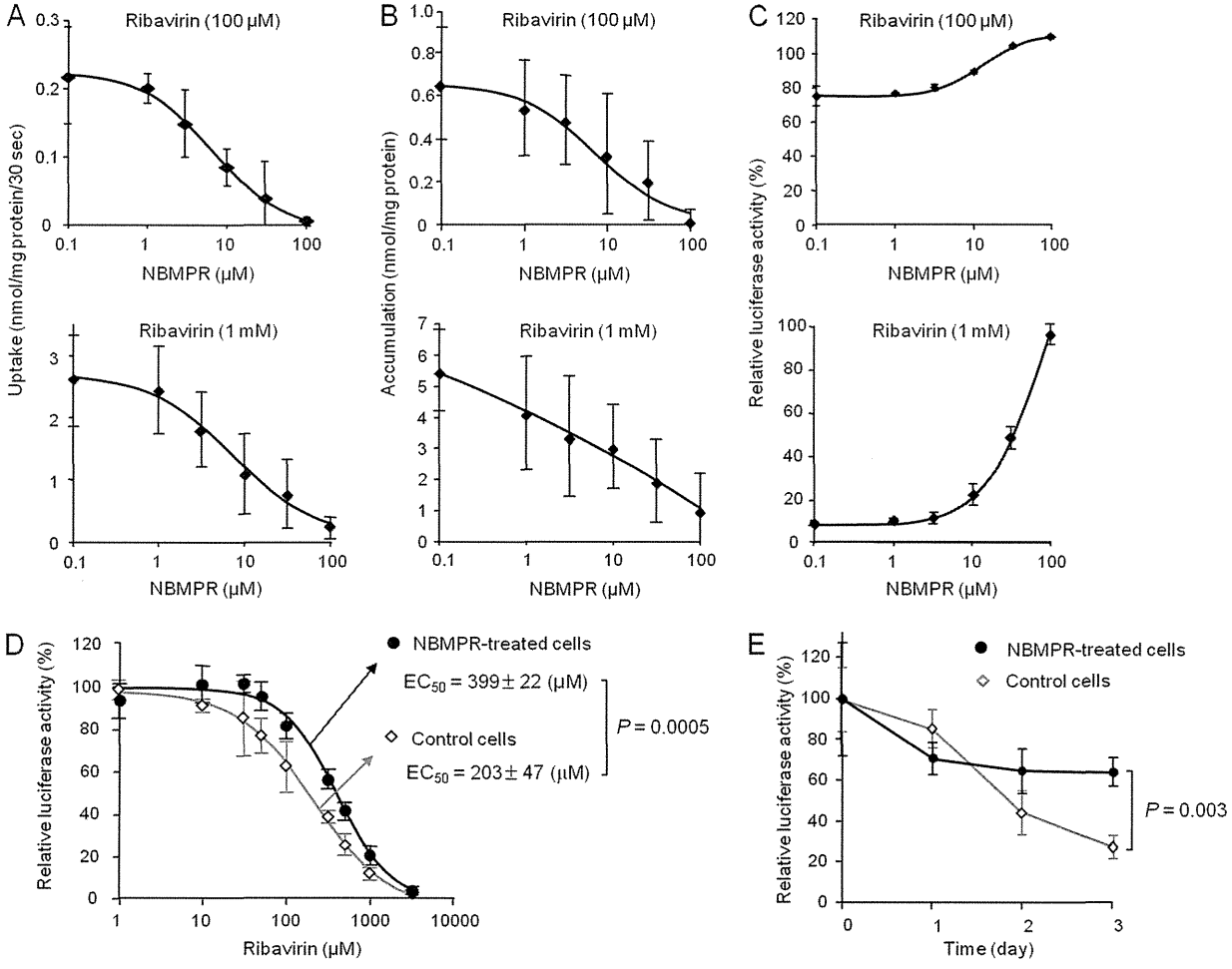

FIG 3 Inhibitory effect of NBMPR on ribavirin uptake, accumulation, and anti-HCV activity. The ribavirin concentration used in these experiments (A to C) was 100 μM or 1 mM, while the NBMPR concentrations used were 0.1, 1, 3, 10, 31, and 100 μM. (A) The effect of NBMPR on ribavirin uptake by OR6 cells was analyzed in Na^+-free KHB with NBMPR. Each value is the mean ± SD from five independent experiments, each performed in duplicate. (B) The effect of NBMPR on ribavirin accumulation in OR6 cells was analyzed by measuring the level of the drug within the cells, in the presence of NBMPR, for 48 h. Each value is the mean ± SD from three independent experiments, each performed in duplicate. (C) The effect of NBMPR on the anti-HCV activity of ribavirin in OR6 cells was analyzed by measuring the level of the luciferase activity, in the presence of NBMPR, for 48 h. The value of relative luciferase activity without ribavirin and NBMPR was set to 100%. Each value is the mean ± SD from three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate. (D) The concentration dependency of ribavirin antiviral action in the presence of NBMPR was examined. The ribavirin concentrations used are shown in the legend to Fig. 1A. The NBMPR concentration was set to 7 μM, which is near the EC_{50} of NBMPR calculated from the results in panel A. The value of relative luciferase activity in the absence of ribavirin was set to 100%. (E) The time dependency of ribavirin antiviral action in the presence of NBMPR was then examined. The ribavirin concentration was set to 150 μM, while the NBMPR concentration was still 7 μM. The value of relative luciferase activity in the absence of ribavirin at each time point was set to 100%.

through detailed characterization of the antiviral activity of the drug and its association with ENT1-mediated uptake in OR6 cells.

Our results showed that the concentration and time dependency of ribavirin antiviral activity was closely associated with its accumulation in OR6 cells. This association is supported by several reports. For example, it has been reported that larger ribavirin accumulations were associated with significant decreases in the intracellular GTP pool (13) or with higher antiviral potency against the Hantaan virus (14). Therefore, it is considered likely that continuous ribavirin accumulation in hepatic cells at the higher levels, which are achieved by the sustained and higher ribavirin extracellular concentrations, is critical to the antiviral efficacy of the drug.

Due to its hydrophilicity, ribavirin requires a "gate" to penetrate the plasma membrane of cells prior to its accumulation. Our results clearly show that ENT1 provides this gate, thus facilitating the drug's import into and accumulation in OR6 cells. Since we recently showed that ENT1 is also exclusively involved in ribavirin uptake in human hepatocytes, which has a ribavirin uptake profile similar to that of OR6 cells (6), it is considered likely that this ENT1 role can probably be extended to human hepatocytes as well. The mode of ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake in OR6 cells, as well as human hepatocytes, was represented by a linear increase in the uptake level along with an increase in extracellular ribavirin concentration (6; also this study). This uptake feature was the most probable reason why the higher extracellular ribavirin concentration resulted in a stronger antiviral effect in OR6 cells but might also explain why clinical findings show that a higher exposure to ribavirin leads to the better virologic response in HCV genotype-1 patients (11, 17). Therefore, our results, together with

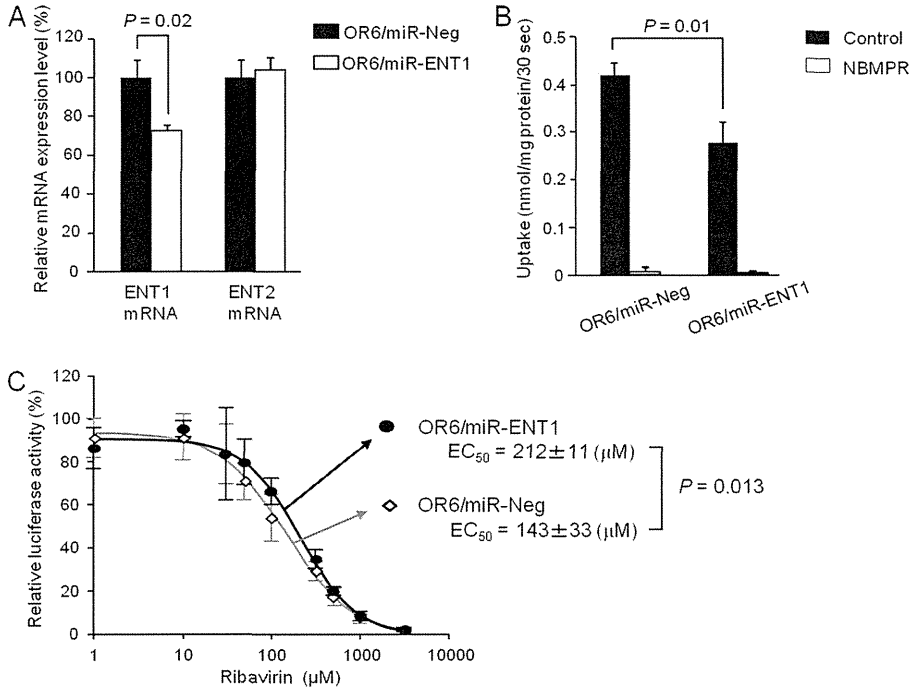

FIG 4 Effect of ENT1 mRNA knockdown on anti-HCV activity of ribavirin. (A) The expression levels of ENT1 and ENT2 mRNA were determined by real-time PCR. Abundance is shown relative to the level of ENT1 or ENT2 mRNA in OR6/miR-Ng cells. Each value is the mean plus SD from three independent experiments, each performed in duplicate. (B) Ribavirin (100 μM) uptake by OR6/miR-ENT1 and OR6/miR-Ng cells was analyzed in Na^+-free KHB in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μM NBMPR. Each value is the mean plus SD of transport activity from three independent experiments, each performed in duplicate. (C) The concentration dependency of ribavirin in OR6/miR-Ng and OR6/miR-ENT1 cells was then examined. The ribavirin concentrations used are shown in the legend to Fig. 1A. The relative luciferase activity value in the absence of ribavirin in each cell line was set to 100%. Each value is the mean ± SD of relative luciferase activity from four independent experiments, each performed in triplicate.

the other findings, indicate that ENT1 plays an indispensable role in ribavirin antiviral activity.

The importance of ENT1 in ribavirin antiviral activity was further underscored by the results of both the ENT1 knockdown and uptake inhibition experiments using NBMPR. It is noteworthy that even a small reduction of ENT1 activity significantly weakened ribavirin's antiviral potency. These results indicate that increasing or decreasing ENT1 activity level in the cells results in stronger or weaker ribavirin efficacy by increasing or reducing the uptake of the drug, even if extracellular ribavirin concentrations and exposure durations are constant. Therefore, it can be concluded that the ENT1-mediated ribavirin uptake level determines the level of ribavirin antiviral activity in OR6 cells and, presumably, in human hepatocytes.

The above-mentioned findings and suppositions prompt us to propose the following two possibilities (see Fig. S7 in the supplemental material). One is that patients with higher ENT1 activity levels in hepatocytes could more likely attain RVR (defined as a faster and stronger ribavirin antiviral effect in the early stage of the treatment) than those with lower ENT1 activity levels, when other factors affecting the treatment outcome are similar. The mechanisms underlying the interindividual difference in the hepatic ENT1 activity level remain unclear, but SNPs are promising candidates for the causal factors that result in the difference. Since two intronic SNPs have been revealed to be associated with RVR (and SVR) (12, 18), investigations should be conducted to determine whether these SNPs have a positive effect on the hepatic ENT1 expression level.

The other possibility is that the hepatic uptake of ribavirin by ENT1 could be hindered by coadministered chemicals, thus resulting in attenuation of the treatment response in some patients, as shown in Fig. 3. Although there have been no clinical reports supporting this possibility, preceding studies have been performed to determine whether hepatic uptake inhibition of pravastatin and metformin, which are hepatocyte-targeting drugs, reduces their effectiveness (1). These drugs are known substrates for hepatic organic ion transporters, and it has been shown that aberrations in these transporters significantly impair their *in vivo* functions (2, 15). Since, due to attendant complications or other chronic diseases, several drugs are often coprescribed along with ribavirin during treatment regimens, it may be worth considering whether interactions between ribavirin and other drugs at the point of ENT1-mediated uptake can affect the treatment response.

Exploration of these possibilities must await further studies aimed at clarification of the factors affecting the hepatic ENT1 activity level, including the above-described SNP studies and ribavirin-drug interaction studies. The results obtained from such studies could contribute not only to a better understanding of the mode of action of ENT1 on ribavirin antiviral activity but also to identification of the associated markers for RVR or null responses in clinical settings.

It should be noted that, unexpectedly, ENT1 activity was found to be insensitive to inhibition by NBMPR in the nanomolar range in OR6 cells. This was not due to nucleotide alterations in ENT1 cDNA of OR6 cells (Iikura, unpublished). Since OR6 cells were

derived from Huh-7 cells, we examined the sensitivity of ENT1 to inhibition of NBMPR using Huh-7 cells and obtained results similar to those obtained with OR6 cells (Iikura, unpublished). Therefore, the lower sensitivity of ENT1 to NBMPR in OR6 cells was thought to have originated from the Huh-7 cells. Although the reason for the altered sensitivity of ENT1 to NBMPR remains unknown at this time, it is believed that the cell-specific posttranslational modification might be involved. It has been reported that defective glycosylation of ENT1 leads to decreased affinity for NBMPR (19). Therefore, it can be speculated that the type or structure of glycochain and/or other modifications could be responsible for decreased affinity of ENT1 of OR6/Huh-7 cells for NBMPR. Further studies aimed at ascertaining the reason might provide novel insights into the biology of ENT1.

Finally, we briefly discuss the static cytotoxic effects of ribavirin and NBMPR on OR6 cells. According to the results of toxicological analyses, these reagents (at most concentrations tested) did not cause severe toxicity in OR6 cells (less than 10%), and only marginal toxicity was found in treatment of the reagents at the highest concentrations tested in an MTS assay. In contrast, blasticidin S treatment (20 ng/ml) significantly damaged the cells (>50% in the MTS assay [Iikura, unpublished]). Therefore, it is assumed that OR6 cells possess inherent resistance to ribavirin and NBMPR, and this factor might be related to the relatively high EC_{50} of ribavirin. Although we do not know the reason for the behavior of the cells, it is unlikely that the limited toxicity would give rise to a question regarding the present results. In actuality, 100 μM NBMPR treatment, which caused marginal toxicity, did not affect HCV replication activity (see Fig. S4 in the supplemental material).

In conclusion, we have clearly demonstrated that ENT1 plays an indispensable role in ribavirin antiviral activity by facilitating the uptake and accumulation of the drug in OR6 cells, thereby indicating that ENT1 provides a gate that is essential to the success of ribavirin's mission. Our study limitations include an *in vitro* HCV model system using hepatoma cells and no *in vivo* evidence of association between hepatic ENT1 activity and ribavirin efficacy. Nevertheless, our results, together with the literature, strongly suggest that ENT1 also plays the determinant role in the antiviral efficacy of ribavirin in the human liver during the course of anti-HCV therapy. Accordingly, it is believed that our results, as well as the ideas described in this paper, will encourage further studies aimed at the clarification of the clinical importance of ENT1 in anti-HCV therapy.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by a grant (20790128) from the Ministry of Education, Sciences, Sports and Culture of Japan and partially supported by a Special Funds for Education and Research (Development of SPECT Probes for Pharmaceutical Innovation) from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, Japan, and a research grant from the Nakatomi Foundation (Tokyo, Japan).

REFERENCES

1. **Bachmakov I, Glaeser H, Fromm MF, König J.** 2008. Interaction of oral antidiabetic drugs with hepatic uptake transporters: Focus on organic anion transporting polypeptides and organic cation transporter 1. Diabetes 57:1463–1469.
2. **Becker ML, et al.** 2009. Genetic variation in the organic cation transporter 1 is associated with metformin response in patients with diabetes mellitus. Pharmacogenomics J. 9:242–247.
3. **Burke T, Lee S, Ferguson PJ, Hammond JR.** 1998. Interaction of 2′,2′-difluorodeoxycytidine (gemcitabine) and formycin B with the Na^+-dependent and -independent nucleoside transporters of Ehrlich ascites tumor cells. J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther. 286:1333–1340.
4. **Dixit NM, Perelson AS.** 2006. The metabolism, pharmacokinetics and mechanisms of antiviral activity of ribavirin against hepatitis C virus. Cell. Mol. Life Sci. 63:832–842.
5. **Fried MW, et al.** 2002. Peginterferon alfa-2a plus ribavirin for chronic hepatitis C virus infection. N. Engl. J. Med. 347:975–982.
6. **Fukuchi Y, Furihata T, Hashizume M, Iikura M, Chiba K.** 2010. Characterization of ribavirin uptake systems in human hepatocytes. J. Hepatol. 52:486–492.
7. **Hofmann WP, Herrmann E, Sarrazin C, Zeuzem S.** 2008. Ribavirin mode of action in chronic hepatitis C: from clinical use back to molecular mechanisms. Liver Int. 28:1332–1343.
8. **Ikeda M, et al.** 2005. Efficient replication of a full-length hepatitis C virus genome, strain O, in cell culture, and development of a luciferase reporter system. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 329:1350–1359.
9. **Kong W, Engel K, Wang J.** 2004. Mammalian nucleoside transporters. Curr. Drug Metab. 5:63–84.
10. **Leung GP, Man RY, Tse CM.** 2005. Effect of thiazolidinediones on equilibrative nucleoside transporter-1 in human aortic smooth muscle cells. Biochem. Pharmacol. 70:355–362.
11. **Lindahl K, Stahle L, Bruchfeld A, Schvarcz R.** 2005. High-dose ribavirin in combination with standard dose peginterferon for treatment of patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology 41:275–279.
12. **Morello J, et al.** 2010. Influence of a single nucleotide polymorphism at the main ribavirin transporter gene on the rapid virological response to pegylated interferon-ribavirin therapy in patients with chronic hepatitis C virus infection. J. Infect. Dis. 202:1185–1191.
13. **Smee DF, Matthews TR.** 1986. Metabolism of ribavirin in respiratory syncytial virus-infected and uninfected cells. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 30:117–121.
14. **Sun Y, Chung DH, Chu YK, Jonsson CB, Parker WB.** 2007. Activity of ribavirin against Hantaan virus correlates with production of ribavirin-5′-triphosphate, not with inhibition of IMP dehydrogenase. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 51:84–88.
15. **Tachibana-Iimori R, et al.** 2004. Effect of genetic polymorphism of OATP-C (SLCO1B1) on lipid-lowering response to HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors. Drug Metab. Pharmacokinet. 19:375–380.
16. **Thomas E, et al.** 2011. Ribavirin potentiates interferon action by augmenting interferon-stimulated gene induction in hepatitis C virus cell culture models. Hepatology 53:32–41.
17. **Tsubota A, Hirose Y, Izumi N, Kumada H.** 2003. Pharmacokinetics of ribavirin in combined interferon-alpha 2b and ribavirin therapy for chronic hepatitis C virus infection. Br. J. Clin. Pharmacol. 55:360–367.
18. **Tsubota A, et al.** 2011. Contribution of ribavirin transporter gene polymorphism to treatment response in peginterferon plus ribavirin therapy for HCV genotype 1b patients. Liver Int. [Epub ahead of print.10.1111/j.1478–3231.2011.02727.x.
19. **Vickers MF, et al.** 1999. Functional production and reconstitution of the human equilibrative nucleoside transporter (hENT1) in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Interaction of inhibitors of nucleoside transport with recombinant hENT1 and a glycosylation-defective derivative (hENT1/N48Q). Biochem. J. 339:21–32.
20. **Ward JL, Sherali A, Mo ZP, Tse CM.** 2000. Kinetic and pharmacological properties of cloned human equilibrative nucleoside transporters, ENT1 and ENT2, stably expressed in nucleoside transporter-deficient PK15 cells. J. Biol. Chem. 275:8375–8381.
21. **Yamamoto T, et al.** 2007. Ribavirin uptake by cultured human choriocarcinoma (BeWo) cells and Xenopus laevis oocytes expressing recombinant plasma membrane human nucleoside transporters. Eur. J. Pharmacol. 557:1–8.
22. **Yao SY, et al.** 2002. Functional and molecular characterization of nucleobase transport by recombinant human and rat equilibrative nucleoside transporters 1 and 2. J. Biol. Chem. 277:24938–24948.

FEBS Open Bio 2 (2012) 279–283

FEBS openbio

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/febsopenbio

Raloxifene inhibits hepatitis C virus infection and replication

Midori Takeda[a,1], Masanori Ikeda[a,*,1], Kyoko Mori[a], Masahiko Yano[a], Yasuo Ariumi[a,2], Hiromichi Dansako[a], Takaji Wakita[b], Nobuyuki Kato[a]

[a] Department of Tumor Virology, Okayama University Graduate School of Medicine, Dentistry, and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Okayama 700-8558, Japan
[b] Department of Virology II, National Institute of Infectious Disease, Tokyo 162-8640, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 21 May 2012
Received in revised form 27 July 2012
Accepted 8 August 2012

Keywords:
Hepatitis C virus
Raloxifene
Estrogen
Osteoporosis
Statin

ABSTRACT

Postmenopausal women with chronic hepatitis C exhibited a poor response to interferon (IFN) therapy compared to premenopausal women. Osteoporosis is the typical complication that occurs in postmenopausal women. Recently, it was reported that an osteoporotic reagent, vitamin D3, exhibited anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) activity. Therefore, we investigated whether or not another osteoporotic reagent, raloxifene, would exhibit anti-HCV activity in cell culture systems. Here, we demonstrated that raloxifene inhibited HCV RNA replication in genotype 1b and infection in genotype 2a. Raloxifene enhanced the anti-HCV activity of IFN-α. These results suggest a link between the molecular biology of osteoporosis and the HCV life cycle.

1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) belongs to the *Flaviviridae* family and contains a positive single-stranded RNA genome of 9.6 kb. The HCV genome encodes a single polyprotein precursor of approximately 3000 amino acid residues, which is cleaved by the host and viral proteases into at least 10 proteins in the following order: Core, envelope 1 (E1), E2, p7, nonstructural 2 (NS2), NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B [1–3].

The virological study and screening of antiviral reagents for HCV was difficult until the replicon system was developed [4–7]. In 2005, an infectious HCV production system was developed using genotype 2a HCV JFH-1 and hepatoma-derived HuH-7 cells, and the HCV life cycle was reproduced in a cell culture system [8]. We previously developed genome-length HCV reporter assay systems using HuH-7-derived OR6 cells [4]. In OR6 cells, the genotype 1b HCV-O with renilla luciferase (*RL*) replicates robustly. We also developed an HCV JFH-1 reporter infection assay system [9].

HCV infection frequently causes chronic hepatitis (CH) and leads to serious liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. Therefore, HCV infection is a major health problem worldwide. The elimination of HCV by antiviral reagents seems to be the most efficient therapy for preventing the fatal state of the disease. Pegylated-interferon (PEG-IFN) with ribavirin (RBV) is the current standard therapy for CH-C, but its sustained virological response (SVR) rate has remained 40–50%. Recently, a protease inhibitor, telaprevir, improved the SVR rate by up to 60–70% in combination with PEG-IFN/RBV [10]. The response to PEG-IFN/RBV therapy depends on host factors as well as viral factors. Among the host factors, age and gender are known to be associated with the outcome of IFN/RBV therapy [11,12]. Postmenopausal women with CH-C exhibited a poor response to IFN therapy compared to premenopausal women [11]. The decrease in estrogen may affect the response to IFN therapy. Dyslipidemia and osteoporosis are the typical complications in postmenopausal women. We and other groups reported that statins, which are dyslipidemia reagents, inhibited HCV proliferation in vitro and in vivo [13–17]. Recently it was reported that vitamin D3, an osteoporotic reagent, exhibited anti-HCV activity in vitro and in vivo [18–21]. It was also reported that 17β-estradiol inhibited the production of infectious HCV [22]. Taken together, these reports suggest an association between hepatitis C and complications due to the decrease of estrogen.

Raloxifene and tamoxifen are synthetic selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) and are used for breast cancer and osteoporosis, respectively, in clinical settings. The responses of SERMs are mediated by estrogen receptors (ERs), either ERα or ERβ. SERMs exhibit agonistic actions in some tissues but antagonistic actions in others. Both raloxifene and tamoxifen are antagonists in breast and agonists in bone. However, only tamoxifen, and not raloxifene, exhibited agonistic activity in the uterus. It was reported that tamoxifen inhibited HCV RNA replication [23]. However, tamoxifen's agonist action leads to uterine cancer. Raloxifene belongs to an antiosteoporotic reagent and offers the advantage of safety without uterine cancer. Therefore, we decided to investigate whether or not raloxifene would exhibit anti-HCV activity in our developed cell culture systems.

[1] These authors contributed equally to this work.
[2] Current address: Center for AIDS Research, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto 860-0811, Japan.
* Corresponding author. Fax: +81 86 235 7392.
E-mail address: maikeda@md.okayama-u.ac.jp (M. Ikeda).

2211-5463/$36.00
http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fob.2012.08.003

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Reagents and antibodies

Raloxifene was purchased from LKT Laboratories, Inc. (St. Paul, MN). IFN-α and tamoxifen were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). Pitavastatin (PTV) was purchased from Kowa Company (Nagoya, Japan). The antibodies used in this study were those specific to HCV Core (CP11, Institute of Immunology, Tokyo, Japan), NS3 (Novocastra Laboratories, Newcastle, UK), and β-actin (Sigma).

2.2. Cell culture and HCV RNAs

HuH-7 cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Gibco-BRL, Invitrogen Life Technology, Carlsbad, CA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, penicillin, and streptomycin. HuH-7-derived OR6 and sOR cells were genome-length and subgenome HCV (O strain of genotype 1b) RNA harboring cells, respectively and cultured in the above medium supplemented with G418 (0.3 mg/ml; Geneticin, Invitrogen) [4]. HCVs replicating in OR6 and sOR cells contain *RL* and neomycin phosphotransferase (*NPT*) genes after 5′-untranslated region (UTR). HuH-7-derived RSc cells are cured cells, in which HCV RNA was eliminated by IFN-α; they are used for HCV JFH-1 infection [9]. RSc cells are also used for subgenomic JFH-1 RNA (JRN/35B) replication. JRN/35B contains *RL* and *NPT* genes after 5′-UTR.

2.3. RL assay

For the RL assay, 1.5×10^4 OR6 were plated onto 24-well plates in triplicate and cultured for 24 h. The cells were treated with each reagent for 72 h. Then the cells were harvested with *Renilla* lysis reagent (Promega, Madison, WI) and subjected to RL assay according to the manufacturer's protocol.

2.4. WST-1 cell proliferation assay

The cells (2×10^3 cells) were plated onto a 96-well plate in triplicate at 24 h before treatment with each reagent. At 72 h after treatment, the cells were subjected to a WST-1 cell proliferation assay (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

2.5. Western blot analysis

For Western blot analysis, 4×10^4 cells were plated onto 6-well plates, cultured for 24 h, and then treated with reagent(s) for 72 h and 120 h. Preparation of the cell lysates, sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and immunoblotting were then performed as previously described [24]. Immunocomplexes on the membranes were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence assay (Renaissance; Perkin Elmer Life Science, Wellesley, MA).

2.6. HCV infection

RSc cells (1.5×10^4 cells) were plated onto a 24-well plate 24 h before infection. To evaluate the effect of the treatment prior to infection, the cells were first treated with raloxifene for 24 h, then inoculated with reporter JFH-1 (JR/C5B/BX-2) supernatant at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.2, cultured for 48 h, and subjected to RL assay as described previously [9]. The JR/C5B/BX-2 contains the *RL* gene in the first cistron following the encephalomyocarditis virus-internal ribosomal entry site (*EMCV-IRES*) gene and the open reading frame (ORF) of JFH-1 in the second cistron. To evaluate the effect of the treatment after infection, the cells were inoculated with reporter JFH-1 supernatant at MOI of 0.2, cultured for 72 h, and subjected to RL assay.

3. Results

3.1. Raloxifene inhibited HCV RNA replication

The HCV RNA that replicated in HuH-7-derived OR6 cells was a genome-length HCV with *RL*, *NPT*, and *EMCV-IRES* in the first cistron and the ORF of HCV (O strain of genotype 1b) in the second cistron [4]. OR6 cells could not produce infectious HCV. Therefore, we can monitor the replication step in the HCV life cycle using OR6 cells. Raloxifene inhibited HCV RNA replication in a dose-dependent manner, and its 50% effective concentration (EC_{50}) was 1 μM (Fig. 1A). Raloxifene did not exhibit cytotoxicity to OR6 cells until 2.5 μM (Fig. 1B). Raloxifene also inhibited intracellular Core and NS3 production in a dose- and time-dependent manner (Fig. 1C). The intensities of Core and NS3 in OR6 cells treated with 2.5 μM of raloxifene decreased to almost the level of cells treated with 10 IU/ml of IFN-α at 120 h after treatment. We also examined anti-HCV activity of raloxifene using subgenomic HCV replicon harboring sOR cells. Raloxifene exhibited weak anti HCV activity to sOR cells as compared with OR6 cells (Supplementary Figs. 1A and 1B). These results suggest that raloxifene exhibits anti-HCV activity and decreased the expression levels of HCV proteins more slowly compared to IFN-α.

3.2. Raloxifene enhanced anti-HCV activity of IFN-α

We investigated the anti-HCV activity of raloxifene in combination with a representative anti-HCV reagent, IFN-α. HCV RNA replication decreased in a dose-dependent manner after co-treatment with IFN-α and raloxifene (Fig. 2A). The results were almost similar to the expected effect of raloxifene in combination with IFN-α calculated from the anti-HCV activity of each reagent (Fig. 2B). These results indicate that the anti-HCV activity of raloxifene and IFN-α exhibited additive effect. We also examined the anti-HCV activity of previously reported SERM, tamoxifen. Tamoxifen also exhibited additive anti-HCV activity on HCV RNA replication in combination with IFN-α (Supplementary Figs. 2A–C). These results indicate that raloxifene as well as tamoxifen enhanced the anti-HCV activity of IFN-α. As both raloxifene and IFN-α are clinically used reagents, raloxifene seemed to be a candidate reagent as an add-on treatment to IFN-α in patients with CH–C.

3.3. Raloxifene antagonized anti-HCV activity of statin

We previously reported that statins exhibited anti-HCV activity using the OR6 assay system [14]. Statin is the first-choice reagent for dyslipidemia. As dyslipidemia and osteoporosis are major complications in postmenopausal women, we invested the effect of raloxifene on the anti-HCV activity of PTV. Raloxifene did not enhance the anti-HCV activity of PTV (Fig. 3A). Fig. 3B exhibits the expected anti-HCV activity of co-treatment with raloxifene and PTV calculated from the anti-HCV effect of either raloxifen or PTV alone. Raloxifene exhibited an antagonistic effect on PTV's anti-HCV activity. Raloxifene's antagonistic effect on PTV increased dose-dependently. The co-treatment with raloxifene (2.5 μM) and PTV (0.25, 0.5, and 1 μM) resulted in lower anti-HCV activity than did treatment with raloxifene alone (2.5 μM). These results suggest that we should be careful in the administration of statins with raloxifene to postmenopausal woman with CH–C.

3.4. Raloxifene inhibited infection of genotype 2a HCV

To further investigate the anti-HCV activity of raloxifene, we examined whether or not raloxifene could inhibit HCV infection. For this purpose, we used our recently developed JFH-1 reporter infection assay system [9]. HuH-7-derived RSc's are highly HCV-permissive cell lines. Raloxifene was pretreated at 24 h before HCV infection. The cells were inoculated with HCV JFH-1 virion with *RL* (JR/C5B/BX-2), and

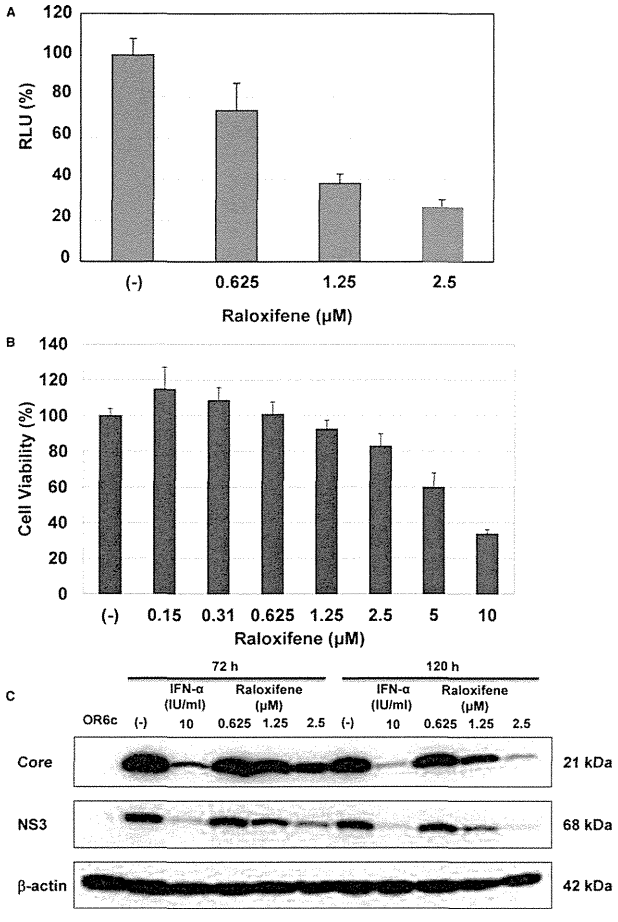

Fig. 1. Raloxifene inhibited HCV RNA replication. (A) Anti-HCV activity of raloxifene in OR6 cells. OR6 cells were treated with raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM) for 72 h. Relative RL activity (relative light unit: RLU) for HCV RNA replication is expressed as a percentage of control. Each bar represents the average with standard deviations of triplicate data points. (B) Effect of raloxifene on OR6 cell viability. Cell viability at 72 h after raloxifene treatment (0.15, 0.31, 0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, and 10 μM) was determined using WST-1 cell proliferation assay and is expressed as a percentage of control. (C) Raloxifene inhibited HCV proteins. OR6 cells were treated with IFN-α (10 IU/ml) or raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM). After 72 or 120 h treatment, the production of Core and that of NS3 were analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-Core and anti-NS3 antibodies, respectively. OR6c cells were cured cells in which HCV RNA was eliminated using IFN-α, and were used as a negative control. β-actin was used as a control for the amount of protein loaded per lane.

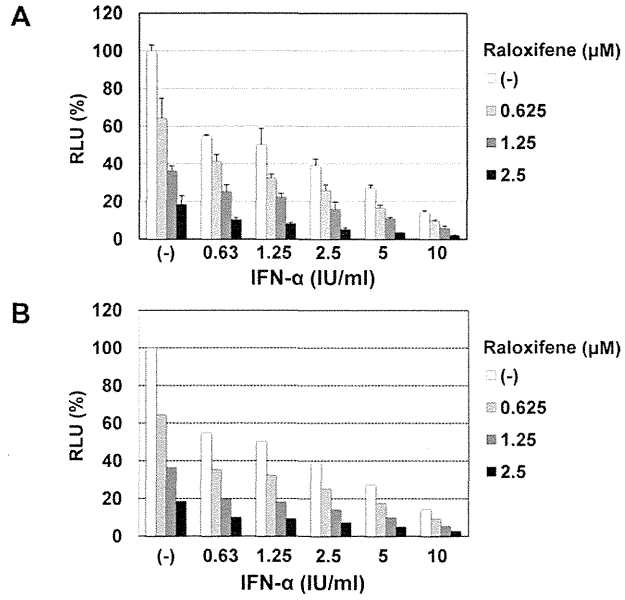

Fig. 2. Raloxifene enhanced the anti-HCV activity of IFN-α. (A) Anti-HCV activity of raloxifene in combination with IFN-α. OR6 cells were co-treated with raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM) and IFN-α (0, 0.63, 1.25, 2.5, 5, 10 IU/ml). Relative RL activity is shown as a percentage of control. Each bar represents the average with standard deviations of triplicate data points. (B) Expected anti-HCV activity was calculated based on the results when the cells were treated with only raloxifene or IFN-α.

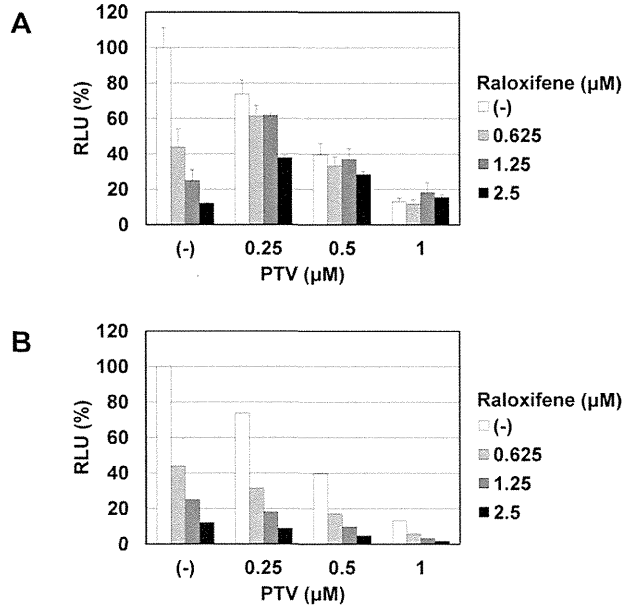

Fig. 3. Statin antagonized the anti-HCV activity of raloxifene. (A) OR6 cells were co-treated with raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM) and PTV (0, 0.25, 0.5, and 1 μM). Relative RL activity was shown as a percentage of control. Each bar represents the average with standard deviations of triplicate data points. (B) Expected anti-HCV activity was calculated based on the results when the cells were treated with only raloxifene or PTV.

the infection was monitored with RL activity at 48 h after infection. As shown in Fig. 4A, raloxifene inhibited HCV infection in RSc cells in a dose-dependent manner. Next we examined the effect of raloxifene after HCV infection. RSc cells were inoculated with HCV JFH-1 virion with *RL*. After HCV infection, the cells were treated with raloxifene for 72 h and raloxifene's inhibitory effect on post-infection was assessed using the RL assay. Raloxifene inhibited HCV proliferation in a dose-dependent manner when it was added to the cells after infection in RSc cells, although inhibitory effect of raloxifene on JFH-1 HCV RNA replication seemed to be weak compared to the genotype 1b HCV-O RNA replication (Fig. 4B). Raloxifene did not exhibit cytotoxicity to RSc cells until 2.5 μM (Fig. 4C). We found that raloxifene could not inhibit subgenomic JFH-1 HCV (JRN/35B) RNA replication (Fig. 4D). We further examined the inhibitory action of raloxifene around infection step. RSc cells were treated for short time with raloxifene around infection step: for 1, 4, and 4 h before, during, and after inoculation, respectively (Fig. 4E). Raloxifene inhibited JFH-1 infection, when it was treated during inoculation but not just before or after inoculation. In case of genotype 2a JFH-1, raloxifene's anti-HCV activity is mainly due to the inhibition of infection. These results indicate that raloxifene inhibits JFH-1 infection but not its RNA replication.

4. Discussion

In this study, we demonstrated that raloxifene, an osteoporotic reagent, inhibited the replication of genotypes 1b HCV RNA replication and inhibited genotype 2a HCV JFH-1 infection. Raloxifene additively enhanced the anti-HCV activity of IFN-α. On the other hand, raloxifene exhibited an antagonistic effect on statins.

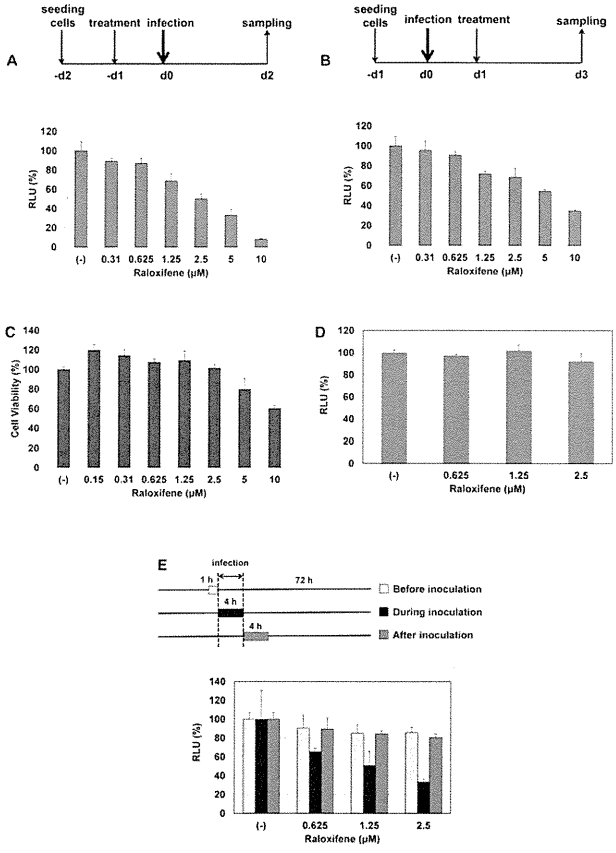

Fig. 4. Raloxifene inhibited genotype 2a HCV infection. (A) Raloxifene inhibited HCV JFH-1 infection. RSc cells were treated with raloxifene (0, 0.31, 0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, and 10 μM) 24 h before infection. HCV JFH-1 reporter virion was used as an inoculum after removal of raloxifene. The cells were then infected with reporter JFH-1 virion and cultured for 48 h. The inhibition of HCV infection was assessed by relative RL activity and expressed as a percentage of control. (B) Raloxifene inhibited HCV JFH-1 proliferation after infection. RSc cells were inoculated with HCV JFH-1 reporter virion and cultured for 24 h. Then the cells were treated with raloxifene (0, 0.31, 0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, and 10 μM) for 48 h. The inhibitory effect on HCV proliferation after infection was assessed by relative RL activity and expressed as a percentage of control. Each bar represents the average with standard deviations of triplicate data points. (C) Effect of raloxifene on RSc cells viability. Cell viability at 72 h after raloxifene treatment (0.15, 0.31, 0.625, 1.25, 2.5, 5, and 10 μM) was determined using WST-1 cell proliferation assay and is expressed as a percentage of control. (D) Subgenomic JFH-1 RNA (JRN/35B) replicating RSc cells were treated with raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM) for 72 h. Relative RL activity for HCV RNA replication is expressed as a percentage of control. Each bar represents the average with standard deviations of triplicate data points. (E) Raloxifene (0, 0.625, 1.25, and 2.5 μM) was treated for 1, 4, and 4 h before, during, and after JFH-1 inoculation to RSc cells at MOI of 0.2, respectively. The cells were then cultured for 72 h. The inhibition of HCV infection was assessed by relative RL activity and expressed as a percentage of control.

PEG-IFN/RBV therapy led to a 40–50% SVR rate among patients with CH–C. Telaprevir with PEG-IFN/RBV increases the effect of PEG-IFN/RBV therapy by 10–20%. However, the major complication of anemia in PEG-IFN/RBV therapy increased when telaprevir was added. Considering that PEG-IFN/RBV-based therapy is less effective on postmenopausal women, an alternative therapy with minimal side effects is needed. Add-on therapy for postmenopausal women may be a candidate for improving the SVR in these patients. We focused on the reagents, which compensate for the lack of estrogen function. Dyslipidemia and osteoporosis are the major complications in postmenopausal women, and these complications are attributable to the decrease in estrogen. Statins are clinically used reagents for dyslipidemia; they inhibit HCV RNA replication in vivo as well as in vitro [13–17]. Therefore, we investigated whether or not raloxifene exhibits anti-HCV activity using genotype 1b HCV RNA replication and genotype 2a infection systems. In the HCV life cycle, raloxifene inhibited genotype 2a HCV infection and genotypes 1b HCV RNA replication. Raloxifene may be a potential reagent with different anti-HCV mechanisms in the HCV life cycle. Further study is needed to clarify these underlying mechanisms.

Recently it was reported that vitamin D3, an osteoporotic reagent, inhibited HCV production in cell culture systems [20,21]. Furthermore, it was reported that vitamin D3 was associated with the effect of therapy for patients with CH–C [18,19]. Statins inhibited HCV RNA replication by suppressing geranylgeranyl pyrophosphate (GGPP) production [14]. Another osteoporotic reagent, bisphosphonate, may possess anti-HCV activity, because it also inhibited the biosynthesis of GGPP in the mevalonate pathway by inhibiting farnesyl pyrophosphate synthetase. Taken together, these findings indicate it is likely that the HCV life cycle is associated with osteoporosis.

Raloxifene and tamoxifen are SERMs for osteoporosis and breast cancer, respectively. Tamoxifen is used for estrogen receptor-positive breast cancer, and it inhibits HCV RNA replication in cell culture [23]. Tamoxifen's anti-HCV activity is associated with ERα. In our study, raloxifene inhibited HCV infection as well as replication. To clarify the multi-potential effects of raloxifene, further study is needed. The incidence of side effects including uterine cancer is lower in raloxifene therapy than in tamoxifen therapy [25]. This is another advantage of raloxifene in clinical use for patients with CH–C.

As for the precise role of ERα or ERβ on the HCV life cycle, we could not reach a clear conclusion because microarray analysis revealed an absence of expression for both ERα and ERβ in OR6 cells (data not shown). Hayashida et al. [22] reported that the most potent physiological estrogen, 17-β-estradiol, inhibited infectious HCV production using HuH-7.5 cells, and that ERα-selective agonist inhibited infectious HCV production whereas ERβ-selective agonist did not. Watashi et al. [23] reported that RNA interference-mediated knockdown of ERα reduced HCV RNA replication. In our study, the anti-HCV activity of raloxifene in infection and replication did not seem attributable to ERα or ERβ. It is not clear why our HuH-7-derived OR6 cells did not express ERα or ERβ. HuH-7 cells were developed in 1982 at Okayama University and distributed worldwide [26]. Recently, Bensadoun et al. [27] reported that the genetic background of the IL28B genotype of HuH-7 cells differed among different laboratories. This may be a consequence of the polyploidal nature of hepatoma cells. A similar mechanism might cause the different expression levels of ERα and ERβ. Another ER, GPR30 [28], was expressed in OR6 cells (data not shown; from microarray analysis). GPR30 may be the responsible host factor for anti-HCV activity in OR6 cells. Further study is needed to clarify this issue.

In conclusion, we found that raloxifene inhibited HCV RNA replication in genotype 1b and infection in genotype 2a. Raloxifene additively enhanced the anti-HCV activity of IFN-α. The antagonistic effects of statins and raloxifene will yield information on the clinical use of these reagents. Our results, as well as the reports of vitamin D3's anti-HCV activity, will open new fields of treatment for both osteoporosis and HCV infection.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Masayo Takemoto for her technical assistance. This work was supported by a Grant-In-Aid for Research on Hepatitis from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.fob.2012.08.003.

References

[1] Kato N. (2001) Molecular virology of hepatitis C virus. Acta Med. Okayama. 55, 133–159.
[2] Kato N., Hijikata M., Ootsuyama Y., Nakagawa M., Ohkoshi S., Sugimura T. et al. (1990) Molecular cloning of the human hepatitis C virus genome from Japanese patients with non-A, non-B hepatitis. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA. 87, 9524–9528.
[3] Tanaka T., Kato N., Cho M.J., Sugiyama K., Shimotohno K. (1996) Structure of the 3' terminus of the hepatitis C virus genome. J. Virol. 70, 3307–3312.
[4] Ikeda M., Abe K., Dansako H., Nakamura T., Naka K., Kato N. (2005) Efficient replication of a full-length hepatitis C virus genome, strain O, in cell culture, and development of a luciferase reporter system. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 329, 1350–1359.
[5] Ikeda M., Yi M., Li K., Lemon S.M. (2002) Selectable subgenomic and genome-length dicistronic RNAs derived from an infectious molecular clone of the HCV-N strain of hepatitis C virus replicate efficiently in cultured Huh7 cells. J. Virol. 76, 2997–3006.
[6] Lohmann V., Korner F., Koch J., Herian U., Theilmann L., Bartenschlager R. (1999) Replication of subgenomic hepatitis C virus RNAs in a hepatoma cell line. Science. 285, 110–113.
[7] Pietschmann T., Lohmann V., Kaul A., Krieger N., Rinck G., Rutter G. et al. (2002) Persistent and transient replication of full-length hepatitis C virus genomes in cell culture. J. Virol. 76, 4008–4021.
[8] Wakita T. (2005) Production of infectious hepatitis C virus in tissue culture from a cloned viral genome. Nat. Med. 11, 791–796.
[9] Takeda M., Ikeda M., Ariumi Y., Wakita T., Kato N (2012) Development of hepatitis C virus production reporter assay systems using two different hepatoma cell lines. J. Gen. Virol. 93, 1422–1431.
[10] McHutchison J.G. (2009) Telaprevir with peginterferon and ribavirin for chronic HCV genotype 1 infection. N. Engl. J. Med. 360, 1827–1838.
[11] Hayashi J., Kishihara Y., Ueno K., Yamaji K., Kawakami Y., Furusyo N. et al. (1998) Age-related response to interferon alfa treatment in women vs men with chronic hepatitis C virus infection. Arch. Int. Med. 158, 177–181.
[12] Iwasaki Y. (2006) Limitation of combination therapy of interferon and ribavirin for older patients with chronic hepatitis C. Hepatology. 43, 54–63.
[13] Bader T., Fazili J., Madhoun M., Aston C., Hughes D., Rizvi S. et al. (2008) Fluvastatin inhibits hepatitis C replication in humans. Am. J. Gastroenterol. 103, 1383–1389.
[14] Ikeda M., Abe K., Yamada M., Dansako H., Naka K., Kato N. (2006) Different anti-HCV profiles of statins and their potential for combination therapy with interferon. Hepatology. 44, 117–125.
[15] Ikeda M., Kato N. (2007) Life style-related diseases of the digestive system: cell culture system for the screening of anti-hepatitis C virus (HCV) reagents: suppression of HCV replication by statins and synergistic action with interferon. J. Pharmacol. Sci. 105, 145–150.
[16] Rao G.A., Pandya P.K. (2011) Statin therapy improves sustained virologic response among diabetic patients with chronic hepatitis C. Gastroenterology. 140, 144–152.
[17] Sezaki H. (2009) An open pilot study exploring the efficacy of fluvastatin, pegylated interferon and ribavirin in patients with hepatitis C virus genotype 1b in high viral loads. Intervirology. 52, 43–48.
[18] Abu-Mouch S., Fireman Z., Jarchovsky J., Zeina A.R., Assy N. (2011) Vitamin D supplementation improves sustained virologic response in chronic hepatitis C (genotype 1)-naive patients. World J. Gastroenterol. 17, 5184–5190.
[19] Bitetto D. (2011) Vitamin D supplementation improves response to antiviral treatment for recurrent hepatitis C. Transpl. Int. 24, 43–50.
[20] Gal-Tanamy M., Bachmetov L., Ravid A., Koren R., Erman A., Tur-Kaspa R. et al. (2011) Vitamin D: an innate antiviral agent suppressing hepatitis C virus in human hepatocytes. Hepatology. 54, 1570–1579.
[21] Matsumura, T., Kato, T., Sugiyama, N., Tasaka-Fujita, M., Murayama, A., Masaki, T., Wakita, T., Imawari, M. 25-hydroxyvitamin D(3) suppresses hepatitis C virus production. Hepatology, in press.
[22] Hayashida K., Shoji I., Deng L., Jiang D.P., Ide Y.H., Hotta H. (2010) 17beta-estradiol inhibits the production of infectious particles of hepatitis C virus. Microbiol. Immunol. 54, 684–690.
[23] Watashi K., Inoue D., Hijikata M., Goto K., Aly H.H., Shimotohno K. (2007) Anti-hepatitis C virus activity of tamoxifen reveals the functional association of estrogen receptor with viral RNA polymerase NS5B. J. Biol. Chem. 282, 32765–32772.
[24] Kato N. (2003) Establishment of a hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon derived from human hepatocytes infected in vitro. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 306, 756–766.
[25] Runowicz C.D., Costantino J.P., Wickerham D.L., Cecchini R.S., Cronin W.M., Ford L.G. et al. (2011) Gynecologic conditions in participants in the NSABP breast cancer prevention study of tamoxifen and raloxifene (STAR). Am. J. Obstet. Gynecol. 205, 535e1–535e5.
[26] Nakabayashi H., Taketa K., Miyano K., Yamane T., Sato J. (1982) Growth of human hepatoma cells lines with differentiated functions in chemically defined medium. Cancer Res. 42, 3858–3863.
[27] Bensadoun P., Rodriguez C., Soulier A., Higgs M., Chevaliez S., Pawlotsky J.M. (2011) Genetic background of hepatocyte cell lines: are in vitro hepatitis C virus research data reliable. Hepatology. 54, 748.
[28] Revankar C.M., Cimino D.F., Sklar L.A., Arterburn J.B., Prossnitz E.R. (2005) A transmembrane intracellular estrogen receptor mediates rapid cell signaling. Science. 307, 1625–1630.