Interferon and Ribavirin Combination Treatment Synergistically Inhibit HCV Internal Ribosome Entry Site Mediated Translation at the Level of Polyribosome Formation

Rajesh Panigrahi¹, Sidhartha Hazari¹, Sruti Chandra¹, Partha K. Chandra¹, Sibnarayan Datta¹, Ramazan Kurt¹, Craig E. Cameron⁴, Zhuhui Huang⁵, Haitao Zhang¹, Robert F. Garry², Luis A. Balart³, Srikanta Dash^{1*}

1 Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Tulane University School of Medicine, New Orleans, Louisiana, United States of America, 2 Micribiology and Immunology, Tulane University School of Medicine, New Orleans, Louisiana, United States of America, 3 Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Medicine, Tulane University School of Medicine, New Orleans, Louisiana, United States of America, 4 Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Penn State University, University Park, United States of America, 5 Hepatitis Research Program, Southern Research Institute, Frederick, Maryland, United States of America

Abstract

Purpose: Although chronic hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection has been treated with the combination of interferon alpha (IFN- α) and ribavirin (RBV) for over a decade, the mechanism of antiviral synergy is not well understood. We aimed to determine the synergistic antiviral mechanisms of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment using HCV cell culture.

Methods: The antiviral efficacy of IFN- α , RBV alone and in combination was quantitatively measured using HCV infected and replicon cell culture. Direct antiviral activity of these two drugs at the level of HCV internal ribosome entry site (IRES) mediated translation in Huh-7 cell culture was investigated. The synergistic antiviral effect of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment was verified using both the CalcuSyn Software and MacSynergy Software.

Results: RBV combination with IFN- α efficiently inhibits HCV replication cell culture. Our results demonstrate that IFN- α , interferon lambda (IFN- λ) and RBV each inhibit the expression of HCV IRES-GFP and that they have a minimal effect on the expression of GFP in which the translation is not IRES dependent. The combination treatments of RBV along with IFN- α or IFN- λ were highly synergistic with combination indexes <1. We show that IFN- α treatment induce levels of PKR and eIF2 α phosphorylation that prevented ribosome loading of the HCV IRES-GFP mRNA. Silencing of PKR expression in Huh-7 cells prevented the inhibitory effect of IFN- α on HCV IRES-GFP expression. RBV also blocked polyribosome loading of HCV-IRES mRNA through the inhibition of cellular IMPDH activity, and induced PKR and eIF2 α phosphorylation. Knockdown of PKR or IMPDH prevented RBV induced HCV IRES-GFP translation.

Conclusions: We demonstrated both IFN- α and RBV inhibit HCV IRES through prevention of polyribosome formation. The combination of IFN- α and RBV treatment synergistically inhibits HCV IRES translation via using two different mechanisms involving PKR activation and depletion of intracellular guanosine pool through inhibition of IMPDH.

Citation: Panigrahi R, Hazari S, Chandra S, Chandra PK, Datta S, et al. (2013) Interferon and Ribavirin Combination Treatment Synergistically Inhibit HCV Internal Ribosome Entry Site Mediated Translation at the Level of Polyribosome Formation. PLoS ONE 8(8): e72791. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0072791

Editor: Ranjit Ray, Saint Louis University, United States of America

Received May 13, 2013; Accepted July 12, 2013; Published August 23, 2013

Copyright: © 2013 Panigrahi et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Funding: This work was supported from National Institutes of Health grant CA127481, CA089121, AI 103106 and bridge funding received from Tulane University Health Sciences Center. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

* E-mail: sdash@tulane.edu

Introduction

HCV infection leads to a fast progression to chronic liver disease, liver cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [1]. There

are 160 million people infected with HCV representing a major public health problem worldwide [2]. HCV is an enveloped positive-stranded RNA virus that belongs to the *Flaviviridae* family. This family includes yellow fever and dengue viruses,

which also affect humans [3]. The genome of HCV is organized into a highly conserved 5'-untranslated region (5' UTR), a large open reading frame (ORF) and a 3'-untranslated region (3' UTR). The 5' UTR of HCV genome binds to the host ribosome using the internal ribosome entry site (IRES) mechanism that facilitates translation of HCV protein [3,4]. The HCV genome contains a large open reading frame (ORF) that encodes for a polyprotein 3011 amino acid long. The polyprotein is proteolytically processed in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane into 10 different mature viral proteins by the cellular and viral protease [3]. The core protein and the two glycoproteins E1 and E2 are structural proteins; they are required for the formation of the viral particle, as well as assembly, export and infection. The non-structural (NS) proteins include the p7 ion channel, the NS2 protease, the NS3 serine protease and RNA helicase, the NS4A polypeptide (a cofactor for NS3 protease), the NS4B, the NS5A protein, and the NS5B RNA-dependent RNA polymerase, which are required for replication of the viral genome. The NS proteins (protease and polymerase) have been the targets of intense research efforts for the development of antiviral drugs against HCV. The highly conserved 3' UTR present at the very end of the HCV genome is important for the initiation of viral RNA replication [5]. HCV infection is initiated by the attachment and entry of virus particles into the host cells by receptor mediated endocytosis [6].

IFN- α and RBV, along with one of the protease inhibitors, is the standard-of-care for chronic HCV 1a infection [7]. Recently the FDA approved two protease inhibitors (Telaprevir and Boceprevir) that are specific to HCV genotype 1 virus NS3 sequences. IFN- α in combination with RBV is still used as the standard treatment for other HCV genotypes. Ribavirin is a guanosine analogue used for the treatment of a number of RNA viruses including the respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), Lass fever virus and HCV [8]. IFN- α and RBV combination therapy is more effective in the treatment of chronic HCV infection than treatment with a single agent [9]. Ribavirin is a synthtic guanosine nucleoside analogue (1-b-Dribofuranosyl-1,2,4-triazole-3-carboxamide) which has been shown to be metabolized intracellularly into ribavirin mono (RMP), di- (RDP) and triphosphate (RTP) [10]. Although RBV is extensively used to treat patients with HCV-infection the direct antiviral mechanism by which the compound inhibits viral replication remains largely elusive [8]. Furthermore, the mechanism by which the combination of RBV and IFN- α combination improves the treatment response is unclear [11]. Understanding the synergistic antiviral mechanisms of IFN-a and RBV action using the improved HCV cell culture system is important and may open new therapeutic interventions to improve the clinical response.

In our present study, we addressed the mechanism of IFN- α and RBV combination synergy by using full-length infectious cell culture, replicon model and a sub-genomic HCV IRES expression model. We observed that IFN- α and RBV each directly inhibited translation of HCV IRES by blocking polyribosome formation. Our results suggest that IFN- α and RBV each activate PKR and eIF- 2α phosphorylation which blocks HCV IRES mediated translation and synergistically

inhibits HCV replication. Furthermore, RBV mediated inhibition of IMPDH activity also contributes to the blockadge of polyribosome loading.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture and reagents

Human hepatoma cell lines, Huh-7 and Huh-7.5 were maintained in Dulbecco's modified eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), nonessential amino acids and sodium pyruvate. The stable S3-GFP replicon cell line (HCV JFH1 2a) was maintained in DMEM and 10% FBS supplemented with G-418 (1 µg/mL) as described in our previous study [12]. Full-length Renilla luciferase (Rluc) reporter based JFH-ΔV3-Rluc clone used in our infectivity assay was a kind gift from Curt H. Hagedorn Laboratory [13]. A replication defective adenovirus that expresses T7 RNA polymerase (AdexCAT7) was a kind gift from Tatsuo Miyamura, National Institute of Infectious Disease, Tokyo, Japan [14]. Cell culture derived infectious HCV stocks were prepared from the supernatants of Huh-7.5 cells as described previously [15]. Recombinant IFN-a 2b (Intron-A) was purchased from Schering-Plough (New Jersey, USA). Ribavirin, Cycloheximide and Guanosine were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company (St. Louis, MO, USA). Interferon lambda 1 (IL-29) was obtained from Peprotech, Rocky Hills, NJ, USA.

$\text{IFN-}\alpha$ and RBV combination treatment in sub-genomic replicon cell line and in infected HCV cell culture

S3-GFP replicon cells were cultured in presence of different concentrations of IFN- α and RBV alone and in combination for 72 hours. The antiviral effect of IFN-α and RBV combination treatment was evaluated by GFP expression under a fluorescence microscope and quantified by flow cytometric analysis. Huh-7.5 cells were infected with JFH-ΔV3-Rluc virus (MOI 0.1) using a standard protocol [15]. After 48 hours, infected cultures were treated with increasing concentrations of IFN- α or RBV alone or in combination. After 72 hours, the antiviral effect of IFN-a and RBV treatment was measured by NS5A-Rluc activity. Total protein concentration was measured by the Bradford method and luciferase activity was expressed in per micro-gram of total protein. HCV core protein expression was also measured by immunocytochemistry using the following protocol. Infected Huh-7.5 cells with or without IFN- α treatment were mounted onto a glass slide via the cytospin method. The cells were washed in PBS, fixed in chilled acetone for 15 minutes and then permeabilized by Reveal Decloaker RTU (Biocare Medical, RV 100) reagent for 25 minutes. Slides were cooled for 25 minutes and blocking was performed with Background Sniper (Biocare Medical, BS966) for 10 minutes at room temperature. The cells were incubated with monoclonal anti-core antibody (Thermo Scientific, Pierce HCV-core antigen specific mouse monoclonal antibody, Ma1-080) at 1:200 diluted with Da Vinci Green Diluent (Biocare Medical, PD900) for 1 h at room temperature. Cells were washed three times in Trisbuffered saline (TBS) pH 8.0, and incubated with MACH 4 mouse probe (Biocare Medical, UP534) for 10 minutes and

then incubated with MACH4 HRP Polymer (Biocare Medical, MRH534) for 30 minutes. Next, the cells were treated with diaminobenzidine (DAB) chromogen (Dako Cytomation, Carpinteria, CA) for 5 minutes. The slides were counterstained with hematoxylin for 30s and Tacha's bluing Solution (Biocare Medical, HTBLU) for 30 s, dehydrated, mounted and observed by light microscopy.

IFN-α and RBV effect on HCV-IRES mediated translation

A chimeric sub-genomic clone of HCV IRES and GFP (pHCV IRES-GFP) was used to determine the antiviral mechanisms of IFN-α and RBV as described previously [16]. Plasmids pEGFP-N1 and pDsRed-N1 expressing GFP and RFP (red respectively from fluorescence protein) а human cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter by a non-IRES dependent mechanism were used as a control (BD Biosciences, Clonetech, Palo Alto, CA). Huh-7 cells (1X10⁴ cells/well) were infected with AdexCAT7 (10 pfu/cell) for 2 hours at 37°C, and then transfected with pHCVIRES-GFP clone using the XtremeGENE 9 transfection reagent (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN). The pEGFP-N1 and pDsRed-N1 plasmid was transfected without addition of AdexCAT7 to the cells. Huh-7 cells were first transfected with 1µg of HCV IRES-GFP or pEGFPN1 or pDsRedN1 plasmid and treated with IFN-a (10-1000 IU/mL) and RBV (10-40 µg/mL). After 24 hrs, GFP expression was monitored under a fluorescence microscope (Olympus IX 70, Germany) and quantified by flow cytometric analysis. Transfected cells were examined with a fluorescent microscope at 484 nm for the expression of GFP and at 340 nm for Hoechst 33342 stain. Nuclear stain was superimposed over cytoplasmic GFP using Adobe Photoshop computer software generated the images.

Evaluation of synergy interaction at the level of HCV-IRES mediated translation

A Sub-genomic construct (pHCV-IRES-RLuc) with T7 promoter, HCV IRES-Rluc fusion, 3' UTR of HCV, a cDNA copy of the autolytic ribozyme from antigenomic strand of the hepatitis delta virus and T7 transcriptional terminator sequences was used to study HCV-IRES mediated translation. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pHCV-IRES-RLuc plasmid using the same procedure described above. The cells were treated with IFN-α (10-1000 IU/mL) and RBV (10-80 µg/mL) alone and combination immediately after transfection and incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. After 24 hours, the cells were washed with PBS, lysed and Renilla luciferase activity was measured (Luman LB9507, EG & G, Berthold, Berlin, Germany). The consistency of the results was maintained by quantifying emissions from triplicate wells for each treatment. IFN-λ also shows good antiviral effect against HCV (unpublished data). To determine the combinatory effect of IFN- α , IFN- λ and RBV, Huh-7 cells transfected with pHCV-IRES-RLuc plasmid were treated with 0, 10, 100, 1000 IU/mL of IFN-α 0 10 20 50 100 µg/mL IFN-λ and 0, 10, 20, 40 µg/mL of RBV. Renilla luciferase values were analyzed by using the CalcuSyn software (Biosoft). This program uses the medianeffect principle to delineate the interaction between these two

drugs. For each combination, the program generates a combination index (CI) based on the equation below described by Chou et al [17,18]. A combination index (CI) of <1 means synergism, CI=1 means additive and CI>1 means antagonism. Drug–drug combination analysis of IFN- α and RBV was performed with the MacSynergy II program [19,20].

Polyribosome fractionation and Northern blot analysis

To examine whether IFN- α and RBV treatment inhibits translation by preventing the loading of polyribosomes on the IRES-GFP mRNA, polysome analysis was performed using sucrose density gradient centrifugation. Huh-7 cells were transfected with pHCV IRES-GFP clone using a two-step transfection procedure. After transfection, cells were treated with IFN- α (1000 IU/mL) or RBV (40 µg/mL) and after 24 hours, the expression of GFP was examined. The polysome analysis was performed using a protocol described earlier [21]. Briefly, transfected Huh-7 cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS pH-7.2 containing 100µg/mL cycloheximide. The cells were lysed by 200 µl of polysomes lysis buffer containing 100 mM KCI, 5mM MgCl₂, 10 mM HEPES, pH7.4, 100 µg/mL cycloheximide, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, and 1000 units/mL RNase inhibitor (Ambion Inc, Austin, TX). The cell lysate was passed four times through a 27-gauge needle to ensure complete cell lysis. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 5 minutes. The supernatant was collected and centrifuged an additional time to ensure the removal of any nuclei. The resulting supernatant was layered on a linear 15-60% (w/v) sucrose gradient in polysome gradient buffer (100 mM KCl, 5 mM Mg Cl₂ and 10 mM HEPES pH 7.4) and centrifuged at 36,000 rpm for 2 hours at 4°C in a Beckman SW41 rotor. The distribution of ribosomal RNA along the sucrose density gradient fractions was determined using a polysome fractionator (Teledyne ISCO, Brandel, Inc, Gaithersburg, Maryland). Total RNA was isolated from the sucrose density fractions by treating with proteinase K solution (0.2 M Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 25 mM EDTA, 0.3 M NaCl, 2% SDS, and 250 µg/mL proteinase K, RNase free DNase-I 10 U/mL). Half of the RNA samples were subjected to Northern blot analysis to examine the distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in each fraction. Identical experiments were performed to determine the effect of RBV on the distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in the polysome fractions. Control experiments were performed using the pEGFP-N1 plasmid to determine the effect of IFN- α on the distribution of mRNA in the polysome fraction whose translation occurs via cap-dependent mechanism. To detect the HCV-IRES mRNA in the polysome fractions an anti-sense ³²P labeled riboprobe (10⁶ cpm/mL) targeted to the highly conserved 5' UTR of HCV genome was used. To detect EGFP mRNA in the polysome fractions, an anti-sense ³²P labeled RNA probe (10⁶ cpm/mL) targeted to the GFP was used. Northern hybridization was performed using the ULTRAhyb reagent (Ambion Inc, Austin, TX) at 68ºC for 16 hours. Blots were then washed twice for 15 min each at 37°C using a washing solution (0.1X SSC-0.1% SDS), followed by two 15 min washes at 37°C using a washing solution (0.1X SSC-0.1% SDS). The membrane was exposed for autoradiography using Bio Max X-ray film (Kodak imaging system). Proteins bound to

polyribosomes were isolated using a standard protocol [22]. Briefly, sucrose gradient fractions were precipitated by an addition of cold trichloroacetic acid to a final volume of 10% and were incubated on ice for 30 minutes. This step was followed by centrifugation at 20,000g for 15 min at 4°C. Pellets were washed once with 5% TCA and once with cold acetone. Finally, protein pellets were resuspended in a sample buffer (50 mM Tris at pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 2% glycerol) and 1% β -mercaptoethanol or 1 mM DTT, heated at 65°C, and processed for SDS-PAGE. Protein in the or transferred to nitrocellulose for Western blot.

Western blot analysis

Protein lysates from cells were prepared after treatment with IFN- α and RBV for 24 hours. Equal amounts of protein were resolved on SDS-PAGE gels. The antibodies to PKR, eIF2 α , peIF2 α (Ser51), β -actin, PKR, anti-mouse IgG, and anti-rabbit IgG HRP-linked antibody were purchased from Cell Signaling, Beverly, MA. Antibody to p-PKR (pT446) was obtained from Epitomics, Burlingame, CA. Antibody to IMPDH was obtained from Santa Cruz, Dallas, USA. Twenty microgram of proteins were resuspended in sample buffer (50 mM Tris at pH 6.8, 2% SDS, 2% glycerol) and 1% β -mercaptoethanol or 1 mM DTT, heated at 65°C, and processed for SDS-PAGE. Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membrane and Western blotting was performed using a standard protocol.

Knockdown of PKR and IMPDH mRNA

siRNA duplexes targeting the coding regions of human IMPDH1 (Qiagen, catalog no. SI02781044), PKR (Qiagen, SI02223018) and unrelated control siRNA were obtained from Qiagen. Huh7 cells were transfected with the indicated siRNA duplexes using Oligiofectamine (Invitrogen, CA). After 6 hours of siRNA treatment the cells were transfected with the IRES-GFP sub-genomic construct and then treated with either IFN- α or RBV to examine translational inhibition.

Results

IFN-α and RBV synergistically inhibit HCV replication in replicon and full-length infectious cell culture models

The genomic and sub-genomic clones for HCV genotype 2a used to develop the HCV replication model are shown (Figure S1A). We first measured the cytotoxic effects of IFN- α and RBV treatment alone and in various combinations using Huh-7 cells and S3-GFP replicon cell line by a MTT assay. Ribavirin up to 200 µa/mL did not show any cytotoxicity (Figure S2A). The viability of S3-GFP cells were more than 90% at 48 hours when treated with RBV (10-60 μ g/mL) and IFN- α (10-1000 IU/mL) alone (Figure S2B) or in combination (Figure S2C). Based on the MTT assay results, concentration of RBV (10-40µg/ml) permitting high viability was used for subsequent antiviral assays. The antiviral effect of IFN-a and RBV combination treatment in S3-GFP replicon cells after 72 hours was confirmed by the measurement of GFP expression under a fluorescence microscope (Figure 1A) and the expressed GFP was quantified by flow cytometric analysis (Figure 1B). The sub-genomic replicon system does not produce infectious virus due to lack of the structural proteins. Antiviral effect of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment was measured using an infectious cell culture model using the JFH1-Rluc chimera virus. The IFN- α and RBV treatment gradually reduced the RLuc activity in a dose dependent manner (Figure **1C**). The inhibition of HCV replication was significant at RBV 20µg/mL with IFN- α (100 IU/mL) and RBV 40µg/mL with IFN- α (250 IU/mL). We verified the antiviral effect of combination treatment by measuring HCV core protein expression by immunostaining (Figure **1D**). The number of HCV core positive cells in five different high power fields (hpf) were counted and compared with untreated control (Figure **1E**).

IFN- α , IFN- λ 1 and RBV combination treatment synergistically inhibit HCV IRES mediated translation

Previously we reported that type I and Type II IFN inhibit HCV replication by targeting the 5' UTR of HCV RNA genome used for IRES mediated translation [23]. Here we examined whether IFN- α and RBV combination treatment could also inhibit the HCV IRES mediated translation. The mechanisms of IFN- α and RBV action on HCV translation were examined using HCV IRES-GFP or HCV IRES-RLuc based subgenomic clones (Figure S1B). Plasmid clones pEGFP-N1 and pDsRed-N1 were used as controls to examine the effect of IFN- $\!\alpha$ and RBV treatment on the expression of GFP or RFP by non-IRES mechanisms (Figure S1B). High-level expression of GFP from HCV IRES in Huh-7 cells was achieved by using two-step transfection procedures that first involve infection with replication defective adenovirus that expresses T7 RNA polymerase (AdexCaT7), followed by transfection with a transcription plasmid (Figure S1C). The HCV IRES mediated translation of GFP was inhbited by both IFN- α and RBV at increasing concentration of both the drugs as evidenced by fluorescence imaging (Figure 2A) and Western blot analysis (Figure 2B). The cap dependent translation of GFP or RFP was not inhibited by addition of these two drugs (Figures S3A and S3B). IFN-α and RBV show maximum HCV IRES inhibition at 1000 IU/mL and 40 µg/mL respectively. Results of Northern blot analysis indicate that the intracellular IRES GFP mRNA is relatively stable in the IFN-a and RBV treatment. There is no significant difference in the stability of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in Huh-7 cells treated with increasing concentrations of IFN-a (10 to 1000 IU/mL) compared to GAPDH mRNA level used as a control (data not shown). These results indicate that IFN-a and RBV treatment inhibit translation of HCV IRES-GFP without altering the stability of intracellular HCV IRES subgenomic mRNA. Interferon lambda (IFN-λ1) is a type III IFN, which has been found to have a sustained antiviral activity against HCV (unpublished results). We quantified the relative antiviral activity of IFN- α , IFN- λ 1 and RBV at the level of HCV IRES translation using a HCV IRES Rluc plasmid (Figure S1B). Huh-7 cells were transfected with HCVIRES-Rluc plasmid and then treated with different concentrations of IFN- α , IFN- λ 1 and RBV alone and in combination. The antiviral activity of combination treatment was measured by Renilla luciferase activity per microgram of cellular protein. The results presented in Figure 3A show that IFN- α , IFN- λ 1 and RBV each inhibits



Figure 1. Antiviral effect of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment using a sub-genomic replicon cell line (S3-GFP) and HCV infected Huh-7.5 cells. (A) S3-GFP cells were treated with IFN- α and RBV for 72 hours. GFP expression was examined under a fluorescence microscope. (B) GFP positive cells were quantified by flow cytometric analysis. (C) Infected Huh-7.5 cells were treated with IFN- α alone, RBV alone and combination for 72 hours. *Renilla* Luciferase activity of infected cells was measured and normalized with 1µg of cellular protein. (D) Expression of HCV core protein was measured by immunostaining and (E) core positive cells in five different high power fields (hpf) at 40X magnification were counted under a light microscope. Quantitative assessment of the number of HCV positive cells with mean and standard deviation of the combination treatment are compared. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g001

HCV replication in a dose-dependent manner. The combination of IFN- α and IFN- λ 1 at the level of HCV-IRESRLuc expression was examined (Figure 3B). Combination treatment of IFN-a with RBV (Figure 3C) and IFN- λ 1 with RBV (Figure 3D) showed a stronger inhibitory effect on HCV IRES-Rluc expression. Determination of a synergistic, additive or antagonstic effect of IFN-a and RBV combination was performed according to the median effect principle using the CalcuSyn computer program. The combination treatment of IFN- α and RBV was highly synergistic with CI values of <1. Results using CalcuSyn software revealed synergistic interactions across the entire range of RBV with either IFN-a or IFN- λ 1 combinations tested (Figure 4A and 4B). IFN- α and IFN-λ1 combination treatment did not show synergistic inhibition of the HCV IRES-translation (Figure 4C). Analysis of IFN- α , IFN- λ 1 and RBV treatment was subsequently performed with the MacSynergy II program. The MacSynergy II program calculated the theoretical additive interactions of the drugs based on the Bliss Independence mathematical definition of expected effects for drug-drug interactions. The additive interactions were calculated from the dose-response. If the interactions are additive, the resulting surface appeared as horizontal plane at 0% above the calculated additive surface in

the resulting difference plot. Peaks above this plane is an indicative of synergy, while depression below the horizontal plane is an indication of antagonism. This analysis revealed that RBV treatment in combination with either IFN- α or IFN- λ 1 had resulted in strong synergistic interactions (Figure **4G and 4H**). In contrast, IFN- α and IFN- λ 1 combination treatment show slightly antagonistic interactions (Figure **4C and 4I**). Average cell inhibition was shown in Figure **4D**, **4E and 4F**. In conclusion, synergistic interactions between RBV and IFN treatments were observed at physiologically relevant concentrations.

IFN-α and RBV treatment prevents loading of polyribosome to HCV IRES containing mRNA

The translation of HCV genomic RNA is initiated by the binding of the host cell ribosome to a highly conserved RNA sequence called the internal ribosome entry site (IRES), located in the 5' UTR. We examined whether inhibition of GFP expression in the HCV IRES subgenomic clone could have occurred due to a differential loading of polyribosome. The upper panel (Figure **5A**) shows the separation of 40S, 60S and 80S and polyribosme in the sucrose density gradient using a



Figure 2. IFN- α and RBV each inhibited the internal ribosome entry site (IRES) mediated translation of green fluorescence protein (GFP). Huh-7 cells were infected with T7-expressing adenovirus. After 2 hrs, HCV IRES-GFP plasmid was transfected and then treated with indicated concentration of IFN- α and RBV. (A) HCV IRES mediated GFP expression was monitored under fluorescent microscopy. (B) Inhibition of GFP expression was further confirmed by Western blot analysis in both IRES and non-IRES mechanisms. β -actin is used as loading controls. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g002

polysome fractionator (Teledyne ISCO, BRANDEL). Total RNA from each gradient fraction was isolated and analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. The location of monosomes and polysomes was determined by ethidium bromide staining (Figure 5B). Polysome fractionation of IRES-GFP transfected Huh-7 cells after treatment with IFN-α or RBV was performed to examine distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in the monosome and polysome fractions. The amount of HCV IRES containing GFP mRNA associated with each ribosome fraction was determined by Northern blot analysis using an antisense RNA probe targeted to the 5' UTR. Northern analysis of transfected cells revealed that under a normal translation condition without treatment, the distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA gradually increased from monosome to polysome, suggesting an increased efficiency of ribosome loading and continued translation. In contrast, IFN-a treatment (IFN+) resulted in an arrest of the majority of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in the monosome peaks and reduction in the polysome fractions (Figure 5C, lanes 12-14). Similar results were consistently achieved in three separate experiments. A Similar mechanism is also operative in the case of RBV treatment. Polysome analysis was performed using HCV IRES-GFP transfected cells treated with RBV. The distribution of IRES-GFP mRNA in the RBV treated (RBV+) cells was found in monosome peaks and reduction in polysome peaks (Figure 5D, lanes 10-14). To address the specificity of IFN-α action on the IRES-GFP mRNA translation, we examined mRNA distribution using EGFP mRNA after IFN-a or RBV treatment. The distribution of GFP mRNA in the polysome fractions was

measured by Northern blot analysis using a GFP specific antisense riboprobe. We found no significant difference in the distribution of EGFP mRNA between the monosome and polysome fractions between cells with or without IFN-a (Figure 5E). To correlate the results of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA distribution profiles in the polysome fractions in the transfected cells with and without IFN treatment, we performed comparative analysis by measuring the density of bands seen in the Northern blot analysis. The band intensity of Northern blots was measured using TatalLab (TL120) software and the values were expressed as a percentage of total RNA recovered in the gradient (Figure 5F). This analysis clearly shows that both IFN-α and RBV the inhibited loading of polyribosomes to the HCV-IRES containing mRNA. This type of alternation in the mRNA distribution was not observed using control mRNA that is translated via non-IRES mechanism (Figure 5G).

RBV treatment altered the association of IMPDH and protein kinase R (PKR) with polysome fractions

To determine whether IMPDH levels could be associated differently in the polysome fractions after RBV treatment which is why inhibited the HCV IRES mediated GFP translation, protein extracts were prepared from monosome and polysome fractions and Western blot analysis was performed. Untreated cells IMPDH, PKR, and pPKR were detectable throughout the gradient (Figure **6A**). IFN- α treatment induced PKR activation and eIF2 α phosphorylation. The phosphorylated eIF2 α protein was accumulated in the monosome and disome fractions but



Figure 3. Different combinations of IFN- α , **RBV**, and **IFN-** λ inhibits HCV IRES Rluc mediated translation. Huh-7 cells were infected with T7-expressing adenovirus. After 2 hrs, HCV IRES-RLuc plasmid was transfected and then treated with indicated concentration of IFN- α , IFN- λ and RBV. The concentration dependent inhibition of *Renilla* luciferase activity by (**A**) IFN- α , RBV, and IFN- λ single treatment; (**B**) Combination of IFN- α + IFN- λ ; (**C**) Combination of IFN- α + RBV and (**D**) Combination of IFN- λ + RBV. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g003

absent in the polysome fractions (Figure **6B**, lane 6-10). Ribavirin treatment accumulated the IMPDH levels in the monosome and disome fractions but not in the polysome fractions (Figure **6C**). Activated pPKR and pelF2 α were also detected in the monosome and disome fractions but not in the polysome fractions (Figure **6C**, lanes 7-10). These results indicated that RBV treatment inhibited distribution of cellular IMPDH, which accumulated in the lower density ribosome fractions.

PKR and IMPDH are required for IFN- α and RBV mediated inhibition of HCV IRES-GFP translation

We found the phosphorylation of PKR and eIF2 α was increased due to IFN- α or RBV treatment (Figure **7A**). Ribavirin is a synthetic nucleoside analog and known inhibitor of IMPDH enzyme. Ribavirin or IFN- α treatment did not increase or decrease the expression of IMPDH level (Figure **7A**). Inhibition of IMPDH and PKR levels by siRNA restored the inhibitory action of RBV on HCV IRES-GFP translation (Figure **7B and C**). Inhibition of IMPDH activity by RBV is known to decrease the intracellular level of guanosine nucleotide pools resulting in the antiviral activity. Pretreatment with increased concentration of guanoside indeed neutralized the RBV mediated IRES-GFP translation (Figure **7D**). Depletion of the GTP pool caused by the inhibition of IMPDH enzyme activity due to RBV contributes to the inhibition of HCV IRES-GFP translation. We also verified that the inhibition of PKR by siRNA prevented IFN- α mediated inhibition of HCV IRES-GFP translation (Figure **7E and F**). These results suggest that PKR and IMPDH are involved in the IFN- α and RBV mediated synergistic inhibition of HCV IRES mediated translation.

Discussion

Molecular studies for determining IFN-α antiviral mechansims against HCV are possible due to the availability of highly efficient HCV cell culture systems. Many investigators, including our laboratory, have shown that IFN-a effectively inhibits HCV replication in cell culture model [23,24]. IFN-a binds to the cell surface receptors leading to the activation of Janus kinase signal transducer and activator of transcription (Jak-Stat) pathway. Activation of cellular Jak-Stat pathway results in the phosphorylation and nuclear translocation of the Stat-IRF9 complex to initiate antiviral gene transcription [25]. A number of key antiviral proteins are induced through the activation of the Jak-Stat pathway including the double stranded RNA-activated protein kinase (PKR), 2'5'oligoadenylate synthethase (2'5' OAS) and MxA. Studies have shown that IFN- α induced antiviral activity is mediated by interferon inducible ISGs [26]. Mechanisms of IFN-a antiviral



Fig.4 Rajesh et al

Figure 4. Analysis for synergistic effect of IFN- α + IFN- λ , IFN- α + RBV, and IFN- λ + RBV using Calcusyn and MacSynergyll software. (A) CalcuSyn software analysis show that IFN- α + RBV combination treatment has a very strong synergy antiviral activity against HCV IRES mediated inhibition with combination index, CI<1. (B) IFN- λ + RBV combination treatment also has a very strong synergy antiviral activity with CI<1. (C) IFN- α + IFN- λ treatment are either additive or slightly antagonistic. Three dimensional inhibition plots of (D) IFN- α + RBV, (E) IFN- λ + RBV and (F) IFN- α + IFN- λ treatment against HCV IRES mediated inhibition of Rluc at 95% confidence interval synergy plot. Three dimensional synergy plot of (G) IFN- α + RBV, (H) IFN- λ + RBV, and (I) IFN- λ + IFN- α .

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g004

activity through the inhibition of HCV IRES mediated translation are supported by a number of studies [27–31]. The newly discovered type III IFN called IFN- λ also inhibits IRES mediated translation of HCV and hepatitis A [32]. There is an agreement that Type I, Type II and Type III IFN inhibit HCV replication by blocking at the level of HCV IRES mediated translation that involves the PKR induced phosphorylation of eIF2 α [27,28]. The eIF2 α is an eukaryotic initiation factor required for protein translation [33]. This eIF2 protein exists as heterotrimer consisting of eIF- α , eIF-beta and eIF-gamma. The eIF2 protein complexes with GTP and the initiator t-RNA to form the 43S pre-initiation complex. The 43S pre-initiation complex binds to AUG codon on the target mRNA to initiate protein translation. The dissociation of the complex occurs when the eIF2 to hydrolyzes its GTP by eIF5 (a GTPaseactivating protein). This conversion causes the eIF-2-GDP to be released from the 48S complex and translation to begin after recruitment of 60S ribosome used and formation of 80S initiation complex. With the help of guanine nucleotide exchange factor eIF2-beta, the eIF2-GDP is exchanged to eIF2-GTP, which initiates another round of translation. The phosphorylation of eIF2 α inhibits recycling of this initiation factor and blocks protein synthesis [33].

The antiviral activity of RBV against HCV is mediated through a number of mechanisms which include: (i) inhibition of cellular IMPDH required for de novo synthesis of guanosine triphosphate, (ii) RBV triphosphate directly inhibits HCV RNA polymerase activity, (iii) RBV can be incorporated into viral genome by HCV RNA polymerase causing mutation in the viral genome, (iv) RBV enhances IFN- α signaling by inducing the



Figure 5. The distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in the monosome and polysomes fractions in the Huh-7 cells with (+) and without (-) IFN- α and RBV treatment. (A) Illustrates the separation of monosome and polysomes along the sucrose gradient fractions (1 to 14). The values indicate the spectrophotometry of optical density of the polysome fractions at 260 nm wavelengths. The point arrow shows the 60S, 80S and separation between monosomes and polysomes in the gradient fractions. (B) Formaldehyde agarose gel electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining of RNA samples isolated from the corresponding gradient fractions of untreated Huh-7 cells. The 18S and 28S band appears on the gel throughout the fractions and it become more intense on the 80S fractions of the gradient as expected. (C) Shows the distribution of HCV IRES-GFP mRNA in the monosome and polysome fractions by Northern blot analysis using a riboprobe targeted to the 5' UTR. In the untreated IFN (-) cells the IRES-GFP mRNA efficiently translated and formed polyribosome complexes (Lane 11-14). But the IFN treatment (+) prevented polysome formation on IRES-GFP mRNA (Lane 11-14). (D) In the RBV untreated Huh-7 cells, the IRES-GFP mRNA efficiently translated and formed polyribosome complexes (Lane 11-14). RBV treatment (+) prevented polysome formation on IRES-GFP mRNA (Lane 10-14). (E) Similar experiment was performed where the effect of IFN-α or RBV treatment on the distribution of EGFP mRNA was examined by Northern blotting using RNA probe specific to GFP. IFN-α treatment did not alter the distribution of EGFP mRNA that translates by non-IRES dependent mechanism. (F) Comparison of the relative amount of HCV IRES and non-IRES mRNAs in monosome and polysome fractions in the sucrose density gradient analysis generated from the transfected cells. Density of the Northern blot was measured using an image analysis computer software (Total Lab, TL120). Values are expressed as percentage of total mRNA recovered from the gradient versus the mRNA present in each fraction. (G) The formation of polyribosome of EGFP mRNA was not altered by IFN-a treatment. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g005

PLOS ONE | www.plosone.org



Fig. 6 Rajesh et al

Figure 6. Western blot analysis of polyribosome fractions of HCV IRES-GFP transfected cells. (A) Untreated HCV IRES-GFP transfected cells showing IMPDH, PKR, pPKR is bound to the ribosome throughout the gradient. (B) PKR induced peIF2 α protein is found in the monosome-containing fractions (lanes 1-5) and absent in the higher density polyribosome fractions (lanes 6-10) due to IFN- α treatment. (C) IMPDH, pPKR and peIF2 α proteins were found in the monosome fractions (lanes 1-6) but excluded from the high-density polyribosome fractions (lanes 6-10). The level of actin was detected throughout the gradient. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g006

expression of interferon-stimulated genes (ISG), (v) RBV also inhibits cellular eIF4E activity required for translation of viral genome, and (vi) RBV helps to clear the virus by stimulating the T helper 1 response of host. Among these candidate mechanisms inhibition of cellular IMPDH by RBV has been verified by a number of laboratories using HCV and other virus infection models [34–37]. Molecular studies of RBV action against HCV are possible due to the availability of *in vitro* cell



Fig. 7 Rajesh et al

Figure 7. IFN- α and RBV synergy antiviral mechanism involves the activation of PKR, eIF2 α and inhibition of cellular IMPDH. (A) IFN- α and RBV each induced phosphorylation of PKR and eIF2 α . (B) Flow cytometric analysis showing RBV show a dose dependent inhibition of HCV IRES-GFP translation. (C) Inhibition of IMPDH and PKR levels by siRNA prevented RBV antiviral action against HCV IRES-GFP translation determined by flow cytometric analysis. (D) Dose dependent prevention of RBV action due to increasing concentration of guanosine was determined by flow cytometric analysis. (E) IFN- α inhibits HCV IRES-GFP translation. (F) Inhibition of PKR by siRNA prevented IFN- α mediated inhibition of HCV IRES-GFP translation. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g007

culture systems. A number of new studies support the RBV antiviral mechanism against HCV replication through inhibition of cellular IMPDH and reduction of GTP pool [37-40]. Mori et al [37] reported that the predominant antiviral mechanism of RBV against HCV is through the inhibition of inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (IMPDH) not though the error catastrophe, the IFN signaling or oxidative stress. This study is supported by results of other investigators who showed that decrease in GTP also leads to suppression of HCV RNA synthesis by NS5B RNA polymerase [38]. The mechanism of IMPDH inhibition by RBV is supported by the report of Zhou et al [39] indicating that exogenous guanosine suppressed the RBV effect where as potent IMPDH inhibitors MPA and VX-497 enhanced RBV antiviral effect. IMPDH modulates intracellular quanosine nucleotide levels. Therefore it affects a number of cellular processes involved in translation, cell proliferation and RNA/DNA synthesis. IMPDH catalyzes the important step in guanine nucleotide biosynthesis. IMPDH has been shown to be associated with polyribosome, suggesting that this housekeeping gene plays an important role in translational regulation [41]. In our study we found that the distribution of IMPDH is halted in monosome and disome fraction and absent in polysome fractions supporting the role IMPDH in HCV IRES mediated translation.

Ribavirin in combination with IFN- α showed a marked improvement in the sustained antiviral response in chronic HCV infection. The synergistic antiviral mechanism of $\mathsf{IFN}\alpha$ and RBV combination therapy is not known. Only a few studies have been published which explain why RBV and IFN- α combination treatment is highly effective against HCV replication [42-46]. Thomas et al [42] showed that RBV enhanced the IFN- α antiviral activity by inducing the expression of interferon inducible genes (ISGs) and interferon regulatory factor (IRF-7) and (IRF-9). Stevenson et al [43] showed that RBV enhanced IFN-α induced phosphorylation of Stat1, Stat3 and MxA expression and enhanced IFN-a induced cellular Jak-Stat pathway. Liu et al [44] showed that RBV enhances IFN-a signaling through activation of separate antiviral signaling by inducing the expression of cellular p53. This finding is supported by a report indicating that p53 plays an important role in host antiviral defense mechanisms and directly inhibits HCV replication [45]. A previous report by Liu et al [46]

indicates that RBV enhances the IFN- α antiviral activity through the up-regulation of PKR activity. None of these studies have shown the synergistic antiviral effect of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment using HCV cell culture. Our results indicate IFN- α and RBV combination treatment synergistically inhibit HCV replication in replicon and infected cell culture models. We show here for the first time that the synergy antiviral action of IFN- α and RBV combination therapy is at the level of inhibition of HCV IRES mediated translation. IFN- α directly inhibits HCV IRES translation by preventing polyribosome loading through PKR mediated eIF2 α phosphorylation. Ribavirin inhibits HCV IRES translation by preventing the polyribosome loading of HCV IRES mRNA. Ribavirin mediated blockage of polyribosome loading involves two important mechanisms that involve PKR and IMPDH. Ribavirin mediated PKR and eIF2 α phosphorylation inhibits the recycling of eIF2 α and inhibits HCV IRES translation. Ribavirin mediated inhibition of IMPDH activity decreases the cellular GTP pool, which inhibits the HCV-IRES translation by preventing polyribosome loading. This is supported by the results showing that pretreatment of guanosine prevented RBV mediated HCV IRES-GFP translation. Based on these observations, we propose a model explaining how RBV mediated depletion of GTP pool and activation of PKR by IFN- α and RBV combination treatment could be playing an important role in the synergy antiviral mechanism (Figure 8). The detailed mechanism how IFN- α and RBV combination treatment leads to efficient translation arrest of HCV IRES mRNA will be the topic of future investigation.



Fig. 8 Rajesh et al

Figure 8. Diagram summarized the proposed IFN- α and RBV synergy antiviral mechanisms against HCV IRES-GFP translation. IFN- α binds to the cell surface receptor, which activates the cellular Jak-Stat pathway leading to the activation of PKR. The activated PKR phosphorylates the eIF- 2α . Phosphorylation of eIF- 2α inhibits the recycling of initiation factors and translation initiation. On the other hand, RBV activates the PKR and eIF2 α phosphorylation and inhibits the translation initiation. Ribavirin inhibits HCV IRES translation by inhibiting IMPDH and GTP pool. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072791.g008

Supporting Information

Figure S1. HCV genomic and sub-genomic constructs and cell culture models used to study IFN- α and RBV antiviral synergy mechanisms.

(A) HCV full-length JFH1-RLuc chimera clone (13) used in the infectivity assay and sub-genomic HCV RNA used to generate stable S3-GFP replicon cell line (12). (B) Structure of pHCV IRES-GFP and pHCV-IRES-Rluc plasmid clone used for this study. The HCV-IRES-sequences were transcribed from T7 promoter and the 3' UTR sequences were added at the 3' end of GFP or RLuc. pEGFP-N1 and pDsRed-N1 plasmids were used as controls. (C) Shows the steps used to express HCV IRES-GFP or HCV IRES-RLuc using a recombinant adenovirus expressing T7 RNA polymerase.

(TIF)

Figure S2. MTT assay showing the effect of IFN- α and RBV combination treatment on viability of Huh-7 and S3-GFP cells.

(A) Huh-7 cells were treated with increasing concentration of RBV (10-200 μ g/mL) for 48 hours and the viability was measured. (B) S3-GFP cells were treated with indicated concentrations of RBV or IFN- α and cell viability was determined at 48 hours. (C) Cell viability of combination treatment of IFN- α and RBV at various combinations. S3-GFP

References

- 1. Lavanchy D (2009) The global burden of hepatitis C. Liver Int 29(Suppl 1): 74–81. doi:10.1111/j.1478-3231.2008.01702.x. PubMed: 19207969.
- Shepard CW, Finelli L, Alter MJ (2005) Global epidemiology of hepatitis C virus infection. Lancet Infect Dis 5: 558-567. doi:10.1016/ S1473-3099(05)70216-4. PubMed: 16122679.
- Moradpour D, Penin F, Rice CM (2007) Replication of hepatitis C virus. Nat Rev Microbiol 5(6): 453–463. doi:10.1038/nrmicro1645. PubMed: 17487147.
- Qi ZT, Kalkeri G, Hanible J, Prabhu R, Bastian F et al. (2003) Stemloop structures (II-IV) of the 5' untranslated sequences are required for the expression of the full-length hepatitis C virus genome. Arch Virol 148 [3]: 449-467. doi:10.1007/s00705-002-0933-0. PubMed: 12607098.
- Friebe P, Bartenschlager R (2002) Genetic analysis of the sequences in the 3' UTR of hepatitis C virus that are important for RNA replication. J Virol 76: 5326-5338. doi:10.1128/JVI.76.11.5326-5338.2002. PubMed: 11991961.
- Blanchard E, Belouzard S, Goueslain L, Wakita T, Dubuisson J et al. (2006) Hepatitis C virus entry depends on clathrin-mediated endocytosis. J Virol 80: 6964-6972. doi:10.1128/JVI.00024-06. PubMed: 16809302.
- Hofmann WP, Zeuzem S (2011) A new standard of care for the treatment of chronic HCV infection. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol 8: 257–264. PubMed: 21468124.
- Paeshuyse J, Dallmeier K, Neyts J (2011) RBV for the treatment of chronic hepatitis C virus infection: a review of the proposed mechanisms of action. Curr Opin Virol 1(6): 590-598. doi:10.1016/ j.coviro.2011.10.030. PubMed: 22440916.
- Davis GL, Esteban-Mur R, Rustgi V, Hoefs J, Gordon SC et al. (1998) Interferon alfa-2b alone or in combination with RBV for the treatment of relapse of chronic hepatitis C. N Engl J Med 339: 1493–1499. doi: 10.1056/NEJM199811193392102. PubMed: 9819447.
- Sidwell RW, Witkowsk JT, Allen LB, Robins RK, Khare GP et al. (1972) Broad-spectrum antiviral activity of virazole-1-beta-dribofuranosyl-1,2,4-triazole-3-carboxamide. Science 177: 705-706. doi: 10.1126/science.177.4050.705. PubMed: 4340949.
- Feld JJ, Hoofnagle JH (2005) Mechanism of action of interferon and RBV in treatment of hepatitis C. Nature 436(7053): 967-972. doi: 10.1038/nature04082. PubMed: 16107837.

cells were treated with different concentration of RBV with one concentration of IFN- α for 48 hours and cell viability was determined by MTT assay.

(TIF)

Figure S3. Effect of IFN- α and RBV treatment on (A) GFP and (B) Red fluorescence protein (RFP) expression by non-IRES mechanism. (TIF)

Acknowledgements

We thank Daniel Hoskins and Michelle McCarthy for critically reviewing this manuscript. The authors thank Charles M Rice for providing Huh-7.5 cells, and Shuanghu Liu and Curt H Hagedorn, University of Utah School of Medicine, for providing the JFH- Δ V3-Rluc plasmid. The authors acknowledge Krzysztof Moroz for taking the picture of immunostaining slides.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SH PKC RFG SD. Performed the experiments: RP SH SC PKC SND RK. Analyzed the data: RP SH PKC SND ZH HZ SD. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: CEC HZ. Wrote the manuscript: RFG LAB SD.

- Hazari S, Chandra PK, Poat B, Datta S, Garry RF et al. (2010) Impaired antiviral activity of IFN-α in Huh-7 cells with defective Jak-Stat pathway. Virol J 7: 36. doi:10.1186/1743-422X-7-36. PubMed: 20149251.
- Liu S, Nelson CA, Xiao L, Lu L, Seth PP et al. (2011) Measuring antiviral activity of benzimidazole molecules that alter IRES RNA structure with an infectious hepatitis C virus chimera expressing Renilla luciferase. Antiviral Res 89: 54-63. doi:10.1016/j.antiviral.2010.11.004. PubMed: 21075143.
- Aoki Y, Aizaki H, Shimoike T, Tani H, Ishii K et al. (1998) A human liver cell line exhbits efficient translation of HCV RNA produced by a recombinant adenovirus expressing T7 RNA polymerase. Virology 250: 140-150. doi:10.1006/viro.1998.9361. PubMed: 9770428.
- Datta S, Hazari S, Chandra PK, Samara M et al. (2011) Mechanisms of HCV's resistance to IFN-alpha in cell culture involve expression of functional IFN-alpha receptor 1. Virol J 8: 351. doi: 10.1186/1743-422X-8-351. PubMed: 21756311.
- Hazari S, Patil A, Joshi V, Sullivan DE, Fermin CD et al. (2005) Alpha interferon inhibits translation mediated by the internal ribosome entry site of six different hepatitis C virus genotypes. J Gen Virol 86: 3047-3053. doi:10.1099/vir.0.81132-0. PubMed: 16227227.
- Chou TC, Talalay PA (1977) Simple generalized equation for the analysis of multiple inhibitors of Michaelis-Menten kinetic system. J Biol Chem 252: 6438-6442. PubMed: 893418.
- Chou TC, Talalay P (1984) Quantitative analysis of dose-effect relationships: the combined effects of multiple drugs or enzyme inhibitors. Adv Enzyme Regul 22: 27-55. doi: 10.1016/0065-2571(84)90007-4. PubMed: 6382953.
- 19. Prichard MN, Aseltine KR, Shipman C JrMacSynergy II. Version 1.0 User manual. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan.
- Prichard MN, Shipman Jr C (1996) Analysis of combinations of antiviral drugs and design of effective multidrug therapies. Antiviral Therapies 1:9-20.
- Taha C, Liu Z, Jin J, AL-Hasani H, Sonenberg N et al. (1999) Opposite translational control of Glut 1 and Glut 4 glucose transporter mRNA in response to insulin. J Biol Chem 274: 33085-33091. doi:10.1074/jbc. 274.46.33085. PubMed: 10551878.
- 22. Lerner RS, Nicchitta CV (2006) mRNA translation is compartmentalized to the endoplasmic reticulum following physiological inhibition of cap-

- Dash S, Shah K, Prabhu R, Deluca C, Bastian F et al. (2005) IFNα, beta, gamma each inhibits hepatitis C virus replication at the levels of internal ribosome entry site mediated translation. Liver Int 25 [3]: 580-594. doi:10.1111/j.1478-3231.2005.01082.x. PubMed: 15910496.
- Guo JT, Bichko VV, Seeger C (2001) Effect of alpha interferon on the hepatitis C virus replicon. J Virol 75: 8516-8523. doi:10.1128/JVI. 75.18.8516-8523.2001. PubMed: 11507197.
- Goodbourn S, Didcock L, Randall RE (2000) Interferons: cell signaling, immune modulation, antiviral responses and virus countermeasures. J Gen Virol 81: 2341-2364. PubMed: 10993923.
- Jiang D, Guo H, Xu C, Chang J, Gu B et al. (2008) Identification of three interferon-inducible cellular enzymes that inhibit the replication of hepatitis C virus. J Virol 82 [4]: 1665-1678. doi:10.1128/JVI.02113-07. PubMed: 18077728.
- Wang C, Pflugheber J, Sumpter R, Sodora DL, Hui D et al. (2003) Alpha interferon induces distinct translational control programs to suppress hepatitis C virus RNA replication. J Virol 77: 3898-3912. doi: 10.1128/JVI.77.7.3898-3912.2003. PubMed: 12634350.
- Rivas-Estilla AM, Svitkin Y, Lastra ML, Hatzoglou M, Sherker A et al. (2002) PKR-dependent mechanisms of gene expression from a subgenomic hepatitis C virus clone. J Virol 76: 10637-10653. doi: 10.1128/JVI.76.21.10637-10653.2002. PubMed: 12368306.
- Shimazaki T, Honda M, Kaneko S, Kobayashi K (2002) Inhibition of internal ribosomal entry site-directed translation of HCV by recombinant IFN-alpha correlates with a reduced La protein. Hepatology 35: 199-208. doi:10.1053/jhep.2002.30202. PubMed: 11786977.
- Koev G, Duncan RF, Lai MM (2002) Hepatitis C virus IRES-dependent translation is insensitive to an eIF2alpha-independent mechanism of inhibition by interferon in hepatocyte cell lines. Virology 297: 195-202. doi:10.1006/viro.2002.1455. PubMed: 12083818.
- 31. Kato J, Kato N, Moriyama M, Goto T, Taniguchi H et al. (2002) Interferons specifically suppress the translation from the internal ribosome entry site of hepatitis C virus through a double-stranded RNAactivated protein kinase-independent pathway. J Infect Dis 186: 155-163. doi:10.1086/341467. PubMed: 12134250.
- Kanda T, Wu S, Kiyohara T, Nakamoto S, Jiang X et al. (2012) Interleukin-29 suppresses hepatitis A and hepatitis C viral internal ribosome entry site-mediated translation. Viral Immunol 25(5): 379-386. doi:10.1089/vim.2012.0021. PubMed: 23035851.
- Dabo S, Meurs EF (2012) DsRNA-dependent protein kinase PKR and its role in stress, signaling and HCV infection. Viruses 4(11): 2598-2635. PubMed: 23202496.
- 34. Leyssen P, Balzarini J, De Clercq E, Neyts J (2005) The predominant mechanism by which RBV exerts its antiviral activity in vitro against flaviviruses and paramyxoviruses is mediated by inhibition of IMP

dehydrogenase. J Virol 79: 1943–1947. doi:10.1128/JVI. 79.3.1943-1947.2005. PubMed: 15650220.

- Shu QN, Nair V (2008) Inosine monophosphate dehydrogenase (IMPDH) as a target in drug discovery. Med Res Rev 28: 219–232. doi: 10.1002/med.20104. PubMed: 17480004.
- Leyssen P, De Clercq E E, J Neyts J (2006) The anti-yellow fever virus activity of RBV is independent of error-prone replication. Mol Pharmacol 69: 1461–1467 doi:10.1124/mol.105.020057. PubMed: 16421290.
- Mori K, Ikeda M, Ariumi Y, Dansako H, Wakita T et al. (2011) Mechanism of action of RBV in a novel hepatitis C virus replication cell system. Virus Res 157: 61–70. doi:10.1016/j.virusres.2011.02.005. PubMed: 21320556.
- Simister P, Schmitt M, Geitmann M, Wicht O, Danielson UH et al. (2009) Structural and functional analysis of hepatitis C virus strain JFH1 polymerase. J Virol 83: 11926-11939. doi:10.1128/JVI.01008-09. PubMed: 19740982.
- Zhou S, Liu R, Baroudy BM, Malcolm BA, Reyes GR (2003) The effect of RBV and IMPDH inhibitors on hepatitis C virus subgenomic replicon RNA. Virology 3 10: 333-342.
- Lau JY, Tam RC, Liang TJ, Hong Z (2002) Mechanism of action of RBV in the combination treatment of chronic HCV infection. Hepatology 35(5): 1002-1009. doi:10.1053/jhep.2002.32672. PubMed: 11981750.
- Mortimer SE, Xu D, McGrew D, Hamaguchi N, Lim HC et al. (2008) IMP dehydrogenise type I associates with polyribosomes translating rhodopsin mRNA. J Biol Chem 283: 36354-36360. doi:10.1074/ jbc.M806143200. PubMed: 18974094.
- Thomas E, Feld JJ, Li Q, Hu Z, Fried MW et al. (2011) RBV potentiates interferon action by augmenting interferon-stimulated gene induction in hepatitis C virus cell culture models. Hepatology 53 [1]: 32-41. doi: 10.1002/hep.23985. PubMed: 21254160.
- Stevenson NJ, Murphy AG, Bourke NM, Keogh CA, Hegarty JE et al. (2011) RBV enhances IFN-alpha signaling and MxA expression: a novel immune modulation mechanism during treatment of HCV. PLOS ONE 6: e27866. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0027866. PubMed: 22114715.
- 44. Liu WL, Su WC, Cheng CW, Hwang LH, Wang CC et al. (2007) RBV upregulates the activity of double stranded RNA-activated protein kinase and enhances the action of IFNα against HCV virus. J Infect Dis 196: 425-434. doi:10.1086/518894. PubMed: 17597457.
- Dharel N, Kato N, Muroyama R, Taniquichi H, Otsuka M et al. (2008) Potential contribution of tumor suppressor p53 in the host defence against hepatitis C virus. Hepatology 47: 1136-1149. PubMed: 18220274.
- 46. Liu WL, Yang HC, Su WC, Wang CC, Chen HL et al. (2012) RBV enhances the action of IFNα against hepatitis C virus by promoting the p53 activity through ERK1/2 pathway. PLOS ONE 9: e43824.