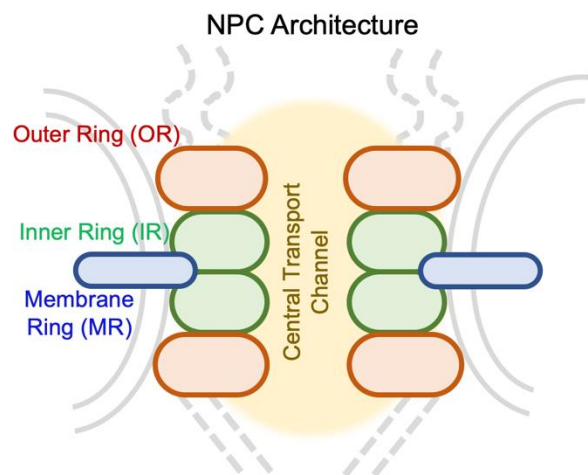

Supplementary information

Karyopherin-mediated nucleocytoplasmic transport

In the format provided by the authors and unedited

Supplementary Box 1| The nuclear pore complex: permeability barrier and Kap-cargo translocation

An NPC contains ~30 different nuclear pore proteins or nucleoporins (nups) that occur in multiples of eight to form a massive eight-fold symmetric protein assembly (~1000 Å wide, ~400 Å high, >500 nup subunits) that is embedded in the double membrane nuclear envelope (NE). Many crystal structures of nups and nup complexes along with cryo-electron microscopy (CryoEM), cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET) and integrative structural studies of isolated and *in situ* NPCs have resulted in structural models of NPCs from multiple organisms, all showing a common organization of several conserved modules even though the architectures are distinct in different organisms (recently reviewed¹⁻⁴). All NPCs contain a NE-embedded core scaffold that forms the 400-600 Å diameter central transport channel (CTC) with attached cytoplasmic and nucleoplasmic peripheral regions. The core scaffold has – 1) The membrane ring (MR) which contains integral membrane nups with transmembrane domains in the NE membrane and some MR nup domains in the NE lumen that likely form the path for transport of INM proteins. 2) Two approximately symmetric inner rings (IRs) that contact both the MR and the NE membrane, and extends all the way to the CTC where phenylalanine-glycine nups (FG Nups) attach to the inner face of IRs to form the permeability barrier and sites of Kap-cargo translocation. 3) Outer rings (ORs) connect to both the cytoplasmic and nuclear sides of the IRs. One OR is made up of eight Y-complexes, each with 6-9 different nups, and the numbers of ORs vary in NPCs from different organisms. ORs contact the NE membrane and the IRs. Peripheral cytoplasmic modules carrying mRNA disassembly/export machineries attach to the cytoplasmic ORs, while the highly flexible and mostly undefined nuclear peripheral modules

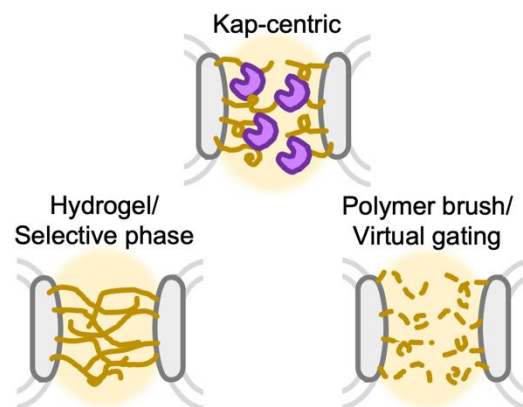


(e.g. the nuclear basket) attach to the nuclear ORs.

Central and peripheral FG Nups populate the CTC to form the selective permeability barrier that allows passive diffusion of solutes and small molecules but not macromolecules. Early NPC permeability studies using polyvinylpyrrolidone-coated colloidal gold particles of different diameters suggested a 40 kDa cutoff for passive diffusion⁵, but diffusion/active transport of macromolecules in cells is more complicated. Assembly states and surface properties may be as or more important than molecular weights in determining the ability to traverse the NPC barrier. It is clear that the FG repeats in the CTC form the permeability barrier and that FG-nuclear transport receptor interactions allow the receptor-cargo complexes to enter/traverse the barrier but the exact nature/material properties of the FG barrier and thus Kap-cargo translocation mechanism are still heavily debated (recently reviewed⁶⁻¹⁰). FG Nups have been shown to form phase-separated liquids¹¹, hydrogels (heavily hydrated solids)¹², amyloid fibers¹³, dynamic polymer brushes¹⁴ and films¹⁵, but their states *in situ* within the CTC remain unknown. A resident Imp β population may also be a key part of the permeability barrier¹⁶. Models for receptor-cargo translocation are equally varied and include

receptors binding FG repeats: 1) to break the selective phase formed by FG-FG meshworks, 2) to overcome the energetic penalty of entropic exclusion of the highly dynamic fluctuating FG-nups, and 3) to break barriers with combined modes and properties of 1) and 2).

Models for the permeability barrier



Supplementary Box 2 | Import of inner nuclear membrane proteins

Integral membrane proteins of the inner nuclear membrane (INM) are thought to diffuse from the ER membrane to the outer nuclear membrane (ONM) and then most are transported to the INM

through the NPC (previously reviewed¹⁷⁻²⁰, see Supplementary Box 1). We briefly describe the mechanisms INM transport, focusing on Kap-mediated mechanisms. Several INM proteins such as yeast HEH1, HEH2 and human POM121 are imported by IMP α/β binding to their extralumenal bipartite cNLSs, which are separated from their transmembrane regions by long extralumenal IDRs (>~20 – 25 nm)²¹. The long IDRs allow the importin-bound NLS to reach through the NPC scaffolding into the central channel^{22,23}. The cNLSs of HEH1 (¹⁷³RKKRK¹⁷⁷-linker-¹⁸⁹SKENK¹⁹³), HEH2 (¹⁰¹NKRKR¹⁰⁵-linker-¹²⁵KKKRRK¹²⁹) and POM121 (²⁹⁴KKKR²⁹⁷-linker-³¹³KRRR³¹⁶) seem more densely basic than typical cNLSs and they bind very tightly to IMP α alone (low nM affinity) and displace the IBB domain without IMP β ^{24,25}. Interestingly, the long linkers of HEH2 and POM121 cNLSs structurally resemble the IBB bound to IMP α in its autoinhibited state but do not confer binding to directly to IMP β , suggesting that they do not behave entirely like IMP α IBB^{24,25}. Several other INM proteins contain predicted cNLSs in their extralumenal domains but use of these putative signals have not been tested in the context of the full-length proteins^{17,18,26}. It is unclear at this time if other importins can mediate INM protein transport.

Many INM proteins do not have extralumenal cNLSs or long IDRs and are likely transported through the NPC via different mechanisms. For proteins with small enough extralumenal domains to fit (<~60 kDa), another path for translocation may be through the NPC peripheral channels (~9 nm diameter)^{20,27}. This mode of transport is either mediated by an INM sorting motif (INM-SM) binding to a truncated IMP α 4-ARM repeat isoform or by a diffusion-retention mechanism²⁸⁻³⁰. The INM-SM has been reported in several INM proteins and consists of a hydrophobic 18 – 20 residue transmembrane domain and an adjacent extralumenal cluster of basic residues^{17,29}. The diffusion-retention mechanism involves INM proteins passively diffusing from the ONM through the NPC to the INM where they are retained by interactions with lamins and/or chromatin^{27,31}. Finally, theoretical (no experimental support) NPC-independent models of INM protein import include vesicle fusion between the ONM and INM^{17,19} in a manner similar to nuclear egress by

herpesvirus³² or in Wnt signaling³³, an autophagy-like mechanism of nuclear membrane rupture¹⁹, or channel-mediated insertion similar to that in mitochondria¹⁹.

Supplementary Box 3 | Conservation, characteristics and cellular levels of Kaps

Conservation and characteristics of Kaps

Kaps are conserved across eukaryotes and share common physical and chemical characteristics. The number of Kap family members in different organisms vary from 14 in *S. cerevisiae* (yeast) to 20 in human cells (Table 1). Homologous human and yeast Kaps share 18 – 47% sequence identity and function similarly as importins or exportins. Model organisms such as *D. melanogaster*, *C. elegans*, *X. laevis*, *S. pombe*, and pathogenic eukaryotes like trypanosomes have most of the human Kap homologs but are missing some Kaps or have additional Kaps. *Drosophila* is missing homologs of IPO8, XPO4, XPOT, RANBP6 and RANBP17, but has multiple TNPO3 and IPO4 homologs³⁴. Plants also have many human Kap homologs, with a few exceptions: 1) plants have multiple IMP β , TNPO3 and IPO5 homologs, 2) land plants have a novel PLANTKAP that is distantly related to IPO8, and 3) XPO6 is absent. Even Kaps in trypanosomes, which diverged early in eukaryotic evolution, share significant homology with human Kaps except they are missing TNPO3, XPO6 and IPO13. Conservation of Kaps parallels high conservation of NPC components³⁵⁻³⁷.

Sequence similarities within a Kap family are generally low (~10 – 20% sequence identity) with the exception of a few highly related (~65 – 85% identical) Kap pairs like KAP β 2/KAP β 2b, IPO5/RANBP6, IPO7/IPO8 and XPO7/RANBP17 (Table 1). All Kaps are negatively charged, with importins carrying more negative charges (isoelectric points 4.5 – 5.4 for importins and 5.0 – 6.0 for exportins and biportins). Kaps also have many surface-accessible hydrophobic residues as well as arginine, histidine and cysteine residues, all of which can interact with aromatic residues

such as those in the FG repeats of the NPC. The arginine and histidine side chains are also important for maintaining solubility of Kaps in the cytoplasm and the nucleus³⁸.

Cellular levels of Kaps

Gene expression microarray data showed that most Kap genes are expressed in most human tissues, but expression levels do vary somewhat³⁹. For example, 12 of the 20 human Kaps listed in the Gene Expression Omnibus or GEO appear highly expressed in proliferative tissues like stem cells, lymphocytes, and testis. Kap levels and localization also vary during development; for example, 10 Kaps (KAP β 2, TNPO3, IPO4, IPO5, IPO7, IPO11, CRM1, CAS, XPOT and IPO13) are consistently highly expressed during mouse embryo development³⁹, IPO13 is highly expressed in brain and spinal cord tissue and its expression and subcellular localization appears to be regulated in mouse brain development^{39,40}, and several Kaps (IMP β , IPO4, IPO5, IPO9, CRM1, CAS and XPO6) are highly expressed in various stages of spermatogenesis^{39,41,42}.

Western blotting or Coomassie staining studies with protein standards and Ran concentrations (~7 μ M in HeLa cells⁴³) as references estimated the concentrations of several Kaps to be ~1 – 3 μ M in HeLa cells and *Xenopus* extracts^{44,45}. A recent multi-omic study on the heterogeneity of HeLa cell lines revealed only small variations in Kap levels across 14 different HeLa cell lines, with Kap concentration ranges estimated to be 0.06 – 2 μ M and similar concentrations of Kaps were also estimated in budding yeast⁴⁶⁻⁴⁸.

Supplementary Box 4 | Chaperoning activity of Kaps

Many Kaps also function as aggregation chaperones for their cargoes. A few importins (IMP β , IPO4, IPO5, IPO7, IMP β /IPO7, IPO9) were found to shield highly basic cargoes, such as

ribosomal proteins and histones, from inappropriate interactions with polyanions such as RNAs in the cytoplasm⁴⁹⁻⁵¹. IPO9 wraps around the H2A-H2B histone dimer and shields its nucleosomal interfaces from inappropriate and nonspecific interactions in the cytoplasm and nucleus. The IPO9•H2A-H2B complex is not dissociated by RAN-GTP but rather forms a 4-protein complex, possibly to prevent premature histone release in the nucleus before reaching assembling nucleosomes on replicating DNA⁵². The IMP β /IPO7 dimer also chaperones linker histone H1, with IMP β cradling the H1 globular domain and the IMP β /IPO7 interface protecting the highly basic C-terminal H1 tail⁵³.

Importins also shield RNA-binding proteins that are prone to self-association/aggregation; many of these cargoes are involved in neurodegenerative diseases. Studies on KAP β 2 chaperoning and inhibiting phase separation/gelation/aggregation of cargoes FUS, EWS, and TAF15, as well as on IMP α / β chaperoning TDP-43, were discussed in several recent reviews⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷. Additionally, nuclear import of SUMO-E2 conjugating enzyme UBC9 by IPO13/PDR6 occurs in a chaperone-like manner where biportin-binding blocks the E1, E3, and substrate docking site on UBC9, ensuring its import in the inactive state to prevent off-target SUMOylation^{58,59}.

Examples of exportins acting as chaperones include CSE1 binding autoinhibited IMP α to prevent export of previously imported cargoes^{60,61}. Additionally, the 17 kDa export cargo eIF5A does not have a known nuclear function but passively leaks into the nucleus/nucleoli due to off-target interactions with RNAs⁶². XPO4 or PDR6 shields the RNA-binding interfaces of eIF5A and re-exports it to prevent nucleoli accumulation^{59,63}.

Supplementary Table 1 | Importin- α family members

| Importin-α subtype in humans | Other Names | Yeast homolog | Mode(s) cargo of binding | References^a |
|---|--|----------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| Imporin- α 1 (IMP α 1) | KPNA2, hSRP α , RCH1, QIP2, NPI-3 | KAP60/SRP1 | cNLS | 64 |
| Imporin- α 3 (IMP α 3) | KPNA4, QIP1 | | cNLS, ARM domain flexibility, weak IBB autoinhibition, extra-cNLS binding sites | 65-68 |
| Imporin- α 4 (IMP α 4) | KPNA3, hSRP1 γ , QIP2 | | cNLS | 64 |
| Imporin- α 5 (IMP α 5) | KPNA1, NPI-1, SRP1, hSRP1 | | cNLS, extra-cNLS binding sites, weak IBB autoinhibition | 69,70 |
| Imporin- α 6 (IMP α 6) | KPNA5 | | cNLS | 64 |
| Imporin- α 7 (IMP α 7) | KPNA6 | | cNLS, weak IBB autoinhibition | 66 |
| Imporin- α 8 (IMP α 8) | KPNA7, NPI-2 | | cNLS | 64 |

^aFor lists of specific cargoes, see review ⁶⁴

Supplementary Table 2 | Putative MSN5 cargoes

| Putative cargo | Regions required for export | Phospho-site required for MSN5 binding | References |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|-------------------|
| Nutrient and stress response | | | |
| Aft1 | 147-270, 304-498 | S210, S224 | 71 |
| Crz1 | 186-279 | Not mapped | 72 |
| Haa1 | Not mapped | Not mapped | 73 |
| Maf1 | Not mapped | Not mapped | 74 |
| Msn2 | 1-516 | Not mapped | 75 |
| Mig1 | 244-340 | Not mapped | 76 |
| Pho4 | Not mapped | S114, S128 | 77,78 |
| Rtg1/Rtg3 dimer | 2-279 in Rtg3 | Not mapped | 79,80 |
| Ssa4 | 16-236 | Not mapped | 81 |
| Cell-cycle regulation | | | |
| Cdh1 | 1-50 | Not mapped | 82 |
| Cln2 | 225-299 | Not mapped | 83 |
| Far1 | 285-390 | Not mapped | 84 |
| Ho | 248-311 | Not mapped | 85,86 |
| Ste5 | 24-55, 160-218 | T4, S11, T29, S43, S69, S71, S81, T102 | 87-89 |
| Swi5 | 1-325 (224-285 is necessary but insufficient) | Not mapped | 90 |
| Swi6/Swi4 | Not mapped | Not mapped | 91 |
| Whi5 | Not mapped | Not mapped | 92 |

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