



Universidade Federal do Rio Grande – FURG

Instituto de Ciências Biológicas

Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciências Fisiológicas – Fisiologia Animal Comparada

**AVALIAÇÃO TRANSCRICIONAL DE GLUTATIONA S-
TRANSFERASES EM PEIXE-ZEBRA (*Danio rerio*) E ALTERAÇÕES
CAUSADAS PELA EXPOSIÇÃO À MICROCISTINA-LR**

MAURICIO DA SILVA SOPEZKI

**Dissertação defendida no âmbito do
Programa de Pós-graduação em
Ciências Fisiológicas – Fisiologia
Animal Comparada, como parte dos
requisitos para obtenção do título de
MESTRE em Fisiologia Animal
Comparada.**

Orientador: Juliano Zanette

Co-orientador: José Maria Monserrat

Março, 2013

AGRADECIMENTOS

Primeiramente gostaria de agradecer a DEUS e todos aqueles que colaboraram de maneira direta e indireta para realização desta dissertação.

Agradeço muito ao meu orientador, Juliano Zanette, famoso Juca, pela aceitação nestes dois anos que se passaram e principalmente por ser esta pessoa maravilhosa que se dedica ao trabalho com muito prazer e esforço. Agradeço ao Juca por todo conhecimento científico e olhar crítico sobre tudo aquilo que se faz dentro de um laboratório, possibilitando a minimização dos erros e realização deste trabalho. Juca, agradeço a sua confiança em mim e espero que nossa convivência, amizade e trabalho cresça sempre e nesta nova etapa que iremos começar no doutorado, tenhamos muitas alegrias e nosso trabalho traga sempre bons frutos e contribuição a comunidade científica.

Ao meu co-orientador, José Maria Monserrat, o grande Zé. Foi uma das primeiras pessoas que eu procurei no programa para conversar sobre projetos, orientações e de nossa conversa surgiram bons frutos, pois ele me aconselhou a conversar com o Juca e deu no que deu, pois o fruto dessa conversa resultou neste trabalho. Agradeço muito ao Zé pelo companheirismo e auxílio, seja em sala de aula, em sua sala e até mesmo na bancada, pois são poucos que se dedicam a Ciência como este. Zé, muito obrigado por tudo.

Agradeço aos professores que aceitaram o convite para integrar a banca: Afonso Celso Dias Bainy, Luis Fernando Fernandes Marins e Juliano Zanette, pois são pessoas com ampla experiência na área científica e acredito que suas sugestões só têm a somar para o trabalho.

Gostaria de agradecer também a todos os integrantes do grupo de pesquisa criado pelo Juca, Biomarcadores Ambientais Moleculares. Estas pessoas me incentivaram a buscar o conhecimento e repassá-lo adiante nos treinamentos realizados a cada vez que alguém vinha me procurar.

As colegas Cássia, Isabel e Evelise que foram as pessoas que me orientaram dentro do laboratório, onde pude aprender muito sobre as técnicas de Biologia Molecular com elas e a Roberta Socoowski que me ajudou nas análises bioquímicas.

Agradeço muito ao pessoal do Laboratório de Biologia Molecular, pois foram pessoas que eu convivi por muito tempo de trabalho, em especial à técnica Loraine, Márcio, Dani e Nino, pois eles sempre tinham alguma solução quando as dúvidas surgiam.

Aos meus colegas de pós-graduação e amigos de graduação e da vida cotidiana, pois estas pessoas sempre passaram um incentivo e valorizavam aquilo que estava sendo feito. Sem estas pessoas as coisas teriam sido mais difíceis... Muito obrigado.

Agradeço a CAPES por financiar meus estudos durante este período e ao CNPq pelo financiamento do projeto que resultou nesta dissertação.

Por final e mais importante, agradeço a minha família. Sem minha mãe, pai, irmãs, avós, primos, tios e namorada, eu não seria esta pessoa. Sinto-me completo ao lado destes e graças ao grande incentivo de sempre seguir em frente com garra, esta conquista foi possível e com este apoio, acredito que muitas conquistas ainda irão surgir. Muito Obrigado, Amo todos vocês!!!

SUMÁRIO

1. RESUMO.....	1
2. ABSTRACT.....	3
3. INTRODUÇÃO GERAL.....	5
3.1. A contaminação ambiental por microcistinas.....	5
3.2. O uso de <i>Danio rerio</i> como modelo biológico.....	7
3.3. As glutationa S-transferases.....	9
4. REFERÊNCIAS.....	15
5. OBJETIVOS.....	19
5.1. Objetivo geral.....	19
5.2. Objetivos específicos.....	19
6. ARTIGO- Glutathione S-transferase transcriptional levels in zebrafish (<i>Danio rerio</i>) and effects caused by microcystin-LR.....	20
Abstract.....	20
Introduction.....	21
Methods.....	22
Laboratory animal care and experimental treatment.....	22
Dosage of MC-LR in the water.....	23
Phylogenetic analysis of <i>D. rerio GSTs</i>	23
Quantification of <i>GST</i> transcripts.....	24
Statistic.....	25
Results.....	26
Phylogenetic sequence analyses.....	26

Dosage of MC-LR in the water.....	26
Organ-specific distribution and relative abundance of <i>GST</i> isoforms.....	26
Response of zebrafish <i>GST</i> transcript as after MC-LR exposure.....	27
Discussion.....	27
Organ-specific distribution and relative abundance of <i>GST</i> isoforms.....	28
MC-LR affecting transcript levels of <i>Danio rerio GSTs</i>	30
Conclusions.....	33
Acknowledgment.....	33
References.....	34
7. CONCLUSÕES GERAIS.....	39
8. PERSPECTIVAS.....	40

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SÍMBOLOS

18s - Rna Ribossomal 18s

ANOVA - análise de variância (teste estatístico)

ARE - elemento de Resposta Antioxidante

Arg - arginina

arnt2 - translocador do receptor aril hidrocarboneto nuclear 2

b2m - beta-2-microglobulina

cDNA - sequência nucleotídica complementar de DNA

CDNB - 1-cloro-2,4-dinitrobenzeno

CG - nucleotídeos

CT - do inglês: Threshold cycle (ciclo limite)

CuOOH - cumeno hidroperóxido

DDT - dicloro-difenil-tricloroetano

DNA - ácido desoxirribonucleico

DNase - enzima que degrada DNA

E^{Act} - método utilizado para comparar os níveis de expressão das GST

ef-1 α - fator de elongação-1alfa

EpRE - elemento responsivo para eletrófilo

ERO - espécies reativas ao oxigênio

ETHA - ácido etacrínico

FastPCR - programa que realiza PCR in silico

FURG - Universidade Federal do Rio Grande

g6pdh - glucose-6-fosfato desidrogenase

GenBank - banco de genes público que possui os dados produzidos pelo NCBI

GPEI - elemento indutor de π GST

GSH - glutationa reduzida

gst_a2.1 - isoforma GST Alfa1

gst_a2.2 - isoforma GST Alfa 2

gst_al - isoforma tipo GST Alfa

gst_k1.1 - isoforma GST Kapa

gst_m1 - isoforma GST Mu 1

gst_m2 - isoforma GST Mu 2

gstm3 - isoforma Mu 3
gstp1- isoforma GST Pi 1
gstp2- isoforma GST Pi 2
gstr1- isoforma GST Rho
gstt1a - isoforma GST Teta-1a
gstt1b - isoforma GST Teta-1b
gstt2 - isoforma tipo GST Teta
HNE - 4-hidroxinonenal
HPLC - cromatografia líquida de alta eficiência
ICB - Instituto de Ciências Biológicas
Keap1 - do inglês: Kelch-like ECH-associated protein1 (Kelch-tipo proteína associada ECH-1)
Leu - leucina
MAPEG - proteínas de membrana associadas ao metabolismo de eicosanóides e glutationa
MC-LR - microcistina-LR
MCs - microcistinas
mGST1- isoforma GST microsomal 1
mgst3- isoforma GST microsomal 1
NCBI - do inglês: National Center for Biotechnology Information (Centro Nacional de Informação Biotecnológica dos EUA)
Nrf2 - do inglês: Nuclear factor (erythroid-derived 2)-like 2 (Fator nuclear (eritróide-derivado 2)-tipo 2)
OMS - organização mundial de saúde
PP1 - fosfatase PP1A
PP2A - fosfatase PP2A
Primer3 - programa utilizado no desenho dos pares de iniciadores
qPCR - reação em cadeia da polimerase em tempo real
RefSeqs - sequências referência encontradas no GenBank
REST – do inglês: Relative expression software tool (Software ferramenta de expressão relativa)
RNA - ácido ribonucleico
ROX - corante interno normalizador da fluorescência
RT-qPCR – reação de transcrição reversa em cadeia da polimerase em tempo real
tbp - proteína de ligação TATA

Tm - do inglês: melting temperature (temperatura de fusão)

tuba - alfa-tubulina 1

β -actin1 - beta-actina

ΔR_n – medida da fluorescência

1. RESUMO

As Microcistinas são heptapeptídios cíclicos produzidos como metabólitos secundários por diferentes espécies de cianobactérias, sendo relevantes pelo seu potencial hepatotóxico. Peixes apresentam estratégias bioquímicas para detoxificar contaminantes ambientais, incluindo a ativação de enzimas de fase II de biotransformação, que incluem as isoformas de glutationa S-transferase (GST). As GST catalizam a conjugação de glutationa reduzida (GSH) com uma variedade de xenobióticos, incluindo as microcistinas. O presente estudo avaliou os níveis transcricionais de quinze isoformas de GST a fim de identificar isoformas possivelmente envolvidas na detoxificação de contaminantes ambientais como a microcistina-LR (MC-LR) em *Danio rerio*. A técnica de PCR em tempo real (RT-qPCR) foi utilizada para avaliação dos níveis transcricionais, permitindo análise das GST em diferentes órgãos, abundância e a ativação/repressão das isoformas de GST pela exposição à MC-LR. Foram avaliados os possíveis efeitos causados em brânquia e fígado após exposição por 24 hs às concentrações de 5 µg.L⁻¹ e 50 µg.L⁻¹ de MC-LR. Baseado nos scores de estabilidade para oito genes normalizadores, foram selecionados *glicose-6-fosfato desidrogenase* (*g6pdh*), *β-actina1* e *beta-2-microglobulina* (*b2m*); *b2m*, *alfa-tubulina 1* (*tuba*) e *β-actin1*; e *tuba*, *b2m* e *g6pdh*, para normalização dos níveis transcricionais de GST para distribuição órgão-específica, abundância e efeito da MC-LR em brânquia e fígado, respectivamente. A avaliação transcripcional da distribuição órgão-específica revelou níveis significativos de *gstal* e *gstk1.1* no fígado; *gstp1* e *gstp2* em brânquia; *mgst3a*, *gstr1*, *gstm2*, *gstm33*, *gstp1*, *gstp2* e *gstk1.1* no intestino; *gstm2*, *gstm3* e *gstal* no olho e *gstt1a* e *gsta2.1* no cérebro. Considerando os níveis de transcritos para um dado órgão, *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* e *gstt2* foram mais abundantes nos órgãos de detoxificação, tais como o fígado, brânquias e intestino, enquanto *gstt1a* e *gsta2.1* foram mais abundantes no rim. Em brânquia, *gsta2.1* e *gstt1b* foram reprimidas por 5 µg.L⁻¹ de MC-LR e *mgst1.1* foi reprimida em 50 µg.L⁻¹ de MC-LR. No fígado, as isoformas *gst2.2* e *gstp2* foram reprimidas em ambas as concentrações, *gstal* foi reprimida em 5 µg.L⁻¹, e *gstt1a* e *gstk1.1* foram reprimidas em 50 µg.L⁻¹ de MC-LR. As isoformas *gstal*, *gstr1*, *gstp1*, *mgst3a*, *gstm1*, *gstm2* e *gstm3* não foram alteradas pela exposição a MC-LR. Os resultados obtidos fornecem informações para a escolha de isoformas específicas de

GST possivelmente envolvidas na detoxificação/toxicidade de MC-LR, a serem melhores caracterizadas ao nível protéico e também contribui para a escolha de genes normalizadores a serem utilizados em outros estudos da mesma natureza.

Palavras-chave: *GST*, microcistina-LR, *Danio rerio*, genes normalizadores, peixe, poluição.

2. ABSTRACT

The microcystins are cyclic heptapeptides produced as secondary metabolites by different cyanobacteria species, being relevant for its potential hepatotoxicity. Fish possess biochemical strategies for detoxification of environmental contaminants, including the activation of phase II enzymes of biotransformation like glutathione S-transferase isoforms (GST). The GSTs catalyze the conjugation of reduced glutathione (GSH) with a variety of xenobiotics, including microcystins. The present study aimed to evaluate the transcriptional levels of fifteen *GST* isoforms to identify possibly isoforms involved in detoxification of environmental contaminants such as MC-LR in *Danio rerio*. The technique of real-time PCR (RT-qPCR) was used to assess the transcriptional level, allowing the analysis of the levels of fifteen *GSTs* in different organs, abundance and activation/repression of specific isoforms of *GSTs* by exposure to MC-LR. The possible effects caused by the exposure for 24 hours at concentrations of 5 µg.L⁻¹ and 50 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR on gill and liver transcriptional levels were evaluated. Based on the stability scores for eight housekeeping genes, were selected *glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase* (*g6pdh*), *β-actin1* and *beta-2-microglobulin* (*b2m*); *b2m*, *alpha-1 tubulin* (*tuba*) and *β-actin1*; and *tuba*, *b2m* and *g6pdh*, to normalize the levels of *GSTs* transcriptional distribution organ-specific, abundance and effect of MC-LR in gill and in the liver, respectively. Analysis of organ-specific distribution showed significant levels of *gstal* and *gstk1.1* in the liver; *gstp1* and *gstp2* in gill; *mgst3a*, *gstr1*, *gstm2*, *gstm3*, *gstp1*, *gstp2* and *gstk1.1* in intestine; *gstm2*, *gstm3* and *gstal* in eye; and *gstt1a* and *gsta2.1* in brain. Considering the levels of transcripts for a given organ, *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* and *gstt2* were the most abundant in the detoxification organs such as the liver, intestine and gill, while *gstt1a* and *gst2.2* were the most abundant in the kidney. In gill, *gsta2.1* and *gstt1b* were down-regulated by 5 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR and *mgst1.1* was down-regulated by 50 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR. In the liver, the isoforms *gsta2.2* and *gstp2* were down-regulated by both concentrations, *gstt2* was down-regulated by 5 µg.L⁻¹, and *gstt1a* and *gstk1.1* were down-regulated by 50 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR compared to the control group. Isoforms *gstal*, *gstr1*, *gstp1*, *mgst3a*, *gstm1*, *gstm2* and *gstm3* were not altered by exposure to MC-LR. The results obtained provide basic information for the selection of specific *GST* isoforms possibly involved in the detoxification/toxicity, for better

characterization in the protein level and the results also contributed for the choice of housekeeping genes to be used in other similar studies.

Keywords: *GST*, microcystin-LR, *Danio rerio*, housekeeping genes, fish, pollution.

3. INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

3.1. A CONTAMINAÇÃO AMBIENTAL POR MICROCISTINAS

Inúmeros episódios de florações tóxicas de cianobactérias com efeitos nocivos para os organismos aquáticos e seres humanos têm sido descritos no Brasil e no mundo (Minillo *et al.*, 2000; Ballot *et al.*, 2005; Kotak e Zurawell, 2007; Amado e Monserrat, 2010; Amado *et al.*, 2011a). Muitos destes episódios são ocasionados ou intensificados pelo enriquecimento dos corpos d'água com nutrientes e por mudanças climáticas em escala global, resultantes de atividades antrópicas poluidoras (Paerl e Huisman, 2009).

Cada gênero de cianobactéria pode ser composto por dezenas ou centenas de espécies, tóxicas ou não, de acordo com as substâncias químicas secretadas (Chorus e Bartram, 1999). Várias cianobactérias, como as pertencentes aos gêneros *Microcystis*, *Anabaena*, *Nodularia*, *Oscillatoria* (*Planktothrix*) e *Nostoc*, produzem microcistinas (MCs), um potente grupo de hepatotoxinas, com mais de 70 isoformas conhecidas (Amado *et al.*, 2011b), sendo a microcistina-LR (MC-LR) uma das mais comuns e bem estudadas (Kotak e Zurawell, 2007). A representação estrutural da MC-LR pode ser visualizada na Figura I (Ding e Ong, 2003) e apresenta uma porção em comum composta de cinco aminoácidos e dois aminoácidos variantes, do qual as microcistinas são denominadas de acordo com os seus aminoácidos variáveis, onde o termo “L” e “R” refere-se a presença de uma leucina e arginina, respectivamente, na sua estrutura cíclica peptídica. O gênero *Microcystis* é conhecido pela sua toxicidade e a principal toxina produzida pelas microalgas deste gênero é denominada microcistina. A Organização Mundial de Saúde (OMS) estabeleceu um guia com valores provisórios para a variante MC-LR, onde se observa que o recomendado desta toxina para águas de consumo humano é de $1\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$, e portanto águas com uma concentração inferior a este valor são seguras do ponto de vista de saúde pública (Hoeger *et al.*, 2005).

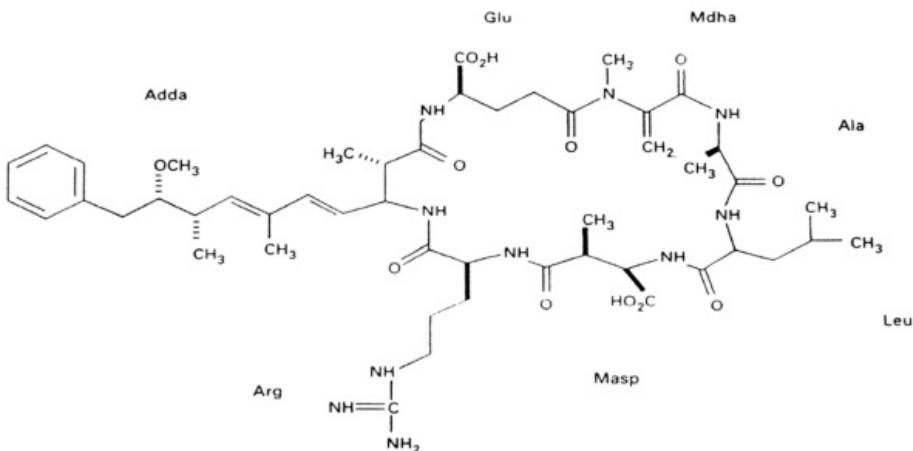


Figura I. Estrutura de microcistina-LR com seus 5 aminoácidos comuns e seus 2 aminoácidos variantes representados por Leucina (Leu) e Arginina (Arg), segundo Ding e Ong (2003).

Várias espécies envolvidas em fenômenos de floração de microalgas são produtoras de toxinas, as chamadas cianotoxinas (metabólitos secundários), que possuem efeito neurotóxicos (neurotoxinas), hepatotóxicos (hepatotoxinas), dermatotóxicos ou citotóxicos (Chorus e Bartram, 1999). As cianotoxinas são endotoxinas (toxinas intracelulares), sendo somente liberadas para água após lise celular (Azevedo *et al.*, 2002).

Estima-se que 25 a 75% de florações de cianobactérias são tóxicas e a produção de cianotoxinas inclui riscos para a saúde humana e animal, desta forma, as cianotoxinas representam um importante grupo de compostos químicos do ponto de vista da química toxicológica ambiental e ecotoxicologia (Bláha *et al.*, 2009). A contaminação dos corpos d'água por essas toxinas traz sérias consequências econômicas, ecológicas e de saúde pública (Wiengand e Pflugmacher, 2005; Amado e Monserrat, 2010). Os principais mecanismos de toxicidade, pelo qual as MCs atuam ao nível bioquímico, envolve o aumento da fosforilação proteica pela inativação das fosfatases PP1 e PP2A (Zegura *et al.*, 2004) e a geração de estresse oxidativo e carcinogênese (Ding e Ong, 2003). Novas evidências sugerem outros mecanismos de toxicidade incluindo além do estresse oxidativo, efeitos sobre a osmorregulação em peixes e outros organismos aquáticos (Yunes, 2009).

O tripeptídeo glutationa (GSH) é um dos mais importantes antioxidantes e tem sido observada a sua conjugação com a microcistinas (Pflugmacher *et al.*, 1998). Esta

conjugação diminui os estoques intracelulares de GSH, deixando as células mais suscetíveis ao estresse oxidativo (Pflugmacher *et al.*, 2001).

O conhecimento dos mecanismos de toxicidade atuantes em organismos expostos à MC-LR requer não apenas um conhecimento detalhado dos mecanismos de toxicidade destes compostos em peixes, mas também dos mecanismos moleculares e bioquímicos de biotransformação utilizado pelos mesmos.

3.2. O USO DE *Danio rerio* COMO MODELO BIOLÓGICO

O uso de peixes em estudos toxicológicos foi revisado recentemente por Hinton e colaboradores (2009) que apontaram duas principais vertentes: (1) Peixes como alvo em estudos ambientais utilizando biomarcadores de contaminação (2) Peixes como modelo para estudos mecanísticos em toxicologia e doenças humanas. A primeira vertente vem sendo abordada pela ecotoxicologia aquática para a análise de risco de substâncias tóxicas liberadas no ambiente (Hinton *et al.*, 2009 apud Zanette, 2009). A segunda vertente é mais recente, e utiliza peixes como um “modelo” para compreensão de mecanismos gerais de toxicidade no grupo dos vertebrados. A recente identificação dos genomas e transcriptomas de alguns destes peixes possibilitou um grande avanço nos estudos toxicológicos com estes organismos. Estes e outros aspectos na utilização de peixes como modelos em estudos toxicológicos são bem descritos em peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio*), killifish (*Fundulus heteroclitus*), medaka (*Oryzias latipes*) e truta arco-íris (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) (Hinton *et al.*, 2009 apud Zanette, 2009).

O peixe-zebra (*Danio rerio* Hamilton, 1822) tornou-se um dos mais importantes organismos modelo em vários campos de pesquisa, incluindo a genética, neurociência, desenvolvimento, fisiologia, toxicologia e biomedicina, onde é frequentemente usado para estudo de doenças humanas (López-Olmeda e Sánchez-Vázquez, 2011). *D. rerio* (figura II) é um peixe de porte pequeno, tropical, de água doce, e usado extensivamente na pesquisa científica, especialmente em biologia do desenvolvimento e medicina (Hsu *et al.*, 2007). Uma série de atributos contribui para o uso desta espécie em pesquisas científicas, dentre eles, rápido desenvolvimento, transparência ótica durante o desenvolvimento inicial, certa similaridade genética com seres humanos, além de poderem ser mantidos em laboratório com facilidade e baixo custo (Lawrence, 2007). Assim como a maioria dos organismos usados em estudos biomédico, o peixe-zebra foi

escolhido por seus traços particulares que o tornam conveniente para estudos em laboratório. Apesar da riqueza de informações sobre desenvolvimento e genética e do arsenal de recursos e técnicas para o estudo de peixe-zebra, esta espécie permanece sub-explorada para a pesquisa nas áreas de ecologia, evolução e comportamento (Engeszer *et al.*, 2007).



Figura II. Zebrafish adulto do tipo selvagem. Créditos <http://zfatlas.psu.edu/>, NIH grant 5R24 RR01744, Jake Gittlen Cancer Research Foundation, and PA Tobacco Settlement Fund.

O peixe-zebra tem muito a oferecer como um instrumento para delinear diferenças entre espécies em relação a toxicidade. Entre o quadro de genes identificados como sendo parte de um mecanismo de ação contra agentes tóxicos, pode-se esperar que estes genes desempenhem as mesmas funções ou funções semelhantes em outros organismos e outras espécies de peixes (Carvan III *et al.*, 2005).

O recente advento da biologia molecular permitiu a identificação de genomas em vários organismos, incluindo o peixe-zebra, permitindo explorar uma série de técnicas moleculares para uma melhor caracterização das respostas biológicas destes peixes. Por exemplo, aproximadamente dezesseis isoformas de *GST* podem ser encontradas a partir do genoma/transcriptoma de peixe-zebra, possibilitando o uso de técnicas como a avaliação transcracional por PCR em tempo real utilizando iniciadores específicos. Desta forma, é possível avaliar a regulação ao nível transcracional de ativação/repressão das isoformas de *GSTs* individualmente, frente a exposição à contaminantes ambientais. Outro avanço importante proporcionado pela identificação destas sequências de *GST* é a possibilidade da utilização de técnicas de expressão recombinante ou a tradução artificial (*in vitro*) das proteínas *GSTs* traduzidas a partir destes transcritos, com base nas sequências nucleotídicas obtidas, para produção, purificação e caracterização catalítica.

3.3. AS GLUTATIONA S-TRANSFERASES

Os peixes obtiveram ao longo do processo evolutivo, estratégias bioquímicas para se defenderem dos efeitos tóxicos das eventuais florações de cianobactérias produtoras de microcistinas. Um destes mecanismos de defesa envolve a ativação de enzimas de biotransformação, dentre as quais, estão as isoformas de glutationa *S*-transferases (*GSTs*) (Pflugmacher *et al.*, 1998). A conjugação de um xenobiótico pela GSH é catalisada pela GST, sendo ilustrada na figura III (Towsend e Tew, 2003) e representa uma via crucial na defesa e detoxificação de cianotoxinas, atuando tanto na inativação química quanto na atenuação dos efeitos induzidos pela geração de espécies reativas de oxigênio (ERO) decorrente da exposição a este composto (Ding e Ong, 2003). O trabalho de Metcalf *et al.* (2000) claramente mostra que a potência inibitória das microcistinas na atividade das fosfatases PP1A, um dos mecanismos de toxicidade mais bem conhecidos frente à exposição a MC-LR, foi muito diminuída quando a microcistina tinha sido conjugada à GSH. Portanto, tal resultado indica que a reação de conjugação da toxina com este tripeptídeo, catalisada pela *GST*, é de fato uma reação de detoxificação importante para o organismo.

As glutationa *S*-transferases são uma família multigênica de enzimas de detoxificação que catalizam a conjugação do tripeptídeo glutationa reduzida (GSH) com uma ampla variedade de moléculas eletrofílicas. As *GSTs* são amplamente distribuídas na natureza, sendo encontradas em todos os organismos eucariotos e em muitos procariotos (Suzuki *et al.*, 2005). Uma ampla variedade de substratos são metabolizados pelas *GSTs*. Compostos xenobióticos eletrofílicos notavelmente tóxicos que são conjugados por estas enzimas, e que são de interesse para o campo da toxicologia, incluem carcinógenos e seus metabólitos, como aflatoxina B1, benzo(a)pireno, 7,12-dimetilbenzoantraceno, 5-metilcriseno, pesticidas (ex.: atrazina, DDT, lindano e metilparation) e cianotoxinas. Algumas *GSTs* também possuem importantes funções endógenas, pois catalizam reações biossintéticas dos leucotrienos e prostaglandinas (as isoformas microssomais), ou atuam como peroxidases orgânicas e isomerases de esteróides (DiGiulio e Hinton, 2008). As *GSTs* geralmente se encontram no meio biológico como homo ou heterodímeros (outros complexos também podem existir), apresentando dois sítios ativos por dímero cujas atividades são independentes uma da outra. Cada sítio ativo consiste no mínimo de duas regiões de ligação, um para a

glutationa (GSH) que é muito específico para este tripeptídeo, e outro sítio de ligação com menor especificidade para os eletrófilos (Huber e Almeida, 2008).

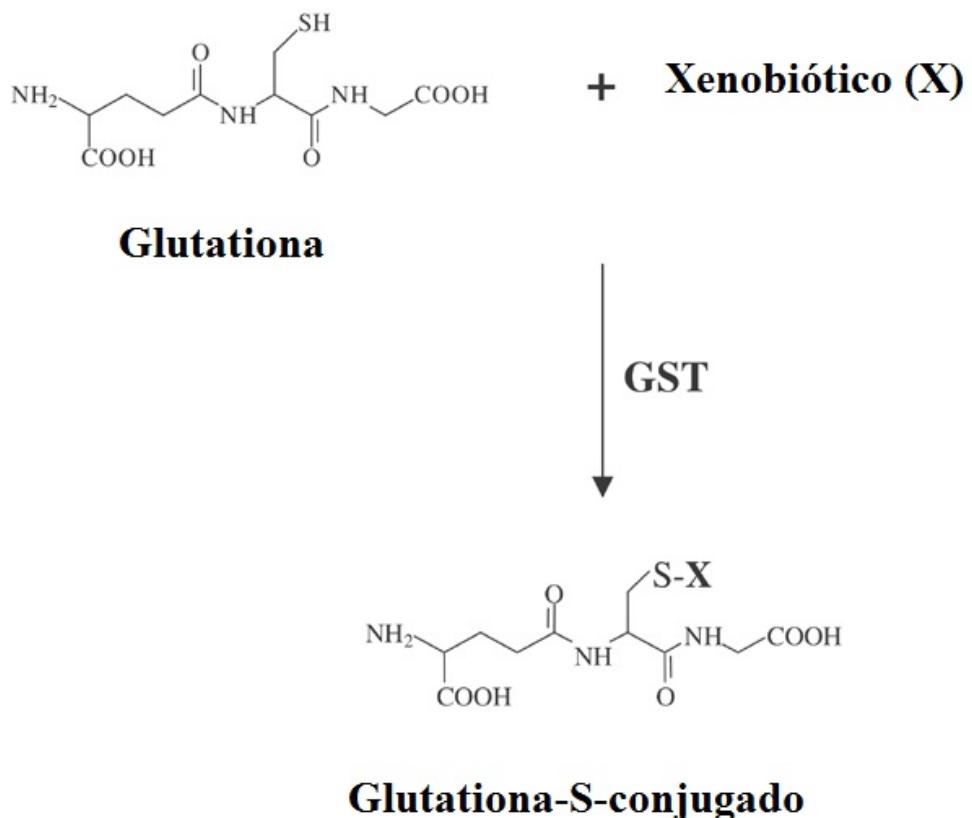


Figura III. Conjugação de glutationa com um xenobiótico genérico (X), catalisada pela GST, resultando na formação do conjugado GS-X (Towsend e Tew, 2003).

Em seres humanos, as isoformas de *GST* podem ser divididas nas classes: alfa, mu, PI, teta, sigma, zeta, Omega, kapa e quatro subgrupos de enzimas MAPEG (proteínas de membrana associadas ao metabolismo de eicosanóide e glutationa, também chamadas de isoformas microssomais) de acordo com sua homologia e propriedades (Suzuki *et al.*, 2005). Isoformas de GST pertencentes à mesma classe apresentam identidade igual ou superior a 40-60% em suas sequências de aminoácidos (Yang *et al.*, 2004). Apesar de mais de uma isoforma ter sido identificada na maioria das classes de *GST* de *Homo sapiens*, em peixe-zebra o estudo das classes de *GST* tem sido abordado de forma incompleta até o momento, uma vez que apenas uma isoforma para cada classe foi considerada por muitos estudos (Lee *et al.*, 2006). Informações sobre as isoformas de *GST* são limitadas em peixes, mas ao menos uma isoforma das

classes alfa, mu, pi e teta, já foram identificadas em muitas espécies e uma isoforma especial denominada *gst1*, que não têm isoformas homólogas em mamíferos, vêm sendo identificada somente em peixes (Fu e Xie, 2006). A tolerância de diferentes espécies de peixe para a exposição a MC é variável, e o trabalho realizado por Liang *et al.* (2007) sugerem que estas diferenças estão relacionadas a distintas capacidades de biotransformação e indução de isoformas de *GST*, principalmente as isoformas das famílias rho e alfa.

As várias classes de *GST* podem ser agrupadas em três grandes famílias: *GSTS* citosólicas, mitocondriais e microsomais, sendo que as citosólicas representam a maior família. Todas estas três famílias contém membros que catalizam a conjugação de GSH com 1-cloro-2,4-dinitrobenzeno (CDNB) e exibem atividade glutationa peroxidásica para o cumeno hidroperóxido (CuOOH), e portanto, estes substratos são comumente utilizados para realização de ensaios catalíticos com estas enzimas (Hayes *et al.*, 2005).

A maioria das isoenzimas de *GST* citosólicas são encontradas no citoplasma da célula. Além de catalisar a conjugação, redução e reações de isomerização, as *GST* citosólicas, também se ligam covalentemente e não covalentemente, ligando substratos não hidrofóbicos. Este tipo de atividade contribui para o transporte intracelular, disposição e seqüestro de xenobióticos e hormônios. As *GST* citosólicas são uma parte integrante de um mecanismo de defesa dinâmico e interativo, que protege contra os produtos químicos citotóxicos eletrófilos e permite a defesa para uma possível situação de estresse oxidativo. Investigações têm mostrado que membros da família MAPEG têm contribuído na resposta inflamatória, embora alguns membros também estejam envolvidos nas defesas antioxidantes. Estes membros da superfamília de *GST* constituem um grupo onde a maior parte das proteínas está envolvida na produção de eicosanóides. As *GST* mitocondriais não estão presentes no citoplasma, mas já foram também localizados em peroxissomos (Hayes *et al.*, 2005).

O estudo da superfamília de enzimas *GST* também se deve ao fato delas fornecerem um vasto campo de aplicações de interesse para os campos da biotecnologia, farmacologia e ecotoxicologia. Isto porque, as *GSTs* biotransformam agentes quimioterápicos do tratamento do câncer, inseticidas, herbicidas, carcinógenos e moléculas reativas geradas pelo estresse oxidativo. Por exemplo, níveis elevados de *GST* vêm sendo associado à tolerância de insetos para inseticidas, portanto, seu estudo

tem servido como ferramenta na escolha de estratégias adequadas para o tratamento de labouras (Deng *et al.*, 2009).

A caracterização das *GSTs* é de interesse também para estudos farmacológicos, por fornecer alvo para terapias anti-asmática e anti-tumoral. A indução de *GST* em células tumorais de mamíferos tem sido implicada na resistência para vários agentes anti-câncer e carcinógenos químicos. Do ponto de vista ecotoxicológico, em micróbios, plantas, peixes, e mamíferos, a análise de *GSTs* ao nível de transcrição gênica, induzida/reprimida pela exposição a contaminantes, podem servir como biomarcadores de contaminação aquática (Suzuki *et al.*, 2005).

Em resumo, as *GSTs* representam uma resposta celular conservada evolutivamente para a defesa contra moléculas exógenas e para o estresse oxidativo. Assim como sua caracterização fornece importante alvos para terapias, na área da medicina e tecnologia de agrotóxicos, seu estudo também pode fornecer informações importantes no desenvolvimento de estratégias para biorremediação de contaminantes ambientais como as microcistinas, e avaliação dos impactos causados pelas mesmas em peixes para o monitoramento dos ecossistemas aquáticos.

Os mecanismos moleculares que resultam na indução/repressão de isoformas de *GST* ao nível de transcrição gênica são conhecidos apenas em parte. Por exemplo, sabe-se que em situações de estresse oxidativo, a indução transcrional da *GST*, pode ocorrer via ativação da rota de sinalização celular Keap1-Nrf2-ARE (Nguyen *et al.*, 2003). O Nrf-2 é um fator de transcrição da família “zipper de leucina” e interage com o elemento de resposta antioxidante (ARE), presente na região promotora de genes que codificam enzimas envolvidas na defesa contra o estresse oxidativo. Nrf-2 efetua sua migração ao núcleo quando dissociado da proteína Keap1 (Kwak *et al.*, 2004). Acredita-se que a exposição às microcistinas pode ocasionar um efeito potencializador deste processo de dissociação de Nrf-2, aumentando a transcrição de enzimas de detoxificação como as *GSTs*. Em humanos e camundongos, foi demonstrado que isoformas *gstp*, *gstm* e *gsta* possuem regiões ARE funcionais. Outras isoformas possuem regiões similares a ARE, denominadas EpRE (elemento responsivo para eletrófilo) e GPEI (elemento indutor de *gstp*) (Hayes, 2005).

A dissociação de Nrf-2 de Keap-1 é aparentemente regulada pela fosforilação da proteína quinase C de resíduos específicos em Nrf-2 e por interações diretas entre eletrófilos e os grupos sulfidrila em Keap-1. A atividade de transcrição de Nrf-2 parece

também ser influenciada por uma série de outros coativadores que presumivelmente se ligam a fatores de transcrição específicos do EpRE (elemento de resposta a eletrófilos) e melhoraram a transcrição dos genes de resposta ao estresse oxidativo, permitindo a remodelação da cromatina (Carvan III *et al.*, 2005).

Em peixe-zebra, Suzuki e colaboradores (2005) demonstraram que as duas isoformas de *gstp* existentes, possuem regiões (ARE) no promotor de seus genes, e que a transcrição desses genes é dependente da presença do fator Nrf-2. Apesar disso, é possível que diferenças na presença de outros elementos de resposta nas regiões promotoras destes dois genes, sejam responsáveis por causar distintos padrões de indução/repressão da transcrição destas isoformas de *GST*, frente à exposição a toxinas variadas. Ao nível proteíco, as *gstp* de peixe-zebra apresentam diferenças nas suas sequências traduzidas de aminoácido (87% de identidade), portanto, diferenças na capacidade de conjugar substratos devem existir entre as isoformas. De fato, cada uma das duas isoformas de *gstp* possui dois sítios de ligação importantes, um sítio de ligação a GSH altamente conservado (sítio G) e o sítio de ligação ao substrato eletrófilo (sítio H) que pode apresentar variações. Estudos estruturais das proteínas *gstp1* e *gstp2* mostram que substituições sutis de aminoácidos no sítio-H são responsáveis por variações nas preferências por substratos destas isoformas (Suzuki *et al.*, 2005). Apesar das diferenças recentemente conhecidas para essas duas isoformas, muitos estudos em peixes tem se referido, equivocadamente a *gstp*, como sendo um único gene/proteína (ex.: Yu *et al.*, 2008; Yanagi *et al.*, 2004). Da mesma forma, outros estudos têm ignorado a existência de mais de uma isoformas dentro de outras classes de *GST* (Lee *et al.*, 2006). Em peixe-zebra, constatamos, por exemplo, três isoformas de *GST* da classe mu e três isoformas da classe teta. É muito provável que, assim como é observado para as isoformas de *gstp* (Suzuki *et al.*, 2005), diferenças na regulação transcrecional e especificidades catalíticas para substratos, devem existir para as isoformas de *GSTs* conhecidas em peixe-zebra. Apesar disso, tal caracterização detalhada destas isoformas ainda permanece para ser melhor investigada. O presente trabalho visou contribuir para uma melhor caracterização ao nível transcrecional das diferentes isoformas citosólicas, microssomais e mitocondriais de *GSTs* de peixe-zebra.

Tanto em mamíferos como em peixes, trabalho realizado demonstra que as isoformas de *GST* possuem especificidades variadas para substratos distintos e além disso, a capacidade de biotransformar compostos (ex.: microcistina) via *GST*, varia de

espécie para espécie de peixe, e é órgão-específica (Setlikova e Wiegand, 2009). Sendo assim, por várias décadas o estudo das *GSTs* em peixes se limitou, quase que totalmente, a ensaios catalíticos em extratos de tecidos utilizando substratos gerais desta enzima, como por exemplo, para CDBN, ETHA (ácido etacrínico) e HNE (4-hidroxinonenal). Tais estudos não eram capazes de diferenciar quais das inúmeras isoformas estavam sendo avaliadas, uma vez que os substratos citados são de amplo espectro, ou seja, não diferenciam as isoformas de *GST* (DiGiulio e Hinton, 2008). Portanto, existe uma dificuldade histórica em conseguir-se avaliar a capacidade de isoformas específicas de *GST* em serem induzidas/reprimidas e de conjugar diferentes tipos de substratos.

O presente estudo aborda técnicas de avaliação transcrional por PCR em tempo real para avaliação da distribuição órgão-específica/abundância e ativação/repressão de isoformas de *GST* pela exposição à microcistina MC-LR. Com os resultados obtidos, pretende-se inferir quais *GSTs* seriam potencialmente envolvidas na detoxificação de MC-LR em peixe-zebra. Esta abordagem é possível devido a recente identificação do genoma e transcriptomas desta espécie modelo, o que permitiu a utilização de sequências disponíveis no *Genbank* (ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). Tal estudo poderá servir como ponto de partida para que, em uma etapa futura, isoformas importantes na detoxificação de MC-LR também sejam identificadas em outros organismos. Os resultados também poderão fornecer conhecimentos básicos para diversas aplicações, como por exemplo, no desenvolvimento de técnicas de biorremediação que requerem a identificação e caracterização de isoformas específicas de proteínas envolvidas nas reações de biotransformação de microcistina.

4. REFERÊNCIAS

- Amado, L.L., Garcia, M.L., Pereira, T.C.B., Yunes, J.S., Bogo, M.R., Monserrat, J.M., 2011a. Chemoprotection of lipoic acid against microcystin-induced toxicosis in common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*, Cyprinidae). *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.* 145C, 146-153.
- Amado, L. L., Garcia, M.L., Ramos, P. B., Yunes, J.S., Monserrat, J.M., 2011b. Influence of a Toxic *Microcystis aeruginosa* Strain on Glutathione Synthesis and Glutathione-S-Transferase Activity in Common Carp *Cyprinus carpio* (Teleostei: Cyprinidae). *Arch Environ Contam Toxicol.* 60:319–326.
- Amado, L.L., Monserrat, J.M., 2010. Oxidative stress generation by microcystins in aquatic animals: Why and how. *Environ. Int.* 36, 226-235.
- Baganz, D., Staaks, G., Steinberg, C. 1998. Research note impact of the cyanobacteria toxin , microcystin-LR on behaviour of zebrafish , *Danio rerio*. *Science*, 32, 948-952.
- Azevedo, S.M.F.O., Carmichael, W. W., Jochimsen, E. M., Rinehart, K. L., Lau, S., Sha, G. R., Eaglesham, G.K. 2002. Toxinas de Cianobactérias: Causas e consequências para a saúde pública. Med on line, São Paulo. 1 (3), 1-22.
- Ballot, A., Krienitz, L., Kotut, K., Wiegand, C., Pflugmacher, S., 2005. Cyanobacteria and cyanobacterial toxins in the alkaline crater lakes Sonachi and Simbi, Kenya. *Harmful Algae*. 4, 139-150.
- Bláha, L., Babica, P., Maršíálek, B., 2009, Toxins produced in cyanobacterial water blooms - toxicity and risks. *Interdiscipl. Toxicol.* 2, 36-41.
- Carvan, M.J. III, Heiden, T. K.,Tomasiewicz, H., 2005, The utility of zebrafish as a model for toxicological research. *Biochem. Mol. Biol. Fish.* 6, 3-41.
- Chorus, I., Bartram, J., 1999, Toxic Cyanobacteria in Water – A Guide to their Public Health Consequences, Monitoring and Management. First ed. E & FN Spon: London and New York.
- Deng, H., Huang, Y., Feng, Q., Zheng, S., 2009. Two epsilon glutathione S-transferase cDNAs from the common cutworm, *Spodoptera litura*: Characterization and developmental and induced expression by insecticides. *J. Insect Physiol.* 55, 1174-1183.

- Di Giulio, R.T., Hinton, D.E., 2008. The toxicology of fishes. First ed. CRC Press, Boca Raton, USA.
- Ding, W.X., Shen, H.M., Ong, C.N., 2000. Microcystic cyanobacteria extract induces cytoskeletal disruption and intracellular glutathione alteration in hepatocytes. Environ. Health Perspec. 108, 605-609.
- Ding, W.X., Nam Ong, C., 2003. Role of oxidative stress and mitochondrial changes in cyanobacteria-induced apoptosis and hepatotoxicity. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 220, 1-7.
- Engeszer, R. E., Patterson, L. B., Rao, A. A., Parichy, D. M., 2007. Zebrafish in the wild: a review of natural history and new notes from the field. Zebrafish. 4, 21-40.
- Fu, J., Xie, P., 2006. The acute effects of microcystin LR on the transcription of nine glutathione S-transferase genes in common carp *Cyprinus carpio* L. Aquat. Toxicol. 80, 261-266.
- Hayes, J.D., Flanagan, J.U., Jowsey, I.R., 2005. Glutathione transferases. Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 45, 51-88.
- Hinton, D.E., Hardman, R.C., Kullman, S.W., Law, J.M., Schmale, M.C., Walter, R.B., Winn, R.N., Yoder, J.A., 2009. Aquatic animal models of human disease: Selected papers and recommendations from the 4th Conference. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 149C, 121-128.
- Hoeger, S.J., Shaw, G., Hitzfeld, C., Dietrich D.R., 2005. Occurrence and elimination of cyanobacterial toxins in two Australian drinking water treatment plants. Toxicon, 43, 639-649.
- Hsu, C.H., Wen, Z.H., Lin, C.S., Chakraborty, C., 2007, The zebrafish model: Use in studying cellular mechanisms for a spectrum of clinical disease entities. Curr. Neurovasc. Res. 4, 111–20.
- Huber, P.C., Almeida W.P., 2008, Glutationa e enzimas relacionadas: Papel biológico e importância em processos patológicos. Quim. Nova. 31 (5), 1170-1179.
- Kwak, M.K., Wakabayashi, N., Kensler, T.W., 2004. Chemoprevention through the Keap1-Nrf2 signaling pathway by phase 2 enzyme inducers. Mutat. Res. 555, 133-148.
- Kotak, B.G., Zurawell, R.W., 2007. Cyanobacterial toxins in Canadian freshwaters: A review. Lake and Reservoir Manage. 23, 109-122.

- Lawrence, C., 2007. The husbandry of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*): A review. Aquaculture. 269, 1-20.
- Lee, Y.M., Seo, J.S., Jung, S.O., Kim, I.C., Lee, J.S., 2006. Molecular cloning and characterization of theta-class glutathione S-transferase (GST-T) from the hermaphroditic fish *Rivulus marmoratus* and biochemical comparisons with alpha-class glutathione S-transferase (GST-A). Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 346, 1053-1061.
- Liang, X.F., Li, G.G., He, S., Huang, Y., 2007. Transcriptional responses of alpha- and rho-class glutathione S-transferase genes in the liver of three freshwater fishes intraperitoneally injected with microcystin-LR: relationship of inducible expression and tolerance. J. Biochem. Mol. Toxicol. 21, 289-298.
- López-Olmeda, J.F., Sánchez-Vázquez, F.J., 2011. Thermal biology of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). J. Therm. Biol. 36, 91–104.
- Minillo, A., Ferreira, A.H., Yunes, J.S., 2000. Detecção de microcistinas em florações de *Microcystis aeruginosa* no estuário da lagoa dos Patos, RS, entre 1997 e 1998. Atlântica 22, 81-93.
- Metcalf, J.S., Beattie, K.A., Pflugmacher, S., Codd, G.A., 2000. Immuno-crossreactivity and toxicity assessment of conjugation products of the cyanobacterial toxin, microcystin-LR. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 189, 155-158.
- Nguyen, T., Sherratt, P.J., Pickett, C.B., 2003. Regulatory mechanisms controlling gene expression mediated by the antioxidant response element. Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 43, 233-260.
- Paerl, H.W., Huisman, J., 2009. Climate change: A catalyst for global expansion of harmful cyanobacterial blooms. Environ. Microbiol. Rep. 1, 27–37.
- Pflugmacher, S., Wiegand, C., Oberemm, A., Beattie, K.A., Krause, E., Codd, G.A., Steinberg, C.E.W., 1998. Identification of an enzymatically formed glutathione conjugate of the cyanobacterial hepatotoxin microcystin-LR: The first step of detoxication. Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Gen. Subj. 1425, 527-533.
- Pflugmacher, S., Wiegand, C., Beattie, K.A., Krause, E., Steinberg, C.E., Codd, G.A., 2001. Uptake, effects, and metabolism of cyanobacterial toxins in the emergent reed plant *Phragmites australis* (cav.) trin. ex steud. Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 20, 846-852.

- Setlikova, I., Wiegand, C., 2009. Hepatic and branchial glutathione S-transferases of two fish species: substrate specificity and biotransformation of microcystin-LR. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 149C, 515-523.
- Suzuki, T., Takagi, Y., Osanai, H., Li, L., Takeuchi, M., Katoh, Y., Kobayashi, M., Yamamoto, M., 2005. Pi class glutathione S-transferase genes are regulated by Nrf 2 through an evolutionarily conserved regulatory element in zebrafish. Biochem. J. 388, 65-73.
- Townsend, D. M.; Tew, K. D., 2003. The role of glutathione S-transferase in anti-cancer drug resistance. Oncogene. 22,7369-7375.
- Wiegand, C., Pflugmacher, S., 2005. Ecotoxicological effects of selected cyanobacterial secondary metabolites: A short review. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol. 203, 201-218.
- Yang, H.L., Zeng, Q.Y., Li, E.Q., Zhu, S.G., & Zhou, X.W. 2004. Molecular cloning, expression and characterization of glutathione S-transferase from *Mytilus edulis*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 139B, 175-82.
- Yanagi, S., Kudo, H., Doi, Y., Yamauchi, K., Ueda, H., 2004. Immunohistochemical demonstration of salmon olfactory glutathione S-transferase class pi (N24) in the olfactory system of lacustrine sockeye salmon during ontogenesis and cell proliferation. Anat. Emb. 208, 231-238.
- Yu, I.T., Rhee, J.S., Raisuddin, S., Lee, J.S., 2008. Characterization of the glutathione S-transferase-Mu (GSTM) gene sequence and its expression in the hermaphroditic fish, *Kryptolebias marmoratus* as a function of development, gender type and chemical exposure. Chem.-Biol. Interact. 174, 118-125.
- Yunes, J. S., 2009, Florações de *Microcystis* na lagoa dos patos e o seu estuário : 20 anos de estudos. Oecol. Bras. 13 (2), 313-318.
- Zanette, J., 2009. Identificação e caracterização de marcadores moleculares para estudos ecotoxicológicos em moluscos bivalves e peixes. (Tese de Doutorado em Biotecnologia – Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, Florianópolis, 2009.). 172 p.
- Zegura, B., Lah, T.T., Filipic, M., 2004. The role of reactive oxygen species in microcystin-LR-induced DNA damage. Toxicology. 200, 59-68.

5. OBJETIVOS

5.1. Objetivo Geral

- Caracterizar ao nível transcracional as isoformas de *GST* de peixe-zebra e avaliar sua possível alteração pela exposição à microcistina-LR.

5.2. Objetivos Específicos

- Avaliar a estabilidade de oito genes normalizadores para comparação transcracional órgão-específica, abundância e para exposição à MC-LR em brânquia e fígado;
- Avaliar a distribuição órgão-específica e abundância de quinze isoformas de *GST* ao nível transcracional;
- Identificar quais isoformas de *GST* são induzidas/reprimidas em brânquia e fígado de peixe-zebra pela exposição às concentrações $5 \text{ }\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ e $50 \text{ }\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ de MC-LR;

Glutathione S-transferase transcriptional levels in zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) and effects caused by microcystin-LR

Mauricio da Silva Sopezki ^a, Fernando Silva Guimarães ^a, José Maria Monserrat ^a, Juliano Zanette ^a.

^a Universidade Federal do Rio Grande - FURG, Instituto de Ciências Biológicas, Campus Carreiros, Av. Itália km 8 s/n, Rio Grande, RS 96203-900, Brazil

Abstract

The study of glutathione S-transferase (GST) isoforms is required for understanding the biotransformation of numerous environmental contaminants, such as the microcystin-LR (MC-LR) produced by cyanobacterial blooms. The organ-specific distribution and abundance of fifteen *GST* transcripts in zebrafish *Danio rerio* using RT-qPCR and the possible induction or repression in liver and gills after 24-hrs waterborne exposure to 5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ MC-LR were evaluated in the present study. The transcriptional levels for *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* and *gstt2* in important detoxification organs such liver, gill and intestine indicates a possible contribution of those isoforms in the biotransformation of contaminants. Significant levels of *gstal* and *gstk1.1* in liver; *gstp1* and *gstp2* in gill; *mgst3a*, *gstr1*, *gstm2*, *gstm3*, *gstp1*, *gstp2* and *gstk1.1* in intestine; *gstm2*, *gstm3* and *gstal* in eye; and *gstt1a* and *gsta2.1* in brain, suggest an important function of the corresponding proteins in these organs. The exposure to 5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ of MC-LR caused repression of *gsta2.1*, *gstp2* and *gstt2* (52 and 90; 76 and 71; 47 and 22 fold, respectively) in liver. The *gsta2.1* in gill and *gstt1b* in liver were down-regulated only in the lower concentration of 5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$, and *mgst1.1* in gill, and *gstt1a* in liver were down-regulated only in the highest concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$, compared with the control group. The *gstal*, *gstr1*, *gstp1*, *mgst3a*, *gstm1*, *gstm2* and *gstm3* isoforms were not altered by exposure to MC-LR. It is concluded that different isoforms have distinct abundance and organ-specific distribution, even within a certain *GST* class, and various *GST* isoforms are down-regulated at the transcriptional level by MC-LR.

Keywords: *GST*, microcystin-LR, *Danio rerio*, housekeeping genes, fish, pollution.

Introduction

Numerous episodes of harmful toxic cyanobacterial blooms have been reported in Brazil and worldwide (Minillo et al., 2000; Ballot et al., 2005; Kotak and Zurawell, 2007; Amado and Monserrat, 2010; Amado et al., 2011). Several groups of cyanobacteria produce microcystin (MC) isoforms (Amado et al., 2011) and the microcystin-LR isoform (MC-LR) is one of the most common and well-studied (Kotak and Zurawell, 2007). The MCs are cyclic heptapeptides produced as secondary metabolites by cyanobacteria (Ding et al., 2000). The main known mechanisms of toxicity of MC-LR involve increased protein phosphorylation by inactivating phosphatase protein PP1 and PP2A (Zegura et al., 2004) and the generation of oxidative stress and carcinogenesis (Ding and Ong, 2003).

The biochemical defense mechanisms in organisms that are exposed to MC-LR involve the conjugation of the toxin with reduced glutathione (GSH) by glutathione *S*-transferases (GSTs) phase-II biotransformation enzymes (Pflugmacher et al., 1998). The GSTs act in the biotransformation of MCs that led to elimination of that compound from the cells and attenuating the effects of reactive oxygen species (ROS) resulting from the exposure to these compounds (Ding and Ong, 2003). The inhibitory potency of microcystins in PP1A phosphatase activity was greatly diminished when the MC is conjugated to GSH (Metcalf et al., 2000).

The GSTs are part of a superfamily of multigene detoxification enzymes that catalyze the conjugation of reduced glutathione (GSH) on a wide variety of substrates. The GSTs are widely distributed in organisms, being found in all eukaryotes and in many prokaryotes (Suzuki et al., 2005). In humans, the GST family is fully characterized and grouped into the classes Alpha, Mu, Pi, Theta, Sigma, Zeta, Omega, Kappa and four subgroups of MAPEG enzymes (membrane proteins associated with the metabolism of eicosanoids and glutathione) according to their properties and homology (Suzuki et al., 2005). Although most of those classes, such the alpha, mu, pi and theta, have been identified in many species of fish as well in the zebrafish genome, fish possess a particular class called rho, that do not have counterparts in mammals (Fu and Xie,

2006). The major *GSTs* isoforms involved in detoxification of MCs in zebrafish and other fish species, still remain to be identified.

The zebrafish *Danio rerio* became one of the most important model organisms in various research fields, including genetics, neuroscience, development, physiology, toxicology and biomedicine, and is often used to study human diseases (López-Olmeda and Sánchez-Vázquez, 2011). A number of attributes contributes to the use of this species in scientific research, including, rapid development, optical transparency during early development, some genetic similarity with humans, and can be kept in the laboratory with ease and low cost (Lawrence, 2007).

The main objectives of this study were to evaluate the distribution of organ-specific *GST* isoforms at the transcriptional level, look at the relative abundance of each isoform in specific organs and identify which *GST* isoforms are induced or repressed at the level of gene transcription by exposure to MC-LR.

Methods

Laboratory animal care and experimental treatment

Adult Zebrafish (*D. rerio*) were commercially obtained, transported to the Aquatic Animal Facility of the Institute of Biological Sciences (ICB) of the Federal University of Rio Grande - FURG and acclimated for two weeks in a 100 liter aquarium with constant aeration at 28 °C, cycle 12:12 hours dark:light and fed with commercial Tetracolor™ Tropical Granules (Tetra) twice daily. A purified MC-LR (Cayman Chemical, purity ≥ 95%, 1 mg.mL⁻¹ ethanol) was diluted in water to produce two-liter working solutions with 5 µg.L⁻¹ and 50 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR, respectively. The solutions were mixed for 30 minutes and then distributed in aliquots of 200 mL in beakers (10 beakers per exposure group). Another ten beakers with 200 mL of water were kept as control group. Individual fish were transferred to the thirty beakers and exposed to concentrations of 0 µg.L⁻¹, 5 µg.L⁻¹ and 50 µg.L⁻¹ of MC-LR over a period of 24 hours (n= 10 fish per exposure group). The MC nominal concentrations used in the exposure experiment are equivalent to concentrations measured in the environment (Matthiessen et al., 1999) and were shown before to cause biological effects without causing lethality in zebrafish (Baganz et al., 1998). For example, Yunes et al., (1996) recorded 200 µg.L⁻¹

¹ of MC in a *Microcystis aeruginosa* algal blooms found in the Patos Lagoon, Rio Grande (Brazil). A group that was not exposed to MC-LR was also kept under the same experimental conditions, totaling three experimental groups: control, exposed to 5 µg.L⁻¹ and 50 µg.L⁻¹ MC-LR. The experimental procedures were approved by the FURG Ethics Committee (CEUA-FURG, n° 23116.003245/2011-58, CEUA n° P010/2011). The organs liver, gill, intestine, kidney, brain and eye were dissected; and preserved in RNAlater® (Ambion) for 24 hours at room temperature and then stored in -80 °C.

Dosage of MC-LR in the water

The MC-LR concentration in the water was analyzed using a specific immunoassay QuantiPlate™ Kit for Microcystins (EnviroLogix, Portland, ME, USA) in the end of the exposure period. The method consisted in the addition of 125 µL of a diluent solution into each well and adding 20 µL of sample. The contents were mixed and the wells were covered with parafilm and incubated for 30 minutes in an orbital shaker at room temperature. Thus, there were added 100 µL of microcystin conjugate to each well and again the contents mixed and incubated for 30 minutes. After incubation, the contents of the wells were discarded and the wells were washed 4 times with wash solution and excess solution was removed. Was added 100 µL of substrate and the plate was covered with parafilm, incubated and stirred for a further 30 minutes. Soon after, were added 100 µL of final solution and the plate was read on a microplate spectrophotometer reader at 405 nm (Biotek Lx 800).

Phylogenetic analysis of *D. rerio* GSTs

A preliminary search for *D. rerio* GST nucleotide sequences was performed in the references sequence database (RefSeqs) available in the GenBank (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) and allowed the collection of nineteen *D. rerio* and twelve human GST sequences (Genbank accession numbers are in the supplementary material table 1). The deduced amino acid sequences from the GST coding sequences were aligned using CLUSTAL W Multiple Alignment and PROTDIST program was used to compute distance matrix from protein sequences. PROTDIST uses protein sequences to compute a distance matrix, under three different models of amino acid replacement.

The distance for each pair estimates the total branch length between the two sequences, and can be used in the distance matrix program NEIGHBOR. Bioedit software was used in the alignments and to build the phylogenetic tree (Hall, 1999).

Quantification of *GST* transcripts

The organs intestine, brain, kidney and eye of *D. rerio* fish from the control group (n=6 per organ) and gill and liver from all three experimental groups (control, 5 µg.L⁻¹ MC-LR and 50 µg.L⁻¹ MC-LR, n=10 per organ) were homogenized for total RNA extraction using TRIzol reagent (InvitrogenTM). The quality of RNA was evaluated on agarose gel 1% to evaluate possible degradation and after confirmation of good quality has been treated with DNase (InvitrogenTM) to avoid contamination of RNA samples with genomic DNA. Total RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using the high capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems) and a mixture of oligo-dT and random primers.

The sequences for *gstal*, *gst2.1*, *gst2.2*, *gstr1*, *gstm1*, *gstm2*, *gstm3*, *gstp1*, *gstp2*, *gstt1a*, *gstt1b*, *gstt2*, *mgst1.1*, *mgst3a*, *gstk1.1* and the housekeeping genes *glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase* (*g6pdh*), *β-actin1*, *beta-2-microglobulin* (*b2m*), *alpha-tubulin 1* (*tuba*), *elongation factor-1alpha* (*ef-1α*), *TATA binding protein* (*tbp*), *18s Ribosomal RNA* (*18s*), and *translocator aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear 2* (*arnt2*) were selected for primer designing. The primers and accession numbers of the target and housekeeping genes sequences are shown in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively. The *GST* primers were designed based on alignments performed (supplementary material), avoiding conserved regions in different isoforms, possessing characteristics as % CG, Tm, and amplicon size suitable for use in qPCR. Primer3 software (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000) was used in the primer design. The primer tests for specificity and absence of dimers were done using FastPCR software (Kalendar et al., 2009) and the Primer Blast tool available in the Genbank (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). The qPCR efficiencies for the primer pairs were tested using 1x, 2x, 4x, 8x, 16x and 32x serial cDNA dilutions and the primers were accepted if efficiency were 1.8 - 2.2 (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008). The qPCR reactions were performed using GoTaq qPCR Master Mix kit (Promega) and the ABI PRISM 7300 system (Applied Biosystems). Each sample was analyzed in duplicate using the following protocol: 95 °C for 2 min

and 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 30 s. A melting curve analysis was performed on the PCR products after all runs to verify the amplification of a single product.

The "M" stability score for housekeeping genes were tested using Data AssistTM software (Applied Biosystems). Housekeeping genes belonging to different functional classes were selected, which according to Vandesompele et al. (2002) significantly reduce the chance of co-regulation. The cycle threshold (Ct) average for the three more stable housekeeping genes was used for target gene normalization, considering a given data set: *g6pdh*, *β-actin1*, *b2m* Ct average was used for normalization of organ-specific distribution and abundance of *GSTs* in control fish; *b2m*, *tuba* and *β-actin1* Ct average was used for normalization of *GSTs* in liver of fish exposed to MC-LR and control; and *tuba*, *b2m* and *g6pd* Ct average was used for normalization of *GSTs* in gill of fish exposed to MC-LR and control. The genes that showed the worst normalization factors were *ef-1α*, *tbp*, *arnt2* and *18s*, and then were not used in the qPCR calculations.

The E^{-Act} method (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008) was used to compare the transcriptional levels of the different *GST* in a given organ (relative abundance) and for comparing transcriptional levels in different organs of a given *GST* isoform (*GST* organ-specific distribution). The threshold used for Ct inference was fixed as 0.2 ΔRn (fluorescence normalized by internal ROX dye) for all runs in order to provide equivalent Ct values for relative abundance calculation. Permute Matrix software (Version 1.9.3) was used in the production of heat maps.

Statistics

Data was logarithmically transformed and tested for normality and homoscedasticity, accepting P > 0.05 (Cochran test). The differences in the transcriptional levels for *GST* organ-specific distribution and abundance was evaluated using variance analysis (ANOVA) with Tukey *post-hoc* test, setting the significance level as p ≤ 0.05, using STATISTICA software (version 7.0 for Windows), and data are presented as mean ± standard deviation using GraphPad Prism 5.0 software, Inc. The REST software (QIAGEN[®], 2009) was used to calculate changes in responses of MC-

LR treatment in respect to the control group in terms of fold induction (Pfaffl et al., 2002) setting the significance level as $p \leq 0.05$.

RESULTS

Phylogenetic sequence analyses

All zebrafish GSTs clustered together with the known human GST classes, such Zeta, Theta, Omega, MAPEG, Kappa, Alpha, Pi and Mu, with the exception of the Class Rho isoform *gstr1*.

Dosage of MC-LR in the water

The MC-LR concentration was measured in the water in the end of the 24 hours of exposure. The MC-LR concentrations were $1.8 \mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ in the beaker with $5 \mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ nominal concentration and $17.29 \mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ in the beaker with $50 \mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ nominal concentrations. There was no mortality of fish during the MC-LR exposure experiment.

Organ-specific distribution and relative abundance of GST isoforms

Distinct organ-specific distribution of *GST* isoforms was observed and was distinct between isoforms within a given class in some cases (Figure 2). The Alpha class has higher transcriptional levels in liver and eye for *gstal*, kidney and brain for *gsta2.1* and kidney and gut for *gsta2.2*. The Mu class showed similar distribution to *gstm1* and *gstm2* isoforms with high levels in eye, gut and gill, and *gstm3* was higher in gut, gill and liver. The Pi class *gstp1* and *gstp2* showed similar distribution with high levels of transcription in gill and gut. The *gstr1* was similarly expressed in all organs, except in the kidney that showed low levels. The Kappa class, represented by the mitochondrial isoform *gstk1.1* was higher in liver and gill, comparing to other organs. The Theta class *gstt1a* was higher in the brain and kidney, *gstt1b* is higher in the brain and eye and *gstt2* was higher in the kidney. The microsomal family showed higher transcriptional levels for *mgst1.1* and *mgst3a* in gut, liver and gill, comparing to other organs.

Comparing the abundance of different *GST* transcripts in a given organ, the transcripts *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* and *gstt2* were in general the most abundant in the main detoxification organs such as liver, gills and intestine. Those transcripts were also very abundant in the eye. The most abundant *GSTs* in the kidney were the *gstt1a* and *gsta2.2*. In the brain, the *GSTs* from the Theta and Kappa classes were the most abundant. The less abundant isoform was *gstp2* compared with the abundance of other isoforms in a particular organ.

Response of zebrafish *GST* transcripts after MC-LR exposure

Three *GST* isoforms in gill (*gsta2.1*, *gstt1b* and *mgst1.1*) and five *GST* isoforms in liver (*gsta2.1*, *gstp2*, *gstt2* and *gstt1a* and *gstk1.1*) were repressed in *D. rerio* after 24-hours exposure to MC-LR, compared to the control group. The *gsta2.1* was repressed 10-fold in gill of *D. rerio* exposed to 5 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ and 52- and 90-fold in the liver of *D. rerio* exposed to 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ MC-LR, respectively. The *mgst1.1* was repressed 10-fold in gill after exposure to 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ MC-LR. The isoform *gstp2* was strongly repressed in liver of fish exposed to 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ MC-LR (76- and 71-fold, respectively). The *gstt2* was strongly repressed in liver of fish exposed to 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ MC-LR (47- and 76-fold, respectively). The *gstt1a* and *gstk1.1* was repressed in the liver of fish exposed to the higher MC-LR concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ (34- and 47-fold, respectively). Eight *GST* transcripts, were not altered in the gill or liver after MC-LR exposure, the Alpha GSTs *gstal* and *gsta2.2*, the Rho GST *gstr1*, all the three Mu class GSTs (*gstm1*, *gstm2* and *gstm3*), the Pi GST *gstp1* and the MAPEG GST *mgst3a* (Figure 5).

Discussion

Our search for *GST* nucleotide sequences in the Genbank and the preliminary phylogenetic analysis revealed that similarly to human that posses a high number of isoforms represented by at least twelve *GSTs*, zebrafish possess about nineteen *GST* sequences. All zebrafish *GSTs* clustered together with the known human *GST* classes, such Zeta, Theta, Omega, MAPEG, Kappa, Alpha, Pi and Mu, with the exception of the Class Rho isoform *gstr1* that is present only in fishes. The *GSTs* analyzed in the present

study showed distinct levels of transcription for organ-specific distribution, abundance in a given organ and effects caused by 24-hour MC-LR exposure. Those differences in transcriptional levels were noted even within a given class, which suggests peculiarities of each *GST* relating to regulation at the transcriptional level, probably related with the presence of different response elements and/or other mechanisms regulating those genes. That finding is very important, considering that many studies conducted so far, in the GST transcript or protein level, ignored the existence of different isoforms within GST classes (e.g.: Wiegand, 1999; Kim et al., 2010). The present study evaluated the individual transcriptional levels for GST classes that possess multiple isoforms, Alpha: *gstal*, *gsta2.1* and *gsta2.2*; Theta: *gstt2*, *gstt1a* and *gstt1b*; Mu: *gstm1*, *gstm2* and *gstm3*, Pi: *gstp1* and *gstp2*; and MAPEG: *mgst1.1* and *mgst3a*. The *gstk1* (Kappa) and *gstr* (Rho), that are the only member into their classes, were also evaluated. A carefully choice of adequate housekeeping genes, based on the testing of eight housekeeping genes and use of the three more stable for normalization, allowed a refined evaluation of the transcriptional levels for the target *GST* genes. Results shown here would guide the choice of specific GST isoforms for further characterization in the transcript and protein level in further studies.

Organ-specific distribution and relative abundance of *GST* isoforms

The evaluation of transcriptional levels in classic detoxification organs such liver, gill and gut could help to infer which ones of the many *GST* isoforms that exists in fish could be the major involved in the phase-II biotransformation of organic contaminants and other detoxification processes. Zebrafish possess high hepatic transcriptional levels for *gstal* and *gstk1.1*, comparing with the other organs evaluated. Lee et al. (2006) also demonstrated higher basal transcription in the liver for *gstal* isoform in the fish *Rivulus marmoratus*. Liang et al. (2007) reported that cyprinid fish may has class alpha as the predominant class in the liver, and that alpha GST class is probably important in the combat against oxidative stress by conjugation of lipid peroxidation products (Hayes et al., 2005). Although the *gstal* isoform followed the expected organ distribution with high levels in the liver, the other Alpha class isoforms *gsta2.1* and *gsta2.2* did not follow the same pattern, showing higher basal transcription in kidney and brain for *gsta2.1*, comparing to other organs, and an equivalent

distribution *gsta2.2* in all organs, respectively. Thus, it is possible that those isoforms possess important functions in extra-hepatic organs. The isoforms of Mu class were mainly expressed in the eye, followed by intestine, gill and liver. The Mu isoforms that has the highest transcriptional levels in the liver, intestine and other organs in the pufferfish *T. obscurus* (Kim et al. 2010) and high transcription in the hepatopancreas in the shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei* (Zhou et al., 2009) did not present the same organ-distribution trend in zebrafish.

The *gst1* isoform, which is exclusive for fish and not found in other animals such mammals, showed increased intestinal transcriptional levels and is considered the main isoform in liver of some species of flounder, mullet and bass (Konish et al., 2005). This study suggest that *gst1* is involved in protecting the intestine, because *gst1* plays an important role in reducing harmful effects by the exposure to xenobiotics in *Pleuronectes platessa* (Martinez-Lara, 2002). Significant levels of *gst1* basal transcription was observed in most of the organs of zebrafish and we could hypothesize that this isoform is involved in the defense to chemical insults caused by environmental contaminants such MC-LR. Major transcriptional levels of both isoforms of the pi class was found in the intestine and gills of zebrafish, a divergent result comparing to other studies, where the highest levels of this transcriptional isoform were observed in the liver of human (Hayes, 2005) and fish (Doi et al. 2004; Fu and Xie, 2006). Actually, the *gstp1*, but not the *gstp2*, also presented high levels in the liver, as expected. It is suggested that the high transcription of these isoforms in those organs involved in detoxification of many compounds play an important role in the biotransformation and detoxification of xenobiotics and assists combating oxidative stress. High hepatic transcription for *gstp1* points this isoform as possibly important in detoxification processes.

As the organ-specific distribution is variable, depending on the *GST* isoform in the focus, this pattern also was noted considering the abundance of each isoform in a given organ. Four isoforms were the most abundant in most of the organs: *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* and *gstt2*, including the major detoxification organs, such as liver, gill and intestine. The *gstt2* and *gstt1a* was also abundant in the kidney, and *gstt1a* and *gstk1.1* in the brain. The *gstp2* isoform was very low in the transcriptional levels, comparing to other isoforms. Nevertheless, other studies suggest that *gstp2* is predominant in fish and abundant in the liver (Konish et al., 2005). Based on the observed organ-distribution

and abundance for *gstal* and *gstk1.1* isoform, in most of the organs analyzed, it is possible that translated proteins will be present in high levels too, and could represent important enzymes protecting cells against oxidative stress and conjugating endogenous and/or xenobiotic compounds. Leaver et al (1993) and Lee et al (2006) have also pointed the importance of alpha class isoforms in fishes. Despite the low abundance of *gstp2* isoform in our study this isoform have gained special attention in other studies, since it is abundant in normal and malignant tumors (Suzuki et al., 2005).

It has been shown that tetha class is highly expressed in liver of the pufferfish, *Takifugu obscurus* (Kim et al., 2010). The isoforms of class Theta: *gstt2* and *gstt1a* presented an equivalent distribution in all organs and *gstt1a* showed higher transcriptional levels in brain and kidney, suggesting that those isoforms could have important functions in extra-hepatic organs in the case of the zebrafish.

MC-LR affecting transcript levels of *Danio rerio* GSTs

The severity of MC-LR toxicity depends on the intensity and duration of internal exposure, determined by the balance between absorption, detoxification and excretion (Buratti et al., 2011). The quantification of MC-LR in the experimental water was conducted in order to verify the real MC-LR concentration in the end of the 24-hour experiment. It was observed a probable MC-LR decay of about 65% in the water, comparing the analyzed and the MC-LR nominal concentrations of 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$, which could indicate a possible absorption and metabolism of this compound. It is possible that MC-LR was absorbed sometime in the 24 hours of exposure through the skin, mouth or by direct absorption via gill respiration, since food was not provided during exposure and this would not be a major route of absorption of the contaminant in this case.

The tolerance or susceptibility for MC-LR exposure is variable in fishes and studies suggest that those differences are related to specie-specific capabilities of biotransformation and induction of *GST* isoforms (Liang et al., 2007). The present study evaluated the transcriptional level (induction/repression) of fifteen *GST* isoforms in zebrafish after waterborne exposure of the animals to MC-LR. The major effect caused by MC-LR was the repression of specific *GST* isoforms instead of transcriptional activation. The *gsta2.1*, *gstp2*, *gstt2*, *gstt1a* and *gstk1.1* were repressed in the liver of

zebrafish, which is possible the main target organ for MC-LR toxicity. It is recognized that MC-LR triggers disruption of biochemical and cellular processes causing changes in the structures of the cytoskeleton and disorganization of hepatic architecture, causing breakdown of cellular structures and hemorrhage (Wei et al., 2007). In the zebrafish gills, *gsta2.1*, *gstt1b* and *mgst3a* were down-regulated against exposure to MC-LR. Microcystin can also cause pathological changes in a number of extra-hepatic organs (intestine, kidney, spleen, heart and gills) of fish and epithelial cells of gill undergo degeneration and cell necrosis following intraperitoneal application of the toxin (Carbis et al., 1996).

Similarly to the down-regulation of the *gstk1.1* isoform observed in the liver of zebrafish exposed to 50 µg.L⁻¹ in the present study, Hao et al. (2008) also found down-regulation of *gstk1.1*, and other *GSTs*, in liver, kidney and intestine of goldfish *Carassius auratus* after microcystin exposure (50 and 200 µg of MC-LR.Kg⁻¹ b.w.). Those results suggest that down-regulation of *gstk1.1*, and maybe other GST isoforms in liver, could be involved in the MC-LR toxicity in different cyprinid fishes, and maybe other animals. Kim et al., (2010) also found down-regulation of *GSTs* in river pufferfish (*Takifugu obscurus*) caused by contaminants, and suggests that this response can be associated with the general toxicity observed. The decreasing in the protein level for those GST isoforms and the possible involvement of this alteration in the disruption of cellular processes could be addressed in further studies. The study of receptors and response elements involved in that *GST* transcriptional regulation also remain to be better elucidated and could indicate other important biological cellular pathways that are similarly affected by MC-LR exposure.

The mitochondrial GSTs kappa was originally isolated from mitochondria and is not present in the cytoplasm but has also been found in peroxisomes. To date, the precise relationship between kappa GSTs and other transferases is unclear (Sherrat and Hayes, 2008), but it is speculated that they would be involved in the metabolism of fatty acids, either through its catalytic activity, some transport function, or by interaction with a membrane pore (Hayes et al., 2005). The *gstk1.1* isoform may have an important role in the detoxification of lipid peroxides generated in peroxisomes and mitochondria that are involved in lipid metabolism and produce considerable amounts of reactive oxygen species (Morel et al., 2004). It is possible that down-regulation of this *gstk1.1* isoform, could contribute to the toxic effects of MC-LR, by alteration in the organelle capability

for lipid peroxide detoxification and could lead to an oxidative stress situation. It is well recognized that oxidative stress is one of the major effects caused by MC-LR exposure (Amado et al., 2010).

Due to increased susceptibility to skin tumorigenesis in *gstp1* and *gstp2* knockout rats exposed to toxins (Hayes et al., 2005), we could assume that transcriptional down-regulation of *GST* pi isoforms could lead to increasing toxic effects after exposure to MC-LR. This hepatotoxin present carcinogenic potential (Nishiwaki-Matsushima et al., 1992) and it is possible that down-regulation could make the organism more susceptible to MC-LR insult such tumorigenesis. Interestingly, the catalitical activity of the recombinant human *GSTs* presents low specific activity to conjugate the general GST substrate CNDB in vitro (Buratti et al., 2011). Despite the low abundance found in liver for *gstp2* isoform, and the possible importance of this isoform in MC-LR effects could not be ignored, especially because *gstp2*, but not *gstp1*, was highly suppressed in liver in both concentrations of MC-LR in the present experiment.

Few studies have reported the transcriptional alteration of GST isoforms after exposure to MC-LR in zebrafish. Zhang et al. (2010) evaluated the transcriptional level of seven GST isoforms (*gstr1*, *gstal*, *gstp1*, *gstp2*, *gstz*, *gstm3* and *gstt1*) after intraperitoneal MC-LR injection at different temperatures (12, 22 and 32 °C) and exposure time (3-, 12-, 24- and 48-hour) and found that at least three of them, *gstm3*, *gstt1* and *gstp2* were induced. Similarly, to our study, the *gstr1*, *gstal* and *gstp1* transcriptional level were not altered at by MC-LR exposure. Possible differences among the two studies may be due to different temperatures and route of exposure employed. The differences could be also related to different strategies used in the normalization of gene expression evaluation, since Zhang et al. (2010) used only one housekeeping gene, *18s*, to normalize the expression of the target *GST* genes. In our study, that evaluated eight housekeeping genes, *18S* was not chosen to normalize the data, since the other genes that were used presented better stability scores.

The heterologous expression of all those zebrafish GST isoforms, evaluated here, and catalytic characterization, could contribute in the future for the better understanding of the cellular function and involvement of specific isoforms in the MC-LR detoxification and or toxicity. Buratti et al. (2011) used five recombinant human *GSTs*, and identified the main isoforms involved in the conjugation with MC-LR.

Isoforms with the highest specific activities to form the conjugate GS-MC-LR were Alpha and Theta. The involvement of the Alpha and Theta gsts that were down-regulated in the present study (*gsta2.1* and *gstt1a*) that were repressed in the liver of zebrafish by MC-LR could be possibly Some studies suggest that MC-LR suppresses *GST* isoforms at the level of gene transcription, which could cause increased susceptibility of the organism after exposure to the toxin itself (Best et al., 2002). Considering that MC-LR is occasionally observed in the aquatic environment, the transcriptional down-regulation of *GSTs* could make aquatic organisms more susceptible to injuries after cyanobacterial blooms, due to reduced capacity of phase-II biotransformation and detoxification. This hypothesis is very possible, given the fact that the main route of MC-LR detoxification is the conjugation with reduced glutathione (GSH) catalyzed by GST (Pflugmacher et al., 1998). The altered *GSTs* by MC-LR observed here could be used as potential exposure and/or effect biomarkers of environmental contamination by MC-LR and possibly other organic contaminants.

Conclusions

Different *GST* isoforms of *Danio rerio* exhibit transcriptional differences in organ-specific distribution and relative abundance, even considering isoforms that belong to the same class. Some *GST* isoforms are down-regulated in gill and liver at the transcriptional level by environmentally relevant concentrations of MC-LR after 24-hour exposure of zebrafish. The characterization of the *GST* transcriptional levels summarized here could help in the choice of the main important isoforms to be further evaluated in the protein level, in the aim to understand the real importance of each isoform to defend and cause toxic effects by organic contaminants and toxins such the MC-LR.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported by funds from the Brazilian agency CNPq, approved by Juliano Zanette (482768/2010-0). Mauricio Sopezki had support and financial assistance through post-graduate scholarship, funded by CAPES - Brazil. Mauricio Sopezki collaborated with the execution of the experiment, analysis and writing,

Fernando Guimarães analysis of microsomal *GSTs*, Juliano Zanette and José Maria Monserrat collaborated in financing, mentoring and reviewing the work. We would like to acknowledgement Roberta Britto Socoowski for helping on microcystin chemical analyzes and João Sarkis Yunes, Luis Fernando Marins and Afonso C.D. Bainy for helpful comments in the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Amado, L.L., Garcia, M.L., Pereira, T.C.B., Yunes, J.S., Bogo, M.R., Monserrat, J.M., 2011. Chemoprotection of lipoic acid against microcystin-induced toxicosis in common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*, Cyprinidae). *Comp. Biochem. Physiol.* 145C, 146-153.
- Amado, L.L., Monserrat, J.M., 2010. Oxidative stress generation by microcystins in aquatic animals: Why and how. *Environ. Int.* 36, 226-235.
- Baganz, D., Staaks, G., Steinberg, C. 1998. Research note impact of the cyanobacteria toxin , Microcystin-LR on behaviour of zebrafish , *Danio rerio*. *Science*, 32, 948-952.
- Ballot, A., Krienitz, L., Kotut, K., Wiegand, C., Pflugmacher, S., 2005. Cyanobacteria and cyanobacterial toxins in the alkaline crater lakes Sonachi and Simbi, Kenya. *Harmful Algae*. 4, 139-150.
- Best, J.H., Pflugmacher, S., Wiegand, C., Eddy, F.B., Metcalf, J.S., Codd, G.A., 2002. Effects of enteric bacterial and cyanobacterial lipopolysaccharides, and of microcystin-LR, on glutathione S-transferase activities in zebra fish (*Danio rerio*). *Aquat. Toxicol.* 60, 223-231.
- Buratti, F. M., Scardala, S., Funari, E., Testai, E., 2011. Human glutathione transferases catalyzing the conjugation of the hepatoxin microcystin-LR. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.* 24 (6), 926-933.
- Carbis, C.R., Mitchel, G.F., Anderson, J.W., McCauley, I., 1996. The effects of microcystins on the serum biochemistry of carp, *Cyprinus carpio L.*, when the toxins are administered by gavage, immersion and intraperitoneal routes. *J. Fish Dis.* 19, 151–159.

- Ding, W.X., Shen, H.M., Ong, C.N., 2000. Microcystic cyanobacteria extract induces cytoskeletal disruption and intracellular glutathione alteration in hepatocytes. Environ. Health Perspect. 108, 605-609.
- Ding, W.X., Ong, N.C., 2003. Role of oxidative stress and mitochondrial changes in cyanobacteria-induced apoptosis and hepatotoxicity. FEMS Microbio. Lett. 220, 1-7.
- Doi, A. M., Pham, R. T., Hughes, E. M., Barber, D. S., Gallagher, E. P., 2004, Molecular cloning and characterization of a glutathione S-transferase from largemouth bass (*Micropterus salmoides*) liver that is involved in the detoxification of 4-hydroxynonenal. Biochem. Pharmacol. 67, 2129-2139.
- Fu, J., Xie, P., 2006. The acute effects of microcystin LR on the transcription of nine glutathione S-transferase genes in common carp *Cyprinus carpio L.* Aquat. Toxicol. 80, 261-266.
- Hall, T.A. 1999. BioEdit: a user-friendly biological sequence alignment editor and analysis program for Windows 95/98/NT. Nucl. Acids. Symp. Ser. 41:95-98.
- Hao, L., Xie, P., FU, J., Li, G., Xiong, Q., Li, H., 2008. The effect of cyanobacterial crude extract on the transcription of GST mu, GST kappa and GST rho in different organs of goldfish (*Carassius auratus*). Aquat. Toxicol. 90, 1-7.
- Hayes, J.D., Flanagan, J.U., Jowsey, I.R., 2005. Glutathione transferases. Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. 45, 51-88.
- Kalendar R., Lee D., Schulman A.H., 2009. Invited review: FastPCR software for PCR primer and probe design and repeat search. Genes, Genomes and Genomics. 3 (special issue 1), 1-14 [<http://primerdigital.com/fastpcr.html>]
- Kim, J.H., Dahms, H.U., Rhee, J.S., Lee, Y.M., Lee, J., Han, K.N., & Lee, J.S. 2010. Expression profiles of seven glutathione S-transferase (GST) genes in cadmium-exposed river pufferfish (*Takifugu obscurus*). Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 151C, 99-106.
- Konishi, T., Kato, K., Araki, T., Shiraki, K., Takagi, M., & Tamari, Y., 2005. Molecular cloning and characterization of alpha-class glutathione S-transferase genes from the hepatopancreas of red sea bream, *Pagrus major*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 140C, 309-20.

- Kotak, B.G., Zurawell, R.W., 2007. Cyanobacterial toxins in Canadian freshwaters: A review. *Lake Res. Manag.* 23, 109-122.
- Lawrence, C., 2007. The husbandry of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*): A review. *Aquaculture*. 269, 1-20.
- Lee, Y.M., Seo, J.S., Jung, S.O., Kim, I.C., Lee, J.S., 2006. Molecular cloning and characterization of theta-class glutathione S-transferase (*GST-T*) from the hermaphroditic fish *Rivulus marmoratus* and biochemical comparisons with alpha-class glutathione S-transferase (*GST-A*). *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 346, 1053-1061.
- Leaver, M.J., Scott, K., George, S.G., 1993. Cloning and characterization of the major hepatic glutathione S-transferase from amarine teleost flatfish, the plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*), with structural similarities to plant, insect and mammalian Theta class isoenzymes. *Biochem. J.* 292, 189–195.
- Liang, X.F., Li, G.G., He, S., Huang, Y., 2007. Transcriptional responses of alpha- and rho-class glutathione S-transferase genes in the liver of three freshwater fishes intraperitoneally injected with microcystin-LR: Relationship of inducible expression and tolerance. *J. Biochem. Mol. Toxicol.* 21, 289-298.
- López-Olmeda, J.F., Sánchez-Vázquez, F.J., 2011, Thermal biology of zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). *J. Therm. Biol.* 36, 91–104.
- Martinez-Lara, E., Leaver, M., George, S., 2002. Evidence from heterologous expression of glutathione S-transferases A and A1 of the plaice (*Pleuronectes platessa*) that their endogenous role is in detoxification of lipid peroxidation products. *Mar. Environ. Res.* 54, 263–266.
- Matthiensen, A.; Beattie, K. A.; Yunes, Ä. S.; Kaya, K.; Codd, G. A., 2000. RST 9501 and from a *Microcystis* bloom in the Patos Lagoon estuary, Brazil. *Eur. J. Phycol.* 55, 383-387.
- McCurley, A.T., Callard, G.V., 2008, Characterization of housekeeping genes in zebrafish: male-female differences and effects of tissue type, developmental stage and chemical treatment. *BMC Mol. Biol.* 9, 102.
- Minillo, A., Ferreira, A.H., Yunes, J.S., 2000. Detecção de microcistinas em florações de *Microcystis aeruginosa* no estuário da lagoa dos Patos, RS, entre 1997 e 1998. *Atlântica*. 22, 81-93.

- Metcalf, J.S., Beattie, K.A., Pflugmacher, S., Codd, G.A., 2000. Immuno-crossreactivity and toxicity assessment of conjugation products of the cyanobacterial toxin, microcystin-LR. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.* 189, 155-158.
- Mestdagh, P.; Vlierberghe, P. Van; Weer, A. De., Westermann, F., Speleman, F., Vandesompele, J., 2009. A novel and universal method for microRNA RT-qPCR data normalization. *Genome. Biol.* 10, R64.
- Morel, F.; Rauch, C.; Petit, E.; Piton, A.; Theret, N.; Coles, B.; Guillouzo A., 2004. Gene and protein characterization of the human glutathione S-transferase kappa and evidence for a peroxisomal localization. *J. biol. chem.*, v. 279, 16246-16253.
- Nishiwaki-Matsushima, R., Ohta, T., Nishiwaki, S., 1992. Liver tumor promotion by the cyanobacterial cyclic peptide toxin microcystin-LR. *J. Cancer Res. Clin. Oncol.* 118, 420–424.
- Pfaffl, M. W., G. W. Horgan & L. Dempfle. 2001. Relative expression software tool (REST) for group-wise comparison and statistical analysis of relative expression results in real-time PCR. *Nucl. Acids Res.* 30, 2002–2007.
- Pflugmacher, S., Wiegand, C., Oberemm, A., Beattie, K.A., Krause, E., Codd, G.A., Steinberg, C.E.W., 1998. Identification of an enzymatically formed glutathione conjugate of the cyanobacterial hepatotoxin microcystin-LR: The first step of detoxication. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta, Gen. Subj.* 1425, 527-533.
- Råbergh, C.M.I., Bylund, G., Eriksson, J.E., 1991. Histopathological effects of microcystin-LR, a cyclic peptide toxin from the cyanobacterium (blue-green alga) *Microcystis aeruginosa* on common carp (*Cyprinus carpio L.*). *Aquat. Toxicol.* 20, 131–146.
- Rozen, S., Skaletsky, H.J., 2000. Primer3 on the WWW for general users and for biologist programmers. *Bioinformatics Methods and Protocols: Methods Mol. Biol.* 132, 365-386.
- Sherratt, P. J., Hayes, J. D., 2008. Enzyme systems that metabolise drugs and other xenobiotics, in: Ioannides C. (Eds) *Glutathione S-transferases*. E-Publishing Inc., New York, pp. 319-352.
- Schmittgen, T. D.; Livak, K. J., 2008. Analyzing real-time PCR data by the comparative CT method. *Nat. Protoc.* 3 (6), 1101-1108.
- Suzuki, T., Takagi, Y., Osanai, H., Li, L., Takeuchi, M., Katoh, Y., Kobayashi, M., Yamamoto, M., 2005. Pi class glutathione S-transferase genes are regulated by Nrf

- 2 through an evolutionarily conserved regulatory element in zebrafish. Biochem. J. 388, 65-73.
- Vandesompele, J.; Preter, K. D.; Poppe, B.; Roy, N. V.; Paepe, A. D.; Speleman, F., 2002. Accurate normalization of real-time quantitative RT -PCR data by geometric averaging of multiple internal control genes. Genome Biol. 3, 1-12.
- Wei, L., Sun, B., Song, L., Nie, P., 2008, Gene expression profiles in liver of zebrafish treated with microcystin-LR. Environ. Toxicol. Pharmacol. 26 (1), 6-12.
- Wiegand, C., Pflugmacher, S., Oberemm, A., Meems, N., Beattie, K.A., Steinberg, C.E.W., Codd, G.A., 1999. Uptake and the effects of microcystin-LR on detoxification enzymes of early life stages of the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*). Environ. Toxicol. 14, 89–95.
- Won, E.J., Kim, R.O., Rhee, J.S., Park, G.S., Lee, J., Shin, K.H., Lee, Y.M. 2011. Response of glutathione S-transferase (GST) genes to cadmium exposure in the marine pollution indicator worm, *Perinereis nuntia*. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 154C, 82-92.
- Yunes, J. S., Salomon, P. S., Matthiensen, A., Beattie, K. A., Raggett, S. L., Codd, G. A. 1996. Toxic blooms of cyanobacteria in the Patos Lagoon Estuary, southern Brazil. J. Aquat. Eco. Health. 5, 223-229.
- Zhang, D., Xie, P., Liu, Y., Qiu, T., 2009, Transfer, distribution and bioaccumulation of microcystins in the aquatic food web in Lake Taihu, China, with potential risks to human health. Sci. Total Environ. 407, 2191-2199.
- Zhang, X., Ji, W., Zhang, H., Zhang, W., Xie, P., 2010, Studies on the toxic effects of microcystin-LR on the zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) under different temperatures. J. Appl. Toxicol. 561-567.
- Zegura, B., Lah, T.T., Filipic, M., 2004. The role of reactive oxygen species in microcystin-LR-induced DNA damage. Toxicology. 200, 59-68.
- Zhou, J., Wang, W.N., Wang, A.L., He, W.Y., Zhou, Q.T., Liu, Y., Xu, J., 2009. Glutathione S-transferase in the white shrimp *Litopenaeus vannamei*: Characterization and regulation under pH stress. Comp. Biochem. Physiol. 150C, 224-230.

7. CONCLUSÕES GERAIS

- Os transcritos mais estáveis para normalização da distribuição órgão específica; exposição à MC-LR em fígado; e brânquia, foram *g6pdh*, *β-actina1* e *b2m*; *tuba*, *b2m* e *g6pdh*; e *b2m*, *tuba* e *β-actina1*, respectivamente.
- Os transcritos menos estáveis para normalização dos dados de exposição a MC-LR foram *ef-1α*, *tbp*, *arnt2* e *18s*.
- A distribuição órgão-específica e a abundância relativa é distinta para as diversas isoformas de *GST* em *D. rerio*.
- As isoformas mais abundantes nos órgãos de *D. rerio* foram *gstk1.1*, *gstal*, *gstp1* e *gstt2* e *gstp2* foi a isoforma mais escassa nos órgãos de *D. rerio*.
- As isoformas *gsta2.1*, *gstp2*, *gstt2*, *gstt1a* e *gstk1.1* representam as principais *GSTs* reprimidas pela exposição à MC-LR em fígado.
- As isoformas *gst2.1*, *gstt1b* e *mgst3a* representam as principais *GSTs* reprimidas pela exposição à MC-LR em brânquia.

8. PERSPECTIVAS

A caracterização transcricional de isoformas de glutationa *S*-transferase do presente estudo poderá auxiliar na escolha de proteínas a serem estudadas para uma melhor compreensão dos mecanismos de defesa/toxicidade de MC-LR em peixe-zebra. Para a posterior caracterização da proteína poderá ser realizada a técnica de expressão heteróloga, purificação e teste da capacidade catalítica *in vitro* das isoformas de *GST* isoladas, utilizando ensaio de atividade enzimática para substratos conhecidos de *GST* (ex.: CDNB) e ensaio competitivo com MC-LR. Também será possível avaliar o potencial *in vitro* das diferentes isoformas de *GST* isoladas em formar o conjugado microcistina-glutationa pela análise do conjugado por técnica de HPLC.

TABLE 1. Forward (F) and reverse (R) primers used in the qPCR for *GST* isoforms. Accession numbers of the nucleotide sequences and Chromosome localization were obtained in the *GenBank*.

TABLE 2. Forward (F) and reverse (R) primers used for qPCR analysis of housekeeping genes and accession number in the *GenBank*.

FIGURE 1. ProtDist neighbor phylogenetic tree made based on the alignment of 19 *Danio rerio* (Dr) and 20 *Homo sapiens* (Hs) *GST* amino acid deduced sequences. The Genebank accession numbers for the nucleotide sequences used are in the table 1 of the supplementary material.

FIGURE 2. Heatmap showing the organ-specific transcriptional levels for *GST* isoforms in gut, brain, liver gill, kidney and eye of *D. rerio* from the control group. The Ct average of *b2m*, *β-actin1* and *g6pdh* were used in the normalization of the data, using the $E^{-\Delta Ct}$ method. The color scale is represented by a gradient that goes from dark (low transcription ~ 0%) to red (high transcription - 100%).

FIGURE 3. Relative abundance of each *GST* isoform in a given zebrafish organ (liver, gill and intestine). Equal letters indicate absence of difference among the *GST* isoforms (ANOVA - Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$, $n=6$).

FIGURE 4. Relative abundance of each *GST* isoform in a given zebrafish organ (brain, kidney and eye). Equal letters indicate absence of difference among the *GST* isoforms (ANOVA - Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$, $n=6$).

FIGURE 5. *GST* fold induction in gill and liver of *D. rerio* after 24-hour waterborne exposure to 5 and 50 $\mu\text{g.L}^{-1}$ of MC-LR compared to the control group. The calculations were based on the threshold cycle (Ct) of the target gene and the average of housekeeping genes *tuba*, *b2m* and *g6pdh* to liver and *b2m*, *tuba* and *β-actin1* to gill. Data are presented as the mean \pm error. * refers to statistical significance using REST analysis ($p < 0.05$, $n=10$ per group).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL: TABLE.

Genbank accession numbers for the Human and Zebrafish *GST* nucleotide sequences used to predict the amino acid sequences used in the phylogenetic tree of Figure 1.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL: FIGURES.

Alignment of the nucleotide sequences of Alpha, Mu, Pi, Theta, Rho, MAPEG and Mitochondrial isoforms used in the primer design, avoiding conserved regions among different isoforms. Region 1 refers to the location 5' → 3' where the forward primer (F) were designed and the region 2 refers to the site 5' ← 3' where the reverse primer (R) were designed.

TABLE 1.

Primers	Sequence of primers 5'- 3'	GenBank Acess	Chromosome
*Dr_gsta2.1_F	AGGTCCTTGGTGGAGATT	NM_001102648	13
*Dr_gsta2.1_R	TCCTGTTTCAGCCGGTCCT		
*Dr_gsta2.2_F	GGGATGAAACTCGTACAGTGCAG	NM_001109731	13
*Dr_gsta2.2_R	CTCCTCGATGTTCTGAAGGTTTC		
*Dr_gstal_F	GGTCTGATAGATCTGATGGA	NM_213394	13
*Dr_gstal_R	TTCCTCAATGTTACTGAAGAC		
*Dr_gstr1_F	ACTTCAGCATGGCCGACGTG	NM_001045060	19
*Dr_gstr1_R	ACTGGGCCGATCCTTCACCA		
*Dr_gstm1_F	ATACGCGGGCTTGCTCAACCC	NM_212676	8
*Dr_gstm1_R	GGGAGCTTCGCCGCATGTATAG		
*Dr_gstm2_F	ATACGAGGGCTTGCTCAACCT	NM_001110116	8
*Dr_gstm2_R	GGGAGCTTCACCACATGAATAC		
*Dr_gstm3_F	ATCCGCGGGATTGCTCAACCA	NM_001162851	8
*Dr_gstm3_R	AGGAGCTTCACCACAGGGAGTAG		
*Dr_gstp1_F	GAGAACCTGGTGANCTTGAAGAG	NM_131734	4
*Dr_gstp1_R	TGTCTCAGCATGGCGTTGGA		
*Dr_gstp2_F	GAGAATGTGGTGACCGTACAGGAC	NM_001020513	4
*Dr_gstp2_R	TGAGTATGGCATTGGACTGAT		
*Dr_gstt1a_F	CGGATGCATGGAGCTAAGAT	NM_200584	21
*Dr_gstt1a_R	CACCAACAATGAACGGTTG		
*Dr_gstt1b_F	GTGCCCAAAGAAAAGATGGA	XM_687335	8
*Dr_gstt1b_R	GCCTGCCTTCAAACACATCT		
*Dr_gstt2_F	TGAGCGGCACACTAGACAAG	NM_200521	5
*Dr_gstt2_R	CTCGACTCCTCCAGCTCATC		
**Dr_mgst1.1_F	CCGCCATGGCAATAGCAGAAG	NM_001005957	4
**Dr_mgst1.1_R	CCGATCACCAAGAAAGGAACG		
**Dr_mgst3a_F	CATCTGGCTCATGGCGTCGT	NM_213427	20
**Dr_mgst3a_R	TGCGGCCAGTCTCTGGATCA		
***Dr_gstk1.1_F	TGCCATGTTAACGGGAAGGTTG	XM_001922164	16
***Dr_gstk1.1_R	TTGGACAAGGTCTGCCACT		

* GSTs cytosolics ** GSTs microsomal ***GST mitochondrial

TABLE 2.

Primer	Sequence of primers 5'- 3'	GenBank acess
Dr_β-actin1_F	GCTGTTTCCCCTCCATTGTT	AF180887
Dr_β-actin1_R	TCCCCATGCCAACATCACT	
Dr_arnt2_F	CACCTTGATCACATCTCATTG	NM_131674.1
Dr_arnt2_R	TCACCCTCCTAGACGGACC	
Dr_18s_F	TGCATGGCCGTTCTTAGTTG	NM_001098396.1
Dr_18s_R	AGTCTCGTTCGTTATCGGAATGA	
Dr_g6pdh_F	AACGGTCCCGAAAGGGCTCCA	BM182602
Dr_g6pdh_R	GCCATCCCAGCGTTCGTTCT	
Dr_tbp_F	ACACCGCAGCCTGTGCAGAA	NM_200096
Dr_tbp_R	TGGCCTGAACCTCCCACCAT	
Dr_tuba_F	CTTCGAGCCGGCCAATCAGA	AF029250
Dr_tuba_R	TTGCGGCGTTCACGTCTTG	
Dr_b2m_F	GCCTTCACCCCCAGAGAAAGG	BC062841
Dr_b2m_R	GCGGTTGGGATTACATGTTG	
Dr_ef-1α_F	CAAAATTGGAGGTATTGGAAGTGTAC	AY422992
Dr_ef-1 α_R	TCAACAGACTTGACCTCAGTGGTT	

FIGURE 1.

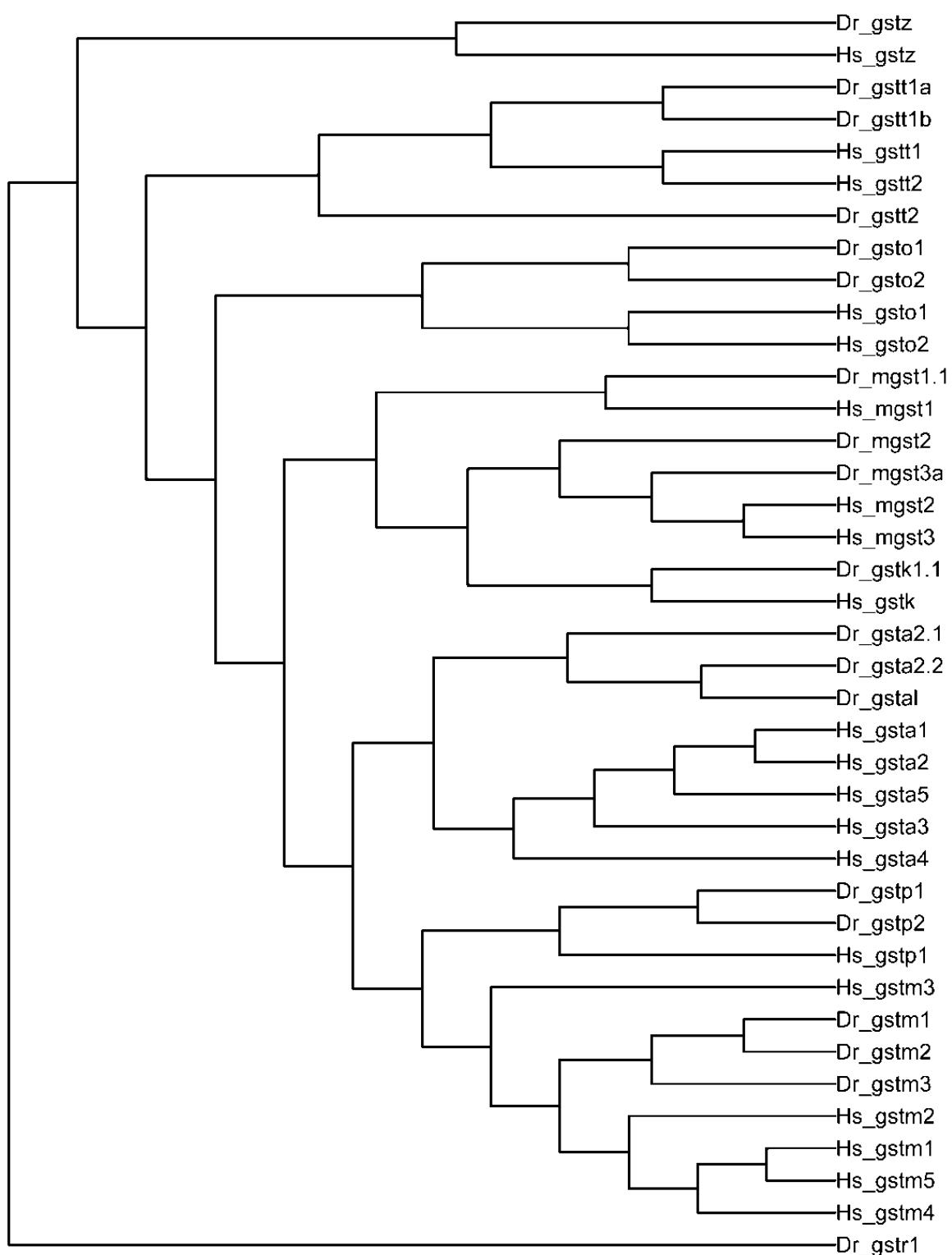


FIGURE 2.

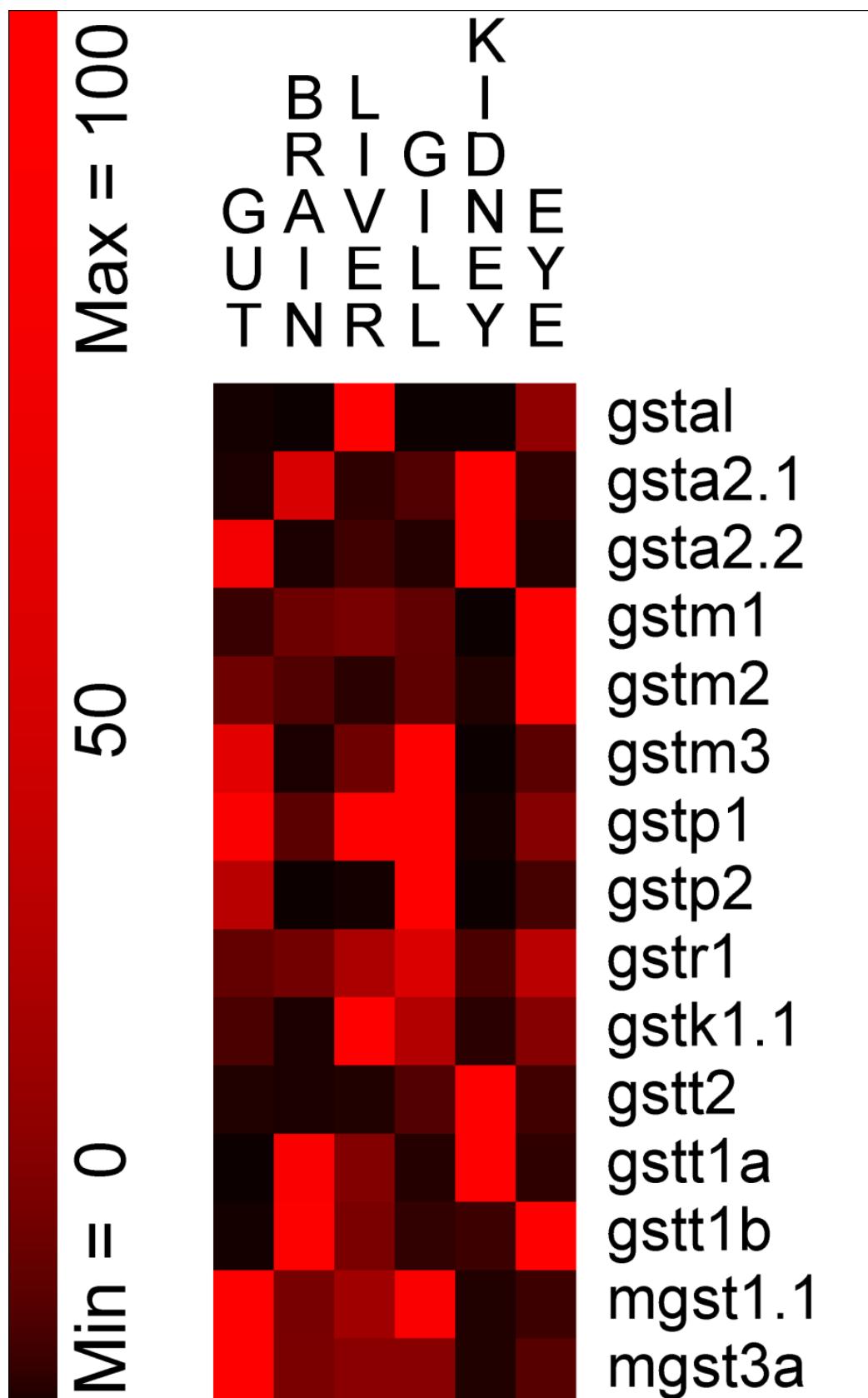


FIGURE 3

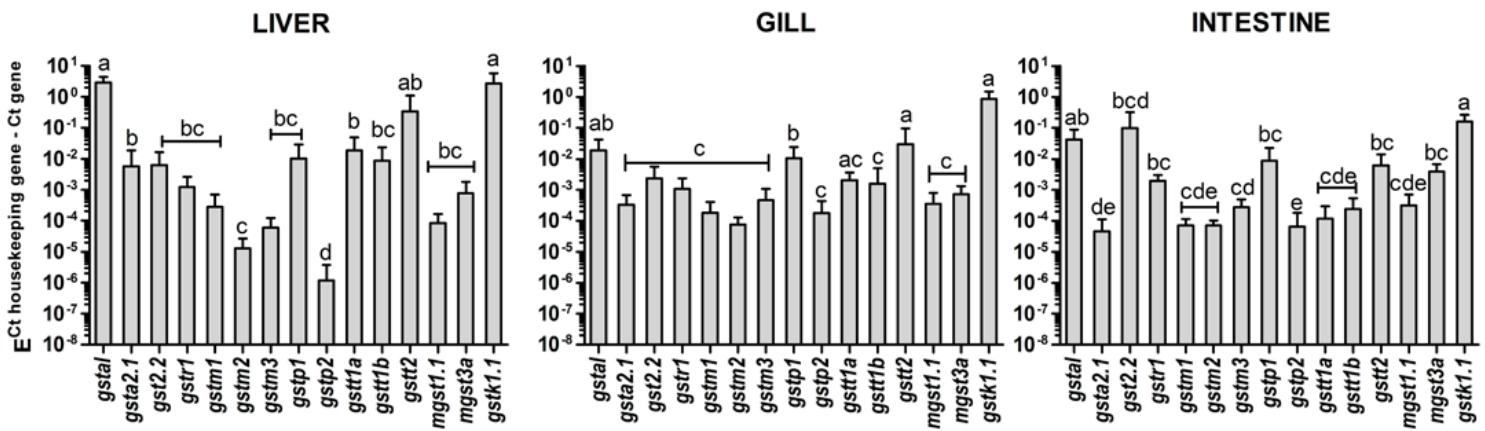


FIGURE 4.

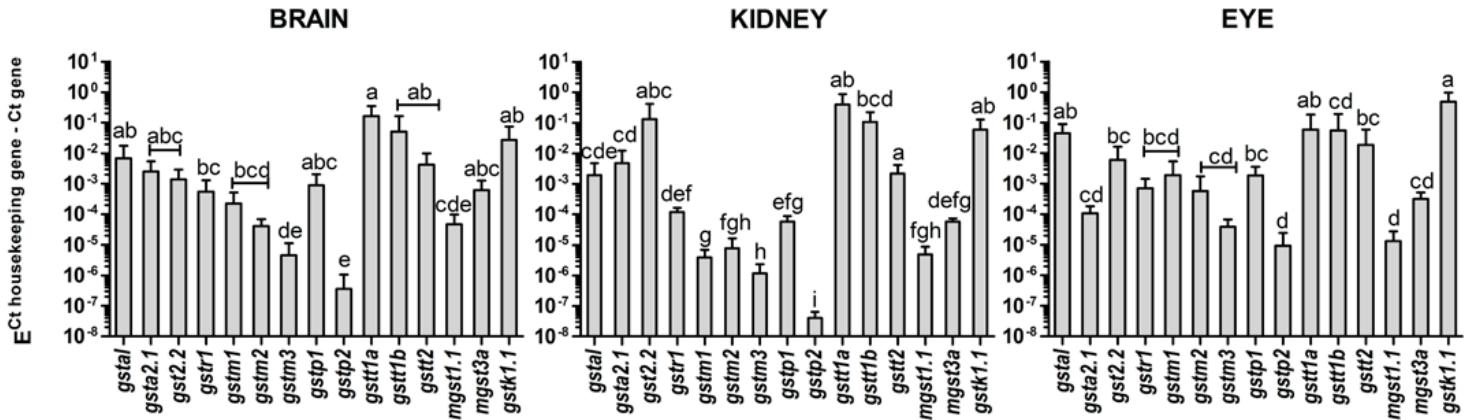
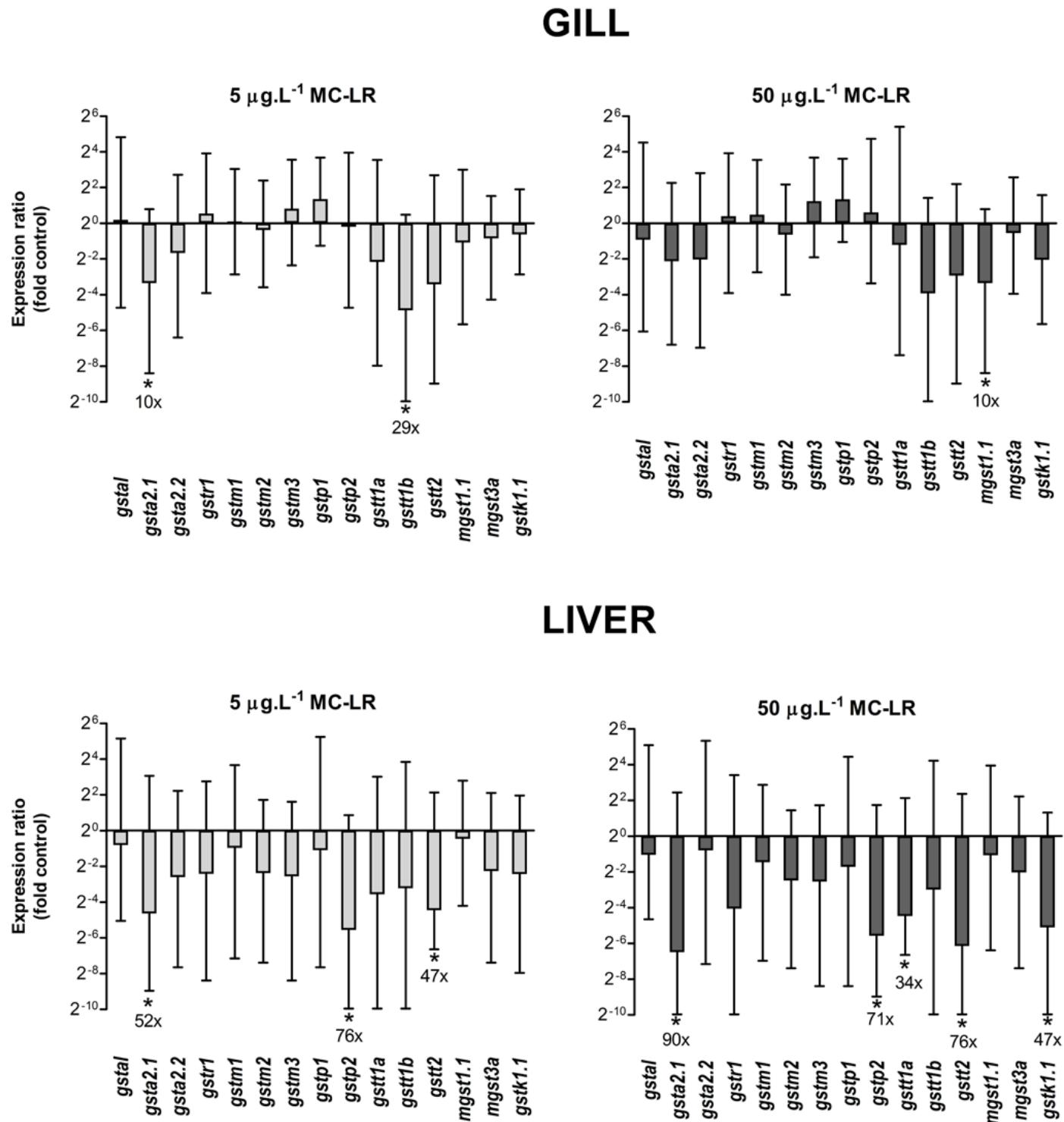


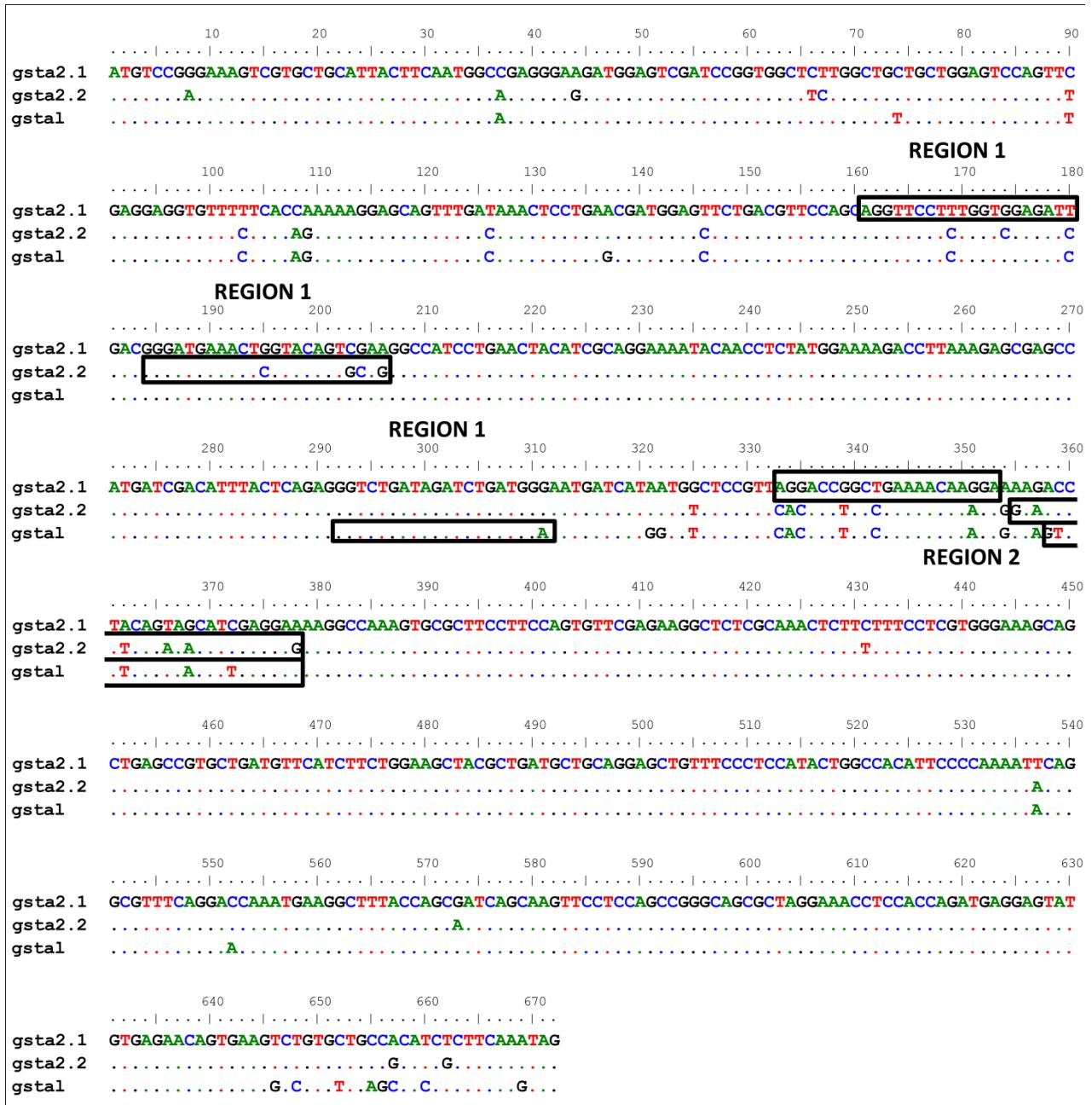
FIGURE 5



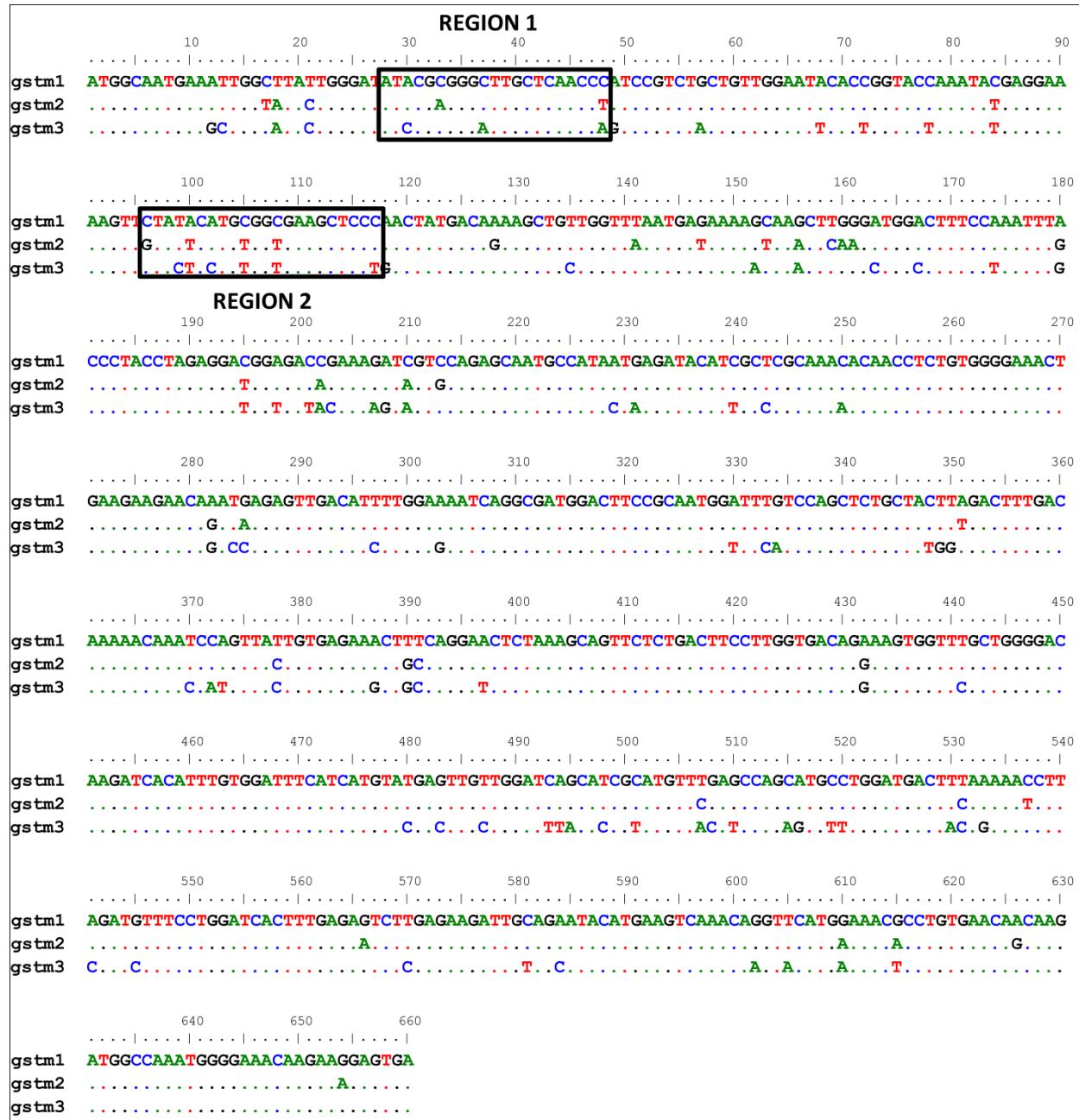
SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE

<i>Danio rerio GST</i>	<i>GenBank</i>	<i>Homo sapiens GST</i>	<i>GenBank</i>
Dr_gsta2.1	NM_001102648	Hs_gsta1	NM_145740.3
Dr_gsta2.2	NM_001109731	Hs_gsta2	NM_000846.4
Dr_gstal	NM_213394	Hs_gsta3	NM_000847.4
Dr_gstr1	NM_001045060	Hs_gsta4	NM_001512.3
Dr_gstm1	NM_212676	Hs_gsta5	NM_153699.1
Dr_gstm2	NM_001110116	Hs_gstp1	NM_000852.3
Dr_gstm3	NM_001162851	Hs_gstm1	NM_000561.3
Dr_gstp1	NM_131734	Hs_gstm2	NM_000848.3
Dr_gstp2	NM_001020513	Hs_gstm3	NM_000849.4
Dr_gstt1a	NM_200584	Hs_gstm4	NM_000850.4
Dr_gstt1b	XM_687335	Hs_gstm5	NM_000851.3
Dr_gstt2	NM_200521	Hs_gstt1	NM_000853.2
Dr_mgst1.1	NM_001005957	Hs_gstt2	NM_000854.3
Dr_mgst2	NM_001045302.1	Hs_mgst1	NM_001260511.1
Dr_mgst3a	NM_213427	Hs_mgst2	NM_001204366.1
Dr_gstk1.1	XM_001922164	Hs_mgst3	NM_004528.3
Dr_gsto1	NM_001002621.1	Hs_gstk1	NM_001143679.1
Dr_gsto2	NM_001007372.1	Hs_gsto1	NM_001191002.1
Dr_gstz	NP_001025442.1	Hs_gsto2	NM_001191013.1
		Hs_gstz1	NM_001513.3

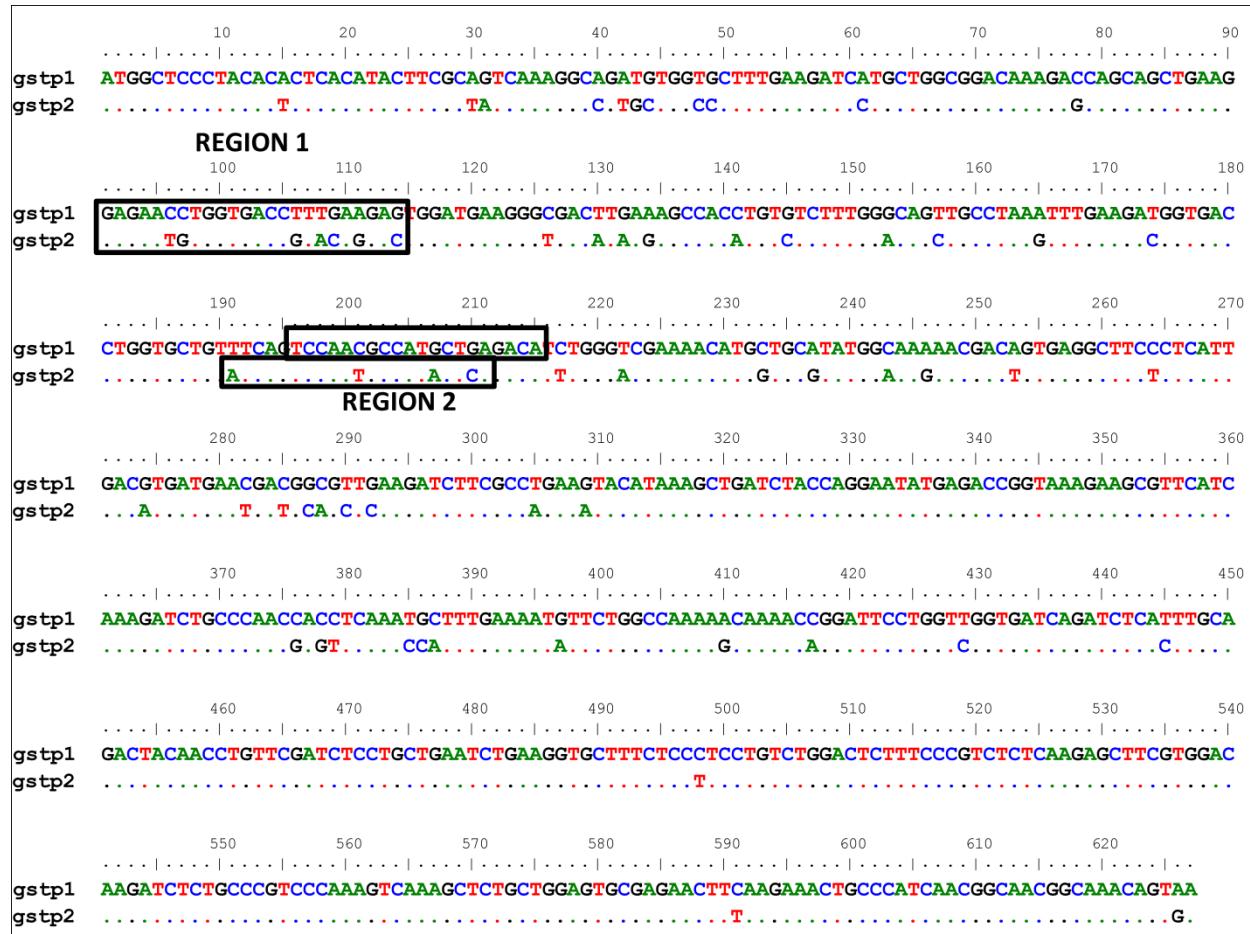
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



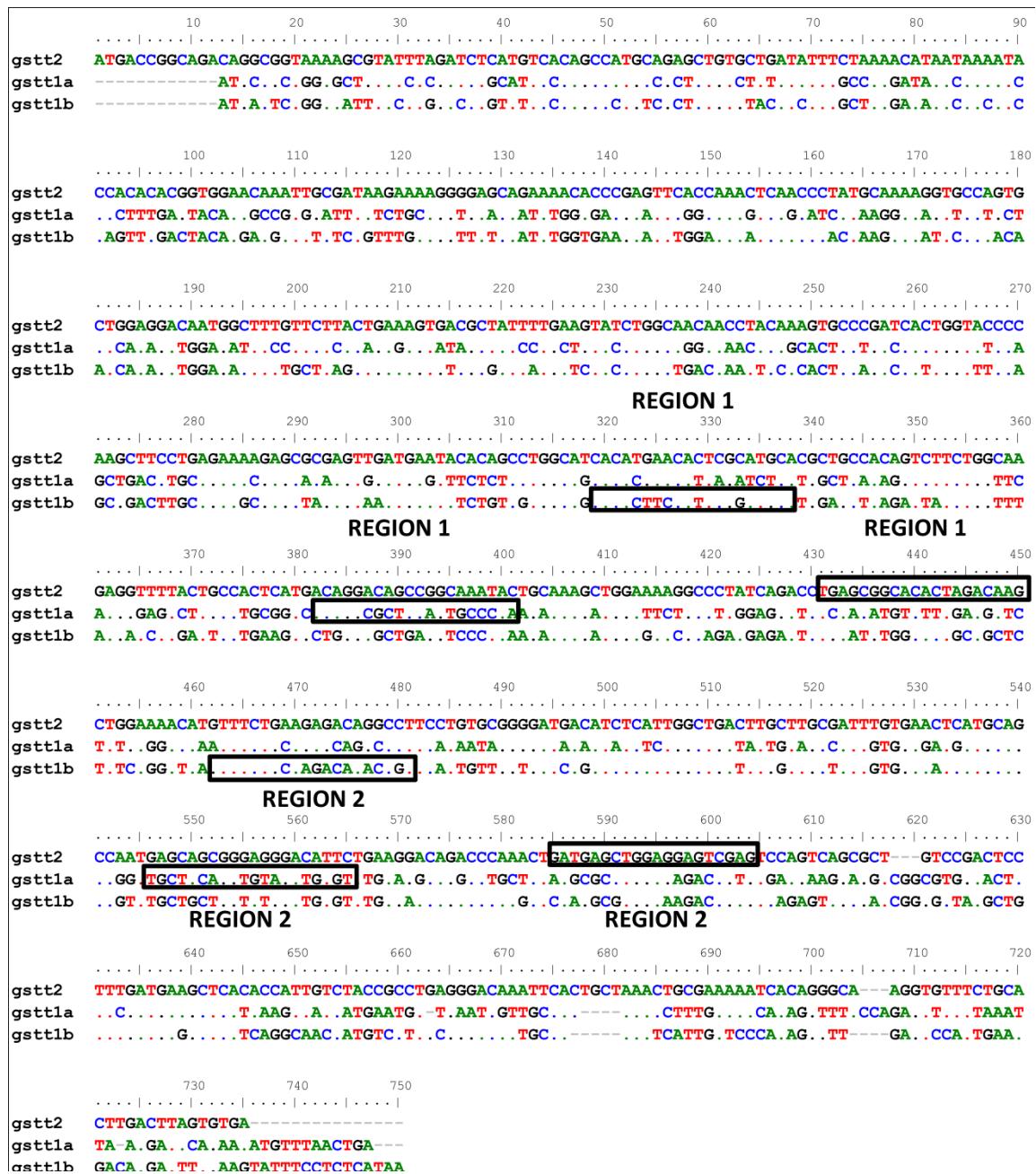
SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES



SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 ATGTCCAGTTCCAGAAAAGTGGTTGAATTGTTCTATGATGTCGTTCTCCTTATTCCCTGGCTGGCATTTGAGGTGCTGTGTCGCTACAAA

100 110 120 130 140 150 160 170 180
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 AATGTTGGAACATTGACCTCAAAATTAAACCATCATTTTAGGAGGAGTTTTCACGGTTCAGGTAAACACTGAACCTGGAATGGTCGAT

190 200 210 220 230 240 250 260 270
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 AATAAGCTCCATTATGATCACAGATCTGAAACTGATGTCGAGTACTATGGGGTCCCTGTAATCCACCTTCGCCCTGTAAGAAAGAT

280 290 300 310 320 330 340 350 360
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 ACTTTGCCCTGCAATGCCCTTGTGACTGCTATAGCAAGAAAAACCAAGAGGAAATCTGCTGGTGGAGGGTTCTAGAGAGCTTG

370 380 390 400 410 420 430 440 450
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 AAACGAATGTGGCAAAAGCATCAGGACATTACCCAGCTCTCTCGCTTACTGAGGCAGGATTACTGGTAGGTCCTCTCATCCAATGAGGTG

460 470 480 490 500 510 520 530 540
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 GAAGAATTGCTGACCAATGCCAAATCTCAACCAATTAAAGACAAGCTGAAGACTGTCACAGGAGGACTAGAGAAAAATGCCCTTGGT

550 560 570 580 590 600 610 620 630
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 CTTCCATTCAATTGTCATGCCATGTTAACGGGAAGGTTGAGGTTTCTTTGGTTGACAGATTGAGCTCATAGCTCATGCCATCGGGAG

640 650 660
|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|.....|
gstk1.1 AAGTGGGCAGGACCTTGTCCAATCAAGACCAACATGTGA

REGION 1

550 560 570 580 590 600 610 620 630

REGION 2

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

