but IPS-1 and type I IFN are minimally involved in poly(I:C)-mediated CTL proliferation. In addition to TICAM-1-dependent CTL activation, DC-mediated NK cell activation is also important for adjuvancy of TLR3 ligands. Akazawa et al.[88] showed that the TLR3–TICAM-1 pathway is essential for poly(I:C)-induced NK cell-mediated tumor regression in a syngeneic mouse tumor implant model. NK cell activation requires cell–cell contact with BMDCs preactivated by poly(I:C), but not IFN-α or IL-12. TICAM-1–IRF3-dependent expression of INAM in myeloid DCs is required for NK activation.[90] Further, Shime et al.[110] recently reported that TLR3–TICAM-1 signaling converts tumor-supporting myeloid cells to tumoricidal effectors. Thus, the TLR3–TICAM-1 pathway is not only important to mature myeloid DCs for cross-priming and NK cell activation in the induction of tumor immunity, but also critically engaged in tumor suppression by converting tumor-supporting macrophages to those with tumoricidal properties.[111]

Although poly(I:C) has pivotal antitumor activity, the use of poly(I:C) as a vaccine adjuvant is restricted by severe side effects.[112,113] As described above, poly(I:C) activates both TLR3 and MDA5, although the transporting mechanisms are unknown, resulting in the strong induction of type I IFNs, proinflammatory cytokines, and chemokines that are likely responsible for poly(I:C)-induced side effects. Therefore, it is important to devise an effective means for specific delivery of TLR3 ligands to TLR3-positive endosomes or new TLR3 ligands that activate TLR3 alone. Identification of the putative dsRNA uptake receptor is crucial for analyzing the intracellular transport of dsRNA. Further, clarification of the differences between the RLR–IPS-1- and TLR3–TICAM-1-mediated signaling pathways is important for assessment of dsRNA-induced immune responses.

6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Accumulating evidence indicates that innate immune signaling is compartmentally regulated in PRRs and signaling adaptors, which is important for determination of cellular responses. TLR3- and TLR4-mediated signaling for IFN-β production is initiated from early endosomes through the recruitment of naïve TICAM-1 to endosomal TLR3 and TICAM-2, respectively. TICAM-1 then oligomerizes and forms a speckle-like signalosome with downstream signaling molecules in the cytosol apart from endosomes. Although there is a wide range of signaling cascades downstream from TICAM-1, including type I and type III IFN production,

proinflammatory cytokine production, DC-mediated NK and CTL activation, and induction of apoptosis and necroptosis, it is unknown whether or not distinct TICAM-1 signalosomes are formed and how TICAM-1 signaling is regulated according to stimuli. Further, localization sites of TICAM-1 signalosome have not been clearly defined. Proteomic analyses of the TICAM-1 signalosome using different stimuli and responding cells may give new insight into the TICAM-1 function linking innate immunity to adaptive immunity.

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Short Communication

Production of single-round infectious chimeric flaviviruses with DNA-based Japanese encephalitis virus replicon

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A method for rapid production of single-round infectious particles (SRIPs) of flavivirus would be useful for viral mutagenesis studies. Here, we established a DNA-based production system for SRIPs of flavivirus. We constructed a Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) subgenomic replicon plasmid, which lacked the C-prM-E (capsid–pre-membrane–envelope) coding region, under the control of the cytomegalovirus promoter. When the JEV replicon plasmid was transiently co-transfected with a JEV C-prM-E expression plasmid into 293T cells, SRIPs were produced, indicating successful *trans*-complementation with JEV structural proteins. Equivalent production levels were observed when C and prM–E proteins were provided separately. Furthermore, dengue types 1–4, West Nile, yellow fever or tick-borne encephalitis virus prM-E proteins could be utilized for production of chimaeric flavivirus SRIPs, although the production was less efficient for dengue and yellow fever viruses. These results indicated that our plasmid-based system is suitable for investigating the life cycles of flaviviruses, diagnostic applications and development of safer vaccine candidates.

Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) is the leading cause of viral encephalitis with severe mortality in eastern and south-eastern Asia, and is estimated to be responsible for 67 900 cases annually, mostly in children (Campbell *et al.*, 2011). The virus is transmitted by *Culex* mosquito vectors between pigs and/or wild birds, and humans and horses are thought to be dead-end hosts. JEV is a member of the genus *Flavivirus* within the family *Flaviviridae*, which includes dengue virus (DENV), West Nile virus (WNV), yellow fever virus (YFV) and tick-borne encephalitis virus (TBEV). JEV is an enveloped single-stranded positive-sense RNA virus with an 11 kb genome that is translated as a single large polyprotein. The polyprotein is co-translationally cleaved by host and viral proteases into three structural proteins – capsid (C), pre-membrane (prM) and envelope

(E) – and seven non-structural (NS) proteins (Sumiyoshi *et al.*, 1987).

For several flaviviruses, subgenomic replicons, which lack structural protein genes but can replicate in cells, have been constructed (Khromykh & Westaway, 1997; Pang *et al.*, 2001; Shi *et al.*, 2002). In addition, the expression of viral structural proteins in cells harbouring replicon RNA has been shown to produce single-round infectious particles (SRIPs), which are infectious, but progeny viruses cannot be spread from the infected cells, as the packaged genome lacks structural protein genes (Gehrke *et al.*, 2003; Jones *et al.*, 2005; Khromykh *et al.*, 1998; Ng *et al.*, 2007; Scholle *et al.*, 2004; Yun *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, *trans*-packaging of replicons by the prM-E proteins from heterologous flaviviruses have been reported (Ansarah-Sobrinho *et al.*, 2008; Yoshii *et al.*, 2008).

A method for rapidly producing SRIPs of flaviviruses would be useful for viral mutagenesis studies, diagnostic applications and the production of vaccines with reduced

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One supplementary figure is available with the online version of this paper.

risk of infection. In this study, to establish a DNA-based production system for SRIPs, we constructed a JEV subgenomic replicon plasmid, which lacked the C-prM-E coding region, under the control of the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter. As DNA-based replicons can be transfected directly into eukaryotic cells without *in vitro* transcription, SRIPs can be rapidly produced by co-transfection with structural protein-expression plasmids.

In order to generate a subgenomic replicon from the JEV Nakayama strain (McAda *et al.*, 1987), viral RNA was extracted from infected Vero cells, reverse transcribed into cDNA and amplified in individual dsDNA fragments containing T7 RNA polymerase promoter and hepatitis delta virus ribozyme (HDV-RZ) as shown in Fig. 1(a). For deletion of the C-prM-E region, a synthetic antisense oligonucleotide was used to add a *Bsp*TI site at codons 17–18 of the C-coding region following the cyclization sequence, and a sense oligonucleotide was designed that added the *Bsp*TI site before the C-terminal transmembrane domain, which consists of 30 aa of the E protein coding sequence, in order to permit ligation of C to NS1. The five individual fragments required to produce a replicon-length cDNA were readily assembled into the low-copy-number plasmid pACYC177, designated pJEVrep#97. Replication of *in vitro*-transcribed RNAs derived from the plasmid was confirmed in RNA-transfected cells (data not shown). Next, to construct a DNA-based replicon plasmid, the T7 RNA polymerase promoter was replaced with the CMV promoter, and the simian virus 40 polyadenylation signal was inserted downstream of the HDV-RZ; the resulting plasmid was designated pCMV-JErep (Fig. 1a). pCMV-JErep-fs, which contains a frameshift mutation through a 4 nt insertion upstream of the GDD motif of RNA-dependent RNA polymerase in NS5, was also constructed as a negative control with no replication activity. To characterize the replication activity of the plasmid-derived replicon, 293T cells were transfected with plasmids as described previously (Suzuki *et al.*, 2013). Indirect immuno-fluorescence with an anti-dsRNA antibody showed positive staining in the cytoplasm of cells transfected with pCMV-JErep plasmid or infected with JEV Nakayama strain, whereas no signal was detected in the cells transfected with pCMV-JErep-fs, indicating the ability of viral RNAs transcribed intracellularly from the plasmid pCMV-JErep to replicate in cells (Fig. 1b). It should be noted that NS1 protein was detected in the cytoplasm of cells transfected with both pCMV-JErep and pCMV-JErep-fs.

We also constructed expression plasmids for JEV C-E, mature C consisting of 105 aa, and prM-E, which we designated pCAG-JECE, pCAG-JEC and pCAG-JEprME, respectively (Fig. 2a). To reduce sequence homology and intergenomic recombination potential with the truncated C and E genes in the subgenomic replicon, 21 nt mutations were incorporated into the 5′ region of the C gene and 3′ region of the E gene. These changes also include two nucleotides in the conserved 5′ cyclization sequence (CS) (Hahn *et al.*, 1987; Khromykh *et al.*, 2001), producing a

sequence that was non-complementary to the 3′ CS of the replicon genome, thereby preventing replication of a recombinant genome. To produce SRIPs of JEV, 293T cells were transfected with a mixture of two (pCMV-JErep and pCAG-JECE) or three (pCMV-JErep, pCAG-JEC and pCAG-JEprME) plasmids. The infectivity of SRIPs was determined by inoculating the culture supernatant of transfected cells into Vero cells, followed by immunostaining with anti-NS1 antibody. 293T cells produced a titre of 6.9×10^5 IU ml^{-1} (Fig. 2b) or 7.9×10^5 IU ml^{-1} (Fig. 2c) 3 days after transfection with two or three plasmids, respectively. In contrast, no infectious particles were detected in the supernatant when one of the two or three plasmids was omitted or the replicon containing a frameshift mutation was introduced. The production levels of SRIPs from cells transfected with two or three plasmids were similar, as shown in Fig. 2(d).

In order to confirm that the SRIPs have only single-round infectivity potential, Vero cells were inoculated with medium harvested from 293T cells transfected with replicon and structural protein plasmids, and were examined for antigen-positive cells. SRIPs were demonstrated to be infectious in the first round (Fig. 3a). However, no antigen-positive cells were observed in a second round, in which the supernatants of the cells infected with SRIPs were transferred to naive Vero cells (Fig. 3a). As a control, supernatant from JEV-infected cells produced antigen-positive cells in second-round infection.

We then evaluated whether the SRIPs could be used in neutralization tests instead of infectious live virus by using anti-JEV sera raised in rabbits as a representative antibody. Serial fourfold dilutions of serum were mixed with aliquots of SRIPs or virus of equivalent infectivity. The virus–antibody mixture was incubated for 1 h at room temperature, followed by titration for infectivity on Vero cell monolayers in a 96-well plate. The neutralizing activity of each antibody dilution was expressed as a percentage of the infectivity obtained with the control, which was tested in the absence of any serum. Infection with SRIPs and JEV Nakayama strain were similarly neutralized by anti-JEV antibody in a dose-dependent manner, although normal serum did not affect infection with SRIPs and JEV (Fig. 3b).

Next, to examine whether SRIPs derived from other flaviviruses could be generated using our plasmid-based method, we used prM-E expression plasmids for the following viruses: DENV1, Mochizuki strain; DENV2, New Guinea C strain; DENV3, H87 strain; DENV4, H241 strain (Konishi *et al.*, 2006); WNV, NY99-6922 strain (Ishikawa *et al.*, 2007); YFV, 17D strain; and TBEV, Oshima 5-10 strain (Yoshii *et al.*, 2003). Detection of each E protein in cells transfected with prM-E expression plasmids by immunofluorescence revealed indistinguishable efficiency of transfection as shown in Fig. S1 (available in JGV Online). Efficient production of chimaeric flavivirus SRIPs by co-transfection with JEV C and JEV replicons was achieved for
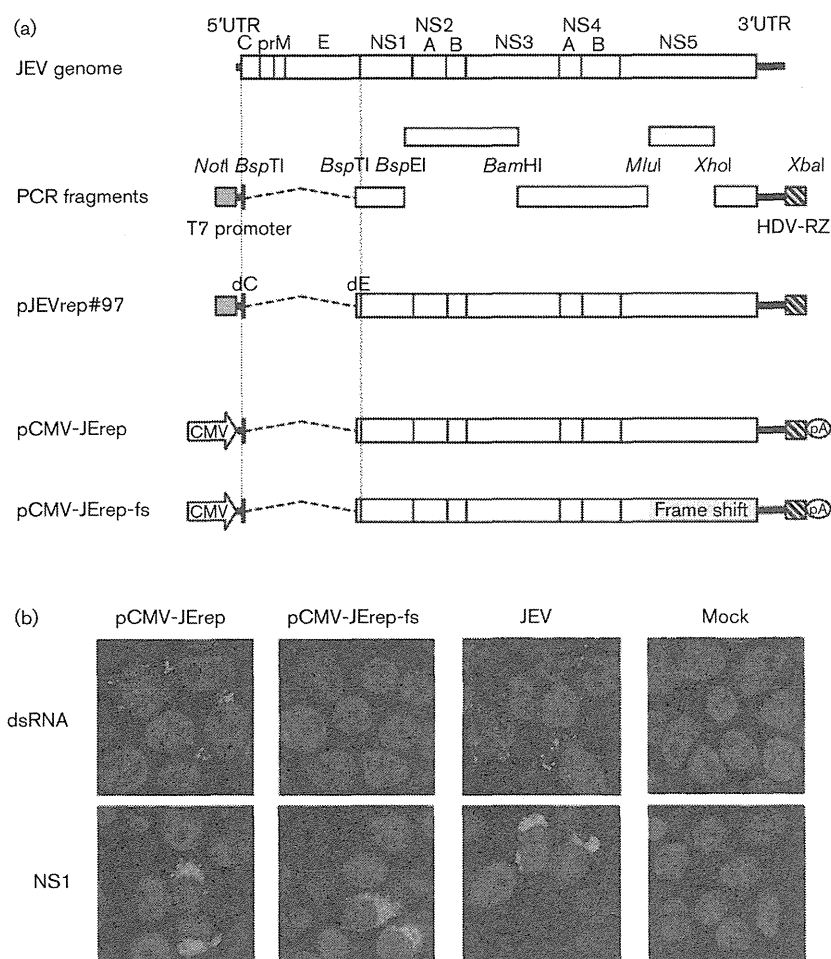
Fig. 1. (a) Schematic representation of the position of the JEV genome showing restriction enzymes sites (*Not*I, *Bsp*TI, *Bsp*EI, *Bam*HI, *Mlu*I, *Xho*I and *Xba*I), fragments used to assemble for replicon construction, position of the T7 promoter, CMV promoter (CMV), HDV-RZ and polyadenylation signal (pA). (b) 293T cells were transfected with the indicated plasmids or were infected or mock-infected with JEV. Two days post-transfection or post-infection, cells were fixed and permeabilized as described previously (Suzuki *et al.*, 2013). Samples were then incubated with anti-dsRNA antibody (J2; English & Scientific Consulting) or anti-NS1 antibody (2D5; Konishi *et al.*, 2004). Green signals were obtained with Alexa-Fluor-488-labelled goat anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody (Invitrogen). Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI.

WNV and TBEV, although production of SRIPs was less efficient for DENV1-4 and YFV (Fig. 3c).

It is curious that TBEV prM-E protein can be utilized efficiently for assembly of SRIPs in combination with the JEV C protein and replicon RNA producing equivalent titres to JEV and WNV, as TBEV is a tick-borne virus and is classified as a distinct serogroup from JEV. In contrast, production of DENV- and YFV-SRIPs was less efficient. The low infectious titre of SRIPs containing at least dengue prM-E may be explained by the low specific infectivity of particles encapsidated in DENV envelope protein (van der Schaar *et al.*, 2007; Winkelmann *et al.*, 2011), although we were unable to exclude the possibility that the viral assembly and/or secretion with dengue prM-E is not

efficient (Chang *et al.*, 2003; Hsieh *et al.*, 2008). Adaptive mutations in structural and NS proteins could possibly enhance the production of infectious particles by improving the specific infectivity of the resulting particles (Winkelmann *et al.*, 2011). In addition, it has been reported that a chimaeric WNV genome with DENV2 prM-E genes but lacking the C gene replicates much better in DENV2-C-expressing cells than in WNV-C-expressing cells (Suzuki *et al.*, 2009), thus suggesting that the combination of homologous C protein and prM-E proteins improves the production of viral particles. Therefore, it is possible to obtain a better yield of dengue SRIPs by using DENV C protein instead of JEV C protein. Such DENV-SRIPs can be useful for studying infection-enhancing and neutralizing antibody activities.
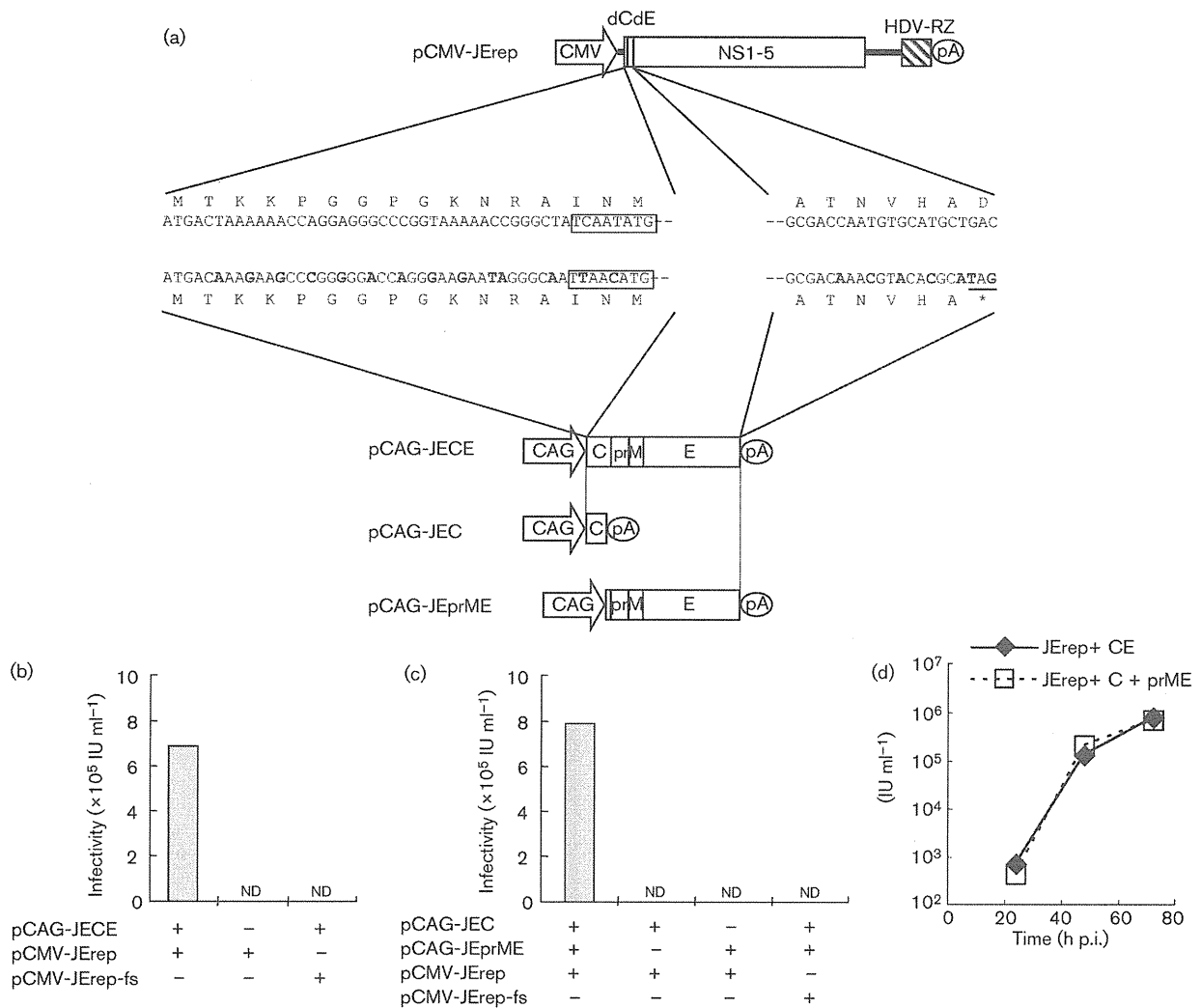
Fig. 2. Schematic representation of JEV replicon and structural protein-expression plasmids. (a) Top: JEV subgenomic replicon with deletion of structural proteins. This replicon contains a partial C and E gene. Bottom: JEV structural protein-expression plasmids showing the region of overlap with JEV replicon. Boxes indicate the 8 nt in the 5′ CS that are 100 % conserved among all mosquito-borne flaviviruses. The JEV C-E, C and prM-E coding sequences harbour silent mutations designed to prevent homologous recombinations that included two changes to the CS sequence, which must be 100 % complementary to the 3′ CS of JEV in order to permit genome replication. The termination codon is underlined. Nucleotide substitutions are shown in red. (b, c) Titres of JEV-SRIPs produced by transfection of 293T cells with replicon plasmid and structural protein-expression plasmids. Dilutions of supernatant collected at 3 days post-transfection were used to inoculate monolayers of Vero cells. Cells were fixed at 2 days post-infection and stained with anti-NS1 antibody. Stained cells were then counted to determine the titres (IU ml^{-1}) produced by transfections. ND, Not detected. (d) Time course of JEV SRIP production from transfected cells. At each time point, medium was removed and frozen for subsequent titration and fresh medium was added. JEV SRIP titres were determined by assaying infectivity in Vero cells.

The plasmid-based production system offers an advantage for vaccine production in terms of stability and safety, as this method is able to reduce the chance of mutations in the structural protein region, as well as the risk of infection when compared with live virus production. In addition, our replicon plasmids have the potential for application to DNA-based vaccines, as described previously (Cao *et al.*, 2011; Chang *et al.*, 2008; Huang *et al.*, 2012).

In conclusion, we established a DNA-based production system for SRIPs of flaviviruses. This system has potential value as a basic research and diagnostic tool, and could be used to enhance the safety of neutralization assay, as well as vaccine production.
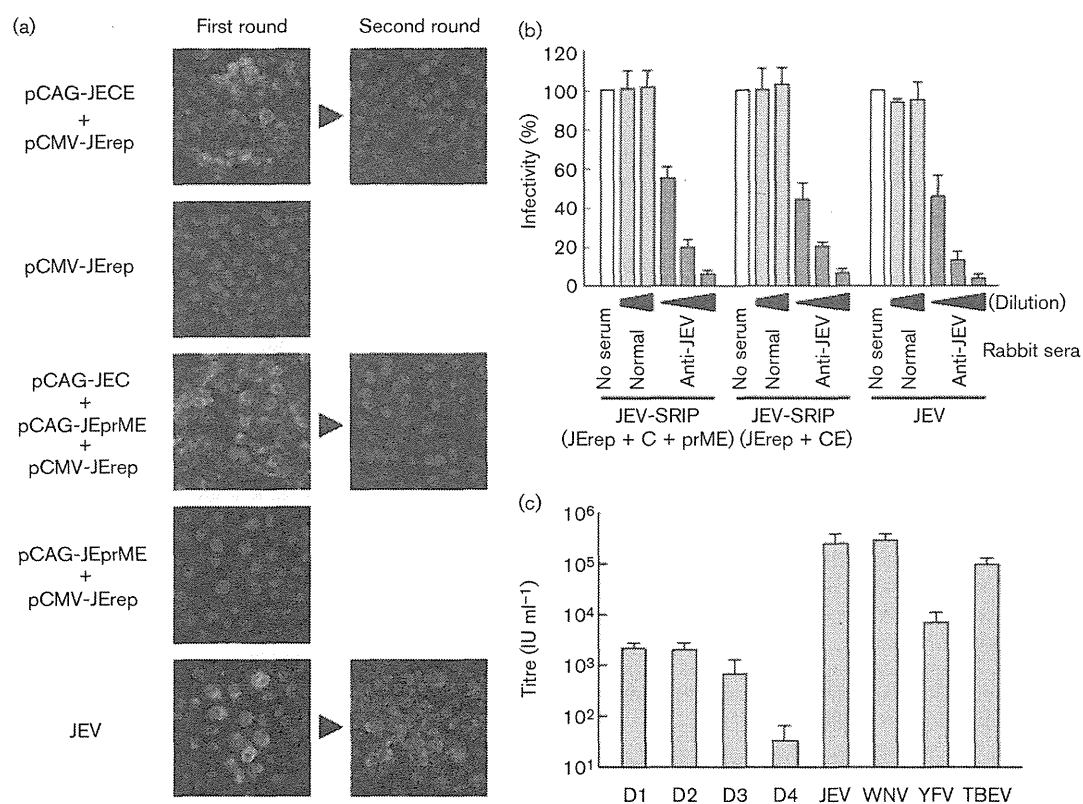
Fig. 3. Vero cells were inoculated with supernatant of 293T cells transfected with the indicated plasmids or infected with JEV. Two days post-inoculation, culture supernatants were collected, and cells were fixed and stained with NS1 antibodies (first round). Naive Vero cells were reinfected with culture supernatants from the first round. Two days post-inoculation, cells were fixed and stained with NS1 antibodies (second round). Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI. (b) JEV SRIP inoculum was incubated with serially diluted (1 : 2000, 1 : 8000 and 1 : 32 000) rabbit normal serum or anti-JEV serum for 1 h at room temperature, followed by inoculation onto Vero cells. Cells were immunostained with anti-NS1 antibody at 2 days post-infection, and antigen-positive cells were counted and used to calculate a titre based on f.f.u. ml^{-1} for spreading infections or IU ml^{-1} for non-spreading infections. Data for each condition are means of values obtained from three independent experiments with error bars showing SD. The value for controls without serum (no serum) was set at 100 %. (c) Infectious titres of flavivirus SRIPs, including dengue types 1–4 (D1–4), produced by transfection of 293T cells with pCMV-JErep, pCAG-JEC and flavivirus prM-E expression plasmids. Dilution of supernatant collected at 3 days post-transfection was used to inoculate monolayers of Vero cells. Cells were fixed at 2 days post-infection and stained with anti-JEV NS1 antibody, and stained cells were counted in order to determine titres.

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Specific inhibition of hepatitis C virus entry into host hepatocytes by fungi-derived sulochrin and its derivatives

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ABSTRACT

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major causative agent of hepatocellular carcinoma. Although various classes of anti-HCV agents have been under clinical development, most of these agents target RNA replication in the HCV life cycle. To achieve a more effective multidrug treatment, the development of new, less expensive anti-HCV agents that target a different step in the HCV life cycle is needed. We prepared an in-house natural product library consisting of compounds derived from fungal strains isolated from seaweeds, mosses, and other plants. A cell-based functional screening of the library identified sulochrin as a compound that decreased HCV infectivity in a multi-round HCV infection assay. Sulochrin inhibited HCV infection in a dose-dependent manner without any apparent cytotoxicity up to 50 μM. HCV pseudoparticle and trans-complemented particle assays suggested that this compound inhibited the entry step in the HCV life cycle. Sulochrin showed anti-HCV activities to multiple HCV genotypes 1a, 1b, and 2a. Co-treatment of sulochrin with interferon or a protease inhibitor telaprevir synergistically augmented their anti-HCV effects. Derivative analysis revealed anti-HCV compounds with higher potencies (IC$_{50}$ < 5 μM). This is the first report showing an antiviral activity of methoxybenzoate derivatives. Thus, sulochrin derivatives are anti-HCV lead compounds with a new mode of action.

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1. Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is a major causative agent of chronic liver diseases such as liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [1]. The standard anti-HCV therapy has been a co-treatment with pegylated-interferon (IFN)α and ribavirin, but this therapy is limited by less efficacy to certain HCV genotypes, poor tolerability, serious side effects, and high cost [2,3]. In addition to the newly approved protease inhibitors, telaprevir and boceprevir, a variety of anti-HCV candidates are under clinical development. Although these drugs improve the virological response rate, the emergence of drug-resistant virus is expected to be a significant problem. Moreover, these compounds are expensive due to their complex structure and the many steps required for their total syn-

thesis. To overcome the drug-resistant virus and achieve a long-term antiviral effect, multidrug treatment is essential. Thus, the development of drugs targeting a different step in the HCV life cycle and presumably requiring low cost is urgently needed.

HCV propagates in hepatocytes through its viral life cycle including: attachment and entry (defined as the early step in this study); translation, polyprotein processing, and RNA replication (the middle step); and assembly, trafficking, budding, and release (the late step) (Supplementary Fig. S1). The middle step has been extensively analysed, especially after the establishment of the HCV replicon system [4]. The early step can be analysed with HCV pseudoparticle (HCVpp) [5,6], which is a murine leukemia virus- or human immunodeficiency virus-based pseudovirus carrying HCV E1 and E2 as envelope proteins. The HCV-producing cell culture system (HCVcc) is used for analyzing the whole life cycle [7–9]. In addition, the HCV trans-complemented particle (HCVtcp) system carrying an HCV subgenomic replicon RNA packaged in HCV E1 and E2-containing particles can evaluate the life cycle from the early to the middle step [10]. The majority of anti-HCV agents currently under clinical development, such as inhibitors of protease, polymerase, NS5A, and cellular cyclophilin, inhibit polyprotein processing and/or RNA replication. A desirable approach

to achieving efficient multidrug therapy is to identify new antiviral drugs targeting different steps in the viral life cycle. A combination of drugs with different targets can greatly decrease the emergence of drug-resistant virus.

Natural products generally contain more characteristics of high chemical diversity than combinatorial chemical collections, and therefore have a wider range of physiological activities [11,12]. They offer major opportunities for finding novel lead structures that are active in a biological assay. Moreover, biologically active natural products are generally small molecules with drug-like properties, and thus development costs of producing orally active agents tend to be lower than that derived from combinatorial chemistry [13]. In addition, there is a wide variety of natural compounds reported to possess antiviral activity [14,15]. In the present study, we have taken advantage of the potential of natural products by screening a natural product library derived from fungal extracts with a cell-based assay that supports the whole life cycle of HCV.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture

Huh-7.5.1 [8] and HepaRG cells [16] were cultured as described previously.

2.2. Natural product library and reagents

Natural products were extracted essentially as previously described [17]. Culture broths of fungal strains isolated from seaweeds, mosses, and other plants were extracted with CH_2Cl_2. The crude extracts were separated by silica gel column chromatography to purify compounds. The chemical structure of each compound was determined by NMR and mass spectrometry analyses. Thus, we prepared an in-house natural product library consisting of approximately 300 isolated compounds.

Cyclosporin A was purchased from Sigma. Bafilomycin A1 and chlorpromazine were purchased from Wako. Heparin was obtained from Mochida Pharmaceutical. IFNα was purchased from Schering-Plough.

2.3. Compound screening

Huh-7.5.1 cells were treated with HCV J6/JFH1 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.15 for 4 h. The cells were washed and then cultured with growth medium treated with 10 μM of each compound for 72 h. The infectivity of HCV in the medium was quantified. Cell viability at 72 h post-treatment was simultaneously measured. Compounds that decreased the cell viability to less than 50% of that without treatment were eliminated for further evaluations. Normalised infectivity was calculated as HCV infectivity divided by cell viability. Compounds reducing the normalised infectivity to less than 40% were selected as initial hits. The initial hits were further evaluated for data reproduction and dose-dependency.

2.4. HCVcc assay

HCVcc was recovered from the medium of Huh-7.5.1 cells transfected with HCV J6/JFH-1 RNA as described [7]. HCVcc was infected into Huh-7.5.1 cells at 0.15 MOI for 4 h. After washing out the inoculated virus, the cells were cultured with normal growth medium in the presence or absence of compounds for 72 h. The infectivity of HCV and the amount of HCV core protein in the medium were quantified by infectious focus formation assay and

chemiluminescent enzyme immunoassay (Lumipulse II HCV core assay, ortho clinical diagnostics), respectively [7,18].

2.5. Immunoblot analysis

Immunoblot analysis was performed as described previously [19]. The anti-HCV core antibody (2H9) was used as a primary antibody with 1:1000 dilution [7].

2.6. MTT assay

The viability of cells was quantified by using a Cell Proliferation Kit II XTT (Roche Diagnostics) as described previously [20].

2.7. HCV replicon assay

Huh-7.5.1 cells were transfected with an HCV subgenome replicon RNA (SGR–JFH1/Luc) for 4 h and then incubated with or without compounds for 48 h [21]. The cells were lysed with 1xPLB (Promega), and the luciferase activity was determined with a luciferase assay system (Promega) according to the manufacturer's protocol [22].

2.8. HCVpp assay

HCVpp was recovered from the medium of 293T cells transfected with expression plasmids for HCV JFH-1 E1E2, MLV Gag-Pol, and luciferase, which were kindly provided from Dr. Francois-Loic Cosset at Universite de Lyon [5]. Vesicular stomatitis virus pseudoparticles (VSVpp) was similarly recovered with transfection by replacing HCV E1E2 with VSV G.

Huh-7.5.1 cells were preincubated with compounds for 3 h and were then infected with HCVpp in the presence of compounds for 4 h. After washing out virus and compounds, cells were incubated for an additional 72 h before recovering the cell lysates and quantifying the luciferase activity.

2.9. HCVtcp assay

The HCVtcp assay was essentially performed as described [10]. Briefly, Huh-7 cells were transfected with expression plasmids for the HCV subgenomic replicon carrying the luciferase gene and for HCV core-NS2 based on genotype 1a (RMT) (kindly provided by Dr. Michinori Kohara at Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science), 1b (Con1), and 2a (JFH-1) [4,10,23] to recover HCVtcp. HCVtcp can reproduce RNA replication as well as HCV-mediated entry into the cells [10].

2.10. Synergy analysis

To determine whether the effect of the drug combination was synergistic, additive, or antagonistic, MacSynergy (kindly provided by Mark Prichard), a mathematical model based on the Bliss independence theory, was used to analyse the experimental data shown in Fig. 3A. In this model, a theoretical additive effect with any given concentrations can be calculated by $Z = X + Y(1 - X)$, where X and Y represent the inhibition produced by each drug alone, and Z represents the effect produced by the combination of two compounds if they were additive. The theoretical additive effects were compared to the actual experimental effects at various concentrations of the two compounds and were plotted as a three-dimensional differential surface that would appear as a horizontal plane at 0 if the combination were additive. Any peak above this plane (positive values) indicates synergy, whereas any depression below the plane (negative values) indicates antagonism. The 95% confidence interval of the experimental dose–response was considered to reveal only effects that were statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Screening of natural products possessing anti-HCV activity

We extracted culture broths of fungal strains isolated from seaweeds, mosses, and other plants and purified compounds as described in the Section 2 [17]. The chemical structure of each compound was determined by NMR and mass spectrometry analyses. Thus, we prepared an in-house natural product library consisting of approximately 300 isolated compounds. As shown in the Section 2, compounds reducing the normalised HCV infectivity to less than 40% as compared with DMSO were selected as primary hits. The primary hits were then validated by examining the reproducibility, dose-dependency, and cell viability in the HCVcc system. Sulochrin [methyl 2-(2,6-dihydroxy-4-methylbenzoyl)-5-hydroxy-3-methoxybenzoate] (Fig. 1A) was one of the compounds showing the highest anti-HCV activity, and the following analyses focus mainly on this compound.

3.2. Sulochrin decreased HCV infectivity in HCV cell culture assay

To characterise the anti-HCV activity of the compounds, Huh-7.5.1 cells were infected with HCV J6/JFH1 at an MOI of 0.15 and then cultured for 72 h in the presence or absence of compounds.
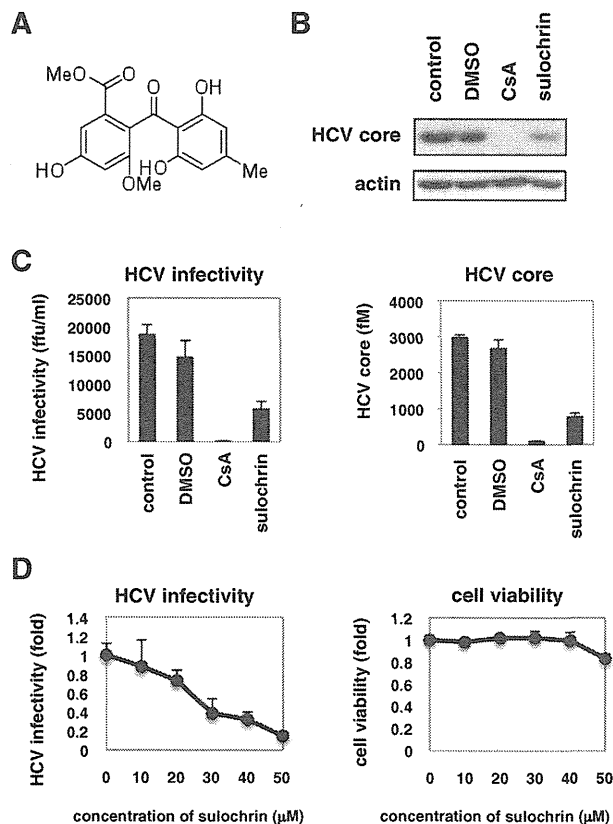
In this system, infectious HCV is secreted into the medium and then re-infects into uninfected cells to support the spread of HCV during a 72 h period (Section 2). Cell cultures were treated with sulochrin or cyclosporin A (CsA) as a positive control in this mul-
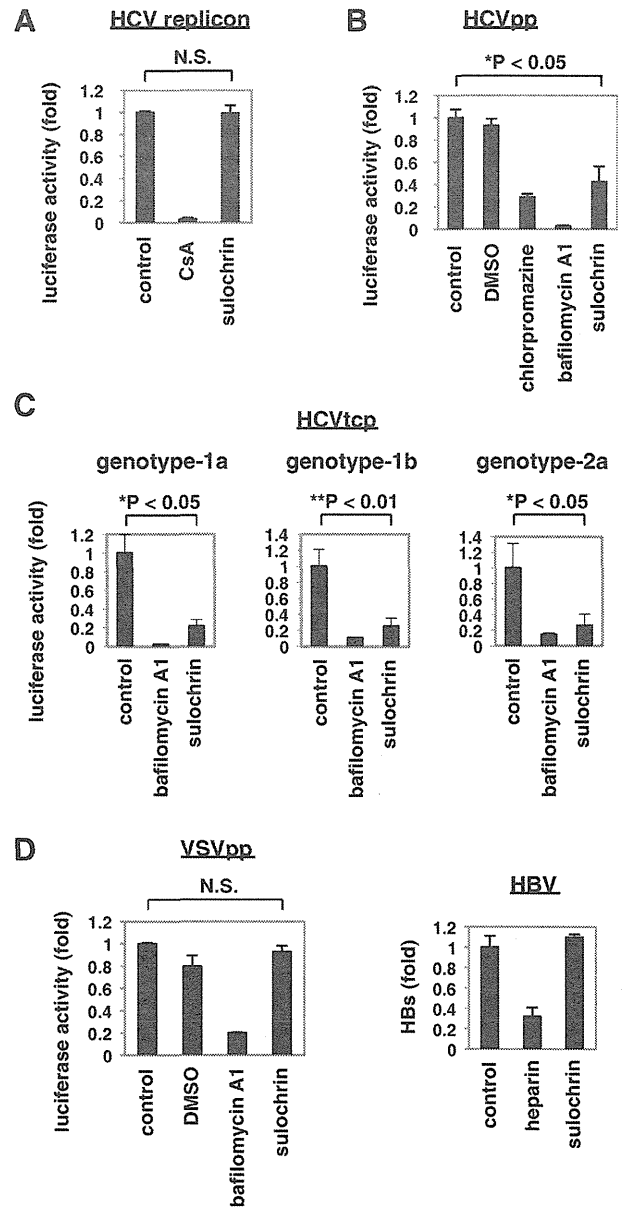

Fig. 1. Sulochrin decreased HCV production in a multi-round HCV infection assay. (A) Chemical structure of sulochrin. (B) Huh-7.5.1 cells were infected with HCV J6/JFH-1 at an MOI of 0.15 for 4 h and then incubated with or without 0.3% DMSO, 2 μM cyclosporin A (CsA), or 30 μM sulochrin for 72 h. The resultant medium was inoculated into naïve Huh-7.5.1 cells to detect intracellular HCV core and actin protein at 48 h postinoculation by immunoblot. (C) HCV infectivity (left) and HCV core protein (right) in the medium as prepared in (B) were quantified as shown in the Section 2. (D) HCV infectivity (left) determined as shown in (C) with varying concentrations (0–50 μM) of sulochrin. Cell viability was examined by MTT assay (right).

Fig. 2. Sulochrin blocked HCV entry. (A) Replicon assay. Huh-7.5.1 cells were transfected with an HCV subgenomic replicon RNA for 4 h followed by treatment with or without the indicated compounds for 48 h. Luciferase activity driven by the replication of the subgenomic replicon was quantified. (B and C) HCV pseudoparticle (HCVpp) and trans-complemented particle (HCVtcp) assay. Huh-7.5.1 cells were pretreated with the indicated compounds for 3 h and then infected with HCVpp (B) or HCVtcp (C) for 4 h. After washing out virus and compounds, cells were further incubated for 72 h and harvested for measuring luciferase activity driven by the infection of HCVpp or HCVtcp. HCVtcp assay was performed with HCV E1 and E2 derived from genotypes 1a (RMT), 1b (Con1), and 2a (JFH1). (D) Left, the pseudoparticle assay was performed as shown in (B) with VSV G instead of HCV E1 and E2. Right, HBV infection assay. HepaRG cells were pretreated with the indicated compounds for 3 h and then infected with HBV for 16 h. After washing out virus and compounds, cells were incubated for an additional 12 days. HBV infection was evaluated by measuring HBs secretion from the infected cells. Heparin was used as a positive control that inhibits HBV entry.

ti-round infection system. To examine the level of infectious HCV particles produced from the cells, the resultant medium was inoculated into naive Huh-7.5.1 cells to detect HCV core protein in the cells. As shown in Fig. 1B, intracellular production of HCV core but not that of actin was reduced in the cells inoculated with sulochrin- and CsA-treated medium (Fig. 1B). Quantitative analysis showed that sulochrin decreased HCV infectivity and HCV core protein in the medium to 1/3–1/4 of the untreated levels (Fig. 1C). Reduction of HCV infectivity by sulochrin was dose-dependent without serious cytotoxicity up to 50 μM (Fig. 1D).

3.3. Sulochrin blocked HCV entry

We investigated the step in the HCV life cycle that was inhibited by sulochrin. The middle step of the life cycle including translation and RNA replication was evaluated with the transient replication assay by using the HCV subgenomic replicon. Sulochrin had little effect on the replicon activity at doses up to 50 μM (Fig. 2A). In

the HCVpp system, which reproduced the early step of HCV infection including entry, sulochrin significantly inhibited HCVpp infection (Fig. 2B). Sulochrin also inhibited the infection of HCVtcp, which reproduced both the viral entry and RNA replication, further supporting that this compound targeted the entry step (Fig. 2C). In contrast, VSV G-mediated viral entry efficiency was not altered by sulochrin treatment (Fig. 2D). Additionally, HBV entry was not inhibited by the presence of sulochrin (Fig. 2D). These data suggest that the inhibitory activity of sulochrin on viral entry is specific to HCV. The anti-HCV entry activity of sulochrin was conserved among different HCV genotypes, 1a (RMT), 1b (Con1), and 2a (JFH-1) [4,10,23] (Fig. 2C).

3.4. Synergistic effect of cotreatment of sulochrin with IFNα or telaprevir

We examined the anti-HCV activity of sulochrin co-administered with clinically available anti-HCV agents, IFNα and a prote-
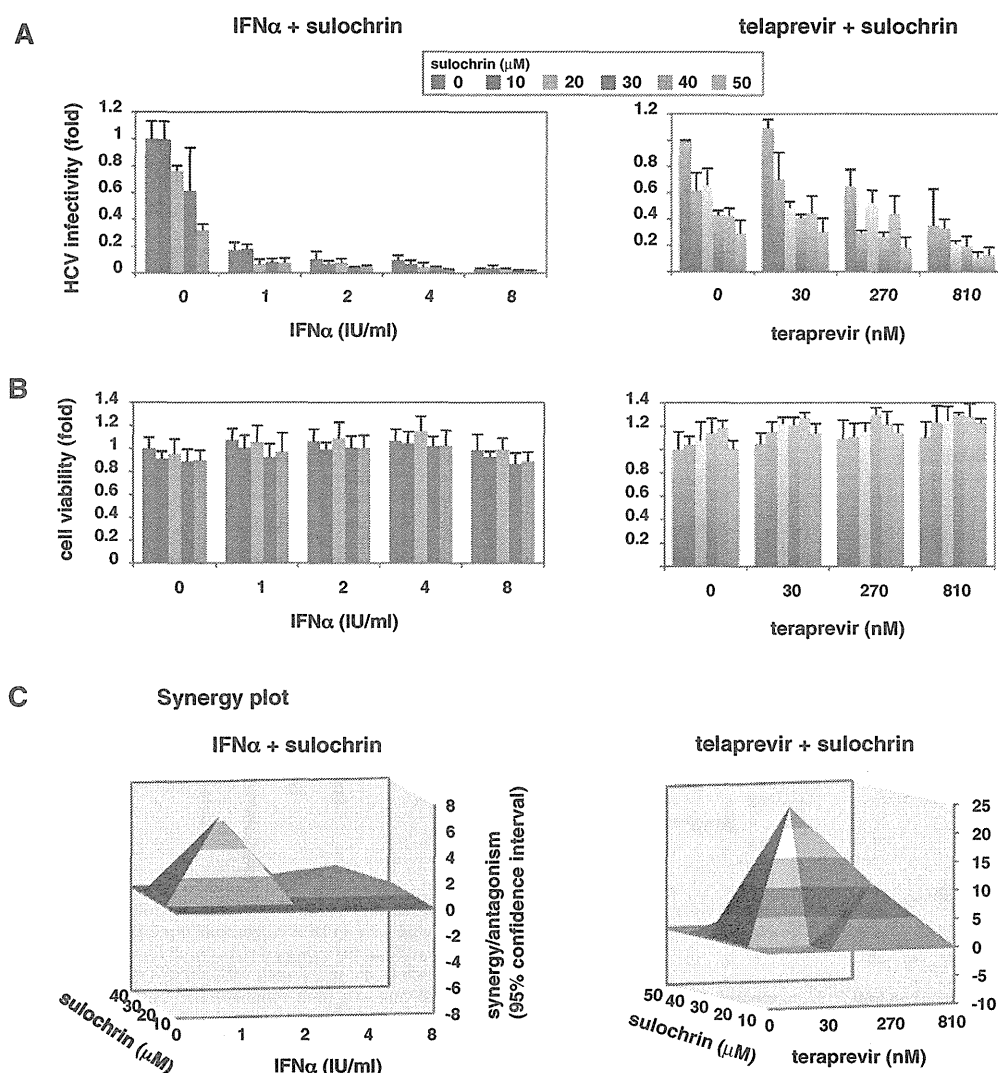

Fig. 3. Cotreatment of sulochrin with IFNα or telaprevir. (A, B) Huh-7.5.1 cells infected with HCV were treated with the indicated concentrations of sulochrin with IFNα (left) or telaprevir (right) to determine HCV infectivity in the medium (A) as shown in Fig. 1C. Cell viability was also quantified (B). (C) Synergy analysis. The results of the combinations shown in (A) were analysed with a mathematical model, MacSynergy, as described in the Section 2. The three-dimensional surface plot represents the difference between actual experimental effects and theoretical additive effects of the combination treatment (95% confidence interval). The theoretical additive effects are shown as the zero plane (dark gray) across the z-axis. A positive value in the z-axis as a peak above the plane indicates synergy, and a negative value with a valley below the plane indicates antagonism. Sulochrin in combination with IFNα (left) or telaprevir (right) produced synergistic antiviral effects that were greater than the theoretical additive effects.

ase inhibitor telaprevir. As shown in Fig. 3, addition of sulochrin with IFNα or telaprevir led to a further decrease in HCV infectivity (Fig. 3A) without significantly enhancing cytotoxicity (Fig. 3B) at any given concentrations. Thus, the combination of sulochrin and IFNα or telaprevir always resulted in a greater reduction in HCV infectivity as compared with that achieved by either agent alone. Synergy/antagonism analysis with the Bliss independence model showed that the experimental anti-HCV activity in combination with sulochrin and IFNα or telaprevir showed a peak above the zero plane in the z-axis, which shows the calculated theoretical additive effect (Fig. 3C). Any peak above the zero plane indicates more than an additive effect, namely, synergy (Section 2). The data clearly indicate that sulochrin had a synergistic anti-HCV effect with both IFNα and telaprevir.

3.5. Derivative analysis of sulochrin

We examined the anti-HCV activity of a series of sulochrin derivatives (Fig. 4A) in the HCVcc system. Monochlorosulochrin and dihydrogeodin, mono- or dichloro-substituted derivatives of sulochrin, possessed even higher anti-HCV activity than sulochrin (Fig. 4B and C). Deoxyfunicone, of which one aromatic ring was replaced by a 4-pyrone ring, had approximately 5-fold greater HCV inhibitory activity as compared with sulochrin (Fig. 4B and C). An additional compound, 3-O-methylfunicone, also possessed anti-HCV activity (Fig. 4B and C). These data suggest that the 1,3-dihydroxy-5-methylbenzene moiety of sulochrin is important for anti-HCV activity. Furthermore, funicone derivatives as well

as sulochrin derivatives are likely to be lead compounds for a new class of anti-HCV agents.

4. Discussion

In the present study, we prepared a natural product library consisting of approximately 300 isolated compounds derived from fungi extract [17]. Among these compounds, we focused on sulochrin, which reduced HCV infectivity in the HCVcc system. Sulochrin suppressed the viral entry efficiencies both in the HCVpp and the HCVtcp systems, suggesting that this compound blocked HCV envelope-mediated entry. HCV was reported to enter host cells through clathrin-dependent endocytosis after engagement to host receptors [24–27]. Sulochrin is not likely to be a general inhibitor of clathrin-dependent endocytosis, but rather is specific for HCV entry, as it did not affect the entry of other viruses such as VSVpp and HBV, which were reported to enter by clathrin-dependent manners [28,29].

Sulochrin inhibits eosinophil degranulation, activation, and chemotaxis [30,31]. It also inhibits VEGF-induced tube formation of human umbilical vein endothelial cells [32]. In addition, 3-O-methylfunicone, a sulochrin derivative possessing anti-HCV activity, has an anti-tumor activity [33]. It is unknown if these activities of the compounds are related to their anti-HCV activity. The establishment of drug-resistant virus and the identification of the target molecule are in progress to reveal the mechanism of action of sulochrin and its derivatives. However, the present study is the
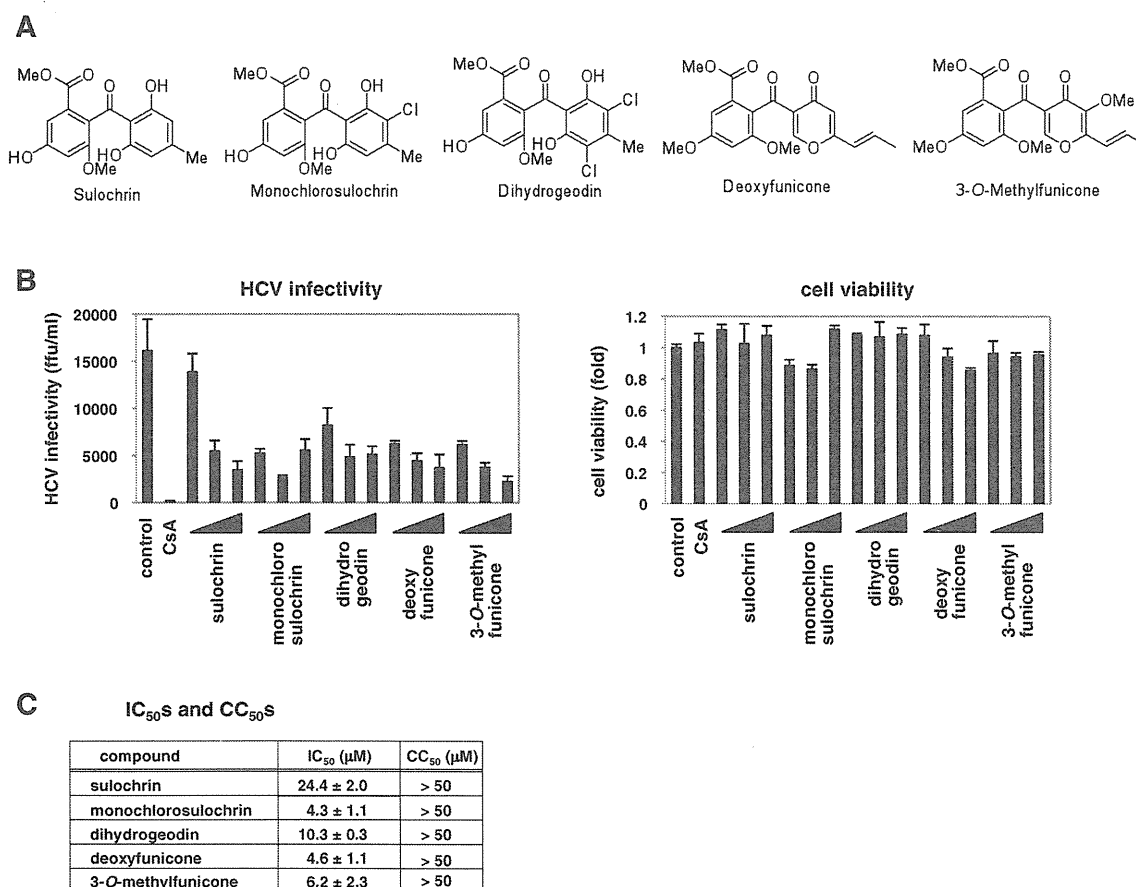

Fig. 4. Derivative analysis of sulochrin. (A) Chemical structures of sulochrin derivatives examined in this study, monochlorosulochrin, dihydrogeodin, deoxyfunicone, 3-O-methyfunicone, as well as sulochrin. (B) Anti-HCV effects of the sulochrin derivatives (10, 30, and 50 μM) were investigated as shown in Fig. 1C. (C) The IC50 and CC50 values of the sulochrin derivatives are shown.

first report to demonstrate the antiviral activity of these compounds. It is important to note that sulochrin inhibited the entry of HCV genotype 1a and b, which are the dominant genotypes in North America, Europe, and East Asia, indicating that this compound has potential clinical applications. Promising applications of entry inhibitors include the prevention of HCV recurrence in patients after liver transplantation. In patients with HCV-related end-stage liver diseases undergoing liver transplantation, re-infection of the graft is universal and characterised by accelerated progression of liver diseases. Entry inhibitors may be effective especially in these conditions under robust re-infection of HCV into hepatocytes. In the present study, we showed that co-treatment of sulochrin with IFNα and a protease inhibitor, teleprevir, synergistically augmented the anti-HCV effects of these approved drugs. These results suggest the possibility that co-treatment with sulochrin and probably its effective derivatives helps to inhibit the spread of HCV infection. We also identified the chemical structure and the derivatives of sulochrin as lead compounds for anti-HCV agents. Further derivatives analysis may identify more preferable anti-HCV agents.

In conclusion, our results demonstrate that sulochrin and its derivatives are potent and selective inhibitors of HCV infection in cell culture. Although further studies including an analysis of mode of action and pharmacological properties in vivo are required, this class of compounds should be pursued for its clinical potential in the treatment of HCV infection.

Acknowledgments

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2013.09.100.

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