

**Fig. 7.5** The HBV infection (a) Schematic representation of the HBV life cycle. (b) HBV natural history of infection. Abbreviations: *cccDNA* covalently closed circular DNA, *ER* endoplasmic reticulum, *HBeAg* hepatitis B extracellular “e” antigen, *HBsAg* HBV surface antigen, *pgRNA* pregenomic RNA, *Rc* receptor, *rcDNA* relaxed circular DNA, *RT* reverse transcription

## 6.2 MiRNAs Involved in the Regulation of HBV Gene Expression, Replication and Effects on the Carcinogenesis

Viruses, nuclear DNA viruses in particular, need some time to complete their life cycle. During this period, the host cell can develop defense mechanisms such as cell cycle arrest and viral clearance. By taking advantage of the cellular miRNA machinery,

**Table 7.2** Cellular miRNAs and their effects on HBV biology, pathogenesis or related-HCC HBV (↑): Promotes HBV replication, HBV (↓): Inhibits HBV replication, HCC (↑): Development and/or growth of HCC

Target genes	miRNAs	miRNA expressions	HBV or HCC status	Reference
<i>Viral target genes</i>				
HBsAg	miR-199-3p	Up	HBV(↓)	Zhang et al. (2010)
HBVpre-S1	miR-210	Up	HBV(↓)	Zhang et al. (2010)
<i>Cellular target genes</i>				
HDAC4	miR-1	Up	HBV (↑)	Zhang et al. (2011a)
c-myb	miR-15a	Down	HCC (↑)	Liu et al. (2009)
E2F1 (c-myc repressor)	miR-17-92 cluster	Up	HCC (↑)	Connolly et al. (2008)
PTEN (?)	miR-21	Up	HCC (↑)	Connolly et al. (2008)
cyclin G1 (p53 modulator)	miR-122	Down	HBV (↑), HCC (↑)	Wang et al. (2012)
DNMT1	miR-152	Down	HBV (↓)	Huang et al. (2010)
SOCS1 (STAT inhibitor)	miR-155	Up	HBV(↓)	Su et al. (2011)
HLA-A (miR-181)	miR-181a, -181b, 200b	Up	HBV (↑)	Liu et al. (2009)
NFIB	miR-372,-373	Up	HBV (↑)	Guo et al. (2011)
STAT3	let-7 family	Down	HBV (↑?), HCC (↑)	Wang et al. (2010)

these viruses can more easily and efficiently help to promote a favorable cellular environment for viral replication and achievement of the life cycle (Skalsky and Cullen 2010). The modulation of the machinery could be made by direct action on the cellular miRNAs (Backes et al. 2012; Jopling et al. 2005) (inhibition or up-regulation) or by expression of their own miRNAs that will mimic their cellular counterparts (Gottwein et al. 2007; Lu and Cullen 2004). Despite the fact that HBV is a nuclear DNA virus, none viral-encoded miRNA has been identified so far. Only one putative HBV-miRNA, with hypothetical regulation role on its own genome, was deduced by computational approach (Jin et al. 2007). However, several cellular miRNAs are involved in the HBV viral replication. They are presented here above and summarized in Table 7.2.

### 6.2.1 Cellular miRNAs That Promote HBV Replication

MiR-1 can enhance the HBV core promoter transcription and thus increase the viral replication by modulating the expression of several host genes such as transcription factors (Zhang et al. 2011a). The report has confirmed that the histone deacetylase 4 (HDAC4) expression is down-regulated by miR-1. Knowing that the cccDNA amplification is controlled by epigenetic regulation (Pollicino

et al. 2006), miR-1 could act in complementarity with the nuclear HBV X protein (HBx) in order to induce these modifications (Belloni et al. 2009). However, miR-1 can also inhibit the cell proliferation and even induce a reverse cancer cell phenotype (Zhang et al. 2011a). The roles of miR-1 in the cell proliferation and hepatocellular carcinogenesis (Datta et al. 2008) seem to be contradictory with the viral replication and with the characteristics of oncogenic virus but must represent benefit for HBV survival.

Another miRNA, miR-501, has also been suggested to work together with HBx for the benefit of viral replication (Jin et al. 2013). HBx itself has also the ability to deregulate the cellular miRNAs expression. This small protein is a key regulator of HBV infection. It is usually over-expressed in HCC and accumulated evidence indicates that HBx can promote hepatocarcinogenesis by disrupting the normal physiologic mechanisms of the host cell (Chirillo et al. 1997; Lee et al. 2005; Tian et al. 2013). The let-7 family of miRNAs has been demonstrated to be negatively regulated by HBx (Wang et al. 2010). This miRNA family is often observed down-regulated in many cancers including HCC (Guo et al. 2006; Johnson et al. 2005; Yu et al. 2007). The consequence of this down-regulation is the increase activity of that signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) that supports the cell proliferation, and potentially the hepatocarcinogenesis.

Finally, the miRNAs can promote the viral replication by the indirect stimulation the HBV enhancer element I or II. It is the case for the CCAAT/enhancer binding protein that binds and activates the HBV enhancer II in a dose-dependent manner (Lopez-Cabrera et al. 1991). miR-372, together with miR-373, targets the nuclear factor I/B, an important regulator of several viruses (Nagata et al. 1983), and so supports the HBV expression (Guo et al. 2011).

### 6.2.2 Cellular miRNAs That Prevent HBV Replication

One of the best studied miRNAs in liver-related diseases is miR-122. This liver-specific miRNA is expressed at high levels in normal hepatocytes (about 70 % of the total miRNA population in the adult liver) (Lagos-Quintana et al. 2002) and is pivotal in numerous aspects of the liver function such as lipid metabolism, liver development, differentiation, growth and neoplastic transformation (Girard et al. 2008). The essential role of miR-122 in the HCV replication reflects furthermore the importance of this miRNA in the infection process (Jopling et al. 2005). While the loss of miR-122 expression is impeding HCV replication, it is enhancing the replication in the circumstance of HBV infection (Wang et al. 2012). In fact, miR-122 can negatively regulate the viral gene expression and replication by direct binding to a highly conserved sequence of HBV (Chen et al. 2011). This repression effect can apparently be impeded by a negative feedback loop involving the Heme oxygenase-1 (Qiu et al. 2010). A recent study has reported the indirect implication of HBx in miR-122 deregulation (Song et al. 2013) that could, at least partially, explain the difference observed between the two viruses. Knowing that miR-122 expression is low in HBV and HCC tissues (Wang et al. 2012; Kutay et al. 2006)

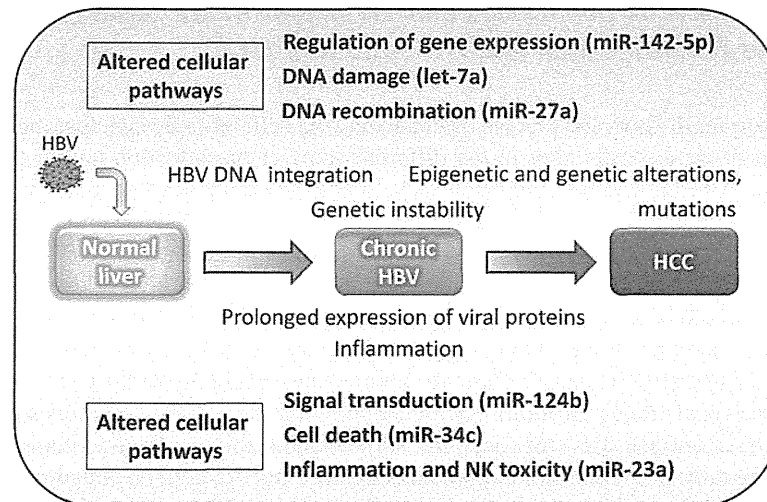
and that HBV replication is usually low or absent in HCC cells (Wong et al. 2006), miR-122 is a highly potential linker between HBV infection and liver carcinogenesis (Wang et al. 2012; Fan et al. 2011) and therefore a predilected target for future clinical applications.

The miR-17-92 cluster is also important in the HBV-associated HCC. This polycistron includes six miRNAs (miR-17-5p, miR-18a, miR-19a, miR-19b, miR-20a and miR-92a-1) and its up-regulated expression is associated with malignancies (Hayashita et al. 2005). By using human HBV-positive human HCC tissues, hepatoma cell lines and woodchuck hepatitis virus -induced HCC animal model (Popper et al. 1987), Connolly and colleagues were able to demonstrate the elevated expression of miR-17-92 cluster and its implication in the malignant phenotype (Connolly et al. 2008). The expression could be amplified by c-myc activation (He et al. 2005), under HBx control (Terradillos et al. 1997), to contribute to HBV latency state (Jung et al. 2013). The consequence is the induction of liver oncogenesis. Since the RNA intermediates of HBV (pgRNA and transcripts) are good targets of miRNA action, it is not surprising to observe several cellular miRNAs with different binding sites. So, in addition to miR-122 that targets the polymerase region (Chen et al. 2011), the mir-199a-3p and mir-210 can repress the S and pre-S1 regions, respectively (Zhang et al. 2010).

All the examples illustrating cellular miRNAs as inhibitors of the viral replication are a bit difficult to comprehend initially because of their obvious negative effect on HBV infection. However, it can be understood by keeping in mind the survival of the virus into the host organism. The natural history of HBV infection shows often a transition from acute to chronic infection, especially in young children. This step corresponds to a failure of the immune system to eradicate the virus (Fig. 7.5b). One of the escape pathways is the successful adaptation to the immune-induced down-regulation of replication. The virus could evade the immune system by reaching a dormant state into the infected hepatocytes, under the cccDNA form, and survive until its eventual life cycle reactivation (Ganem and Prince 2004; Belloni et al. 2009, 2012; Huang et al. 2010). The study of Huang and colleagues reports the CpG islands methylation of the cccDNA by the DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1) to prevent the viral gene expression and therefore the viral antigen presentation. DNMT1 over-expression is induced by a decrease of miR-152, under the effect of HBx (Huang et al. 2010).

### ***6.3 MiRNAs in the Modulation of the Immune System and Effects on the Carcinogenesis***

HBV must adapt to a very complex network in order to survive. It has to cope with the modification of homeostasis, the cell cycle arrest, the apoptosis and the destruction of the host cell by the immune cells. MiRNAs are also important in the development and function of immune system (Baltimore et al. 2008). Some miRNAs in particular are crucial for modulating innate and adaptive immune responses. MiR-155 has multi-roles during an innate immune response such as the regulation of the acute inflammatory response after recognition of pathogens by the toll-like



**Fig. 7.6** Chronology of events from the HBV infection until HCC development. The indicated altered miRNAs and related pathways are based on the results from Ura et al. (2009)

receptors (O'Connell et al. 2007; Tili et al. 2007). The up-regulation of miR-155 can lead to prolonged exposure to inflammation, a well-known causal agent to cancers like HCC (Berasain et al. 2009). Two recent studies suggest a role of miR-155 in hepatocarcinogenesis and HBV infection (Table 7.2). Using HCC-induced mouse model, Wang and collaborators have demonstrated an oncogenic role of miR-155 at the early stages of the tumorigenesis (Wang et al. 2009a). On the other hand, the ectopic expression of miR-155 in human hepatoma cells enhances the innate immunity through promotion of the JAK/STAT pathway and down-regulates HBx expression (Su et al. 2011).

A study analyzing the modified expression profiles of miRNAs in a stable HBV-expressing cell line revealed the up-regulation of miR-181a (Liu et al. 2009) (Table 7.2). The deregulation of this miRNA in liver cell might participate to the establishment of HBV persistence through inhibition of the human leukocyte antigen A (HLA-A) -dependent HBV antigen presentation. To date, it is unclear if miRNAs altered in the host cell, like miR-181a and miR-146a also present in Liu's study, miRNAs involved in ubiquitous and cell-specific regulatory functions, could affect directly the immune cells. The presence of circulating miRNAs, as well as the existence of intercellular nanovesicle-mediated miRNA transfer and its impact on the environmental modulation, could potentially support that hypothesis (Arataki et al. 2013; Waidmann et al. 2012; Li et al. 2010, 2012; Zhou et al. 2011; Kogure et al. 2011). The current knowledge shows an altered miRNA profile expression between normal and HCC liver at the different stages, and between the HBV and HCV-induced HCC (Murakami et al. 2006; Li et al. 2008; Budhu et al. 2008; Ura et al. 2009). For the latest one, this reflects the variation in the cellular pathways that are modulated as a consequence of the viral infection (Fig. 7.6).

#### 6.4 *MiRNAs as Biomarkers and Treatment-Based Strategies for HBV Infection and HBV-Induced HCC*

It is important to know the precise mechanisms, the cellular pathways that the viral infection or cancer cells alter in the different steps of the infection and/or tumor evolution. The knowledge will allow developing powerful targeted therapeutical strategies. The significance of miRNAs in antiviral immunity and liver carcinogenesis emphasizes their values as therapeutic targets for HBV infection and HBV-induced HCC. MiR-122 and miR-18a are of particular interest. They are both released in the blood and could be used as potential non-invasive biomarkers for HBV-related HCC screening (Liu et al. 2009; Waidmann et al. 2012; Li et al. 2012). Some other reports suggest using a miRNA panel in order to improve the specificity of the test (Li et al. 2010; Zhou et al. 2011). In addition with the current routinely used markers such as HBV surface antigen, HBV extracellular antigen and alanine aminotransferase, the circulating miRNAs represent a significant clinical value for better evaluation of the HBV-infection status, liver injury and early diagnosis of HCC.

In the therapeutic perspective, the work of Ura's group is valuable. They analyzed the livers of HBV and HCV positive patients with HCC to identify the miRNAs that are differentially expressed. Nineteen miRNAs were clearly differentiated between HBV and HCV groups, six specific for HBV and thirteen specific for HCV. Based on the miRNAs profile, they made a pathway analysis of candidate targeted genes and were also able to distinguish the cellular mechanisms altered in HBV or HCV-infected livers (Ura et al. 2009). The HBV infection alters mostly the pathways related to signal transduction, inflammation and natural killer toxicity, DNA damage, recombination, and cell death (Fig. 7.6), while HCV infection modifies those involved in immune response involving antigen presentation, cell cycle and cell adhesion (Ura et al. 2009).

Moreover, technological advances in the delivery of miRNA and RNA interference enable safe and efficient *in vivo* miRNA gene therapy, as exemplify by the recent study from Kota and collaborators on the liver cancer (Kota et al. 2009). They used an adeno-associated virus to deliver miR-26a in a mouse model of HCC. This resulted in the successful inhibition of the cancer cell proliferation, induction of the tumor-specific apoptosis, and protection from disease progression without toxicity.

## 7 Concluding Remarks

MiRNAs have emerged as novel key players in the control of gene expression in cells. Investigations of their profiling have unveiled specific miRNA deregulations in tumors and in condition of viral infection. On the viral point of view, the deregulated pathways mirror the strategies of the virus to allow its replication and evade the host defense mechanisms to survive. On the cellular point of view, they mirror the immune response that is trying to get rid of the intruder and that become

deregulated. In both cases, the viral infection leads to the alteration of miRNA expression by RSSs that can trigger tumorigenesis. Several oncogenic viruses, especially herpesviruses like EBV and KSHV, encode their own miRNAs to modify both cellular and viral gene expression (Pfeffer et al. 2004). This step is crucial for their latency phase. On the other hand, HPV, HBV and HCV do not express viral miRNAs but can affect the host miRNA pathway. The present and future knowledge about miRNA will broaden our understanding of the pathogenesis of oncogenic viruses and most certainly allow developing efficient oncogenic viral therapies.

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## NOTE

# RK-270A – C, new oxindole derivatives isolated from a microbial metabolites fraction library of *Streptomyces* sp. RK85-270

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Three new oxindole derivatives, RK-270A (1), B (2) and C (3) (Figure 1), were discovered and isolated from *Streptomyces* sp. RK85-270. They had an isopropylidene group at C-3 position of an oxindole skeleton, and C-1 also had a prenyl group and belonged to a class of 6-prenylated indoles. The isolation of this type of indoles was the first example as a natural product. Their cytotoxicity and antibacterial activities were evaluated.

Secondary metabolites from microorganisms are a major source of pharmaceutical leads and therapeutic agents<sup>1</sup> or bioprobes in a chemical biology study.<sup>2</sup> To obtain such valuable metabolites efficiently we have constructed a microbial metabolites fraction library and a spectral database based on the photodiode array detector attached LC/MS analysis.<sup>3,4</sup> Through our methodology, we have identified several structurally unique metabolites, verticilactam,<sup>5</sup> spirotoamides A and B,<sup>6</sup> pyrrolizilactone,<sup>7</sup> fraquinocins I and J<sup>8</sup> and 6-dimethylallylindole (DMAI)-3-carbaldehyde.<sup>9</sup> Moreover, we recently reported the advanced metabolite database Natural Products Plot (NPPlot) and discovery of new quinomycins, RK-1355A and B by the NPPlot search.<sup>10</sup> These results have revealed the advantage of the fraction library for isolation of new metabolites.

The fraction library of *Streptomyces* sp. RK85-270, which was isolated from a soil sample collected in Java, Indonesia in 1985, was prepared from 30 l of culture broth following the scheme as described in the previous paper.<sup>3–6</sup> On screening for structurally unique secondary metabolites using the database, we identified three unknown peaks with identical UV, which showed characteristic UV absorption with around 260, 265 and 300 nm indicating an indole chromophore with extended conjugation. They also showed quasi-molecular ion peaks at 242, 276 and 271 [M+H]<sup>+</sup>, respectively. The related fractions were purified by C<sub>18</sub>-HPLC with acetonitrile/water isocratic elution to yield compounds 1 (1.2 mg), 2 (1.4 mg) and 3

(1.3 mg) (see Supplementary Information for physicochemical properties). We report herein the structures of these three new compounds designated RK-270A (1), B (2) and C (3).

Compound 1 was obtained as an orange amorphous powder, and its molecular formula was determined to be C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>19</sub>NO by HRESIMS (*m/z* 242.1542 [M+H]<sup>+</sup>, calcd for C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>20</sub>NO, 242.1545). The IR spectrum implied the presence of an amide carbonyl group (1687 and 1617 cm<sup>-1</sup>). The <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum in DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub> showed four methyl signals ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  1.67 (3H, s), 1.69 (3H, s), 2.26 (3H, s) and 2.47 (3H, s)) (Table 1). Two of them ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  1.67 and 1.69) suggested the presence of a prenyl group with olefin and methylene signals ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  5.26 (1H, m), 3.26 (2H, d, *J* = 7.4 Hz)). It also showed an exchangeable NH proton ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  10.31 (1H, broad singlet; brs)) and three aromatic resonances with AB-X pattern ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  7.40 (1H, d, *J* = 8.0 Hz), 6.74 (1H, dd, *J* = 8.0, 1.1 Hz) and 6.60 (1H, d, *J* = 1.1 Hz)) suggesting the presence of a trisubstituted benzene ring, which was supposed to be a part of an indole skeleton. The <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR data in conjunction with the HSQC data suggested the presence of 16 carbons, comprising four methyls, one methylene, four methines and seven quaternary carbons, which included an amide carbonyl signal at  $\delta_{\text{C}}$  168.8. In the HSQC spectrum in DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub>, the correlation between H-10 and C-10 was observed as a very weak signal, therefore it was confirmed by HSQC spectrum in CDCl<sub>3</sub>. Interpretation of the 2D NMR data including DQF-COSY, HSQC and HMBC spectra led to the construction of precise structure of 1 (Figure 2). The HMBC correlations from NH signal to C-3 and C-7a, from H-4 to C-3, C-6 and C-7a, from H-5 to C-3a and C-7 and from H-7 to C-3a constructed an oxindole skeleton and substitutions at C-3 and C-6 positions in the oxindole skeleton in consideration of AB-X coupling pattern in <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectra, <sup>13</sup>C NMR data and IR spectrum. The isopropylidene moiety and its attachment at C-3 position was confirmed by HMBC

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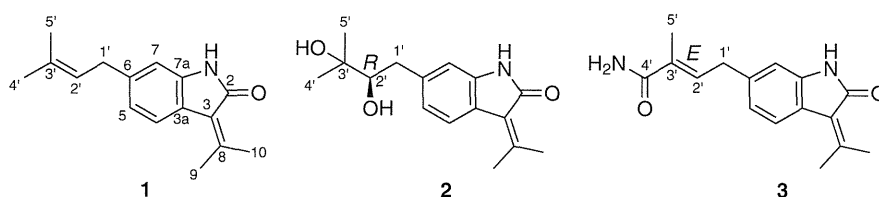


Figure 1 Structures of compounds 1, 2 and 3.

Table 1 NMR spectroscopic data (500 MHz) for compounds 1, 2 and 3

Position	1 <sup>a</sup>		2 <sup>a</sup>		3 <sup>a</sup>	
	$\delta_C$	$\delta_H$ (J in Hz)	$\delta_C$	$\delta_H$ (J in Hz)	$\delta_C$	$\delta_H$ (J in Hz)
1-NH	—	10.31, brs <sup>b</sup>	—	10.34, brs	—	10.37, brs
2	168.8	—	168.9	—	169.3 <sup>c</sup>	—
3	122.7	—	122.8	—	123.1	—
3a	121.4	—	121.2	—	122.3	—
4	123.5	7.40, d (8.0)	123.1	7.38, d (8.0)	124.1	7.43, d (8.0)
5	120.8	6.74, dd (8.0, 1.1)	122.0	6.79, dd (8.0, 1.1)	121.5	6.79, dd (8.0, 1.2)
6	141.2	—	141.4	—	140.0	—
7	108.8	6.60, d (1.1)	110.0	6.71, d (1.1)	109.6	6.63, d (1.2)
7a	140.6	—	140.2	—	141.2	—
8	152.5	—	152.0	—	153.5	—
9	24.7	2.26, s	24.7	2.27, s	25.3	2.28, s
10	22.1	2.47, s	22.0	2.48, s	22.7	2.48, brs
1'	33.8	3.26, d (7.4)	37.6	2.88, d (13.2)	34.5	3.43, d (7.5)
2'	—	—	—	2.31, dd (13.2, 10.3)	—	—
2'	123.1	5.26, m	79.1	3.27, dd (10.3, 1.2)	134.0	6.42, ddd (7.5, 7.5, 1.2)
3'	131.9	—	71.7	—	132.6	—
4'	25.5	1.69, s	24.0	1.05, s	170.5 <sup>b</sup>	—
5'	17.7	1.67, s	26.9	1.10, s	13.3	1.82, d (1.2)
2'-OH	—	—	—	4.44, brs	—	—
3'-OH	—	—	—	4.26, brs	—	—
4'-NH <sub>2</sub>	—	—	—	—	—	6.87, brs
						7.32, brs

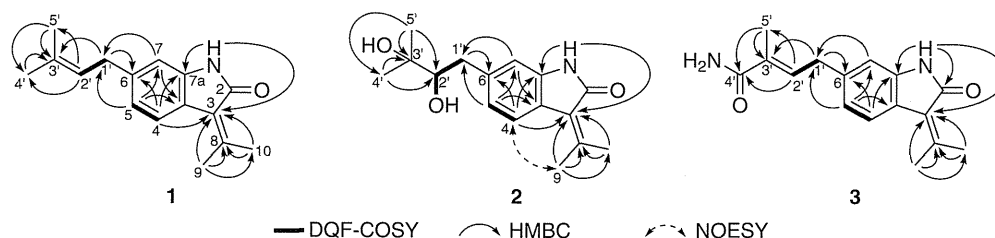
<sup>a</sup>Recorded in DMSO-*d*<sub>6</sub>.<sup>b</sup>brs: broad singlet.<sup>c</sup>Indicated carbons showed only weak resonances in the <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectrum, but their presence and connectivity were clearly evidenced by all conducted 2D NMR experiments.

Figure 2 Key 2D NMR correlations of 1, 2 and 3.

correlations from both H-9 and H-10 to C-8, from H-9 to C-10, and from both H-9 and H-10 to C-3. The assignments of C-9 and C-10 signals were established by the low field chemical shift value of H-10 rather than that of H-9. The prenyl group was constructed by HMBC correlations from H-1' to C-3', from H-2' to both C-4' and C-5', from both H-4' and H-5' to C-3 and from H-5' to C-4'. The attachment of the prenyl group was established by HMBC correlation from both H-5 and H-7 to C-1' and from H-1' to C-6. The

assignment of C-4' and C-5' signals were performed owing to their chemical shifts ( $\delta_C$  17.7 (C-5') and 25.5 (C-4')). Thus, the structure of 1 was designated as RK-270A.

The molecular formula of compound 2 was determined to be C<sub>16</sub>H<sub>21</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> by HRESIMS. The IR absorption at 1683 and 1622 cm<sup>-1</sup> and identical UV spectrum with that of 1 suggested that 2 had the same oxindole skeleton as 1. However, the IR spectrum showed an additional absorption at 3388 cm<sup>-1</sup>, indicating the presence of a

hydroxyl group. The  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum in  $\text{DMSO-}d_6$  was also similar to that of **1**, except for the disappearance of the olefin proton and appearance of two exchangeable signals at  $\delta_{\text{H}}$  4.44 and 4.26 as broad signals and an oxymethine signal at  $\delta_{\text{H}}$  3.27, which were confirmed by HSQC spectrum. The  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectrum in  $\text{DMSO-}d_6$  showed 16 signals including identical signals for the oxindole skeleton with those of **1**. However, the olefin signals were disappeared and two oxygenated signals at  $\delta_{\text{C}}$  71.7 as a quaternary one and  $\delta_{\text{C}}$  79.1 as a methine were observed. On the basis of the above observation, **2** was supposed to be a dihydroxylated derivative of **1** at the  $\Delta^2$ . The planner structure of **2** was established by the same manner as **1**. The assignments of C-9 and C-10 were established by their  $^1\text{H}$  NMR chemical shift values and confirmed by NOESY correlation between H-4 and H-9 (Figure 2). To determine the absolute configuration for C-2', preparation of the ester of **2** using  $\alpha$ -methoxy- $\alpha$ -trifluoromethylphenylacetic acid (MTPA) or  $\alpha$ -methoxy- $\alpha$ -trifluoromethylphenylacetyl chloride (MTPACl) were carried out by application of the modified Mosher's method (see Supplementary Information for detail).<sup>11</sup> However, all of the approaches employed did not yield the desired product. Therefore, the optical rotation value of **2** was compared with those of (*R*)-6-(2,3-dihydroxy-3-methylbutyl)indole and (*R*)-6-(2,3-dihydroxy-3-methylbutyl)indolin-2-one.<sup>12</sup> Compound **2** displayed a negative optical rotation as same as the literature. Thus, the absolute configuration at C-2' was supposed to be *R*-configuration, and the structure of **2** was designated as RK-270B.

Compound **3** had a molecular formula of  $\text{C}_{16}\text{H}_{18}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$  determined by HRESIMS. The  $^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra in  $\text{DMSO-}d_6$  were similar to those of **1** for the oxindole skeleton with isopropylidene group at C-3, which was also supported by the identical UV spectrum and similar IR spectrum with those of **1**. However, one methyl signal was disappeared and two exchangeable signals assigned as  $\text{NH}_2$  protons ( $\delta_{\text{H}}$  7.32 (1H, brs) and 6.87 (1H, brs)) were observed in the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum of **3**. In addition, the  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectrum showed the additional carbonyl carbon at  $\delta_{\text{C}}$  170.5 as a weak signal, which was clearly observed by the HMBC correlations and confirmed by  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR data obtained in  $\text{CD}_3\text{OD}$ , and the missing of one methyl signal. These observation suggested that one of the methyl groups at C-3' of **1** was replaced by an amide group. The detailed structure was determined by the same manner as **1** and **2** (Figure 2) and designated as RK-270C.

Compounds **1**, **2** and **3** were evaluated for cytotoxic activity against human cervical cancer cells (HeLa), human promyelocytic leukemia cells (HL-60), mouse temperature-sensitive *cdc2* mutant cells (tsFT210) and rat kidney cells that were infected with ts25 (*src*<sup>ts</sup>-NRK) and antimicrobial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, *Aspergillus fumigatus*, *Magnaporthe oryzae* and *Candida albicans*. Compound **1** showed moderate cytotoxicity against all of four cell lines with  $\text{IC}_{50}$  values of 6.6, 5.5, 10.9 and  $15.3 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ , respectively. Compound **1** also showed weak antifungal activity against *M. oryzae* with  $\text{IC}_{50}$  value of  $8.7 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ . In contrast, **2** and **3** did not show any effects up to  $30 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ . These results suggest that the prenyl group is important for the activities, which will be an important knowledge for future SAR study.

Three new oxindole derivatives, RK-270A (**1**), B (**2**) and C (**3**) were isolated from *Streptomyces* sp. RK85-270 based on our methodology constructing the fraction library with spectral database. They had an

isopropylidene group at C-3 position and prenyl group or its related side chains at C-6 position. Even though prenylated indole derivatives are widely distributed in nature,<sup>13</sup> the isolation of the prenylated oxindole with the isopropylidene group at C-3 position is the first example as a natural product. We have reported the isolation of the new prenylated indole, 6-DMAI-3-carbaldehyde from *Streptomyces* sp. SN-593 and identified the key enzyme (IptA) for the prenylation at C-6 position.<sup>9</sup> Recently, Satou *et al.*<sup>14</sup> have reported the isolation of 3-hydroxy-6-dimethylallylindolin-2-one from *Actinoplanes missouriensis* and its biosynthetic pathway. However, a gene responsible for oxindole formation still remains unsolved. In addition, conversion of **1** into **2** and **3** requires successive hydroxylation and carboxamide formation. Identification of the gene cluster of **1**–**3** is indispensable to address the mechanism of biosynthesis and future derivatization of oxindoles which might have a strong biological activity.

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# Adenovirus-Encoding Virus-Associated RNAs Suppress HDGF Gene Expression to Support Efficient Viral Replication

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## Abstract

Non-coding small RNAs are involved in many physiological responses including viral life cycles. Adenovirus-encoding small RNAs, known as virus-associated RNAs (VA RNAs), are transcribed throughout the replication process in the host cells, and their transcript levels depend on the copy numbers of the viral genome. Therefore, VA RNAs are abundant in infected cells after genome replication, i.e. during the late phase of viral infection. Their function during the late phase is the inhibition of interferon-inducible protein kinase R (PKR) activity to prevent antiviral responses; recently, miRNAs, the microRNAs processed from VA RNAs, have been reported to inhibit cellular gene expression. Although VA RNA transcription starts during the early phase, little is known about its function. The reason may be because much smaller amount of VA RNAs are transcribed during the early phase than the late phase. In this study, we applied replication-deficient adenovirus vectors (AdVs) and novel AdVs lacking VA RNA genes to analyze the expression changes in cellular genes mediated by VA RNAs using microarray analysis. AdVs are suitable to examine the function of VA RNAs during the early phase, since they constitutively express VA RNAs but do not replicate except in 293 cells. We found that the expression level of hepatoma-derived growth factor (HDGF) significantly decreased in response to the VA RNAs under replication-deficient condition, and this suppression was also observed during the early phase under replication-competent conditions. The suppression was independent of miRNA-induced downregulation, suggesting that the function of VA RNAs during the early phase differs from that during the late phase. Notably, overexpression of HDGF inhibited AdV growth. This is the first report to show the function, in part, of VA RNAs during the early phase that may contribute to efficient viral growth.

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**Data Availability:** The authors confirm that all data underlying the findings are fully available without restriction. All relevant data except for the microarray data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files. All the data acquired by the microarray analysis were deposited in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (NO. GSE58605).

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## Introduction

It has become increasingly clear over the past decade that non-coding small RNAs play roles in viral life cycles at various ways [1–3]. Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is known to utilize host microRNA miR122, which is specifically expressed and highly abundant in the human liver, to support its efficient replication through its direct attachment to the HCV 5' non-translation region; thus, miR122 is regarded as a therapeutic target for antiviral intervention [4–6]. Moreover, more than two hundred small RNAs derived from viruses have been identified. For example, Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) encodes two small RNAs, EBER-1 and EBER-2 [7–9], which modulate the interferon-mediated antiviral response [10].

Adenoviruses (Ads) encode two kinds of non-coding small-RNAs, known as virus-associated (VA) RNAs, VAI and VAII, that

consist of 157–160 nucleotides (nts). After Ad infection, the transcription of VA RNAs starts at the same time as the E1A gene and lasts until the late phase. Since the transcription level of VA RNAs increases depending on the number of viral genome copies, VA RNAs in Ad-infected cells are abundant during the late phase, and this is one reason why the functional analysis of VA RNAs during the late phase has been investigated much more frequently than during the early phase.

The VA RNA I (VAI), which is expressed at a level of  $10^8$  copies per infected cell during the late phase [11], is required to establish efficient translation in virus-infected cells [12,13]. Moreover, it is well known that VAI inhibits anti-viral double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)-activated protein kinase (PKR). Also, VAI stabilizes ribosome-associated viral mRNAs, which could lead to enhanced levels of protein synthesis [14]. These findings have indicated that VAI plays a role in creating suitable conditions for viral growth, at

least during the late phase of infection. Recently, VA RNAs have been reported to be processed to microRNAs (mivaRNAs) via the cellular RNA-interference (RNAi) machinery, and mivaRNAs disturb cellular DNA expressions during the late phase [15]. However, it has not been investigated the function of VA RNA during the early phase, though the expression of VA RNAs starts immediately during the early phase of viral infection.

E1- and E3-deleted adenovirus vectors (AdVs), known as first-generation (FG) AdVs, have widely been used for the transient expression of transgenes in various cell types. FG AdVs lack E1A gene, an essential for viral replication; consequently, they neither express any viral gene product in target cells nor replicate except in 293 cells, which express E1A gene constitutively. However, since VA RNAs are transcribed by RNA polymerase III, their expressions are independent of E1A-mediated transactivation and they are always transcribed from AdV genome in AdV-infected cells. Therefore, FG AdVs are thought to be a suitable tool for the investigation of VA RNA function during the early phase of viral infection, since they express VA RNAs but do not replicate except in 293 cells. Moreover, these AdVs allow us to study the function of VA RNAs during both early and late phase using 293 cells. For this purpose, AdVs lacking VA RNA genes (VA-deleted AdVs) are essential as a control; however, VA-deleted AdVs have been difficult to generate and produce in quantities sufficient for practical use. Recently, we have developed a novel method for the efficient production of VA-deleted AdVs using a site-specific recombinase FLP [16]. A “pre-vector” containing the VA RNA region flanked by a pair of FRT sequences, which are target sequences for FLP recombinase, is constructed according to a commonly used method for the production of FG AdV [17]. This pre-vector, which is obtained at a high titer, is subsequently used to infect a 293 cell line that constitutively expresses humanized-FLPe [18] (293hde12) [19] so that the VA RNA region is removed from replicating viral genome. Since the excision efficiency of FLP in 293hde12 cells is high enough to remove almost all the VA RNA region from the very high number of viral genome copies, this method can be used to generate a high-titer of VA-deleted AdVs efficiently.

Here, we demonstrated the effect of VA RNAs expressed via FG AdVs on cellular gene expression by comparing the expression patterns between VA-deleted AdV- and FG AdV-infected cells using a microarray analysis. We found that VA RNAs expressed from FG AdVs disturbed the cellular gene expressions. Especially, the expression level of HDGF (hepatoma-derived growth factor; ENSG00000143321.14) was significantly decreased under the replication-deficient conditions; notably, HDGF expression started to decrease even during the early phase of infection in the 293 cells. Moreover, the overexpression of the HDGF gene inhibited viral growth in 293 cells, suggesting that the suppression of HDGF gene expression mediated by the VA RNAs was important for viral growth. This is the first report to show the function of VA RNAs during the early phase of infection.

## Materials and Methods

### Cells and AdVs

Human embryo kidney 293 cell line (ATCC) [20], human lung carcinoma A549 cell line (ATCC) [21], and human hepatocellular carcinoma derived HuH-7 cell line (RIKEN BRC) [22] were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS). 293hde12 cell line [19], which is a 293 cell line possessing the hFLPe gene [18] (an improved version of the FLPe gene [23]), was cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FCS plus geneticin (0.75 mg/

mL). After infection with AdVs, the cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 5% FCS without geneticin. For AraC (cytosine b-D-arabinofuranoside, hydrochloride: Sigma) treatment, the infected cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 5% FCS plus AraC (20 µg/mL).

The FG AdVs were prepared using 293 cells, which constitutively express adenoviral E1 genes and support the replication of E1-substituted AdVs. The VA-deleted AdVs except for HDGF- and GFP-expressing AdVs were prepared according to a method using 293U6VA-1 cells that constitutively express both VAI and VAII. HDGF-expressing and GFP-expressing VA-deleted AdVs were generated as described previously [16]. Briefly, an HDGF-expressing and a GFP-expressing unit under the control of the EF1 $\alpha$  promoter was inserted into the SmaI cloning site at the authentic E1 substitution region in the pre-vector cosmid pAxdV-4FVF-w, and the pre-vectors were prepared using 293 cells. Subsequently, the pre-vectors were used to infect 293hde12 cells that constitutively express humanized FLPe recombinase [19] to excise the VA RNA region from the replicating viral genome. The VA-deleted AdVs transcribed less than 1% of the VA RNAs, compared with the FG AdVs, as confirmed using real-time PCR [16]. The VA-deleted AdVs and the FG AdVs were titrated using the methods described by Pei et al [24]. Briefly, the copy numbers of a viral genome that was successfully transduced into infected target cells were measured using qPCR (relative virus titer: rVT). This method enabled us to compare the various titers, since the transduction titer is not influenced by the growth rate of the 293 cells, even if an expressed gene product is deleterious to 293 cells.

### Plasmids

The pVA41da plasmid [16] contains a DNA fragment covering all of VAI and VAII from nt position 10576–11034 of adenovirus type 5. The pBluescript SK (-) (Stratagene) was used as a control. The plasmids were transfected using Transfast (Promega). A pxEGFP plasmid expressing GFP under the control of the EF1 $\alpha$  promoter was used as a transfection control. Two days after the transfection of pVA41da plasmid into 293 cells, the cells were harvested and the total RNAs were extracted as described below to measure the HDGF mRNA levels using qPCR.

### Microarray analysis

VA-deleted AdV (Axd12CARedE) and VA-containing FG AdV (AxCAdRedE) were infected at an MOI (multiplicity of infection) of 0.5 to A549 cells for 24 h. We prepared triplicate samples for each of the conditions, and total RNA isolation was performed using a Qiagen RNeasy kit (Qiagen). A DNA microarray analysis using Affymetrix Gene-Chip technology was performed as described previously [25–27]. Briefly, 100 ng of total RNAs were used as a template for cDNA synthesis, and biotin-labeled cRNA was synthesized with a 3' IVT Express Kit (Affymetrix). After generating the hybridization cocktails, hybridization to the DNA microarray (Genechip; Human Genome U133 Plus 2.0 Array; Affymetrix) [28] and fluorescent labeling were performed. The microarrays were then scanned with a GeneChip; Scanner 3000 7G System (Affymetrix). The data analysis was performed using GCOS software (Affymetrix). Signal detection and quantification were performed using the MAS5 algorithm with default settings. Global normalization was performed so that the average signal intensity of all the probe sets was equal to 100. For the clustering analysis, the signals were normalized and calculated to the individual scores, and the scores were visualized using Spotfire DecisionCite [29]. The analysis of variance among the groups was also performed using Spotfire DecisionCite and normalized data.