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Nuclear translocation of glutathione S-transferase $\pi$ is mediated by a non-classical localization signal

Miho Kawakatsu, Shinji Goto, Takako Yoshida, Yoshishige Urata and Tao-Sheng Li

Department of Stem Cell Biology, Atomic Bomb Disease Institute, Nagasaki University Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan

Running Title: Nuclear localization signal of GST$\pi$

Address correspondence to: Shinji Goto, Ph.D., Department of Stem Cell Biology, Atomic Bomb Disease Institute, Nagasaki University Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Nagasaki 852-8523, Japan
Tel. +81-95-819-7099; FAX. +81-95-819-7100
E-mail; sgoto@nagasaki-u.ac.jp

Abbreviations: GSH, reduced form of glutathione; GST, glutathione S-transferase; NLS, nuclear localization signal; MTS, mitochondrial targeting signal; GFP, green fluorescent protein; PCR, polymerase chain reaction; HRP, horseradish peroxidase; FITC, fluorescein isothiocyanate; RCC1, regulator of chromosome condensation 1; Cu,Zn-SOD, Cu,Zn-superoxide dismutase; GPx, glutathione peroxidase
Abstract

Glutathione S-transferase π (GSTπ), a member of the GST family of multifunctional enzymes, is highly expressed in human placenta and involved in the protection of cellular components against electrophilic compounds or oxidative stress. We have recently found that GSTπ is expressed in the cytoplasm, mitochondria, and nucleus in some cancer cells, and that the nuclear expression of GSTπ appears to correlate with resistance to anti-cancer drugs. Although the mitochondrial targeting signal of GSTπ was previously identified in the amino-terminal region, the mechanism of nuclear translocation remains completely unknown. In this study, we find that the region of GSTπ195-208 is critical for nuclear translocation, which is mediated by a novel and non-classical nuclear localization signal. In addition, using an in vitro transport assay, we demonstrate that the nuclear translocation of GSTπ depends on the cytosolic extract and ATP. Although further experiments are needed to understand in depth the precise mechanism of nuclear translocation of GSTπ, our results may help to establish more efficient anti-cancer therapy, especially with respect to resistance to anti-cancer drugs.

Key words: glutathione S-transferase π, nuclear localization signal
Introduction

Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs) are multifunctional enzymes involved in the protection of cellular components against electrophilic compounds or oxidative stress. Glutathione S-transferase π (EC 2.5.1.18) belongs to the family of GSTs involved in cellular detoxification [1, 2]. The expression of GSTπ increases in various pre-cancerous and cancer tissues [3-5]. We have recently found that the mature form of GSTπ is distributed in the cytoplasm and mitochondria, and we have further identified the mitochondrial targeting signal located in the amino-terminal (N-terminal) region of GSTπ [6]. In other studies, nuclear translocation of GSTπ was observed in some cancer cells, and nuclear expression of GSTπ seems to associate with resistance to anti-cancer drugs [7-9]. However, the precise mechanism of nuclear translocation of GSTπ remains completely unclear.

In general, the translocation of proteins from the cytoplasm to the nucleus is dependent upon a specific sequence, which is called a nuclear localization signal (NLS). The NLS occurs in both classical and non-classical types. The classical NLS is composed of positively charged amino-acid cluster(s) [10-12] that can be recognized by importin-α (karyopherin-α) and forms a transport complex with importin-β (karyopherin-β) [13, 14]. However, a non-classical NLS lacks a contiguous stretch of positively charged residues and bears no sequence similarity to the classical NLS [15]. Thus, a non-classical NLS is directly recognized by importin-β family members without the need for adapter proteins, such as importin-α [16-18]. Because GSTπ has no known NLS in the amino acid sequence, the precise mechanism of the nuclear translocation of GSTπ has not yet been determined.

Considering the potential roles of nuclear GSTπ in physiological and pathological functions, we have tried to elucidate the mechanism of the nuclear translocation of GSTπ in this study. We have found that the carboxyl-terminal
(C-terminal) region of GSTπ is critical for nuclear translocation, likely through a novel mechanism that involves a non-classical NLS.
Materials and Methods

Materials

All materials for this study are listed in the supplementary file.

Cell culture

We used HCT8, COS-1, and HeLa cells for this study. The cells were maintained in DMEM (COS-1 and HeLa) or RPMI 1640 (HCT8) basic medium, supplemented with 10% FBS at 37°C under a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO2.

Immunostaining to detect endogenous GSTπ

To identify the intracellular localization of endogenous GSTπ, the cells were maintained with medium containing 10% FBS on glass coverslips in a six-well culture plate (Nalge Nunc International, Naperville, IL). After 24 hrs of culture, the cells on the glass coverslips were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde for 20 min, treated with 1% Triton-X 100 for 10 min, and blocked with 3% BSA for 30 min at room temperature. The cells were incubated with a polyclonal antibody against human GSTπ for 60 min and were then treated with FITC-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody for 30 min, as described previously [6]. The nuclei were labeled with 10 μM Hoechst 33342 for 15 min. The intracellular distribution of endogenous GSTπ was observed under a confocal laser scanning microscope (LSM5 pascal, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

Construction of vectors for protein expression

The GSTπ cDNA was prepared by a reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (PCR) method using total RNA extracted from HCT8 cells as described previously [7]. The cDNA of full-length GSTπ was inserted into pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP or pcDNA3.1/CT-GFP, using EcoRI-EcoRV restriction sites, for the construction of an
expression vector for GFP fused at the N-terminal (GFP-GSTπ) or C-terminal (GSTπ-GFP) end of GSTπ.

To create GFP-GSTπ182-210, GFP-GSTπ182-210 (K209G), GFP-GSTπ182-208, GFP-GSTπ182-194, and GFP-GSTπ195-208, GSTπ fragments were prepared by PCR using GSTπ cDNA as a template and an appropriate set of primers (Supplemental material). Following digestion with EcoRI and EcoRV, the resulting PCR products were subcloned into the EcoRI-EcoRV restriction sites of pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP.

To obtain FLAG-HA-tags at the N-terminal end of full-length or deletion mutants of GSTπ (FLAG-GSTπ1-210, FLAG-GSTπ1-181, and FLAG-GSTπ1-194), GSTπ fragments were prepared by PCR using an appropriate set of primers (Supplemental material). The PCR products were digested with NotI and ApaI and subcloned into pcDNA3/FLAG-HA.

**Evaluation of nuclear translocation of GSTπ by fusion proteins**

To observe the nuclear translocation of GSTπ, the expression vectors (2 μg) for various GFP-fused proteins were transfected into COS-1 cells or HCT8 cells with Lipofectamine reagent or Lipofectamine 2000 according to the manufacturer's instructions. The fusion proteins were expressed by cultivating the transfectants for 24 hrs at 37°C and were then fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 20 min. After three washes with PBS, the nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342. The intracellular distribution of GFP-fused proteins was directly observed as green fluorescence under a confocal laser scanning microscope.

To further confirm the nuclear translocation of GSTπ obtained by the direct detection of GFP-fused GSTπ proteins, expression vectors (2 μg) of FLAG-GSTπ1-210, FLAG-GSTπ1-181 and FLAG-GSTπ1-194 were also transfected into COS-1 cells or
HCT8 cells. After 24 hrs, the cells were stained by anti-FLAG primary antibody and FITC-labeled anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody, as described above. The nuclei were visualized by staining the cells with Hoechst 33342. The nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) was observed as positive staining of FLAG under a confocal laser scanning microscope.

**Preparation of cytosolic and nuclear proteins**

The cytosolic and nuclear proteins were prepared as described previously [6]. Briefly, the cell pellets (1x10^6 cells) were treated with 100 \(\mu\)l of hypotonic buffer (10 mM HEPES at pH 7.8, 10 mM KCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 0.5 mM phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride [PMSF], 2 \(\mu\)g/ml pepstatin, and 2 \(\mu\)g/ml leupeptin). After centrifugation of the sample (1,800 x \(g\), 4°C, 1 min), the supernatant and debris were collected as rough cytosolic and nuclear fractions, respectively. The rough cytosolic fractions were centrifuged at 15,000 x \(g\) for 20 min and 100,000 x \(g\) for 30 min at 4°C. The final supernatant was collected as the cytosolic fraction for use in the following study. The rough nuclear fractions were washed three times with hypotonic buffer and treated with 100 \(\mu\)l of 50 mM HEPES (pH 7.8), 420 mM KCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 5 mM MgCl\(_2\), 0.5 mM PMSF, 2 \(\mu\)g/ml pepstatin, and 2 \(\mu\)g/ml leupeptin and were then gently rotated with a rotator at 4°C for 30 min. The supernatant was collected as the nuclear fraction.

**Immunoblot analysis**

Expression levels of GST\(\pi\), RCC1, Cu,Zn-SOD, GFP and FLAG-tagged proteins in the cells were estimated by immunoblotting. Lysate (30 \(\mu\)g of total protein) was separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) using a 12.5% or 15% gel, transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane, and
immunologically stained first with each appropriate primary antibody, then with HRP-labeled anti-rabbit, anti-mouse or anti-goat IgG as the secondary antibody. Blots were developed by enhanced chemiluminescence using an ECL kit. The protein concentration was determined according to Redinbaugh and Turley [19], with bovine serum albumin (BSA) as the standard.

**Preparation of recombinant protein for *in vitro* nuclear transport assay**

The cDNA of GFP or GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208 was inserted into the pGEX-6P-1 vector using Smal-NotI restriction sites, resulting in an expression vector for recombinant GFP or GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208, in which GFP is fused at the C-terminal end of GST from *Schistosoma japonicum*. To create cDNA of GFP and GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208, each fragment was prepared by PCR using pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP or pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208 as a template and an appropriate set of primers (Supplemental material). Following digestion with Smal and NotI, the resulting PCR products were subcloned into Smal-NotI restriction sites of pGEX-6P-1. Expression in the BL21 *Escherichia coli* host and purification of recombinant protein were performed according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

**The nucleotide sequences of vectors**

All newly constructed vectors were transformed into a JM109 *Escherichia coli* host and purified using a GeneElute Hp plasmid midiprep kit (Sigma Aldrich). The nucleotide sequences of all constructs were determined using the CEQ DTCS-Quick Start kit on a CEQ 8000 Genetic Analysis System (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, CA).
**In vitro nuclear transport assay**

*In vitro* transport assays were performed according to the method described by Adam et al. [20]. Briefly, HeLa cells were grown on glass coverslips in a 6-well plate. The cells were washed twice on the glass coverslips with ice-cold transport buffer (20 mM Hepes-KOH, pH 7.3, 110 mM potassium acetate, 5 mM sodium acetate, 2 mM DTT, 1.0 mM EGTA, and 1 μg/ml each aprotinin, leupeptin, and pepstatin) and permeabilized for 5 min in ice-cold transport buffer containing 40 μg/ml digitonin. After washing with cold transport buffer, the permeabilized cells were incubated with 150 μl of import assay mixture containing recombinant GST-GFP or GST-GFP-GST:p195-208 protein with or without cytosol extract or the ATP regeneration system (0.5 mM ATP, 0.5 mM GTP, 10 mM creatine phosphate, 50 μg/ml creatine kinase), for 30 min at either 30°C or 4°C. After three washes with import buffer and PBS, the cells were fixed with 3% formaldehyde for 20 min, and then nuclei were labeled with 10 μM Hoechst 33342 for 10 min. Fluorescence was observed under a confocal laser scanning microscope.
Results

The C-terminal region of GSTπ is critical for nuclear translocation

Immunostaining with anti-GSTπ antibody clearly showed the expression of endogenous GSTπ in the nuclei of HCT8 and COS-1 cells under steady-state conditions (Fig. 1A), although the expression of GSTπ in the cytoplasm was stronger in HCT8 than in COS-1 cells.

We constructed vectors encoding GFP at the N-terminal end (GFP-GSTπ) or the C-terminal end (GSTπ-GFP) of GSTπ, which were then transfected into HCT8 and COS-1 cells, respectively. The intracellular distribution of GFP-fused GSTπ proteins (M.W. 52,000) was detected as GFP fluorescence under a confocal laser scanning microscope 24 hrs after transfection. GFP fluorescence was observed in both the cytoplasm and the nuclei of cells transfected with GFP-GSTπ vectors (Fig. 1B), indicating that the N-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ translocated into the nuclei. However, GFP fluorescence was observed only within the cytoplasm, not within the nuclei, in cells transfected with GSTπ-GFP vectors (Fig. 1C), which indicated a lack of C-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ in the nuclei. The treatment of cells with Leptomycin B, a specific inhibitor of nuclear export of protein, did not change the nuclear distribution of fusion proteins (data not shown), which eliminated the possibility that the fusion proteins were exported from the nuclei in cells transfected with GSTπ-GFP vectors.

These microscopy findings were corroborated by immunoblot analysis (Fig. 1D). Our results suggest that artificial modification of GSTπ by fusion with GFP may cause a conformational change of the protein and that the C-terminal region, but not the N-terminal region, of GSTπ is critical for nuclear translocation.
The C-terminal region of GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)182-210} is required for nuclear translocation

Positively charged residues are known to be critical components of the classical-NLS. As the C-terminal region of GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)182-210} is rich in positively charged arginine and lysine (bold-typed, Fig. 2A), this C-terminal region may mediate the nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) as a NLS. To test this possibility, we constructed expression vectors encoding N-terminally FLAG-tagged full-length GST\(\pi\) (FLAG-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)1-210}) or a C-terminal deletion mutant GST\(\pi\) (FLAG-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)1-181}) (Fig. 2A). These vectors were introduced into COS-1 cells, and the intracellular distribution of FLAG-tagged proteins was detected by immunostaining with anti-FLAG antibody. As expected, the nuclear localization of FLAG-tagged proteins was observed in cells transfected with the FLAG-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)1-210} vector but was not observed in cells transfected with the FLAG-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)1-181} vector (Fig. 2B), which suggests that the C-terminal region of GST\(\pi\) (residues 182-210) is required for nuclear translocation.

Non-classical NLS mediates the nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\)

To further define the required C-terminal region of GST\(\pi\) and understand the relevant mechanism of nuclear translocation of this protein, expression vectors encoding various N-terminally GFP-fused C-terminal fragments of GST\(\pi\) were introduced into the COS-1 cells (Supplementary Fig. 1A). Immunoblot analysis using anti-GFP antibody showed the expression of GFP under all conditions (S. Fig. 1B). A clear band corresponding to endogenous GST\(\pi\) was also detected by the anti-GST\(\pi\) antibody under all conditions, but a band for GFP-fused GST\(\pi\) was not detected in cells transfected with GFP-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)182-194} vector. It is likely that the anti-GST\(\pi\) antibody did not recognize the GFP-fused GST\(\pi\) protein that was expressed from GFP-GST\textsubscript{\(\pi\)182-194} vector, because a clear band corresponding to the fusion protein was detected by anti-GFP antibody in these cells.
The intracellular distribution of GFP-fused GST\(\pi\) was detected as GFP fluorescence under confocal laser scanning microscopy (S. Fig. 1C). Nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) was detected in cells transfected with vectors of GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-208, GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208, GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-210, and GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-210 (K209G), in which lysine 209 is replaced with glycine. However, nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) was not detected in cells transfected with the GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-194 vector. To confirm the critical nature of the 195-208 sequence, COS-1 and HCT8 cells were transfected with FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-210 and FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-194 vectors. Immunostaining by anti-FLAG antibody clearly showed nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) in cells transfected with the FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-210 vector, but not with the FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-194 vector (Fig. 3). Our results suggest that the 195-208 region of GST\(\pi\) is critical for nuclear translocation. Considering the lack of a contiguous stretch of positively charged amino acid residues within this region, nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) is likely mediated by a non-classical rather than a classical NLS.

**Nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) is dependent on cytosolic factor(s) and ATP**

Using the nuclear transport assay, we tried to further clarify how GST\(\pi\) enters the nucleus. We subjected recombinant GST-GFP or GST-GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208 proteins to permeabilized HeLa cells under various conditions (Fig. 4). GFP fluorescence was not observed in the nuclei following the addition of GST-GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208 proteins alone to the permeabilized HeLa cells at 30°C or 4°C (data not shown). However, GFP fluorescence was clearly observed in the nuclei of permeabilized HeLa cells following the addition of GST-GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208 protein along with both cytosolic extract and the ATP regeneration system at 30°C (but not with either of these components alone). In contrast, GFP fluorescence was not observed in the nuclei of permeabilized HeLa cells following the addition of GST-GFP protein, even in the presence of both cytosolic...
extract and ATP regeneration system at 30°C. These results indicate that the nuclear translocation of GSTπ is dependent on cytosolic factor(s) and ATP. Although further experiments are needed to understand the mechanism in depth, our results suggest that different signals mediate the import of GSTπ into the nucleus and mitochondria (S. Fig. 2).
Discussion

Proteins smaller than 40 kDa are believed to enter the nucleus by passive diffusion through the nuclear pore complex. Although GST\(\pi\) is a homodimer consisting of two subunits each with a molecular mass of 24 kD in the cytosol, it is possible that GST\(\pi\) may form a monomer prior to passing through the nuclear pore complex by passive diffusion. However, the present study and earlier results suggest that nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) likely does not result from passive diffusion from the cytoplasm, as 1) nuclear translocation is selectively observed in N-terminal GFP-fused GST\(\pi\), the molecular weight of which is about 52 kD (too large to diffuse through the nuclear pore complex), but not in C-terminally GFP-fused GST\(\pi\) (Fig. 1B, C); and 2) a previous study demonstrated nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) in some but not all cancer cell lines [7]. These observations suggest the existence of a specific mechanism for the nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\).

Various mechanisms have been proposed for the nuclear translocation of proteins from the cytoplasm [10-18]. In the present study, we found that amino acid residues 195-208 at the C-terminus were necessary for the nuclear localization of GST\(\pi\). The GST\(\pi\) NLS lacks the contiguous stretch of positively charged amino acid residues characteristic of a classical NLS. In addition, we found that the GST\(\pi\) NLS bears no sequence similarity to other proteins, except for the same isoform of GST from other species, using the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) provided by the National Center for Biotechnology Information (USA). We also found no registered motifs in the C-terminal region of GST\(\pi\) in PROSITE, a database of protein families and domains curated by the Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics (Switzerland). Therefore, it is most likely that a non-classical rather than a classical NLS in the C-terminal region mediates the nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\). As the nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) was found to depend on cytosolic factor(s) and ATP, it is possible that GST\(\pi\) forms complex
with other cytosolic protein(s) that recognize the NLS and facilitate nuclear translocation.

Several previous studies have identified the relevant mechanisms of the nuclear and mitochondrial localizations of proteins. For example, apurinic/apyrimidinic endonuclease 1 (APE1), a key enzyme of DNA base excision repair, localizes in both the nucleus and mitochondria. The nuclear form of APE1 is intact, whereas the mitochondrial form lacks the N-terminal region (including the NLS), suggesting that the cleavage of the intact form is a prerequisite for the mitochondrial import of APE1 [21]. Alternatively, phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase (PHGPx) is encoded by a single gene, *gpx-4*, that has two distinct promoter regions. The upstream region transcribes cytosolic PHGPx and mitochondrial PHGPx, while the downstream region yields nuclear PHGPx [22]. However, we found that endogenous GSTπ in the cytoplasm, the mitochondria, and the nucleus has a similar molecular size [6]. This means that the localization of GSTπ in the nucleus and the mitochondria depends on internal peptide signals without the need for alternative splicing or post-translational modifications, such as proteolysis (S. Fig. 2). Although our data suggest the existence of specific mechanisms for the regulation of the intracellular distribution of GSTπ, how cells allow the translocation of GSTπ to subcellular compartments will need to be the subject of further studies. Our recent studies have shown that positive expression of GSTπ in the nucleus seems to correlate with resistance to anti-cancer drugs [7-9]. Understanding the biochemical and physiological significance of the nuclear translocation of GSTπ may therefore help to establish more efficient anti-cancer therapies.
Acknowledgements

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References


Figure 1. The C-terminal region of GSTπ is critical for nuclear translocation.

A) Immunostaining with anti-GSTπ antibody shows positive expression of endogenous GSTπ in the nuclei of HCT8 or COS-1 cells. The location of the nuclei was determined by staining the cells with Hoechst 33342.

B) After 24 hrs of transfection with 2 μg of vector encoding N-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ (GFP-GSTπ), the fusion protein was clearly observed (as GFP fluorescence) in the nuclei of HCT8 or COS-1 cells under a confocal laser scanning microscope.

C) Fusion protein was not detectable in the nucleus of HCT8 or COS-1 cells after 24 hrs of transfection with 2 μg of vector encoding C-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ (GSTπ-GFP).

D) Immunoblot analysis using anti-GFP and anti-GSTπ antibodies clearly shows the presence of fusion proteins in both the cytoplasm (C) and the nucleus (N) in COS-1 cells after 24 hrs of transfection with vector encoding N-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ (GFP-GSTπ), but fusion protein was detected only in the cytoplasm in COS-1 cells transfected with vector encoding C-terminally GFP-fused GSTπ (GSTπ-GFP). Possible contamination of cytosolic and nuclear protein fractions was checked by immunoblotting for Cu,Zn-SOD and RCC-1, respectively.
Figure 2. Identification of the C-terminal GSTπ sequence required for nuclear translocation.

A) The sequence of the C-terminal region of GSTπ and diagrams of FLAG-tagged GSTπ are indicated.

B) Immunostaining using anti-FLAG antibody shows nuclear expression of FLAG-tagged GSTπ protein in COS-1 cells after 24hrs of transfection with pcDNA3/FLAG-GSTπ1-210 vector but not in cells transfected with pcDNA3/FLAG-GSTπ1-181 vector.

C) Intracellular expression of FLAG-tagged GSTπ was verified by immunoblot analysis using anti-FLAG and anti-GSTπ antibodies.
Figure 3. Nuclear translocation of N-terminally GFP-fused fragments of the C-terminal region of GSTπ.

Nuclear translocation of FLAG-tagged GSTπ was detected by immunostaining with anti-FLAG antibody. Nuclear translocation of FLAG-tagged GSTπ proteins in HCT8 or COS-1 cells was observed after 24 hrs of transfection with pcDNA3/FLAG-GSTπ 1-210 vector but was not observed after 24 hrs of transfection with pcDNA3/FLAG-GSTπ 1-194 vector.
Figure 4. Nuclear translocation of GST\(\pi\) is dependent on cytosolic factor(s) and ATP.

*In vitro* transport assays show the presence of recombinant GST-GFP-GST195-208 protein (GFP fluorescence) in the nuclei of digitonin-permeabilized HeLa cells supplemented with cytosolic extract and the ATP regeneration system for 30 min at 30°C.
Supplementary file 1

Materials

RPMI 1640 medium and Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO); fetal bovine serum (FBS) was from Invitrogen Corp. (Carlsbad, CA); horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-labeled anti-mouse IgG, HRP-labeled anti-rabbit IgG, and HRP-labeled anti-goat IgG were from DAKO A/S (Glostrup, Denmark); fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG and FITC-conjugated anti-mouse IgG were from ICN Pharmaceuticals (Aurora, OH); anti-green fluorescent protein (GFP) antibody was from Invitrogen Corp.; anti-FLAG antibody was from Sigma Aldrich; anti-human regulator of chromosome condensation (RCC1) antibody was from BD Biosciences Pharmingen (San Jose, CA); and anti-human Cu,Zn-superoxide dismutase (Cu,Zn-SOD) antibody was a gift from Dr. K. Suzuki (Hyogo College of Medicine, Nishinomiya, Japan). The Slow Fade Light Antifade Kit, Lipofectamine reagent, Lipofectamine 2000, pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP vector, and pcDNA3.1/CT-GFP vector were purchased from Invitrogen Corp. The QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit was purchased from STRATAGENE (La Jolla, CA). The FLAG-HA-tagged protein expression vector (pcDNA3/FLAG-HA vector), constructed by introducing a Bg/I/II-Kozack-ATG-FLAG-HA-\textit{EcoRI} fragment into the \textit{BamHI-EcoRI} restriction sites of pcDNA3 (Invitrogen), was a gift from Dr. J. Yanagisawa (Institute of Applied Biochemistry, University of Tsukuba, Ibaraki, Japan). The Enhanced Chemiluminescence (ECL) Kit, pGEX-6P-1 vector and Glutathione
Sepharose 4 Fast Flow were purchased from GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences (Little Chalfont, UK). Hoechst 33342 and digitonin were from CALBIOCHEM (San Diego, CA). The other chemicals and reagents were purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

**PCR primers**

To create GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-210, GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-210 (K209G), GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-208, GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-194 and GFP-GST\(\pi\)195-208, GST\(\pi\) fragments were prepared by PCR using GST\(\pi\) cDNA as a template and an appropriate set of primers. The primers used were as follows: GST\(\pi\)182-210 sense, 5'-ACC GAA TTC TGG GGC GCC TCA GCG CCC GGC CC; GST\(\pi\)182-210 antisense, 5'-GCG GAT ATC TCA CTG TTT CCC GTT GCC ATT GAT; GST\(\pi\)182-210 (K209G) sense, 5'- ACC GAA TTC TGG GGC GCC TCA GCG CCC GGC CC; GST\(\pi\)182-210 (K209G) antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CTG GGC CCC GTT GCC ATT GAT GGG GAG; GST\(\pi\)182-208 sense, 5'- ACC GAA TTC TGG GGC GCC TCA GCG CCC GGC CC; GST\(\pi\)182-208 antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CCC GGC TCA GCG CCC GGC CC; GST\(\pi\)182-208 antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CCC GTT GCC ATT GAT GGG GAG; GST\(\pi\)182-194 sense, 5'- ACC GAA TTC TGG GGC GCC TCA GCG CCC GGC CC; GST\(\pi\)182-194 antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CAG GAA GGC CTT GAG CTT GGG; GST\(\pi\)195-208 sense, 5'- ACC GAA TTC TGG CCT CCC CTG AGT ACG TGA AC; GST\(\pi\)195-208 antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CCC GTT GCC ATT GAT GGG GAG; GST\(\pi\)1-194 sense, 5'-ACC GAA TTC GCC ACC ATG CCG CCC TAC ACC GTG GTC; and GST\(\pi\)1-194 antisense, 5'- GCG GAT ATC TCA CAG GAA GGC CTT GAG CTT GGG.

To obtain FLAG-HA-tagged at the N-terminal end of full-length or deletion mutants of GST\(\pi\) (FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-210, FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-181 and FLAG-GST\(\pi\)1-194), GST\(\pi\) fragments were prepared by PCR using an appropriate set of primers. The following primers were used: GST\(\pi\)1-210 sense, 5'-CTC GCG GCC GCA AAT GCC GCC CTA
CAC CGT GGT C; GST\textsubscript{1-210} antisense, 5'- ATA GGG CCC TCA CTG TTT CCC
GTT GCC ATT GAT; GST\textsubscript{1-181} sense, 5'-CTC GCG GCC GCA AAT GCC GCC CTA
CAC CGT GGT C; GST\textsubscript{1-181} antisense, 5'-ATA GGG CCC TCA CAC ATA TGC
TGA GAG CAG GGG; GST\textsubscript{1-194} sense, 5'-CTC GCG GCC GCA AAT GCC GCC
CTA CAC CGT GGT C; and GST\textsubscript{1-194} antisense, 5'-ATA GGG CCC TCA CAG GAA
GGC CTT GAG CTT GGG.

The cDNA of GFP or GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208} was inserted into the pGEX-6P-1 vector
using the \textit{SmaI}-\textit{NotI} restriction sites to construct an expression vector for GFP or
GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208} (in which GFP is fused at the C-terminal end of GST from
\textit{Schistosoma japonicum}). To create cDNA of GFP and GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208}, each
fragment was prepared by PCR using pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP or
pcDNA3.1/NT-GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208} as a template and an appropriate set of primers. The
primers used were as follows: GFP sense, 5'-ATA CCC GGG TAT GGC CAG CAA
AGG AGA AGA ACC T; GFP antisense, 5'-CTC GCG GCC GCT CAA CCA CAC
TGG ACT AGT GGA TC; GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208} sense, 5'-ATA CCC GGG TAT GCC
CAG CAA AGG AGA AGA ACC T; and GFP-GST\textsubscript{195-208} antisense, 5'-CTC GCG
GCC GCT CAC TGT TTC CCG TTG CCA TTG AT.
Supplementary Figure legends

**A**

A) Diagrams of N-terminally GFP-fused fragments of GST\(\pi\).

**B**

B) After 24 hrs of transfection with various vectors, intracellular expression of GFP-fused proteins was estimated by immunoblot analysis using anti-GFP and anti-GST\(\pi\) antibody. The asterisk indicates endogenous GST\(\pi\).

**C**

C) Nuclear translocation of GFP-fused GST\(\pi\) was detected by GFP fluorescence under a confocal laser scanning microscope after 24 hrs of transfection with various vectors. No fusion protein was detected in the cells transfected with vector encoding N-terminally GFP-fused fragments of the GST\(\pi\)182-194 (GFP-GST\(\pi\)182-194).
Supplementary Figure 2.

Diagram summarizing the mitochondrial targeting signal (MTS) and the nuclear localization signals for GSTπ.