

Supplementary

Figure 15. Base substitutions in HCV genome collected from mice serum during a secondary infection. HCV genomic sequences from mice sera with Ozagrel treatment during primary and secondary infection was compared with those from mice without any treatment during both infection experiments. The region of obtained HCV genomic sequences is indicated (*thick bar*). The nucleotide positions of each base substitution are shown (*arrows*). Positions of base substitutions, and types of base substitution and amino acid replacement are listed in the *lower panel*.

Number of substitution point	Position of nucleotide	Single base substitution	Amino acid replacement
1	3192	A→G	Asparagine→Aspartic acid
2	3264	A→G	Isoleucine→Valine
3	3596	T→A	Phenylalanine→Tyrosine
4	3597	C→T	
5	3859	C→T	Serine→Leucine
6	4283	G→A	Methionine→Isoleucine
7	4437	G→A	Glycine→Serine
8	4439	T→C	
9	5886	G→A	Valine→Methionine
10	6747	G→A	Alanine→Threonine

Supplementary Table 1. Primer Sequences and Parameters in RT-PCR Experiments

Genes	Primer Sequence 5'-3'	Product size (bp)	Annealing Temperature	Cycle
COX1	F: GCAGCTGAGTGGCTATTCC R: ATCTCCCGAGACTCCCTGAT	324	60	32
COX2	F: GCAGTTGTTCCAGACAAGCA R: GGTC AATGGAAGCCTGTGAT	383	60	35
PGES	F: GAAGAAGGCCTTTGCCAAC R: GGAAGACCAGGAAGTGCATC	200	62	35
PGDS	F: AAGGCGCGTGTCCATGTGCAAGTC R: ATTGTTCCGTCATGCACTTATC	400	55	40
PGIS	F: TCCTGGACCCACACTCCTAC R: GCGAAAGGTGTGGAAGACAT	395	60	40
TXAS	F: TCTGCATCCCAGACCTATC R: ATAGCCAGCGATGAGGAAGA	374	60	40
GAPDH	F: ATGGGGAAGGTGAAGGTCGG R: TGGAGGGATCTCGCTCCTGG	250	60	40
EP1	F: GGTATCATGGTGTGTCGTG R: GGCCTCTGGTTGTGCTTAGA	324	60	40
EP2	F: AGGAGAGGGGAAAGGGTGT R: TCTTAATGAAATCCGACAACAGAG	267	60	40
EP3	F: GACAGTCACCTTTTCTGCAAC R: AGGCGAACAGCTATTAAGAAGAAG	276	60	40
EP4	F: CAGGACATCTGAGGGCTGAC R: GTAGAAGTCTGCTCCTTCTGCTC	269	60	40
DP	F: GCAACCTCTATGCGATGCAC R: GGGTCCACAATTGAAATCAC	292	60	32
IP	F: AAGACTGGAGAGCCAGACC R: CCACGAACATCAGGGTGTG	161	60	40
TP	F: CAGATGAGGTCTCTGAAGGTGTG R: CAGAGGAAGGTGAGGAAGGAG	304	60	40

NOTE. RT-PCRs were performed as follows: 25–40 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 55–62°C for 30 seconds, and 72°C for 1 minute.

Supplementary Table 2. Primer Sequences and Parameters in qRT-PCR Experiments

Genes	Primer Sequence 5'-3'	Product Size (bp)
COX1	F: TCCGGTTCCTGCTGTTCTCG R: TCACACTGGTAGCGGTCAAG	151
PGES	F: CATCCTCTCCCTGGAAATCTCG R: CCGCTTCTACTGTGACCC	129
PGDS	F: CCTGTCCACCTTGACAGTC R: TCATGCTTCGGTTCAGGACG	123
PGIS	F: GCAGTGTCAAAAGTCGCCTG R: ACTCTCCAGCCATTTGCTCC	83
TXAS	F: TTTGCTTGGTTGCCTGTTC R: CCAGAGTGGTGTCTTCCAG	99
GAPDH	F: GACAGTCAGCCGATCTTCT R: GCGCCCAATACGACCAATC	104

NOTE. qRT-PCRs were performed as follows: 40 cycles of 95°C for 5 seconds, 60°C for 34 seconds.



PML tumor suppressor protein is required for HCV production

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ABSTRACT

PML tumor suppressor protein, which forms discrete nuclear structures termed PML-nuclear bodies, has been associated with several cellular functions, including cell proliferation, apoptosis and antiviral defense. Recently, it was reported that the HCV core protein colocalizes with PML in PML-NBs and abrogates the PML function through interaction with PML. However, role(s) of PML in HCV life cycle is unknown. To test whether or not PML affects HCV life cycle, we examined the level of secreted HCV core and the infectivity of HCV in the culture supernatants as well as the level of HCV RNA in HuH-7-derived RSc cells, in which HCV-JFH1 can infect and efficiently replicate, stably expressing short hairpin RNA targeted to PML. In this context, the level of secreted HCV core and the infectivity in the supernatants from PML knockdown cells was remarkably reduced, whereas the level of HCV RNA in the PML knockdown cells was not significantly affected in spite of very effective knockdown of PML. In fact, we showed that PML is unrelated to HCV RNA replication using the subgenomic HCV-JFH1 replicon RNA, JRN/3-5B. Furthermore, the infectivity of HCV-like particle in the culture supernatants was significantly reduced in PML knockdown JRN/3-5B cells expressing core to NS2 coding region of HCV-JFH1 genome using the *trans*-packaging system. Finally, we also demonstrated that INI1 and DDX5, the PML-related proteins, are involved in HCV production. Taken together, these findings suggest that PML is required for HCV production.

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1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is the causative agent of 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 3000 amino acid residues. 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 [1,2]. HCV core protein forms a viral capsid and is essential for infectious virion production. The core protein is targeted to lipid droplets. Recently, lipid droplets have been found to be involved in an important cytoplasmic organelle for HCV production [3].

In addition, HCV core has been reported to facilitate cellular transformation as well as development of hepatocellular

carcinoma in HCV core-transgenic mice [4]. Interactions of core with tumor suppressor proteins such as p53 and DDX3 may lead to enhanced cellular proliferation [4]. Indeed, HCV core interacts with promyelocytic leukemia (PML) protein and inhibits the PML tumor suppressor pathway through interfering with the PML-mediated apoptosis-inducing function [5]. PML forms discrete nuclear structures termed PML-nuclear bodies (PML-NBs) and associates with several cellular functions, including cell proliferation, apoptosis and antiviral defense [6,7]. In acute promyelocytic leukemia (APL) patient, the PML gene is fused with the retinoic acid receptor- α (RAR α) gene, thus resulting in expression of an oncogenic PML-RAR α fusion protein [6,7]. Conversely, treatment of APL patient with arsenic trioxide leads to reformation of PML-NBs and results in disease remission [6,7], indicating that PML is a target of arsenic trioxide. Interestingly, we have recently demonstrated that arsenic trioxide strongly inhibited HCV infection and HCV RNA replication without cell toxicity [8]. However, the role of PML in HCV life cycle yet remains unclear. To investigate the possible involvement of PML in HCV life cycle, we examined the accumulation of HCV RNA as well as the release of HCV core into culture

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supernatants from cells rendered defective for PML by RNA interference. The results provide evidence that PML is required for HCV production.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture

293FT cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). The three HuH-7-derived cell lines: RSc cured cells that cell culture-generated HCV-JFH1 (JFH1 strain of genotype 2a) [9] could infect and effectively replicate [10–13], OR6c cells is cured cells of OR6 cells harboring the genome-length HCV-O RNA with luciferase as a reporter [14] or OR6c JRN/3-5B cells harboring the subgenome HCV-JFH1 RNA with luciferase as a reporter were cultured in DMEM with 10% FBS as described previously [13].

2.2. RNA interference

Oligonucleotides with the following sense and antisense sequences were used for the cloning of short hairpin RNA (shRNA)-encoding sequences targeted to DDX5 in a lentiviral vector: 5'-GATCCCCCTCTAATGTGGAGTGC GACTTCAAGAGAGTCCACTCCACA TTAGAGTTTTTGAAA-3' (sense), 5'-AGCTTTTCCAAAACTCTAATGT GGAGTGC GACTCTCTTGAAGTGC GACTCCACATTAGAGGGG-3' (antisense). The oligonucleotides above were annealed and subcloned into the *Bgl*II-*Hind*III site, downstream from an RNA polymerase III promoter of pSUPER [15], to generate pSUPER-DDX5i. To construct pLV-DDX5i, the *Bam*HI-*Sall* fragments of the pSUPER-DDX5i were subcloned into the *Bam*HI-*Sall* site of pRDI292, an HIV-1-derived self-inactivating lentiviral vector containing a puromycin resistance marker allowing for the selection of transduced cells [16]. We previously described pLV-PMLi [8] and pLV-INI1i [17], respectively.

2.3. Lentiviral vector production

The vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV)-G-pseudotyped HIV-1-based vector system has been described previously [18,19]. The lentiviral vector particles were produced by transient transfection of the second-generation packaging construct pCMV- Δ R8.91 [18,19] and the VSV-G-envelope-expressing plasmid pMDG2 as well as pLV-PMLi into 293FT cells with FuGene6 (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany).

2.4. HCV infection experiments

The supernatants was collected from cell culture-generated HCV-JFH1-infected RSc cells at 5 days post-infection and stored at -80°C after filtering through a $0.45\ \mu\text{m}$ filter (Kurabo, Osaka, Japan) until use. For infection experiments with HCV-JFH1 virus or J6/JFH1 [20], RSc cells (5×10^4 cells/well) were plated onto 6-well plates and cultured for 24 h (hrs). We then infected the cells at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.05. The culture supernatants were collected at the indicated time post-infection and the levels of the core protein were determined by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Mitsubishi Kagaku Bio-Clinical Laboratories, Tokyo, Japan). Total RNA was isolated from the infected cellular lysates using RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) for quantitative RT-PCR analysis of intracellular HCV RNA. The infectivity of HCV-JFH1 in the culture supernatants was determined by a focus-forming assay at 48 h post-infection.

2.5. Quantitative RT-PCR analysis

The quantitative RT-PCR analysis for HCV RNA was performed by real-time LightCycler PCR (Roche) as described previously [14]. We used the following forward and reverse primer sets for the real-time LightCycler PCR: PML, 5'-GAGGAGTCCAGTTTCT GCG-3' (forward), 5'-GCGCCTGGCAGATGGGGCAC-3' (reverse); DDX5, 5'-ATGTCGGGTATTTCGAGTGA-3' (forward), 5'-TTTCTCC CAGGGTTTCCAA-3' (reverse); INI1, 5'-ATGATGATGATGGCGCTG AG-3' (forward), 5'-TCGGAACATACGGAGGTAGT-3' (reverse); β -actin, 5'-TGACGGGTCCACCACTG-3' (forward), 5'-AAGCTGTAG CCGCGCTCGGT-3' (reverse); and HCV-JFH1, 5'-AGAGCCATAGTGGT CTGCGG-3' (forward), 5'-CTTTCGCAACCAACGCTAC-3' (reverse).

2.6. Western blot analysis

Cells were lysed in buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl, 4 mM EDTA, 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 1 mM dithiothreitol and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Supernatants from these lysates were subjected to SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, followed by immunoblot analysis using anti-HCV core (CP-9 and CP-11; Institute of Immunology, Tokyo, Japan) or anti- β -actin antibody (Sigma).

2.7. WST-1 assay

RSc or OR6c JRN/3-5B cells (1×10^3 cells/well) were plated onto 96-well plates and cultured. The cells were subjected to the WST-1 cell proliferation assay (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The absorbance was read using a microplate reader at 440 nm with a reference wavelength of 690 nm.

2.8. Renilla luciferase (RL) assay

OR6c JRN/3-5B cells (1.5×10^4 cells/well) were plated onto 24-well plates and cultured for 72 h, then, subjected to the RL assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). A lumat LB9507 luminometer (Berthold, Bad Wildbad, Germany) was used to detect RL activity.

2.9. RNA synthesis and transfection

Plasmid pJRN/3-5B was linearized by digestion with *Xba*I and was used for RNA synthesis with T7 MEGAscript (Ambion) as previously described [13]. *In vitro* transcribed RNA was transfected into OR6c cells by electroporation as described previously [14].

2.10. Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopic analysis

Cells were fixed in 3.6% formaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), permeabilized in 0.1% Nonidet P-40 in PBS at room temperature, and incubated with anti-PML antibody (PM001, MBL) and anti-HCV core at a 1:300 dilution in PBS containing 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA) at 37°C for 30 min. They were then stained with anti-Cy3-conjugated anti-mouse antibody (Jackson Immuno-Research, West Grove, PA) or Alexa Fluor 647-conjugated anti-rabbit antibody (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) at a 1:300 dilution in PBS containing BSA at 37°C for 30 min. Lipid droplets and nuclei were stained with BODIPY 493/503 (Molecular Probes, Invitrogen) and DAPI (4',6'-diamidino-2-phenylindole), respectively. Following extensive washing in PBS, the cells were mounted on slides using a mounting media of SlowFade Gold antifade reagent (Invitrogen) added to reduce fading. Samples were viewed under a confocal laser-scanning microscope (FV1000; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

3. Results

3.1. PML is involved in the propagation of HCV

To investigate the potential role(s) of PML in HCV life cycle, we first used lentiviral vector-mediated RNA interference to stably knockdown PML in HuH-7-derived RSc cells that HCV-JFH1 [9] could infect and effectively replicate [10–13]. Real-time RT-PCR analysis for PML demonstrated a very effective knockdown of PML in RSc cells transduced with lentiviral vector expressing shRNA targeted to PML (Fig. 1A). To test the cell toxicity of shRNA, we examined WST-1 assay. In spite of very effective knockdown of PML, we demonstrated that the shRNA targeted to PML did not affect the cell viabilities (Fig. 1B). We next examined the level of secreted HCV core and the infectivity of HCV in the culture supernatants as well as the level of HCV RNA in PML knockdown RSc cells 24, 48, or 72 h after HCV-JFH1 infection at an MOI of 0.05. The results showed that the level of HCV RNA in PML knockdown cells was not affected until 72 h post-infection (Fig. 1C), while the release of HCV core protein into the culture supernatants

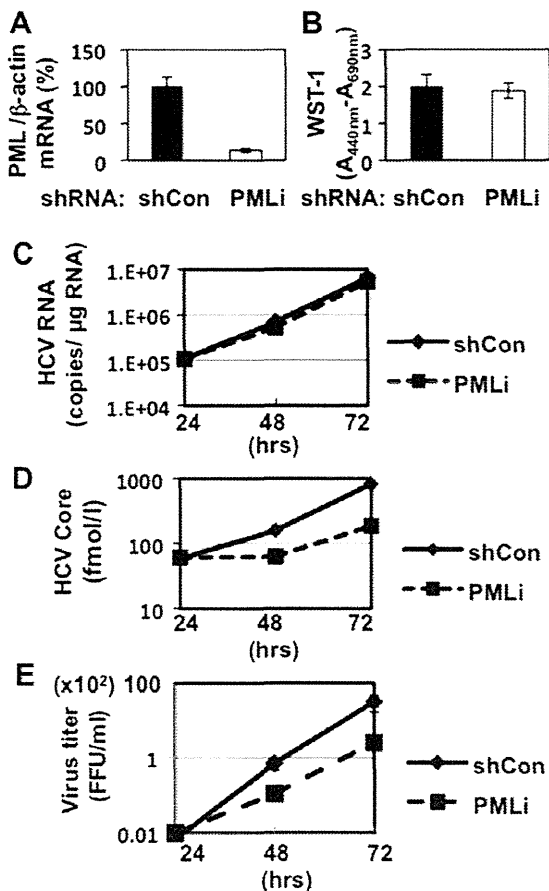


Fig. 1. PML is required for infectious HCV production. (A) Inhibition of PML mRNA expression by the shRNA-producing lentiviral vector. Real-time LightCycler RT-PCR for PML was performed as well as for β -actin mRNA. Each mRNA level was calculated relative to the level in RSc cells transduced with a control lentiviral vector (shCon) which was assigned as 100%. (B) WST-1 assay of the PML knockdown (PMLi) or the control (shCon) RSc cells. (C) The levels of intracellular genome-length HCV-JFH1 RNA in the PML knockdown or the control cells at 24, 48 or 72 h post-infection at an MOI of 0.05 were monitored by real-time LightCycler RT-PCR. (D) The levels of HCV core in the culture supernatants from the PML knockdown or the control RSc cells 24, 48 or 72 h after inoculation of HCV-JFH1 were determined by ELISA. (E) The infectivity of HCV in the culture supernatants was determined by a focus-forming assay at 48 h post-infection. All experiments were done in triplicate.

was significantly suppressed in PML knockdown cells at 48 or 72 h post-infection (Fig. 1D). Consistent with this finding, the infectivity of HCV in the culture supernatants was also significantly suppressed in the PML knockdown cells at 48 or 72 h post-infection (Fig. 1E). We also obtained similar results using siRNA specific for human PML (siGENOME SMART pool M-006547-01-0005, Dharmacon, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) (data not shown). These results suggested that PML is associated with propagation of HCV.

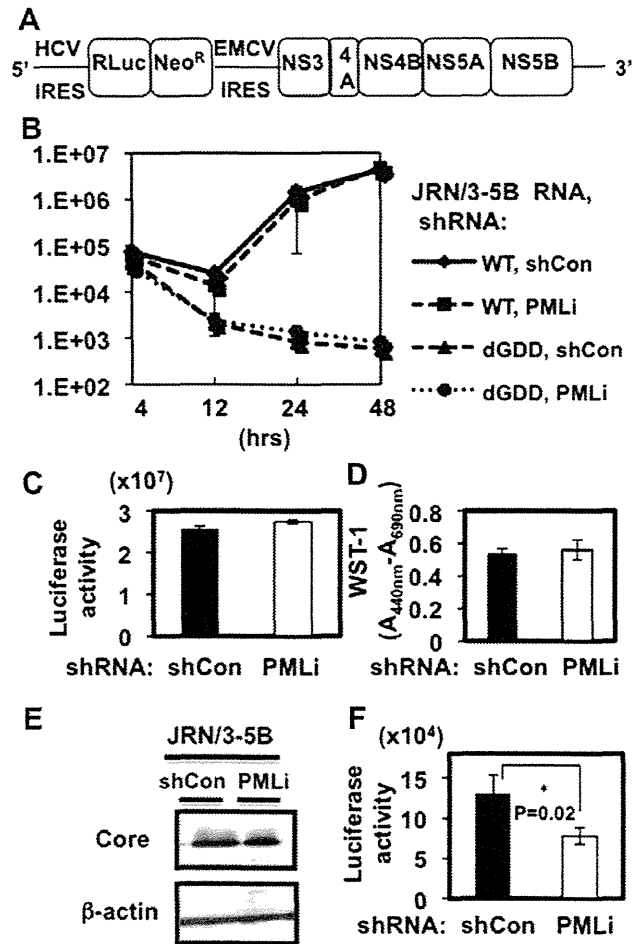


Fig. 2. PML is unrelated to the HCV RNA replication. Schematic gene organization of subgenomic JFH1 (JRN/3-5B) RNA encoding *Renilla* luciferase (RL) gene. *Renilla* luciferase gene (RLuc) is depicted as a box and is expressed as a fusion protein with Neo. (B) The transient replication of subgenomic HCV-JFH1 replicon in the PML knockdown (PMLi) or the control OR6c cells (shCon) after electroporation of *in vitro* transcribed JRN/3-5B RNA (10 μ g) was monitored by RL assay at the indicated time. The results of *Renilla* luciferase activity are shown. dGDD indicates the deletion of the GDD motif in the NS5B polymerase, and the subgenomic HCV replicon with the deletion of GDD was used as a negative control. (C) The level of HCV RNA replication in PML knockdown (PMLi) or the control (shCon) OR6c JRN/3-5B cells was monitored by RL assay. The results shown are means from three independent experiments. (D) WST-1 assay of the PML knockdown or the control JRN/3-5B cells. (E) The level of HCV core protein in OR6c JRN/3-5B cells by expression of HCV core to NS2 coding region of HCV-JFH1 using mouse retroviral vector, pCX4bsr-JFH1-myc-C-NS2 and pMDG2 were cotransfected into Plat-E cells, mouse retroviral packaging cells. Mouse retroviral vector was obtained from their culture supernatants and transduced into OR6c JRN/3-5B PML knockdown or the control cells. The results of Western blot analysis of cellular lysates with anti-HCV core or an anti β -actin antibody are shown. (F) The level of HCV RNA replication in RSc cells 72 h after inoculation of HCV-like particles produced using *trans*-packaging system was monitored by RL assay. Asterisk indicates significant difference compared to the control. * P = 0.02.

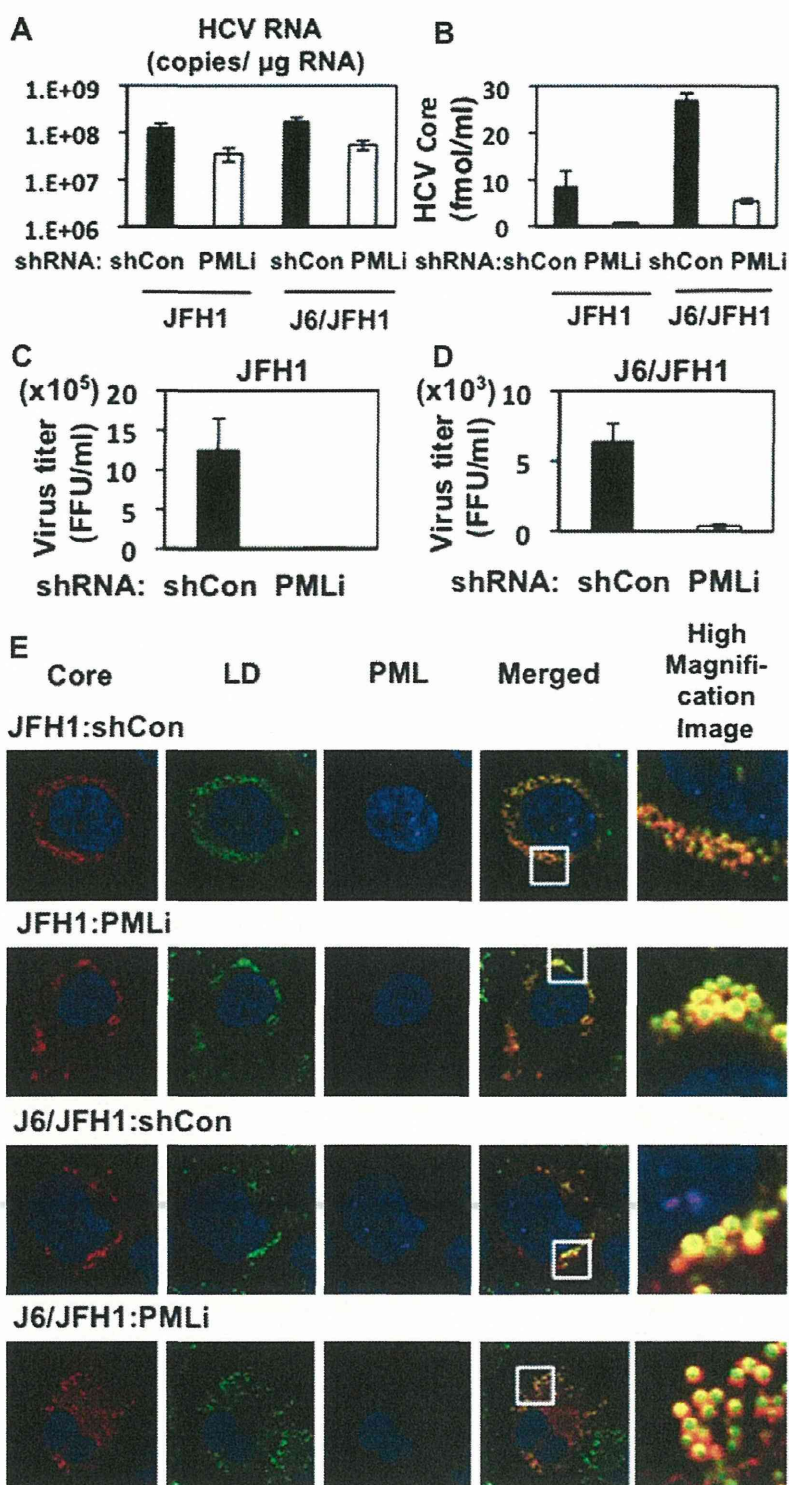


Fig. 3. PML is dispensable for the localization of HCV core to lipid droplet. (A) The levels of intracellular HCV RNA in PML knockdown or the control RSc cells 96 h after inoculation of HCV-JFH1 or HCV-J6/JFH1 were monitored by real-time LightCycler RT-PCR. Results from three independent experiments are shown (A–C). (B) The levels of HCV core in the culture supernatants from the PML knockdown RSc cells at 96 h post-infection were determined by ELISA. (C, D) The infectivity of HCV in the culture supernatants was determined by a focus-forming assay at 48 h post-infection. (E) HCV core localizes to lipid droplet (LD) in the PML knockdown (PMLi) or the control (shCon) cells after infection with either HCV-JFH1 or HCV-J6/JFH1. Cells were fixed 72 h post-infection and were then examined by confocal laser scanning microscopy.

3.2. PML is unrelated to HCV RNA replication

To examine whether or not PML is involved in HCV RNA replication, we used the subgenomic replicon RNA of HCV-JFH1, JRN/

3-5B, encoding *Renilla* luciferase gene for monitoring the HCV RNA replication (Fig. 2A). *In vitro* transcribed JRN/3-5B RNA was transfected into the PML knockdown OR6c cells by electroporation and we examined the luciferase activity. Consequently, the

luciferase activity in the PML knockdown cells was similar to that of the control cells (Fig. 2B), indicating that shRNA targeted to PML could not affect the transient HCV RNA replication. As well, the level of HCV RNA in PML knockdown HuH-7-derived OR6c JRN/3-5B cells harboring the subgenomic replicon RNA of HCV-JFH1 and the cell growth was not affected (Fig. 2C and D), suggesting that PML is unrelated to the HCV RNA replication. To further confirm whether or not PML is involved in HCV production, we used *trans*-packaging system [21,22], that HCV subgenomic replicon was efficiently encapsidated into infectious virus-like particles by expression of HCV core to NS2 coding region. In fact, infectious HCV-like particles were produced and released into the culture medium from PML knockdown JRN/3-5B cells stably expressing core to NS2 coding region of HCV-JFH1 genome by mouse retroviral vector (Fig. 2E). We could monitor the HCV RNA replication by *Renilla* luciferase assay in target naïve RSc cells after the inoculation of infectious HCV-like particles. Consequently, the release of infectious HCV-like particles into the culture supernatants was significantly suppressed in PML knockdown cells at 72 h post-infection (Fig. 2F). Thus, we conclude that PML is associated with HCV production.

3.3. PML is required for the late step in the HCV-JFH1 life cycle

To avoid the possibility of specific finding when we only used HCV-JFH1, we examined another strain of HCV-J6/JFH1 [20]. For this, we analyzed the level of HCV core and the infectivity in the culture supernatant as well as the level of HCV RNA in the PML knockdown RSc cells 96 h after inoculation of HCV-J6/JFH1. In this context, the level of HCV RNA in PML knockdown cells was only somewhat decreased (Fig. 3A), while the level of core and the infectivity in the culture supernatants was remarkably reduced (Fig. 3B–D), indicating that PML is required for infectious HCV-J6/JFH1 production as well as HCV-JFH1.

Since lipid droplets have been shown to be involved in an important cytoplasmic organelle for HCV production [3], we performed immunofluorescence and confocal microscopic analyses to determine whether or not HCV core misses localization into lipid droplets in the PML knockdown cells. We found that the core protein was targeted into lipid droplets even in PML knockdown RSc cells as well as in the control RSc cells after infection with either HCV-JFH1 or HCV-J6/JFH1 (Fig. 3E). This suggests that PML plays a role in the late step after the core is targeted into lipid droplet in the HCV life cycle. Importantly, HCV did not disrupt the formation of PML-NBs in response to HCV infection (Fig. 3E) unlike HIV-1 and other DNA viruses [6,7,23].

3.4. INI1 and DDX5, PML-related proteins, are involved in HCV production

Finally, we established the INI1 or DDX5, PML-related protein [23,24], knockdown RSc or OR6c JRN/3-5B cells by lentiviral vector expressing shRNA target to INI1 [17] or DDX5 to examine potential role of INI1 and DDX5 in HCV life cycle. Consequently, we found that the release of HCV core or the infectivity of HCV into the culture supernatants was significantly suppressed in the INI1 or DDX5 knockdown RSc cells 96 h after HCV-JFH1 infection, while the RNA replication in the knockdown cells was only somewhat decreased in spite of the very effective knockdown of INI1 or DDX5 mRNA without growth inhibition (Fig. 4A–F), suggesting that INI1 and DDX5 are involved in HCV life cycle. To confirm whether or not these proteins are involved in HCV RNA replication, we examined the luciferase assay in the INI1 or DDX5 knockdown OR6c JRN/3-5B cells. In this context, the shRNA target to INI1 or DDX5 did not affect the luciferase activity and the cell growth in these

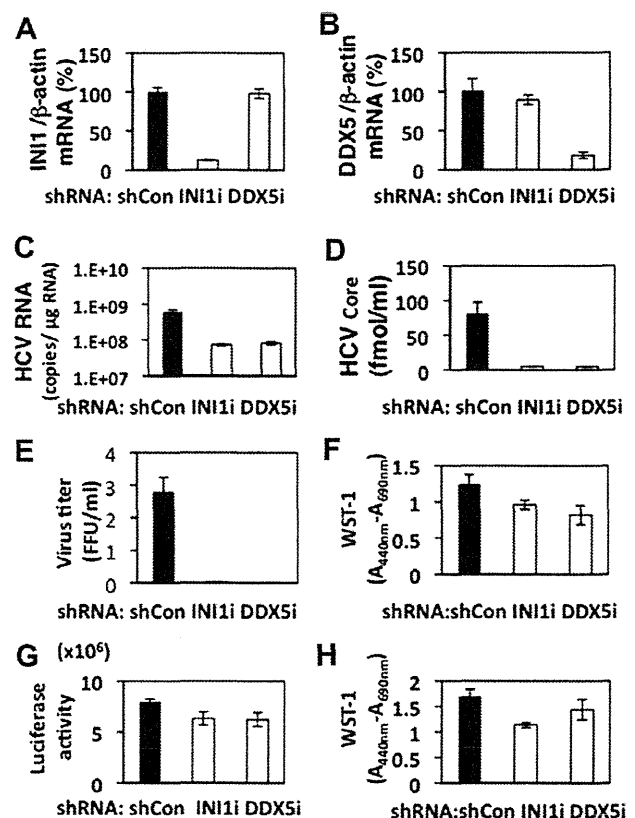


Fig. 4. INI1 and DDX5, PML-related proteins, are required for HCV production. (A, B) Inhibition of INI1 and DDX5 mRNA expressions by the shRNA-producing lentiviral vector. Real-time LightCycler RT-PCR for INI1 and DDX5 was performed as well as for β -actin mRNA in triplicate. Each mRNA level was calculated relative to the level in RSc cells transduced with a control lentiviral vector (Con) which was assigned as 100%. (C) The levels of intracellular genome-length HCV-JFH1 RNA in each knockdown cells at 96 h post-infection at an MOI of 0.05 were monitored by real-time LightCycler RT-PCR. (D) The levels of HCV core in the culture supernatants from the INI1 (INI1i) or DDX5 knockdown (DDX5i) RSc cells 96 h after inoculation of HCV-JFH1 were determined by ELISA. (E) The infectivity of HCV-JFH1 in the culture supernatants was determined by a focus-forming assay at 48 h post-infection. Virus titer is shown as ($\times 10^7$) FFU/ml. (F) WST-1 assay of each knockdown RSc cells at 96 h post-infection. (G) The HCV RNA replication level in INI1 and DDX5 knockdown OR6c JRN/3-5B cells was monitored by RL assay. (H) WST-1 assay of each knockdown OR6c JRN/3-5B cells. All results shown are means from three independent experiments.

knockdown cells (Fig. 4G and H), suggesting that both INI1 and DDX5 are required for HCV production like PML.

4. Discussion

So far, the PML tumor suppressor protein, which forms PML-NBs, has been implicated in host antiviral defenses [6,7]. In fact, PML is induced by interferon after viral infection and suppresses some viral replication [6,7]. In contrast, PML-NBs are often disrupted or sequestered in the cytoplasm by infection with several DNA or RNA viruses to protect from the antiviral function of PML [6,7,23]. In case of HCV, Herzer et al. recently reported that the HCV core protein colocalizes with PML in PML-NBs and abrogates the PML function through interaction with PML isoform IV by over-expression studies [5]. However, we did not observe such colocalization of HCV core with PML and HCV did not affect the formation of PML-NBs in response to HCV-JFH1 infection (Fig. 3E). Interestingly, Watashi et al., previously demonstrated the HCV core modulates the retinoid signaling pathway through sequestration of

Sp110b, PML-related potent transcriptional corepressor of retinoic acid receptor, in the cytoplasm from nucleus [25].

In contrast, we have demonstrated that PML is required for infectious HCV production (Fig. 1). However, the molecular mechanism(s) how PML regulates HCV production yet remains unclear. At least, PML seems to be unrelated to the HCV RNA replication (Fig. 2). In this regard, several host factors including apolipoprotein E, components of ESCRT system, and PA28 γ have been implicated in infectious HCV production [13,26,27]. Indeed, PA28 γ , a proteasome activator, interacts with HCV core and affects nuclear retention and stability of the core protein. Importantly, PA28 γ participates in the propagation of infectious HCV by regulation of degradation of the core protein [27]. Intriguingly, Zannini reported that PA28 γ interacts with PML and Chk2 and affects PML-NBs number [28]. Accordingly, we demonstrated that ATM and Chk2, which phosphorylates PML and regulates the PML function, are involved in HCV life cycle [11]. In addition, other PML-related proteins such as INI1 and DDX5 seem to be involved in HCV production (Fig. 4). Indeed, INI1, also known as hSNF5, is incorporated into HIV-1 virion and is required for efficient HIV-1 production [29]. On the other hand, cytoplasmic PML may be involved in HCV production, since endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and lipid droplets are important cytoplasmic organelle for the HCV life cycle. In this regard, Giorgi et al. recently reported that cytoplasmic PML specifically enriches at ER [30], suggesting that cytoplasmic PML may be associated with HCV production. Altogether, the PML pathway seems to be involved in infectious HCV production.

Acknowledgments

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REVIEW

***In vitro* models for analysis of the hepatitis C virus life cycle**

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ABSTRACT

Chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection affects approximately 170 million people worldwide. HCV infection is a major global health problem as it can be complicated with liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. So far, there is no vaccine available and the non-specific, interferon (IFN)-based treatments now in use have significant side-effects and are frequently ineffective, as only approximately 50% of treated patients with genotypes 1 and 4 demonstrate HCV clearance. The lack of suitable *in vitro* and *in vivo* models for the analysis of HCV infection has hampered elucidation of the HCV life cycle and the development of both protective and therapeutic strategies against HCV infection. The present review focuses on the progress made towards the establishment of such models.

Key words hepatitis C virus, HuH-7 cell, knockout mice, type I interferon.

Chronic HCV infection is a major cause of mortality and morbidity throughout the world, infecting approximately 3.1% of the world's population (1). Only a fraction of acutely infected individuals are able to clear the infection spontaneously, whereas approximately 80% of infected individuals develop a chronic infection (2, 3). Patients with chronic HCV are at increased risk for developing liver fibrosis, cirrhosis, and/or hepatocellular carcinoma. Currently, these long-term complications of chronic HCV infection are the leading indication for liver transplantation (4, 5). Because of the high incidence of new infections by blood transfusions in the 1980s before the discovery of the virus, and because morbidity associated with chronic HCV infection generally takes decades to develop, it is expected that the burden of disease in the near future will rise dramatically.

HCV is an enveloped flavivirus, with a positive-stranded RNA genome of approximately 9600 nucleotides. The coding region is flanked by 5' and 3' non-coding regions, which are important for the initiation of translation and regulation of genomic duplication, respectively. The coding region itself is composed of a single open reading frame, which encodes a polyprotein precursor of approximately 3000 amino acids. This polyprotein is cleaved by host and viral proteases into structural and NS proteins (Fig. 1). Replication of the HCV genome involves the synthesis of a full-length negative-stranded RNA intermediate, which in turn provides a template for the *de novo* production of positive-stranded RNA. Both these synthesis steps are mediated by the viral RNA-dependent RNA polymerase NS5B (6–8). NS5B lacks proofreading abilities, and this leads to a high mutation rate and the

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List of Abbreviations: 3-D, three-dimensional; 3-D/HF, three-dimensional hollow fiber system; bbHCV, blood borne hepatitis C virus; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HPV/E6E7, human papilloma virus E6/E7 genes; IFN, interferon; IFNAR, interferon A receptor; IRES, internal ribosome entry site; ko, knockout; MDA-5, melanoma differentiation associated gene 5; MEF, mouse embryo fibroblasts; mir199, micro RNA 199; NS proteins, non-structural proteins; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; RFB, radial flow bioreactor; RIG-I, retinoic acid-inducible gene I; TLR, Toll-like receptor; uPA, urokinase plasminogen activator.

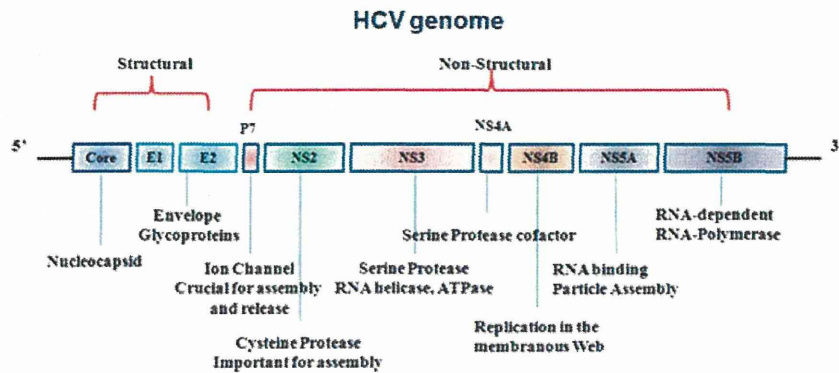


Fig. 1. Genomic structure of HCV. Genomic organization of wild-type HCV. The HCV-RNA genome consists of a major open reading frame, encoding a single polyprotein, and an alternative reading frame encoding F-proteins with unknown functions. The cleavage of the polyprotein by viral and host cell proteases gives rise to the mature structural (core, envelope proteins E1 and E2, and p7) and NS viral proteins (NS2 through NS5B). The putative activities and functions of viral proteins are indicated. The IRES located in the 5' non-coding region initiates ribosome binding and translation. Both the 5' and 3' non-coding regions are essential for viral RNA replication involving the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase NS5B. NTPase, nucleotide triphosphatase.

generation of numerous quasispecies. HCV isolates can be classified into seven major genotypes, which vary in sequence by more than 30%. In addition to the distinct prevalence and global spread of the virus, the genotype is an important factor determining disease progression and responses to antiviral therapy (9).

Currently, the only licensed treatment for HCV is the combination of (pegylated)-interferon-alpha (IFN- α) and ribavirin. Although the success rate of treatment has improved substantially, standard therapy is not effective in all patients. Moreover, severe adverse effects and high costs limit the compliance and global application of this treatment. The development of prophylaxis and novel therapeutics to treat HCV infection has been hampered by the lack of suitable *in vitro* and *in vivo* culture systems. In this review, we describe the development of *in vitro* culture systems for HCV.

Tissue culture-adapted HCV (sub-)genomic replicons

Dr Bartenschlager's group was the first to establish a convenient reproducible *in vitro* cell culture system for the study of HCV replication (10). They created antibiotic-resistant HCV genomes to select replication-competent viral clones by conveying antibiotic resistance to cells. This was achieved by replacing the structural protein-coding sequences, as well as p7 of the consensus genome Con1, by the neomycin resistance gene. In addition, a second IRES was introduced to promote translation of the non-structural protein-coding sequences important for viral replication (Fig. 2). Upon transfection of these so-called subgenomic replicons in specific cell lines, drug-resistant cell colonies were isolated in which high levels

of viral replication occurred. Subsequent analysis confirmed that these HCV replicons indeed were capable of self-amplification through synthesis of a negative-strand replication intermediate, and could be stably propagated in cell culture for many years (10, 11).

HCV replication was supported by several cell types such as HuH6 (12), HepG2 (13), Li23 (14), and 293 cells (15), with the human hepatoma cell line HuH-7 being the most permissive (16). Interestingly, removal of replicon RNA from these cell clones by treatment with type 1 IFN rendered the cells more permissive to reintroduction of replicons, resulting in higher replication rates. Examples of these highly permissive cells are HuH-7.5 and HuH-7-Lunet cells (16, 17). The efficient replication in the replicon systems was found to depend on tissue-culture-adaptive mutations. Introduction of these specific mutations in the wild-type consensus sequence significantly enhanced viral replication *in vitro* (18–22). Mutational hot spots were found clustered primarily in the NS3, NS4B, and NS5A regions. The mechanisms behind the enhanced replication caused by these tissue-culture-adaptive mutations are still largely unknown, and the interesting fact that these mutations are not commonly found in patients suggests that these may have a toll on the viral fitness.

HCV replicons have proven to be extremely valuable for studies on the process of HCV replication, as well as for testing novel antiviral compounds that specifically target the protease activity of NS3 or the polymerase activity of NS5 (23).

Cell culture-derived infectious HCV

Studies using HCV replicons have provided detailed knowledge on the mechanisms of replication of HCV.