Identification of Characteristic Genomic Markers in Human Hepatoma Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 Cell Lines

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Abstract

The human hepatoma-derived Huh7 cell line and its derivatives (Huh7.5 and Huh7.5.1) have been widely used as a convenient experimental substitute for primary hepatocytes. In particular, these cell lines represent host cells suitable for propagating the hepatitis C virus (HCV) *in vitro*. The Huh7.5.1-8 cell line, a subline of Huh7.5.1, can propagate HCV more efficiently than its parental cells. To provide genomic information for cells' quality control, we performed whole-genome sequencing of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 and identified their characteristic genomic deletions, some of which are applicable to an in-house test for cell authentication. Among the genes related to HCV infection and replication, 53 genes were found to carry missense or loss-of-function mutations likely specific to the Huh7 and/or Huh7.5.1-8. Eight genes, including *DDX58* (*RIG-I*), *BAX*, *EP300*, and *SPP1* (osteopontin), contained mutations observed only in Huh7.5.1-8 or mutations with higher frequency in Huh7.5.1-8. These mutations might be relevant to phenotypic differences between the two cell lines and may also serve as genetic markers to distinguish Huh7.5.1-8 cells from the ancestral Huh7 cells.

Keywords: Huh7, genome sequencing, cell lines, hepatitis C virus

Introduction

Quality control of cells is crucial for biopharmaceutical manufacturing as well as research. In research, many cell lines have been misidentified (http://iclac.org/wp-content/uploads/ Cross-Contaminations-v8_0.pdf), and various academic journals have begun requesting proper authentication of cells used in studies. Cell lines can be identified by genotyping multiple common genetic variants, such as microsatellite markers and single nucleotide variants (SNVs)(Gilbert et al., 1990, Ghandi, 2019 #11972). However, such common markers would not be useful for discriminating between cell lines that originated from the same ancestral cell line. Thus, rational, easy in-house methods of identifying cell lines are widely desired. In particular, the mutation rate of deletion is much lower than that of point mutations(Wang et al., 2008). Cell line-specific deletions are applicable to cell line authentication of African green monkey kidney-derived Vero cells (Osada et al., 2014)·(Sakuma et al., 2018), which are widely used in virologic research and human vaccine production.

HuH-7 (hereafter Huh7) is a permanent cell line established from male hepatoma tissue, which was surgically removed from a 57-year-old Japanese male in 1982(Nakabayashi et al., 1982). Huh7 and its derivatives have been used as a convenient experimental substitute for primary hepatocytes. Approximately 80% of hepatocellular carcinoma incidents in humans are caused by hepatitis viruses; in all hepatocellular carcinoma incidents, ~25% were caused by hepatitis C virus (HCV) and ~53% were caused by hepatitis B virus (HBV)(Perz et al., 2006). HCV is a positive-stranded RNA virus that infects humans, causing acute and chronic liver diseases. The chronic infection eventually leads to severe symptoms, such as hepatitis and hepatocellular carcinoma. Thus,

permanent cell lines suitable for investigating human hepatitis viruses have always been

invaluable. After the establishment of Huh7, several studies have attempted to derive cell

lines that are more permissive to HCV than Huh7 (Blight et al., 2002; Feigelstock et al.,

2010). The whole-genome sequence of Huh7 was determined in a large-scale genome

sequencing project of various cancer cell lines (Ghandi et al., 2019); however, a detailed

study of the Huh7 genome sequence has not been performed. Huh7.5, a subline of Huh7,

was established as a highly permissive cell line to replicate subgenomic and genomic

HCV RNA in 2002 (Blight et al., 2002). Interestingly, Huh7.5, but not the ancestral Huh7,

has a missense mutation in *DDX58* (or *RIG-I*) gene, which participates in intracellular

antiviral defense (Sumpter et al., 2005). Although cell culture systems that recapitulate

the HCV life cycle have not been developed for a long time, the JFH-1 HCV strain has

been found to produce infective progenitor virions after introduction to Huh7.5

cells(Wakita et al., 2005). Huh7.5.1, a subline of Huh7.5 cells, was subsequently

established as a cell line with the intent to generate a cell line that cultures JFH-1 more

efficiently than Huh7.5 (Zhong et al., 2005). Although Huh7.5.1 displayed faster viral

replication kinetics than Huh7, Huh7 and Huh7.5.1 eventually produced a similar level

of viral titers (Zhong et al., 2005). We previously found that the expression level of CD81,

which is a plasma membrane protein essential for HCV infection (Petracca et al., 2000),

was not uniform in the Huh7.5.1 cells, and we thus obtained Huh7.5.1-8, a subclone of

Huh7.5.1, in which CD81 is stably expressed on cell surfaces (Shirasago et al., 2015).

Huh7.5.1-8 cells exhibit ~10-fold greater permissiveness to HCV than Huh7.5.1 cells

(Shirasago et al., 2015). HCV culture systems have provided robust assay systems to

screen anti-HCV compounds, resulting in the development of various anti-HCV

medicines that are currently marketed, although anti-HCV vaccines have not been

developed.

We determined the whole-genome sequences of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 cell lines and

found characteristic genomic deletions in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8, some of which are

applicable to an in-house test for cell authentication. In addition, among the genes related

to HCV infection and replication, 53 genes were found to carry missense or loss-of-

function (LoF) mutations that were not registered in the public germline mutation

databases, but were found in the Huh7 and/or Huh7.5.1-8. Among them, 8 genes,

including *DDX58* (*RIG-I*), *BAX*, *EP300*, and *SPP1* (osteopontin), contained mutations

observed only in Huh7.5.1-8 or mutations with higher frequency in Huh7.5.1-8.

Materials and Methods

DNA sample preparation and sequencing

DNA samples of Huh7 hepatocarcinoma cell line (JCRB0403) and Huh7.5.1-8 cell line

were obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources (JCRB) Cell Bank.

We confirmed that the HCV replication is slower in JCRB0403 than Huh7.5.1-8 (data not

shown). For both samples, fragment libraries (average fragment sizes of ~560 bp) were

constructed using TruSeq DNA PCR-Free LT Library Prep Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA,

USA). Paired-end sequences of 150 bp long were determined using HiSeq X (Illumina).

Approximately 1.8 billion sequence reads were obtained from each sample. We examined

whether viral sequences of HBV and HCV are integrated into the two genomes using

VirusFinder 2 software(Wang et al., 2015). The sequences were deposited in the DDBJ

DRA database under project ID PRJDB7928.

RNA-seq data

We retrieved previously obtained RNA-seq data from Huh7.5.1 and Huh7.5.1-8

(DRR018792 and DRR018793, respectively). Because the initial quality check for the

RNA-seq data showed some of the read bases had relatively low quality, we applied

Trimmomatic software (version 0.36)(Bolger et al., 2014) to filter out low-quality reads.

After trimming low-quality bases of average quality score <20 (window size: 4), reads

shorter than 75 bp were filtered out. RNA-seq reads were mapped to the reference human

genome using HISAT2 (Kim et al., 2015).

SNV calling

Genomic reads were mapped to the reference human genome sequence (GRCh38

primary assembly downloaded from the Ensembl database) using the BWA MEM

algorithm (version 0.7.15-r1140)(Li and Durbin, 2009) with a default parameter setting.

The read mapping rates of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 were 99.88% and 99.87%, respectively.

To generate alignment files for variant calling, GATK Best Practices Pipeline 3.0, which

includes duplicated read filtering, realignment around indels, and recalibration of base

quality score, was applied to the initial alignments(McKenna et al., 2010).

The sites with read depths of ≥14 and ≤100 were used for the following variant calling.

The number of sites with ≥14 read depth covered >95% of the reference human genome

in our dataset. Initial SNV calling was performed using VarScan (version 2.4.3) (Koboldt

et al., 2012) with a base quality score cutoff of 15 and a variant allele frequency cutoff of

0.1%. Multiallelic SNVs were removed from the analytical pipeline. Known germline

SNVs registered in the public database (dbSNP_149) were filtered out using the

SelectVariants program in the GATK package(McKenna et al., 2010). However, when a

variant nucleotide in Huh7 and/or Huh7.5.1-8 was different from that in the dbSNP, those

variants were kept for further analyses as a novel variant.

We defined three categories of newly identified SNVs according to their frequency in

Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8. We tested whether the SNV frequency is higher in Huh7 or

Huh7.5.1-8 with statistical significance. Statistical significance was evaluated using the

χ^2 test and a false discovery rate of 0.05 (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). The SNVs

with higher frequency in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 were categorized into "Huh7-predominant"

and "Huh7.5.1-8-predominant" categories, respectively. The SNVs that did not pass the

criteria were further classified into "shared" SNVs when the variant frequencies in both

samples exceeded 0.25.

Structural variant calling

Indels shorter than 50 bp were identified, using VarScan, with the same pipeline for

SNV calling. Indels that exactly matched to known germline indels (Mills and 1000G

gold standard indels (Mills et al., 2006)) were filtered out from further analyses.

Accordingly, short indels were classified into three categories: Huh7-predominant,

Huh7.5.1-8-predominant, and shared short indels.

Long indels (≥50 bp) were identified using Manta (version 1.1.0) (Chen et al., 2016).

As with the SNV calling, we only considered the sites with read depths of ≥14 and ≤100.

The estimated structural variant frequency in Manta was difficult when we did not obtain

a sufficient number of reads spanning breakpoints. Therefore, we classified the structural

variants into the above three categories without considering variant frequencies. Large

insertions that match to the insertions in Mills and 1000G gold standard dataset and large

deletions that overlapped (≥50% length of the estimated deletion size in the cell lines)

with the deletions of Mills and 1000G gold standard and/or 1000 Genome Phase 3

structural variants (downloaded from ftp://ftp.1000genomes.ebi.ac.uk/vol1/ftp/phase3/)

were filtered out.

Functional annotation

Functional annotation of mutations was performed using the snpEff software

(Cingolani et al., 2012) with an annotation data snpEff_v4_3_GRCh38.86. Using the

annotation information, SNVs with strong phenotypic effects (missense mutations,

nonsense mutations, and mutations at splicing acceptor-donor sites) were extracted.

Functional annotation of genes was performed using the DAVID bioinformatics

resource(Jiao et al., 2012). We used the following five fields in DAVID output: disease,

functional categories, gene ontology, pathways, and protein domains. The protein-protein

association networks were retrieved from the STRING database (Szklarczyk et al., 2015).

The   Python   scripts   used   in   this   study   were   deposited   in   GitHub

(https://github.com/J1011Ibb14029/kwmtools).

Sequence conservation

We investigated the evolutionary conservation at mutated amino acid sites using the

amino acid sequences of 12 nonhuman vertebrate species: *Pan troglodytes*, *Pan paniscus*,

Gorilla gorilla, Pongo abelii, Macaca mulatta, Cricetulus griseus, Felis catus, Desmodus

rotundus, *Phascolarctos cinereus*, and *Gallus gallus.* Sequence data were retrieved and

aligned using MEGAX (Knyaz et al., 2018), and sequence alignment was performed with

the MUSCLE algorithm (Edgar, 2004).

Experimental validation of deletions

The HeLa cervical carcinoma cell line (JCRB9004) was obtained from the JCRB Cell

Bank and used as a control. Genome DNA was prepared from the cell lines using the

Blood Genomic DNA Extraction Mini Kit (Favorgen, Ping-Tung, Taiwan, ROC).

Deletions in the genomes of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 cells were verified by PCR

experiments using a previously reported procedure (Sakuma et al., 2017). Briefly,

PrimeSTAR GXL DNA Polymerase (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan) was used for amplification.

The reaction mixture, containing 60 ng genome DNA, was denatured at 98°C for 1 min

and then subjected to 40 cycles, consisting of 98°C for 10 s, 61°C for 15 s, and 68°C, for

1 min. The amplified products were electrophoresed on an agarose gel and visualized

with the Gel Doc EZ imager (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Then, 1 kb Plus DNA

Ladder was used as a molecular marker (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

Sanger sequencing of DDX58 gene

Genomic DNA was prepared from 1×10^6 cells using the Blood Genomic DNA

Extraction Mini Kit (Favorgen) and used as a template to amplify a 446 bp fragment

corresponding to bases 30,196 to 30,641 of the human DDX58 genic region (National

Center for Biotechnology Information accession number NG_046918.1; 78,023 bp) using

PCR. PCR was performed with 35 cycles of amplification (95°C for 10 s, 57°C for 5 s,

and 72°C for 5 s) on the PCR Thermal Cycler Dice (Takara Bio) using PrimeSTAR MAX

DNA   polymerase   (Takara   Bio),   forward   primer   5′-

GTGGCTTGGTGAAGAATGGGCACAG-3′ (bases 30,196–30,220), and reverse primer

5′-CTCAGACTAAGAGGCATGAACTATAAGTGG-3′ (complementary to bases

30,612–30,641). The resulting fragments were separated in an agarose gel, purified using

with a gel/PCR extraction kit (FastGene; Nippon Genetics, Tokyo, Japan), and directly

sequenced by the Sanger method using forward primer 5′-

CCCTATTTGGGAAGGTCTGGTGATC-3′ (bases 30,291–30,315) and reverse primer

5′-CACTTTTACAGTATTGTCAAGCAGC-3′ (complementary to bases 30,564–30,588)

by Eurofins Genomics K.K. (Tokyo, Japan).

Results and Discussion

Identification of mutations in Huh7 lineages

We obtained 41.0- and 41.1-fold coverages of whole-genome sequence reads from

Huh7 (JCRB0403) and Huh7.5.1-8 cells, respectively. No sequences related to HBV and

HCV were detected in the genomes using the VirusFinder2 pipeline, as reported

previously for HBV using *in situ* hybridization (Tay et al., 1990). To identify novel

mutations, we filtered out mutations matched to the previously known germline SNVs

and indels from further analyses (see Materials and Methods). These mutations were not

found in currently available human mutation database, suggesting that most (even if not

all) of these newly-identified SNVs specifically occurred during the establishment of the

Huh7 cell line and/or the development of the liver cancer in the patient, from which the

cell line was established. For the following analysis, we further classified mutations into

three categories: 1) Huh7-predominant mutations, of which frequency is higher in Huh7

than in Huh7.5.1-8, 2) Huh7.5.1-8-predominant mutations, of which mutation frequency

is higher in Huh7.5.1-8 than in Huh7, and 3) shared mutations, of which frequency is

almost equal between the two cell lines. The SNVs of higher frequency in Huh7 than in

Huh7.5.1-8, with statistical significance (false discovery rate of 0.05), were classified as

Huh7-predominant SNVs and vice versa. The SNVs that did not pass the criteria were

further classified into shared SNVs when the variant frequencies in both samples

exceeded 0.25. Table 1 summarizes the number of mutations, including SNVs, insertions,

and deletions.

As expected, many new mutations had higher frequencies in Huh7.5.1-8 than in Huh7

(Huh7.5.1-8-predominant class), because Huh7.5.1-8 should have experienced a larger

number of cell passages. However, Huh7 also had a substantial number of mutations that

were not found in Huh7.5.1-8. The observation was, presumably, accounted for by the

fact that the seed stock of Huh7 cells we sequenced was not a direct ancestral cell seed

that was used to establish Huh7.5. In total, we identified 394,568 new mutations,

including 227,447 SNVs and 29,050 insertions, and 136,930 deletions.

Most of the mutations were shared between the two cell lines. These shared mutations

were most likely to have arisen before the establishment of the Huh7 cell line.

Heterogeneity of mutations is often seen not only among different cancer types but also

among cancer cells of different patients diagnosed with the same cancer type. Indeed, the

amount and pattern of new mutations in liver cancer tissues were shown to be

considerably diverse (Fujimoto et al., 2015). In our study, Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 contained

a relatively large number of new mutations, although it is impossible to obtain germline

cells of the patient from whom Huh7 derived to sequence their genome, and some of the

mutations might have occurred in the germline cells. Notably, the number of insertions

and deletions was considerably high, and the ratio of indels to SNVs was much higher

than the ratio observed in germline cells (Wang et al., 2008). Our validation, using

polymerase chain reaction (PCR), confirmed that all six amplified regions contained

specific deletions in the cell line DNA, indicating that the false-positive rate would not

be substantially high in our variant calling pipeline.

Interestingly, we identified one nonsynonymous mutation (K70R) in the *POLD3* gene,

which plays an important role in high-fidelity DNA replication (Johansson and MacNeill,

2010) in both Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8. In all 12 nonhuman vertebrates we analyzed, POLD3

had lysine residues at site 70, indicating that this amino acid site has a very important

function in the protein. *POLD3* mutations have been identified repeatedly in cancer cells

(Wang et al., 2014), and they contribute to chromosomal instability (Minocherhomji et

al., 2015). We suspected that K70R mutations in POLD3 partly explain the large number

of SNVs and indels and the frequent chromosome copy number changes in Huh7(Kasai

et al., 2018).

Deletion markers for Huh7 cell lines

To establish efficient deletion markers characteristic of Huh7 cells, we designed PCR

primer sets that test the presence of deletion in genomic DNA using the dataset of

homozygous deletions identified in whole-genome sequencing. Four long deletions,

ranging from 7,400 to 262,700 bp in length, and four short deletions, ranging from 645

to 1018 bp in length, were targeted for PCR amplification. We designated regions

harboring long and short deletions as DL and DS regions, respectively. In our genome

sequencing analysis, Five indels were expected to be present only in Huh7.5.1-8, whereas

the others were expected to be shared between Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8. We used a DNA

sample from HeLa cells as a control. Primer sequences and detailed information for each

region are presented in Supplementary Table 1.

We successfully amplified six regions by genomic PCR and confirmed that they all

harbored deletions of expected sizes in Huh7 and/or Huh7.5.1-8, but did not show the

signature deletion in the HeLa cells (Figure 1). In total, four deletions (DL1–3 and DS2)

were present only in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8, and two deletions (DS1 and DS3) were

observed only in Huh7.5.1-8. The results are summarized in Supplementary Table 2.

Classification of newly identified SNVs

The newly identified SNVs were further classified into missense mutations, nonsense

mutations, mutations at splicing signal sites, and other mutations. In addition, frameshift

and large indels harboring protein-coding sequences (including gene fusions) were

classified as LoF mutations. Nonsense mutations and mutations at splicing signal sites

were also classified as LoF mutations.

Among these mutations, we selected genes that have missense and/or LoF mutations.

We confirmed that missense mutations are present in the RNA-seq read data, which means

that mutated alleles are actually expressed in the cells. In total, 255 and 431 genes were

found to have missense and LoF mutations, respectively. The complete list of genes is

shown in Supplementary Data 1.

We narrowed down the gene list and chose several genes that might be relevant to the

HCV replication process. We reviewed previous research and selected keywords that are

related to HCV infection and replication (Scheel and Rice, 2013; Bukh, 2016): autophagy,

apoptosis, antiviral defense, hepatitis C, innate immune response, and serine protease. In

addition, we surveyed the genes involved in protein-protein association networks with

nine core genes that showed a strong influence on HCV infection and replication (*CD36*,

CD81, *CLDN1*, *EGFR*, *EPHA2*, *LDLR*, *OCLN*, *PPIA*, and *SCARB1*).

We identified 53 candidate genes, including 12 autophagy-related genes, 22 apoptosis-

related genes, 3 antiviral defense genes, 14 HCV-related genes, 8 innate immune-related

genes, 4 serine proteases, and 4 genes involved in the HCV core-gene network. Eleven

genes were categorized into two different classes. The list of genes and mutations is

summarized in Table 2. Two HLA genes, *HLA-DRB1* and *HLA-DRB5*, related to an

acquired immune system, contained several LoF mutations shared between Huh7 and

Huh7.5.1-8, albeit those genes were not included in the 53 genes in Table 2 since cultured

cells lack the acquired immune system. Interestingly, among the 53 candidate genes, 8

genes contained Huh7.5.8-1+ mutations, but none carried Huh7-predominant mutations.

Among the 8 genes, 4 genes (*BAX*, *COL6A3*, *DEFB104B*, and *SIRPB1*) had LoF

mutations, whereas the other 4 genes (*DDX58*, *EP300*, *SPP1*, and *ZNF654*) had missense

mutations (Table 2). Future studies will be required to elucidate whether these mutations

are relevant to the phenotypes of the Huh7 cell lineage.

One of the genes, *DDX58*, which is also known as *RIG-I*, encodes an RNA helicase

and has an important function for innate antiviral response (Yoneyama et al., 2004). The

mutation is, therefore, a strong candidate for the high permissiveness of HCV in the

Huh7.5 lineage. It is noteworthy that our whole-genome sequence approach also

identified this gene. However, we found a difference in the mutation frequency between

the results of this and previous studies. This incongruence is discussed in the next

subsection.

Because we do not have sufficient space to discuss all 53 candidate genes for the higher

permissiveness of HCV in detail, we here selected three key genes that have important

viral replication functions.

BAX, which has an LoF mutation observed only in Huh7.5.1-8, forms a dimer with

BCL2 and activates apoptosis (Oltval et al., 1993). In the Huh7 cell lineage, the *TP53*

gene, which encodes P53 protein and controls the apoptotic process through BAX

(Toshiyuki and Reed, 1995), has a frameshift deletion (Table 2). Therefore, BAX may

positively regulate apoptosis in Huh7. In contrast, in Huh7.5.1-8, 22% of *BAX* alleles

carried frameshift insertions, which would decrease *BAX*'s overall activity. The apoptotic

activity, therefore, might have decreased in Huh7.5.1-8 compared with Huh7, which

might result in HCV's higher replication efficiency.

Another candidate gene, *EP300*, which encodes adenovirus early region 1A-associated

protein p300 (Eckner et al., 1994; Ogryzko et al., 1996), harbored two missense mutations

(D985G and V1764I) in Huh7.5.1-8. *EP300* has the function of suppressing the

autophagy process(Pietrocola et al., 2014). Previous studies have shown that HCV and

other flaviviruses replicate in host cells using autophagosomes (Levine et al., 2011;

Fahmy and Labonté, 2017). We found that the valine residue at site 1764 was highly

conserved among vertebrates. The mutation may have reduced *P300*'s function for

autophagy suppression and contributed to efficient HCV replication.

The last gene we present here is *SPP1* (osteopontin), which is involved in the

remodeling process of bones (Kahles et al., 2014). Previous studies found that (1) the

gene expression of *SPP1* in liver tissue was increased according to the progress of

hepatitis C (Asselah et al., 2005), (2) *SPP1* enhanced autophagy in human hepatocellular

carcinoma cells (Liu et al., 2016), and (3) *SPP1* interacted with HCV proteins and helped

replicate and assemble HCV(Iqbal et al., 2018). Indeed, it was reported that *SPP1*

expression is up-regulated in Huh7.5 compared with Huh7 (Choi et al., 2014). Our study

found that 46% of *SPP1* alleles in Huh7.5.1-8 carried missense mutations of K241T,

whereas the frequency of mutation in Huh7 was 0%. The frequency of mutations in both

Huh7.5.1 and Huh7.5.1-8 transcripts was close to 50%, indicating the K241T mutation

had already been acquired in Huh7.5.1, and the expression of the transcript with threonine

allele would not be up-regulated by HCV infection in an allele-specific manner. The

missense mutation, as well as the overall elevation of gene expression, may have

increased the replication efficiency of the HCV in Huh7 derivatives.

Missense mutation in RIG-I (T55I) was heterologous in the Huh7.5.1-8 genome

As described in the above subsection, we found a T55I mutation in RIG-I that could

contribute to the high permissiveness to HCV in Huh7.5.1-8. However, both genome

sequencing and RNA-seq data showed the mutation is heterologous in Huh7.5.1-8,

contradicting previous findings that the mutation is homozygous in Huh7.5 (Sumpter et

al., 2005). Therefore, we resequenced the genomic DNA from Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8

using a Sanger sequencer and verified that the mutation is absent in Huh7 but

heterologous in Huh7.5.1-8 (Figure 2). Our recent study showed that a 55T allele

transcript harbors an allele-specific large deletion and, presumably, nonfunctional in

Huh7.5.1-8 (Saito et al., unpublished results). The results showed that, although T55I

mutation is heterozygous in the Huh7.5.1-8 genome, all full-length RIG-I proteins have

the T55I mutation.

In summary, the whole-genome sequencing of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 provided various

genetic characteristics of these cell lines, and some of them are, presumably, applicable

to an in-house test for authentication of the Huh7 cell lineage. In addition, 53 genes were

found to carry missense or LoF mutations specifically found in the Huh7 cell lineage.

Among them, 8 genes contained mutations observed only in Huh7.5.1-8 or mutations

with higher frequency in Huh7.5.1-8. These mutations might be relevant to the phenotypic

differences between Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 and might also serve as genetic markers to

distinguish Huh7.5.1-8 cells from the ancestral Huh7 cells.

Acknowledgments

We thank the JCRB Cell Bank for providing DNA samples of Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8.

This work was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science, KAKENHI

(grant 17H04003 to K.H. and grant 18H05511 to N.O.) and AMED-CREST (grant

JP18gm0910005j0004 to K.H.).

Author Contributions

Study design: T.E., M.F., K.H., and N.O., performing experiments: T.Y. and K.Sai: data

analysis, M.K., K. Sat, and N.O., writing manuscript: M.K., T.Y., K.Sai., K.H., and N.O.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

 Figure Legends

Figure 1

Evaluation of deletions identified in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 using PCR. Samples in lanes

a to c are DNA from Huh7, Huh7.5.1-8, and HeLa cells, respectively. Size markers are

indicated by horizontal lines. The designs for PCR amplification and expected results are

shown on the bottom right. The region name is given for each gel image. Prefixes DL and

DS represent whether the expected deletion length is long (>7.4 kbp) or short (<0.9 kbp).

For DL regions, primer pairs used for the experiments are shown below each image. For

DS regions, primer pairs s and as1 were used for all regions. Each gel image was cropped

from the full-sized gels, but different lanes were not merged into a single image.

Figure 2

Sequence chromatograms of *DDX58* in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8. The genomic regions

harboring the exon 2 of *DDX58* were amplified from Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8 DNA samples

using PCR and sequenced by the Sanger method. The arrows indicate a base 30,443 on

NG_046918.1, and C-to-T transition at this position causes a T55I substitution of the

DDX58 amino acid sequence.

Tables

Table 1. Summary of newly identified variants in Huh7 and Huh7.5.1-8

Mutation type	Huh7-predominant	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Shared
SNV	4,094	39,497	183,856
Insertion	911	933	27,206
Deletion	1,898	8,948	126,084

 Table 2 Mutations potentially contributing HCV permissiveness to Huh7 and

 Huh7.5.1-8

Gene	Status	Type*	Ensembl transcript (AA type)	Function†
BAX	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	CID	N/A	2
COL6A3	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	SSM	N/A	7
DEFB104B	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	CID	N/A	6
SIRPB1	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	GFM	N/A	6
ACIN1	Shared	CID	N/A	2
AR	Shared	CID	N/A	5
ATG3	Shared	CID	N/A	1
ATM	Shared	SDA	N/A	1, 2
ATP6AP2	Shared	CID	N/A	2
CD34	Shared	CID	N/A	5
CHMP4A	Shared	CID	N/A	1, 2
CTSA	Shared	CID	N/A	1
EGF	Shared	CID	N/A	5, 4
EIF2AK3	Shared	CID	N/A	5
EIF4G3	Shared	CID	N/A	1
GPX1	Shared	CID	N/A	2

H3CR1	Shared	CID	N/A	5
HTT	Shared	CID	N/A	1, 2
IFNA10	Shared	SSM	N/A	3, 5, 6
IFT20	Shared	SDA	N/A	1
KIR2DL4	Shared	CID, SDA	N/A	5
M6PR	Shared	CID	N/A	4
MAP3K1	Shared	CID	N/A	2
MMP17	Shared	CID	N/A	5
NOTCH4	Shared	CID	N/A	5
OVOS2	Shared	CID	N/A	7
PHLDA1	Shared	CID	N/A	2
PHLPP1	Shared	CID	N/A	2
PRUNE2	Shared	CID	N/A	2
PTEN	Shared	SDA	N/A	2
SNCA	Shared	SDA	N/A	1
TMBIM4	Shared	GFM	N/A	2
TNRC18	Shared	CID, SSM	N/A	7
TP53	Shared	CID	N/A	5, 2, 4
UBE2D3	Shared	CID	N/A	2
DDX58	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Missense	ENST00000379883.2 (T55I)	3, 5, 6
EP300	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Missense	ENST00000263253.8 (D985G)	1

EP300	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Missense	ENST00000263253.8 (V1764I)	1
SPP1	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Missense	ENST00000508233.5 (K241T)	5
ZNF654	Huh7.5.1-8-predominant	Missense	ENST00000636215.1 (D1072N)	4
ASAH2	Shared	Missense	ENST00000489640.5 (C74Y)	2
ATP6V0A2	Shared	Missense	ENST00000613625.4 (G82E)	1, 7
C4A	Shared	Missense	ENST00000498271.1 (S347Y)	6
CASP8AP2	Shared	Missense	ENST00000551025.3 (K1245N)	2
CYLD	Shared	Missense	ENST00000427738.7 (T822N)	6
DAB2IP	Shared	Missense	ENST00000408936.7 (R1164C)	6, 2
DIDO1	Shared	Missense	ENST00000266070.8 (S1019C)	2
DPF2	Shared	Missense	ENST00000531989.1 (G41V)	2
IL4R	Shared	Missense	ENST00000563002.5 (A82T)	5
PAK4	Shared	Missense	ENST00000360442.7 (R175W)	2
PIP4K2C	Shared	Missense	ENST00000540759.6 (A300G)	1
TBC1D25	Shared	Missense	ENST00000376771.8 (N277S)	1
TNFRSF10B	Shared	Missense	ENST00000276431.8 (V191A)	5, 2
TP53	Shared	Missense	ENST00000509690.5 (Y88C)	5, 2, 4
TRIM56	Shared	Missense	ENST00000306085.10 (R395W)	3, 6

*Classes of LoF mutations: SDA, splice donor/acceptor mutation; GFM, gene fusion

mutation; CID, coding sequence InDel; Missense, missense mutation; SSM, start/stop

codon mutation.

† 1, autophagy-related gene; 2, apoptosis-related gene; 3, antivirus-related gene; 4, genes

involved in protein-protein association networks, with nine core genes that showed strong

influence on HCV infection and replication; 5, known hepatitis C-related gene; 6, innate

immune-related gene; 7, serine protease-related gene.

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DL1

DL2

DL3

(kDa)

2000
1600

1000
850
650
500

a b c a b c
s↔as1 s↔as2

a b c a b c
s↔as1 s↔as2

a b c a b c
s↔as1 s↔as2

DS1

DS2

DS3

(kDa)

2000

1000

a b c

a b c

a b c

DL

DS

Δ

Δ

s

as1

s

as1

Deletion allele

s as2

s as1

Wild type allele

	Forward primer	Reverse primer	Base 30,443

Huh7 — C

Huh7.5.1-8 — C/T