

Nucleolar roles of the PI3K pathway in cancer and differentiation

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Thesis for the degree of Philosophiae Doctor (PhD)

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Scientific environment

The work in this thesis was performed at the research group led by Associate professor Aurélia E. Lewis as part of the NUCREG (Mechanisms of gene regulation and molecular interactions) program at the Department of Molecular Biology, Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences at the University of Bergen. A short part of the research was performed at The Laboratory of Eukaryotic Molecular Biology (LBME) which is part of CBI (Center for Integrative Biology of Toulouse) at the Université de Toulouse-Paul Sabatier, France during a three weeks stay funded by a ERASMUS mobility grant. This project was funded by the University of Bergen, the Norwegian Cancer Society, the Western Norway Regional Health Authority (project #911682) as well as from the Meltzer Research Fund (L. Meltzer Høyskolefond).

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Fatemeh Mazloumi Gavgani
October 2017

Abstract

The phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) pathway is essential for many cellular functions including; proliferation, cell survival, differentiation and metabolism. Although this pathway has been well studied in the cytoplasm, the role of PI3Ks in the nucleus has also been emerging as essential determinants of cell function. Previous work from our group has mapped the class I PI3K p110 β and its product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to the nucleus and nucleolus in a breast cancer cell line. Here, we aimed to understand and characterize the role of this kinase and its lipid product in the nucleus during tumorigenesis and adipocyte differentiation. We first found that the PI3K is active in the nucleus of differentiating 3T3-L1 and endometrial cancer cells and identified an active form of Akt in the nucleoli of endometrial cancer cell lines. Using subcellular fractionation, mass spectrometry and different staining methods, we confirmed the nucleolar localization of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in several cell types but at different levels. In adipocytes, the levels of p110 β were low in the nucleus and nucleoli upon differentiation. In contrast, endometrial cancer cell lines had high amounts of nuclear p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . The nucleolus is the sub nuclear site where ribosomal RNA (rRNA) transcription and processing occurs and interestingly we found that inhibition of p110 β reduced the level of transcription of this RNA species. In addition, endometrial cancer cell lines with high amounts of nuclear p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 showed significant elevations in pre-rRNA transcription.

To gain further insights of the nuclear roles of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , we used a quantitative interactomics approach and identified 219 PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins that were highly enriched in cytokinesis, RNA processing and DNA repair functions. PARP1 (Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase 1), a DNA repair protein abundant in the nucleoli, was one of the identified proteins which was then validated to interact with phosphoinositides directly, including PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . The nucleolar presence and co-localization of PARP1 with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was dependent on active rRNA transcription. Altogether the results from this thesis suggests an active role of the class I PI3K p110 β and its product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus of differentiating adipocytes and endometrial cancer cells but with distinct regulation.

List of publications

Paper I Nuclear upregulation of PI3K p110 β correlates with increased rRNA transcription in endometrial cancer cells

Fatemeh Mazloumi Gavgani^{*}, Thomas Karlsson^{*}, Victoria Smith Arnesen, Ole Horvli, Pamela Pollock, Ingvild L Tangen, Camilla Krakstad, and Aurélia E Lewis (manuscript)

Paper II Nuclear phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-triphosphate interactome

Fatemeh Mazloumi Gavgani, Diana C. Turcu, Julie Guillermet-Guibert, Rein Aasland, Clive D'Santos and Aurélia E. Lewis (manuscript)

Paper III Synthesis of phosphatidylinositol 3,4- P_2 and phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5- P_3 in distinct nuclear sites upon adipocyte differentiation

Rhian G. Jacobsen^{*}, Marianne Goris^{*}, **Fatemeh Mazloumi Gavgani**^{*}, Vandana Ardawatia, Thomas Karlsson and Aurélia E. Lewis (manuscript)

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Jacobsen RM, **Mazloumi Gavgani F**, Mellgren G and AE Lewis (2016). DNA Topoisomerase II α contributes to the early steps of adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells. Cellular Signalling. 28:1593-1603.

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List of selected abbreviations

EC	Endometrial cancer
K/R	Lysine/Arginine
MTM	Myotubularin
mTOR	Mammalian target of rapamycin
NORs	nucleolar organizer regions
NPM	Nucleophosmin
PARP	Poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase
PKD1	3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1
PH	Pleckstrin homology
PI	Phosphoinositide
PI3K	Phosphoinositide 3-kinase
PPI _n	Polyphosphoinositides
IPMK	Inositol Polyphosphate multikinase
IRS-1	Insulin Receptor Substrate 1
PKB	Protein kinase B
PtdIns	Phosphatidylinositol
PTEN	Phosphatase and tensin homolog
RNP	Ribonucleoprotein
SHIP	Src homology 2-domain-containing inositol phosphatase
TAG	Triacylglycerol
TopoII α	Topoisomerase II α
UBF	Upstream binding factor

1. Introduction

1.1 General aspects of Polyphosphoinositides

Polyphosphoinositides (PPIn) are derived from the phosphorylation of phosphatidylinositol (PtdIns). PtdIns is a glycerophospholipid which consists of two hydrophobic acyl chains attached to the glycerol backbone, which is itself coupled to an inositol head group via a phosphodiester bond with the 1' OH group (Figure 1) [1]. The inositol ring can be phosphorylated at the 3', 4', or 5' positions resulting in several combinations and a total of seven variants, one tri-phosphorylated (PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃), three di-phosphorylated (PtdIns(3,4)P₂, PtdIns(3,5)P₂, PtdIns(4,5)P₂) and three mono-phosphorylated PPIn (PtdIns3P, PtdIns4P, PtdIns5P) (Table-1). They are called PPIn and have unique functions in the cell [1-3]. These low-abundance phospholipids comprise less than 1% of the total lipid content of the cell with the highest amounts of PPIns accounting for PtdIns(4)P and PtdIns(4,5)P₂ [4]. The most dominant type of fatty acyl chain found in mammalian phosphoinositides are stearoyl and arachidonoyl represented as C18:0/C20:4 or summed as 38:4 (total number of carbons: total double bonds count in fatty acids) [5]. The hydrophobic acyl tails allow them to be anchored in cellular membranes and through their inositol head group, exposed to the aqueous milieu, they bind specific PPIn-binding domains on target proteins [6]. As summarized in table-1, PPIn localize in different cellular membranes. For example among other cellular compartments PtdIns(3)P and PtdIns(3,5)P₂ localize at the membrane of early or late endosomes and PtdIns(4)P to the Golgi, PtdIns5P to the endoplasmic reticulum and PtdIns(4,5)P₂, to the plasma membrane [7, 8].

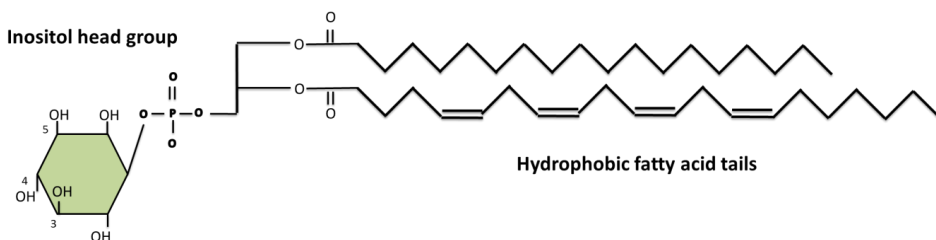




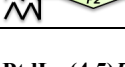




Figure 1. Chemical structure diagram of phosphatidylinositol (PtdIns). The inositol head group can be phosphorylated at the 3', 4', or 5' OH to generate different variants of polyphosphoinositides (PPIn). The hydrophobic fatty acid chains (here shown as C18:0/C20:4) are attached to the glycerol backbone which is linked to the inositol head group by a phosphodiester bond [1, 5].

These lipids act as signaling molecules and their levels are tightly regulated. Their synthesis and metabolism is catalyzed by a series of lipid kinases and phosphatases which can convert these PPIs to each other [1] (see Table 1).

Table-1. Properties of the seven polyphosphoinositides lipid species. The red circles represent the phosphate group on the inositol ring shown here in green. The acyl chains are shortened due to space constraints. The phosphatases using the indicated PPI as substrate and the kinases producing them are listed. Phosphatases are indicated in bold. PtdIns: phosphatidylinositol. MTM: myotubularins. PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinase. PTEN: phosphatase and tensin homolog. SHIP: Src homology 2-domain-containing inositol phosphatase. The abundances are a percentage of the total amount of phosphoinositides. This table is modified and updated from the tables in the following references: [4, 9].

PPI	Localization	Kinase/Phosphatase	Abundance	Reference
PtdIns3P 	Endosomes, Nuclear envelope, Nucleolus, smooth endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi	PI3K class II and III MTMs	Low Less than 2%	[1, 4, 10-12]
PtdIns4P 	Golgi, Nucleoplasm	PI4 kinases (Type II and III)	High about 10%	[4, 13-16]
PtdIns5P 	Cytoplasm Nucleus, Golgi, Endoplasmic reticulum	PIKfyve (PI5K)	Low Less than 1%	[1, 4, 8, 17-22]
PtdIns(3,4)P₂ 	plasma membrane Nuclear envelope	PI3K class II PtdIns-3,4-P₂ 4 phosphatase type I and II	Low Less than 1%	[1, 4, 23, 24]
PtdIns(3,5)P₂ 	Endosomes	PIKfyve (PIP5K) MTMs	Low Less than 1%	[1, 4, 22, 25]
PtdIns(4,5)P₂ 	plasma membrane Nuclear speckles, Nucleolus	PIP4 Kinases PIP5 Kinases 5-phosphatases PtdIns-4,5-P₂ 4 phosphatase type I and II	High about 10%	[1, 4, 24, 26, 27]
PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ 	plasma membrane Nuclear matrix Nucleolus	PI3K class I, PIP5 Kinase PTEN (acts on 3'OH) SHIP1/2 (acts on 5'OH)	Low Less than 1%	[1, 4, 28, 29]

PPI can either act directly as second messengers or as precursors to other second messengers to regulate a wide range of cellular processes [3, 4, 30, 31]. The levels of some

PPIn can change rapidly upon cellular stimulation. A perfect example for this is PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (also known and referred to as PIP3), which has low levels in resting cells and is increased rapidly upon various stimuli [1]. The best known target for PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binding is a basic amino acid lining pocket of proteins containing the pleckstrin homology (PH) domain in several of its effector proteins [32-34].

1.2 The Phosphoinositide3-Kinase family

The PI3K enzymes consist of a family of lipid kinases that phosphorylate the 3'OH on the inositol ring of PPIn or PtdIns and generate the lipid second messengers; PtdIns(3) P , PtdIns(3,4) P_2 , and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 [35-37]. Based on their structure and substrate specificity, the PI3K family is organised into 3 main classes, class I, II and class III [38]. Class I PI3Ks are heterodimers that consist of a catalytic subunit of either p110 α , β , δ or γ associated with a regulatory subunit of p85 α , p85 β , p55 or p101, p87 [2, 39]. Class II PI3Ks are monomers and mammalian cells have three isoforms of this class; PI3K-C2 α , PI3K-C2 β , and PI3K-C2 γ [40]. The preferred substrate of class II PI3Ks is PtdIns both *in vitro* and *in vivo* and they generate PtdIns(3) P [40]. Class II enzymes can also generate PtdIns(3,4) P_2 *in vitro* and have been reported to generate it also *in vivo* [41]. Vps34 (vacuolar protein sorting 34) is the only member of the class III PI3K bound to its adaptor Vps15 and it generates PtdIns3 P [12, 42]. The protein and gene names of the catalytic and regulatory subunits of the PI3K pathway are listed in table 2.

Table 2. The PI3K family gene names and protein products. Table was adapted and modified from the following reference: [43].

PI3K	Regulatory subunit		Catalytic subunit	
	Gene	Protein	Gene	Protein
Class IA	<i>PIK3R1</i>	p85 α , p55 α , p50 α	<i>PIK3CA</i>	p110 α
	<i>PIK3R2</i>	p85 β	<i>PIK3CB</i>	p110 β
	<i>PIK3R3</i>	p55 γ	<i>PIK3CD</i>	p110 δ
Class IB	<i>PIK3R5</i>	p101	<i>PIK3CG</i>	P110 γ
	<i>PIK3R6</i>	p84 (also known as p87)		
Class II	No known regulatory subunit		<i>PIK3C2A</i>	C2 α
			<i>PIK3C2B</i>	C2 β
			<i>PIK3C2G</i>	C2 γ
Class III	<i>PIKCR4</i>	VPS15	<i>PIK3C3</i>	VPS34

1.2.1 Class I PI3K signaling

The *in vivo* substrate for this class of PI3Ks is PtdIns(4,5) P_2 which results in the generation of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 [2, 44]. The p85 subunit interacts with the p110 catalytic subunit and has a negative regulatory effect on p110 activity [45-47]. Upon activation by the receptors the inhibition of p110 by p85 is blocked and p110 can then generate PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 by phosphorylating PtdIns(4,5) P_2 [48]. It is well known that the binding of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to some of its target proteins are through the PH domain [33, 34]. Akt, a protein kinase, is a downstream signaling molecule of the PI3K pathway and binds to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 through its PH domain and then localizes to the plasma membrane for further activation [49-51]. Prior lysine residue deacetylation of the PH domain by SIRT1 deacetylase is crucial for PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binding [52]. Akt is then subsequently activated by the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binding protein phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1(PDK1) and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) complex 2 by phosphorylation at Thr308 and Ser473 respectively (Figure-1) [53, 54]. Since PPIIn lipids act as signalling molecules in a wide range of cellular processes, the cells have a mechanism to precisely control and regulate their levels and localizations in the cell. As a result of lipid phosphatases activity the levels of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 can be regulated. The tumor suppressor phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) is an antagonist of the actions of class I PI3Ks, by dephosphorylating PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to PtdIns(4,5) P_2 , thereby negatively regulating this pathway [55]. Other regulators of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels are SH2 (Src homology 2)-domain-containing inositol phosphatase (SHIP) 1 and 2 polyphosphate 5-phosphatases that can dephosphorylate PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to PtdIns(3,4) P_2 [56, 57].

The Class I PI3Ks are activated through either tyrosine kinase receptors (for p110 α , p110 β and p110 δ) or the G protein coupled receptors (for p110 β , and p110 γ) [2, 58]. RAS proteins (family of small GTPase's) can directly bind to p110 α , p110 δ and p110 γ isoforms and activate them, while the p110 β is activated by RAC1 and CDC42 (RHO family of GTPases) [59-62]. While the expression of both p110 δ and p110 γ is restricted to immune cells, both p110 α and β are ubiquitously expressed [35]. As mentioned earlier, they both target PtdIns(4,5) P_2 and produce PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , have very similar catalytic and regulatory domains, share the same mode of activation and embryonically lethal when knocked out [63, 64]. Although it may seem that p110 α and p110 β may possess redundant roles in the cell each of these isoforms has somehow distinct properties and functions. As an example, while

both isoforms have essential roles in metabolism and insulin signaling, only p110 α is necessary for vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) signaling [63-69]. One feature that may explain their different cellular roles is that they localise in specific cellular compartments. More precisely, while both isoforms are present in the cytoplasm, only p110 β is found in the nucleus in chromatin enriched fractions and the nucleoli [28, 70].

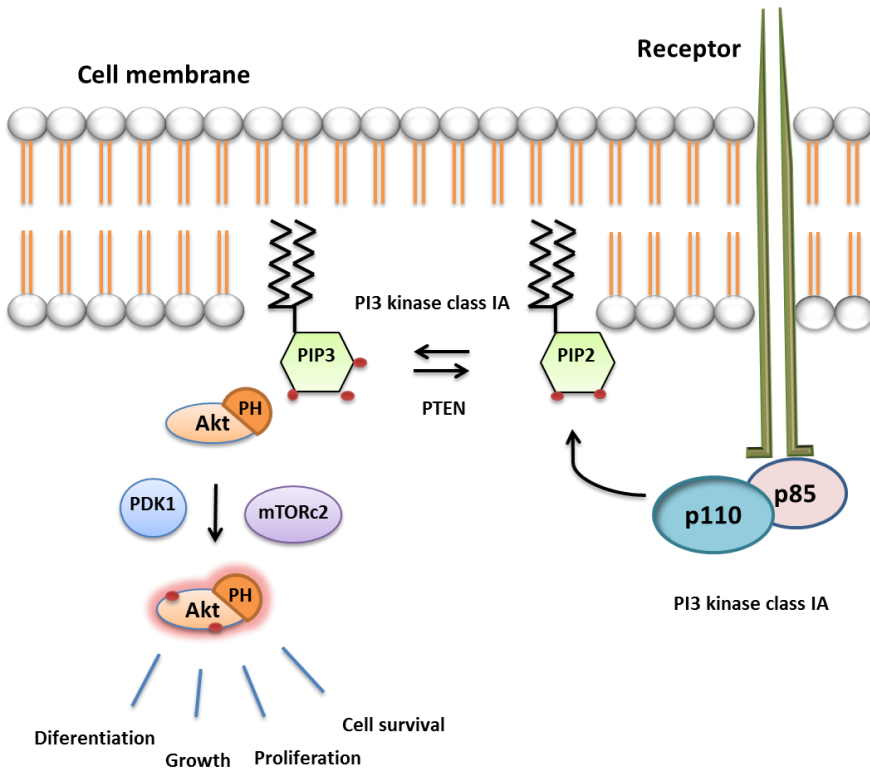


Figure 2. Diagram of class IA PI3K activation at the cell membrane. Upon ligand binding and stimulation of the receptor tyrosine kinases or the G-protein-coupled receptors, class IA PI3Ks are activated and they phosphorylate phosphatidylinositol (4,5)-bisphosphate (PIP2) and generate phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-triphosphate (PIP3). The generated PIP3 then interacts with the pleckstrin homology (PH) domain containing proteins such as Akt and targets them to the plasma membrane which leads to their activation and triggers a signaling cascade leading to many cellular functions. For its activation, AKT contains critical residues (Thr³⁰⁸ and Ser⁴⁷³) that need to be phosphorylated (phosphate groups are shown as red circles) by PDK1 and mTORc2 respectively. PTEN function as antagonists of the PI3K activity by converting PIP3 to PIP2 [71]. This diagram is based on information from the figures in the following references: [51, 72].

1.2.2 Nuclear PPIIn

Although the actions of PPIIn are mostly known at the plasma membrane, several studies have shown their presence together with PPIIn kinases and phosphatases in the nucleus and there is a growing appreciation to the important roles they play in the nucleus [73, 74] (Table-3). In the early 1980s the nuclear presence of PPIIn and their metabolizing enzymes were discovered to be restricted to the nuclear membrane [75]. Later on, it was shown, by Cocco and colleagues in 1987, that when the nuclear membrane was depleted from mouse erythroleukemia nuclei using detergents, these isolated nuclei still contained PPIIn which was followed by more studies showing the PPIIn signalling and metabolism in the nucleus [76-80]. The chemical structure of these lipids is suitable for the hydrophobic environment of the membrane but as to how the acyl chains of these lipids are kept away from the aqueous environment of the nucleus is still a matter of debate. There are suggestions that by interaction with proteins these acyl chains are shielded in structured pockets [16, 73]. An example for this is the binding of the nuclear receptor Steroidogenic Factor-1 (SF-1) to PtdIns(4,5) P_2 which shielded the acyl chains of the lipid in its hydrophobic ligand binding pocket, while allowing the inositol head group to be accessible for phosphorylation by lipid signaling enzymes [81, 82].

Proteins with basic residues that can attract the negatively charged inositol head group are expected to be good targets for nuclear phosphoinositide binding. Examples of such proteins are histones that can have up to 35% of basic amino acids in their structure and they have been shown to bind PPIIn [83]. Consistent with this are studies that have shown the interaction of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 to histone H1 that can regulate RNA polymerase transcription [84]. A list of the nuclear proteins discovered to bind to PPIIn and of their functions is given in Table 3. Furthermore, by enriching for nuclear PPIIn-binding proteins using neomycin displacement and subsequently PtdIns(4,5) P_2 pull down, a number of nuclear PtdIns(4,5) P_2 binding proteins have been identified [31]. Most of the identified pool of proteins contained at least one the following polybasic motif, K/R-(X (n= 3-7)-K-X-K/R-K/R rich in lysine and arginine residues (56%) but not structured domains [31].

Table-3. Nuclear PPIns and their interacting proteins; ALY (THO complex subunit 4), BAF (BRG1-associated factors), BASP1 (brain acid soluble protein 1), EBP1 (ErbB3-binding protein 1), ING2 (inhibitor of growth protein 2), LRH-1 (liver receptor homolog-1), NPM (nucleophosmin), PDZ (Postsynaptic density protein, Disc large, Zona occludens), Pfl (PHD Factor 1), PIKE (PI3-Kinase Enhancer), PIP3-BP (PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -binding protein), SAP30 (Sin3A-associated protein 30), SAP30L (human SAP30-like protein), SF-1 (steroidogenic factor-1), Star-PAP (speckle targeted PIP5KI α regulated poly (A) polymerase), TAF3 (Transcription initiation factor TFIID subunit 3), Topo II α (DNA Topoisomerase II α), UHRF1 (Ubiquitin-like with PHD and Ring finger domains 1). Table updated and modified from the following reference [85].

PPIn	Nuclear localization	Interacting proteins	Possible Function	Reference
PtdIns(3,4,5)P_3	Nuclear matrix, Nucleolus	PIP3-BP, NPM, ALY, PIKE, AKT, SF-1, LRH-1, EBP1	Cell survival, Proliferation, Transcriptional regulation, mRNA export	[28, 29, 82, 86-94]
PtdIns(4,5)P_2	Nuclear speckles, Nucleolus	Star-PAP, Topo II α , BAF complex, ALY, SF-1, LRH-1, BASP, Histone H1, PDZ protein syntenin-2	mRNA expression, DNA topology, Chromatin remodeling, proliferation, Nuclear receptor transcriptional activity, RNA pol I transcription, pre-mRNA processing	[15, 27, 29, 31, 82, 84, 94-100]
PtdIns(3,4)P_2	Nuclear membrane	unknown	unknown	[23]
PtdIns5P	Nuclear foci	Pfl, SAP30/SAP30L, ING2, TAF3, UHRF1	Transcriptional regulation, Tumor suppressor, Regulation of DNA methylation, DNA damage response	[101-106]
PtdIns4P	Nucleoplasm, Nucleoplasmic foci	Pfl, SAP30/SAP30L	Transcriptional regulation	[15, 101, 102]
PtdIns3P	Nuclear envelope, Nucleolus	Pfl, SAP30/SAP30L	Transcriptional regulation	[11, 15, 101, 102]

1.2.3 Nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and PI3Ks

Several studies have demonstrated that members of the PI3K pathway are localized in different sub-nuclear compartments and can have distinct functions [107-109]. The levels of the PPIns in the nucleus are regulated by the PPIn kinases and phosphatases present also in the nucleus with both class I and class II PI3Ks showing nuclear localizations. Among the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 generating enzymes, the class I PI3K p110 β but also IPMK (Inositol polyphosphate multikinase) localize to the nucleus [110, 111]. The nuclear p110 β isoform

has been shown to have a nuclear localization signals (NLS) and is involved in multiple important cellular functions such as DNA replication, cell cycle progression and DNA double strand break (DSB) repair [70, 111-113]. Nuclear IPMK was shown to phosphorylate $\text{PtdIns}(4,5)P_2$ when bound to SF-1 and generates the SF-1/ $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ complex, which becomes activated and can induce transcription [82]. In addition IPMK is involved in the nuclear mRNA export of transcripts that are enriched in DNA repair functions [89]. The class II PI3K-C2 α also contains an NLS at the C2 domain and it localizes to the nuclear speckles. [114]. Nuclear speckles are enriched in pre-mRNA splicing machinery components and are hence site of pre-mRNA-processing [115]. $\text{PtdIns}(4,5)P_2$ has been identified to also localize in the nuclear speckles [26, 96]. $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ is found in the nucleoplasm around speckles where its precursor $\text{PtdIns}(4,5)P_2$ localizes [26, 86]. Importantly, production of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ in the nucleoplasm was blocked by wortmannin (a pan PI3K inhibitor), suggesting that this pool is made by PI3Ks [86]. However as mentioned earlier the kinase activity of IPMK can also generate the nuclear $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ and can therefore contribute in the synthesis of nuclear $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ [110]. Our group has more recently reported the presence of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ in the nucleoplasm and the nucleolus in of a breast cancer cell line [28]. The presence of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ in the nucleolus was also greatly decreased following PI3K inhibition [28]. The downstream signaling molecule of the PI3K pathway, Akt, also localizes to the nucleus and can be either translocated in its active form to the nucleus or activated there [116, 117]. The PTEN and SHIP2 phosphatases are also present in the nucleus [118]. However, the activities of PTEN in the nucleus are suggested to be phosphatase independent in several studies [119-121]. One study on the other hand showed that nuclear PTEN impacts the level of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ [87].

There are only a few $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ -binding proteins that have so far been identified in the nucleus (see Table 3). These include the $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ -binding protein (PIP3-BP) found in the brain [93]. PIKE (L-isoform of PI3K enhancer) is also a nuclear $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ binding protein which when mutated at its binding site it translocates to the cytoplasm [92]. Another nuclear $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ interactor is the mRNA export protein, ALY (THO complex subunit 4) which its binding to $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ is thought to mediate the selective transport of certain mRNA transcripts enriched in DNA repair functions from the nucleus [89]. The association of the nucleolar protein, Nucleophosmin with $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ has also been reported [88]. In addition recently, $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ was found to interact with the EBP1

protein in the nucleolus where the nucleolar localization of EBP1 was lost when it was mutated at the PPIIn-binding motifs [28].

1.2.4 PI3K in the nucleolus

During interphase the nucleus is divided into different sub-compartments which are referred to as the nuclear bodies where specific nuclear processes occur. The nucleolus is among one of these microenvironments and is the largest sub-nuclear structure [122, 123]. The nucleolus is the territory where ribosomal DNA regions are co-organised, transcribed and where ribosomes are assembled [122, 124]. Ribosomes are composed of four ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs) and many different ribosomal proteins. In humans, nucleolar organizer regions (NORs) are mainly tandem repeats of ribosomal genes (18S, 5.8S, and 28S rRNA genes) located on acrocentric chromosomes (chromosomes 13, 14, 15, 21 and 22) with intergenic spacer regions [122, 125-128]. First, the 47S rRNA precursor is transcribed and after several processing steps, the 18S, 5.8S, and 28S rRNAs are generated which then together with 5S (made outside of the nucleolus) and the ribosomal proteins will form the 40S and 60S subunits [124, 129-131]. The transcriptional state of rDNA is determined by the epigenetic markers on the DNA and the presence of the transcription factor UBF (upstream binding factor) [132]. The nucleoli of mammalian cells are divided into 3 different regions (Figure-3); the fibrillar centers, dense fibrillar component and the granular component [122]. The fibrillar center contains the ribosomal DNA and the border with the dense fibrillar component is where the rRNAs are transcribed and start their maturation. In the granular component the ribosomal subunits assemble and get prepared to be exported to the cytosol [122, 133-135]. A heterochromatin shell surrounds the nucleolus that contains mostly silent DNA, although genes encoding for tRNA and 5S RNA have also been reported to localize in these perinucleolar heterochromatin areas [136, 137]. On the other hand associated with the surface of the nucleolus is the perinucleolar compartment (PNC) which was first described when the polypyrimidine tract-binding (PTB) protein was characterized and detected as intense foci in this area [138] (Figure-3). This compartment contains many RNA binding proteins and also RNA polymerase III transcripts [139].

Over the years the presence of some of the PPIIn and their metabolizing enzymes has also been reported in the nucleolus. The PPIIn and their metabolizing enzymes identified in the nucleolus to date are listed in table 4. Our group has recently mapped p110 β and

PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to nucleoli in AU565 cells [28]. This may be relevant to a previous study showing the interaction of the nucleolar protein NPM to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 [88].

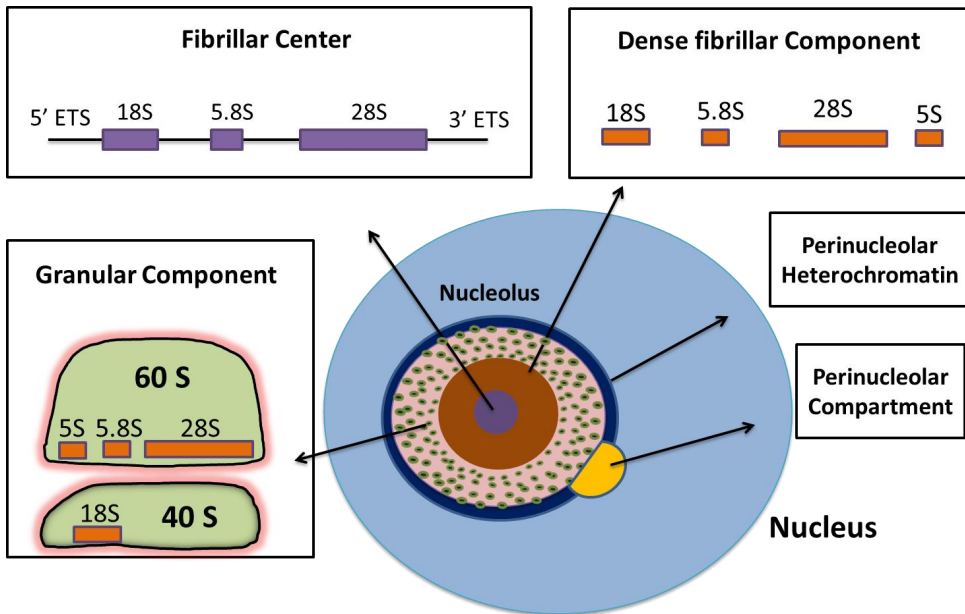


Figure 2. Diagram of the compartments in and around the nucleolus. At the boundary of the fibrillar center (FC) and dense fibrillar component (DFC) the transcription of rDNA by RNA polymerase I occur. The pre-rRNA is cleaved and modified to 18S, 5.8S and 28S ribosomal RNAs in the DFC. The Granular component (GC) is where these rRNAs go through their final maturation and assemble to form the 40S and 60S ribosome subunits [122]. Together with the ribosomal proteins and the 5S rRNA a functional ribosome is formed and exported to the cytoplasm. The nucleolus is surrounded by a heterochromatin shell which mostly contains silent DNA known as the perinucleolar heterochromatin [136, 137]. The perinucleolar compartment is also associated with the nucleolar surface which is rich in RNA binding proteins and transcripts of RNA polymerase III [139].

Multiple proteins that play essential roles in regulating rRNA transcription and synthesis are affected and regulated either directly by PPIs or other members of the PI3K pathway. UBF and transcription initiation factor-I (TIF-I) are two examples of essential nucleolar factors that are influenced by this pathway [27, 140]. A minor pool of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 has been reported to be localized in nucleoli and to be involved in the regulation of RNA polymerase I transcription by binding to UBF [27, 141]. A study in 2004

showed that insulin receptor substrate 1(IRS-1) can translocate to the nucleolus and stimulate the phosphorylation of UBF by a PI3K p110 isoform (likely p110 β) and therefore result in the activation of the rDNA promotor [142]. Akt is involved in activating and stabilizing TIF-I and therefore enhancing rRNA transcription [140]. A recent study on *Drosophila* S2R+ cells showed that inhibition of PI3K or TOR (using LY294002 or rapamycin) decreases the expression of rRNA [143].

Table-4. Known nucleolar PPIs and PPIs metabolizing enzymes.

PPIs or enzymes	Nucleolar function	Reference
PtdIns(3,4,5)P_3	unknown function	[28]
PtdIns(4,5)P_2	Promotes Pol I transcription	[27, 96, 141]
p110β	unknown function	[28]
PTEN	Regulation of ribosome biogenesis	[144]
SHIP1	unknown function	[145]
PI4K230/IIIα	Possibly produces PtdIns4P (precursor of PtdIns(4,5) P_2)	[146, 147]
PIP5KIα	rDNA silencing	[148]

1.3 Selected functions of the PI3K pathway in health and disease

This pathway is essential for cell survival and plays major roles in many aspects of cell biology [51]. Upon PI3K activation multiple downstream pathways can be triggered simultaneously which can explain the participation of PI3K in a wide range of cellular processes. The balance between PI3K isoform specific signalling is critical and the development of the immune system is a perfect example of its importance as not only changes in certain PI3K genes can lead to immunodeficiency but also inhibition of certain PI3K isoforms can increase the efficiency of immune cells against tumour cells [149, 150].

The PI3K-mTOR and Akt signalling pathway is among the most mutated pathways in human cancers [151, 152]. Even though inactivation and loss of the *PTEN* tumor suppressor is the most common alteration in the PI3K pathway leading to cancer [153], abnormalities in the different isoforms of PI3K can also lead to multiple diseases. Activating mutations in the *PIK3CD* gene (that encodes PI3K δ) have been associated with diseases related to the

respiratory and immune system [154]. In 2004, the PI3K genes in different human cancers were sequenced by Samuel *et al* [155]. The mutations discovered in the *PIK3CA* gene (encodes p110 α) were mostly located at the helical and kinase domains and were found at later stages of tumorigenesis. Mutations in other p110 isoforms are not very common in cancer cells. However, PTEN deficient cancer cells have been shown to be dependent upon the product of the *PIK3CB* gene, p110 β , in tumorigenesis in some cancers, including breast and prostate cancers [68, 156-158]. It has been shown that overexpression of the non-alpha p110 isoforms (β , δ or γ subunits) can trigger oncogenic phenotypes in their wildtype state [159]. mTOR is a member of PIKK (phosphoinositide 3-kinase -related protein kinases) family and it comprises the catalytic subunit of mTORC1 and mTORC2 complexes [160]. The mTOR complexes mediate the PI3K pathway signaling and activating mutations of Akt and mTOR occur occasionally in cancer cells [152, 161, 162]. PDK1, that activates Akt by phosphorylation, was found to accumulate in the nucleus in a PI3K signaling dependent manner and it appeared to be involved in tumorigenesis to a higher extend than the cytoplasmic PDK1 [163, 164].

1.3.1 PI3K in endometrial cancer

Among the gynecological and female reproductive system cancers, endometrial cancer is the most prevalent in developed countries and the incidence of this cancer is increasing [165-167]. Endometrial cancer (EC) is the tumor of the inner lining of the uterus and can occur in women both before and after menopause and due to abnormal symptoms this type of cancer is normally diagnosed at early stages [168-170]. Endometrial carcinomas have long been divided into two subtypes; type I and type II [171]. Type I accounts for up to 70% of endometrial cancers with low grade tumors that associate with obesity, positive for hormone-receptors and have good prognosis [171, 172]. Types II, on the other hand, are less common and high grade, hormone receptor negative endometrial cancers that result in poor outcomes [171, 172]. Some of the mutations that can be seen frequently in type I tumors are in the *PTEN*, *PIK3CA*, *KRAS* and *PIK3R1* genes [173-176]. One of the clinical problems in the treatment of this cancer is the heterogeneity and the different molecular subgroups that the endometrial cancer comprises. This has effected the risk assessments and the treatments that the patients are receiving which results in either under or over treatments [177]. Therefore in order to select an appropriate therapy, knowing the molecular mechanisms underlying each endometrial tumor subgroup is critical.

PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway mutations in endometrial cancers were reported to be among the highest compared to any other tumor type in The Cancer Genome Atlas with *PIK3CA* and *PTEN* being among the most frequently mutated genes [174]. *PTEN* mutations are most frequent in early lesions as compared to *PIK3CA* mutations that are more frequently seen in invasive tumors [178, 179]. In addition, an increased PI3K signaling was also correlated with an aggressive phenotype of endometrial cancer [180]. Mutations in *PIK3CB* are rare in comparison with the *PIK3CA* gene, however mutations in p110 β , was also discovered in an endometrial lesion [181]. Mostly, the mRNA levels of *PIK3CB* has been reported to increase in some endometrial cancer specimens [182] and more extensively in a study from our group [183]. The aforementioned study has indeed shown an increase in *PIK3CB* mRNA levels early in cancer progression, *i.e.* from complex atypical hyperplasia to grade 1 lesions. The mRNA levels remained high in grades 2 and 3 as well as in non-endometrioid and metastatic lesions.

Because of the high number of mutations in the PI3K pathway that occur in endometrial cancers multiple inhibitors that target this pathway have been used in clinical trials including Pilaralisib (a pan PI3K inhibitor), GDC-0980 (PI3K/mTOR inhibitor) and MK-2206 (an Akt inhibitor) [184-186]. Increased sensitivity of endometrial cancer cells to chemotherapeutic drugs have been observed upon downregulation of the Akt isoforms [187]. The use of a pan PI3K inhibitor, BKM-120, on patient derived endometrial xenografts showed a decrease in tumor volume [188]. Because endometrial cancer harbor frequent *PTEN* mutations, a recent clinical trial using a selective p110 β inhibitor has been carried out on patients with advanced cancers with *PTEN* loss including 3 patients with endometrial cancer [189]. Some beneficial effects were observed due to the treatment in some patients. This study is encouraging as it demonstrates the possible therapeutic benefit of inhibiting p110 β in *PTEN*-deficient tumors and hence rationalizes further research efforts in better understanding the underlying molecular mechanism of action of p110 β .

1.3.2. PI3K and adipogenesis

Adipocytes are the main cells of the adipose tissue and store the excess fatty acids obtained from the diet as triacylglycerol (TAG) in form of lipid droplets and by doing this they have a high impact on cell metabolism [190, 191]. There are two well studied types of adipocytes; white and brown adipocytes as well as the emerging beige adipocytes. White adipocytes involved in the storage of fat and have high lipid content however the brown

adipocytes are involved in thermogenesis [191, 192]. Adipogenesis occurs in a multi-step process involving first the differentiation of mesenchymal cells to pre-adipocytes followed by several processes leading to a mature adipocyte [193, 194]. In order to accumulate the maximum amount of fat, the nucleus of adipocytes moves towards the plasma membrane while the morphology of cells are changing to a spherical shape as they become more mature adipocytes [190]. 3T3-L1 cells are mouse fibroblast cells that have the potential to differentiate into adipocytes and have been frequently used in studies of adipogenesis [195, 196]. The differentiation of the 3T3-L1 cells into adipocytes is initiated by a cocktail of insulin, dexamethasone and 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine [197].

Signaling through insulin results in the uptake of glucose and the storage of fatty acids as TAGs in adipocytes [198]. The insulin receptor (IR), which is a tyrosine kinase receptor undergoes auto phosphorylation upon insulin binding and initiates downstream signaling [199-201]. Insulin is able to regulate glucose uptake by shifting the glucose transporter GLUT4 from cytosolic vesicles to the plasma membrane [202, 203]. Inhibition of the PI3K pathway in 3T3-L1 cells prevents the translocation of GLUT4 indicating an essential role of PI3K in insulin signaling [204, 205]. The involvement of Akt in GLUT4 transfer is well established as expression of active mutant of Akt has a positive and stimulated impact on GLUT4 translocation in adipocytes whereas inhibition of Akt plays a negative role in this process [206, 207]. For the expression of specific genes that will result in the adipocyte phenotype, transcription factors are tightly regulated during adipogenesis and they come in two waves of activation. The expression of the key transcription factors in adipogenesis, PPAR γ (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ) and C/EBP α (CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein) are induced during the second wave of this cascade [208, 209].

There are several specific substrates that transfer signals from the insulin receptor and the link to the PI3K pathway downstream of IR is through the Insulin Receptor Substrate (IRS)-1 [210]. Through the SH2 domain, the regulatory subunit p85 of class I PI3K binds to IRS which subsequently initiates the production of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 [210]. Inhibition of PI3K signaling can have major effects on cells; among them is the effect on cell differentiation [211]. Inhibitor of the PI3Ks has shown to impair the differentiation of 3T3-L1 (pre-adipocytes) cells into adipocytes [212]. It has also been shown that the levels of p110 β increases during adipocyte differentiation but the expression of the p110 α does not change

[213]. In contrast, an increase in the levels of p110 α has also been reported during adipocyte differentiation [214]. Using selective inhibitors of p110 α , p110 β and p110 δ , our group and others have further shown that p110 α plays a dominant role in adipogenesis, while p110 β and p110 δ also contribute to this process [215-217]. How these three isoforms act and whether they regulate different processes in adipogenesis is still however unclear. Insulin also activates the class II PI3KC2 α in adipocytes. The increase in activity of PI3KC2 α upon insulin stimulation in 3T3-L1 adipocytes was shown to be independent of IRS-1 and the insulin receptor [218]. However, the molecular mechanisms of action of PI3KC2 α are poorly understood.

2. Aims of the study

Many cellular processes are dependent on the PI3K pathway as its members have central roles and play important functional aspects for living cells. The malfunctions in PI3K signalling can contribute to multiple different diseases. The PI3K is involved in regulating metabolism and cell growth and its hyper activation in many cancer types due to genetic alterations of components of the pathway has been reported [39, 51, 151, 219].

This pathway is orchestrated by several isoforms but our understanding of the exact contribution of each of these isoforms in the different cellular processes still lags behind. Furthermore, the complexity of this pathway increases due to the different subcellular localisations of these isoforms and their lipid products (see tables 1, 2 and 3 for summary). PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is an important second messenger in this pathway and its function has been well studied in the cytoplasm. Recent studies have mapped the class I PI3K p110 β and its product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to the nucleus but the functional role of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus is still poorly understood. In this thesis we aimed to study the significance of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β in the nucleus and how this links to cell differentiation and increase in cell proliferation (leading to cancer). This was performed by the means of the following aims:

1. To determine the levels of p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus and to define their mode of action in tumorigenesis
2. To characterize the role of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 by identifying its interacting partners in the nucleus
3. To determine the involvement of nuclear PI3Ks in adipocyte differentiation

3. Summary of results

Elevated nuclear p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ levels correlate with higher grade of endometrial cancer and increase in rRNA transcription

In a recent study, our group has shown that the p110 β , but not p110 α , protein levels were consistently elevated in endometrial cancer (EC) cells. In addition, *PIK3CB* mRNA levels were increased in grade 1 endometrioid endometrial lesions compared to complex hyperplasias [183]. While p110 α and p110 β both depict cytoplasmic localizations, p110 β is also found in the nucleoplasm and in the chromatin rich fractions [70, 113]. Moreover, our laboratory has reported for the first time the presence of p110 β and its product PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in the nucleolus in addition to the nucleoplasm [28]. In this thesis, we have shown that all EC cell lines showed an increase in nuclear p110 β levels when compared to non-tumour endometrial cells (EM). When primary endometrial tumours were immunohistochemically stained for p110 β , high nuclear to cytoplasmic ratios correlated with a higher tumour grade. In EC cells, active p-S473-Akt was also increased in the nucleus, indicating the presence of an active PI3K pathway in the nuclei of these cells. Moreover, the presence of p110 β in the nucleus correlated with elevated levels of PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in particular in PTEN-deficient EC cells. Treatment with a p110 β selective inhibitor reduced the nuclear levels of p-S473-Akt and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ suggesting that the p110 β may be responsible for the production, at least partly, of the nuclear pool of PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in these cells. Immunofluorescence staining of EC cells showed the nucleolar localization of p110 β , consistent with the previous report from our group [28]. PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ was also detected in the nucleoli of multiple EC cell lines using immunofluorescence staining. We chose the RL952 endometrial cancer cells that contain the highest levels of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ to study its chemical composition in the nucleoli. Nucleolar PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ measurements by LC-MS/MS detected the PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ (38:4) species. Ribosomal RNA transcription levels of different EC cells were measured by real-time RT-qPCR. The PTEN-deficient RL95-2 cells with very high p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ levels in nucleus/nucleolus showed an increase in the pre-rRNA transcription levels.

The identified nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ binding proteins were enriched in DNA repair and RNA processing factors

Mapping of p110 β by immunostaining and cellular fractionation showed the presence of this kinase and its lipid product PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in the nucleoplasm and strongly in nucleoli of HeLa cells. In particular, we showed that p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ appeared in the nucleolus following the exit from mitosis, as the nucleoli reformed. Importantly, the appearance of nucleolar PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ was due to the p110 β activity, as shown in murine embryonic fibroblast with WT versus kinase inactive p110 β . Considering that by binding to proteins via specific domains or motifs PPIs elicit signaling responses, we pursued to systematically identify PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ effector proteins in the nucleus. To this end, we have adapted a quantitative proteomics-based approach that our group has previously employed to identify PtdIns(4,5)P₂ nuclear interacting proteins [31]. This method uses the polybasic aminoglycoside neomycin to displace and enrich for PPI-binding nuclear proteins in combination with a lipid pull down assay. Neomycin would therefore compete for PPI-protein interaction through electrostatic forces and displace the proteins. PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ versus control beads lipid pull downs were performed from neomycin-displaced proteins collected from stable isotope labeled (¹³C/¹⁵N) and non-labeled HeLa S3 nuclei respectively. Quantitative and statistical analyses revealed the identification of a total of 219 proteins as potential PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ binders. Gene ontology analysis of these proteins showed an enrichment of multiple biological processes including the top following categories; RNA splicing, cytokinesis, mRNA processing and DNA repair. So far, we have chosen to focus on Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 1 (PARP1), one of the proteins within the DNA repair group, as it has previously been clearly detected in the nucleolus [220, 221] and to bind to NPM [220]. Among the DNA repair proteins, PARP1 was identified to co-localize with PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in nucleoli, which suggests the possible involvement of this PPI in nucleolar response to rDNA damage. Furthermore, the presence of both PARP1 and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ in the nucleoli were reorganized upon inhibition of RNA polymerase I, and no longer co-localized at the same foci. During the nucleolar rearrangement however PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ co-localized with UBF in the perinucleolar caps. p110 β was also translocated to the periphery of the nucleoli however it no longer colocalize with RNA polymerase I upon inhibition of rRNA transcription. Interestingly, preliminary data showed that the selective inhibition of p110 β induced a decrease in rRNA transcription in HeLa cells.

Nuclear PI3K pathway is involved in the differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells into adipocytes

We have previously shown that p110 α , β and δ catalytic isoforms of class I PI3K are expressed in the 3T3-L1 cells and that p110 α contributes to TAG storage to a higher degree than the p110 β and δ isoforms [215]. Here, we show that during the differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells into adipocytes, the PI3K enzymes PI3KC2 α and p110 β are found in the same sub-nuclear compartments as their lipid products PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . Immunofluorescence staining and cellular fractionations showed the presence of p110 β in the cytoplasm and the nucleoli whereas PI3KC2 α was detected in the nucleoplasm with weak detection in the cytoplasm. The PI3K-Akt pathway was found to be active in the nucleus during differentiation and p-S473-Akt was detected 30 min after inducing the differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells. Nuclear lipid extracts from different stages of the differentiation showed an increase in both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 upon insulin stimulation. PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 could also be detected in the nucleoli of stimulated 3T3-L1 cells. Potential PPI n interacting proteins were extracted by neomycin at day1 following stimulation and DNA Topoisomerase II α (Topo II α) was detected as a potential binding partner for both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and nucleolin as an effector protein of just PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 .

4. General discussion

The PI3K pathway regulates many fundamental cellular processes such as metabolism, cell survival, proliferation and growth [51, 222]. In this thesis we emphasised on the role of nuclear PI3K/Akt signalling in the context of metabolism and tumorigenesis.

An increase in lipid synthesis is required to satisfy the needs of proliferating cancer cells for producing membranes and mediating signal transduction [223]. Cells are dependent on lipids to perform many of their functions and among the many alterations that occur in cancer cells are the deregulation in lipid biosynthesis [224, 225]. Lipids are not only key structural components of membranes but are also signaling molecules themselves of which their mechanisms of regulation can be altered, hence contributing to tumorigenesis [225]. In our study, we have particularly focused on lipid signaling in the nucleus. In paper I, we show that the levels of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ are elevated in the nuclei of endometrial cancer cells. We also show that the PI3K pathway is active in the nucleus of these cells as they exhibit increased phosphorylated Akt levels, particularly in PTEN deficient endometrial cancer cells compared to non-tumour endometrial (EM) cells. This is in line with existing knowledge that in human cancers Akt is frequently activated which can block apoptosis and result in abolishing the checkpoints of the cell cycle [226]. The lipid phosphatase PTEN is one of the most mutated proteins in endometrial cancers [174] and PTEN deficiency potentially implicates higher levels of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$. Indeed, PTEN is well known to control the levels of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ particularly on plasma membranes [86, 227, 228]. PTEN is also found in the nucleus but was shown not to control the levels of the nuclear $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ pool [86, 229, 230]. The other phosphatase that uses $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ as a substrate is TPIP (TPTE and PTEN homologous inositol lipid phosphatase) but this was found to localize on the endoplasmic reticulum [231]. Instead, the nuclear pool of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ could possibly be controlled by 5-phosphatases. For example, SHIP2 was identified in the nuclear speckles and could hence regulate at least part of the nuclear pool of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ [232]. However, its nuclear substrate was suggested to be $\text{PtdIns}(4,5)P_2$ as it can be highly detected in this sub-nuclear site [232]. Furthermore, we found that p110 β is overexpressed in endometrial cancer (EC) cells. This would suggest that the levels of this kinase needs to be tightly regulated and overexpression could lead to high $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)P_3$ levels hence contributing to tumorigenesis. This kinase is indeed tumorigenic in its WT state when overexpressed [159]. Since p110 β was found with increased levels not only in the cytoplasmic but also in the

nuclear fractions of EC cells (paper I), we would suggest that the tumour-promoting properties of p110 β could be due to its action from both of the locations. At least, a previous report showed that selective inhibition of p110 β decreased cell proliferation in PTEN-negative EC cells [183] but whether the cytoplasmic, nuclear or even the combined fractions of p110 β contributes is not known at present.

We found PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and its kinase p110 β to localize to the nucleolus of different types of cell lines that we have studied, including 3T3-L1 cells (paper III), endometrial cancer cells (paper I), and HeLa cells (paper II). Importantly, we have shown that the appearance of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus of EC cells (paper I) and in the nucleolus of MEF cells (paper II) is dependent upon p110 β activity. As the increase in nuclear p110 β levels correlated with higher grade of endometrial tumours, this suggests a role for p110 β to contribute to tumour development in a nucleolar dependent manner. The nucleolus is the site of ribosome production, involving rRNA synthesis, processing and assembly with ribosomal proteins [122, 124]. Growing evidence suggests that upregulation of nucleolar functions correlate with cancer progression [233-235]. More than 50 years ago, it was discovered that the size of the nucleolus was larger in malignant tumor cells when compared to normal cells [236]. Recently a link between elevated levels of nucleolar activity and ribosome biogenesis with an increased risk of cancer development has been uncovered [237]. There is a high demand for protein synthesis in highly dividing and proliferating cancer cells and since protein synthesis is reliant on ribosomes, an increase in nucleolar activity would be required to reach these demands. We found that the transcription of rRNA is elevated in endometrial cancer cells that have the highest nuclear levels of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β . These results correlate well with a study by Drakas *et al* that suggested that a p110 isoform (potentially the β isoform) can activate rDNA transcription by interacting with and phosphorylating the transcription factor UBF [142]. This study did not however explore the lipid kinase activity of p110 (β). Our results also confirm the study in 1965 showing that phospholipids tend to occupy active chromatin rather than repressed chromatin [238]. Furthermore, our preliminary results showing a reduction in rRNA synthesis upon p110 β inhibition (paper II) adds additional support for the role of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β in rRNA transcription. The exact mechanism of action of nucleolar p110 β regulating rDNA transcription is still unknown but may be linked to the following findings. The activity of the p53 tumor suppressor protein is regulated by ribosome biogenesis [239] which is thought to be due to the inhibition of MDM2 (a p53 degrading protein) by a complex composed of

ribosomal proteins such as RPL11 and RPL5 with the 5S rRNA [240]. Therefore, an upregulation of ribosome biogenesis correlates with decreased p53 activity levels as the MDM2 inhibition increases [241]. Furthermore, NPM which is a key player in ribosome biogenesis has previously been shown to bind to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and to have an anti-apoptotic activity [88]. NPM also prevents the inhibition of MDM2 by keeping p14ARF (an antagonist of MDM2) in the nucleolus and therefore promoting p53 stability and activation [242]. NPM can be phosphorylated by Akt which prevents its effect on the nucleolar accumulation of p14ARF hence leading to opposite effect on p53 [243]. Considering that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binds NPM, this interaction could play a role in regulating NPM-mediated p14ARF nucleolar sequestration. Also, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 could also possibly activate Akt locally in the nucleolus and induce Akt-mediated phosphorylation of NPM. In line with this, Kwon *et al* have shown that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 can compete for its interaction with NPM and Akt in the nucleus [87]. It is also possible that increased nucleolar p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels in endometrial cancer cells can contribute to tumor progression by orchestrating the regulation of p53 activity by PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interaction with NPM. The tumor suppressor PTEN is also found in the nucleolus and interestingly reduction in the levels of PTEN was correlated with increased biogenesis of ribosomes [144]. PTEN deficient endometrial cancer cells can potentially have higher nucleolar PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels with less phosphatase activity and hence promote tumorigenesis.

The nucleolus is primarily known as the site where rRNA is transcribed and processed but it is also associated with major roles in other cellular processes such as cell cycle regulation [234]. During the cell cycle the transition of cells from the G1 phase to S phase is dependent on the amount of ribosome synthesis [244]. When we synchronized HeLa cells with nocodazole treatment followed by mitotic shake-off, we observed the appearance of p110 β in the nucleolus within 3 hours after replating which was about the same time as the appearance of RNA polymerase I in the nucleoli (paper II). However, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 did not appear in the nucleolus until 2 h later, perhaps due to the delayed activation of p110 β . At least, using the same method in WT and kinase inactive p110 β MEFs, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was apparent in nucleoli 4 h post-plating and was dependent on p110 β activity. We speculate that the co-appearance of RNA polymerase I and p110 β may indicate a role of this kinase in rRNA transcription, which again supports our findings that correlated rRNA transcription to increased levels of p110 β in endometrial cancer cells.

In paper II, we have shown that the nuclear interacting partners of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , are enriched to function in RNA processing and DNA repair mechanisms. Interestingly, p110 β has already been shown to sense DNA damage and to regulate DNA repair and knock down of p110 β results in the impairment of the DNA repair pathway [111]. In addition, it is also shown that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 localises to sites of DNA repair in the nucleus [111]. Our interactomics data (paper II) shows nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins have a 6 fold enrichment in DNA repair mechanisms, hence adding further support to these existing studies. Some of the DNA repair proteins identified have been previously shown to localize in the nucleolus and even shown to have dual functions with roles in ribosome biogenesis, such as APEX1 (apurinic/apyrimidinic endodeoxyribonuclease 1), NPM and PARP1 [221, 245, 246]. DNA damage response is highly important and is an active process in the early stages of cancer cells in order to detect the DNA lesions caused by the replication stress [247]. Since cancer cells are dependent on the repair of DNA breaks, many cancer drugs are targeted to the DNA damage signaling molecules such as PARP1 inhibitors [248]. PARP1 is a critical protein involved in DNA repair with the ability to bind to the DNA damage sites and promote the accumulation of DNA repair proteins on those sites [249]. The boundaries of the dense fibrillar component (DFC) and the fibrillar center of the nucleolus is where rRNA transcription occurs and the PARP protein has been shown to localize in the DFC [250]. Upon DNA damage the activation of PARP1 is dependent on DNA-dependent protein kinase (DNA-PK) to inhibit the synthesis of rRNA [251]. We have identified DNA-PK in addition to PARP1 in our list of potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins. In addition, we have determined the direct interaction of PARP1 with PPI n including PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 *in vitro* and observed a co-localization of PARP1 with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleoli by immunofluorescence staining. When rDNA is damaged, RNA polymerase I is inhibited and this causes the translocation of the rDNA to the perinucleolar heterochromatin caps where the DNA repair machinery will then accumulate to have easier access to damaged sites [252]. Similar to other research groups we show in paper II that in response to the RNA polymerase I inhibition by actinomycin D treatment, PARP1 leaves the nucleolar interior and translocates to the surrounding area [220]. However, our findings demonstrate that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 no longer co-localizes with PARP1 upon treatment and remains together with UBF where it is known to co-localize with other rRNA transcriptional machinery components in the perinucleolar caps [253]. On the other hand, the function of PARP1 in the nucleolus is not restricted to DNA repair and it impacts ribosome biogenesis as well [221]. Being highly abundant in the nucleolus, PARP1 interacts with key nucleolar proteins

such as nucleolin, NPM and fibrillarin [220, 221, 254]. In addition studies in *Drosophila* show that PARP1 generates poly(ADP-ribose) which acts as a matrix to keep the nucleolar proteins together [221]. Since NPM is known to interact with the DNA binding domain of PARP1 [220], it is possible that there is a potential crosstalk between PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and these proteins to regulate ribosome biogenesis.

Our findings demonstrate that mRNA processing and splicing factors were enriched over 12 fold in PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins which adds to findings from our lab and others that show the presence of several other PPIs and their kinases in RNA rich compartments (also referred to as ribonucleoprotein (RNP) bodies) such as nuclear speckles and the nucleoli [26-28, 255]. They are membrane-less and they are abundant in proteins and RNA [256]. While the acyl chains of PPI have been shown to be potentially shielded in ligand binding pockets of nuclear receptors [81, 82, 90] it is uncertain why and how the negatively charged PPI can reside in close proximity of negatively charged phosphate groups of RNAs. We can speculate that PPI can bind to RNA effector proteins and while their acyl chains are shielded, they perhaps compete with RNA for their interaction with the effector protein. This regulation can be assumed to be through a repelling effect to disrupt the protein-RNA interaction. On the other hand the nucleoli have been shown to have a condensed liquid phase behavior which seems to be a common characteristic of the membrane-less ribonucleoprotein rich organelles [257, 258]. Whether the presence of PPI in these organelles can drive the phase transitions and change the biophysical properties of these environments still remains to be uncovered.

The PI3K pathway is complex due to the multiplicity of its isoforms and the variety of functions that they each perform in different subcellular compartments. One of the key findings in this thesis is that the PI3K signalling is active in the nucleus of 3T3-L1 cells during differentiation into adipocytes (paper III). The levels of phosphorylated Akt and its interacting PPI; PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and PtdIns(3,4) P_2 are increased following the induction of adipocyte differentiation. Class I and II PI3K isoforms, which produce these PPI, were found to be present in the nucleus of differentiating 3T3-L1 cells. PI3KC2 α that potentially makes PtdIns(3,4) P_2 localizes to the nucleoplasm while p110 β that produces PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 localizes to the nucleolus. Consistent with our studies on HeLa cells (paper II) and EC cell lines (paper I), as well as a previous study in breast cancer cells [28], PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 localizes in the nucleolus together with p110 β in 3T3-L1 cells, albeit at low levels. Because

of seemingly low levels observed by immunofluorescence microscopy, p110 β was not detectable by Western immunoblotting of nuclear fractions under the conditions used. Immunofluorescent stainings also showed that the levels of p110 β in the nucleoplasm of differentiating 3T3-L1 cells to be low as compared to its lipid product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 where it is localised diffusely. This suggests that the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 present in the nucleoplasm may be the product of the kinase activity of another kinase, *i.e.* IPMK (Inositol polyphosphate kinase). While the nucleoleolar pool can be produced by p110 β [110]. The p110 β levels in the nucleoli of differentiating 3T3-L1 were not as high as we had observed in the endometrial cancer cell lines or HeLa cells. Even though a rapid proliferation stage occurs in the growth arrested 3T3-L1 preadipocytes upon induction of differentiation, these cells will again become growth arrested and then commit to differentiate to adipocytes [193, 259]. Therefore, differentiating 3T3-L1 cells do not require high nucleolar activity since the rate of rRNA transcription is linked to the growth status of the cell [260, 261]. Using the same approach as in paper II, *i.e.* by incubating nuclei with neomycin to enrich for and collect potential PPI α binding proteins, we have identified nucleolin and TopoII α by mass spectrometry, as neomycin-displaced proteins from nuclei obtained 24 h after inducing adipogenesis. Interestingly, inhibition of the p110 β isoform showed an increase in the levels of nucleolin and TopoII α displaced by neomycin, indicating that a pool of these proteins are no longer retained by nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , but rather by other mechanisms. Thus neomycin could then displace these proteins by competing with either other PPI α or nucleic acids that they may bind to TopoII α . Notably, nucleolin is one of the most abundant proteins in the nucleolus and it plays many different functions such as rRNA synthesis, cell cycle regulation and cell proliferation which add additional support for the importance of the presence of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus [262, 263]. Topo II α was identified to bind both PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and PtdIns(3,4) P_2 in a current project in our laboratory and since the levels of both these lipids increase upon inducing differentiation, these results support and validates our previous finding that the Topo II α levels increase in the early stages of adipogenesis in a PI3K dependent manner [215]. Although there are still uncertainties about the exact function that these kinases and PPI α play in the process of differentiation, they are novel nuclear factors that seem to be required to initiate the early stages of 3T3-L1 cell adipogenesis.

5. Conclusions

We show in this thesis that the molecular landscape of interactions that the PI3K pathway has in the nucleus is as complex as in the cytosol. The components of the PI3K pathway localize in distinct compartments of the nucleus with tendency to RNA rich bodies. Indeed in the nucleus they are contributing in the regulation of a variety of processes including differentiation and tumorigenesis. The localization of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleoli and its interaction with nucleolar proteins such as NPM and PARP1 suggests that this signaling lipid is involved in regulating nucleolar activity. Since we find p110 β localizing with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus we conclude that this lipid is locally produced in the nucleolar compartment. The nuclear/nucleolar levels of both p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 are high in cancer cells which demand higher levels of ribosome biogenesis in contrast to differentiating cells that require less. All together the results from this thesis provide evidence for novel nuclear functions for members of the PI3K pathway and suggest that nucleolar p110 β /PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 may be central in sensing the different metabolic requirements upon differentiation and proliferation.

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Nuclear upregulation of PI3K p110 β correlates with increased rRNA transcription in endometrial cancer cells

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Abstract

Endometrial cancer (EC) is often cured by surgery but tumours recur unpredictably in about 20% of cases and have poor response to current treatments and targeted therapeutics are not available for routine clinical use. Genes encoding for components of the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) signalling pathway are frequently mutated in EC, including inactivating mutations of *PTEN* and activating mutations of *PIK3CA*. These genetic alterations do not however account for all tumours and other alterations in other genes of the pathway could contribute. Analysing cell lines and annotated clinical samples, we have previously found that p110 β (encoded by *PIK3CB*) is highly expressed in cancer cells and that *PIK3CB* mRNA levels increase early in tumourigenesis. Selective inhibition of PI3K p110 α and p110 β led to different effects on cell signalling and cell function, p110 α activity being correlated to cell survival in *PIK3CA* mutant cells and p110 β with cell proliferation in *PTEN*-deficient cells. To understand the mechanisms governing the differential roles of these isoforms, we assessed their sub-cellular localisation. p110 α was cytoplasmic whereas p110 β was both cytoplasmic and nuclear with increased levels in both compartments in cancer cells. Immunohistochemistry of p110 β in clinically annotated patient tumour sections revealed cytoplasmic staining in intact endometrial glands in low grade tumours and nuclear staining in higher grades. Consistent with this, the presence of high levels of p110 β in the nuclei of EC cells, correlated with high levels of its product phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate (PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3) in the nucleus. In addition, we observed that p110 β and its lipid product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 were localised in the nucleoli of EC cell lines. *PTEN*-deficient EC cells with the highest amount of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β showed elevated nucleolar activity as assessed by the increase in the pre-rRNA transcriptional levels. Altogether these results present a nucleolar role for the PI3K pathway that may contribute to tumour progression in endometrial cancers.

Introduction

The phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) signalling pathway is frequently hyperactivated in cancer, often due to genetic or epigenetic alterations in several gene members of the pathway (1-3). Class I PI3Ks consist of heterodimers of catalytic subunits (p110 α , β , δ or γ) and adaptor proteins (p85 α and its variants, p85 β or p55 γ) (4) and phosphorylate the 3'-hydroxyl group of the phospholipid phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate (PtdIns(4,5) P_2) to generate phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate (PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3). PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binds to effector proteins including the serine/threonine kinases AKT/Protein Kinase B (PKB), 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase 1 (PDK1) and SIN1 via their phosphoinositide-binding plextrin homology (PH) domain (5-7). AKT is further activated by phosphorylation on Thr308 and Ser473 by PDK1 and mammalian target of rapamycin complex 2 (mTORC2) respectively (8). Activated AKT can act at different intracellular sites, where it phosphorylates a myriad of substrates that regulate cell survival, cell proliferation and growth as well as metabolism (9). The production of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is regulated by phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10 (PTEN), a lipid phosphatase which dephosphorylates PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 back to PtdIns(4,5) P_2 , thereby opposing PI3K-mediated signalling and hence limiting the potential cancer-promoting effects of class I PI3K activity (10).

p110 α and p110 β are ubiquitously expressed, share the same enzymatic properties and generate the same lipid product, and initiate the same signalling cascade. Despite these shared features, the two isoforms are both essential for development as individual knockout mice are embryonically lethal, hence suggesting non-redundant functions (11, 12). Moreover, their mode of activation is distinct, with p110 α carrying out most of receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK)-mediated PI3K signalling and p110 β being regulated by G-protein coupled receptors (GPCR) (3, 13-15) through different adaptor proteins (16). In cancer, the oncogenic properties of p110 α are due to activating mutations of its gene *PIK3CA* (17). In contrast, *PIK3CB*, the gene encoding p110 β , is rarely mutated in cancer, with only two reports so far describing activating mutations (18, 19). *PIK3CB* was however shown to be the key isoform mediating tumorigenesis in PTEN-deficient tumours in particular in breast, prostate and ovarian cancer cells (20-24), possibly due to its ability to promote oncogenic transformation in its wild type state (25). Furthermore, the importance of p110 β in tumorigenesis was recently highlighted in a study by Juric *et al* (26). This study showed that *PIK3CA* mutant breast cancer cells which were initially sensitive to p110 α specific inhibition eventually developed resistance with

acquired loss of PTEN in metastatic lesions. These cells could however reverse the resistance when p110 β inhibition was combined. Regarding their functions, a few studies have reported that the two isoforms can contribute differently to cell survival and proliferation, with p110 α playing more of a role in cell survival and p110 β in cell cycle progression and DNA replication (27-29). Another distinguishing feature about these two isoforms is their sub-cellular localisation. Although p110 α and β are both found in the cytoplasm and share/compete for similar upstream receptor activation and downstream signalling cascades, p110 β is also found in the nucleoplasm and in the chromatin fraction (29, 30). Moreover, we have recently reported the presence of p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus (31).

The PI3K pathway is the signalling pathway most frequently altered in endometrial cancer (EC) with more than 80% of tumours harbouring somatic alteration in at least one gene component of the pathway, including high frequency mutations in *PTEN*, *PIK3CA* and *PIK3RI* (encoding p85 α) and low frequency in *Akt* and *PIK3R2* (encoding p85 β) (32, 33). Loss of function of the tumour suppressor gene *PTEN*, due to loss of heterozygosity or somatic mutations is the most common event in Endometrioid EC (EEC) and occurs early in 18-48% of lesions with atypical hyperplasia (34, 35). *PIK3CA*, the gene encoding the catalytic p110 α subunit of class I PI3K, is frequently mutated in 10-39% of EEC but in contrast to *PTEN* has a low frequency in early lesions and a high frequency in aggressive, invasive less differentiated tumours (35, 36). In addition, mutations in *PTEN* were found to co-exist with those of *PIK3CA* or *PIK3RI*, thereby leading to enhanced activation of the PI3K pathway (36-39). *PIK3CA* gene amplification can also account for other mechanisms for PI3K pathway activation and was found to correlate with a PI3K activation profile, segregated more frequently to aggressive and invasive tumours whereas point mutations segregated to non-aggressive (40) or to lower grade tumours (36). In contrast to *PIK3CA*, mutation events are rare in *PIK3CB* with 2.2% in EC according to data from COSMIC release v80 –Feb 2017 ((41) <http://cancer.sanger.ac.uk/cosmic>), including a recently characterized oncogenic mutation in its catalytic domain (19). *PIK3CB* mRNA levels were found to be elevated in endometrial tumours compared to normal tissue in a few patient samples (42). In a recent study, we have shown that the p110 β protein levels are elevated in EC cell lines and that mRNA levels are increased in grade 1 endometrioid endometrial lesions compared to complex hyperplasias (43). We have recently reported the presence of p110 β and of its product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus of the breast cancer cell line AU565 (31). In this study, we showed an increase in the nuclear levels of both p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in EC cells. We further showed that high p110 β levels correlated with high rRNA transcription which suggests

the involvement of this kinase and its lipid product $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)\text{P}_3$ in increased nucleolar activity in cancer.

Results

p110 β is cytoplasmic and nuclear in endometrial cancer cell lines and patient tumours

Previous studies have shown that p110 α and p110 β are differently localized and that this may contribute to the variable function of both catalytic subunits (29-31). We determined the subcellular localization of catalytic isoforms, as well as the two regulatory subunits p85 α and p85 β , in EM and endometrial cancer cells by Western immunoblotting. As shown in Figure 1A, p110 α concentrated to the cytoplasmic fraction in all cell lines. p110 β expression was low in EM cells detected mostly in the cytoplasmic fraction and with very low levels in nuclear fractions. All cancer cell lines had higher levels of p110 β in the cytoplasmic fraction than EM cells. In the nuclear fractions, all cancer cell lines demonstrated high p110 β levels except for EFE-184 cells. In the majority of cell lines p85 α was restricted to the cytoplasmic fraction. In contrast, p85 β was mostly undetectable in the cytoplasmic fraction in all cells except for MFE-280 cells, but was concentrated to the nuclear fraction, with high levels in EM, KLE, EFE-184 and MFE-280 cells and lower levels in the remaining cells (Figure 1A). When detected by immunostaining, p110 β was localized in the cytoplasm as well as in nucleoli together with the nucleolar protein nucleophosmin (Figure 1B). The localisation of p110 β in the nucleoplasm varied amongst cell lines. To determine if the localization pattern of p110 β could also be observed in human tissues, we examined a patient cohort including 727 primary endometrial tumours by immunohistochemistry. While most patients showed p110 β cytoplasmic detection with various degrees of intensity, 23% of all cases showed nuclear staining (Fig. 2A). In addition, a significant correlation was observed between high nuclear to cytoplasmic localisation-intensity ratio for p110 β and high grade or histological type II endometrial tumour (Figure 2B).

The levels of $\text{PtdIns}(3,4,5)\text{P}_3$ are increased in nuclei of EC cells in a p110 β -dependent manner

We next determined if the presence of p110 β in the nucleus correlates with nuclear PI3K pathway activity by first assessing the presence of active p-S473-AKT. As shown in Figure 3A, the cytoplasmic and nuclear levels of p-S473-Akt were low in EM, KLE, EFE-184 and MFE-280 cells, while high levels were observed in MFE-296, MFE-319, RL95-2 and

Ishikawa cells, consistent with our previous study using total cell extracts in the same cells (43). Interestingly, high nuclear p-S473-Akt levels were inversely correlated with low levels of p85 β (Figure 1A). Furthermore, we determined the nuclear level of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 of all cells examined following nuclear isolation, lipid extraction, and detection with GST-GRP1-PH, a PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 specific probe (Figure 3B). The purity of the fractionation was verified by Western immunoblotting using markers for the cytoplasm, nucleus and endoplasmic reticulum (Supplementary Figure S1). PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels were high in most cancer cells and highest in RL95-2 cells compared to EM cells (Figure 3C). To test if p110 β is responsible for the synthesis of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 when PTEN is lost, we treated the PTEN-deficient cell line RL95-2 with TGX-221, a p110 β selective inhibitor. Treatment for 3 days reduced the levels of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (Figure 3D) and nuclear p-S473-Akt (Figure 3E). However, the levels of total Akt were increased in the cytosol while it was decreased in the nucleus following p110 β inhibition. The decrease in nuclear p-Akt may hence be due to loss of translocation of active pAkt from the cytoplasm.

High nucleolar p110 β levels correlates with high rRNA transcription

Using immunofluorescence microscopy, we show that p110 β is found together with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 both in the nucleoplasmic and nucleolar compartments of RL95-2 (Figure 4A) and MFE-319 cells (Supplementary Figure S2). Furthermore, AKT was found to associate with the nucleolar pool of p110 β and its active p-S473 form with the nucleolar protein nucleophosmin as discrete foci (Supplementary Figure S3). Nucleolar fractionation of RL95-2 cells confirmed the presence of p110 β in the same compartments (Figure 4B). Tubulin, fibrillarin and lamin A/C were used as cytoplasmic, nuclear and nucleolar markers, respectively to validate the fractionation procedure. Lamin A/C was found in both the nucleoplasmic and nucleolar compartments as previously reported (44). In order to characterize the molecular composition of the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 species present in the nucleus, we performed targeted LC-MS/MS on the lipid extracted from different subcellular fractions of RL95-2 cells, which harbour the high nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels. In particular, the species PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (38:4) was detected in the nucleolar fraction (Supplementary Table S1). Interestingly, the same PtdIns(4,5) P_2 (38:4) molecular species was also detected in the same fraction and can be hence thought as a possible substrate for p110 β in the nucleolus.

The main function of the nucleolus is to synthesise ribosomes which involves rRNA transcription and processing (45). Elevated levels of nucleolar activity have been correlated to an increased risk of cancer development (46). We next examined whether EC cells with high

levels of p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus had high level of rRNA transcription. Consistently, RL95-2 cells, showed the highest level of pre-rRNA synthesis when compared to EM cells (Figure 4C). Surprisingly, MFE 319 cells showed very little difference in transcription.

Discussion

Cellular compartmentalisation provides an additional important mode of regulation for signalling cascades in order to achieve specificity and to precisely coordinate cellular outputs. The PI3K pathway has been extensively studied from a cytoplasmic perspective. However, a few studies have detailed the distinct intracellular localisation of PI3K enzymes. For example, p110 α is found to be restricted to the cytoplasm while p110 β is present both in the cytoplasm and the nucleus, in particular in the nucleoplasm, the chromatin fraction and the nucleolus (29-31). The compartmentalisation of these enzymes is likely to impact on signalling networks and to mediate different cell functions, hence accounting for the pleiotropic effects attributed to PI3K signalling. Although the PI3K signalling pathway is pivotal in cancer, the impact of the subcellular localisation of PI3K in processes attributed to tumourigenesis is still poorly understood. Our findings demonstrate that p110 α and p110 β are differently compartmentalised in EC cells. Consistent with previous studies (29, 30), p110 α is cytoplasmic and p110 β nuclear. p110 α and p110 β isoforms may hence share some of the functions attributed to PI3K signalling operating in the cytoplasm, perhaps due to their recently reported cross-activation (47). In addition, the presence of genetic mutations affecting *PIK3CA* or *PTEN* would influence PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -mediated downstream functions induced by p110 α and p110 β respectively in this compartment. Furthermore, we found that the levels of p110 β is high in the nucleus of EC cell lines compared to EM cells. In clinically annotated tumour samples, we show a correlation between the nuclear p110 β levels and an increase in endometrial cancer progression as tumours with higher grade histology presented high p110 β nuclear to cytoplasmic ratio. These results would indicate the importance of the regulation of the levels of this isoform. Indeed, the overexpression of p110 β has previously been shown to lead to cell transformation in its wild type state (48). Furthermore, our studies demonstrate that EC cells, not only have high nuclear levels of p110 β , but also elevated levels of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , its lipid product as well as the active form of the oncoprotein AKT, p-S473-Akt, the critical signalling effector of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . Here, we demonstrate that upon p110 β inhibition, the levels of the active form of Akt, p-S473-Akt, were decreased in EC

nuclei. The nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels were also reduced in these cells following p110 β inhibition, which suggests that the nuclear pool of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is, at least partly, the product of the kinase activity of p110 β . The existence of a molecular link within the nucleus between PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and Akt is however not clear from this study. Additional mechanisms of regulation required for the activation of Akt were not explored in this study. These would include the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -dependent activation of PDK1 and mTORC2, known to be critical for the phosphorylation and full activation of Akt (6, 7).

A clear relationship between elevated nucleolar activity and increased risk of cancer has been shown (46). Thus, nucleolar processes need to be tightly regulated with high fidelity to ensure appropriate cell growth and proliferation in response to external signals. One potential molecular link regulating these processes is the PI3K pathway. A few studies have shown that the transcription and processing of the pre rRNA is stimulated in a PI3K and mTOR-dependent manner (49-51). In addition, the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 effector protein nucleophosmin (52) as well mTORC1 are known to also localize to the nucleolus, where they can regulate nucleolar function (51, 53-55). Nuclear Akt has also been shown to regulate rRNA transcription by activating the TIF-I transcription factor (56). How PI3K, Akt and mTOR are activated in a nucleolar context is however not known. Moreover, the responsible PI3K isoform was not identified in those studies. In this study, we showed that both PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β were localised in the nucleolar compartment, raising the possibility of p110 β acting as a regulator of nucleolar functions in a kinase-dependent manner. The detection of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus was further confirmed by LC-MS/MS analyses in the form of 38:4 (carbons:double bonds) for its acyl chains, which is consistent with the reported most common chemical form of fatty acyl chains for polyphosphoinositides (PPI_n) (57). We could not identify PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the cytoplasmic and nucleoplasmic fractions by LC-MS/MS, which may be due to the high amount of protein present in these fractions. PPI_n and in particular PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 are minor components, which could potentially get lost in the protein interphase during extractions. Immunofluorescent staining indicated also of the presence of both total Akt and phosphorylated Akt in nucleoli, which can suggest a local activation of this protein by PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 present in nucleoli. Again, this would need to be explored further.

Our findings demonstrate that the RL95-2 endometrial cancer cells, high in nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β levels, have significantly increased pre-rRNA transcription. The proliferation of these cells was shown to be at least partly dependent upon the activity of p110 β (43). It would therefore be sensible to speculate that an increase in ribosome

production will help increase cell proliferation and subsequently cancer progression. Nucleolar p110 β would hence provide a mode of regulation of ribosome synthesis necessary for protein synthesis and ultimately cell division. p110 β can therefore potentially increase tumour progression in EC cells by producing the nucleolar pool of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and thereby increasing the biogenesis of ribosomes required for tumour growth. However, the exact molecular mechanisms by which PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 or p110 β can influence nucleolar function remains to be further explored.

Materials and methods

Reagents

Antibodies used in Western immunoblotting and immunostaining are listed in Supplementary table S2.

Patient series

Tissue was collected from patients diagnosed with endometrial cancer at Haukeland University hospital during the period from 2001-2013 and included a total of 234 clinical samples with 18 endometrial cancer precursor lesions (complex atypical hyperplasias, CAH), 174 primary tumours and 42 metastases. Clinical data were collected as described earlier (58, 59). The patient cohort used for p110 β immunohistochemistry is described in detail in Tangen *et al* (59). This study was conducted in line with Norwegian legislation and international demands for ethical review, approved by the Norwegian Data Inspectorate, Norwegian Social Sciences Data Services and the Western Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics (NSD15501; REK 052.01). Patients signed an informed consent.

Cell lines and cell culture conditions

Cancer cell lines were obtained from ATCC (KLE, RL95-2), DSMZ Germany (MFE-296, MFE-319, EFE-184 and MFE-280) and Sigma-Aldrich (Ishikawa). EM-E6/E7-hTERT (EM), a non-transformed endometrial cell line isolated from glandular endometrial tissue and immortalized with E6/E7 and human TERT (60, 61), was a gift from Professor PM Pollock (University of Queensland, Australia). All cells were authenticated by short tandem repeat DNA profiling (IdentiCell Service, Dept. Molecular Medicine, Aarhus University Hospital, Denmark for all cancer cell lines and MD Anderson Cancer Center, USA for EM cells), as previously described (43). All cancer cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's

medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and antibiotics (100 IU/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin). EM cells were cultured in DMEM/Ham's F12 supplemented with Insulin-Transferrin-Selenium, 10% FBS and antibiotics and changed to DMEM containing 10% FBS and antibiotics 24 h before harvest. Cells were harvested when they reached a maximum of 80% confluence.

Whole cell extracts, subcellular fractionation and Western immunoblotting

Whole cell extracts were prepared in radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) lysis buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.5% deoxycholic acid, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40, 0.1% SDS) supplemented with 5 mM NaF, 2 mM Na₃VO₄ and 1x Sigma Protease Inhibitor Cocktail. Nuclear fractionation was carried out according to O'Carroll et al. (62) and nuclear pellets were lysed in RIPA buffer. RL95-2 cells required an additional syringing step of the nuclear pellet resuspended in wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 and 2 mM MgCl₂) to avoid cytoplasmic contamination. The nucleoli were isolated according to the protocols described in Lam *et al* 2006 (63). In brief cells were grown in 10 large 15cm dishes up to 70% confluency. Fresh medium was added to the cells 1 hour prior to the fractionation. Cells were trypsinized and washed 3 x with cold PBS. The cell pellet was collected by centrifugation and re-suspended in 5ml of buffer A containing 10 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 0.5mM DDT, 1 % Igepal and protease inhibitor cocktail. After 5 min of incubation on ice the cells were syringed by passed through a 23-gauge needle 16 times. After centrifugation at 218x g for 5 min at 4°C the supernatant was collected as the cytosolic fraction and the nuclear pellet was re-suspended in 3 ml of buffer S1 (0.25 M sucrose, 10 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail). The suspension was layered over 3ml of buffer S2 (0.35 M sucrose, 0.5 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail) and centrifugation was performed at 1430 x g for 5 min at 4°C. The pellet was then re-suspended in 3 ml of S2 before sonicating (7 times: 10 sec on/10sec off) on ice. The lysate was then layered over 3 ml of S3 (0.88 M Sucrose, 0.5 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail) and centrifugation was performed at 3000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. The top layer was collected as the nucleoplasmic fraction and the pellet which contained the nucleoli was washed once with 500µl of S2. Equal amount of proteins (40-50 µg) were resolved by SDS-PAGE, immunoblotted as described previously (64) and detected by enhanced chemiluminescence using the SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce) and visualized with a BioRad ChemiDoc™ Xrs+. See table S3 for antibodies and dilutions.

RNA extraction

After pelleting the cells were washed two times with PBS and resuspended in 1ml TriReagent (Sigma) and incubated at room temperature for 5 min. 200µl of chloroform was added and mixed vigorously before incubating at room temperature for 1 min and centrifuging (at 12000 x g and 4°C) for 15 min. Phenol -chloroform-isoamyl alcohol mixture (Sigma) was added (500µl) to the upper phase and after mixing was incubated at room temperature for 2 min before centrifuging (at 12000 x g and 4°C) for 10 min. To the upper phase chloroform (500µl) was added and after mixing and incubating at room temperature for 1 min it was centrifuged (at 12000 x g and 4°C) for 10 min. 20 µg of RNA grade glycogen (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 500 µl isopropanol was added to the upper phase and after mixing well it was incubated at room temperature for 20 min before centrifuging (at 13000 x g and 4°C) for 20 min. The pellet was resuspended in 1 ml of ice cold ethanol (70%) and centrifuged (at 8000 x g and 4°C) for 5 min. The extracted RNA was dissolved in water for RT-qPCR analysis.

RT-qPCR

From total RNA extracts of RL952, MFE319 and EM cells 1µgr was used to make cDNA with random primers according to the protocol from the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher scientific). Real-time PCR was performed on Roche Light Cycler 480 using PowerUp SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher scientific). Primers used for the target pre-rRNA gene (5' external transcribed spacer region) were: 5'-GAACGGTGGTGTGTCGTTTC-3' and 5'-GCGTCTCGTCTCGTCTCACT-3' (65) and for the RPS12 gene (as reference gene) were: 5'-ATTCAGCTTCACCCGTAACC-3' and 5'-CAACCACTTTACGGGGATTC-3' (66).

Lipid Extraction from nuclear fractions

Following cell fractionation, the nuclear pellets were resuspended in nuclear resuspension buffer (10 mM Tris pH 7,4, 1 mM EGTA, 1,5 mM KCL, 5mM MgCL₂, 320 mM sucrose) and counted. Lipids were extracted from each nuclear fraction using a method adapted from Grey *et al* (67). Nuclei were incubated in 1 mL MeOH/CHCl₃ 2:1 to extract neutral lipids for 10 min at room temperature with shaking at 1200 rpm and vortexed 3-4 times. The samples were centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min at 4 °C and supernatants were discarded and the same procedure was repeated. The acidic lipids were then extracted with 750 µL MeOH/CHCl₃/0.1 M HCl 80:40:1 2:1:0.8 and incubated for 15 min at room temperature and vortexed 4 times during the incubation followed by centrifugation at 3000 g for 5 min at 4 °C. The pellets were

resuspended with 250 μL CHCl_3 and 450 μL 0.1 M HCl and centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min at 4 °C and a phase split between the organic and aqueous phases was apparent. The organic phase (bottom phase) was collected in conical glass tubes and dried at 60°C under N_2 gas. Lipids were resuspended with 4-6 μL of $\text{MeOH/CHCl}_3/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 2:1:0.8, vortexed for 30 seconds before being sonicated in an ice bath for 5 min and vortexed again for 30 seconds. Proteins were recovered from lipid extraction and the protein concentration was estimated for validation of the fractionation by western blotting.

Lipid Overlay Assay

Lipids obtained from lipid extraction were spotted on HybondTM-CEXtra membranes, 2 μL at a time. The membranes were left to dry for 1 hour at room temperature protected from light. The membranes were next blocked for 1 h at room temperature with the appropriate blocking buffer (1% fat-free milk in PBS pH 7.4) and further incubated with 0.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ GST-GRP1-PH in the same buffer overnight at 4°C and protected from light. GST-GRP1-PH was expressed and purified as described previously (68). The membranes were washed 6 x 5 min in PBS-T (0.05% Tween 20) and then incubated with anti-GST conjugated to HRP (1:30 000) in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. The blots were washed 6 x 5 min with PBS-T. The signal was detected by ECL using the SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate or with SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Thermo Fisher scientific) and detected with a BioRad ChemiDocTM Xrs+. Lipid spot densitometry was quantified using ImageJ.

Immunostaining, immunohistochemistry and microscopy

Cells grown on coverslips were fixed with 3.7% paraformaldehyde/PBS for 10 min, washed thrice with PBS, permeabilised with 0.25% Triton X-100/PBS for 10 min, blocked for 1 h with blocking buffer (3% BSA in 0.05% Triton X-100/PBS) and incubated with primary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer overnight at 4°C and subsequently with fluorescently-labelled secondary antibodies diluted in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. Washes were performed with 0.05% Tween-20/PBS after antibody incubation. The coverslips were mounted in ProLong Gold Antifade Reagent containing 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI). Images were acquired with a Leica DMI6000B fluorescence microscope using x40 or x100 objectives or Leica TCS SP5 confocal laser scanning microscope using a 63x/1.4 oil immersion lens. Images were processed with a Leica application suite V 4.0. TMA sections from a cohort including 727 patients were stained and scored for p110 β expression following

a protocol previously described (59). Briefly, three cylinders of 0.6 mm were retrieved from high tumour purity areas using a custom-made precision instrument (Beecher Instruments, Silver Spring, MD, USA) and mounted in a paraffin block. TMA sections (5 μ m) were stained for p110 β expression and scored visually by light microscopy by 2 independent observers (CK and ILT). Scoring was performed blinded for information regarding clinical characteristics and outcome. A semi quantitative and subjective scoring method was used, and a staining index was calculated as a product of staining intensity (0-3) and area of positive tumour cells (1 \leq 10%, 2=10-50% and 3 \geq 50%).

Acknowledgments

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Figure legends

Figure 1: p110 α and p110 β demonstrate different subcellular compartmentalisation

(A) Actively growing cells were fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. Equal protein concentrations were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analysed by Western immunoblotting using the antibodies as indicated. (B) Co-immunostaining of p110 β and nucleophosmin in actively growing KLE, MFE-319 and RL95-2 cells and imaged by epifluorescence microscopy. Scale bar 10 μ m (x100).

Figure 2: High nuclear levels of p110 β are more prevalent in high grade and type II endometrial tumours

(A) Representative histochemistry images of cytoplasmic and nuclear p110 β staining in primary endometrial tumours detected with anti-p110 β . (B) Quantitative graphs of nuclear (N) to cytoplasmic (C) ratio measured following p110 β histochemistry of 728 patient histology samples. G represents the grade of the tumour.

Figure 3: Nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels are elevated in endometrial cancer cells

(A) Actively growing cells were fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. Equal protein concentrations were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analysed by Western immunoblotting using the antibodies as indicated. (B) PIP array spotted with 1.56 to 100 picoM of each of the seven PPIIn species incubated with GST-GRP1-PH and an anti-GST-HRP conjugated antibody. (C) PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (PIP3) detection from nuclear acidic lipids extracted from actively growing cells, by overlay assay with GST-GRP1-PH domain and anti-GST-HRP conjugated antibody (upper panel). PIP3 signal/mg nuclear protein were calculated and expressed as folds compared to EM values (lower panel–graph. n=3, * p<0.05 t-test). (D) PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (PIP3) detection by overlay assay with GST-GRP1-PH domain and anti-GST-HRP conjugated antibody from nuclear acidic lipids extracted from RL95-2 cells treated with or without 10 μ M TGX-221 for three days. (E) Western immunoblotting of cytoplasmic (cyt) and nuclear (nuc) fractions from RL95-2 cells treated with or without 10 μ M TGX-221 for three days.

Figure 4: Pre-rRNA expression is increased in RL95-2 cells with high nuclear levels of p110 β .

(A) Confocal microscopy of actively growing RL95-2 cells co-stained with the indicated antibodies (Scale bar 5 μ m). (B) Sub-cellular fractionation of RL95-2 cells showing the nucleolar presence of p110 β (C) Relative pre-rRNA expression to RPS12 gene in RL95-2, MFE 319 and EM cells is shown in the graph. The expressions of all samples were normalized to EM cells.

Figure 1

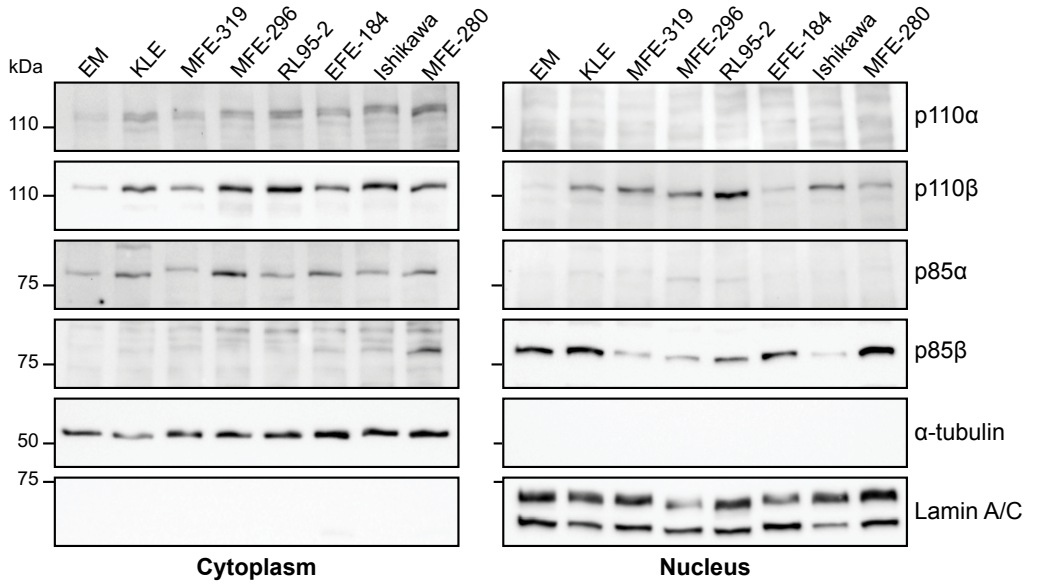
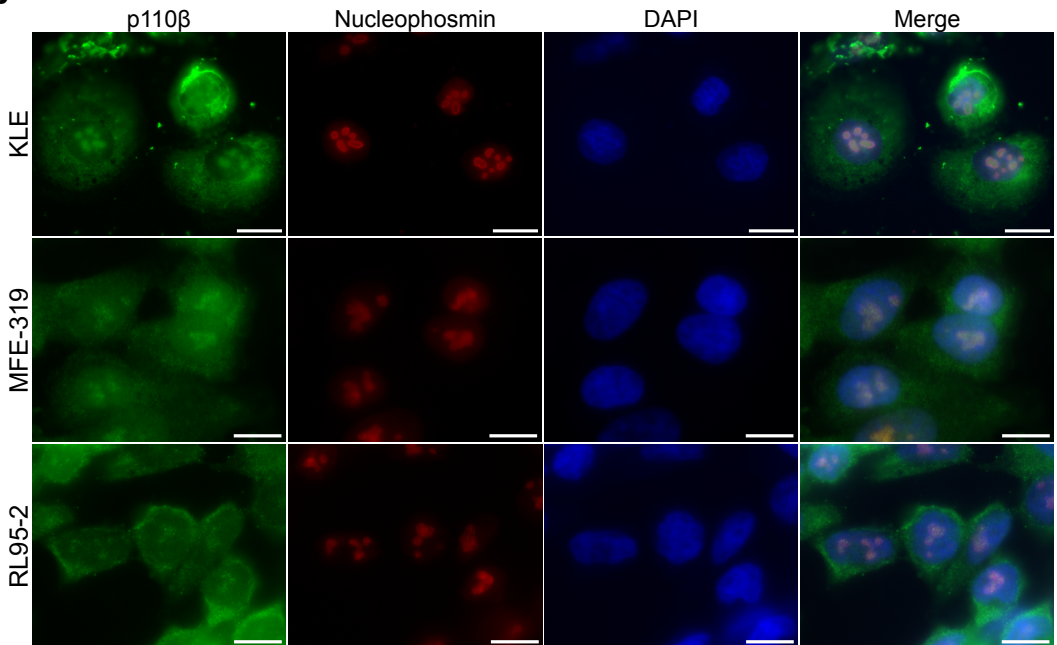
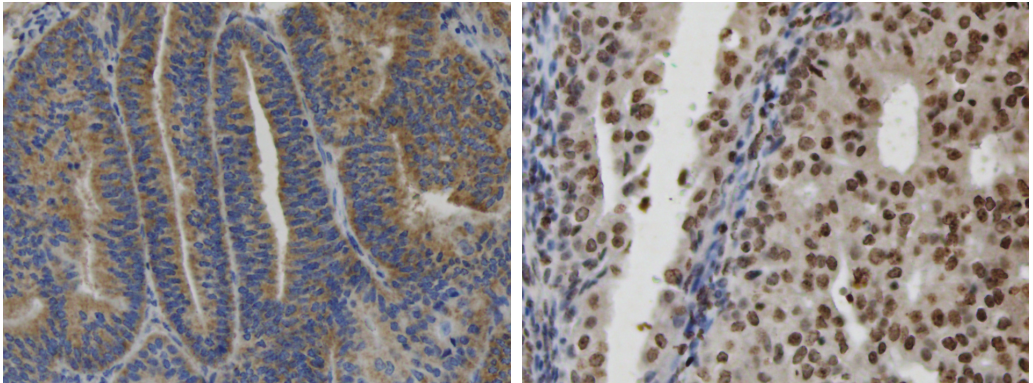
A**B**

Figure 2

A



B

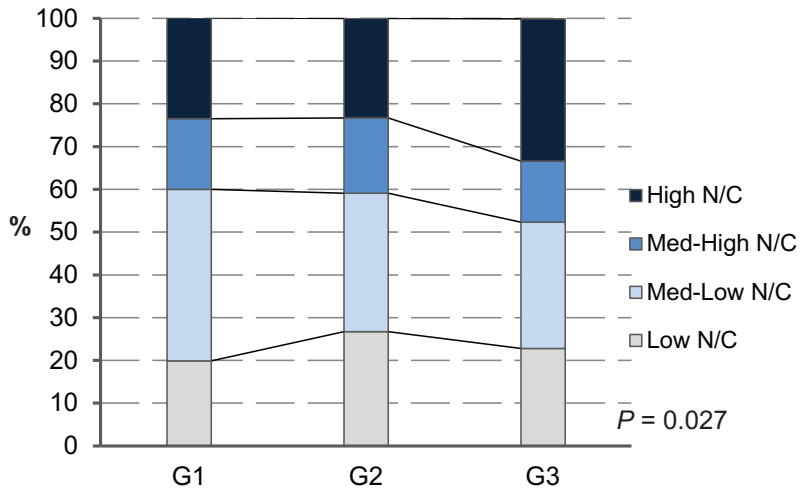
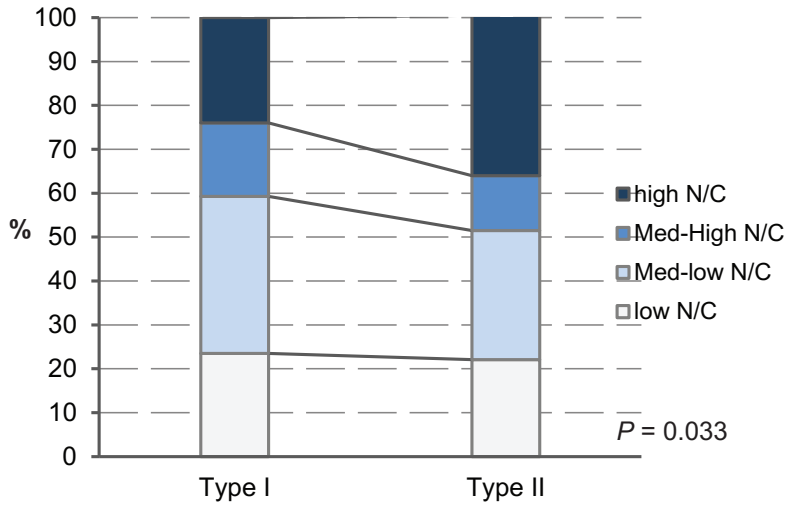
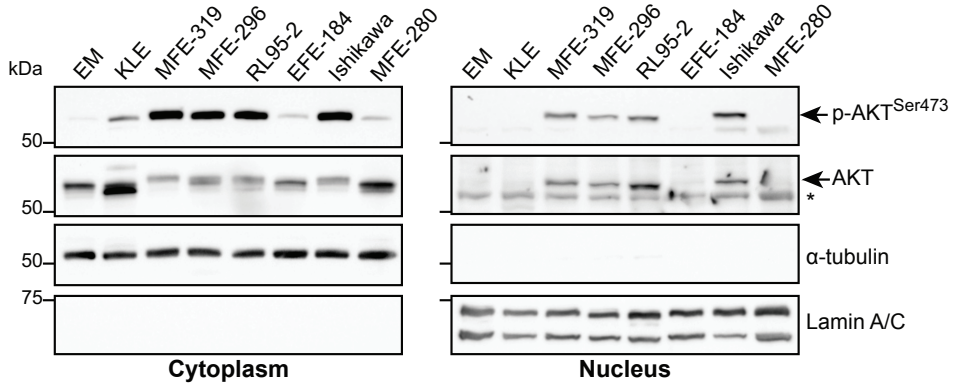
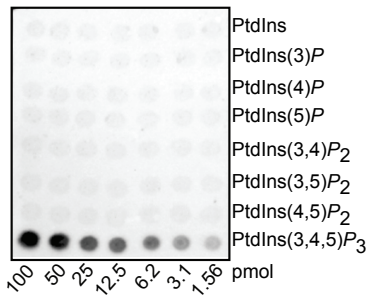


Figure 3

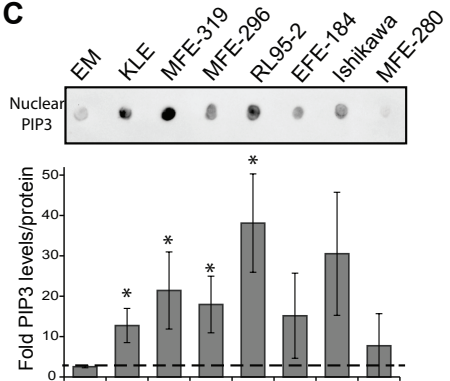
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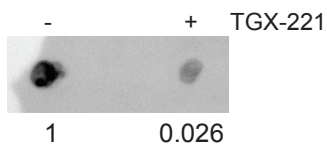
B



C



D



E

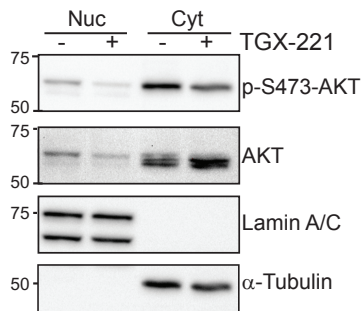
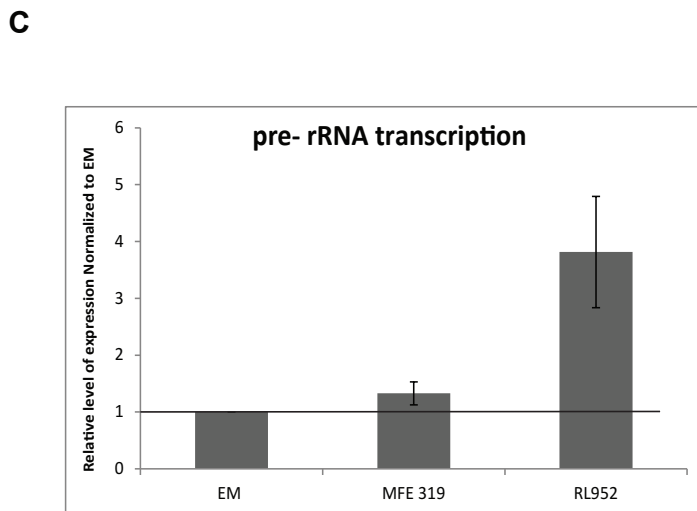
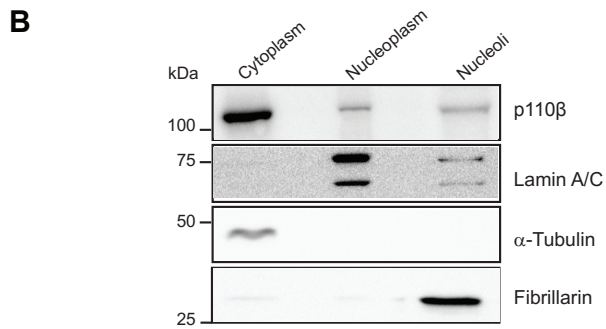
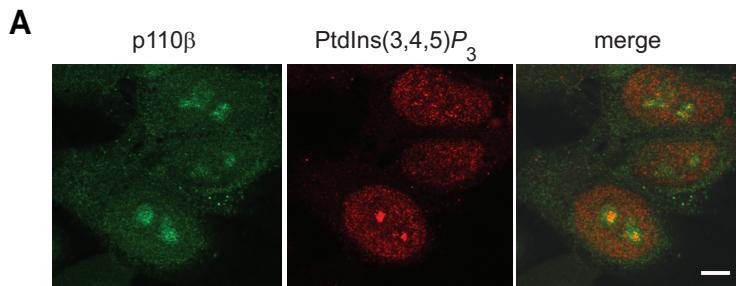


Figure 4



Supplementary material

Nuclear upregulation of PI3K p110 β correlates with increased rRNA transcription in endometrial cancer cells

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Supplementary methods

LC-MS and lipid extraction from cytoplasmic, nuclear and nucleolar fractions

Cytoplasmic, nuclear and nucleolar fractions were isolated from RL95-2 cells. Prior to lipid extraction, the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions were pelleted at 48 000 g for 1 hour in a TLI 100.2 rotor. The lipid extraction procedure described in Clark & al. (2011) was followed. Extraction: Fractionated pellets were resuspended in 170 μ L H₂O, sonicated with rod for 5 sec and transferred to 2 mL Eppendorf-tubes. The original tubes were rinsed with 750 μ L of quench mix (MeOH:CHCl₃:HCl 484:242:23.55 by volume) and then added to the 2 mL-tubes. The tubes were shaken by hand 3 times for 10 sec and sonicated in ultrabath for 30 sec. Subsequently 20 ng of each internal standard (PIP/PIP₂ and PIP₃) was added to each tube, and a blank tube with only internal standard was also prepared. The tubes were again shaken by hand for 3 times for 10 sec, and let to stand for 5 min. To each tube was added 725 μ L CHCl₃ and 170 μ L 2 M HCl. The tubes were shaken by hand 3 times for 10 sec, and centrifuged at 1500 g for 5 min. The lower phases were transferred to new 2 mL tubes, and 708 μ L pre derivatization mix (MeOH:CHCl₃:HCl 12:24:9 by volume) was added. The tubes were shaken by hand 2 times for 10 sec, and centrifuged at 1500 g for 3 min. The upper phases (most of it) were removed and discarded, and the lower phases were carefully transferred to new 2 mL tubes. To each tube 50 μ L TMS-diazomethane was added. The tubes were let to stand for 10 min, and then 6 μ L concentrated acetic acid was added. 700 μ L post derivatization mix (MeOH:CHCl₃:H₂O 12:24:9 by volume) was added, and the tubes were shaken by hand 2 times for 10 sec, and centrifuged at 1500 g for 3 min. The lower phases were transferred to new 2 mL tubes, and 700 μ L post derivatization mix was added. The tubes were shaken by hand 2 times for 10 sec, and centrifuged at 1500 g for 3 min. Now the lower phases were transferred to glass tubes, and 100 μ L methanol: H₂O (9:1) was added, and the tubes were vortexed and gently concentrated under nitrogen-flow to about 10 μ L left. Then 80 μ L MeOH was added to each tube, and they were sonicated in ultrabath for 30 sec and transferred to MS-sample vials and after evaporation with nitrogen gas they were stored in the glass tubes at -20 °C. LC-MS: An Agilent triple quad MS (model 6460) was used directly connected to an Agilent HPLC system. PIP/PIP₂ and PIP₃ samples (in 80:20 MeOH:H₂O) were injected (2 μ L) and separated on a C₄ column, and introduced to the MS at full scan acquisition. Data were analyzed by the provided software (Agilent MassHunter).

Supplementary Table S1. LC-MS/MS analysis of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in different subcellular fractions of RL95-2 cells.

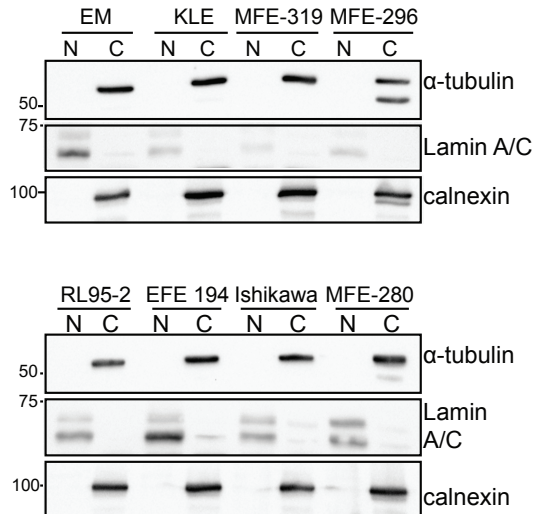
NQ: non-quantifiable.

PIPn species	Cytoplasm	Nucleus	Nucleolus
PIP3 32:0	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 32:1	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 32:2	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 34:0	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 34:1	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP2 34:1	457,73	NQ	0,00
PIP3 34:2	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP2 36:1	511,29	NQ	0,00
PIP3 36:2	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP2 36:2	452,03	NQ	0,00
PIP3 36:3	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 36:4	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 38:0	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP2 38:0	0,00	NQ	30,86
PIP3 38:1	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 38:2	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3 38:3	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP2 38:3	749,90	NQ	2324,82
PIP3 38:4	0,00	NQ	113,15
PIP2 38:4	512,51	NQ	1463,64
PIP3 38:5	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3-16:17	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3-36:0	0,00	NQ	0,00
PIP3-36:1	0,00	NQ	0,00

Supplementary Table S2. Antibodies used for immunofluorescence (IMF), Immunohistochemistry (IHC) or Western immunoblotting (WB)

Antibody	Catalog number	Company	Dilution
PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃	Z-P345b	Echelon	IMF: 1:400
Nucleolin	12247	Cell signaling Technology	IMF: 1:100
Nucleophosmin	32-5200	Zymed/Life Tech	IMF: 1:1000
PI3K p85α	05-212	Millipore	WB: 1:2000
PI3K p85β	S3089	Epitomics	WB: 1:5000
PI3K p110α	1683-1 4249	Epitomics Cell signaling Technology	WB: 1:5000
PI3K p110β	ab151549 3011	Abcam Cell signaling Technology	IHC/IMF: 1:50 WB: 1:1000
α-Tubulin	T5168	Sigma	WB: 1:20000
p-S473-AKT	9271	Cell signaling Technology	WB: 1:1000
Total AKT	2920	Cell signaling Technology	WB: 1:2000
Lamin A/C	sc-376248	Santa Cruz Biotechnology	WB: 1:10000
GST-HRP	ab3416	Abcam	WB: 1:30000
Goat anti-Mouse IgG Alexa Fluor 594	A-11005	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200
Goat anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 488	A-11008	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200
Calnexin	ab22595	Abcam	WB: 1:2000

Supplementary Figure S1

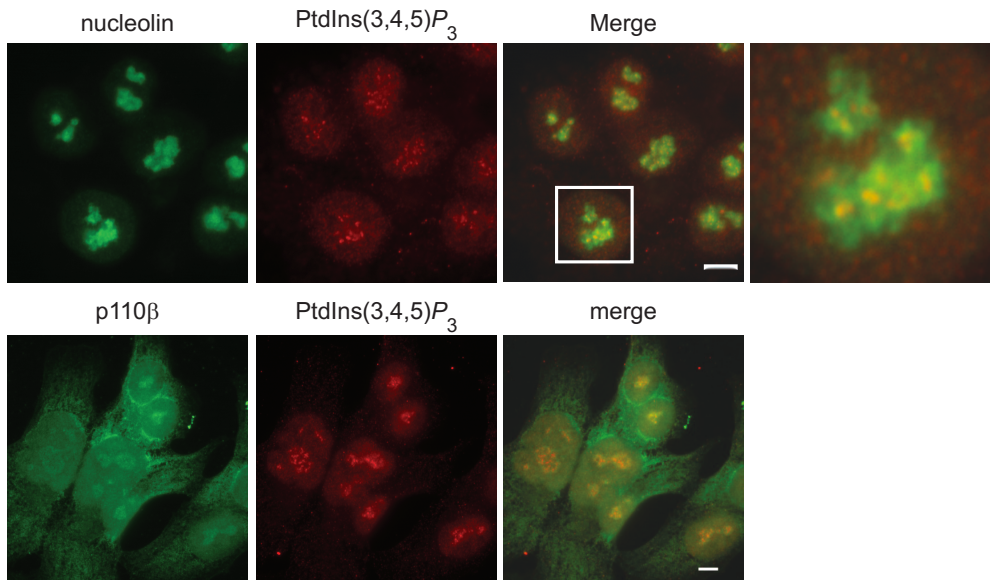


Supplementary Figure S1: Purity of fractionation

Actively growing cells were fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. Equal protein concentrations were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analysed by Western immunoblotting using the antibodies as indicated.

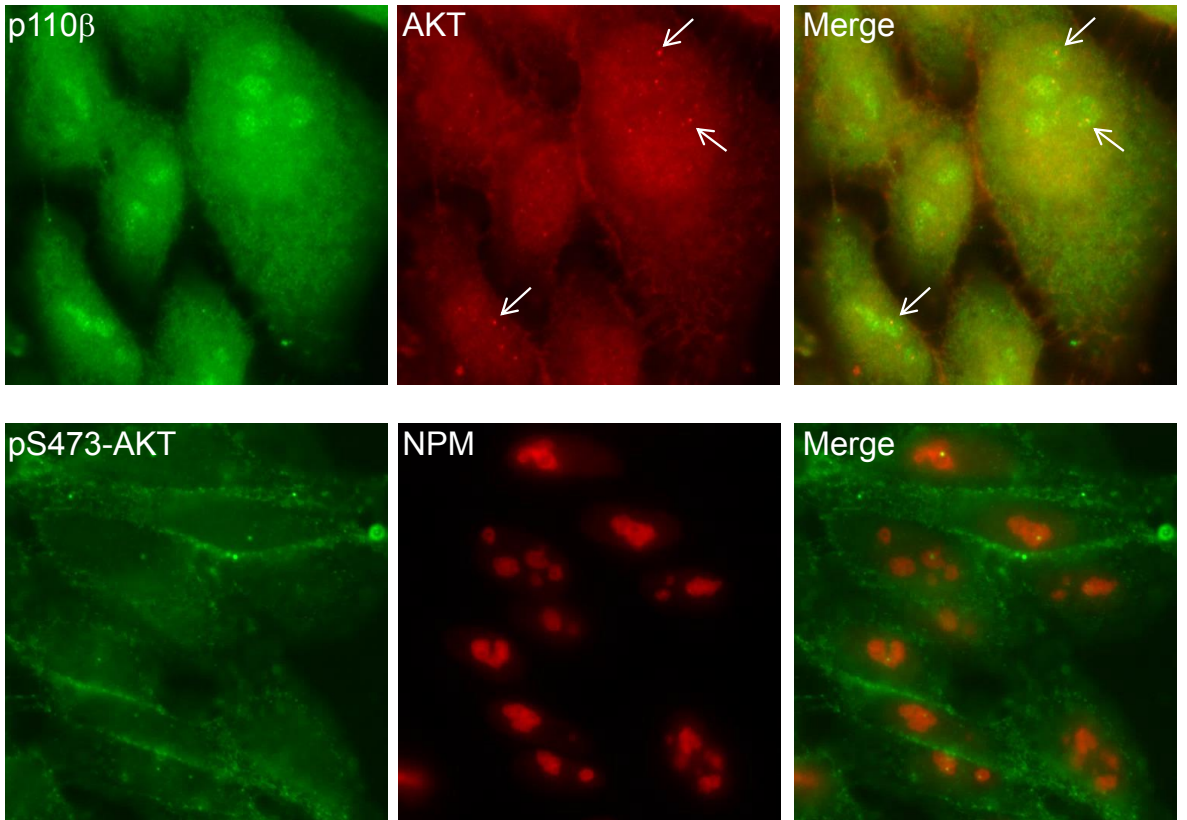
Supplementary Figure S2

MEF-319



Supplementary Figure S2: p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ are nucleolar in MFE-319 cells
Actively growing MFE-319 cells were immunostained using the antibodies as indicated and imaged using epifluorescent microscopy. Scale bars are of 5 μ M.

Supplementary Figure S3



Supplementary Figure S3. AKT and its active form pS473-AKT are nucleolar.

Actively growing RL95-2 cells were co-stained with the indicated antibodies and imaged by epifluorescence microscopy. NPM indicates nucleophosmin.

Nuclear phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-triphosphate interactome

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Abstract

Phosphoinositides (PIs) play essential functions as signalling molecules, either directly or by acting as precursors to other signalling molecules. Although their functions have been mostly elucidated in the cytoplasm, PIs are also intranuclear where they contribute to chromatin remodelling, transcription and mRNA processing. In particular, the PPIIn phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-triphosphate (PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3) and its producing kinase, class I phosphoinositide -3 kinase p110 β , have been previously mapped to the nucleus and nucleoli. To gain further insights into the nuclear functions of this PPIIn, we applied a previously developed quantitative mass spectrometry-based approach to identify the nuclear targets of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . We found 219 potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins that were enriched in RNA processing, cytokinesis and DNA repair functions. Interestingly, many of these interactors were identified as nucleolar proteins, some of which had dual functions in both rRNA transcription and DNA repair. Poly(ADP-Ribose) Polymerase 1 was one of the identified proteins which was then found to interact directly with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and its localization together with this lipid in nucleoli was dependent on active polymerase I transcription. In conclusion, we report a potential role for p110 β and its lipid product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in regulating nucleolar function.

Introduction

Polyphosphoinositides (PPIIn) are low abundant glycerophospholipids consisting of phosphorylated derivatives of phosphatidylinositol (PtdIns) (PPIIn nomenclature from (1)). PtdIns consists of two fatty acyl chains coupled to a glycerol backbone, which is itself bound to a *myo*-inositol group via a phosphodiester linkage (2). The inositol ring can be reversely phosphorylated at the 3', 4' and 5' hydroxyl groups, producing seven different PPIIn, *i.e.* the monophosphorylated PtdIns3 P , PtdIns4 P and PtdIns5 P , the diphosphorylated PtdIns(3,4) P_2 , PtdIns(3,5) P_2 and PtdIns(4,5) P_2 , and finally the triphosphorylated PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (2). These lipids are precursors of second messengers or can act directly as signalling molecules. They are synthesised in different subcellular compartments due to the presence of specific PPIIn metabolizing kinases and phosphatases (3, 4). Their presence in the nucleus was discovered over three decades ago (5) and the notion of PPIIn metabolism and signalling occurring in the nucleus independently of the cytoplasm became evident shortly after in several studies (6-9). With the exception of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,5) P_2 , the remaining five PPIIn have been

detected or quantified in the nucleus (6, 8, 10-20). Since then, several studies have identified multiple nuclear processes attributed to nuclear PPIn including mRNA processing, splicing and export, chromatin remodelling transcription as well as cell cycle progression (21-27). Nuclear PPIn regulate these processes mostly by interacting with proteins containing polybasic regions (PBR)/K/R motifs (20, 28, 29) rather than structured PPIn-binding domains harboured by cytoplasmic proteins (30).

So far several nuclear PPIn-interacting proteins have been individually identified and characterized (27, 31, 32). In addition, global PPIn interactomics studies have been performed mostly from whole cell extracts to gain further insight into PPIn nuclear roles (33-40). To focus on nuclear PPIn-interacting proteins, nuclear fractionation was then combined to PPIn interactomics (41). Using this approach led to the identification of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 nuclear interacting partners involved in mRNA transcription regulation, mRNA splicing and protein folding (41). Two of these nuclear proteins were further validated to interact directly with PPIn (20, 41). Considering that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , a key signalling PPIn, is also present in the nucleus (15, 19) and in particular in the nucleolus together with the class I phosphoinositide - 3 kinase (PI3K) p110 β (20), we performed quantitative mass spectrometry-based PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interactomics from isolated HeLa nuclei according to the method that we have previously developed (41). We identified 219 potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interactors with functions highly enriched in RNA processing, mRNA splicing, cytokinesis and DNA repair. Interestingly, 29% of these proteins belonged to the nucleolar database (42), many of which were annotated to the DNA repair category, including the Poly(ADP-Ribose) Polymerase 1 (PARP1) protein.

Results

Both p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 localize to the nucleoli in HeLa cells

To extend our previous findings on the nucleolar localisation of p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the breast cancer cell line AU565 (20), we first determined their exact subcellular localization in HeLa cells by immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy using specific antibodies for p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (Figure 1). We found that p110 β localized to the cytoplasm and nucleoplasm with strong staining in the nucleoli where it co-localized with the RNA polymerase I subunit RPA194 (Figure 1A). The presence of p110 β in these compartments was further validated by Western immunoblotting following the

nucleolar fractionation of HeLa cells. Equal amounts of protein from each cytoplasmic, nucleoplasmic and nucleolar fractions were analysed by western blotting and p110 β was detected in all three fractions (Figure 1B). PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was also detected in all three cellular compartments by immunofluorescence staining (Figure 1C). The nucleolar staining of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 showed intense foci that colocalised with the key nucleolar proteins nucleolin and the transcription factor upstream binding factor (UBF) (Figure 1C). In addition, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and p110 β were found to colocalise in the nucleolus in some cells, as indicated with an asterisk, but not in others (Figure 1D). This may suggest that the activation of p110 β and the synthesis of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 may be cell cycle dependent.

p110 β produces the nucleolar pool of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and colocalizes with RNA polymerase I as the cells exit mitosis

p110 β is activated during G1 in the nucleus and contributes to G1 to S phase transition (43, 44). In parallel, rRNA transcription oscillates during the cell cycle, as it is lowest during mitosis and is re-activated in G1 phase with highest activity thereafter in S and G2 phases (45). We therefore next examined the appearance of p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 during the reformation of nucleoli after mitosis (Figure 2). We performed a combination of nocodazol treatment and mitotic shake-off to synchronize and enrich for mitotic HeLa cells. After replating the collected mitotic cells on coverslips, the cells were fixed at different time points and immunostained. After 1 h, the cells were still in mitosis and both p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 were present mostly in non-DNA regions. We found that p110 β colocalises with RPA194 3 h after replating, as the cells exit mitosis and the nucleoli start to reform. With a lag of up to 2 to 5 h, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 started to reappear in the nucleoli. To determine if the pool of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 present in the nucleoli is produced due to the kinase activity of p110 β , we compared the nucleolar appearance of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in p110 β kinase inactive and WT mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF) cells using the same synchronisation method. Four hours post-replating, cells were labelled with a GFP-GRP1-PH probe and an anti-nucleophosmin antibody as a nucleolar marker (Supplementary Figure S1). In line with our results in HeLa cells, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was detected together with nucleophosmin in the p110 β WT MEFs. In contrast, the p110 β kinase inactive MEF demonstrated a substantial decrease in PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 nucleolar staining.

Nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -binding proteins are enriched in RNA processing and splicing factors

In order to identify the interacting partners of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus we employed a quantitative proteomics method that we have previously developed for the identification of nuclear PtdIns(4,5) P_2 effector proteins (41). Following SILAC labelling of HeLa S3 cells, nuclei were isolated and incubated with neomycin to enrich for and displace potential PPI-binding proteins from nuclei (Figure 3A). Equal protein amounts obtained from heavy labelled and light labelled cell populations were incubated with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -conjugated beads or control beads respectively. The specificity of the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 affinity beads was validated by incubating them with GST-tagged PH domain of the GRP1 protein (well known for its affinity to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3) (46) (Figure 3B). The control beads showed no affinity whereas the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 beads were able to pull down the GST-GRP1-PH domain. Importantly, this interaction was competed out by the pre-incubation of free PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 with the probe. The pull down eluates were combined and separated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE). Following trypsin digestion, the peptides were analysed by LC-MS/MS and identified and quantified using Proteome explorer. Statistical analyses demonstrated 219 proteins to be specifically pulled down by PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 including proteins with previous history as PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins, i.e. nucleophosmin (47) and ALY (48) (Supplementary Table S1). We further examined the presence lysine/arginine rich motif (K/R-(X_{n=3-7})-K-X-K/R-K/R), which has previously been reported to be a motif enriched in PtdIns(4,5) P_2 -binding proteins (41) and found that 38% of these proteins harbour at least one of them (Supplementary Table S2 and Figure 3C). For a better understanding of the biological processes of these proteins, they were annotated to the Gene Ontology (GO) database for biological processes and enrichment was performed using the PANTHER web tool (49). The biological functions that were over represented by 2 fold are shown in Figure 3D. In particular, RNA splicing, cytokinesis, mRNA processing, induction of apoptosis and DNA repair were functions particularly enriched in the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 pull down protein list by over 5 fold. Furthermore, 29% of all potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interactors are annotated to the nucleolar database and 47% to the T cell nucleome (50) including 28 common to both nucleome lists (Supplementary Table S1).

PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 co-localizes with PARP1 in the nucleoli

Considering the presence of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in nucleoli, a large number of potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins were also linked or annotated to the nucleolus. Searching

through the literature for clear evidence of nucleolar localization of the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -binding protein list, we focused on PARP1, a chromatin-associated protein that is highly abundant in nucleoli (51, 52). PARP1 is one of the thirteen protein annotated to the DNA repair enriched biological process and has a PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 /control ratio of 1.5 and harbours one K/R motif (Table 1). We first validated the direct interaction of PARP1 with PPIIn by lipid overlay assay using phospholipid-immobilized strips and the GST-PARP1 protein (Figure 4A-B). PARP1 was found to interact with all PPIIns except PtdIns(3,4) P_2 as well as phosphatidic acid and phosphatidylserine. Furthermore, immunofluorescent staining showed that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 co-localizes with PARP1 in the nucleolus of HeLa cells (Figure 4C).

The nucleolar localisation pattern of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is affected by RNA Polymerase I inhibition

To understand the conditions that determine PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and PARP1 association in the nucleolus, we inhibited RNA polymerase I transcription by treating HeLa cells with actinomycin D. Three hours of treatment led to the loss of co-localization between PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and PARP1. Indeed, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 formed a compact structure towards the interior of the nucleoli whereas PARP1 translocated to the periphery of the nucleolus (Figure 5A). It is already known that nucleolar proteins from the fibrillar center and the dense fibrillar component translocate to the perinucleolar caps (clusters found around the nucleolus), or the nucleoplasm upon inhibition of rRNA transcription (52, 53). We also examined the localisation of p110 β upon actinomycin D treatment and found that this kinase changed its pattern as well from a relatively homogenous staining within nucleoli (Figure 1A) to a more focused pattern (Figure 5B). Since the nucleolar presence of PARP1 is dependent on active polymerase I transcription (52), these results would suggest that p110 β as well as the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -PARP1 association in nucleoli rely on active rRNA transcription. To assess that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is indeed involved in rRNA transcription we used a specific p110 β inhibitor to reduce the pool of nucleolar PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . Preliminary results showed a gradual decrease in rRNA transcription level from 18 to 42 hours of treatment (Supplementary Figure S2). These results indicate therefore a potential role for p110 β and/or PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in ribosomal RNA transcription.

Discussion

Evidence of the presence of PPIIn in the nucleus together with their producing kinases is now well established (23, 27, 32, 54, 55). Interestingly, they are found in RNA rich compartments, such as the nuclear speckles and nucleolus in particular for PtdIns(4,5) P_2 (16-18, 56) and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (20). In this study, we have extended our previous findings (20) by showing a common localization of p110 β as well as its product PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus in an additional cell line, namely HeLa cells. Importantly, we showed that the presence of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus was dependent upon the activity of p110 β . To support these findings, a minor pool of PtdIns(4,5) P_2 has been reported in the nucleolus and could hence substantiate the nucleolar synthesis of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (17, 57). In addition, both the PPIIn kinase isoforms, PI4K II α and PIP5K I α , which synthesise PtdIns 4 P and PtdIns(4,5) P_2 , respectively, were also reported present in the nucleolus (58, 59). Recent studies also identified the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 phosphatases PTEN and SHIP1 in the nucleolus (60, 61). All the components allowing a PI3K metabolic cycle to be operational are therefore in place in the nucleolus for the regulation of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 synthesis and a potential role in this sub-nuclear compartment. Indeed, a potential role for p110 β regulating rRNA transcription is shown in this study using a selective inhibitor. The remaining question about the biophysical existence of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in a non-membranous environment such as the nucleolus is still unanswered. Studies pointing to the existence of different phase environments due to specific arrangements of RNA binding proteins such as nucleophosmin and RNA in the nucleolus may be worth exploring to tackle this issue.

To further decipher the role of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , we applied a PPIIn interactomics method that we previously developed but to identify PtdIns(4,5) P_2 effectors (28). To this end, we have identified 219 proteins specific for the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 pull down that were highly enriched in RNA processing and splicing factors. The nucleolus, which contains a large amount of rRNA species, is mostly known to be a compartment where rRNA transcription and processing occur (62). However, it is also associated with other functions such as DNA repair (63). Indeed, a growing body of evidence indicates that some of the identified nucleolar DNA repair proteins also possess roles in ribosome biogenesis, such as the nucleophosmin, nucleolin, APEX1 (apurinic/apyrimidinic endodeoxyribonuclease 1), and PARP1 proteins (63-66). Interestingly, among the PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting proteins identified, there was a 6 fold enrichment of DNA repair proteins listing 13 proteins, ten of which were found in at least one of the nucleolome datasets previously published, including

PARP1 and APEX1. Some of the identified PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 effector proteins may not be direct binders as some of them do not harbour any PPI interaction site. They could hence be pulled down as multiprotein complexes. In contrast, PARP1 harbours one K/R motif, binds to PPI directly and associate with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleolus. In this case, it may be possible that this PPI regulates the complex formation of PARP1 with several of these factors.

Nucleophosmin has been shown to bind the DNA binding domains of both PARP-1 and PARP-2 (52) and it is a well-known PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 interacting protein (47). When cells are not under stress condition, an enrichment of both PARP1 and poly ADP-ribose can be observed in the nucleolus (67). The dense fibrillar component of the nucleolus is where PARP has been shown to localize (68) and our immunofluorescent staining indicate a co-localization with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in this area. Upon RNA polymerase I inhibition, PARP1 delocalizes from the nucleolus, indicating that the presence of PARP1 in the nucleolus is dynamic and dependent on RNA polymerase I transcriptional activity. This delocalization from the nucleolus is accompanied by other nucleolar proteins such as NPM and UBF (52, 69, 70). In this study, inhibition of RNA pol I led to the expected change of pattern for PARP1 but also prevented the colocalisation with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , which relocated to UBF-labelled nucleolar caps. Interestingly, the pattern of localisation of p110 β changed dramatically from a diffuse pattern to concentrated foci. Altogether, these studies suggest that the organisation of proteins and lipids within the nucleolus is affected by the active transcription of rRNAs. Alternatively, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , itself may potentially regulate rRNA transcription through its binding to histone H1. Histone H1 is emerging to play important roles in the nucleolar structure and integrity (71). Both PARP1 and NPM are also histone H1 interacting proteins. Histone 1, as a linker histone, plays an important role in forming compact chromatin (72) and its PARylation by PARP1 has been shown to remove H1 from the chromatin, hence causing it to relax (73). NPM binds to histone H1.5 and has a silencing effect on this linker histone (74). At the same time histone H1 has been shown to bind to PtdIns(4,5) P_2 via its C-terminal region can (75). Although we did not study the possible interaction of histone with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , this PPI may form a complex with PARP1, nucleophosmin and H1 to regulate the architecture of the nucleolus to allow transcription to occur.

Materials and methods

Cell culture and SILAC labeling:

HeLa cells were grown in DMEM medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. p110β^{D931A/D931A} kinase inactive and p110β^{WT/WT} MEFs were from Dr Julie Guillermet-Guibert (Université Toulouse III-Paul Sabatier, Toulouse, France) and grown in the same medium as HeLa cells. For SILAC (Stable isotope labelling with amino acids in cell culture) labelling, HeLa S3 cells were grown in heavy (¹³C₆, ¹⁵N₂-labelled lysine and ¹³C₆, ¹⁵N₄-labelled arginine) or light (unlabelled amino acids) DMEM medium (Silantes, cat# 280001300) supplemented with 10% dialyzed FBS (Silantes, cat# 281000900). To examine the efficiency of SILAC labelling the incorporation of heavy amino acids was validated by LC-MS by Dr Bernd Thiede (University of Oslo, Norway).

Cellular fractionation

The nucleolar isolation was adapted from Lam *et al* 2006 (76). In brief, cells were grown in 10 x 15 cm dishes up to 70% confluency. 1 hour after adding fresh medium, the cells were washed, trypsinized and washed again 3 times (this time with ice cold PBS). The cell pellet was re-suspended in 5 ml of buffer A (10 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM KCl, 0,5mM DDT, 1 % Igepal and protease inhibitor cocktail) and incubated on ice for 5 min. The cells were then passed 12 times through a 23-gauge needle to disrupt the cell membrane. The lysates were then centrifuged at 218x g for 5 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was collected as the cytosolic fraction and the pellet containing the nuclei was re-suspended in 3 ml of buffer S1 (0.25 M sucrose, 10 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail) and layered over 3ml of buffer S2 (0.35 M sucrose, 0.5 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail) and centrifuged at 1430xg for 5 min (4 °C). The supernatant was removed and the pellet was re-suspended in 3 ml of buffer S2 and sonicated 7 times 10 sec on/10 sec off on ice. The nuclear lysate was layered over 3 ml of S3 (0.88 M Sucrose, 0.5 mM MgCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail) and Centrifuged at 3000xg for 10 min (4°C). The nucleoplasmic fraction (3 ml of the top layer) was collected and the nucleoli pellet was washed once with 500 µl of the S2 buffer.

Neomycin extraction and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ pull down

Nuclei were isolated and washed with retention buffer containing 20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 70 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 3 mM CaCl₂ and protease inhibitor cocktail. The nuclei were then incubated with freshly prepared 5 mM neomycin (Neomycin trisulfate salt, Sigma-Aldrich) in retention buffer, rotating for 30 min at RT. After centrifugation at 13000 rpm for 5 min, the supernatant containing the neomycin-displaced protein extract was collected. Neomycin supernatants were dialysed three times in 900 ml of cold lipid pulldown buffer containing 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 0.1 % Igepal using Slide-A-Lyser Mini dialysis units (Thermo Fisher) for 1 h at 4°C each time. The protein concentration was measured using BCA (bicinchoninic acid) protein assay (ThermoFisher Scientific) and equal amount of extracts were used for each lipid pulldown. The GST-GRP1-PH protein was expressed as previously described (28). The heavy extracts were incubated with PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ beads (Echelon Biosciences p-B345a) and the light extracts were incubated with control beads (Echelon Biosciences P-B000) for 1 hour rotating at 4°C. The beads were then washed 3x with the lipid pulldown buffer containing phosphatase (5mM β-glycerophosphate, 5 mM NaF and 2 mM Na₃VO₄) and protease inhibitor cocktail. For testing the efficiency of the lipid pull downs GST-GRP1-PH (purified as described in (41)) was used combined with a competition with free 20μM PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ diC8 (Echelon p-3908).

Proteomics

In-gel digestion

In-gel trypsin digestion was performed as described (77) with some modifications. Briefly, the Coomassie brilliant blue-stained protein bands were excised, and following several washes, the gel pieces were subjected to a reduction step using 10 mM DTT in 100 mM ammonium bicarbonate (NH₄HCO₃) buffer for 45 min at 56°C. Alkylation was performed with 55 mM iodoacetamide in 100 mM NH₄HCO₃ for 30 min at room temperature in the dark. Digestion was performed with 10 μl of trypsin (10 mg/l in 50 mM NH₄HCO₃) overnight at 37°C. Eluted peptides were recovered, and the gel pieces were subsequently washed in 2.5% formic acid/80% acetonitrile for 30 min at 37°C. The acid wash was combined with the original peptide eluate and dried. Samples were resuspended in 0.1% formic acid and analysed directly by nano-LC-MS/MS.

Nano LC-MSMS

Digested peptide mixtures were analysed by nano-LC-MS/MS. Mass spectrometry (MS) was performed using a QExactive HF (Thermo Scientific) coupled to an Ultimate

RSLCnano-LC system (Dionex). Optimal separation conditions resulting in maximal peptide coverage were achieved using an Acclaim PepMap 100 column (C18, 3 μm , 100 \AA) (Dionex) with an internal diameter of 75 μm and capillary length of 25 cm. A flow rate of 300 nl/min was used with a solvent gradient of 5% B to 45% B in 85 min followed by increasing the gradient to 95% B over 5 min. Solvent A was 0.1% (v/v) formic acid, 5% DMSO in water, whereas the composition of solvent B was 80% (v/v) acetonitrile, 0.1% (v/v) formic acid, 5% DMSO in water.

The mass spectrometer was operated in positive ion mode using an N^{th} order double-play method to automatically switch between Full scan acquisition of peptide precursor ions and HCD generated fragments both using the Orbitrap mass analyser. Survey full-scan MS spectra (from 400 to 1,600 m/z) were acquired in the Orbitrap with resolution (R) 60,000 at 400 m/z (after accumulation to a target of 3,000,000 charges). The method used allowed sequential isolation of the 10 most intense ions for fragmentation, depending on signal intensity, using HCD at a target value of 20,000 charges and resolution of 30,000. Target ions already selected for MS/MS were dynamically excluded for 30 s. Unassigned and 1+ charges were excluded from fragmentation selection. General MS conditions were electrospray voltage, 2.5 kV with no sheath or auxiliary gas flow, an ion selection threshold of 2,000 counts for MS/MS, an activation Q value of 0.25, activation time of 12 ms, capillary temperature of 200⁰C, and an S-Lens RF level of 60% were also applied. Charge state screening was enabled, and precursors with unknown charge state or a charge state of 1 were excluded. Raw MS data files were processed using Proteome Discoverer v.2.1 (Thermo Scientific). Processed files were searched against the SwissProt human database using the Mascot search engine version 2.3.0. Searches were done with tryptic specificity allowing up to one missed cleavage and a tolerance on mass measurement of 10 ppm in MS mode and 20 ppm for MS/MS ions. Structure modifications allowed were oxidized methionine, and deamidation of asparagine and glutamine residues, which were searched as variable modifications. Using a reversed decoy database, false discovery rate (FDR) was less than 1%.

Cell synchronization

HeLa cells grown up to 70% confluency were treated with 50 ng/mL of nocodazole for 16 h. After treatment most of the growth medium was removed from the cells and transferred to a 50 ml tube leaving only 3 ml on the dish. The mitotic cells were collected by mechanical shake-off and transferred to a centrifuge tube. The shake-off procedure was repeated by adding 10 ml PBS and was added to the same centrifugation tube. The cells were pelleted by

centrifugation at 70 g for 5 min. After washing the pellet twice with 10 ml of growth medium the cell pellet was re-suspended in growth medium again and plated on cell culture dishes with coverslips covered with poly-L-Lysine. The cells were collected at different time points after re-plating.

Immunofluorescence staining

HeLa cells grown on 12 mm coverslips were fixed with 3.7 % paraformaldehyde for 10 min and washed twice with PBS and then permeabilised with 0.25 % Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. Cells were blocked for 1 h with 5% goat serum in PBS- 0.1% Triton. Primary antibody (diluted in blocking buffer) incubation was performed overnight at 4°C followed by secondary antibody conjugated to Alexa-488 or Alexa-594 incubation for 1 h at room temperature. Washes were performed with PBS-T (0.05% Tween20), between each antibody incubation. Nucleic acid staining was performed by 15 min incubation with Hoechst 33342 diluted in PBS. For antibody dilutions, see the supplementary Table S3.

SDS-PAGE and Western Immunoblotting

Proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE and then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. The membrane was then blocked with 7% milk in PBS-T (PBS pH 7.4, 0.05 % Tween-20) for 1 hour at room temperature before incubation with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C (for antibody dilutions see the supplementary Table S3). After washing with PBS-T, the membrane was incubated with HRP conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 hour at room temperature. The enhanced chemiluminescence (ThermoFisher Scientific) was added and the Chemidoc XRS+ imaging system from Bio-Rad was used for visualization.

Lipid overlay assay

Lipid overlay assay were performed according to Karlson *et al* (20) using 0.5 µg/mL of recombinant GST (purified as described in (20)) or GST-PARP1 obtained from BPS Bioscience.

Table 1. List of potential PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 binding protein annotated to DNA repair.

Proteins pulled down by PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and annotated to the DNA repair enriched process, identified with at least 2 peptides, with heavy/light log₂ ratios >0.5, are indicated in this table. Their presence (+) or absence (-) in the nucleolar database (NoDB) (42), the T cell nucleome (50) and/or the HeLa nucleome (78) is indicated.

Uniprot ID	Name description	Gene symbol	Ratio	K/R motif	No DB	T cell	HeLa
P46063	ATP-dependent DNA helicase Q1	RECQL	2.271	KNTGAKKRRK	-	+	-
Q09028	Histone-binding protein RBBP4	RBBP4	2.3	-	-	+	-
Q16531	DNA damage-binding protein 1	DDB1	2.101	-	-	+	-
P29372	DNA-3-methyladenine glycosylase	MPG	18.81	-	+	-	-
P78527	DNA-dependent protein kinase catalytic subunit	PRKDC	2.112	KHVSLNKAKKRR	-	+	-
P49916	DNA ligase 3	LIG3	2.119	KRHWLKVKK	-	+	-
O60934	Nibrin	NBN	1.575	KNFKKFKK RYNPYLKRRR KEEEEEKPKR KKEEIKDEKIKK	-	-	-
P09874	Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 1	PARP1	1.5	RWDDQKVKK	+	+	-
Q9BQ67	Glutamate-rich WD repeat-containing protein 1	GRWD1	3.158	-	-	-	+
Q14683	Structural maintenance of chromosomes protein 1A	SMC1A	1.772	KVEDELKEKK KHYKRRK KAVDKLKEKK RNIREFEEKVKR KKDENEIEKLLK	-	+	-
Q92466	DNA damage-binding protein 2	DDB2	2.474	-	-	-	-
P27695	DNA-(apurinic or apyrimidinic site) lyase	APEX1	3.9	-	+	-	-
Q16576	Histone-binding protein RBBP7	RBBP7	2.003	-	-	-	-

Acknowledgments

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Figure legends

Figure 1. p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ are nucleolar.

(A, C, D) Co-immunostaining of HeLa cells was performed with the indicated antibodies and imaged by confocal microscopy. RPA194 indicates RNA polymerase I subunit, PIP3; PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃; UBF, upstream binding factor. Scale bar represents 5 μ m. (B) HeLa cells were fractionated into cytosolic, nucleoplasmic and nucleolar fractions. Equal amounts of proteins (60 μ g) were separated by SDS-PAGE and western immunoblotting was performed using antibodies for the specified proteins.

Figure 2. Co-localization of p110 β with RNA polymerase I at the exit of mitosis.

HeLa cells were treated with nocodazole (50 ng/ mL) for 16 hours before mitotic cells were collected by shake-off. The collected mitotic cells were re-plated on cover slips covered with poly-L-Lysine and fixed at the different time points as indicated. Immunofluorescent staining was then performed with the indicated antibodies and imaged by confocal microscopy. Scale bar represents 10 μ m.

Figure 3. Nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ interactome.

(A) The experimental setup is shown where the SILAC labelled and unlabelled HeLa S3 nuclei are incubated with 5 mM neomycin and the displaced proteins are pulled down using control beads or PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ conjugated beads and subsequently analysed by LC-MS/MS. (B) GST-GRP1-PH (2 μ g) pull down with control or PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ conjugated beads with or without 20 μ M free PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃. Eluates were western immunoblotted using an anti-GST antibody conjugated to horse radish peroxidase. (C) Biological processes Gene ontology enrichment of the proteins pulled down specifically by the PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ conjugated beads.

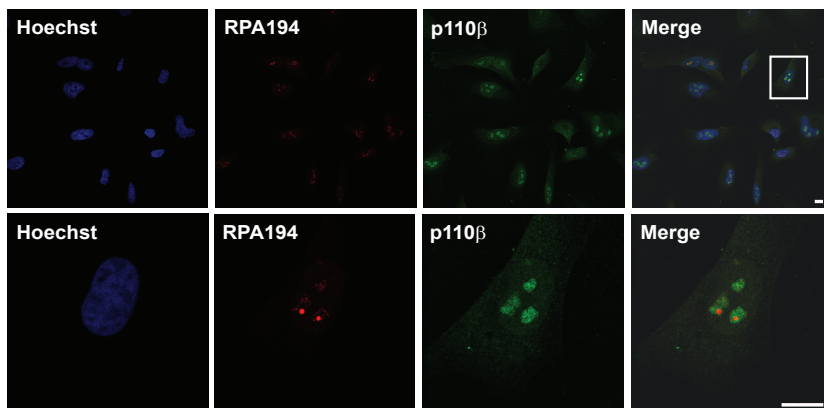
Figure 4. PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ colocalises with PARP1 in the nucleolus.

(A) PIP strip schematic showing the positions of the spotted lipids (www.echelon-inc.com). LPA, lysophosphatidic acid; LPC, lysophosphatidylcholine; PI, phosphatidylinositol; PE, phosphatidylethanolamine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; S1P, sphingosine-1-phosphate; PA, phosphatidic acid; PS, phosphatidylserine. (B) PIP strips incubated with recombinant GST or GST-PARP1 and detection of protein-lipid interactions using an anti-GST-HRP conjugated antibody. (C) HeLa cells co-stained with anti-PARP1 and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ antibodies and imaged by confocal microscopy. Scale bar represents 20µm in the top image and 10µm in the bottom image.

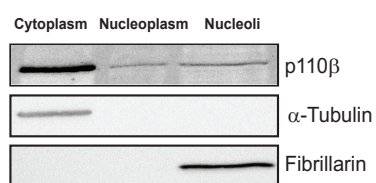
Figure 5. Inhibition of RNA polymerase I leads to altered nucleolar patterns of PARP1, PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ and p110β. Co-immunostaining of HeLa cells treated with 200 ng/mL actinomycin D for 3 h with indicated antibodies and confocal microscopy imaging. Scale bar indicates 5µm.

Figure 1

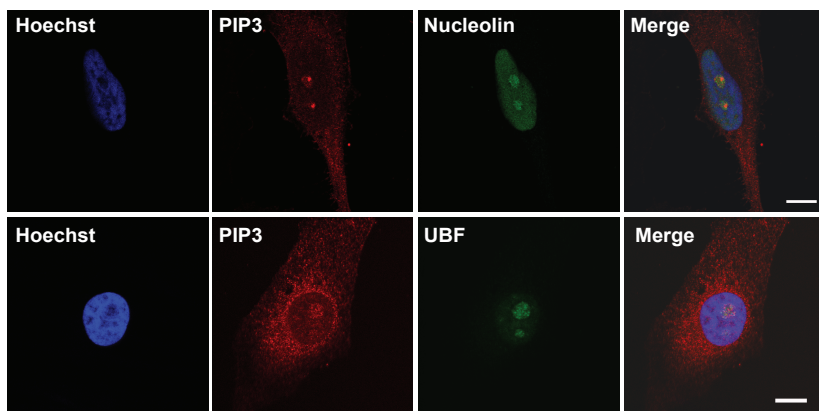
A



B



C



D

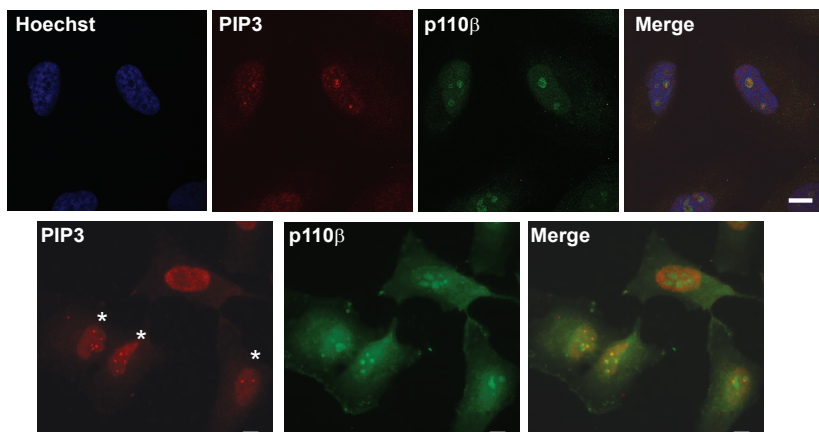


Figure 2

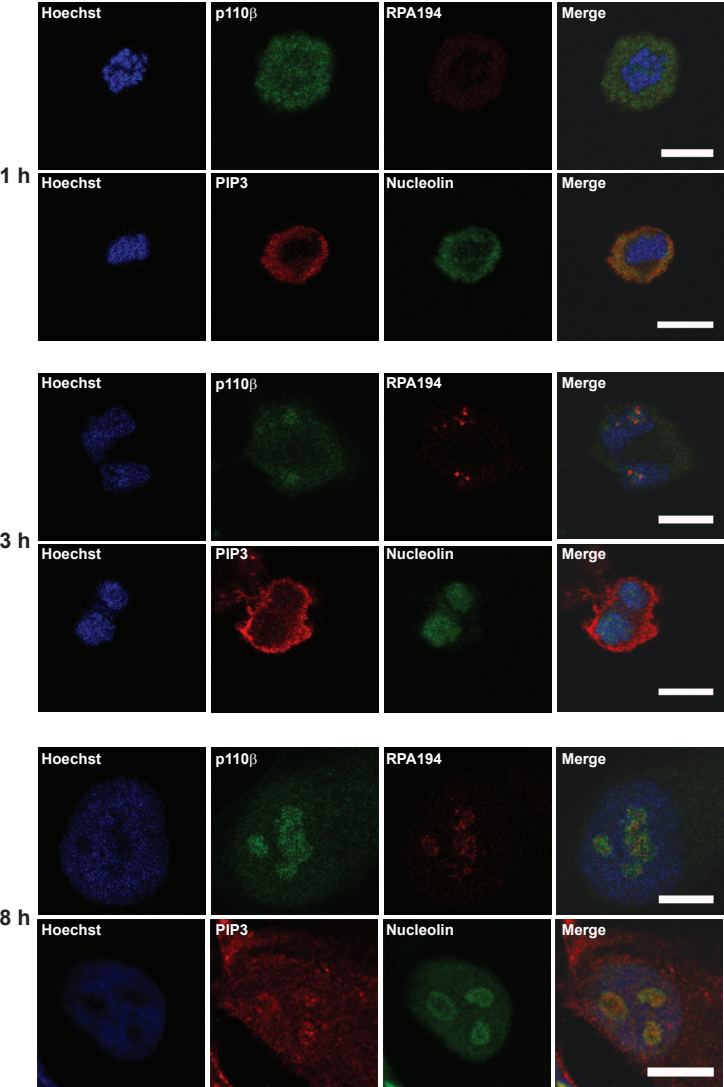


Figure 3

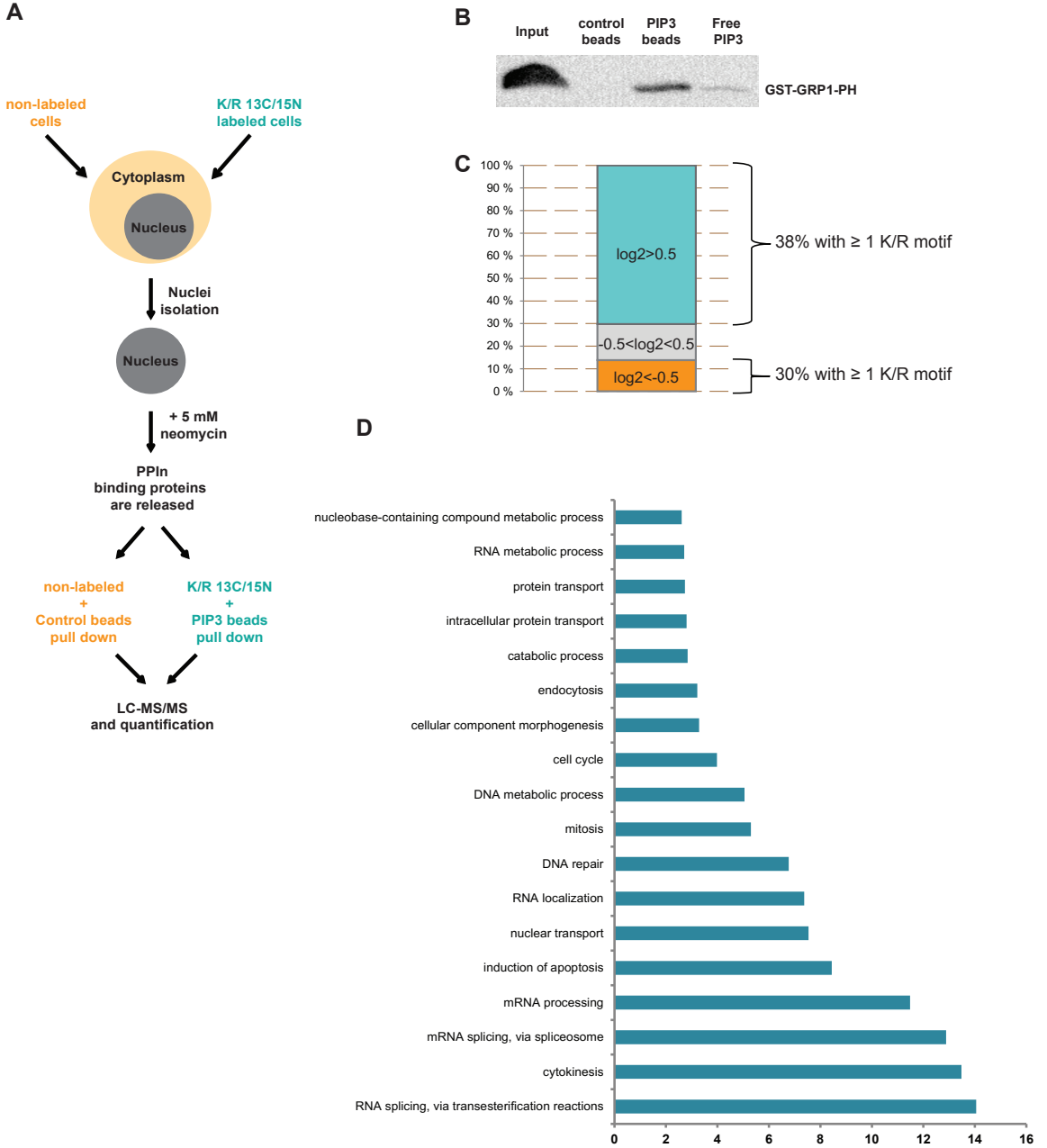
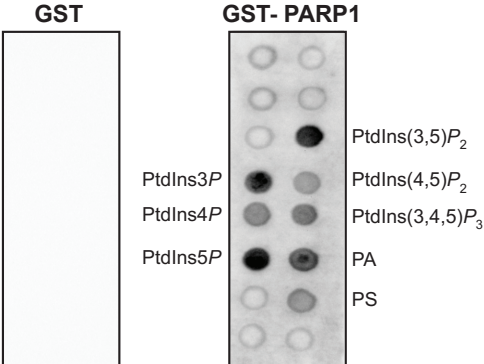


Figure 4

A

LPA	1○	9○	S1P
LPC	2○	10○	PtdIns(3,4) P_2
PtdIns	3○	11○	PtdIns(3,5) P_2
PtdIns(3) P	4○	12○	PtdIns(4,5) P_2
PtdIns(4) P	5○	13○	PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3
PtdIns(5) P	6○	14○	PA
PE	7○	15○	PS
PC	8○	●	Blank

B



C

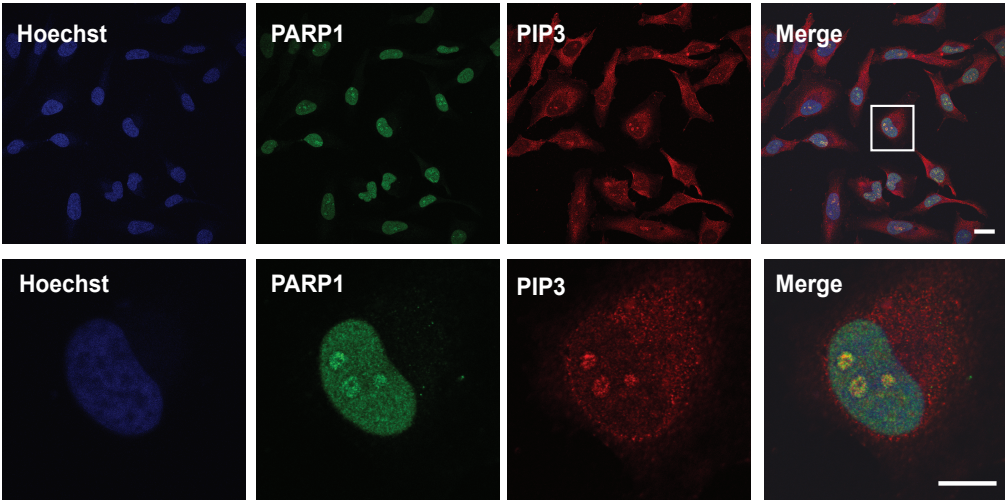
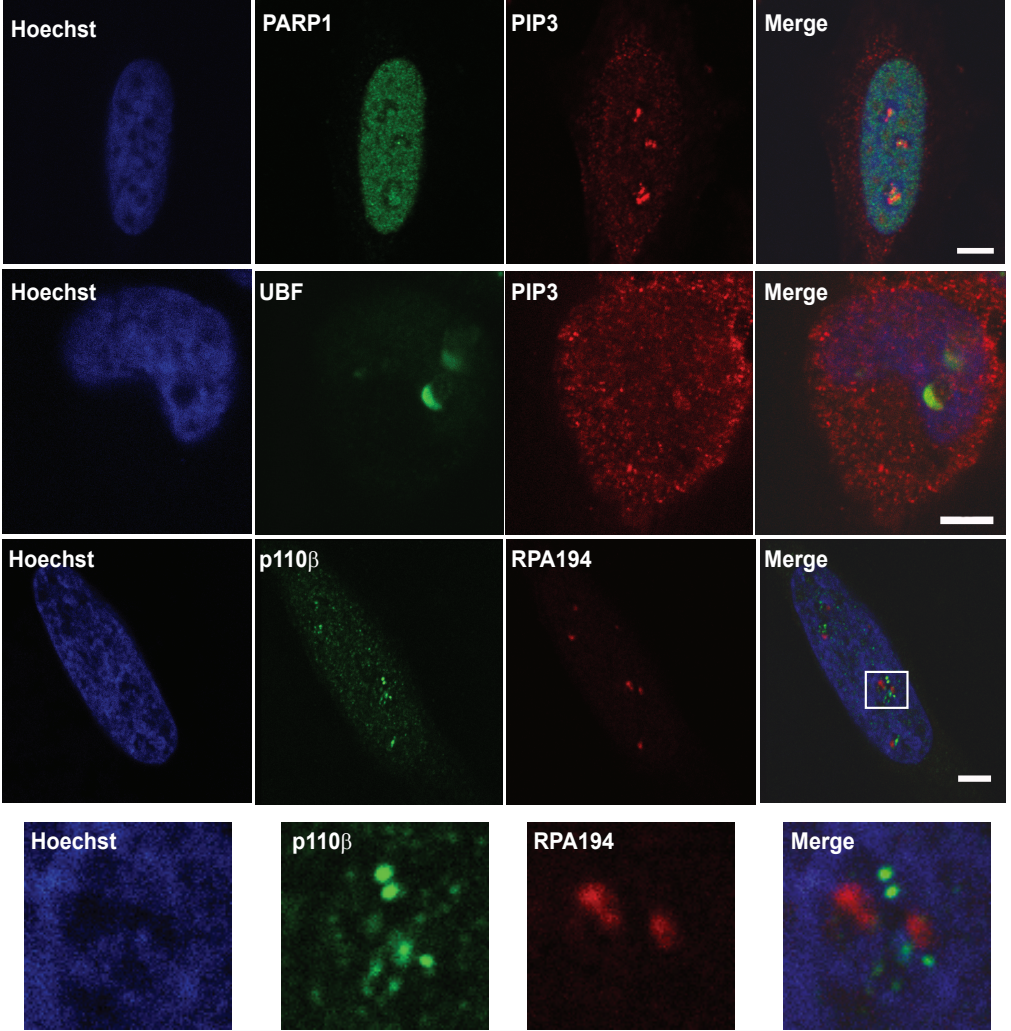


Figure 5

Actinomycin D treated cells



SUPPLEMENTARY METHODS and DATA

Nuclear phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-triphosphate interactome

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Supplementary methods

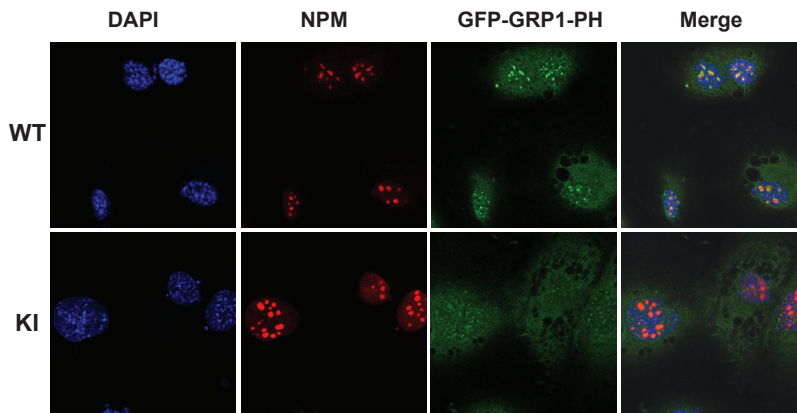
RNA extraction: HeLa cells were collected by centrifugation and after two washes with PBS, the cell pellet was suspended in 1ml TriReagent (Sigma) and incubated at room temperature (RT) for 5 minutes. Chloroform (200µl) was added and after vigorous shaking was incubated at RT for 1 minute before centrifugation (4°C at 12000 x g) for 15 minutes. To the upper phase 500µl of Phenol -chloroform - isoamyl alcohol mixture (Sigma) was added and after vigorous shaking was incubated at RT for 2 minute before centrifugation (4°C at 12000 x g) for 10 min. Chloroform (500µl) was added to the upper phase after mixing was incubated at RT for 1 min before centrifugation (4°C at 12000 x g) for 10 minutes. To the upper phase 20 µg of RNA grade glycogen (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 500 µl isopropanol was added after mixing was incubated at RT for 20 minutes before centrifugation (4°C at 13000 x g) for 20 min. To the pellet 1 ml of ice cold 70% ethanol was added and after mixing was centrifuged (4°C at 8000 x g) for 5 min. The RNA pellet was dissolved in water for RT-qPCR analysis.

RT-qPCR: cDNA was made from total RNA extracts of HeLa cells using the High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher scientific). PowerUp™ SYBR™ Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher scientific) was used for the real-time PCRs, performed using Roche Light Cycler 480. To amplify the target pre-rRNA, we used the following primers for the 5' external transcribed spacer region: 5'-GAACGGTGGTGTGTCGTTC-3' and 5'-GCGTCTCGTCTCGTCTCACT-3' (1). As a reference gene we used RPS12: 5'-ATTCAGCTTACCCGTAACC-3' and 5'-CAACCACTTACGGGGATTC-3' (2).

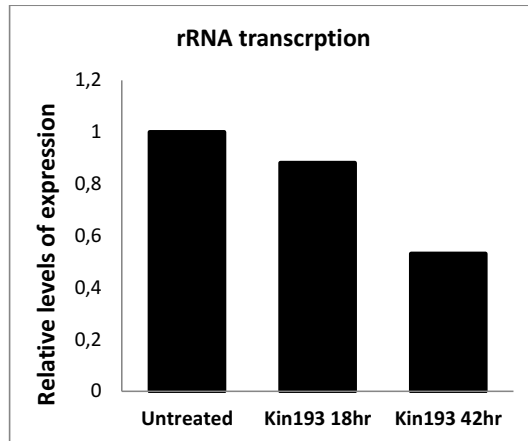
References

1. Murayama A, Ohmori K, Fujimura A, Minami H, Yasuzawa-Tanaka K, Kuroda T, et al. Epigenetic control of rDNA loci in response to intracellular energy status. *Cell*. 2008;133(4):627-39.
2. Gabriel JM, Higgins MJ, Gebuhr TC, Shows TB, Saitoh S, Nicholls RD. A model system to study genomic imprinting of human genes. *P Natl Acad Sci USA*. 1998;95(25):14857-62.

Supplementary figures



Supplementary figure S1- Co localization of PtdIns(3,4,5)P3 with Nucleophosmin at the exit of mitosis. MEF p110 β WT and Kinase inactive (KI) cells were treated for 16 hours with 50ng/ml nocodazole as described in the methods and collected after mitotic shake-off. Cells were fixed after 4 hours of replating. Immunofluorescent staining was performed using GFP-GRP1-PH and the Nucleophosmin antibody.



Supplementary Figure S2. pre-rRNA transcription levels are reduced upon p110 β inhibition. HeLa cells were treated with the selective p110 β inhibitor (10 μ M) for the times indicated and pre- rRNA qPCR was performed. Relative pre-rRNA expression to RPS12 gene are shown where the levels decreased in a time dependent manner.

Supplementary Table S1. PIP3 specific with log2 >0.5

proteins common to T cell nucleolar list
 proteins common with NoDB
 proteins common to Lamont 2012 nucleolar list

Protein FDR	Master	Accession	Description	Sum FFP Score	Coverage	# Peptides	# PSMs	# Unique Peptides	# AAs	MW [kDa]	Abundance Ratio: (F1, Heavy) / (F1, Light)	log 2 ratio	Abundance: F1: Light, Control	Abundance: F1: Heavy, Sample	Abundances Count: F1: Light, Control	Abundances Count: F1: Heavy, Sample	emPAI	# Razor Peptides	Score Request HT
High	Master Protein	Q05639	Elongation factor 1-alpha 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EEF1A2 PE=1 SV=1	29,32876857	16,1987	7	18	1	463	50,438	100	6,644		1214000	1	1,754	0	16,6119	
High	Master Protein	Q06787	Fragile X mental retardation protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=FMRI PE=1 SV=1	5,451668942	3,322785	2	2	1	632	71,131	100	6,644		9650000	1	0,122	0	2,23895	
High	Master Protein	Q99873	Protein arginine N-methyltransferase 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PRMT1 PE=1 SV=2	5,429119212	6,648199	2	2	2	361	41,489	23,861	4,577	186600	4452000	1	2	0,245	0	0
High	Master Protein	P60900	Proteasome subunit alpha type-6 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PSMA6 PE=1 SV=1	2,360984418	8,943089	2	2	2	246	27,382	23,644	4,563	146500	3465000	1	2	0,359	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q9BRX2	Protein pelota homolog OS=Homo sapiens GN=PELO PE=1 SV=2	6,509226556	11,68831	4	4	4	385	43,332	19,83	4,31	502600	9966000	3	3	0,407	0	0
High	Master Protein	P29372	DNA-3-methyladenine glycosylase OS=Homo sapiens GN=MFG PE=1 SV=3	10,34565189	19,12752	4	4	4	298	32,848	18,812	4,234	856800	16120000	2	2	0,719	0	2,35561
High	Master Protein	P62258	14-3-3 protein epsilon OS=Homo sapiens GN=YWHAE PE=1 SV=1	4,186015707	8,235294	2	3	1	255	29,155	14,189	3,827	292700	4153000	1	1	0,468	0	0
High	None	P07900	Heat shock protein HSP 90-alpha OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSP90AA1 PE=1 SV=5	7,723860059	5,327869	3	4	3	732	84,607	13,62	3,768	698400	9511000	3	4	0,245	0	3,85125
High	Master Protein	Q8NF48	N-acetylneuraminate cytidyltransferase OS=Homo sapiens GN=CMAS PE=1 SV=2	5,189136666	6,221198	3	3	3	434	48,349	10,727	3,423	519700	5575000	2	3	0,259	0	0
High	Master Protein	P08238	Heat shock protein HSP 90-beta OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSP90AB1 PE=1 SV=4	15,09708343	11,04972	6	7	6	724	83,212	10,343	3,371	1484000	15350000	4	6	0,455	0	8,02137
High	Master Protein	Q9UP00	LIM and calponin homology domains-containing protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=LIMCH1 PE=1 SV=4	5,156917712	3,693444	3	3	3	1083	121,792	9,439	3,239	463800	4378000	2	3	0,105	0	0
High	None	O58FF8	Putative heat shock protein HSP 90-beta 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSP90AB2P PE=1 SV=2	3,811228059	5,774278	2	2	2	381	44,321	8,559	3,097	1018000	8712000	2	2	0,202	0	3,52215

High	Master Protein	Q00059	Transcription factor A, mitochondrial OS=Homo sapiens GN=TFAM PE=1 SV=1	4,852,543,815	9,349,593	2	2	246	29,078	7,543	2,915	469,700	35,430,000	2	2	0,259	0	1,870,49	
High	Master Protein	Q8N8S7	Protein enabled homolog OS=Homo sapiens GN=ENAH PE=1 SV=2	5,958,037,664	3,722,504	2	3	591	66,47	6,076	2,603	200,700	12,200,000	2	2	0,318	0	0	
High	Master Protein	P35241	Radixin OS=Homo sapiens GN=RDXX PE=1 SV=1	12,630,108,32	6,689,537	4	11	583	68,521	5,822	2,542	143,600	836,100	1	1	0,413	0	5,191,14	
High	None	P35580	Myosin-10 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MYH10 PE=1 SV=3	13,384,311,06	2,530,364	4	10	1976	228,858	5,623	2,491	754,600	424,300,000	4	4	0,115	0	1,914,06	
High	Master Protein	Q16527	Cysteine and glycine-rich protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CSR2 PE=1 SV=3	3,168,550,78	12,953,37	2	2	193	20,94	5,519	2,464	85,580	47,230,000	2	2	0,425	0	0	
High	Master Protein	P35579	Myosin-9 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MYH9 PE=1 SV=4	83,917,083,13	22,244,49	31	52	31	1960	226,392	5,071	2,342	542,100,000	26	30	1,006	0	23,083,2	
High	Master Protein	O94979	Protein transport protein Sec31A OS=Homo sapiens GN=SEC31A PE=1 SV=3	4,126,438,029	2,459,016	3	3	1220	132,931	5,049	2,336	766,100	386,800	2	3	0,139	0	0	
High	Master Protein	P30419	Glycylpeptide N-tetradecanoyltransferase 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=NMT1 PE=1 SV=2	6,485,077,644	8,669,355	3	3	496	56,77	4,954	2,309	242,600	120,200,000	2	3	0,194	0	0	
High	None	P35749	Myosin-11 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MYH11 PE=1 SV=3	6,419,145,944	2,789,047	4	4	1972	227,199	4,617	2,207	201,100	92,850,000	2	3	0,056	0	0	
High	Master Protein	Q92785	Zinc finger protein ubi-4d OS=Homo sapiens GN=DPF2 PE=1 SV=2	2,815,731,318	5,882,353	2	2	391	44,127	4,304	2,106	71,730	308,700	1	2	0,212	0	0	
High	Master Protein	P51116	Fragile X mental retardation syndrome-related protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=FXR2 PE=1 SV=2	9,472,176,546	9,212,481	5	5	673	74,178	4,28	2,098	299,900	128,400,000	4	4	0,299	0	0	
High	Master Protein	Q92879	CUGBP Elav-like family member 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CELF1 PE=1 SV=2	5,764,974,088	6,790,123	3	3	486	52,03	4,226	2,079	104,500	44,140,000	1	3	0,413	0	1,675,2	
High	Master Protein	O00148	ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX39A OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDX39A PE=1 SV=2	21,705,006,65	21,311,148	8	12	3	427	49,098	4,105	2,037	180,400	740,700	1	2	1,471	0	8,965,566
High	Master Protein	P15311	Ezrin OS=Homo sapiens GN=EZR PE=1 SV=4	19,315,045,53	11,945,39	7	15	4	586	69,37	4,007	2,003	512,700	205,400,000	4	4	0,805	0	8,398,86
High	Master Protein	P67809	Nuclease-sensitive element-binding protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=YBX1 PE=1 SV=3	15,694,395,57	20,370,37	4	6	1	324	35,903	3,974	1,991	461,100	183,200,000	1	1	1,683	0	8,013,24
High	None	Q72406	Myosin-14 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MYH14 PE=1 SV=2	8,982,866,617	2,406,015	4	5	4	1995	227,732	3,962	1,986	125,800,000	498,300,000	3	4	0,094	0	1,895,28
High	Master Protein Candidate	P31946	14-3-3 protein beta/alpha OS=Homo sapiens GN=YWHAB PE=1 SV=3	4,388,550,092	7,723,577	2	3	1	246	28,065	3,95	1,982	123,900	489,400	2	2	0,501	0	0
High	Master Protein	P61981	14-3-3 protein gamma OS=Homo sapiens GN=YWHAG PE=1 SV=2	4,388,550,092	7,692,308	2	3	1	247	28,285	3,95	1,982	123,900	489,400	2	2	0,468	1	0
High	Master Protein	P27695	DNA-(apurinic or apyrimidinic site) lyase OS=Homo sapiens GN=APEX1 PE=1 SV=2	5,292,621,467	8,176,101	2	2	2	318	35,532	3,9	1,963	253,600	989,100	2	2	0,292	0	0
High	Master Protein	O43242	26S proteasome non-ATPase regulatory subunit 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PSMD3 PE=1 SV=2	6,235,280,136	8,426,966	4	4	4	534	60,939	3,851	1,945	180,300	694,300	4	4	0,266	0	0

High	Master Protein	O92945	Far upstream element-binding protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=KHSRP PE=1 SV=4	7,492,468,256	7,876,231	4	4	4	711	73,07	3,831	1,938	165,900	6357000	4	4	0,245	0	1,767,68
High	Master Protein	P26196	Probable ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX6 OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDX6 PE=1 SV=2	8,157,557,655	10,97308	4	4	4	483	54,382	3,708	1,891	117,400	4353000	3	3	0,374	0	1,794,57
High	Master Protein	Q13200	26S proteasome non-ATPase regulatory subunit 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PSMD2 PE=1 SV=3	5,654,164,408	5,726,872	4	4	4	908	100,136	3,706	1,89	357,100	13240000	3	4	0,169	0	0
High	Master Protein	P16989	Y-box-binding protein 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=YBX3 PE=1 SV=4	19,797,728,82	13,70968	4	7	1	372	40,066	3,613	1,853	21670000	78310000	5	5	1,239	4	10,11,86
High	Master Protein	Q99460	26S proteasome non-ATPase regulatory subunit 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PSMD1 PE=1 SV=2	4,523,069,434	3,043,022	3	3	3	953	105,769	3,599	1,848	146,900	5287000	3	3	0,134	0	0
High	Master Protein	P54886	Delta-1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate synthase OS=Homo sapiens GN=ALDH18A1 PE=1 SV=2	15,147,984,12	9,182,39	6	6	6	795	87,248	3,509	1,811	292,300	10260000	5	5	0,318	0	6,94,965
High	None	Q9Y2T7	Y-box-binding protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=YBX2 PE=1 SV=2	14,522,410,64	9,890,11	3	5	0	364	38,495	3,497	1,806	193,500,000	67650000	4	4	0,896	0	8,01,324
High	Master Protein	Q13838	Spliceosome RNA helicase DDX39B OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDX39B PE=1 SV=1	22,263,264,94	21,261,68	8	13	3	428	48,96	3,301	1,723	186,400,000	61510000	6	6	1,471	4	10,82,6
High	None	Q32P51	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A1-like 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPA1L2 PE=2 SV=2	37,886,698,968	26,2,25	9	22	7	320	34,204	3,272	1,71	126,500,000	41400000	5	6	4,995	0	26,89,986
High	Master Protein	P51114	Fragile X mental retardation syndrome-related protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=FXR1 PE=1 SV=3	20,817,41,297	14,653,78	7	8	6	621	69,678	3,229	1,691	193,500,000	62460000	6	7	0,604	1	5,10,25
High	Master Protein	Q9B067	Glutamate-rich WD repeat-containing protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=GRWD1 PE=1 SV=1	3,833,110,168	5,156,951	2	2	2	446	49,388	3,158	1,659	83,970	2652000	2	2	0,259	0	0
High	Master Protein	P42166	Lamina-associated polypeptide 2, isoform alpha OS=Homo sapiens GN=TMPO PE=1 SV=2	8,886,581,796	3,458,213	2	3	2	694	75,446	3,096	1,63	350,000	10830000	2	2	0,189	0	5,730,58
High	Master Protein	Q13112	Chromatin assembly factor 1 subunit B OS=Homo sapiens GN=CHAF1B PE=1 SV=1	4,228,310,791	4,114,49	2	2	2	559	61,454	3,057	1,612	305,500	933,900	2	2	0,155	0	3,62,86
High	Master Protein	O75150	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase BRE1B OS=Homo sapiens GN=RNIF40 PE=1 SV=4	10,043,004,865	4,595,405	4	4	4	1001	113,581	3,037	1,603	465,800	14150000	4	4	0,16	0	3,51,063
High	Master Protein	P78344	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 gamma 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF4G2 PE=1 SV=1	7,163,198,281	4,630,65	4	5	4	907	102,297	3,021	1,595	328,400	9921000	4	4	0,22	0	1,652,49
High	Master Protein	P26599	Polypyrimidine tract-binding protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PTBP1 PE=1 SV=1	53,123,333,827	31,638,42	9	36	9	531	57,186	2,991	1,581	266,000,000	79570000	8	7	2,981	0	40,79,97
High	Master Protein	P53396	ATP-citrate synthase OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACLY PE=1 SV=3	93,632,82,83	25,794,73	22	42	22	1101	120,762	2,985	1,578	892,300,000	266400000	23	23	2,003	0	44,52,75
High	Master Protein	Q13765	Nascent polypeptide-associated complex subunit alpha OS=Homo sapiens	4,518,535,242	12,558,14	2	2	2	215	23,37	2,953	1,562	181,700	5367000	2	1	0,931	0	3,584,37

High	Master Protein	P09874	Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PARP1 PE=1 SV=4	80,00810362	26,82446	22	37	22	1014	113,012	2,5	1,322	165600000	414000000	19	20	1,994	0	39,3181
High	None	Q2VIR3	Putative eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit 3-like protein OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF253L PE=5 SV=2	13,36729042	12,07627	5	7	5	472	51,196	2,497	1,32	15310000	38240000	4	6	1,015	0	3,44028
High	Master Protein	P26368	Splicing factor U2AF 65 kDa subunit OS=Homo sapiens GN=U2AF2 PE=1 SV=4	7,090099677	7,578947	3	5	3	475	53,467	2,497	1,32	5352000	13360000	4	4	0,551	0	2,04845
High	Master Protein	Q69YN4	Protein virilizer homolog OS=Homo sapiens GN=KIAA1429 PE=1 SV=2	16,61135797	5,573951	8	9	8	1812	201,898	2,474	1,307	9706000	24010000	7	7	0,209	0	1,68385
High	Master Protein	Q92466	DNA damage-binding protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDB2 PE=1 SV=1	3,04793441	4,683841	2	2	2	427	47,833	2,474	1,307	2256000	5580000	2	2	0,179	0	1,74063
High	None	Q14240	Eukaryotic initiation factor 4A-II OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF4A2 PE=1 SV=2	21,52213569	16,46192	6	11	6	407	46,373	2,459	1,298	24390000	59970000	5	7	1,371	0	9,80257
High	Master Protein	P09661	U2 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein A' OS=Homo sapiens GN=SNRPA1 PE=1 SV=2	7,848166526	14,5098	3	4	3	255	28,398	2,443	1,289	4607000	11260000	3	3	0,848	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q8NE71	ATP-binding cassette sub-family F member 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ABCF1 PE=1 SV=2	8,519357924	5,798817	4	5	4	845	95,866	2,426	1,279	12020000	29170000	4	4	0,278	0	2,11527
High	Master Protein	Q9NSD9	Phenylalanine--tRNA ligase beta subunit OS=Homo sapiens GN=FARSB PE=1 SV=3	19,75074837	15,95925	9	13	9	589	66,074	2,415	1,272	27440000	66260000	9	9	0,8	0	13,3394
High	Master Protein	O52LJ0	Protein FAM98B OS=Homo sapiens GN=FAM98B PE=1 SV=1	8,065347452	8,181818	2	2	2	330	37,167	2,408	1,268	2206000	5312000	2	2	0,259	0	4,33705
High	Master Protein	O75475	PC4 and SFRS1-interacting protein OS=Homo sapiens GN=PSIP1 PE=1 SV=1	3,418456681	3,207547	2	2	2	530	60,067	2,407	1,267	3170000	7629000	2	2	0,133	0	1,75941
High	Master Protein	Q13263	Transcription intermediary factor 1-beta OS=Homo sapiens GN=TRIM28 PE=1 SV=5	21,0256917	12,09581	8	9	8	835	88,493	2,383	1,253	20450000	48730000	7	8	0,658	0	7,58258
High	Master Protein	Q8N684	Cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor subunit 7 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CPSF7 PE=1 SV=1	24,17134713	16,13588	5	6	5	471	52,018	2,377	1,249	2472000	5875000	4	4	0,738	0	12,8828
High	Master Protein	P52272	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein M OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPM PE=1 SV=3	39,26020347	25,89041	14	21	14	730	77,464	2,37	1,245	35210000	83440000	16	16	1,31	0	13,1737
High	Master Protein	P41091	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF253 PE=1 SV=3	15,38724158	15,04237	6	8	6	472	51,077	2,367	1,243	25200000	59660000	5	7	1,154	0	3,44028
High	Master Protein	O43707	Alpha-actinin-4 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTN4 PE=1 SV=2	265,9574554	65,75192	46	175	34	911	104,788	2,366	1,242	671300000	1588000000	57	54	27,861	18	185,602
High	Master Protein	P0DMV9	Heat shock 70 kDa protein 1B OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA1B PE=1 SV=1	41,21365779	17,62871	9	19	7	641	70,009	2,355	1,236	23890000	56250000	8	8	1,801	0	19,9078
High	Master Protein	Q14103	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein D0 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPD PE=1 SV=1	17,25077632	12,67606	5	8	4	355	38,41	2,345	1,23	40780000	95620000	5	5	1,929	1	9,17725
High	Master Protein	P23284	PepTidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase B OS=Homo sapiens GN=PPIB PE=1 SV=2	18,68389239	31,48148	7	10	7	216	23,728	2,342	1,228	23750000	55620000	7	7	2,162	0	4,34278

High	Master Protein	O9P258	Protein RCC2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=RCC2 PE=1 SV=2	34,217,2849	30,651,134	14	18	14	522	56,049	2,305	1,205	362,30000	83510000	15	15	2,162	0	1,78161
High	Master Protein	Q09028	Histone-binding protein RBBP4 OS=Homo sapiens GN=RBBP4 PE=1 SV=3	13,925,93586	15,529,41	6	7	6	425	47,626	2,305	1,205	146,70000	33800000	6	6	1,239	0	1,68677
High	Master Protein	P09651	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNP1 PE=1 SV=5	42,333,69091	26,881,72	10	24	8	372	38,723	2,286	1,193	388,30000	88760000	6	8	5,31	0	26,8986
High	Master Protein	P46063	ATP-dependent DNA helicase Q1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=RECQL PE=1 SV=3	13,370,08251	10,015,41	5	7	5	649	73,41	2,271	1,183	123,10000	27950000	4	5	0,512	0	4,06008
High	None	P48741	Putative heat shock 70 kDa protein 7 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA7 PE=5 SV=2	22,985,57725	13,623,98	4	10	2	367	40,22	2,269	1,182	109,10000	24750000	3	3	1,994	0	11,7797
High	Master Protein	P26640	Valine-tRNA ligase OS=Homo sapiens GN=VARS PE=1 SV=4	4,920,518592	3,243,671	3	3	3	1264	140,387	2,265	1,18	181,7000	4116000	3	3	0,104	0	0
High	Master Protein	P33991	DNA replication licensing factor MCM4 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MCM4 PE=1 SV=5	9,273,803654	6,025,492	5	6	5	863	96,498	2,264	1,179	109,20000	24730000	4	4	0,311	0	1,6578
High	Master Protein	P05198	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF2S1 PE=1 SV=3	28,008,88771	23,492,06	7	10	7	315	36,089	2,249	1,169	294,00000	66130000	7	7	1,848	0	11,1706
High	None	Q658J3	POTE ankyrin domain family member E OS=Homo sapiens GN=POTEE PE=1 SV=3	16,159,97127	3,720,93	3	7	3	1075	121,286	2,243	1,165	403,80000	90570000	3	3	0,187	0	5,32513
High	None	A5A3E0	POTE ankyrin domain family member F OS=Homo sapiens GN=POTEF PE=1 SV=2	16,159,97127	3,720,93	3	7	3	1075	121,367	2,243	1,165	403,80000	90570000	3	3	0,184	0	5,32513
High	Master Protein	P60709	Actin, cytoplasmic 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTB PE=1 SV=1	31,917,91225	34,933,33	9	18	9	375	41,71	2,241	1,164	106,700000	239100000	7	7	2,675	0	5,32513
High	Master Protein	P63261	Actin, cytoplasmic 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTG1 PE=1 SV=1	31,917,91225	34,933,33	9	18	9	375	41,766	2,241	1,164	106,700000	239100000	7	7	2,675	0	5,32513
High	Master Protein	P78347	General transcription factor II-H OS=Homo sapiens GN=GTF2I PE=1 SV=2	22,738,61014	9,018,036	8	12	8	998	112,346	2,236	1,161	213,20000	47670000	9	9	0,505	0	5,62424
High	Master Protein	Q14157	Ubiquitin-associated protein 2-like OS=Homo sapiens GN=UBAP2L PE=1 SV=2	4,612,892,557	2,115,915	2	2	2	1087	114,465	2,216	1,148	360,9000	79970000	2	2	0,141	0	2,29976
High	Master Protein	P12956	X-ray repair cross-complementing protein 6 OS=Homo sapiens GN=XRCC6 PE=1 SV=2	69,727,31585	38,095,24	18	40	18	609	69,799	2,215	1,147	116,300000	257500000	15	15	3,732	0	34,4228
High	Master Protein	P78527	DNA-dependent protein kinase catalytic subunit OS=Homo sapiens GN=PRKDC PE=1 SV=3	150,380,3369	14,001,94	50	74	50	4128	468,788	2,212	1,145	215,600000	476800000	49	52	0,911	0	51,9631
High	Master Protein	P62826	GTP-binding nuclear protein Ran OS=Homo sapiens GN=RAN PE=1 SV=3	6,963,519,043	14,814,81	3	3	3	216	24,408	2,205	1,141	808,1000	17820000	3	3	0,874	0	1,93105
High	Master Protein	O43684	Mitotic checkpoint protein BUB3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=BUB3 PE=1 SV=1	19,487,60944	19,512,2	5	13	5	328	37,131	2,164	1,114	225,80000	48850000	6	6	2,594	0	7,69858
High	Master Protein	Q05048	Cleavage stimulation factor subunit 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CSTF1 PE=1 SV=1	7,524,19712	14,849,19	5	6	5	431	48,327	2,146	1,102	664,9000	14270000	4	5	0,874	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q15393	Splicing factor 3B subunit 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SF3B3 PE=1 SV=4	9,791,593,135	5,094,495	5	5	5	1217	135,492	2,139	1,097	561,0000	12000000	5	5	0,194	0	3,82551

High	None	P54652	Heat shock-related 70 kDa protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA2 PE=1 SV=1	33,06005342	11,893558	7	15	4	639	69,978	2,136	1,095	89960000	1922000000	10	10	1,322	0	15,3062
High	Master Protein	P49916	DNA ligase 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=LIG3 PE=1 SV=2	12,74158503	6,342914	6	6	6	1009	112,835	2,119	1,083	7043000	14920000	5	6	0,225	0	4,38436
High	Master Protein	Q16531	DNA damage-binding protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDB1 PE=1 SV=1	11,06157647	4,473684	5	6	5	1140	126,887	2,101	1,071	5212000	109500000	5	5	0,254	0	3,45183
High	Master Protein	Q15428	Splicing factor 3A subunit 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SF3A2 PE=1 SV=2	4,366147398	5,603448	2	3	2	464	49,224	2,094	1,066	9760000	20440000	2	2	0,54	0	0
High	None	Q9BYX7	Putative beta-actin-like protein 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=POTEKP PE=5 SV=1	14,09514736	7,733333	2	6	2	375	41,989	2,092	1,065	31130000	65130000	2	2	0,492	0	5,32513
High	Master Protein	P26358	DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=DNMT1 PE=1 SV=2	10,24678291	2,908416	5	5	5	1616	183,05	2,079	1,056	4825000	10030000	4	5	0,132	0	3,61956
High	Master Protein	Q8NCA5	Protein FAM98A OS=Homo sapiens GN=FAM98A PE=1 SV=1	7,85664939	9,441233	3	4	3	519	55,366	2,079	1,056	4074000	8470000	3	3	0,425	0	1,69269
High	Master Protein	P29692	Elongation factor 1-delta OS=Homo sapiens GN=EEF1D PE=1 SV=5	19,93659583	26,69039	5	7	5	281	31,103	2,078	1,055	15430000	32060000	4	4	1,239	0	7,38508
High	Master Protein	Q8N163	Cell cycle and apoptosis regulator protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CCAR2 PE=1 SV=2	7,800968892	3,466956	3	4	3	923	102,838	2,078	1,055	3742000	7775000	3	3	0,182	0	3,80208
High	Master Protein	Q8NBJ5	Procollagen galactosyltransferase 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=COLGALT1 PE=1 SV=1	17,87815106	8,842444	5	8	5	622	71,59	2,069	1,049	6801000	14070000	4	4	0,567	0	8,0284
High	Master Protein	Q1KWD3	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein U-like protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPU12 PE=1 SV=1	32,27212646	19,81258	11	20	11	747	85,052	2,036	1,026	57750000	117600000	12	11	1,276	0	11,3131
High	None	Q96F07	Cytoplasmic FMR1-interacting protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CYFIP2 PE=1 SV=2	4,712441462	1,72144	2	2	2	1278	148,302	2,032	1,023	2323000	4720000	2	2	0,059	0	1,64902
High	Master Protein	Q7L576	Cytoplasmic FMR1-interacting protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CYFIP1 PE=1 SV=1	6,883172034	2,873105	3	3	3	1253	145,089	2,029	1,021	2632000	5339000	3	3	0,095	0	1,64902
High	None	Q14141	Septin-6 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SEPT6 PE=1 SV=4	3,459170748	4,608295	2	2	2	434	49,685	2,029	1,021	3157000	6404000	2	2	0,194	0	0
High	Master Protein	O43670	BUB3-interacting and GLEBS motif-containing protein ZNF207 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ZNF207 PE=1 SV=1	4,526907577	5,020921	2	3	2	478	50,717	2,025	1,018	6310000	12770000	2	2	1,154	0	0
High	Master Protein	O75718	Cartilage-associated protein OS=Homo sapiens GN=CRTPA PE=1 SV=1	2,515278601	5,236908	2	2	2	401	46,532	2,024	1,017	2282000	4618000	1	1	0,186	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q01780	Exosome component 10 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EXOSC10 PE=1 SV=2	2,590100067	3,389831	2	2	2	885	100,768	2,009	1,006	1494000	3003000	2	2	0,076	0	0
High	Master Protein	P68104	Elongation factor 1-alpha 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EEF1A1 PE=1 SV=1	48,40257977	27,48918	9	40	3	462	50,109	2,007	1,005	275700000	553300000	8	8	4,248	6	38,9906
High	Master Protein Candidate	O5VTE0	Putative elongation factor 1-alpha-like 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=EEF1A3 PE=5 SV=1	48,40257977	27,48918	9	40	3	462	50,153	2,007	1,005	275700000	553300000	8	8	4,248	0	38,9906
High	None	P68032	Actin, alpha cardiac muscle 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTC1 PE=1 SV=1	13,6015804	10,07958	3	5	3	377	41,992	2,003	1,002	21380000	42820000	2	2	0,492	0	5,32513

High	None	P68133	Actin, alpha skeletal muscle OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTA1 PE=1 SV=1	13,601,5804	10,07958	3	5	3	377	42,024	2,003	1,002	21380000	42820000	2	2	0,492	0	5,32513
High	None	P62736	Actin, aortic smooth muscle OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTA2 PE=1 SV=1	13,601,5804	10,07958	3	5	3	377	41,982	2,003	1,002	21380000	42820000	2	2	0,492	0	5,32513
High	None	P63267	Actin, gamma-enteric smooth muscle OS=Homo sapiens GN=ACTG2 PE=1 SV=1	13,601,5804	10,10638	3	5	3	376	41,85	2,003	1,002	21380000	42820000	2	2	0,52	0	5,32513
High	None	Q16576	Histone-binding protein RBBP7 OS=Homo sapiens GN=RBBP7 PE=1 SV=1	3,453,947181	3,529412	2	2	2	425	47,79	2,003	1,002	6077000	12170000	2	2	0,259	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q2TAY7	WD40 repeat-containing protein SMU11 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SMU11 PE=1 SV=2	4,287,597374	7,407407	3	3	3	513	57,507	2,001	1,001	2342000	4686000	3	3	0,233	0	0
High	Master Protein	P11142	Heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA8 PE=1 SV=1	65,98225441	30,65015	17	33	14	646	70,854	1,999	0,999	153100000	306100000	20	20	5,236	5	32,6489
High	Master Protein	Q9UN86	Ras GTPase-activating protein-binding protein 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=G3BP2 PE=1 SV=2	10,857,74742	8,091286	3	6	3	482	54,088	1,999	0,999	20410000	40800000	3	3	0,359	0	1,77134
High	Master Protein	Q9BR76	Coronin-1B OS=Homo sapiens GN=CORO1B PE=1 SV=1	12,817,41915	12,26994	6	7	6	489	54,2	1,988	0,991	15190000	30190000	6	6	0,905	0	6,96191
High	Master Candidate	Q14839	Chromodomain-helicase-DNA-binding protein 4 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CHD4 PE=1 SV=2	4,188315898	1,307531	2	2	2	1912	217,867	1,988	0,991	1465000	2912000	2	2	0,045	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q8TD10	Chromodomain-helicase-DNA-binding protein 5 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CHD5 PE=1 SV=1	4,188315898	1,279427	2	2	2	1954	222,909	1,988	0,991	1465000	2912000	2	2	0,042	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q9Y310	tRNA-splicing ligase RtcB homolog OS=Homo sapiens GN=RTCB PE=1 SV=1	31,50556514	23,16832	10	15	10	505	55,175	1,971	0,979	42850000	84460000	10	10	2,162	0	7,62417
High	Master Protein	P62136	Serine/threonine-protein phosphatase PP1-alpha catalytic subunit OS=Homo sapiens GN=PPP1CA PE=1 SV=1	6,642003593	13,93939	4	4	4	330	37,488	1,939	0,955	5118000	9925000	4	4	0,585	0	1,9523
High	Master Protein	P50552	Vasodilator-stimulated phosphoprotein OS=Homo sapiens GN=VASP PE=1 SV=3	15,47407295	12,36842	4	7	4	380	39,805	1,927	0,946	12430000	23960000	4	4	1,448	0	2,21387
High	Master Protein	Q16181	Septin-7 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SEPT7 PE=1 SV=2	14,91601014	12,12815	4	8	4	437	50,648	1,915	0,937	27390000	52440000	5	5	0,817	0	2,22222
High	Master Protein	Q14444	Caprin-1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CAPRN1 PE=1 SV=2	23,80806383	9,308886	6	9	6	709	78,318	1,911	0,934	57640000	110100000	6	6	1,031	0	7,41021
High	Master Protein	Q9NVA2	Septin-11 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SEPT11 PE=1 SV=3	10,322004	10,25641	4	5	4	429	49,367	1,911	0,934	16890000	32270000	4	4	0,585	0	1,95787
High	Master Protein	Q15007	Pre-mRNA-splicing regulator WTAP OS=Homo sapiens GN=WTAP PE=1 SV=2	6,63706055	6,060606	2	2	2	396	44,217	1,907	0,931	3147000	6002000	2	2	0,194	0	0
High	Master Protein	P14866	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein L OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPL PE=1 SV=2	15,3027069	20,03396	7	10	7	589	64,092	1,895	0,922	40990000	77690000	6	6	0,848	0	3,92411
High	None	Q94973	AP-2 complex subunit alpha-2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=AP2A2 PE=1 SV=2	3,549977338	2,342918	2	2	2	939	103,895	1,895	0,922	2695000	5108000	2	2	0,086	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q12874	Splicing factor 3A subunit 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SF3A3 PE=1 SV=1	22,2158795	16,56687	6	10	6	501	58,812	1,873	0,905	29650000	55550000	5	6	1,276	0	1,8833

High	Master Protein	Q12996	Cleavage stimulation factor subunit 3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CSIF3 PE=1 SV=1	19,01167317	6,415621	4	7	4	717	82,869	1,855	0,891	12860000	23850000	4	4	0,482	0	7,91133
High	Master Protein	Q15459	Splicing factor 3A subunit 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SF3A1 PE=1 SV=1	37,44318882	20,80706	14	20	14	793	88,831	1,854	0,891	80060000	148400000	13	13	1,683	0	10,904
High	Master Protein	P42285	Superkiller virulicidin activity 2-like 2 OS=Homo sapiens GN=SKIV2L2 PE=1 SV=3	9,545270471	4,606526	4	5	4	1042	117,729	1,85	0,888	5241000	9695000	4	4	0,204	0	1,87461
High	Master Protein	O92499	ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=DDX1 PE=1 SV=2	40,26918239	25,54054	16	24	16	740	82,38	1,846	0,884	77670000	143400000	17	16	1,798	0	12,488
High	Master Protein	Q14676	Mediator of DNA damage checkpoint protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MDC1 PE=1 SV=3	3,221468185	0,957396	2	2	2	2089	226,529	1,832	0,873	2318000	4247000	2	2	0,048	0	0
High	Master Protein	Q14315	Filamin-C OS=Homo sapiens GN=FLNC PE=1 SV=3	37,42546034	4,807339	11	26	6	2725	290,841	1,829	0,871	4696000	8588000	5	5	0,228	0	27,3135
High	Master Protein	Q01844	RNA-binding protein EWS OS=Homo sapiens GN=EWSR1 PE=1 SV=1	19,586864643	7,317073	3	5	3	656	68,436	1,806	0,853	10490000	18940000	4	4	0,65	0	6,76824
High	Master Protein	Q00610	Claithrin heavy chain 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=CLTC PE=1 SV=5	51,64730069	9,313433	12	21	12	1675	191,493	1,794	0,843	41960000	75260000	11	12	0,664	0	15,8353
High	Master Protein	P11021	78 kDa glucose-regulated protein OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA5 PE=1 SV=2	44,6400291	20,94801	10	19	8	654	72,288	1,787	0,838	20960000	37450000	7	7	1,598	0	20,6935
High	Master Protein	O00303	Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit F OS=Homo sapiens GN=EIF3F PE=1 SV=1	28,4342601	15,68627	4	6	4	357	37,54	1,785	0,836	9694000	17310000	4	4	1,254	0	15,2488
High	Master Protein	P38646	Stress-70 protein, mitochondrial OS=Homo sapiens GN=HSPA9 PE=1 SV=2	10,00420043	5,44919	3	4	3	679	73,635	1,777	0,829	3791000	6737000	3	3	0,233	0	3,84852
High	Master Protein	O14979	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein D-like OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPDL PE=1 SV=3	9,514777855	7,857143	3	4	2	420	46,409	1,775	0,828	3524000	6256000	1	1	0,468	0	3,53746
High	Master Protein	Q14683	Structural maintenance of chromosomes protein 1A OS=Homo sapiens GN=SMC1A PE=1 SV=2	18,79835695	6,082725	7	10	7	1233	143,144	1,772	0,825	12520000	22180000	7	7	0,299	0	3,5649
High	Master Protein	O60341	Lysine-specific histone demethylase 1A OS=Homo sapiens GN=KDM1A PE=1 SV=2	4,144466308	2,934272	2	2	2	852	92,845	1,772	0,825	1715000	3039000	2	2	0,099	0	1,65597
High	Master Protein	O9UM54	Pre-mRNA-processing factor 19 OS=Homo sapiens GN=PRPF19 PE=1 SV=1	19,04741968	18,65079	6	11	6	504	55,146	1,766	0,82	26650000	47060000	5	6	1,462	0	1,75836
High	Master Protein	Q15717	ELAV-like protein 1 OS=Homo sapiens GN=ELAVL1 PE=1 SV=2	16,99536891	15,95092	5	6	5	326	36,069	1,762	0,817	15710000	27690000	5	5	1,254	0	11,1315
High	Master Protein	P25205	DNA replication licensing factor MCM3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MCM3 PE=1 SV=3	5,634374881	2,10396	2	3	2	808	90,924	1,757	0,813	1674000	2942000	2	2	0,129	0	1,7803
High	Master Protein	O43809	Cleavage and polyadenylation specificity factor subunit 5 OS=Homo sapiens GN=NUDT21 PE=1 SV=1	16,94191713	28,63436	5	7	5	227	26,211	1,752	0,809	39640000	69460000	6	6	1,738	0	6,14376
High	Master Protein	P43243	Matrin-3 OS=Homo sapiens GN=MATR3 PE=1 SV=2	15,3508069	6,847698	4	8	4	847	94,565	1,743	0,802	11720000	20420000	4	4	0,265	0	6,11155
High	Master Protein	Q00839	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein U OS=Homo sapiens GN=HNRNPU PE=1 SV=1	72,28348714	19,87879	14	44	14	825	90,528	1,742	0,801	291400000	507700000	16	17	3,642	0	28,0231

Supplementary table S2. KR motifs of the PIP3 specific pull down proteins

Entry	Entry name	Protein name	Gene name	Line number containing the KR motif
Q58FF8	H90B2_HUMAN	Putative heat shock protein HSP 90-...	HSP90AB2P HSP90 OBB	5:DDSGDKKKTKKIKEKYDQEELNKTPIWTRNTEITQEEYGEFYKSLTNDWKDLAV
P42167	LAP2B_HUMAN	Lamina-associated polypeptide 2, is...	TMPO LAP2	5:DRYSDNEEDSKIELKLEKREPLKGRAKTPVTLKQRRVHNQSYSQAGITETETWTSGSSKG
P07900	HS90A_HUMAN	Heat shock protein HSP 90-alpha	HSP90AA1 HSP90 A, HSPC1, HSPCA	6:KEEEEKEESEKPEIDVSGDEEEEEKDGDKKKKKIKEKYDQEELNKTPIWTRN
P35580	MYH10_HUMAN	Myosin-10	MYH10	18:EEEGARQLQLEKVTAEAKIKKMEEEILLLEDQNSKFIKEKKLIMEDRIAECSSQLAEFEE 19:KAKNLAKIRNKQEVMSIDLEERLKKEEKTRQELEKAKRKLDTGETTDLQDQIAELQQAQIDE 22:HATALEELSEQLQAKRFKANLEKNKQGLTDNKELACEYKVLQQVKAESEHRRKKLDAQ 27:EFERQNKQLRADMEDLIMSSKDDVGNVHLEKSKRALEQQVVEEMRTQLEELLEDLQATE
P35241	RADI_HUMAN	Radixin	RDX	7:EVQQMKAQAREEKHQQLERAQLENEKKKREIAEKEKERIEREKEELMERLKOIEEQTIK 8:AQKELEEQRKALQLDQERKRAKEEAERLEKERRAAEAKSAIAKQAADQMKNQEQLAEE 9:LAEFTAKIALLEEAKKKEEATEWQHKAFAAQEDLEKTEELKTVMSAPPPPPPPVIP
P08238	HS90B_HUMAN	Heat shock protein HSP 90-beta	HSP90AB1 HSP90 B, HSPC2, HSPCB	6:DKDDEEKPIEDVSGSDEEDDSGDKKTKKIKEKYDQEELNKTPIWTRNPDITQEE
P35579	MYH9_HUMAN	Myosin-9	MYH9	9:TYERMFRWLVLRNKALDKTRQGSFIGILDIAGFEIFDLNSFEQLCINTYNEKQLQLF 18:KLQLEKVTTEAKLKLLEEEQIILEDQNCKLAKKLEKLLERIAEFTTNLTTEEEKSKSLAK 19:LKNKHEAMITDLEERLRREEKQRQLEKTRRKLGGDSTDLSDQJAELOAQJAEIKMQLAK

P35749	MYH11_HUMAN	Myosin-11		MYH11 KIAA0866	20:KEEELQAAIARVEEEAAQNMALKKIRELSQISELQEDLESERASRNKAQEKQRDLGEE 22:LAEQLEQTKRYKANLEKAKQTLNERGELANEVKVLLQGGKGDSEHKRKKKVEAQLQELQVK 27:QFRTEMEDLMSSKDDVGKSVHELEKSKRALEQQVEEMIKTQLEEELEDELQATDADAKLRLEV
Q9UPQ0	LIMC1_HUMAN	LIM and calponin homology domains-c...		LIMCH1 KIAA110 2	4:FCVVVNPYKHLPIYSEKIVDMYKGGKRRHEMPPHIYAIADTAYRSMQLQDREDSILCTGES 18:EEEEAARQKLQLEKVTAEAKIKKLEDEILVMDQNNKLSKERKLLLEERISDLTTLNLAEEEE 19:KAKNLTCLKNKHESMISEVRLKKEEKSQRQLEKLRKLEGGDASDFHEQIADLQQAIAE 22:HAQAVEELTEQLEQFRAKANLDKNKQTLKENADLAGELRVLGOAKQVEVHKKKLEAQ 27:ELERTNMILKAEMEDLVSSKDDVGKNVHELEKSKRALETQMEEMIKTQLEEELEDELQATED 32:LHEMEGAVKSKFKSTIAALEAKIAQLEEQVEQEAAREKQAATKSLKQKDKKLEILLQVED
Q7Z406	MYH14_HUMAN	Myosin-14		MYH14 KIAA2034 , FP17425	12:SPLELQDNGSIEINIKKPNVVPQELAATTEKTEPNSQEDKNDGGKSRKGNIELASSEPQ 18:EKRLQHQHQLEAHLEAEFEGARQKLQLEKVTTEAKMKKFEEDLLLEDQNSKLSKERKL 19:LEDRLAEFSSQAEEEEKVSLSNKLRLKYEATIADMEDRLRKEEKGRQLEKLRRLDGE 21:QEDLESERVARTKAEKQRRLDGLGEELEALRGELELTDSTNAQQEILRSKREQVEYTELKTKTL
Q13838	DX39B_HUMAN	Spliceosome RNA helicase DDX39B		DDX39B BAT1, UAP56	6:KFMQDPMEIFVDDDETKLTLHGLQQYVYKLDNEKNRKLFDLLDVFNFQVWIFVKSQRC
Q9UQU16	DYN3_HUMAN	Dynammin-3		DNM3 KIAA0820	11:KGGSGYWFVLTAEISLWYKDDEEKKYMLDNLKVRDVEKFSMSSKHFALFNTQCR
O00148	DX39A_HUMAN	ATP-dependent RNA helicase DDX39A		DDX39A DDX39	6:FMQDPMEVFDDETKLTLHGLQQYVYKLDSEKNRKLFDLLDVFNFQVWIFVKSQRCM

O00139	KIF2A_HUMAN	Kinesin-like protein KIF2A	KIF2A KIF2, KNS2	3:SLNPLDLPDEIEPSPETPPPPASSAKVNKIVKINRRTVASIKINDPPSRNDRNVVGSARARP
Q05193	DYN1_HUMAN	Dynamain-1	DNM1 DNM	11:YWFVLTAEINLSWYKDDEEKEKYMVLSVDNLKLRDVEKGFMSKKHIFALFNTEQRNVYKDY
P50570	DYN2_HUMAN	Dynamain-2	DNM2 DYN2	11:YWFVLTAEISLWYKDEEEKKYMLPLDNLKIRDVEKGFMSNIKHVFAIFNTEQRNVYKDL
Q7KZF4	SND1_HUMAN	Staphylococcal nuclease domain-cont...	SND1 TDRD11	7:IAVYTRGAEKRAAERFAKERRLRIWRDYVYAPTANLDQKDKQFVAKVMQVNLNADAIVVKL
O43719	HTSF1_HUMAN	HIV Tat-specific factor 1	HTATSF1	5:KGDGLCCYLKRESVELALKLLDEDEIRGYKLVHEVAKFQLKGEYDASKKKKCKDKYKXKL
Q13200	PSMD2_HUMAN	26S proteasome non- ATPase regulator...	PSMD2 TRAP2	2:MEEGGRDKAPVQQQSPAAAAPGGTDEKPSGKERRRAGDKDKEQELSEEDKQLQLEMLV 12:AGSGNVLVYQQLLHICSEHFDSKEEKDKKKEKDKDKEAPADMGAHQGVAVLGIAl
P26358	DNMT1_HUMAN	DNA (cytosine-5)- methyltransferase ...	DNMT1 AIM, CXXC9, DNMT	5:QEESERAKSDESIKEDKDQDEKRRRVTSRERVARPLPAEEPERAKSGTRTEKEEERDEK 7:EKEPEKVNQISDEKDEKEEKRRKTTPKEPTEKKMARAKTVMMSKTHPPKCIQCGQYL 12:RQ.TIRHSTREKDRGPTKATTTKLVYQIFDTFFAEQIEKDDREDKENAFKRRRCGVCEVCQ
P46940	IQGA1_HUMAN	Ras GTPase-activating- like protein ...	IQGAP1 KIAA0051	25:ARTILLNTRKLVIVIRFQPGETLLEITPATSEQAEHQRAMQRRAIRDAKTPDKMKK 27:AELVKLQQTAAALNSKATFYGEQVDYYSYIKTCLDNLASKGVSKKPREMKGKSKKIS
Q00341	VIGIN_HUMAN	Viginlin	HDLBP HBP, VGL	4:KQGLSIMVSGKLDAMVMKARKDIVARLQTAOSATVAIPKEHHRFVIGKNGEKLQDLELKT 6:YNRLVGEIMQETGTRINPPPSVNRTEIVFTGEKEQLAQAVARIKIYEKKKTTTIAV 13:PAKLHNSLJGTGRLIRSIMEECGGVHIFPVEGSGSDTVVIRGSSDVEKAKQLHLHA 14:EEKQTSFTVDIRAKPEYHKFLIGKGGKIRKVRDSTGARVIFPAAEDKQDLITIIIGE
Q9H2U1	DHX36_HUMAN	ATP-dependent RNA	DHX36 DDX36, KIAA1488,	11:PPGVRKIVIAITNAETSITIDVVVYVIDGGKIKETHFDTONNISTMSAEWWSKANAKQRK

			helicase DHX36	MLEL1, RHAU	16:PKVAKIRINLGKRRKMVAVYTKDGLVAVHPKSVNVEQTDFFHYNWLIYHLKMRSSIYLY
P15311	EZRI_HUMAN	Ezrin		EZR VIL2	7:EVQQMKAQAREEKHQQLERQQLTEKRRKRETVEREKEQMMREKEELMLRLQDYEEKTKK
P51114	FXR1_HUMAN	Fragile X mental retardation syndro...		FXR1	11:ISRAESQRQRNLPRETLAKNKEMAKDVIEEHGPSEKAINGPTSASGDDISKLQRTPE
Q8NE71	ABCF1_HUMAN	ATP-binding cassette sub-family F m...		ABCF1 ABC50	2.:MPKAPKQQPPEWIGDGESTSPSKVVKGKKDKKIKKTTFFEEELAVEDKQAGEEEKVLK 3:EKEQQQQQQQQKQRDTRKGRKKDVEDDGEKELMERLKLKLSVPTSDSEEDVPAPK 5:EKSKGAKPQNKFAALDNEEDKEEIIKEKPKQKQKEKAKKAEQGESEEEGEEEE 6:GGESKADDPYAHLSKKEKKLKKQMEYERQVSLKANAANAENDFSVQAE MSSRQAMLEN 11:QQKQKELLQYEQEKKLKELKAGGKSTKQAEKQTKALTRKQKCRRNQDDEESQEAPE
Q9NRZ9	HELLS_HUMAN	Lymphoid-specific helicase		HELLS PASG, SMARCA6, Nbla10143	3:TEIRYRRLQHLLEKSNISYKFLTKMEQQLEEQKKKELERKESLKVKGGKNSIDASE
Q8N163	CCAR2_HUMAN	Cell cycle and apoptosis regulator ...		CCAR2 DBC1, KIAA1967	5:FPARGPHGRLDQGRSDDYDSKRRKQRAGGEPWGAKKPRHDLPPYRVHLLTPYTVDSPICDF
Q14694	UBP10_HUMAN	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydroly...		USP10 KIAA0190	4:ALALDGSSNVEAEVLENDGVSGGLGQRERKKKRRPGYSYLKGGDDDSISTEALVNGH
O14776	TCRG1_HUMAN	Transcription elongation regulator ...		TCERG1 CA150, TAF25	13:ARMKQKDMILLERGVSAFSTWEKELKIVFDPYRLLLNPKERKQVFDQYVKTRAEERRE
Q9UKF6	CPSF3_HUMAN	Cleavage and polyadenylation specif...		CPSF3 CPSF73	2:MSAIPAESDQLLRPLGAGQEVGRSCIIIEFKGRKIMLDCGIIHPGLEGMDALPYIDLID
P26599	PTBP1_HUMAN	Polypyrimidine tract-		PTBP1 PTB	10:YKGFKFFQDKRMALIQMGSEFAVQALIDLHNHDLGENHHLRVSFSKSTI

		binding protei...			
P26038	MOES_HUMAN	Moesin		MSN	7:EVQQMKAQAREEKHQQMERAMLENEKKREMAEKEKEKIEREKEELMERLQIEEQTKK
O43707	ACTN4_HUMAN	Alpha-actinin-4		ACTN4	5:KNVNVQNFHISWKDGLAFNALIHRHRPELIEYDKLRKDDPVTNLNNAFEVAEKYLDIPKM
P49916	DNLI3_HUMAN	DNA ligase 3		LIG3	13:DVKGTYPGKRHWLKYKKDYLINEGAMADTADLVVLGAFYQGSGKGMMSIFLMGCYDPGS
Q08043	ACTN3_HUMAN	Alpha-actinin-3		ACTN3	5:QNFTSWKDGIALCALIHRHRPDLIDYAKLRKDDPIGNLNTAFEVAEKYLDIPKMLDAED
P20042	IF2B_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...		EIF2S2 EIF2B	2:MSGDEMFIDPTMSKKKKKKKPFMLDEEGDTQTEETQPSETKEVEPEPTEDKDLDEADEED 3:TRKKDASDDLNLFFNQKKKKTKKIFIDIEAEEGVKDKIESDVQEPTEPEDDLIM
P09874	PARP1_HUMAN	Poly [ADP-ribose] polymerase 1		PARP1 ADPRT, PPOL	3:GHSIRHPDVEVDFGSELRWDDQQVKKTAEAGVGTGKGDDGIGSKAEKTLGDFAAEYAKS
P05198	IF2A_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...		EIF2S1 EIF2A	4:YTKDEQLSFRQTAWVFFDDKYKRPYGYADAFKHAVSDPSILDSLDLNEDEREVLINNI
Q14683	SMC1A_HUMAN	Structural maintenance of chromosom...		SMC1A DXS423E, KIAA0178, SB1.8, SMC1, SMC1L1	6:ELASKNKEIEKDKRMDKVEDELKEKKELGKMMREQQQIEKEIKEKDSSELNQKRPQYIK 7:AKENTSHKIKKLEAAKSLQNAQKHYYKRRKGDMDLELEKEMLSVEKARQEFFEERMEESQS 13:AKARRWDEKAVDKLKEKKEERLTELKEQMKAKRKEAELRQVQSOAHGLQMRLLKYSQSDLE 15:CREIGVRNIREFEEEEKVKRQNEIAKKRLEFENQKTRLGIQLDFEKNQLKEDQDKVHMWEQ 16:TVKKDENEIEKKEEQRHMKIIDETMAQLQDLKNQHLAKKSEVNDKNHEMEEIRKKG
P62826	RAN_HUMAN	GTP-binding nuclear protein Ran		RAN ARA24, OK/SW-cl.81	4:GNKVDIKDRKVKAKSIVFHRKKNLQYYDISAKSNYNFEKPFLLWLARKLIGDNPNEFVAMP
Q5VTR2	BRE1A_HUMAN	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase BRE1A		RNF20 BRE1A	2:MSGIGNKRAAGEPGTSMPEKAAVEDSGTTVETIKLGGVSSTEELDIRTLQTKNRKLAE

					13:VQLMAAEKSKAELEDLRQLKDLEDKKEKKNKMADEDAIRKIRAVEEQIEYLQKKLAM
O75150	BRE1B_HUMAN	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase BRE1B	RNF40 BRE1B, KIAA0661		2:MSGPGNKRAAGDGGSGPPEKLSREEKTTTLIEPRLGGISSTEEMDLKVLQFNKKKLA 17:ESFNLKRQEQEDISLRRLKLEKQRKVEVYADADEILQEEIKEYKARLTCPCCNTRKKDAVL
Q9Y310	RTC_B_HUMAN	tRNA-splicing ligase RtcB homolog	RTC_B C22orf28, HSPC117		9:ETFGTTCHGAGRALSRASRRNLDFOVDLVDKLDADMGIAIRVASPKLVMEEAPESYKNVTD
P42285	SK2L2_HUMAN	Superkiller viralicidic activity 2-...	SKIV2L2 DOB1, KIAA0052, Mtr4		19:NKFAEGITKIKRIDIVFAASLYL
P12814	ACTN1_HUMAN	Alpha-actinin-1	ACTN1		5:ALIHRRPELIDYGKLRKDDPLTNLNTAFDVAEKYLDIPKMLDAEDIVGTARPDEKAIMT
P78527	PRKDC_HUMAN	DNA-dependent protein kinase cataly...	PRKDC HYRC, HYRC1		21:KHSVLNKAKRRRLPRGPPSASLCLLDLVKWLHAHCGRPQTECRHKSIELFYKVFVPLPG
Q01780	EXOSX_HUMAN	Exosome component 10	EXOSC10 PMSCL, PMSCL2, RRP6		5:IRPQLKFKREKIDNSNTPFLPKIFIKPNAQKPLQOALSERRRRPQDRPEDLDVPPALADF
Q16181	SEPT7_HUMAN	Septin-7	SEPT7 CDC10		7:TNNVHYENYRSRKLAAVYTYNGVDNKNKGQLTKSPLAQMEERERREHVAKMKMEMEMEQV 9:QNSSRTLEKNKKKGKIF
P14866	HNRPL_HUMAN	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleopro...	HNRNP_L HNRPL, P/Okc1.14		2:MSRRLPRAEKRRRRLEQRQQPDEQRRRSGAMVKMAAAGGGGGGGYGGSEGGGRAPKR
Q14676	MDCL_HUMAN	Mediator of DNA damage checkpoint p...	MDC1 KIAA0170, NFBF1		6:ATVEAKQSEAEVVTIEIQLEKDQPLVKERDNDTKVRGAGNGVWPAGVILERSQPQGEDSD
Q15459	SF3A1_HUMAN	Splicing factor 3A subunit 1	SF3A1 SAP114		5:FLTQLMQKEQRNYQDFLRPQHSLFNFYTKLVEQYTKILIPKGLFSKLLKEAENPREVL
P11021	GRP78_HUMAN	78 kDa glucose-	HSPA5 GRP78		6:VFEVATNGDTHLGGEDFDQRVMEHFIKLYKKTGDKVDRKDNRAVQKLRREVEKAKRAIS

O60934	NBN_HUMAN	Nibrin				<p>13:AKKEDKTIPIKKEKPKKEVKEVKEIKKEEKKEPKKEVKKETPPKEVKEVKEVKEEKE</p> <p>39:DPEALAEIQNLGKALKKDLKEKTKKPGTKTKSSSPVKSDGSKPLAASPAPAGLKE</p> <p>13:SLVKNSTSRNPSGINDDYGLKNFKFKVTPYGAGKLPHIIGSSDLIAHHARKNTELE</p> <p>14:EWLRQEMEVQNHAKKEESLADDLFRYNPYLKR</p>
Q05682	CALD1_HUMAN	Caldesmon				<p>5:EENKKEDKEEEEEKPRGSGENQVEVMVEEKTTESQEEVTVMSLKNQGQISSEEPKQ</p> <p>9:KKAQEDKLTAVLKKQGEKGTVOAKREKLOEDKPTFKKEIKDEKIKDKKPKKEEVKS</p>
P49959	MRE11_HUMAN	Double-strand break repair protein ...				6:VIWGHEHECKIAPTNEQQLFISQPGSSVTSLSPEGEAVKHVGLLRIGRKMNMHKIP
Q13330	MTA1_HUMAN	Metastasis-associated protein MTA1				12:MPSRGLANHGQARHMGPSRNLNNGKSYPTKVRILRGGSLPPVKRRRNMWIDAPDDVFM
Q96KR1	ZFR_HUMAN	Zinc finger RNA-binding protein				<p>7:AAWTGTTFTKKAPFQNKQLKPKQPPQIHYCDVCKISCAGPQTYKEHLEGQKHKKKEA</p> <p>12:ILGRRRHRLOYKKKVNPDLQVEVKPSIRAKIQEEKMRKQMQKEEYWRREERWRMEMR</p> <p>19:LAFRQJHKVYLGMDPLPQMSQRFNHNNRKRDRSDGVDGFEAEGKDKKDYDNF</p>
Q14152	EIF3A_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...				<p>13:LEELDPDFIMAKOVEQLEKEKELQERLKNQEKKIDYFERAKRLEEIPIKSA YEQRIK</p> <p>KIAA0139</p>
P43243	MATR3_HUMAN	Matrin-3				<p>9:PFGVISNHLILINKINEAFIEMATTEDAQAVDYTTTPALVFGKVRVHLSQKYKRIKIP</p> <p>11:TREDAMAMVDHCLKKALWFQGRVCVVDLSEKYKLVLRIPNRGIDLKDKSRKRSYSPD</p>
O60216	RAD21_HUMAN	Double-strand-break repair protein ...				7:EEFALEPIDITYKETAKRKRKLVDSVKELDSKTIRAQLSDYSDIVTTLDLAPPTKKL
Q99459	CDC5L_HUMAN	Cell division cycle 5-like				4:RLKPGEIDPNPETKPARPDPIDMDEDELEMLSEARLANTQGGKAKRKAKEKLEEAR

		protein		PCDC5RP	5:RLAALQKRRELRRAAGIEIQKRRKRKRGVDYNAEIPFEKPKALGFYDTSEENYQALDADFR 6:KLRQQDLIDGELRSEKEGRDRKKDKQLKRRKESDLPSSAILQTSVGYSEFTKKRSKLVLPAP 8:FGKLERVKKLDYAFIHFDERDGAVKAMEEMNGKLEGENIEIVFAKPPDQQRKERKAQR 2:MTDSKYFTTTKKEIFEIKAEIKNLSDKKEKKEAVKVIASMTVGKDVSAIPLFDVVNMQMT 2:MALKDYALEKEKYKFLQEFYQDDELGKKQFKYGNQLVLAHREQVALYVLDLDAEDDP 7:RSSLIGQASATEEDTVSVSKKEKNRNRKRRKPKRQRVGVSSSESGDREKDSRSTRGS 9:KKGFEHKKDSSDDDEQEKKPEAPKLSKKLRRMNRFTVAELKQLVARPDVWEMHDV 16:TQKYEEHVREQQAQVEKEDFSDMVAEHAAKQKRRKAQPDQSRGSKKYKEFK 13:EKRRKRSEDESETEDEEEKSQEDQEQKRRRKRTRQPDADKDGSDYDPYDFSDTEEMPQV 14:KKDLKYSKIFEQKDRLSQSKASKELVERRRTMIMEDFRKYRKMAGELYMEQKNERLELRG 10:TAPAQAKAEPTAAPHPVLKQVIKRRKLAFRSGEARDWSNGAVLQASSQLSRGSAITPRG 10:ESKSYGSGRRRERSRERDHSRSREKSRRHKSRSRDRHDDYYRERSRERHRDRDRDRDR 2:MSRFFTTGSDSESSLSGEEIIVTKPVGGNGYKQPLLSEDEEDTKRVVRSKDKRFEEL 4:WEDKEGKKVMKNNAKALSTLRQKIRKYNRDFESHITSYKQNFQSADEDAEKNEEDSEG
O60506	HNRPO_HUMAN	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleopro...		SYNCRIP HNRPO, NSAP1	
Q10567	AP1B1_HUMAN	AP-1 complex subunit beta-1		AP1B1 ADTB1, BAM22, CLAPB2	
P33993	MCM7_HUMAN	DNA replication licensing factor MCM...		MCM7 CDC47, MCM2	
Q13435	SF3B2_HUMAN	Splicing factor 3B subunit 2		SF3B2 SAP145	
P25205	MCM3_HUMAN	DNA replication licensing factor MCM...		MCM3	
P55884	EIF3B_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...		EIF3B EIF3S9	
Q86YP4	P66A_HUMAN	Transcriptional repressor p66-alpha		GATAD2A	
Q16630	CPSF6_HUMAN	Cleavage and polyadenylation specif...		CPSF6 CFIM68	
B5ME19	EIF3L_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...		EIF3L	

Q99613	EIF3C_HUMAN	Eukaryotic translation initiation f...	EIF3C EIF3S8	6:DSEEEEGKQTALASRFLKKAPTTDEDKKAEEKKREDKAKKHHDRKSKRLDEEEEDNEGG 2:MSRFFTTGSDSESSLSGEELVTKPVGGNYGKQPLLSEDEEDTKRVVRSKDKRFEEL 4:WEDKEGKKMMKNNAKALSTLRQKIRKYNRDFESHITSYKQNPQSADEDAEKNEEDSEG 6:DSEEEEGKQTALASRFLKKAPTTDEDKKAEEKKREDKAKKHHDRKSKRLDEEEEDNEGGE
P28370	SMCA1_HUMAN	Probable global transcription activ...	SMARCA1 SNF2L, SNF2L1	19:SLIEKENMEIEERERAEKKKRATKTPMVKFSAFS

Supplementary Table S3- List of antibodies used and dilution for immunofluorescence (IMF) staining or western immunoblotting (WB)

Antibodies	Reference Number	Company name	Dilutions
PtdIns(3,4,5)P3	Z-P345b	Echelon	IMF: 1:400
Nucleolin	12247	Cell signaling Technology	IMF: 1:100
PI3K p110 beta	ab151549	Abcam	IMF: 1:50
	3011	Cell signaling Technology	WB:1:2000
Fibrillarin	2639S	Cell signaling Technology	IMF: 1:100
			WB:1:5000
RPA194	sc-48385	Santa cruz	IMF: 1:100
UBF	sc-9131	Santacruz	IMF: 1:50
Nucleophosmin	32-5200	Zymed	IMF: 1:1000
Nucleolin	14574S	Cell signaling Technology	IMF: 1:100
αTubulin	T5168	Sigma	WB: 1:20000
Hochest 33342	C10330	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:1000
PARP1	9542S	Cell signaling Technology	IMF: 1:50
Goat anti-Mouse IgG Alexa Fluor 594	A-11005	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200
Goat anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 594	A-11012	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200
Goat anti-Rabbit Alexa Fluor 488	A-11008	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200
Goat anti-Mouse IgG Alexa Fluor 488	A-11001	Thermo Fisher Scientific	IMF: 1:200

III

Synthesis of phosphatidylinositol 3,4-bisphosphate and phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate in distinct nuclear sites upon adipocyte differentiation

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Abstract

Spatial organisation is critical in signalling events. In particular, phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) signalling events have been shown to occur in both the cytoplasm and the nucleus. However, little is known about the regulation of this pathway within the nucleus and its contribution to adipocyte differentiation. In this project, the nuclear PI3K pathway was studied in the context of adipogenesis using mouse 3T3-L1 pre-adipocyte cells. We have shown that the PI3K/Akt pathway is active upon the induction of differentiation in the cytoplasm as well as in the nuclear compartment but in a delayed manner. We have shown the presence of the class I PI3K catalytic subunits p110 α and p110 β and class II PI3KC2 α in the cytoplasm. In addition, p110 β was localized in nucleoli and PI3KC2 α in foci in the nucleoplasm. The levels of the products of these enzymes, PtdIns(3,4)P₂ and PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ respectively, were shown to increase in the nucleus upon short term stimulation and up to 24h. The distribution differed for these 3'-phosphorylated polyphosphoinositides (3P-PPIn) in the nucleus and coincided with the localisation of the PI3Ks. To characterise the nuclear role of these PPIn, we have identified several potential nuclear PPIn-interacting proteins that are differently regulated during adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells by mass spectrometry. Altogether, this study demonstrates the presence of an active PI3K-Akt pathway as well as 3P-PPIn in distinct nuclear sub-sites in the nuclei of differentiating adipocytes. We suggest that nuclear p110 β and PI3KC2 α and their 3P-PPIn products regulate distinct nuclear processes contributing to adipocyte differentiation.

Introduction

The adipose tissue is a major source of metabolic fuel and contributes to whole body energy homeostasis by regulating fatty acid storage and mobilisation depending upon hormonal and energetic cues [1]. In the fed state, adipocytes are under the influence of insulin, which induces glucose and fatty acid uptake, esterification into triglycerides (TAGs) and storage into droplets (major lipogenesis pathway in adipocytes) as well as inhibition of TAG lipolysis [2, 3]. Insulin activates signalling cascades through the insulin receptor (IR), by inducing the phosphorylation of IR substrates and the activation of the class IA phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K) signalling pathway [4-7] as well as class II α PI3K [8]. Ultimately, the transcription of specific insulin responsive gene products is activated enabling glucose and lipid homeostasis [2, 3, 7]. Activation of class I PI3K generates the polyphosphoinositide (PPI_n) lipid product phosphatidylinositol(3,4,5) triphosphate (PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3) which can be dephosphorylated to PtdIns(3,4) P_2 by SHIP2 (Src-homology-2 (SH2) domain-containing inositol 5-phosphatase) [9, 10]. These PPI_ns bind to and recruit the protein kinases Akt and 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase-1 (PDK1) to the plasma membrane via their PPI_n-binding module pleckstrin homology (PH) domains and Akt becomes activated by sequential phosphorylation on Thr308 and Ser473 by PDK1 and mammalian target of rapamycin complex 2 (mTORC2) respectively [11, 12]. Activated Akt can translocate to different intracellular sites where it phosphorylates a myriad of substrates. When in the nucleus, Akt phosphorylates and inactivates the transcription factor FoxO1 by nuclear exclusion, thus permitting adipogenic gene transcription [13]. Although a central role for Akt downstream of PI3K activation has clearly been demonstrated genetically and biochemically in insulin actions in glucose uptake and lipid metabolism [14], other effectors such as atypical PKCs have been implicated [15]. Additional effector proteins of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 have also been identified in interactomics studies in different cell types [16-18] but the functional significance of these interactions is largely unknown. Furthermore, Akt-independent responses to insulin signalling have also emerged in recent years both in hepatocytes and adipocytes [19-22]. For example, insulin stimulates the stepwise translocation of vesicles containing the GLUT4 glucose transporter to the plasma membrane in both Akt-dependent and independent processes, but still in a PI3K-dependent manner in adipocytes [20]. Consistently, decrease in class I PI3K activity in insulin resistance did not always correlate with a decrease in Akt activity, despite the observed lower glucose uptake [23, 24] and elevated free fatty acids due to inappropriate lipolysis [25]. These studies

suggest therefore the existence of Akt-independent events and the potential contribution of other PPI effector proteins in insulin actions but downstream from PI3K activity.

Class I PI3Ks are heterodimeric proteins of a catalytic subunit and a regulatory subunit and organised in 2 sub-classes. Class IA consists of p110 α , β or δ and a regulatory protein (p85 α , p85 β , p50 α , p55 α or p55 γ) and class 1B consists of p110 γ which interacts with p87/p101. p110 α and β are ubiquitously expressed whereas p110 δ and γ are expressed in hematopoietic cells [10]. Adipocytes express both p110 α and p110 β and low levels of p110 δ [4, 26-28]. Both p110 α and β are activated by insulin and generate PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , but pharmacological studies using isoform specific inhibitors have shown that p110 α , is the dominant isoform necessary for acute Akt activation as well as their adipocyte differentiation, as shown in 3T3-L1 cells [6, 26, 28, 29] or p110 α knockout MEFs [30]. Contrasting results have been shown for p110 β where, on one hand its activity was stimulated by insulin and its expression increased upon differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells [4], and on the other hand its selective inhibition had little impact on adipocyte differentiation [28, 29]. p110 β may however contribute to sustained and long-term insulin signalling as mice expressing a kinase dead *Pik3cb* develop mild insulin resistance with age [5]. Class II PI3KC2 α can be activated by insulin [8] in adipocytes and generate PtdIns3P and/or PtdIns(3,4) P_2 depending on the cell type [31-33], the latter activating AKT [32, 34]. PI3KC2 α kinase dead mice show increased adipogenesis [35]. The contribution of this enzyme in adipocyte function is however not clear at the molecular level [35, 36]. Most research on PI3K-mediated signal transduction has focused on events taking place at the plasma membrane. However, an elegant study using molecular tools to investigate the subcellular actions of Akt showed that Akt signalling, not only contributed to 3T3-L1 adipocyte differentiation at the plasma membrane, but also in the nucleus at different stages of the process [37]. In addition, previous studies have implied that PI3K translocates to the nucleus upon extracellular stimulation, which was accompanied by an increase of nuclear PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 [38, 39]. In more recent studies, PI3K enzymes have been shown to be present in the nucleus with PI3KC2 α in nuclear speckles [40] and p110 β in the nucleoplasm, chromatin-enriched fraction [41] or the nucleolus [42]. This was substantiated by the detection of their products PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , as well as PtdIns3P and PtdIns(3,4) P_2 in the nucleus [43-46] and nucleoli [42] of different cell types. We therefore propose that the sub-cellular compartmentalisation of PI3K isoforms provides a mode of regulation mediating the myriad functions of the PI3K pathway downstream from insulin. Considering that the class I and II PI3K enzymes, p110 β and PI3KC2 α , can be activated by

insulin, we assessed their presence and activation in the nucleus upon adipocyte differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells.

Here, we have shown an increase in the presence of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 as well as active Akt in the nucleus following adipocyte differentiation. This was complemented by the presence of both p110 β and PI3K α in distinct nuclear sites in these cells in addition to their cytoplasmic localisation. These results suggest that the spatial organisation of these enzymes and the local synthesis of their products contribute to the insulin actions in adipogenesis.

Results

Temporal and sub-cellular activation of the PI3K-Akt pathway upon adipocyte differentiation

Considering that both p110 α and p110 β contribute to insulin responses, but that p110 β has been reported to be localized in the nucleus in some cells and both nuclear and plasma membrane Akt activity are required for adipocyte differentiation, we first determined if the PI3K-Akt pathway was active in the nucleus as well as in the cytoplasm in 3T3-L1 cells upon stimulation of differentiation (Figure 1). α -Tubulin and lamin A/C were used as markers for the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions respectively, calnexin was used as a marker for the endoplasmic reticulum. Both acute (Figure 1A) and long term stimulation (Figure 1B) were examined to assess the subcellular localization of active phosphorylated Akt on S473 (p-S473-Akt) in cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. We showed that the PI3K pathway was activated both in the cytoplasm and the nucleus in acute stimulation of up to 2 h. The appearance of active Akt was detected within 5 min in the cytoplasmic fraction but was delayed in the nucleus and appeared within 30 min. In the nucleus, p-S473-Akt was detected as a double band but only the upper band was sensitive to PI3K inhibition with LY294002 (Figure 1C). In long-term stimulation (Figure 1B), the levels of pS473-Akt tended however to increase in D1, to be lower at D2 but to increase again slightly at D3 and D5 in the cytoplasmic fractions. In the nucleus, Akt is found in its active form at D1, D2 and D3 compared to D0 and the levels decrease again at D5. Differentiation was monitored by demonstrating an increase in PPAR γ 1/2 levels in the nucleus overtime (Figure 1D) and oil red staining (not shown). Taken together, these results suggest that the PI3K-Akt pathway is found in its active form in the nucleus but at different time points compared to cytoplasmic events.

PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 levels increase in nuclear compartments

Contrasting reports (reviewed in [47]) have shown that the occurrence of active Akt in the nucleus may be due to prior activation in the cytoplasm followed by its translocation [48] or by its activation directly within the nucleus [49]. Detection of p-S473-Akt may not be a direct indicator of active PI3K and of the local production of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus. We have therefore adapted a method from Guillou *et al.* [50] to detect specifically the nuclear levels of both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 following nuclear isolation, lipid extraction and lipid overlay assays. To this end, we have used the specific PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 probes, an anti-PtdIns(3,4) P_2 antibody and GST-GRP1-PH respectively [50, 51], as demonstrated in Figure S1A-C. Acidic lipids were extracted from cell fractions obtained at different time points of stimulation and analysed by lipid overlay assay to detect PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (Figure 2A-B). The levels of both PPIns were increased in the nuclear fractions within 60-120 min of stimulation and this was maintained at D1 (Figure 2A-B). Consistently, an overall increase in PtdIns(3,4) P_2 nuclear intensity was apparent by immunofluorescence staining within 30 min (Supplementary Figure S2) and at D1 (Figure 2C). PtdIns(3,4) P_2 staining was particularly pronounced in numerous foci within nuclei, reminiscent of nuclear speckles (Supplementary Figure S2 and Figure 4D). Using a specific anti- PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 antibody (Supplementary Figure S1D), PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 could be detected in the nucleoplasm at all time points. Overall, changes in the nuclear intensity of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 were less apparent following stimulation (Supplementary Figure S3 and Figure 2D) but strong signals could be detected in nucleoli in some cells (Supplementary Figure S3 and Figure 4E-F), consistent with our previous study in the breast cancer cells AU565 [42]. In sum, we show an increase in the levels of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in distinct sub-nuclear sites upon adipocyte differentiation.

Class I p110 β and class II PI3KC2 α are localized in different sub-nuclear sites of 3T3-L1 Cells

We have recently showed that 3T3-L1 cells express class IA p110 α , β and δ throughout their differentiation program [28]. In addition, using selective pharmacological inhibition of each enzyme, we showed that p110 α plays a dominant role in adipogenesis compared to the two other isoforms. Both p110 β and δ had a small contribution but it was not clear at which stage of the differentiation program [28]. Considering that p110 β is known to reside not only in the cytoplasm but also in the nucleus [41] and in particular in the nucleolus [42], this isoform could be hence responsible, in part, for the production of nuclear

PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . PtdIns(3,4) P_2 can be produced by the class II PI3Ks [32, 33] and PI3KC2 α has been reported to localise to nuclear speckles [40]. We hence determined the sub-cellular localisation of these two enzymes in 3T3-L1 cells by Western immunoblotting following nuclear fractionation and immunofluorescence staining (Figure 3). As shown in Figure 3A, p110 α was detected in the cytoplasm but not in the nuclear fractions at all time-points. In addition, p110 β was mainly distributed in the cytoplasmic fractions throughout adipogenesis and was hardly detectable in the nuclear fraction using two different anti-p110 β antibodies (Figure 3B and Supplementary Figure S4). In contrast, PI3KC2 α was found in both compartments at D0 but with two different migrating bands (Figure 3A), as shown in HeLa cells [40]. The levels of the top band decreased thereafter in the cytoplasm and could not be detected from D3, while both bands were present in nuclear fractions at variable levels throughout the time course. Using immunofluorescence staining, we were able to strongly detect p110 β in the cytoplasm but weakly in the nucleoplasm. However, discrete p110 β foci were apparent in the nucleoli together with the RNA polymerase I subunit RPA 194 (Figure 3B). PI3KC2 α was weakly detected in the cytoplasm but strongly in the nucleoplasm (Figure 3C). Taken together, these results show the presence of PI3K enzymes in the same sub-nuclear sites as their products.

Identification of Topo II α and nucleolin as potential PPI n -binding proteins

Considering that we were able to map PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 as well as their metabolising enzymes to the nucleus, we attempted to identify binding proteins at time points when these PPI n s are elevated. To this end, we applied a method we have previously developed to identify potential nuclear PPI n -binding protein in any cellular status [52]. We exploited the ability of PPI n s to bind to the polybasic aminoglycoside neomycin [53] and predicted that neomycin would compete for binding to PPI n s, therefore displacing PPI n -interacting proteins. Incubation of intact nuclei with neomycin resulted in the displacement of many proteins from nuclei to supernatants. By combining quantitative mass spectrometry using SILAC (stable isotope labelling with amino acids in cell culture) and nuclear fractionation, we identified 168 nuclear proteins displaced specifically by neomycin [52]. Importantly, a subset of these proteins were shown to interact with PtdIns(4,5) P_2 . Similarly, by incubating 3T3-L1 nuclei with neomycin, we have identified several nuclear proteins displaced by neomycin only when nuclei were isolated from cells induced to differentiate for 24 h (Fig 4A – Day 1). These proteins include Topo II α , DNMT1 (DNA methyltransferase 1), HSP90 α (Heat shock protein 90 α) and nucleolin (Supplementary table S2), which were also

displaced by neomycin in another cell line in our previous study [52]. These results were validated by Western immunoblotting for Topo II α and nucleolin (Figure 4B). While Topo II α was displaced specifically by neomycin and not by retention buffer alone, less clear differences were observed for nucleolin (Figure 4C). This may indicate that PPI η may contribute differently in the nuclear retention of these two proteins. Considering that Topo II α can bind to both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 *in vitro* (data not shown), we ascertained the localisation of Topo II α at day 1 in relation to both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 by immunofluorescence staining. Topo II α localised in the nucleoplasm and strongly in foci, consistently with our previous study [28], known as centric/pericentric heterochromatin (PCH) [54] (Figure 4D-E). Overall, partial colocalisation could be observed between Topo II α and either PPI η in some of the foci highlighted by PtdIns(3,4) P_2 (Figure 4D – white arrows) or in the nucleoplasm with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 but not in the nucleolus where strong intensity of the lipid can be detected (Figure 4E). The nucleolar protein, nucleolin, was in contrast detected with strong overlaps with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (Figure 4F). We next determined the effect of p110 β inhibition on neomycin-dependent displacement of these proteins (Figure 4G). The nuclear levels of these two proteins were affected differently by p110 β inhibition with a decrease in Topo II α but no change for nucleolin. In contrast both proteins were more displaced by neomycin following p110 β inhibition. This may suggest that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 may affect the retention of nucleolin in the nucleolus and Topo II α in the nucleoplasm.

Discussion

The PI3K pathway is essential in a myriad of cellular processes. The pathway is orchestrated by class I PI3K enzymes, which share the same enzymatic properties and generate the same lipid product, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , which recruits effector proteins. Despite these common properties, different signalling inputs as well as outputs, in particular towards Akt, are coupled to the different PI3K isoforms, which may explain some of the pleiotropic roles of PI3K signalling at cellular and organismal level [10, 55, 56]. In the case of ubiquitously expressed p110 α and p110 β , different cellular functions have been attributed to each isoform in different cell types [6, 57-60]. However, the molecular mode of regulation coupled to each of the p110 α and p110 β isoforms remain unclear. Nevertheless, one distinguishing feature between p110 α and p110 β is that p110 β is nuclear as well as cytoplasmic in different cells [41, 60]. This could be compatible with the idea that the PI3K pathway could operate also in the nucleus, from where other processes could be regulated.

Consistent with this notion, we have shown, in this study, the presence of an active PI3K pathway in the nucleus upon short and long term stimulation of differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells by the detection of increased levels of active AKT and of the product of PI3K enzymes, *i.e.* PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 . The presence of active nuclear AKT is documented in various cell lines and upon different external cues [41, 48, 49]. However, whether this is due to the prior activation of Akt in the cytoplasm followed by its translocation to the nucleus or its local activation within the nucleus itself is controversial [47]. In this study, total AKT was observed in the nuclear fractions of non-stimulated cells (D0) and treatment with the pan-PI3K inhibitor did not prevent the nuclear presence of AKT following stimulation. These observations may indicate the possibility of the local activation of AKT within the nuclear compartment upon insulin stimulation and reinforce the importance of a nuclear active pool of AKT in the differentiation program of 3T3-L1 cells [37]. Moreover, the increased detection of the AKT-binding PPIs, PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , in the nucleus prior to the increase in nuclear active AKT would support the idea that a similar mechanism to the cytoplasmic activation of AKT could operate in the nucleus. Interestingly, both PDK1 and mTORC2, which are known to be activated through interaction with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and lead to the phosphorylation of AKT on T308 and S473 respectively, have previously been detected in the nucleus [61-64], hence implying the same mechanism of AKT activation at the nuclear level. So far, the interaction of AKT with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus has been implied in one study whereby PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 regulates the AKT/NPM/B23 association in the nucleoplasm [65].

In this study, both PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 were increased in the nuclear compartment upon stimulation. The kinases known to produce these two PPIs and that could act in the nucleus are the PI3Ks, PI3KC2 α and p110 β , respectively. These two enzymes were indeed found localised in the nucleus of 3T3-L1 cells at overlapping sites of their lipid products, *i.e.* in the nucleolus for p110 β and in foci resembling nuclear speckles for PI3KC2 α . The nucleolar localisation of both p110 β and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in 3T3-L1 cells is consistent with our previous study in the breast cancer cell line AU565 using the same antibody [42], thus further indicating a general role for p110 β in nucleolar processes. p110 β could however only be detected in the nuclear fraction by immunofluorescence staining and not by Western immunoblotting. This may be due to low levels only found in the nucleolus and with very little signal in the rest of the nucleus in 3T3-L1 cells, as shown by immunostaining. In contrast, PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was detected diffusely in the nucleoplasm of these cells where p110 β was hardly detectable. This would suggest that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 is generated by other

PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 -generating enzyme in the nucleoplasm. We have indeed observed that the nuclear increase in PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 was not blocked by the PI3K inhibitor, LY294002 (data not shown), hence further supporting the notion that the synthesis of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleoplasm may be due to PI3K activity that is insensitive to class I PI3K inhibitors. Inositol polyphosphate kinase (IPMK), initially discovered as an inositol (1,4,5) triphosphate (IP3) kinase, acts also as a nuclear PI3K by phosphorylating PtdIns(4,5) P_2 to PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 and is insensitive to PI3K inhibitors [66, 67]. Immunofluorescence cellular imaging of the endogenous kinase, shows IPMK in the nucleoplasm in a punctate pattern [66] in different cell types (<http://www.proteinatlas.org/ENSG00000151151-IPMK/cell>, [68]) and excluded from nucleoli. Altogether, the nuclear synthesis of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 may arise from IPMK in the nucleoplasm and from p110 β in nucleoli in 3T3-L1 cells. Nucleolar activity and especially that of ribosomal RNA transcription is decreased in cells undergoing differentiation, including during adipogenesis [69]. This could be consistent with the seemingly lower level of p110 β in nucleoli of 3T3-L1 cells compared to the more active cancer cells AU565 cells. As for IPMK, it has recently been shown to contribute to myogenic differentiation in concert with the phospholipase C β 1 [70]. A role for this kinase in the context of adipogenesis remains to be discovered.

The cytoplasmic fraction of PI3KC2 α diminished greatly within 24 h of insulin stimulation while the nuclear fraction remained unchanged. The nuclear localisation in 3T3-L1 cells was reminiscent of that of HeLa cells as reported by Didichenko *et al.* in nuclear speckles [40]. One of the two possible PPIIn product of this enzyme, PtdIns(3,4) P_2 , localises seemingly at the same foci and this could hence suggest an enzymatic link. However, the exact product hydrolysed in the nucleus by PI3KC2 α , PtdIns(4) P and/or PtdIns(3,4) P_2 remains to be demonstrated. Another possibility is the de-phosphorylation of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 to PtdIns(3,4) P_2 by SHIP2. Interestingly, a phosphorylated form of SHIP2 on S132 has previously been reported to be nuclear and in particular at nuclear speckles [71]. This nuclear pool of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , particularly in the nucleoplasm, could be used as a substrate by SHIP2. Consistently, Resnick *et al.* have demonstrated that PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 synthesised by IPMK is indeed a substrate of SHIP2 [66]. Altogether, this would imply that the distinct nuclear localisation of IPMK and p110 β could allow the synthesis of different pools of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , which can be remodelled due to the actions of different PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 phosphatases. Hence, further studies characterising the regulation and activity of IPMK and SHIP2 in the nucleus upon differentiation is warranted.

To understand how the production of these two different PPIs could contribute to the response of pre-adipocytes to the induction of differentiation, we have attempted to identify nuclear effector proteins for these lipids. We have found Topo II α and nucleolin as potential nuclear PPI-effector proteins in 3T3-L1 cells. These two proteins show differential overlaps with PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 at different sites of the nucleus in the nucleoplasm for Topo II α and the nucleolus for nucleolin. Hence the production of PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 at different sites in the nucleus permits the potential regulation of different effector proteins. The differential remodelling of this lipid in a spatial manner has also the potential to add an extra layer of regulation. Inhibition of p110 β led to an increase in the displacement of both proteins by neomycin. Considering that both proteins can bind to nucleic acids, it may be conceivable that PPI interaction may compete electrostatically or regulate allosterically the interaction of these proteins with nucleic acids. Consistently, a few studies have demonstrated these possible modes of regulations. For example, the HIV-1 viral protein Gag interacts both with PtdIns(4,5) P_2 and RNA via the same highly basic region, which offer distinct mode of regulation of the association of the protein with the plasma membrane [72]. In addition, ALY (alias THO complex subunit 4), a protein regulating mRNA export, binds PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 via basic residues [73] and this interaction contributes to ALY-mediated recognition of specific mRNA transcripts for their nuclear export [74]. Similarly to the PPI-effector protein EBP1 [42], Topo II α and nucleolin harbour basic-rich motifs, seven and one respectively, that could be relevant for their interaction with PPI and nucleic acids and the regulation of their functions.

In conclusion, this study suggests that nuclear PPI provide an additional mode of regulation mediating the myriad functions of the PI3K pathway downstream from insulin. We have indeed shown the synthesis of the PPIs, PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 , distinct sub-nuclear localisation, in the nucleoplasm, nuclear speckles as well as nucleoli, upon the induction of differentiation. This implies that these lipids contribute in different nuclear processes by affecting the function of distinct effector proteins at these sites. Further studies to clarify the nuclear roles of PPI and their metabolising enzymes in adipogenesis are under way.

Materials and methods

Reagents and antibodies

Antibodies used in Western immunoblotting and immunostaining are listed in Supplementary Table S1.

Cell Culture and differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells

3T3-L1 fibroblasts were kindly provided by Ass. Professor Lise Madsen (University of Copenhagen, Denmark). 3T3-L1 cells were grown and differentiated as previously reported for up to a maximum of 7 days [28].

Cell fractionation

Cell fractionation was adapted from a method by O'Carroll *et al.* [75]. All steps were done on ice. Cells, grown in 10 cm dishes, were washed twice with PBS and quickly rinsed with a hypotonic buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.8 with 1 % Igepal. Cells were scrapped into 500 μ L of hypotonic buffer containing 1 mM DTT, 5 mM NaF, 2 mM Na_3VO_4 and 1x Protease Inhibitor Cocktail and incubated for 3 min on ice. 500 μ L milliQ H_2O was added and the cells were incubated for 3 more min before they were subjected to 8 passages through a 23-gauge needle. The lysates were centrifuged at 400 g for 5-10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant, containing the cytoplasmic fraction, was spun again at 600 g for 5-8 min to avoid nuclear contamination. Isolated nuclei were washed in 1 mL wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 and 2 mM MgCl_2) and spun at 600 g for 4-8 min, this wash step was then repeated. Nuclei were then used for neomycin extraction, for lipid extraction. Alternatively, nuclei were lysed in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris pH 8.0, 0.5 % deoxycholic acid, 150 mM NaCl, 1 % Igepal, 0.1 % SDS) supplemented with 5 mM NaF, 2 mM Na_3VO_4 and 1x Protease Inhibitor Cocktail and sonicated in an ultrasonic bath for 1-2 min before being centrifuged at 13000 rpm. Protein concentration was then determined using BCA reagent (Pierce) on supernatants.

Neomycin extraction

Nuclei were isolated as described above but using an igepal-free hypotonic buffer was used. Nuclei were washed in retention buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.5, 70 mM NaCl, 20 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl_2 , 3 mM CaCl_2) and centrifuged at 1300 g for 5 mins. Nuclei were then incubated in retention buffer containing 5 mM neomycin (Neomycin trisulfate salt, Sigma-Aldrich) for 30 min at room temperature in an eppendorf mixer at 700 rpm before being centrifuged at 13000

rpm for 5 mins and the supernatants collected (neomycin extracts). Neomycin extracts were dialysed using Slide-A-Lyser Mini dialysis units (Thermo Fisher) for 1 h at room temperature then overnight at 4°C in 900 ml dialysis buffer (20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 0.1 % IGEPAL). Protein concentration was then determined using BCA reagent (Thermo Fisher).

SDS-PAGE and Western Immunoblotting

Equal amount of proteins obtained from neomycin extraction samples or cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions were resolved by SDS-PAGE. Proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes which were then blocked in 7% fat-free milk in TBS-T (50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1 % Tween-20) or PBS-T (PBS pH 7.4, 0.05 % Tween-20) for 1 h at room temperature or 4°C overnight. Primary antibodies (*c.f.* Supplementary Table S1) were incubated overnight at 4°C and secondary antibodies conjugated to HRP for 1 h at room temperature. To strip the membranes, membranes were first incubated for 20 min at RT in Restore™ Western Blot Stripping Buffer (Thermo Fisher), before being blocked again and if required probed with the corresponding secondary antibody to detect any remaining signal prior to further immunoblotting. Equal protein loading and fraction purity were confirmed by immunodetection of α -tubulin and/or lamin A/C (incubated 1 h at room temperature). Bands were visualised using BioRad ChemiDoc™ Xrs+ with enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) with SuperSignal West Pico or Femto Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce). Band densities were assessed using ImageJ.

Lipid Extraction from nuclear fractions

Cells were seeded in 15 cm dishes and cell fractionation was performed as above (with 2.5 x the volume used for 10 cm dishes). The protein concentration was determined for each nuclear preparation and lipid extraction was performed from fractions with equal protein amount. Lipids were extracted from nuclear fractions using a method adapted from Gray *et al.* [76]. Nuclei were resuspended in 1 mL of MeOH/CHCl₃ (2:1, v:v) to extract neutral lipids and incubated for 10 min at room temperature with shaking at 1200 rpm with 3-4 vortexing. The samples were centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min at 4 °C, the supernatant discarded and the same procedure was repeated. The acidic lipids were then extracted with 0.75 mL of MeOH/CHCl₃/concentrated HCl (80:40:1, v:v:v) and incubated for 15 min at room temperature with shaking at 1200 rpm and vortexed 4 times during the incubation 0.25 mL CHCl₃ and 0.45 mL 0.1 M HCl were added and the samples were vortexed and centrifuged at

3000 g for 5 min at 4 °C and a phase split between the organic and aqueous phases was apparent. The organic phase (lower phase) was collected in conical glass tubes and dried at 60°C under N₂ gas and stored at -20°C until further use. Lipids were resuspended with 3 µl of MeOH/CHCl₃/H₂O 2:1:0.8, vortexed for 30 seconds before being sonicated in an ice bath for 5 min and vortexed again for 30 sec.

Lipid Overlay Assay

Lipids were spotted on Hybond-CExtra membranes (Amersham Biosciences), 3 µl at a time. The membranes were left to dry for 1 h at room temperature protected from light. The membranes were next blocked for 1 h at room temperature with the appropriate blocking buffer (1% fat-free milk in PBS for PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ and 3 % FAF BSA in PBS-T (0.1%) pH 7.4 for PtdIns(3,4)P₂) and further incubated with 0.5 µg/mL GST-GRP1-PH (for PtdIns(3,4,5)P₃ detection) or anti-PtdIns(3,4)P₂ antibody (1:2000) in the same buffer overnight at 4°C protected from light. GST-GRP1-PH was expressed and purified as described previously [52]. The membranes were washed 6 x 5 min in PBS or PBS-T and then incubated with anti-GST-HRP (1:80,000) or anti-mouse IgG conjugated to HRP (1:20,000) in blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. The blots were washed 6 x 5 min with PBS or PBS-T. Revelation was performed by ECL using the SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce) or with SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate and detected with a BioRad ChemiDoc™ Xrs+. Lipid spot densitometry was quantified using ImageJ.

Proteomics sample preparation for MALDI-TOF analyses

50 µg of dialysed neomycin extracts were run on long 5-15 % gradient gel and stained using imperial protein stain (Thermo Fisher). Gel bands were cut out and washed twice in 25 mM ammonium bicarbonate (Ambic) in 50% acetonitrile (ACN) and dried in a rotavapor. Cysteins were reduced by addition of 10 mM DTT in 100 mM Ambic for 45 mins at 56 °C and then alkylated using 55 mM iodoacetamide (IAA) in 100 mM Ambic incubated 30 mins in the dark at room temperature and then washed twice and dried. In gel protein digestion was done using 40 µl of 5 ng/µl porcine trypsin (Promega) in digestion buffer (50 mM Ambic) and rehydrated on ice for 30 mins before a further 16 h at 37 °C with additional digestion buffer. After cooling and spinning down supernatant was removed. Remaining gel pieces were incubated for 20 mins at room temperature with 50 µl 1 % trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) in an eppendorf mixer and supernatant pooled with the first. Gel pieces were then incubated with 50

µl 60 % ACN 0.1 % TFA for 20 mins room temperature in an eppendorf mixer and supernatant pooled with the previous two. Supernatant pool was then vacuum dried until 10-15 µl remained and frozen -20 °C until further use. A Stage Tip (STop And Go Extraction Tip) column with Empore nC₁₈ 3M extraction disk (Varian) was prepared and washed 3 times with methanol and then wetted with 60 % ACN/0.1 % TFA and conditioned with 0.1 % TFA. Samples were then bound and washed in 0.1 % TFA before being dried. Peptides were eluted in alpha cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid (CHCA) matrix (6 mg/ml CHCA, 60 % ACN, 15% methanol, 0.1 % TFA) and analysed by MALDI-TOF/TOF (Ultraflex, Bruker Daltonics). Raw files were searched with MASCOT against a *mus musculus* database from Uniprot/Swissprot. The following search parameters were used; carbamidomethyl (Cys) as fixed modification and oxidation (Met) as a variable modification, peptide tolerance of 50 ppm were allowed for precursors.

Immunofluorescence staining

Immunofluorescence staining was performed according to our previous study [28] and images were acquired by confocal microscopy with a Leica TCS SP5 confocal laser scanning microscope equipped with a 63x/1.4 oil immersion lens and using 488nm and 633 nm laser lines. Images were processed with the Leica application suite version 4.4 and Photoshop.

Acknowledgments

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Figures legends

Figure 1. Active Akt levels increase in both cytoplasm and the nucleus upon adipocyte differentiation

Two days post-confluent (D0) 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were incubated with the differentiation cocktail for (A) 5 to 120 min, (C) 30 or 60 min in the absence (-) or presence (+) of 20 μ M LY294002 or (B-D) induced to differentiate for up to 7 days (D7). Cells were fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions and equal protein amounts were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analysed by Western immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. α -tubulin, calnexin (ER marker) and lamin A/C were used as loading and fractionation controls. Densitometric analyses of three different experiments + SDs are shown as fold increase of the pS473-Akt/Akt ratios compared to D0.

Figure 2. Increased levels of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 in the nucleus

(A-B) Acidic lipids were extracted from 3T3-L1 nuclear cell fractions, spotted on nitrocellulose membrane and probed with anti-PtdIns(3,4) P_2 antibody (A) and GST-GRP1-PH (B) by lipid overlay assay. (C). Confocal images of immunostained 3T3-L1 cells fixed at day 0 (D0) and day 1 (D1) with anti-PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 antibodies and counterstained with TO-PRO-3. Scale bar indicates 10 μ m (63x).

Figure 3. Sub-cellular compartmentalisation of PI3Ks

(A) Two days post-confluent (D0) 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were incubated with the differentiation cocktail for 1 day (D1) and up to 7 days (D7) and cells were fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. Equal protein amounts of cytoplasmic extracts (40 μ g) and nuclear extracts (60-70 μ g) were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analysed by Western immunoblotting using the indicated antibodies. α -tubulin, calnexin and lamin A/C were used as loading and fractionation controls. (B-C) Confocal images of immunostained 3T3-L1 cells fixed at day 0 (D0) and day 1 (D1) with anti-p110 β and the RNA polymerase I subunit A1 (RPA194) (B) or PI3KC2 α (C) and counterstained with TO-PRO-3. Scale bar indicates 10 μ m (63x).

Figure 4. Displacement of Topo II α and nucleolin by neomycin from nuclei

(A-B) Nuclei were fractionated in the absence of detergent from 3T3-L1 cells obtained at day 0 (D0) or 60 min, 120 min or 1 day (D1) after the addition of the differentiation cocktail and

were incubated with 5 mM neomycin in retention buffer. 50 μ g (A) of collected supernatants were resolved on a long 5-15% gradient SDS-polyacrylamide gel and stained with imperial protein stain. Protein bands apparent in D1 were cut out and identified by MALDI-TOF as DNA methyl transferase 1 (DNMT1), DNA Topoisomerase II α (Topo II α) and nucleolin. 5 μ g (B) were resolved by SDS-PAGE and Western immunoblotted to detect candidate proteins identified from the gel in A as well as lamin A/C. (C) Day 1 nuclei were incubated in retention buffer with (+) or without (-) 5 mM neomycin. 2 μ g were resolved by SDS-PAGE and Western immunoblotted to detect Topo II α , nucleolin and lamin A/C. (D-E) Confocal images of 3T3-L1 cells fixed at day 1 immunostained with anti-Topo II α and anti-PtdIns(3,4) P_2 (D) or PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 (E). scale bar indicate 10 μ m (63x). (F) Confocal images of 3T3-L1 cells fixed at day 1 immunostained with anti-nucleolin and anti-PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 antibodies. Scale bar indicates 5 μ m (63x). (G) Nuclei were obtained from D0, or D1 pre-incubated with vehicle (DMSO) or 10 μ M KIN-193 (p110 β inhibitor) and split in two for either neomycin extraction or direct lysis (inputs) prior to SDS-PAGE (2 μ g and 20 μ g resolved respectively) and Western immunoblotting.

Figure 1

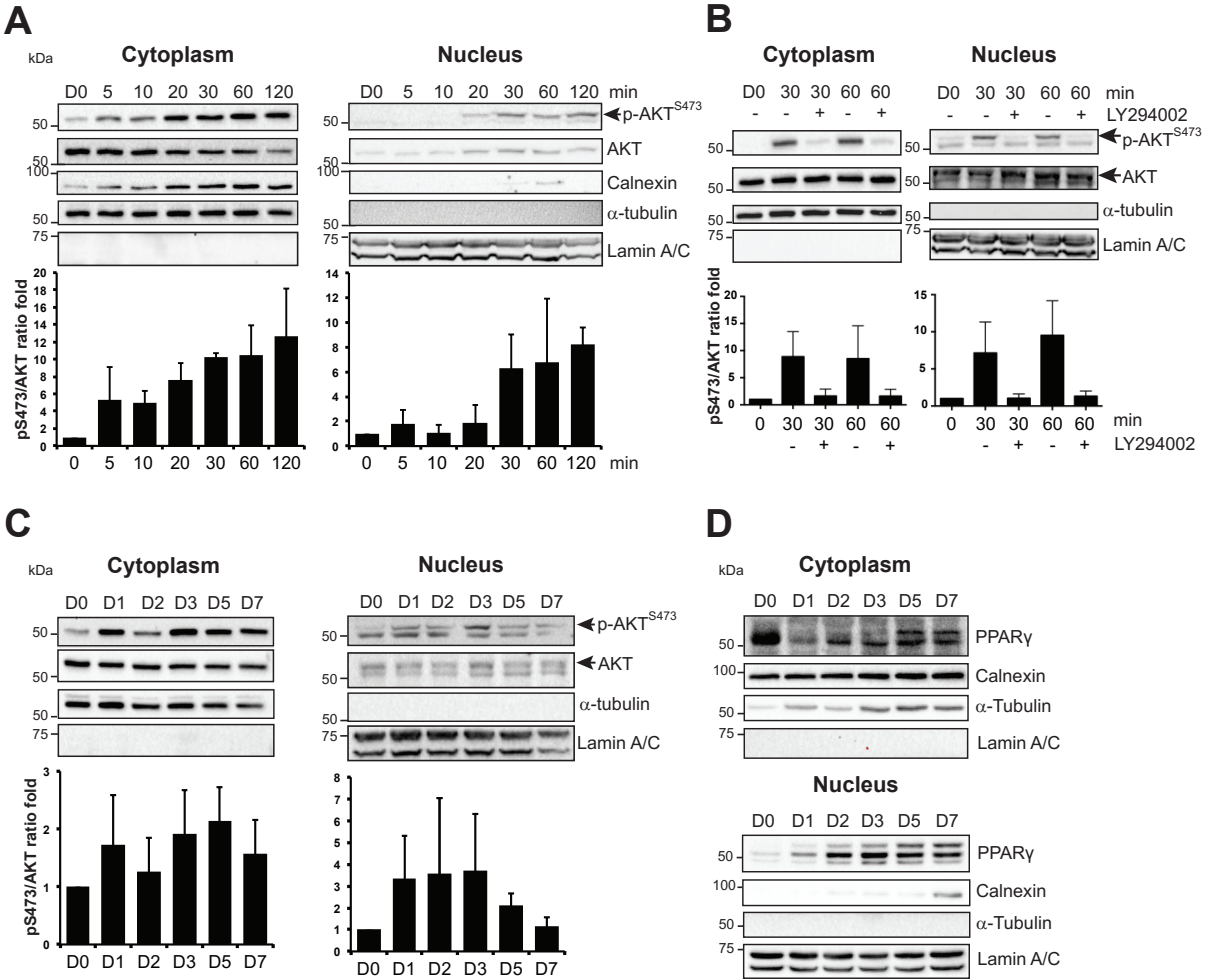


Figure 2

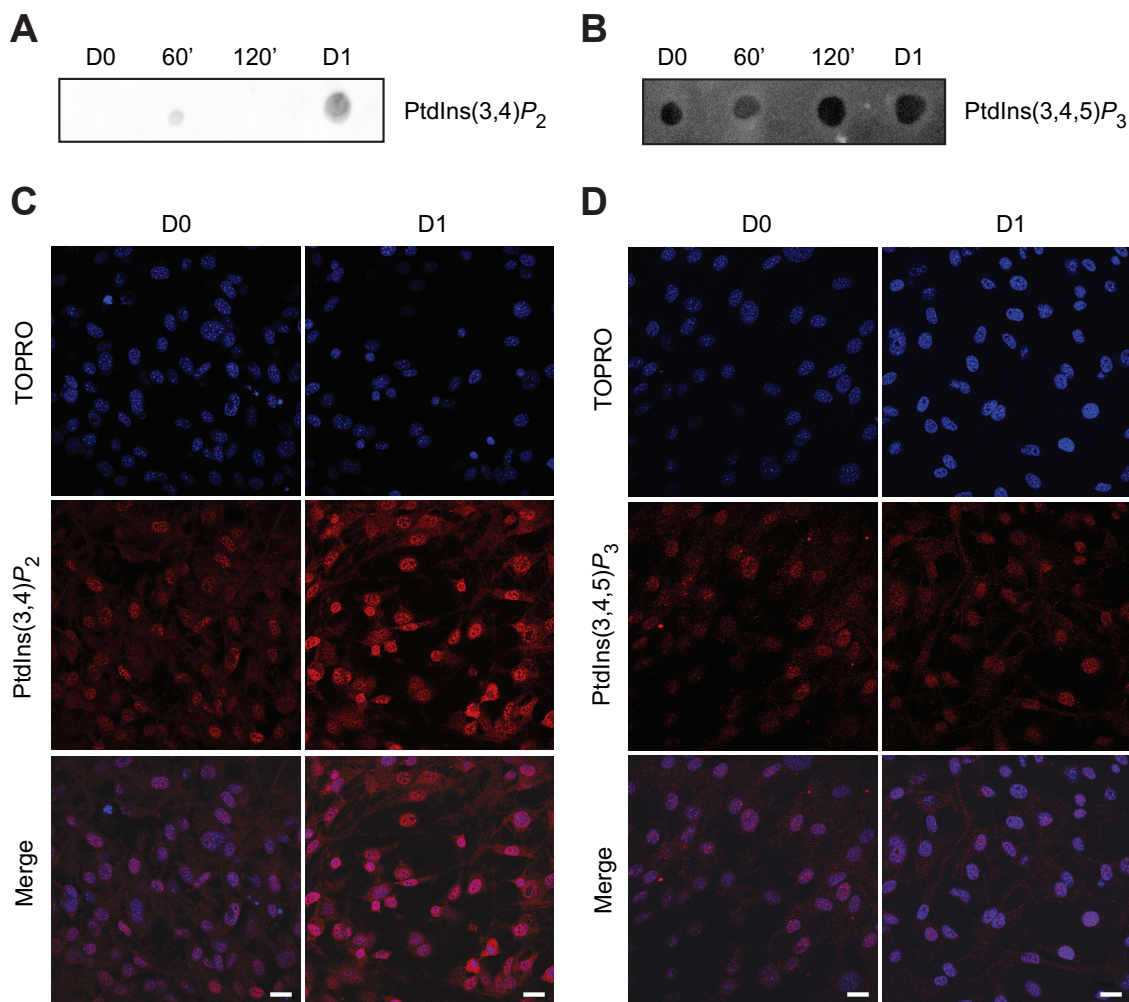


Figure 3

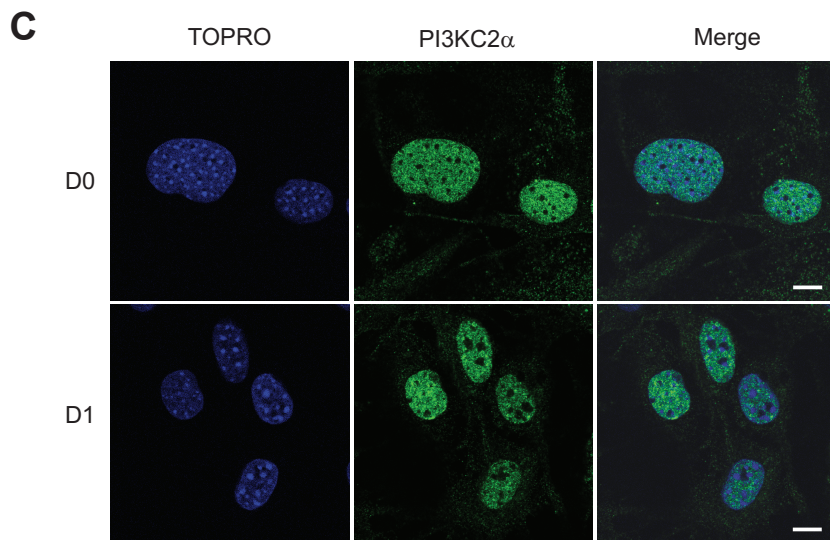
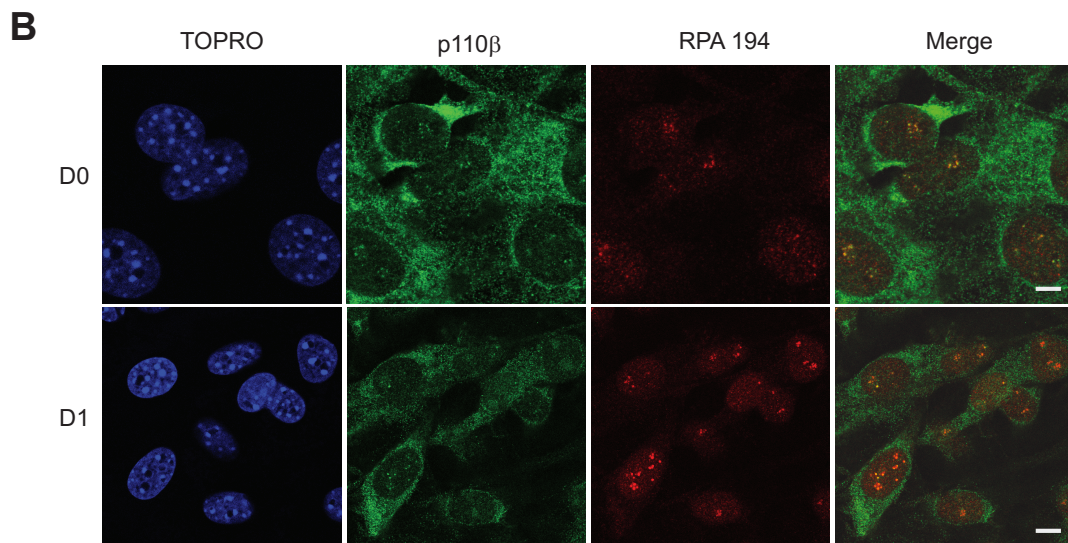
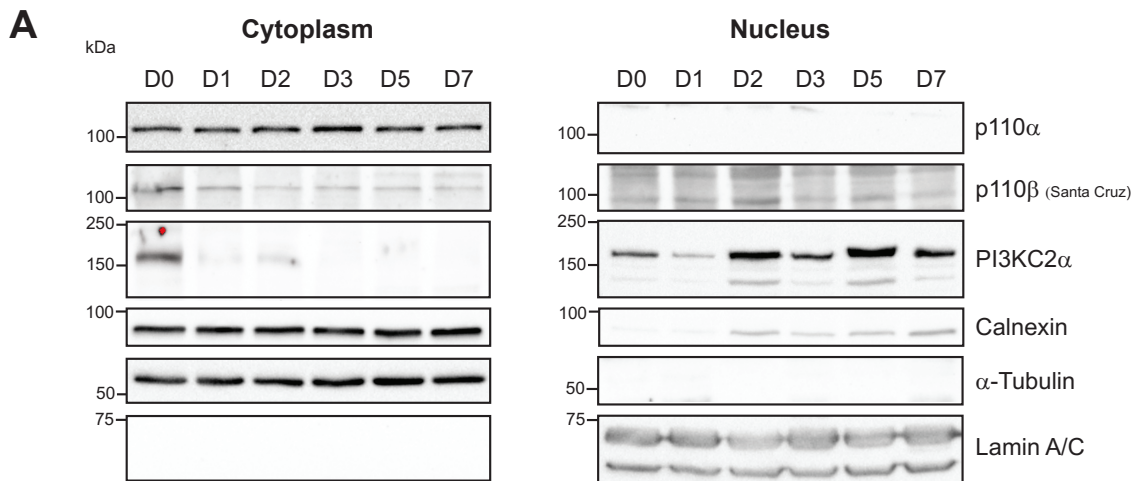
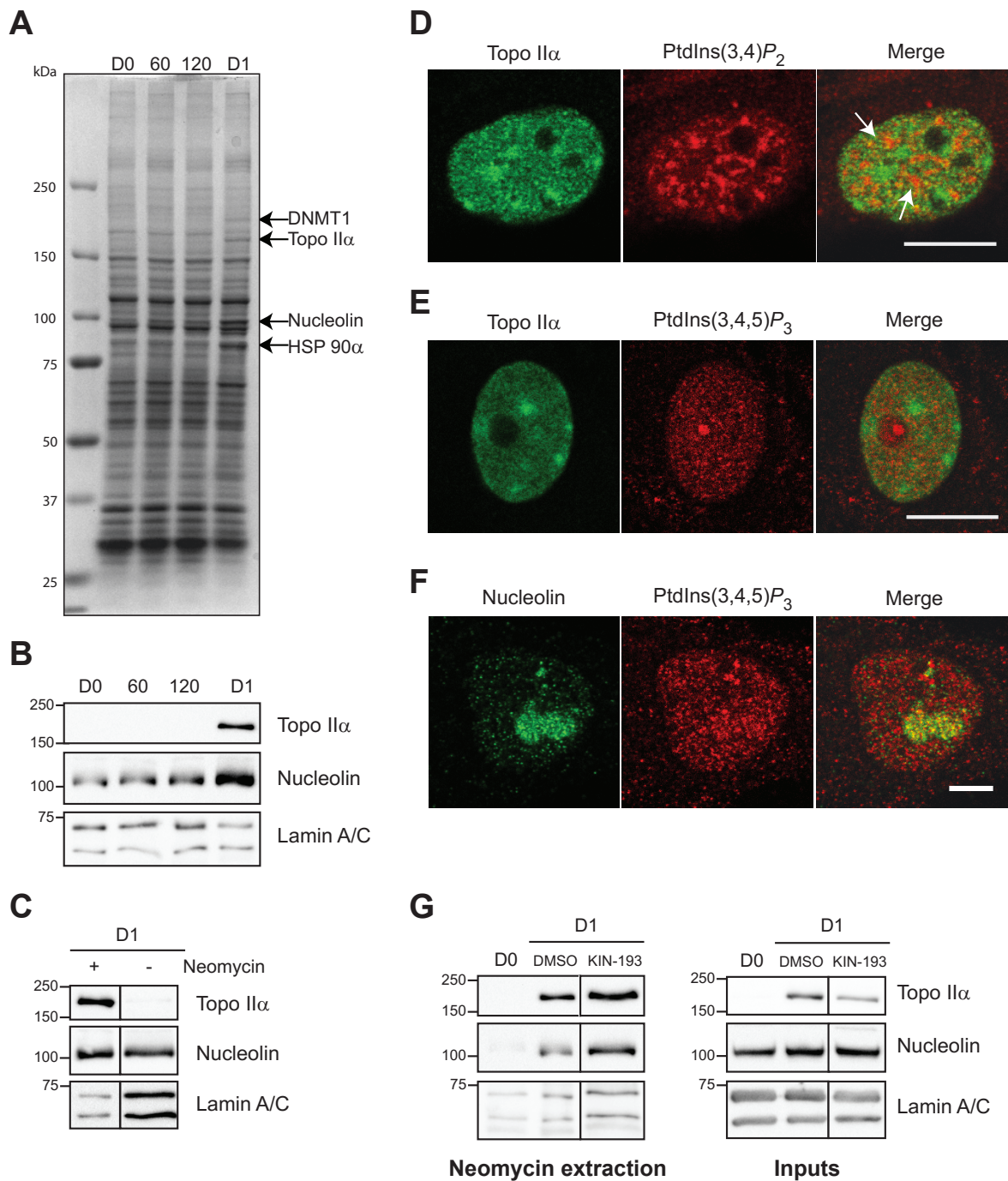


Figure 4



Supplementary data

Supplementary Table S1

List of antibodies used in Western immunoblotting and immunostaining

Name	Manufacturer	Cat. number	WB	Immunostaining
Akt	Cell Signaling	2920	1:2000	
p-S473-Akt	Cell Signaling	9271	1:1000	
Calnexin	Abcam	ab22595	1:1000	
Topo II α	Abcam	Ab52934	1:5000	
GST-HRP	Abcam	ab3416	1:30,000 (lipid blot)	
Lamin A/C	Santa Cruz	sc-376248	1:10,000	
Nucleolin	Cell Signaling	14574	1:5000	1:1000
p110 α	Cell Signaling	4249	1:1000 / 3000	
p110 β (IgM)	Santa Cruz	Sc-376492	1:1000	
p110 β	Abcam	151549		1:50
PI3KC2 α	Santa Cruz	sc-67306	1:1000	
PtdIns(3,4) P_2	Echelon	Z-P034	1:2000	
PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3	Echelon	Z-P345b		
PPAR γ	Invitrogen	419300	1:5000	
α -tubulin	Sigma	T5168	1:10,000 / 4000	
anti-rabbit-Alexa 488	Life Technologies	A11008		1:200
anti-mouse-Alexa 594	Life Technologies	A11005		1:200
anti-rabbit-HRP	Life Technologies	G21234	1:10,000	
anti-mouse-HRP	Life Technologies	G21040	1:10,000 (1:20,000 LE9)	
anti-mouse IgM HRP	Abcam	ab5930	1:10,000	

Supplementary Table S2

MALDI-TOF fingerprinting results

Uniprot ID	Gene name	Protein Name	Number of matches	Mascot score
P13864	DNMT1	DNA Methyltransferase 1	15	83
Q01320	TOP2A	DNA Topoisomerase II α	14	87
P09405	NUCL	Nucleolin	12	89
P07901	HS90A	Heat shock protein HSP90- α	19	73

Supplementary figure legends

Figure S1. Validation of specificity of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 probes by lipid overlay assays using PIP strips and arrays

A) PIP strip (left) and PIP array schemes from Echelon spotted with 100 picomol of different phospholipids (strip) or a gradient of all phosphoinositides (array). **B-C)** PIP strip (left) and array (right) incubated with 1:2000 of anti-PtdIns(3,4) P_2 antibody (B) or 0.2 mg/mL (strip) or 0.5 mg/mL (array) of GST-GRP1-PH (C). **D)** PIP Array incubated with 1:10.000 of anti-PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 antibody. Signal detection was carried out with anti-mouse IgG-HRP (1:10,000) for antibodies and anti-GST-HRP (1:50,000) followed by enhanced chemluminescence.

Figure S2. PtdIns(3,4) P_2 immunostaining

3T3-L1 cells grew confluent on cover slips. 2 days post-confluence, adipogenesis was induced by incubating the cells with a differentiation cocktail for 5, 30 and 60 min. The slips were incubated with antibody raised against PtdIns(3,4) P_2 and stained with DAPI before they were imaged by fluorescence microscopy at 40 x magnification, exposure time 445 ms, gain 2.7. Magnification of selected cells to demonstrate speckle-like localization of PtdIns(3,4) P_2 . The images are representative of experiments performed three times.

Figure S3. PtdIns(3,4,5) P_3 immunostaining

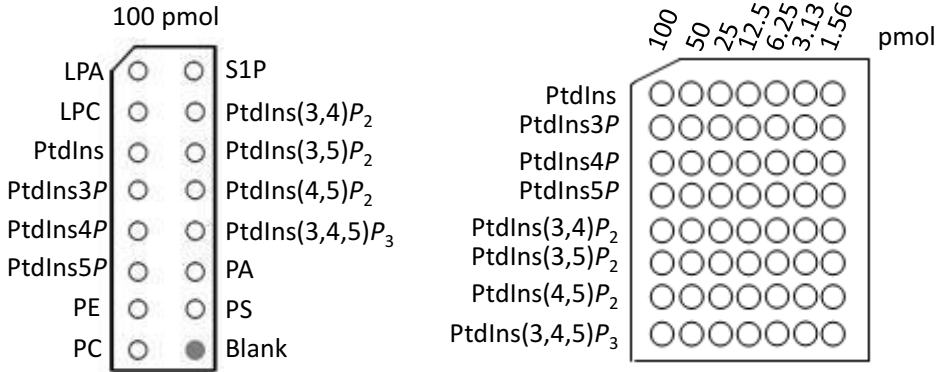
3T3-L1 cells grew confluent on cover slips. 2 days post-confluence the cells were treated with a differentiation cocktail for 5, 30 and 60 min. The slips were incubated with antibody raised against PIP_3 and stained with DAPI before imaging by fluorescence microscopy at 40 x magnification, exposure time 589 ms, gain 4.5. Magnification of selected cells to demonstrate nucleolus-like staining. The images are representative for experiments performed three times.

Figure S4. Detection of p110 β in cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions

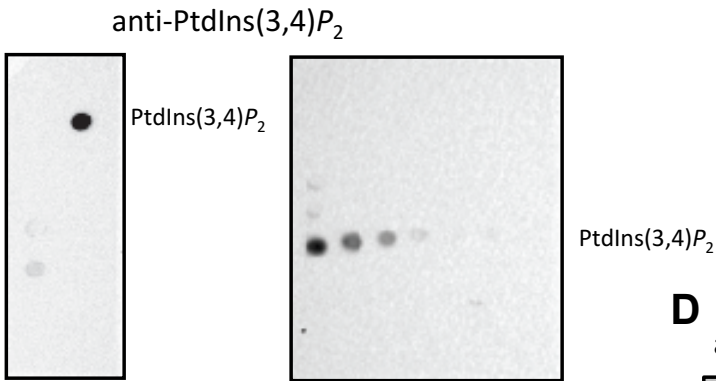
3T3-L1 cells were induced to differentiate with a differentiation cocktail and fractionated at time-points indicated. Proteins were detected by Western-immunoblotting. α -Tubulin and Lamin A/C were used as loading and purity controls. Detection of the kinase p110 β was done with an anti-p110 β antibody from abcam (ab151549).

Figure S1

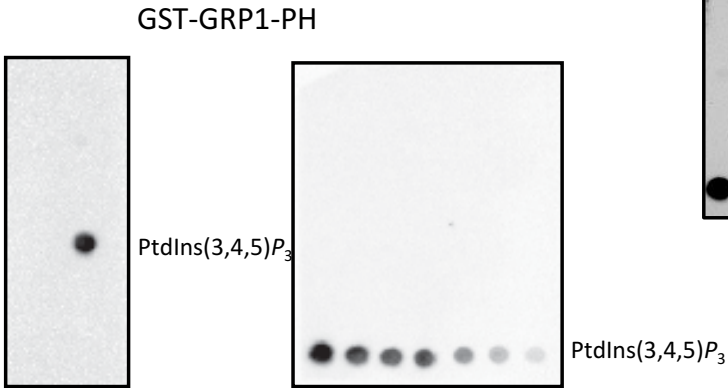
A



B



C



D

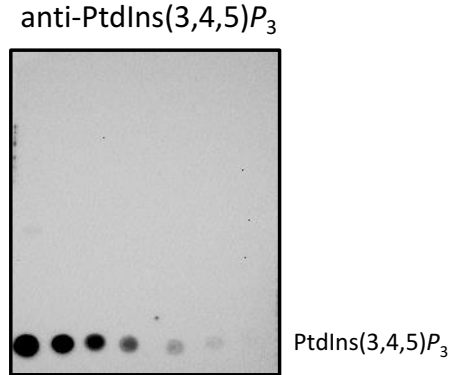


Figure S2

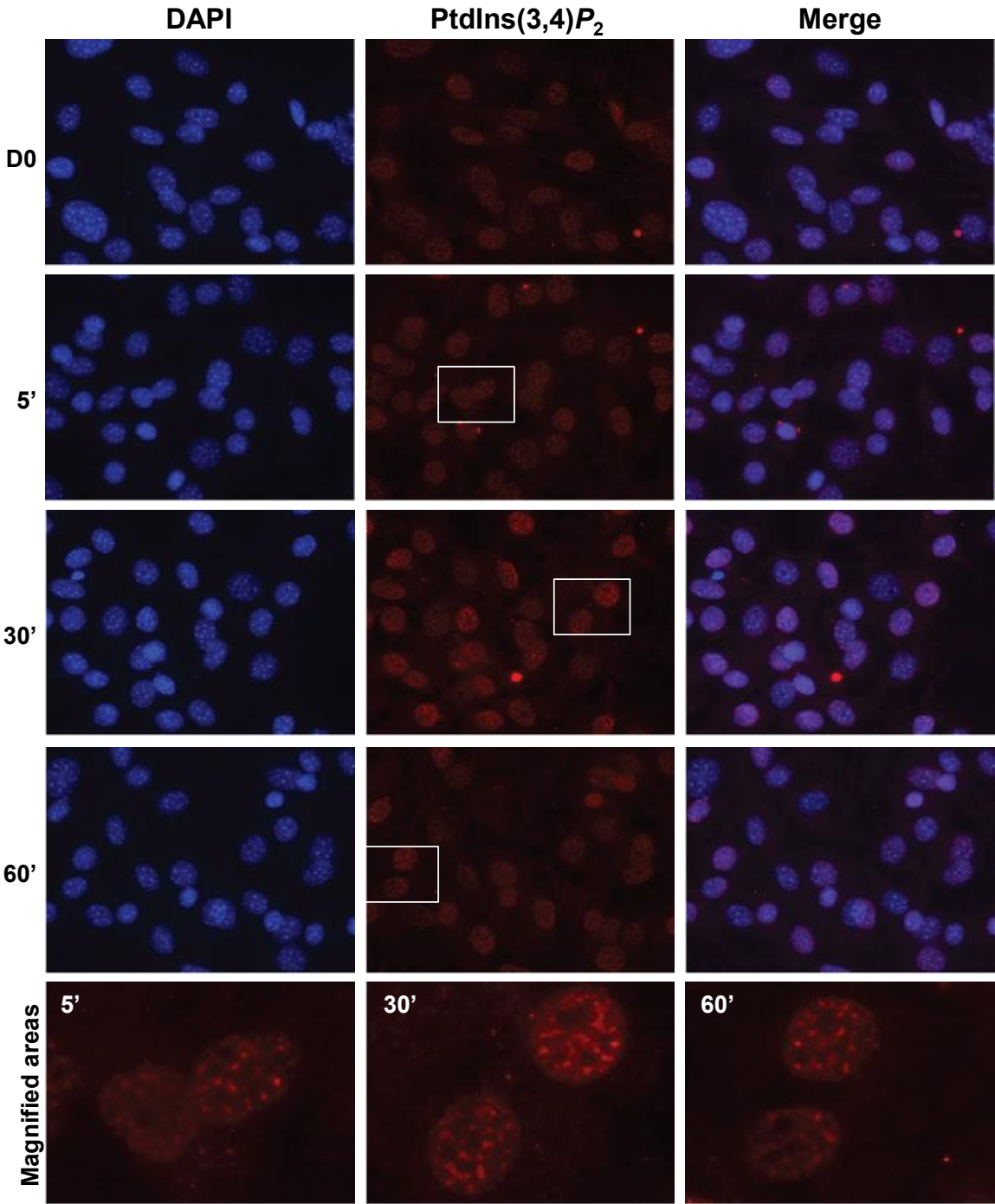


Figure S3

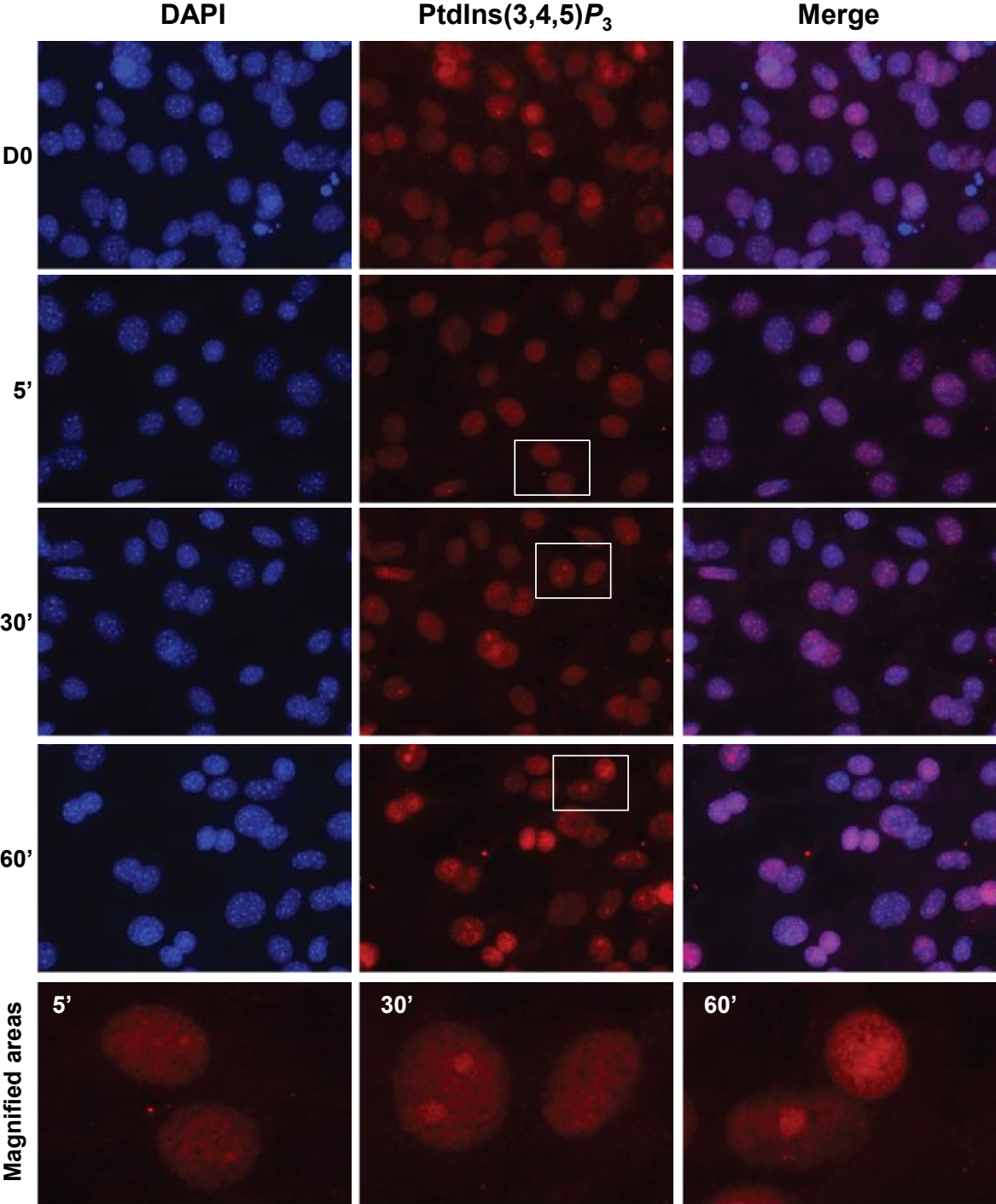
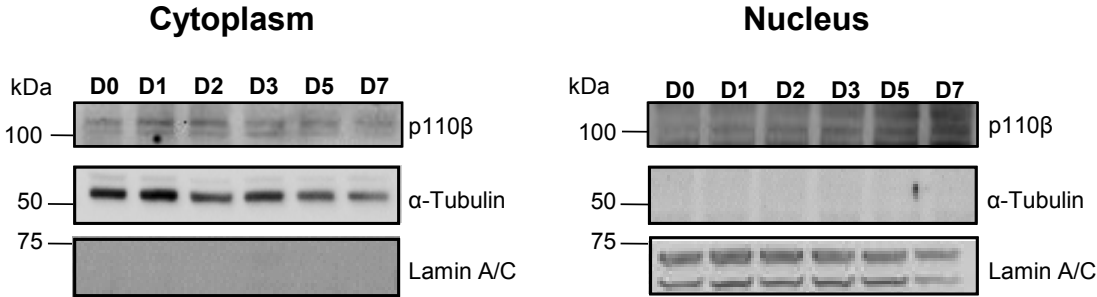
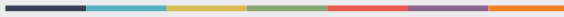
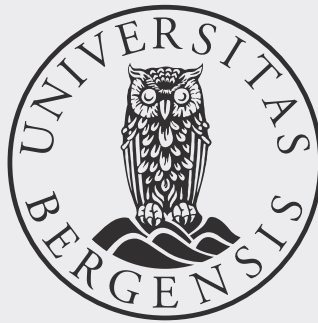


Figure S4





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