HCV infection activates the proteasome via PA28γ acetylation and

heptamerization to facilitate the degradation of RNF2, a catalytic component of

polycomb repressive complex 1.

Hirotake Kasai[1], Atsuya Yamashita[1], Yasunori Akaike[1], Tomohisa Tanaka[1, 4],

Yoshiharu Matsuura[2, 3], and Kohji Moriishi[1, 4].

[1] Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Graduate Faculty of

Interdisciplinary Research, University of Yamanashi, Yamanashi 409-3898, Japan.

[2] Laboratory of Virus Control, Research Institute for Microbial Diseases (RIMD), Osaka

University, Osaka 565-0871, Japan.

[3] Center for Infectious Diseases Education and Research (CiDER), Osaka University,

Osaka 565-0871, Japan.

[4] Division of Hepatitis Virology, Institute for Genetic Medicine, Hokkaido University,

Hokkaido 060-0808, Japan

Running title: The mechanism by which HCV infection impairs polycomb repressive

complex 1 activity.

Corresponding author: Kohji Moriishi, D.V.M., Ph.D.

Department of Microbiology, Faculty of Medicine, Graduate Faculty of

Interdisciplinary Research, University of Yamanashi, Yamanashi 409-3898, Japan

Tel: +81-55-273-9537; Fax: +81-55-273-6728

Email: kmoriishi@yamanashi.ac.jp

ABSTRACT

We previously reported that hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection or HCV core protein expression induces HOX gene expression by impairing histone H2A monoubiquitination via a proteasome-dependent reduction in the level of RNF2, a key catalytic component of polycomb repressive complex 1 (PRC1) (J. Virol, 2021, 95, e01784-20). In this study, we aimed to investigate the mechanism by which HCV infection accelerates RNF2 degradation. Yeast two-hybrid screening and an immunoprecipitation assay revealed that RNF2 is a PA28γ-binding protein. The proteasome activator PA28γ destabilized the RNF2 protein in a proteasome-dependent manner, since RNF2 degradation was impaired by PA28γ knockout or MG132 treatment. HCV infection or core protein expression reduced the levels of RNF2 and histone H2A K119 monoubiquitination and induced the expression of HOX genes in the presence of PA28γ, while PA28γ knockout reversed these changes. Treatment with a lysine acetyltransferase inhibitor inhibited the acetylation of PA28γ at K195 and the degradation of the RNF2 protein, while treatment with a lysine deacetylase inhibitor accelerated these events in a PA28γ-dependent manner. RNF2 protein degradation was increased by expression of the acetylation mimetic PA28γ mutant but not by expression of the acetylation-defective mutant or the proteasome activation-defective mutant. Furthermore, HCV infection or core protein expression facilitated the interaction between PA28γ and the lysine acetyltransferase CBP/p300 and then accelerated PA28γ acetylation and heptamerization to promote RNF2 degradation. These data suggest that HCV infection accelerates the acetylation-dependent heptamerization of PA28γ to increase the proteasomal targeting of RNF2.

IMPORTANCE: HCV is a causative agent of HCV-related liver diseases, including hepatic steatosis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma. PA28γ, which, in heptameric form, activates the 20S core proteasome for the degradation of PA28γ-binding proteins, is responsible for HCV-related liver diseases. HCV core protein expression or HCV infection accelerates RNF2 degradation, leading to the induction of HOX gene expression via a decrease in the level of H2Aub on HOX gene promoters. However, the mechanism of RNF2 degradation in HCV-infected cells has not been clarified. The data presented in this study suggest that PA28γ acetylation and heptamerization are promoted by HCV infection or by core protein expression to activate the proteasome for the degradation of RNF2 and are responsible for HCV propagation. This study provides

novel insights valuable for the development of therapies targeting both HCV

propagation and HCV-related diseases.

KEYWORDS: HCV, RNF2, H2A monoubiquitination, PA28γ/REGγ/PMSE3/Ki

INTRODUCTION

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is a major human pathogen that is currently causing chronic

infection in 50 million people worldwide, with approximately 1.0 million new

infections occurring annually, and puts infected individuals at risk of hepatic steatosis,

liver cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (1). The development of direct-

acting antiviral agents (DAAs) against HCV has led to significant improvements in the

treatment of HCV infections over the past decade (2, 3). However, it has also been

reported that hepatitis C patients remain at risk of HCC even after viral elimination (2).

Understanding the pathogenesis of HCV infection remains an important challenge for

the development of effective hepatitis C therapies. HCV belongs to the genus

Hepacivirus in the *Flaviviridae* family and possesses an enveloped nucleocapsid

containing a positive-sense RNA genome with a length of 9.6 kb. The single

polyprotein (~ 3000 amino acids) encoded by the viral genome is cleaved by viral and

host proteases into 10 final viral proteins, which are classified as structural or

nonstructural proteins (4). The structural proteins are the core, E1 and E2 proteins, and

the nonstructural proteins are the p7, NS2, NS3, NS4A, NS4B, NS5A, and NS5B

proteins. Nonstructural proteins play important roles in viral genome replication,

assembly, and budding, whereas structural proteins, together with the host lipid bilayer,

form viral particles (4). The core protein, a component of the nucleocapsid, has been

implicated in the formation of viral particles as well as the induction of HCV-related

pathological changes (4). Mice expressing the core protein in the liver were found to

exhibit HCV-related liver diseases such as type II diabetes mellitus (5), hepatic steatosis

(6, 7), and HCC (8, 9), suggesting that the core protein plays an important role in

inducing HCV-related pathological changes.

We previously reported that the HCV core protein can promote a reduction in the

monoubiquitination of lysine (K) 119 of histone H2A in the promoter regions of HOX

alleles and subsequently activate the transcription of HOX genes (10). HOX family

genes, a set of 39 genes divided into 4 clusters, namely, HOXA, HOXB, HOXC and

HOXD, regulate body plan development during the neonatal stage and also regulate the

growth, survival, migration and invasion of cells to support cancer development (11,

12). Monoubiquitination of H2A at K119 is catalysed by polycomb repressive complex

1 (PRC1) to repress target genes (13). The expression of the HCV core protein was

found to increase the degradation of the RNF2 protein, a main catalytic component of

PRC1, and reduce the level of K119-monoubiquitinated histone H2A (H2Aub) on the

promoter regions of HOX alleles (10). The core protein-dependent degradation of RNF2

was found to be independent of polyubiquitination and to be inhibited by treatment with

the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (10). However, the molecular mechanism by which the

core protein induces polyubiquitination-independent, proteasome-dependent

degradation of RNF2 remains unclear.

The ubiquitin–proteasome system is a major proteolytic pathway that regulates

various intracellular functions. The proteasome complex consists of the 20S proteolytic

core and several proteasome activators (PAs), including the 19S PA (PA700), 11S PA

(PA28 or REG), and PA200. The 19S PA can bind to the 20S proteasome and activate

polyubiquitination-dependent proteolysis (14), while the 11S PA can bind to the 20S

proteasome and activate polyubiquitin-independent proteolysis (14). The 11S PA is

classified as a PA28α/PA28β heteroheptamer or a PA28γ homoheptamer. The

expression of PA28α and PA28β is induced by interferon (IFN)-γ for the processing of

MHC class I peptides (14). The PA28α/PA28β heteroheptamer activates the

chymotrypsin-like activity of the 20S core proteasome (CP) in the cytoplasm, while the

PA28γ homoheptamer activates the trypsin-like activity of the 20S CP in the nucleus

(15). Several proteins, such as AID, SRC-3, p19, the HCV core protein and SirT1, have

been reported to be substrates of the PA28γ-dependent proteasome system (4, 16-18).

The amino acid sequence of human PA28γ is identical to that of its murine homologue

and shares 55% identity with that of its tick homologue (19), suggesting that PA28γ is

highly conserved from insects to mammals. This broad conservation indicates that

PA28γ may regulate fundamental functions across the animal kingdom, although its

detailed biological function is largely unknown. We previously reported that PA28γ

binds to the HCV core protein and promotes the degradation of unfolded or

nonfunctional core proteins through a polyubiquitin-independent proteosomal pathway

(20, 21). Furthermore, PA28γ knockout abolished core protein-related liver defects

(type II diabetes, steatosis, and HCC) in mice, suggesting that PA28γ plays a critical

role in core protein-induced pathological changes (22, 23). Phenotypic analysis of

PA28γ-knockout mice revealed that they were viable and capable of mating but

exhibited mild growth defects (24), decreased sperm fertility (25), and accelerated

senescence (26), although a critical function of PA28γ has not yet been identified.

In this study, we identified RNF2 as a novel PA28γ-binding protein and

examined the effect of PA28γ on the stability of RNF2, monoubiquitination of histone

H2A, regulation of HOX gene transcription, and propagation of HCV. We also aimed to

clarify the mechanism by which the HCV core protein regulates PA28γ-dependent

proteasome activity to inhibit PRC1 activity in HCV-infected cells.

RESULTS

PA28γ interacted with RNF1 and RNF2, components of polycomb repressor

complex 1.

To identify novel PA28γ-binding molecules, we screened a human foetal brain library

using a yeast two-hybrid system with PA28γ as bait. We identified four positive clones,

Cl-26, Cl-49, Cl-50 and Cl-53. Cl-26 included the gene encoding RNF1 in the open

reading frame of GAL4-DNA binding domain, while Cl-49 included the gene encoding

PA28γ in the frame. Cl-50 and Cl-53 included partial regions of the gene encoding

pyruvate dehydrogenase complex component X isoform, but they did not match the

frame. RNF1, a component of PRC1, was identified as a PA28γ-binding partner by this

yeast two-hybrid screen. Since RNF2 is a catalytic component of PRC1 and is a

homologue of RNF1, the RNF2 gene was isolated from total cDNA of the human liver.

Plasmids encoding N-terminal FLAG-tagged PA28γ (FLAG-PA28γ), N-terminal HA-

tagged RNF1 (HA-RNF1) and N-terminal HA-tagged RNF2 (HA-RNF2) were

constructed to examine the interactions of PA28γ with RNF1 and RNF2 by

immunoprecipitation in 293T cells. HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 was coimmunoprecipitated

with FLAG-PA28γ, while FLAG-PA28γ was reciprocally coimmunoprecipitated with

HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 (Fig. 1A). Next, we examined the subcellular localization of

PA28γ and RNF2 by immunofluorescence staining. Unfortunately, we could not find an

antibody that reacts specifically with endogenous RNF1. However, PA28γ and RNF2

were partially colocalized in the nucleus (Fig. 1B). The fluorescence intensities of

PA28γ (green) and RNF2 (red) within each pixel were quantified and plotted (Fig. 1C),

revealing a significant negative correlation for the colocalization of these two proteins

(R = -0.856, Fig. 1C). These data suggest that PA28γ binds to RNF2 but is not strongly

colocalized with RNF2 in untreated cells.

PA28γ reduced the stability of RNF1 and RNF2

We hypothesized that the intracellular segregation of PA28γ and RNF2 may be

due to PA28γ-dependent degradation of RNF2 following the interaction between these

two proteins, because PA28γ-binding proteins are reportedly degraded via a

polyubiquitin-independent proteosomal pathway (15). Using the CRISPR-Cas9 system,

we established a PA28γ-knockout cell line and then examined the stability of the RNF1

and RNF2 proteins via a cycloheximide (CHX) chase assay. PA28γ was detected in

wild-type Huh7OK1 cells, which are highly permissive to HCV infection (27), but not

in PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells (Fig. 2A, B). The level of RNF2 in the wild-type

cells was reduced by less than 50% 2 h after CHX treatment, whereas no significant

reduction in the RNF2 level was observed in the PA28γ-knockout cells (Fig. 2A, B).

RNF1 tended to be less stable in PA28γ-knockout cells than in wild-type cells, but the

difference was not significant (Fig. 2A, B). In addition, the stability of BMI1 (PCGF4),

another component of PRC1, was not affected by PA28γ knockout (Fig. 2A, B). These

data suggest that PA28γ destabilizes RNF2.

When PA28γ expression was restored in PA28γ-knockout cells, the

endogenous RNF1 and RNF2 protein levels decreased in a PA28γ dose-dependent

manner (Fig. 3A). However, the RNF1 and RNF2 mRNA levels were not affected by

restoration of PA28γ expression (Fig. 3B). Furthermore, restoring the expression of

PA28γ reduced the levels of HA-RNF1 and HA-RNF2 (Fig. 3C). HA-RNF1 and HA-

RNF2 was expressed separately in 293T cells and were then isolated by

immunoprecipitation using an anti-HA antibody for *in vitro* proteasome assays. The

immunoprecipitates containing HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 were mixed with recombinant

20S CP with or without the 11S PA consisting of PA28γ. The levels of HA-RNF1 and

HA-RNF2 were reduced in the presence but not in the absence of the 11S PA. These

results suggest that PA28γ is involved in the proteolysis of RNF1 and RNF2. Since the

RNF2 protein was more strongly destabilized by PA28γ than was the RNF1 protein, we

subsequently focused on the relationship between RNF2 and PA28γ.

PA28γ promoted proteasome-dependent degradation of the RNF2 protein.

PA28γ increases the trypsin-like activity of the ubiquitin-independent proteasome

(15). We next examined the effect of proteasome activity on RNF2 stability in the

presence of PA28γ. The RNF2 protein level was reduced in PA28γ-knockout cells by

restoration of PA28γ expression, while MG132 treatment suppressed the PA28γ-

dependent decrease in the RNF2 protein level (Fig. 4A). The intracellular localization of

PA28γ and RNF2 was evaluated in the presence and absence of MG132. RNF2 was

partially colocalized with PA28γ in the absence of MG132, while it strongly colocalized

with PA28γ in the presence of MG132 (Fig. 4B). A significant negative correlation for

the colocalization of wild-type PA28γ and RNF2 was found in the cells (Fig. 4C, a left

half). The PA28γ mutant in which proline 245 (Pro245) was replaced with tyrosine

(Tyr; PA28γP245Y) could not activate the proteasome (21, 28). This mutation lost the

negative correlation between PA28γ and RNF2 localizations (Fig. 4C, a right half).

These data suggest that PA28γ promotes the proteolytic degradation of RNF2 in a

proteasome-dependent manner.

PA28γ impaired the monoubiquitination of histone H2A at K119 and induced the

transcription of HOX genes.

PRC1 monoubiquitinates K119 of histone H2A to suppress the transcription of target

genes via chromatin compaction (13, 29). RNF2 is an E3 ubiquitin ligase responsible

for the catalytic activity of PRC1 for the monoubiquitination of histone H2A at K119

(13, 30, 31). We next examined the effects of PA28γ expression on histone H2A

monoubiquitination and on the transcription of HOX genes. Restoration of PA28γ

expression reduced the level of H2Aub (Fig. 5A) in PA28γ-knockout cells but did not

affect the level of total histone H2A. We previously reported that HOXB9, HOXC13,

and HOXD13 were completely silenced in Huh7OK1 cells but HOXA1 and HOXA3

was not (10). We evaluated the effect of PA28γ expression on the expression of the

group with HOX gene silencing. Restoring the expression of PA28γ in PA28γ-knockout

cells induced the transcriptional activation of HOXB9 (Fig. 5B). The level of H2Aub in

the promoter region of HOXB9 was then evaluated by a chromatin immunoprecipitation

(ChIP) assay and was found to be reduced by the restoration of PA28γ expression in

PA28γ-knockout cells (Fig. 5C). The HOXB1, HOXC13 and HOXD13 genes were also

transcriptionally activated by PA28γ expression (Fig. 5D), whereas HOXA1 and

HOXA3 gene transcription was not affected by the restoration of PA28γ expression in

PA28γ-knockout cells (Fig. 5D). These data suggest that PA28γ reactivates the

expression of silenced HOX genes via impairment of H2A monoubiquitination.

HCV infection impaired the monoubiquitination of histone H2A at K119 and

reduced the level of RNF2 in a PA28γ-dependent manner.

We previously showed that HCV infection promoted RNF2 protein degradation via a

polyubiquitination-independent proteasome pathway and subsequently reduced the level

of H2Aub in the promoter regions of HOX genes (10). When wild-type Huh7OK1 cells

were infected with HCV, the levels of H2Aub and RNF2 were reduced in a manner

dependent on the number of days after infection in the presence but not in the absence

of PA28γ (Fig. 6A, B). Knocking out PA28γ did not affect HCV replication, although it

increased the level of the HCV core protein in cells and reduced the levels of both HCV

RNA and infectious viral particles in the culture supernatant (Fig. 6C), consistent with

the data shown in our previous report (21). These findings suggest that HCV infection

impairs the monoubiquitination of histone H2A and the stability of RNF2 in a PA28γ-

dependent manner.

The HCV core protein reduced the level of H2Aub in the promoter regions of

HOX genes and promoted their transcription in the presence but not in the

absence of PA28γ.

Our previous report suggested that polyubiquitination-independent proteolysis of

RNF2 is promoted by the expression of the HCV core protein to activate HOX gene

transcription in HCV-infected cells (10). Next, we examined whether the expression of

the HCV core protein affects the RNF2 protein level, the H2A monoubiquitination level

and HOX gene transcription in the presence or absence of PA28γ. Expression of the

core protein reduced the levels of H2Aub and RNF2 in the presence but not in the

absence of PA28γ, although the level of the core protein was markedly higher in

PA28γ-knockout cells than in wild-type cells (Fig. 7A). A ChIP assay was carried out to

estimate the level of H2Aub in the HOXB9 promoter region. The level of H2Aub in the

HOXB9 promoter region was reduced by expression of the core protein in the presence

but not in the absence of PA28γ (Fig. 7B). On the other hand, core protein expression

promoted the transcription of the HOXB9 gene in the presence but not in the absence of

PA28γ (Fig. 7C). These data suggest that the core protein reduces the levels of RNF2

and H2Aub and increases the expression of HOX gene in the presence but not in the

absence of PA28γ.

Acetylation of PA28γ at Lys195 promoted its homoheptamerization and RNF2

degradation.

PA28γ was reported to be acetylated at Lys195 (K195) to promote its

homoheptamerization for 20S CP binding and proteasome activation (32). CBP/p300, a

lysine acetyltransferase (KAT), was reported to be responsible for the acetylation of

PA28γ at K195 (32). Moreover, the core protein can interact with CBP and increase its

acetyltransferase activity (33). We hypothesized that the core protein promotes CBP-

dependent acetylation of PA28γ and augments the homoheptamerization of PA28γ to

activate the proteasome to target RNF2 for degradation. We examined the effect of the

KAT inhibitor C646 on PA28γ-dependent RNF2 degradation. Restoring the expression

of PA28γ reduced the RNF2 level in PA28γ-knockout cells; in addition, CHX treatment

promoted the reduction in the RNF2 level in the presence of PA28γ, whereas C646

treatment impaired the reduction in the RNF2 level in the presence of PA28γ regardless

of CHX treatment (Fig. 8A). Immunoprecipitation using an anti-acetylated lysine (Ace-

K) antibody and the lysates used to acquire the data shown in Fig. 8A showed that C646

treatment suppressed PA28γ acetylation (Fig. 8B). On the other hand, treatment with the

lysine deacetylase inhibitor trichostatin A (TSA) promoted the decrease in the RNF2

level in the presence but not in the absence of PA28γ (Fig. 8C), while TSA treatment

increased PA28γ acetylation (Fig. 8D). PA28γK195R, in which Lys195 is replaced with

Arg, is an acetylation-defective mutant, while PA28γK195Q, in which Lys195 is

replaced with Gln, is an acetylation mimetic mutant (32). A CHX chase assay was

carried out to investigate the stability of RNF2 in the presence of wild-type PA28γ or

these mutants. Six hours after treatment with CHX, the RNF2 level was 21% of that in

the control cells in the cells expressing wild-type PA28γ, 104% of that in the control

cells in the cells expressing PA28γK195R and 14% of that in the control cells in the

cells expressing PA28γK195Q. These results suggest that the regulation of PA28γ

acetylation controls the PA28γ-dependent degradation of RNF2. The HCV core protein

increased the degradation of RNF2 in the absence but not in the presence of C646,

suggesting that the core protein promotes the PA28γ-dependent degradation of RNF2

via KAT activation. These data suggest that HCV infection or the core protein

expression promotes PA28γ acetylation for destabilization of RNF2.

HCV infection promoted the acetylation of PA28γ via CBP activity.

We investigated the mechanism by which HCV infection or core protein expression

promotes PA28γ acetylation. Huh7OK1 cells were infected with HCV, and the infected

cells were harvested at 0, 3 and 6 dpi. The cell lysates were subjected to

immunoprecipitation using rabbit anti-Ace-K IgG or normal rabbit IgG. The levels of

acetylated PA28γ and PA28γ homoheptamers increased in a time-dependent manner

after infection (Fig. 9A, B). When PA28γ expression was restored with or without the

expression of the core protein in PA28γ-knockout cells, the core protein promoted

PA28γ acetylation and homoheptamerization (Fig. 9B, C), consistent with the data

shown in Fig. 9A. The core protein has been reported to interact with CBP and

subsequently increase its acetyltransferase activity (33). EGFP-PA28γ and FLAG-CBP

were coexpressed in PA28γ-knockout cells, and EGFP-PA28γ coimmunoprecipitated

with FLAG-CBP (lane 4, Fig. 9D). Furthermore, the core protein increased the amount

of EGFP-PA28γ coimmunoprecipitated with CBP (lane 5, Fig. 9D). The RNF2 protein

level was decreased in HCV-infected cells but was restored by CBP knockdown in

infected cells (Fig. 9E). Taken together, these results suggest that the HCV core protein

in infected cells reinforces the interaction between PA28γ and CBP, induces the

acetylation and homoheptamerization of PA28γ, and activates the proteasome for RNF2

degradation.

DISCUSSION

Alterations in gene expression patterns in HCV-infected cells or liver tissue

of individuals with hepatitis C may be involved in the pathogenic mechanism of HCV

(34). We previously reported that HCV infection impaired PRC1-dependent

monoubiquitination of histone H2A at K119 on HOX alleles through degradation of

RNF2, which subsequently induced the expression of HOX genes (10). The data in this

previous report also suggested that RNF2, a catalytic component of PRC1, is degraded

in response to HCV infection or core protein expression and that this degradation is

dependent on the proteasome but not on polyubiquitination (10). However, the

mechanism by which the core protein induces the degradation of RNF2 after infection

has not been elucidated. Furthermore, we previously reported that PA28γ is responsible

for the core protein-related pathological changes. The PA28 family members, namely,

α, β and γ, form heptamers that bind to the 20S proteasome and then stimulate

polyubiquitin-independent proteasome activity. The PA28γ homoheptamer activates the

20S CP for the degradation of PA28γ-binding proteins. In mice, HCV core protein

expression induces the development of hepatic steatosis, HCC and type II diabetes

mellitus (5, 9, 23), which are highly prevalent in hepatitis C patients (35), and these core

protein-related pathological conditions are reversed by PA28γ knockout in mice (22,

23). The data presented in our previous study also suggest that PA28γ binds the core

protein and then induces the degradation of the unfolded core protein to promote viral

particle production (20, 21). However, the mechanism by which the core protein

induces HCV-related pathological changes via a PA28γ-related pathway remains

unknown. In this study, the results of the yeast two-hybrid screen using PA28γ as bait

revealed that RNF1 and RNF2 were the candidate PA28γ-binding partners. PA28γ

bound both RNF1 and RNF2 (Fig. 1) and accelerated RNF2 degradation but only

weakly affected RNF1 degradation, leading to the upregulation of HOX gene

expression (Figs. 2 to 5). Furthermore, PA28γ promoted the proteasome-dependent

degradation of RNF2 to impair the monoubiquitination of histone H2A (Figs. 4 to 6).

Liu et al reported that CBP-induced acetylation of PA28γ at K195 resulted in

homoheptamerization of PA28γ and subsequently stimulated polyubiquitin-independent

proteasome activity (32). The data shown in Figs. 8 and 9 support the idea that CBP-

dependent acetylation of PA28γ leads to heptamerization of PA28γ (Fig. 8) and suggest

that core protein expression promotes the acetylation of PA28γ via CBP activity in

infected cells (Fig. 9). Taken together, these data suggest that after HCV infection, the

core protein reinforces the interaction between CBP and PA28γ, induces PA28γ

heptamerization, and subsequently stimulates polyubiquitin-independent proteasome

activity for RNF2 protein degradation. The data presented in this study also suggest that

PA28γ expression is required for the reduction in H2Aub in HCV-infected cells.

Identifying the other loci and genomic regions at which PA28γ reduces the level of

H2Aub is an important and challenging task necessary for understanding the

physiological and pathological functions of PA28γ in hepatitis C pathogenesis. A model

of the mechanism by which HCV infection facilitates the degradation of RNF2 via a

PA28γ-dependent proteasome pathway to impair histone H2A monoubiquitination and

induce HOX gene expression is shown in Fig. 10.

Several reports indicate that the core protein promotes the degradation of p21

(36, 37), whereas other reports suggest that the core protein induces G1 arrest after

common bile duct ligation, alters the cell cycle in hepatocytes and is associated with

increased p21 expression (38). PA28γ was reported to bind cyclin kinase inhibitors,

such as p21 and p19, to promote their degradation via the PA28γ-20S CP complex and

then to induce S phase entry (18, 39). These observations and the data presented in the

current study suggest that the core protein may regulate the cell cycle via the control of

the PA28γ-dependent proteasome. In addition, HOX protein expression induced by the

core protein may promote the transcriptional activation of genes associated with

degradation of cell cycle inhibitors. HOXA10 overexpression was reported to promote

the expression of S-phase kinase-associated protein 2 (SKP2), which contributes to the

degradation of the cell cycle inhibitor p27 (40). The upregulation of HOX gene

expression in HCV-infected hepatocytes may be associated with the promotion of cell

cycle progression via transcriptional and/or posttranslational regulation of cell cycle

inhibitors.

The induction of HOX genes may contribute to carcinogenesis by regulating

cell growth, survival, migration and invasion in addition to regulating the cell cycle.

Several HOX genes have been reported to be dysregulated in a tissue-specific manner.

HOXB13 is upregulated in breast cancer, whereas its expression is suppressed in

prostate cancer (41, 42). HOXD10 is upregulated in breast, gastric, hepatocellular,

colorectal, bladder and prostate cancers (43). HOXA9 is upregulated in acute

lymphocytic leukaemia and epigenetically silenced in lung cancers (44, 45). HOXA5,

HOXA7, HOXA13 and HOXD3 are highly expressed in HCC tissues compared to

normal tissues (46). Notably, HOXA13 and HOTTIP were found to be highly expressed

in the same neoplastic hepatocyte populations and in liver cancer cell lines (46, 47).

HOTTIP, a long noncoding RNA (lncRNA) located contiguous to the HOXA13 gene,

directly interacts with WDR5/MLL complexes to induce an open chromatin

configuration by driving histone H3 Lys 4 trimethylation, leading to the induction of

HOXA genes, including HOXA13 (48); moreover, HOXA13 can induce the

transcription of HOTTIP as well as genes related to cell growth and cell invasion (47,

49). High expression of both HOTTIP and HOXA13 was correlated with metastasis

formation and poor patient survival in HCC, suggesting that HOTTIP/HOXA13

expression may be a possible marker for predicting clinical outcomes in HCC patients

(47). Although HCV infection cannot potently induce HOXA13 gene transcription in

Huh7OK1 cells (10), the discrepancies in the data between our previous study and the

abovementioned *in vivo* study may be due to the high expression of HOXA13/HOTTIP

in the Huh7 cell line, regardless of the HCV infection status (47). Another lncRNA,

HOTAIRM1, was also reported to induce the expression of HOXA1, which could

promote the expression of Nanog (50). Some HOX genes associated with

carcinogenesis may be constitutively expressed via a positive feedback loop in

hepatocytes after DAA treatment.

In this study, HCV infection reduced the level of RNF2 and reactivated the

expression of silenced HOX genes. However, some clinical reports suggest that the

RNF2 and HOX proteins are highly expressed in cancer tissues (51). The data presented

in this study may reflect the status of HCV-infected hepatocytes during the early stage

and before the premalignant state of liver cancer but not during the malignant state of

liver cancer. The expression of some HOX genes has been reported to be maintained in

the malignant state of HCC regardless of the high expression of PRC1 components,

including RNF2 and PCGF4 (BMI1), suggesting that the expression of some HOX

genes may be regulated by factors other than PRC1, such as lncRNAs (e.g., HOTTIP,

described above), regardless of the high RNF2 activity at the malignant stage of HCC.

Increased expression of RNF2 in HCC tissue was reported to synergistically regulate

crosstalk among the histone modifications H2Aub, H3K27me3 and H3Kme3 to

suppress E-cadherin transcription (52). HCV infection increases the RNF2 mRNA level

but reduces the RNF2 protein level in HCV-infected hepatocytes (10) and may

subsequently irreversibly trigger RNF2 transcription, which may be maintained even

after viral eradication at the malignant stage of HCC.

The possibility remains that PA28γ activation in HCV-infected cells may be

associated with viral particle production in these cells. The data presented in our early

work revealed that PA28γ knockdown reduced the production of HCV viral particles in

the supernatant but did not affect viral RNA replication (21). In this study, compared

with that in wild-type cells, the core protein level was much higher in either infected or

core protein-expressing PA28γ-knockout cells (Fig. 6A, 7A), while PA28γ knockout

reduced the infectious titre in the culture supernatant but did not affect viral RNA

replication (Fig. 6C). Nonfunctional or unfolded core proteins were reported to interact

with PA28γ for their proteasome-dependent degradation (20, 53). A functional core

protein may be engulfed by a nonfunctional or an unfolded core protein in the absence

of PA28γ to suppress viral particle production. Alternatively, a reduction in PRC1

activity may affect the expression of host genes related to membrane trafficking or viral

assembly. Further study is required to clarify the mechanism by which depletion of

PA28γ reduces the production of infectious HCV particles.

An increasing number of studies have suggested that the PA28γ proteasome is

associated with several kinds of viral infections. Coxsackievirus B3 infection was found

to promote PA28γ-mediated proteolysis of p53 (54), suggesting that p53 degradation

increases viral replication by reducing the inhibitory influence of p53 on viral

replication. On the other hand, PA28γ-dependent proteasome activity was associated

with an inhibitory effect on viral replication. Ko et al reported that PA28γ acted as a

corepressor of human T-lymphotropic virus 1 (HTLV-1) p30 and was required for the

suppression of viral replication and maintenance of viral latency (55). Regarding

hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection, PA28γ was reported to be associated with HBV

pathogenesis. The HBV X protein (HBx) activates HBV promoters to increase HBV

RNA transcription, increase the abundance of covalently closed circular DNA

(cccDNA) and promote the degradation of the host protein Smc5/6, which can inhibit

HBV replication (56, 57). HBx plays an important oncogenic role in the liver in

hepatitis B patients (58). For example, HBx promotes the expression of PA28γ to

degrade p16 to promote progression through the G1 and M phases (59). In addition,

PA28γ stabilizes the HBx protein by competitively inhibiting the binding of HBx to

Siah-1 (60). HBx was reported to be polyubiquitinated by Siah-1 for proteasome-

dependent degradation (61), and PA28γ competitively inhibited the binding of Siah-1 to

HBx, leading to an increase in HBx stability. Thus, PA28γ may be an attractive target

for the treatment of hepatitis B and C as well as other viral diseases.

In summary, our data presented herein indicate that HCV infection or core protein

expression reinforces the interaction between CBP and PA28γ and promotes PA28γ

acetylation and heptamerization to activate the proteasome for RNF2 degradation and

that a reduction in the RNF2 protein level impairs the monoubiquitination of histone

H2A at K119 in the promoter regions of HOX alleles. The reactivation of silenced HOX

genes may be associated with HCV-related hepatocellular carcinogenesis. PRC1-

dependent histone H2A monoubiquitination silences non-HOX genes (62) and

positively or negatively regulates metabolic and developmental gene expression in

association with RNA polymerase (63). HCV infection may lead to regulatory effects

on various genes via the PCR1-H2Aub pathway during acute and/or chronic infection.

Thus, elucidating the mechanism by which HCV infection can regulate PRC1 activity to

regulate genes other than HOX genes is important for clarifying the molecular

mechanism of hepatitis C pathogenesis and for the development of therapies for

hepatitis C.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines, HCV strain.

The HCV strain JFH-1, which belongs to genotype 2a (64), was used as the cell culture-

adapted HCV (HCVcc) strain in this study. The viral RNA encoded in the plasmid

pJFH1 was transcribed and introduced into Huh7 OK1 cells according to the method

reported by Wakita et al. (64). The cell infection procedure was reported previously (10)

and is described in detail in each figure legend. The Huh7 OK1 cell line, a subclone

derived from Huh-7 cells that is highly permissive to infection with the JFH-1 strain,

was cultured as reported previously (65). The human embryonic kidney 293T cell line

was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, USA). The

lysine deacetylase inhibitor TSA and KAT inhibitor C646 were purchased from Sigma–

Aldrich Japan (Tokyo, Japan).

Plasmids.

The gene encoding PA28γ was subcloned and inserted into the pGBKT7 vector

(resulting in the pGBKT7PA28γ plasmid). N-terminal HA-tagged RNF1 or RNF2 was

amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from human liver cDNA using *KOD*

DNA polymerase (TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan) and was then inserted into pCAGGS-PM3.

The DNA fragment encoding PA28γ was cloned and inserted into pEF pGKpuro and

pEF FLAG Gs pGKpuro as reported previously, with the resulting plasmids designated

pEF PA28γ and pEF FLAG-PA28γ, respectively (21), as well as into pEGFP-C3

(Clontech Takara, Tokyo, Japan). The plasmid encoding the HCV core protein (amino

acids 1-192) was used for cloning and insertion of the corresponding DNA into

pCAGGS-PM3 as described previously, and the resulting plasmid was designated

pCAG-Core (21). N-terminal FLAG-tagged CBP/p300 cDNA was amplified by PCR

and was then inserted into pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen Thermo, Carlsbad, CA).

Yeast two-hybrid screening.

The bait plasmid pGBKT7PA28γ was introduced into *Saccharomyces*

cerevisiae AH109 cells. Yeast cells containing pGBKT7PA28γ were grown in yeast

extract-peptone-dextrose medium and transfected with a human foetal brain plasmid

library based on pACT2 (Clontech Takara). Clones (22.4×10^6) generated with the

library were screened (Clontech Takara, Tokyo, Japan). Yeast clones containing

pGBKT7-53 and pGADT7-T (Clontech) were used as positive controls, while yeast

clones containing pGBKT7 and pGADT7 were used as negative controls. Yeast

colonies grown on dropout plates lacking tryptophan, leucine, histidine, and adenine

were inoculated on two fresh dropout plates lacking leucine and tryptophan. One of the

two plates was used for a β-galactosidase assay according to the method of Duttweiler

(66), and the other plate was stored at 4 °C as a master plate. One of the 556 dropout

plate-positive clones exhibited dark blue staining on a β-galactosidase assay plate to the

same extent as the positive control and was called C1-26. The plasmid in Cl-26 cells

encoded the RNF1 gene. We amplified the genes encoding RNF1 and the RNF1

homologue RNF2 from the total human liver cDNA by PCR and then inserted the

sequences into several plasmids as described above. We also isolated the yeast clone

encoding PA28γ by this screening method, which supported the accuracy of this

screening method.

Transfection, immunoblotting, immunoprecipitation, and gene silencing.

Plasmid DNA was transfected into Huh7OK1 or 293T cells by using TransIT®-LT1

(Mirus Bio, Madison, WI). Lysate preparation and immunoprecipitation were carried

out as described previously (21). The cell lysates were subjected to 5-20% sodium

dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) for standard protein

analysis or to native PAGE using a NativePAGE™ 3–12% mini protein gel and a

Sample Prep Kit (Thermo Fisher) for analysis of the heptamerization of PA28γ. The

proteins in the gel were transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Merck

Millipore, Billerica, MA). After protein transfer, the membranes were incubated first

with an appropriate primary antibody and then with a horseradish peroxidase-

conjugated rabbit or mouse IgG as a secondary antibody, immersed in Super Signal

West Femto (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) and visualized using an LAS

4000 Mini imaging system (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA). The small interfering RNAs

(siRNAs) targeting RNF2 and the control siRNA (siControl Non-targeting siRNA #2,

Dharmacon®) were purchased from Thermo Scientific (Brebières, France) and were

introduced into cells by using Lipofectamine RNAiMax (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The

Silencer® siRNAs with ID numbers s3495 and s3497 were purchased from Thermo

Fisher Scientific and are designated CBP#1 and siCBP#2, respectively, in this study.

The CHX chase assay was carried out by the method reported by Kao et al (67).

Reverse transcription–quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT–qPCR) and

reverse transcription–semiquantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT–sqPCR).

Total RNA and first-strand cDNA were prepared and then evaluated by RT–qPCR as

described previously (10). The expression levels of HCV RNA and of each host mRNA

were normalized to that of GAPDH mRNA. HCV RNA and GAPDH mRNA were

amplified using primer pairs as described previously (21, 65). Each PCR product was

confirmed to be detected as a single band of the correct size by agarose gel

electrophoresis. The amount of HCV in the culture supernatant was estimated as the

copy number (10). HOX gene mRNA levels were measured by RT–sqPCR or RT–

qPCR (68) using the appropriate primer pairs as described previously (10). Takara

Emerald (2x;Takara Co.) was used for RT–sqPCR. Data acquisition was performed for

25, 30, 35, and 40 cycles to confirm that the plateau phase had not been reached.

Evaluation of immunofluorescence staining in cells by microscopy.

Huh7OK1 wild-type or transfected cells were infected with HCVcc, passaged twice

every 4 days, seeded at 0.5×10^4 cells per well on a glass cover slip and incubated at

37 °C for 24 h. The cells were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and

fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 20 min. After fixation, the

cells were washed twice with PBS, permeabilized by incubation for 15 min at room

temperature in PBS containing 0.3% saponin, and then incubated in PBS containing 3%

bovine serum albumin (PBS-BSA) to block nonspecific signals. These cells were

stained with 50 μM 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and incubated at 4 °C

overnight in PBS-BSA containing rabbit anti-RNF2 IgG (clone D22F2, Cell Signaling

Technology, Denver, MA) and mouse anti-NS5A IgG (clone 9E10) or rabbit anti-

H2Aub IgG (clone D27C4, Cell Signaling Technology) and mouse anti-HCV core

protein IgG (clone B2, ANOGEN, Mississauga, Canada). The cells were washed three

times with PBS-BSA and incubated at room temperature for 2 h in PBS-BSA

containing appropriate Alexa Fluor (AF)488 or AF594-conjugated secondary antibodies

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). The cells were washed three times with PBS-BSA and

observed using a confocal laser scanning microscope (FV1000, Olympus, Tokyo) or

fluorescence microscope (BZ-9000 and BZ-X800: Keyence, Osaka, Japan).

After reacting with each the first antibody, PA28γ and RNF2 were detected using

AF488- and AF594-conjugated secondary antibodies, respectively. Nuclei were stained

with DAPI. Localization signals of PA28γ and RNF2 were obtained as three-

dimensional (Fig. 1C) and two-dimensional images (Figs. 1B and 4B) using all-in-one

fluorescence microscope (BZ-X800, KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan) equipped with a Plan

Apochromat 40x objective (NA0.95, BZ-PA40, KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan) and optical

sectioning module (BZ-H4XF, KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan). Green fluorescence was

detected using a GFP filter (ex:470/40nm, em:525/50nm, dichroic:495nm, OP-87763,

KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan), while red fluorescence was detected using a Texas Red

filter (ex:560/40nm, em:630/75nm, dichroic:585nm, OP-87765, KEYENCE, Osaka,

Japan). Blue fluorescence was detected using a DAPI filter (ex:360/40nm,

em:460/50nm, dichroic:400nm, OP-87762, KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan). Images were

acquired as continuous images using the sectioning function. Fluorescence was

measured for the image at the center depth of the Z-axis of the acquired serial images,

and each signal intensity of the same coordinate pixel within the DAPI-positive region

(nuclear region) was compared and evaluated using a fluorescence microscope and the

corresponding software (BZ-H4: Keyence, Osaka, Japan). Co-localization of PA28γ

and RNF2 (Fig. 4B) was determined using the function evaluating co-localization

included in a confocal laser microscope FV1000.

ChIP assay.

ChIP assays were carried out according to the method reported by Sakurai et al (69)

with modifications as described previously (10). Huh7OK1 cells were infected with

HCVcc and passaged twice every 4 days. HCV-infected cells and mock-infected cells

were harvested 8 dpi. DNA–protein complexes were prepared as described previously

(10). qPCR was carried out as described above without a reverse transcription step.

Gene knockout with the CRISPR/Cas9 system.

PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cell lines were established according to the method

reported by Fujihara et al. (70). A PA28γ-targeting sequence (5'-

ATGGGATGCTGAAAAGCAAC -3'), which is located in the exon 5, was used for the

construction of the pX330 plasmid encoding the guide RNA. The targeted DNA regions

were amplified from the genomic DNA of Huh7OK1 cells with the primer pair 5'-

ACTGAGGATCCATGTTTTAGACGCTCATCTGTAGTTC-3'/5'-

GATATCGAATTCCAACCCAGGAGGCAGAGGTC-3' and were subsequently

inserted into pCAG EGxxFP. Both pX330 and pCAG EGxxFP were purchased from

Addgene (Cat Nos. #42230 and #50716; Cambridge, MA). Huh7OK1 cells were

transfected with these plasmids using Lipofectamine LTX (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

GFP-positive cells were isolated using a FACSAria™ cell sorter (BD Bioscience) 48 h

post-transfection. Single-cell clones were established by a colony isolation technique.

The deleted regions of each allele of the PA28γ gene were confirmed by direct

sequencing. The PA28γ mRNA transcribed from each allele in the PA28γ-knockout cell

line lacked the sequence 5'-GCTGAAAAGCAACCAGCAGC or ACCAGCAGCTG-

3', corresponding to the region on the downstream of amino acid residue 7 or 3. The

expression of PA28γ was confirmed by immunoblot analysis and direct sequencing.

There appears to be no difference between wild-type and knockout cells with respect to

cell proliferation.

In vitro proteasome assay

The plasmids encoding HA-RNF1 and HA-RNF2 were transfected into PA28γ-

knockout Huh7OK1 cells (5 x 10^5 cells) and then harvested 48 hr. The cell lysates were

prepared in 1 ml of NP-40 Lysis buffer (50 mM Tris 7.4 pH, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40,

10% glycerol, 1x protease inhibitor cocktail). HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 was then isolated

by immunoprecipitation using an anti-HA antibody for *in vitro* proteasome assays.

The in vitro proteasome assay was conducted using purified 20S proteasome (Enzo Life

Science, Farmingdale, NY) and proteasome activator 11S γ subunit (Enzo Life

Science). The immunoprecipitates containing HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 (one-twentieth of

the total immunoloprecipitates) were mixed on ice with 20S CP (50 ng protein) with or

without the 11S PA consisting of PA28γ (28 ng protein) in proteasome assay buffer (25

mM Tris-HCl pH7.4, 10% glycerol, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 2 mM ATP). The

mixture was incubated at 37 ˚C and stopped at 0, 10 or 30 min by boiling after adding

SDS-sample buffer. The resulting mixtures were analysed by Western blotting. Intensity

of RNF1 and RNF2 protein signals were measured using Image Gauge software (GE

health care).

Statistical analysis.

The measured values are shown as the means ± standard deviations (SDs). Normality

tests were performed by the Shapiro-Lorc test and Q-Q plots. Correlation tests were

performed by Pearson's correlation test for samples that showed a normal distribution,

and by Spearman's rank correlation test for the others. The statistical significance of

differences in the means was determined by Student's t test. A p-value less than 0.05

was considered statistically significant (*: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$).

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Figure legends.

FIG 1: PA28γ could bind RNF2 but was not colocalized with RNF2.

(A) FLAG-PA28γ was expressed in 293T cells together with HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2.

The cells were harvested 48 h post-transfection. These cell lysates were subjected to

immunoprecipitation. Immunoprecipitates recovered with anti-HA or anti-FLAG

antibodies were analysed by Western blotting using anti-FLAG or anti-HA antibodies,

respectively. (B) The intracellular localization of PA28γ and RNF2 was examined by

immunocytofluorescence. Images were acquired with a Keyence fluorescence

microscope. White bars indicate 5 μm scale. (C) The image in the field of view shown

in the top of panel C was acquired with a fluorescence microscope and subjected to

three-dimensional reconstruction. The green and red fluorescence intensities in each

pixel (in coordinate form) were calculated using the analysis software. Pearson's

correlation test was performed, and the correlation coefficient (R) was calculated. The

data shown in this figure are representative of three independent experiments.

FIG 2. The endogenous RNF2 protein was stabilized by genetic knockout of

PA28γ.

(A) PA28γ gene knockout was conducted using the Huh7OK1 cell line and the

CRISPR-Cas9 system. PA28γ was detected in the parental cells but not in the PA28γ-

knockout cells. PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells or parental Huh7OK1 cells

(Huh7OK1) were treated with the translation inhibitor CHX (2 mg/ml). Endogenous

RNF1, RNF2 and BMI1 expression was evaluated by Western blotting. (B) The band

densities of RNF1, RNF2, BMI1 and β-actin shown in panel A were estimated using

ImageJ software. The values for RNF1, RNF2 and BMI1 were normalized to that of β-

actin and are presented as percentages with respect to those in mock-infected cells. The

p-value of each time measurement of KO cell line compared to that of WT cell line

were lower than 0.01. The p-values of 2, 4, and 6 h measurements compared to 0 h

measurement indicated 0.07, 0.02, and 0.01, respectively (the middle graph), suggesting

that RNF2 was decreased in WT cells in a time-dependent manner. The data shown in

this figure are representative of three independent experiments and are presented as the

means ± SDs (n = 3). **: $p < 0.01$.

FIG 3. RNF2 degradation was promoted by the expression of PA28γ.

(A) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with pEF PA28γ (0, 0.03, 0.1

and 0.3 µg/sample) or the empty vector. The total amount of transfected DNA in pEF

PA28γ-transfected cells was supplemented with the empty plasmid to a final amount of

0.3 µg per sample. Endogenous RNF1, RNF2, BMI1, PA28γ and β-actin expression

was evaluated by Western blotting. (B) Total RNA was prepared from the harvested

cells described in panel A. The levels of RNF1 mRNA and RNF2 mRNA were

estimated via RT–qPCR. These mRNA levels were normalized to the GAPDH mRNA

level and are presented as relative values compared to the empty plasmid control. The

data shown in this figure are representative of three independent experiments and are

presented as the means ± SDs (n =3). (C) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were

transfected with pEF PA28γ (0, 0.03, 0.1 and 0.3 µg/sample) or the empty vector

together with the plasmid encoding HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 (0.2 µg/sample). The total

amount of transfected DNA in pEF PA28γ-transfected cells was supplemented with the

empty plasmid to a final amount of 0.5 µg per sample. (D) The immuno-precipitates

including HA-RNF1 or HA-RNF2 were mixed with 20S CP and 11S PA (PA28γ) in the

reaction buffer and then incubated at 0, 10 or 30 min. The resulting preparations were

subjected into Western blotting. The data shown in this figure are representative of three

independent experiments.

FIG 4. The degradation of the RNF2 protein and the reduction in H2Aub were

promoted by PA28γ and suppressed by proteasome inhibition.

(A) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with pEF PA28γ and treated with

10 µM MG132 at 48 h post-transfection. The resulting cells were harvested at 52 h post-

transfection. These cell lysates were subjected to Western blotting. (B) The cells

described in panel A were fixed and stained with the appropriate antibodies as described

in the Materials and Methods. The intracellular localization of RNF2 and PA28γ was

observed via confocal laser scanning microscopy. White bars in high magnified images

(2 panels on right side) indicate 5 µm scale, while those in other panels indicated 10 µm

scale.   (C) PA28γ-knockout cells were transfected with plasmids encoding PA28γ or

PA28γP245Y. The resulting cells were fixed 48 h post-transfection and stained with

appropriate antibodies as described in the Materials and Methods. The nuclear

localization of RNF2 and PA28γ was observed via Keyence fluorescence microscope.

White bars indicate 5 µm scale. The green and red fluorescence intensities in each pixel

(in coordinate form) were calculated using the analysis software. Spearman's rank

correlation test was performed. Each correlation coefficient (R) was shown.

The data shown in this figure are representative of three independent experiments.

FIG 5. PA28γ was required for the induction of HOX genes.

(A) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with pEF PA28γ (0, 0.1, 0.3 and

1.0 μg/sample) or the empty vector. The total amount of transfected DNA in these cells

was supplemented with the empty plasmid to a final amount of 1.0 μg per sample.

These cells were treated with 10 μM MG132 at 48 h post-transfection and were then

harvested at 52 h post-transfection. These cell lysates were subjected to Western

blotting. (B and D) Total RNA was prepared from the harvested cells described in panel

A. The level of each HOX mRNA was estimated via RT–qPCR. These mRNA levels

were normalized to the GAPDH mRNA level and are presented as relative values

compared to the empty plasmid control. The data shown in this figure are representative

of three independent experiments and are presented as the means ± SDs (n =3). (C) The

level of H2Aub in the promoter region of HOXB9 was evaluated by a chromatin

immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay. The data shown in this figure are representative of

three independent experiments and are presented as the means ± SDs (n =3).

FIG 6. HCV infection reduced the levels of H2Aub and RNF2 in the presence but

not in the absence of PA28γ.

Huh7OK1 cells (WT) and PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells (PA28γKO) were infected

with HCVcc at m.o.i. of 0.5 and harvested at 0, 3 and 6 dpi. These cell lysates were

subjected to Western blotting (A), and the band densities of H2Aub and RNF2 were

estimated by a method similar to that described in Figs. 2 and 5 (B). The levels of

cellular and supernatant HCV RNA were estimated by RT–qPCR, and the infectivity in

the supernatant was estimated by a focus formation assay (C). The data shown in this

figure are representative of three independent experiments and are presented as the

means ± SDs (n =3).

FIG 7. HCV core protein expression reduced the levels of H2Aub and RNF2 in the

presence but not in the absence of PA28γ.

(A) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells (PA28γKO) and the parental cells (WT) were

transfected with pCAG Core (0, 0.1, 0.3 and 1.0 μg/sample) or the empty vector. The

total amount of transfected DNA in these cells was supplemented with the empty

plasmid to a final amount of 1.0 μg per sample. These cell lysates were subjected to

Western blotting. The data shown in this figure are representative of three independent

experiments. (B) The cells described in panel A were subjected to a ChIP assay to

estimate the level of H2Aub in the promoter region of HOXB9. The data shown in this

figure are representative of three independent experiments and are presented as the

means ± SDs (n =3). (C) Total RNA was prepared from the cells described in panel A.

The level of HOXB9 mRNA was estimated by RT–qPCR. The data shown in this figure

are representative of three independent experiments and are presented as the

means ± SDs (n =3).

FIG 8: Acetylation of PA28γ at K195 was essential for the reduction in the RNF2

protein level.

(A and B) PA28γ-knockout HuhOK1 cells were transfected with pEF PA28γ or the

empty vector and were then treated with C646 and CHX at 36 h post-transfection. The

cells were collected at 42 h post-transfection. These cell lysates were subjected to

Western blotting. (C and D) PA28γ-knockout HuhOK1 cells were transfected with pEF

PA28γ or the empty vector and were then treated with TSA at 36 h post-transfection.

The cells were collected at 0, 2 and 4 h posttreatment. These cell lysates were subjected

to Western blotting. (E) PA28γ, PA28γ K195R or PA28γK195Q were expressed in

PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells. The transfected cells were treated with CHX and

harvested at 0, 2 and 6 h posttreatment. These cell lysates were subjected to Western

blotting. (F) Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with pCAG Core (0, 0.3 and 1.0

μg/sample) or the empty vector. The total amount of transfected DNA in these cells was

supplemented with the empty plasmid to a final amount of 1.0 μg per sample. The cells

were treated with CHX at 36 h post-transfection and harvested at 42 h post-transfection.

These cell lysates were subjected to Western blotting.

FIG 9. HCV core proteins induce the acetylation and activation of PA28γ via the

KAT CBP, leading to a decrease in the RNF2 protein level.

(A) Parental Huh7OK1 cells and PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were infected with

HCVcc at an m.o.i. of 0.5 and harvested at 0, 3 and 6 dpi. These cell lysates were

subjected to immunoprecipitation using rabbit anti-Ace-K IgG or normal rabbit IgG.

The resulting precipitates and cell lysates were subjected to Western blotting. (B) The

cell lysates described in panel A were subjected to Western blotting to analyse the

formation of PA28γ heptamers. (C) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were transfected

with pEF PA28γ (0.3 µg/sample) and/or pCAG Core (0.3 µg/sample). Total DNA was

supplemented with the empty plasmid to a final amount of 1.0 µg per sample. The cells

were harvested at 48 h post-transfection. These cell lysates were subjected to

immunoprecipitation using rabbit anti-Ace-K IgG or normal rabbit IgG. The resulting

precipitates and cell lysates were subjected to Western blotting. (D) The cell lysates

described in panel C were subjected to Western blotting to analyse the formation of

PA28γ heptamers. (E) PA28γ-knockout Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with pEGFP

PA28γ (0.3 µg/sample), pcDNA3.1 FLAG-CBP (0.3 µg/sample), and/or pCAG Core

(0.3 µg/sample). Total DNA was supplemented with the empty plasmid to a final

amount of 1.0 µg per sample. The cells were harvested at 48 h post-transfection. The

resulting cell lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation and Western blotting. (E)

Huh7OK1 cells were transfected with control siRNA (c), siCBP#1 (#1) or siCBP#2

(#2). The transfected cells were infected at 16 h post-transfection with HCVcc at an

m.o.i. of 0.5. The infected cells were harvested at 3 dpi. The resulting cell lysates were

subjected to Western blotting.

FIG 10. Schematic diagram of the mechanism by which HCV infection

accelerates the activation of the PA28γ-20S CP complex for the degradation of

RNF2, the reduction in H2Aub, and the induction of HOX genes.

Most HOX alleles are silenced in uninfected hepatocytes (10). When hepatocytes are

infected with HCV, the core protein reinforces the interaction between CBP and PA28γ

to increase PA28γ acetylation and heptamerization. The PA28γ heptamer recruits RNF2

and activates the 20S CP to degrade RNF2. The degradation of RNF2 results in a

decrease in PRC1 activity and impairs the monoubiquitination of histone H2A. The

reduction in H2Aub results in the formation of open chromatin in the promoter regions

of HOX alleles and the transcriptional reactivation of silenced HOX genes.

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