Forum Original Research Communication

Peroxiredoxin-Mediated Redox Regulation of the Nuclear Localization of Yap1, a Transcription Factor in Budding Yeast

SHOKO OKAZAKI, AKIRA NAGANUMA, and SHUSUKE KUGE

ABSTRACT

A redox reaction involving cysteine thiol—disulfide exchange is crucial for the intracellular monitoring of oxidation status. The yeast transcription factor Yap1 is activated by formation of a disulfide bond, which inhibits nuclear export in response to peroxide stress, with resultant enhancement of the nuclear localization of Yap1. A glutathione peroxidase-like protein, Gpx3, which has peroxiredoxin activity, is required for formation of the disulfide bond in Yap1. We show here that the requirement for Gpx3 in the regulation of Yap1 is strain-specific. Thus, Tsa1, a ubiquitous thioredoxin peroxidase, is required for the activation of Yap1 in yeast strain Y700, which is derived from W303. The strain-specific utilization of different peroxiredoxins appears to be determined by Ybp1, a Yap1-binding protein. The Ybp1 of Y700 has a nonsense mutation, and a wild-type YBP1 gene can restore the Gpx3-dependent activation of Yap1. These results suggest that Tsa1, a ubiquitous peroxiredoxin, has the potential for transducing redox signals to a particular sensor protein. Antioxid. Redox Signal. 7, 327–334.

INTRODUCTION

URING RESPIRATION, oxygen is converted to harmful reactive oxygen species (ROS), which include hydroperoxide and superoxide, that can damage cellular macromolecules. Organisms have acquired defense systems to protect themselves from the toxicity of ROS and to maintain a reducing environment in the cytoplasm and in the nucleoplasm. Superoxide generated by mitochondrial respiration and by various NADPH oxidases can be converted to hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) by superoxide dismutase (12). H₂O₂ is relatively stable, and its amphiphilic properties allow it to permeate membranes. Recent reports indicate that ROS can also act as cellular signals in responses to growth factors, cytokines, and various types of stress (30). Cells control levels of ROS by exploiting glutathione peroxidase (Gpx) coupled with the glutathione reduction-oxidation (redox) cycle and peroxiredoxin (Prx) coupled with the thioredoxin (Trx) system, in which a proton is accepted from NADPH and then reduces H₂O₂ to H₂O. Thus, these systems play an essential role in maintenance of the redox status of cells and, possibly, in the sensing of intracellular levels of ROS (4).

Studies of mechanisms for sensing H₂O₂ in eukaryote have revealed the involvement in budding yeast of the eukaryotic transcription factor Yap1 (7, 8, 10, 17-19; for review, see 23). Upon exposure of yeast cells to H₂O₂, Yap1 is activated and induces the expression of various proteins that are involved in antioxidant systems, such as Trx (Trx2; 16, 20) and thioredoxin reductase (Trr) (Trr1; 5, 21). The localization of Yap1 is determined by constitutive nuclear import and nuclear export (Fig. 1; 14, 17, 18, 30). Thus, under nonstressed conditions, Yap1 is localized predominantly in the cytoplasm. However, it seems likely that, in response to oxidative stress, the conformation of the nuclear export signal (NES) of Yap1, which is embedded in the carboxy-terminal cysteine-rich domain (c-CRD; see Fig. 1) of Yap1, is altered, with resultant inhibition of binding of the nuclear export receptor Crm1 and subsequent accumulation of Yap1 in the nucleus (18, 31). Formation of a disulfide bond in the c-CRD is induced by the thiol-oxidant diamide (17, 18), or possible direct cross-link-

Laboratory of Molecular and Biochemical Toxicology, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Tohoku University, Sendai, Miyagi, Japan.

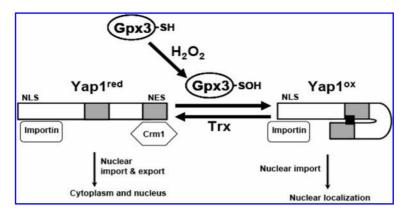


FIG. 1. Redox regulation of the nuclear localization of Yap1. Yap1 has a nuclear localization signal (NLS; 14), which can bind to the import receptor (Importin), and a nuclear export signal (NES; 18), which is recognized by the export receptor (Crm1). Under nonstress conditions, Yap1 is transported in and out of the nucleus, and Yap1 is localized predominantly in the cytoplasm. However, when Yap1 is oxidized in response to H₂O₂ stress, Crm1 no longer recognizes the NES of Yap1. As a result, Yap1 accumulates in the nucleus and expression of its target genes is activated. Formation of a disulfide bond between two cysteine-rich domains, namely, n-CRD and c-CRD (indicated by gray boxes), occurs in the presence of Gpx3, which has Prx activity (10).

ing of the electrophilic compound diethyl maleate (DEM) to the three cysteine residues in the c-CRD is responsible for the inhibition of interaction between Crm1 and the NES of Yap1 (c-CRD) (1). In addition to the c-CRD, three cysteine residues in the amino-terminal region (n-CRD) are also required for nuclear localization of Yap1 in the specific response to H₂O₂ (7). Our data suggest that the cysteine residues in the n-CRD are required for duration of nuclear localization of Yap1 (19). It has been suggested that formation of an intramolecular disulfide bridge between the first cysteine of n-CRD (Cys303) and the first cysteine of c-CRD (Cys598) might be required for the inhibition of binding of Crm1 to the NES of Yap1 that occurs in response to hydroperoxides such as H₂O₂ (8).

The recent finding that Gpx3, which has Prx (Trx peroxidase) activity, is an effecter of Yap1 in the sensing of H_2O_2 (10) suggests that the rapid response to H_2O_2 by Yap1 might involve the sensitivity of Gpx3 to H_2O_2 . The YBP1 (yap1-binding protein 1) gene has been identified as a high-copy-number suppressor of the sensitivity to peroxide of the $tsa1\Delta$ strain of cells that is derived from W303–1a cells (24). The disruption of YBP1 (ybp1 Δ) increased the sensitivity of those cells to H_2O_2 . This phenotype was similar to that of cells with disruption of GPX3 ($gpx3\Delta$) and of the double-disruption mutant ($gpx3\Delta$ $ybp1\Delta$), suggesting that Ybp1 might play an essential role in the Gpx3-catalyzed activation of Yap1.

Members of the Prx family of proteins are conserved from bacteria to human. The common catalytic property of proteins in the Prx family appears to be the ability to reduce hydroperoxides at the expense of thiols that are coupled with the Trx/Trr/NADPH redox cycle. An active cysteine in Prx is sensitive to hydroperoxide (for review, see 13). It is oxidized to sulfenic acid (Cys-SO₂H). As Prx modulates intracellular levels of ROS, it has been postulated Prx might function in H₂O₂-mediated signal transduction (29).

In this study, we found that a Prx, Tsa1, catalyzed the H_2O_2 -induced activation of Yap1 in a strain-dependent manner. Our results suggest that Prx can serve as a general transducer of the H_2O_2 signal to sensor protein.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Yeast strains and media

Yeast cells were grown in synthetic dextrose (SD) medium supplemented with amino acids (SD dropout; 16) or in YPAD medium (1% peptone, 0.5% yeast extract, 2% glucose, 0.08 mg/ml adenine sulfate). The following strains of Saccharomyces cerevisiae were used in this study: Y17202 (MATa $his3\Delta 1 \ leu2\Delta 0 \ lys2 \ \Delta 0 \ ura3\Delta 0 \ trp1::kanMX4)$, the $trp1\Delta$ cells from a knockout library constructed using BY4742 (EUROSCARF) derived from S288C, the strain used for genome sequencing; BY4742 yap 1Δ [MAT α his $3\Delta 1$ leu $2\Delta 0$ $lvs2\Delta0 \ ura3\Delta0 \ trp1::kanMX4 \ vap1::URA3); Y700 \ (MAT\alpha)$ his3 can1-100 ade2 leu2 trp1 ura3) [formerly designated W303B (16)]; and TW (the same as Y700 but yap1::URA3 ura3::TRX2p-lacZ) (19). The TSA1 and GPX3 genes were disrupted as follows. The PCR-amplified TSA1 gene was cloned into pBlueScript SK (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA, U.S.A.) to yield pTSA1. The coding region of TSA1 was replaced by the HIS3 gene, and the resultant fragment was used to transfect to TW cells. GPX3::kanMX, in which the coding region of GPX3 had been replaced by a kanamycin-resistance gene (26), was amplified by PCR and used to transfect TW cells. Transformants were selected on histidine-dropout SD medium and in YPAD that contained G418 (150 µg/ml; Nakarai Tesque Co., Kyoto, Japan), respectively, and genome replacement was confirmed by PCR. BY4742 yap1Δ was constructed in this study from Y17202, as described by Kuge and Jones (16).

Construction of plasmids

YBP1 genes (-425 to +2,689 of the initiation codon of Ybp1) were amplified by PCR from genomic DNA that had been isolated from BY4742 or Y700 using Takara Ex taqTM polymerase (Takara Co., Kyoto, Japan) and primers 5'-CAGA-AATGTCACTCGCCAAA-3' and 5'-TCCAAAATCCCTGA-ACGACA-3'.

The amplified fragments containing *YBP1* from BY4742 and Y700 were cloned between the *XbaI* (blunt-ended) and the *HindIII* (blunt-ended) sites of a multicopy-number vector, pRS425, and a low-copy-number vector, pRS315, and the resulting plasmids were designated pRS425-YBP1 (*YBP1* from BY4742), pRS425-ybp1–2 (*ybp1*–2 from Y700), pRS315-YBP1, and pRS315-ybp1–2, respectively, after the sequence of the insert had been confirmed by sequencing.

Assay of β -galactosidase activity and fluorescence microscopy

The assay of β-galactosidase activity was performed as described by Kuge et al. (19). Yeast cells, grown in SD dropout medium (1.5 ml) until the absorbance at 600 nm had reached 0.5, were recovered and resuspended in prewarmed SD dropout medium (1.5 ml). After exposure to H_2O_2 at 0.5 mM or to 2 mM DEM for 1 h at 30°C, cells were recovered by centrifugation and resuspended in 50 µl of Tris-Triton (100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 0.05% Triton X-100). Then after cells had been frozen at -80° C and thawed at room temperature, they were mixed with 250 µl of a mixture of 0.8 mM o-nitrophenyl β-D-galactopyranoside, 48 mM Na₂HPO₄, 32 mM NaH₂PO₄, 8 mM KCl, 0.8 mM MgSO₄, and incubated for a few minutes at 30°C. After the reaction had been stopped by addition of 125 µl of 1 M sodium carbonate, absorbance at 600 nm was determined to estimate the density of cells. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation, and absorbance of the supernatant at 420 nm was determined. The absorbance at 420 nm was normalized by reference to the absorbance at 600 nm and the reaction time (in minutes) for estimation of β-galactosidase activity. At least three samples from the individual respective yeast colony were analyzed, and results are given as means \pm SD.

Fluorescence from green fluorescent protein (GFP) in yeast cells that harbored pRS cp GFP HA YAP1 (17) was recorded with a fluorescence microscope (Dmire 2; Leica Co.,

Wetzlar, Germany) equipped with a GFP:S filter block and a CoolSnap TM HQ CCD camera (Roper Scientific Co., Tucson, AZ, U.S.A.), and the images were analyzed with the Meta-Morph TM program (Universal Imaging Co., Marlow, Buckinghamshire, U.K.).

Analysis of Yap1 in vivo by western blotting

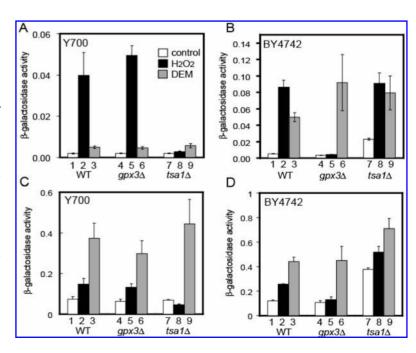
Lysates of yeast cells that harbored pRS cp HA-YAP1 (17) were prepared essentially as described by Delaunay et al. (8) with slight modifications. Yeast cells, grown in SD dropout medium to an absorbance at 600 nm of 0.5, were recovered and resuspended in prewarmed medium. After exposure to H₂O₂ at 0.5 mM, cells were recovered at the indicated times. Cells were fixed in 20% TCA, and then frozen in 12.5% trichloroacetic acid (TCA). Lysates were prepared from the frozen cells by mixing vigorously with glass beads (G-8772; Sigma Chemical Co., St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.), precipitated in the TCA solution by centrifugation, and washed with acetone. The precipitates were dissolved in 50 mM iodoacetamide, 1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA plus a complete protease inhibitor cocktail (catalog no. 1836170; Roche Diagnostics, F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd., Basel, Switzerland), and incubated 37°C for 60 min. The reaction mixture was then dialyzed, treated with calf intestinal alkaline phosphatase (Roche), and subjected to nonreducing SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) as described above. Western blotting and detection of hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged Yap1 protein were performed as described elsewhere (17).

RESULTS

Tsa1 is responsible for sensing of H_2O_2 by Yap1

Members of the Prx family of proteins are conserved from yeast to human. Deletion of the gene (TSA1) for a thiolspecific antioxidant that is a member of the Prx family in

FIG. 2. Strain-specific dependence on proteins in the Prx family (Tsa1 and Gpx3) that participate in the activation of target genes by Yap1. The TSA1 or the GPX3 gene was disrupted in Y700 (A and C) and in BY4742 cells (B and D). The reporter genes for Yap1 cloned into low-copy number vectors, TRX2-LACZ (16; A and B) or SV40AP-1-LacZ (16; C and D), were introduced in these yeast strains, and β -galactosidase activity was assayed after each culture had been exposed to 0.4 mM H₂O₂ (black bars), to 2 mM DEM (gray bars), or to no treatment (open bars) for 1 h. See text for further details.



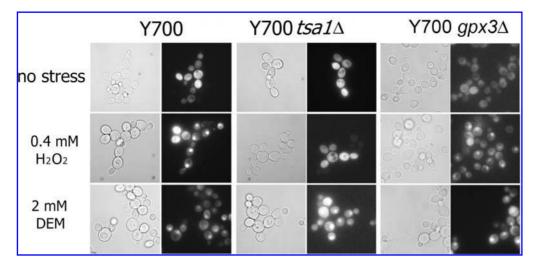


FIG. 3. Localization of GFP-Yap1 in Y700 $tsa1\Delta$ and in Y700 $gpx3\Delta$. The GFP fluorescence was monitored in Y700 (TSA1), Y700 $tsa1\Delta$, and Y700 $gpx3\Delta$ expressing GFP-fused Yap1, as described in the text, after treatment of the indicated cells with or without the indicated oxidants for 15 min. Bright-field images (**left panels**) and GFP fluorescence images (**right panels**) are shown.

yeast results in defects in Yap1-dependent transcription in response to oxidative stress (21). In this study, we examined first the effects of disruption of TSAI and GPX3 on the Yap1-dependent activation of a reporter gene, driven by the TRX2 promoter, in response to H_2O_2 and to DEM in two different isogenic strains, namely, Y700, which is derived from W303. As shown in Fig. 2A, there was no difference in terms of the response to the electrophilic reagent DEM between the isogenic wild-type (TSAI) and $tsaI\Delta$ strains of Y700. However, no response to H_2O_2 was detected in Y700 $tsaI\Delta$.

Next, we examined defects in GPX3 on the genetic background of Y700. Deletion of GPX3 did not affect the H_2O_2 -induced activation of Yap1 in this context (Fig. 2A). These observations suggested that there might be some strain specificity in the requirement for specific proteins in the Prx family with respect to the response of Yap1 to H_2O_2 . Therefore, we examined other isogenic strains, $gpx3\Delta$ and $tsa1\Delta$, derived from BY4742 (BY4742 has been used for the EURO-FAN II knockout project and is derived from S288C; 3). As shown in Fig. 2B, the disruption of TSA1 increased the uninduced level of Yap1-dependent transcription, whereas disruption of GPX3 decreased the H_2O_2 -induced rate of Yap1-dependent transcription. These observations are consistent with previously reported results (10).

Activation of the TRX2 promoter requires two different activators of transcription, namely, Yap1 and Skn7 (20). There-

fore, we examined transcription of another lacZ reporter gene that was driven exclusively by Yap1-binding sites (SV40AP1-lacZ; 16). As shown in Figs. 2C and D, TSA1, but not GPX3, was required for the H_2O_2 -induced expression of SV40AP1-lacZ in Y700. These observations demonstrated that Tsa1 and Gpx3 can each affect the response of Yap1 to H_2O_2 , acting in a strain-dependent manner.

Next, we examined the induction of the nuclear localization of Yap1 that had been fused to GFP in response to oxidants in Y700 TSA1 cells, Y700 $tsa1\Delta$ cells, and Y700 $gpx3\Delta$ cells. There was no difference in terms of the DEM-induced nuclear localization of Yap1 between Y700 TSA1, Y700 $tsa1\Delta$, and Y700 $Gpx3\Delta$ cells. However, when we examined the response to H_2O_2 , we found that disruption of TSA1, but not of GPX3, resulted in defects in the nuclear localization of Yap1 on the Y700 genetic background (Fig. 3). Thus, Tsa1 was required for the H_2O_2 -induced nuclear accumulation of Yap1 in Y700 cells.

Tsa1-dependent formation of oxidized Yap1 in response to H_2O_2

Formation of an intramolecular disulfide bond between cysteine residues in two domains of Yap1, namely, n-CRD and c-CRD, results in a mobility shift during nonreducing SDS-PAGE (8). To examine the effects of Tsa1 on conforma-

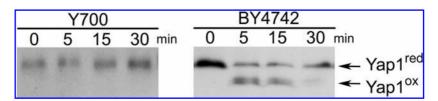


FIG. 4. Oxidation of Yap1 in vivo. Time-dependent oxidation of Yap1 in response to H_2O_2 was monitored. TW (for Y700 $yap1\Delta$) cells and BY4742 $yap1\Delta$ cells expressing HA-Yap1 were treated with 0.5 m MH_2O_2 and lysed after fixation with TCA. Free Cys-SH residues in the lysate were allowed to react with iodoacetamide as described in the text. Yap1 was detected by western blotting with HA-specific antibodies.

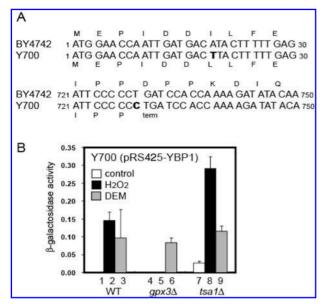


FIG. 5. YBP1 and ybp1–2 are responsible for the strain-dependent utilization of Tsa1 or Gpx3. (A) Direct sequencing of YBP1 alleles in yeast genomic DNA after amplification by PCR. To prevent any impact of errors during PCR, products of at least three amplifications by PCR were subjected to sequencing reactions. Bold face indicates mutations found in ybp1–2. Insertion of "C" at position 729 generated a termination codon at Asp (243) in Ybp1 of Y700. (B) Y700 cells expressing the wild-type (BY4742) allele of YBP1 (pRS425-YBP1), as monitored as described in the text, after each culture was exposed to 0.4 mM $\rm H_2O_2$ (black bars), to 2 mM DEM (gray bars), or to no treatment (open bars) for 1 h.

tional changes in Yap1 in Y700 cells, we treated cells that expressed HA-tagged Yap1 (HA-Yap1) with $\rm H_2O_2$. Free thiols were blocked by iodoacetamide to prevent artificial oxidation during preparation of cell lysates, as well as during nondenaturing SDS-PAGE. Consistent with the data reported previously (8), a higher-mobility form of HA-Yap1 was detected 5–15 min after the start of treatment of BY4742 cells with $\rm H_2O_2$ (Fig. 4). By contrast, no such shift in the mobility of HA-Yap1 was observed in Y700 (TW) cells in response to $\rm H_2O_2$ treatment (Fig. 4).

Mutation of YBP1 of Y700 cells

W303–1a cells have a mutant allele of *YBP1* (*ybp1–1*) and exhibit enhanced sensitivity to hydroperoxide (24). As Y700 cells are derived from W303 cells, we determined the sequence of the *YBP1* gene in genomic DNA from BY4742 cells and Y700 cells, respectively. There were no differences between the sequences of the *YBP1* gene from BY4742 and the sequence in the yeast genome database (data not shown). However, we found that the *YBP1* gene from Y700 has an insertion of deoxycytidine at nucleotide position 729 of the coding region of *YBP1*, which resulted in the introduction of a nonsense mutation at codon 244 of Ybp1 (Fig. 5A). In addition, all the mutations found in *ybp1–1* (I7L, F328V, K343E, and N471D; 24) were present in *YBP1* of Y700 (data not shown; Fig. 5A). We refer to the gene for *YBP1* of strain Y700 as *ybp1–2*.

To examine the possible involvement of ybp1-2 in the response of Yap1 to H_2O_2 , we introduced the YBP1 gene, which was isolated from BY4742 cells, into Y700 cells. As shown in

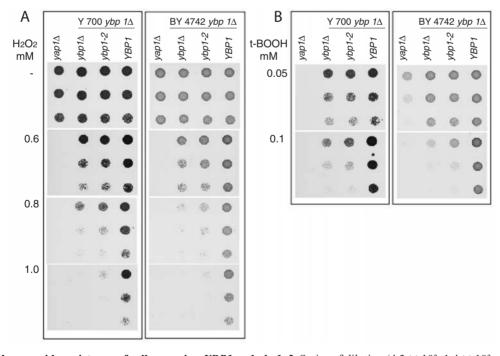


FIG. 6. Hydroperoxide resistance of cells carrying *YBP1* and *ybp1*–2. Series of dilution $(4.3 \times 10^2, 1.4 \times 10^2, \text{ and } 4.8 \times 10^2 \text{ cells/spot})$ of Y700 $ybp1\Delta$ cells carrying pRS315-ybp1–2 (ybp1-2) or pRS315-YBP1 (YBP1), and Y700 $yap1\Delta$ were spotted on SD agar plate (supplemented with all required nutrients) containing the indicated concentrations of H_2O_2 (**A**) or t-BOOH (**B**). For BY4742 $ybp1\Delta$ cells carrying pRS315-YBP1 and pRS315-ybp1–2, 4×10^4 , 1.3×10^4 , and 4.3×10^3 cells/spot were used for the assay. The spotted plates were incubated at 30°C for 20 h.

Fig. 5B, the pattern of the expression of the Yap1-dependent reporter gene was similar to that in BY4742 cells: the $\rm H_2O_2$ -induced expression of the reporter gene depended on GPX3, and the basal level of expression of $tsa1\Delta$ was enhanced.

To investigate further the role of ybp1-2 in the oxidative stress response of Y700 cells, we examined the effect of ybp1-2 on the resistance to H_2O_2 and tert-butyl hydroperoxide (t-BOOH). Consistent with previously reported results (24), $yap1\Delta$ cells showed more sensitivity to H_2O_2 and t-BOOH than $ybp1\Delta$ cells (Fig. 6). Furthermore, ybp1-2 increased the resistance of $ybp1\Delta$ cells to H_2O_2 and t-BOOH, although the level of the activity of ybp1-2 was lower than that of YBP1 (Fig. 6), suggesting that a truncated mutant of Ybp1 protein encoded by the ybp1-2 allele has the ability to activate Yap1 in response to hydroperoxide.

DISCUSSION

Prxs, which are ubiquitous from bacteria to mammals, reduce hydroperoxides. We showed, in this study, that the Prx Tsa1 can function as a transducer of oxidative stress to Yap1. A previous study indicated that Gpx3, which has Prx activity, can catalyze formation of a disulfide bond in Yap1 (10). Recently, YBP1 was identified as a third factor in the hydroperoxide-induced activation of Yap1. In addition to the mutation found in ybp1-1 of W303 (24), we found a nonsense mutation, which produce truncated Ybp1 (Ybp1¹⁻²⁴³), in ybp1-2. Thus, it appears that the truncated Ybp1 (Ybp1¹⁻²⁴³) might somehow determine the utilization of Tsa1 in the activation of Yap1. It is possible that Ybp1¹⁻²⁴³ might prevent oxidation of Yap1 by Gpx3, allowing access by Tsa1 to Yap1 (Fig. 7). This hypothesis is supported by the observation that Ybp1 can bind to Yap1 (24).

We showed previously that Yap1 is activated in Y700 cells in response to hydroperoxide stress (17–19). The $\rm H_2O_2$ -induced oxidation of Yap1 in Y700 cells appeared to differ from that in BY4742 cells (Fig. 4). The faster migration of Yap1

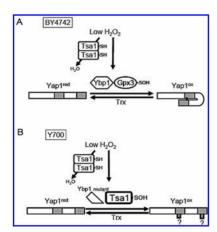


FIG. 7. Model of the participation of Tsa1 and Gpx3 in the activation of Yap1. At low concentrations of H_2O_2 , Tsa1 serves as a Prx to reduce H_2O_2 and catalyzes the oxidation of the sensor protein Yap1 in the presence of the mutant Ybp1 (ybp1-2) (B). In the presence of wild-type Ybp1, Gpx3 may be recruited by Ybp1 for the oxidation of Yap1 (A).

during nondenaturing SDS-PAGE is the result of a disulfide bond between Cys303 and Cys598 (8). However, Yap1 did not include such a faster migrating component in Y700 cells (Fig. 4). We showed previously (19) that a disulfide bond is formed in the NES-containing regulatory domain c-CRD in response to H₂O₂, when the c-CRD was expressed in cells of Y700 background, and such disulfide bond formation might be sufficient to prevent binding of Crm1 to the NES of Yap1, suggesting that Yap1 in Y700 might form a disulfide bond in c-CRD in response to H₂O₂. However, the cysteine residues of n-CRD are required for the long-term duration of the H₂O₂-induced nuclear localization of Yap1 (19). Therefore, there might be an additional disulfide bond(s) or some other type of oxidation of residues in n-CRD that might stabilize the disulfide bond within the c-CRD. The slower mobility of Yap1 during nondenaturing SDS-PAGE 5 min after addition of H₂O₂ (Fig. 4) might be due to such multiple oxidation forms. It should be noted that an oxidation of Yap1 without the faster migrating band in SDS-PAGE was observed during nuclear localization of Yap1 in response to carbon stress induced by changes of carbon source in the medium (25).

Tsa1 is an abundant protein in yeast cells (0.7% of total soluble protein of the cells; 5, 15) and is estimated at 91.4% (3.78 × 10⁵ molecules per cells) among total molecules of five Prx family proteins, as well as Gpx3, whereas Gpx3 is estimated at 2% among these proteins (11). Thus, Tsa1 might be a major antioxidant in these cells. The abundance and reactivity to H₂O₂ of Tsa1 suggest that Tsa1 might activate Yap1 in the absence of Ybp1 and/or in the presence of Ybp11-243 by a system analogous to the system that involves Gpx3. A redox-active distal cysteine residue in Tsa1, Cys47, is first oxidized by H2O2 to sulfenic acid (Cys47-SOH), and then it reacts with a distal cysteine residue (Cys171) to form a dimer (13). We found that the Tsa1C171T mutant was cross-linked specifically with Yap1, but not with Trx or with Trr in the Trx/ Trr/NADPH reduction system in vitro in response to H₂O₂ (Okazaki and Kuge, unpublished observations). Thus, the sulfenic acid form of Cys47 (Cys47-SOH) in Tsa1 might attack several cysteine residues to induce formation of disulfide bonds in Yap1.

At higher concentrations of H₂O₂, the unstable Prx with a Cys47-SOH moiety is further oxidized to Prx with a sulfinic acid (Prx Cys-SO₂H) moiety, but not a disulfide (Prx S-S Prx), and Prx Cys-SO₂H is reduced to Prx Cys-SH (27, 28). Thus, it has been suggested (27) that Prx might act as a floodgate for the H_2O_2 signal until the level of H_2O_2 exceeds the level that is protected by the formation of Prx Cys-SO₂H (floodgate model). Recent findings indicate that the constitutive reduction of Tsa1 Cys-SO₂H to Tsa1 Cys-SH is catalyzed by sulfiredoxin (Srx1) during the response to oxidative stress (2). We demonstrated here that the sensitive and appropriate response of Yap1 to the H₂O₂ signal involves member of the Prx family of proteins. Thus, in addition to the redox cycle of Prx by sulfiredoxin (Cys-SH/Cys-SO₂H), the redox cycle of Prx by Trx (Cys-SHs/Cys-S-S-Cys) might participate in transduction of the H₂O₂ signal via different oxidation states that depend on the intracellular level of H₂O₂ in the eukaryote.

Mammalian Prxs are also abundant proteins (0.1–0.8% of total soluble protein of the cells; 9). It is possible that an analogous redox-sensing system is exploiting Prxs in mam-

malian cells, in view of the recent finding that a mammalian transcription factor, Hic-5, is regulated at a nuclear export step by a possible redox reaction that involves a Yap1-like NES (22).

While the reviewing process of this article was in progress, Veal and Morgan perceived that there is a single nucleotide insertion of deoxycytidine at nucleotide position 729 of the coding region of ybp1-1 that has not been indicated in the previous literature (14). This reveals that ybp1-1 is identical to ybp1-2. A discrepancy of the observed characteristics between Y700 and W303-1a is transcriptional activation of LacZ reporter driven by SV40AP1 Yap1-binding sites (Figs. 1C and 2C in reference 24). This may be due to the difference of constructs of the reporter gene used in this study and the other study (24). We show here that Tsa1, an abundant Prx, can regulate nuclear localization of Yap1, and suggest that the utilization of Tsa1 on the activation of Yap1 is more efficient in cells carrying ybp1-1 (ybp1-2) than in cells carrying $ybp1\Delta$ or YBP1.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank Drs. K. Ohashi, G. Whwang, K. Kita, and T. Takahashi for helpful discussion. This work is supported by Grants-in-Aid for Exploratory Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan.

ABBREVIATIONS

c-CRD, C-terminal cysteine-rich domain of Yap1; DEM, diethyl maleate; GFP, green fluorescent protein; Gpx, glutathione peroxidase; HA, hemagglutinin; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; n-CRD, N-terminal cysteine-rich domain of Yap1; NES, nuclear export signal; PAGE, polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; Prx, peroxiredoxin; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SD, synthetic dextrose; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate; t-BOOH, *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide; TCA, trichloroacetic acid; Trr, thioredoxin reductase; Trx, thioredoxin; Ybp1, Yap1-binding protein 1.

REFERENCES

- Azevedo D, Tacnet F, Delaunay A, Rodrigues-Pousada C, and Toledano MB. Two redox centers within Yap1 for H₂O₂ and thiol-reactive chemicals signaling. *Free Radic Biol Med* 35: 889–900, 2003.
- Biteau B, Labarre J, and Toledano MB. ATP-dependent reduction of cysteine-sulphinic acid by *S. cerevisiae* sulfiredoxin. *Nature* 425: 980–984, 2003.
- Brachmann CB, Davies A, Cost GJ, Caputo E, Li J, Hieter P, and Boeke JD. Designer deletion strains derived from Saccharomyces cerevisiae S288C: a useful set of strains and plasmids for PCR-mediated gene disruption and other applications. Yeast 14: 115–132, 1998.
- 4. Carmel-Harel O and Storz G. Roles of the glutathione- and thioredoxin-dependent reduction systems in the *Esche-*

- richia coli and Saccharomyces cerevisiae responses to oxidative stress. Annu Rev Microbiol 54: 439–461, 2000.
- Carmel-Harel O, Stearman R, Gasch AP, Botstein D, Brown PO, and Storz G. Role of thioredoxin reductase in the Yap1p-dependent response to oxidative stress in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. Mol Microbiol 39: 595–605, 2001.
- Chae HZ, Chung SJ, and Rhee SG. Thioredoxin-dependent peroxide reductase from yeast. *J Biol Chem* 269: 27670– 27678, 1994.
- Coleman ST, Epping EA, Steggerda SM, and Moye-Rowley WS. Yap1p activates gene transcription in an oxidantspecific fashion. *Mol Cell Biol* 19: 8302–8313, 1999.
- Delaunay A, Isnard AD, and Toledano MB. H₂O₂ sensing through oxidation of the Yap1 transcription factor. *EMBO* J 19: 5157–5166, 2000.
- Dunn B and Wobbe CR. Saccharomyces cerevisiae. In: Current Protocols in Molecular Biology, edited by Ausubel R, Brent R, and Kingston R. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1997.
- Georgiou G and Masip L. Biochemistry. An overoxidation journey with a return ticket. Science 300: 592–594, 2003.
- Ghaemmaghami S, Huh W-K, Bower K, Howson RW, Belle A, Dephoure N, O'Shea EK, and Weissman JS. Global analysis of protein expression in yeast. *Nature* 425: 737–741, 2003.
- Halliwell B and Gutteridge JMC. Free Radicals in Biology and Medicine, 3rd ed., Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1998
- 13. Hofmann B, Hecht HJ, and Flohe L. Peroxiredoxins. *Biol Chem* 383: 347–364, 2002.
- 14. Isoyama T, Murayama A, Nomoto A, and Kuge S. Nuclear import of the yeast AP-1-like transcription factor Yap1p is mediated by transport receptor Pse1p, and this import step is not affected by oxidative stress. *J Biol Chem* 276: 21863–21869, 2001.
- Kim IH, Kim K, and Rhee SG. Induction of an antioxidant protein of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* by O₂, Fe³⁺, or 2-mercaptoethanol. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 86: 6018–6022, 1989
- Kuge S and Jones N. YAP1-dependent activation of TRX2 is essential for the response of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* to oxidative stress by hydroperoxides. *EMBO J* 13: 655– 664, 1994.
- Kuge S, Jones N, and Nomoto A. Regulation of yAP-1 nuclear localization in response to oxidative stress. *EMBO J* 16: 1710–1720, 1997.
- 18. Kuge S, Toda T, Iizuka N, and Nomoto A. Crm1 (XpoI)dependent nuclear export of the budding yeast transcription factor yAP-1 is sensitive to oxidative stress. *Genes Cells* 3: 521–532, 1998.
- Kuge S, Arita M, Murayama A, Maeta K, Izawa S, Inoue Y, and Nomoto A. Regulation of the yeast Yap1p nuclear export signal is mediated by redox signal-induced reversible disulfide bond formation. *Mol Cell Biol* 21: 6139–6150, 2001.
- Morgan BA, Banks GR, Toone WM, Raitt D, Kuge S, and Johnston LH. The Skn7 response regulator controls gene expression in the oxidative stress response of the budding yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. EMBO J 16: 1035–1044, 1997.
- 21. Ross SJ, Findlay VJ, Malakasi P, and Morgan BA. Thioredoxin peroxidase is required for the transcriptional re-

sponse to oxidative stress in budding yeast. *Mol Biol Cell* 11: 2631–2642, 2000.

- 22. Shibanuma M, Kim-Kaneyama JR, Ishino K, Sakamoto N, Hishiki T, Yamaguchi K, Mori K, Mashimo J, and Nose K. Hic-5 communicates between focal adhesions and the nucleus through oxidant-sensitive nuclear export signal. *Mol Biol Cell* 14: 1158–1171, 2002.
- Toone WM, Morgan BA, and Jones N. Redox control of AP-1-like factors in yeast and beyond. *Oncogene* 20: 2336–2346, 2001.
- Veal EA, Ross SJ, Malakasi P, Peacock E, and Morgan BA. Ybp1 is required for the hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidation of the Yap1 transcription factor. *J Biol Chem* 33: 30896–30904, 2003.
- Wiatrowski HA and Carlson M. Yap1 accumulates in the nucleus in response to carbon stress in *Saccharomyces* cerevisiae. Eukaryot Cell 2: 19–26, 2003.
- Winzeler EA, Shoemaker DD, Astromoff A, Liang H, Anderson K, Andre B, Bangham R, Benito R, Boeke JD, Bussey H, et al. Functional characterization of the S. cerevisiae genome by gene deletion and parallel analysis. Science 285: 901–906, 1999.
- Woo HA, Chae HZ, Hwang SC, Yang H-S, Kang SW, Kim K, and Rhee SG. Reversing the inactivation of peroxire-doxins caused by cysteine sulfinic acid formation. *Science* 300: 653–656, 2003.
- 28. Wood MJ, Ardrade EC, and Storz G. The redox domain of the Yap1p transcription factor contains two disulfide

- bonds. Biochemistry 42: 11982-11991, 2003.
- Wood ZA, Pools LB, and Karplus PA. Peroxiredoxin evolution and the regulation of hydrogen peroxide signaling. *Science* 300: 650–653, 2003.
- Xu D, Rovira II, and Finkel T. Oxidants painting the cysteine chapel: redox regulation of PTPs. *Dev Cell* 2: 251–252, 2002.
- 31. Yan C, Lee LH, and Davis LI. Crm1p mediates regulated nuclear export of a yeast AP-1-like transcription factor. *EMBO J* 17: 7416–7429, 1998.

Address reprint requests to:
S. Kuge, Ph.D.
Laboratory of Molecular and Biochemical Toxicology
Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences
Tohoku University
Aza-Aoba, Aramaki
Aoba-ku, Sendai
Miyagi 980-8578, Japan

E-mail: skuge@mail.pharm.tohoku.ac.jp

Received for publication September 25, 2004; accepted October 9, 2004.

This article has been cited by:

- 1. Reagan M. Jarvis, Stephanie M. Hughes, Elizabeth C. Ledgerwood. 2012. Peroxiredoxin 1 functions as a signal peroxidase to receive, transduce, and transmit peroxide signals in mammalian cells. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine* **53**:7, 1522-1530. [CrossRef]
- 2. Vyacheslav M. Labunskyy, Vadim N. Gladyshev. Role of Reactive Oxygen Species-Mediated Signaling in Aging. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, ahead of print. [Abstract] [Full Text HTML] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF with Links]
- 3. Janine König, Meenakumari Muthuramalingam, Karl-Josef Dietz. 2012. Mechanisms and dynamics in the thiol/disulfide redox regulatory network: transmitters, sensors and targets. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology* **15**:3, 261-268. [CrossRef]
- 4. Regina Brigelius-Flohé, Leopold Flohé. 2011. Basic Principles and Emerging Concepts in the Redox Control of Transcription Factors. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling* 15:8, 2335-2381. [Abstract] [Full Text HTML] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF with Links]
- 5. Young-Mi Go, Dean P. Jones. 2010. Redox Control Systems in the Nucleus: Mechanisms and Functions. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling* **13**:4, 489-509. [Abstract] [Full Text HTML] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF with Links]
- 6. Yves Meyer, Bob B. Buchanan, Florence Vignols, Jean-Philippe Reichheld. 2009. Thioredoxins and Glutaredoxins: Unifying Elements in Redox Biology. *Annual Review of Genetics* **43**:1, 335-367. [CrossRef]
- 7. M. Kwolek-Mirek, S. Bednarska, G. Bartosz, T. Bili#ski. 2009. Acrolein toxicity involves oxidative stress caused by glutathione depletion in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae. *Cell Biology and Toxicology* **25**:4, 363-378. [CrossRef]
- 8. Nicolas Brandes, Sebastian Schmitt, Ursula Jakob. 2009. Thiol-Based Redox Switches in Eukaryotic Proteins. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling* 11:5, 997-1014. [Abstract] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF with Links]
- 9. E HERRERO, J ROS, G BELLI, E CABISCOL. 2008. Redox control and oxidative stress in yeast cells. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) General Subjects* **1780**:11, 1217-1235. [CrossRef]
- 10. Ga-Young Kang, Eun-Hee Park, Chang-Jin Lim. 2008. Molecular cloning, characterization and regulation of a peroxiredoxin gene from Schizosaccharomyces pombe. *Molecular Biology Reports* **35**:3, 387-395. [CrossRef]
- 11. Chong-Han Ng, Shi-Xiong Tan, Gabriel G. Perrone, Geoffrey W. Thorpe, Vincent J. Higgins, Ian W. Dawes. 2008. Adaptation to hydrogen peroxide in Saccharomyces cerevisiae: The role of NADPH-generating systems and the SKN7 transcription factor. *Free Radical Biology and Medicine* 44:6, 1131-1145. [CrossRef]
- 12. Mónica Lamas-Maceiras, Laura Núñez, Esther Rodríguez-Belmonte, María Isabel González-Siso, María Esperanza Cerdán. 2007. Functional characterization of KlHAP1: A model to foresee different mechanisms of transcriptional regulation by Hap1p in yeasts. *Gene* **405**:1-2, 96-107. [CrossRef]
- 13. Shoko Okazaki, Tsuyoshi Tachibana, Akira Naganuma, Nariyasu Mano, Shusuke Kuge. 2007. Multistep Disulfide Bond Formation in Yap1 Is Required for Sensing and Transduction of H2O2 Stress Signal. *Molecular Cell* 27:4, 675-688. [CrossRef]
- 14. Elizabeth A. Veal, Alison M. Day, Brian A. Morgan. 2007. Hydrogen Peroxide Sensing and Signaling. *Molecular Cell* **26**:1, 1-14. [CrossRef]
- 15. Ana P. Vivancos, Mónica Jara, Alice Zuin, Miriam Sansó, Elena Hidalgo. 2006. Oxidative stress in Schizosaccharomyces pombe: different H2O2 levels, different response pathways. *Molecular Genetics and Genomics* **276**:6, 495-502. [CrossRef]
- 16. Ian W. Boucher, Paul J. McMillan, Mads Gabrielsen, Susan E. Akerman, James A. Brannigan, Claudia Schnick, Andrzej M. Brzozowski, Anthony J. Wilkinson, Sylke Muller. 2006. Structural and biochemical characterization of a mitochondrial peroxiredoxin from Plasmodium falciparum. *Molecular Microbiology* 61:4, 948-959. [CrossRef]
- 17. Dr. James R. Stone, Suping Yang. 2006. Hydrogen Peroxide: A Signaling Messenger. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling* 8:3-4, 243-270. [Abstract] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF] with Links]
- 18. Ana P. D. Demasi, Goncalo A. G. Pereira, Luis E. S. Netto. 2006. Yeast oxidative stress response. Influences of cytosolic thioredoxin peroxidase I and of the mitochondrial functional state. *FEBS Journal* 273:4, 805-816. [CrossRef]
- 19. Kiyoshi Nose . 2005. Redox Control of Protein Trafficking. *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling* **7**:3-4, 303-307. [Citation] [Full Text PDF] [Full Text PDF with Links]