

Enzymes of yeast polyphosphate metabolism: structure, enzymology and biological roles

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Abstract

Inorganic polyphosphate (polyP) is found in all living organisms. The known polyP functions in eukaryotes range from osmoregulation and virulence in parasitic protozoa to modulating blood coagulation, inflammation, bone mineralization and cellular signaling in mammals. However mechanisms of regulation and even the identity of involved proteins in many cases remain obscure. Most of the insights obtained so far stem from studies in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. Here, we provide a short overview of the properties and functions of known yeast polyP metabolism enzymes and discuss future directions for polyP research.

Introduction

Inorganic polyphosphate (polyP) is found in all kingdoms of life. Due to its simple chemical structure, the possibility to be synthesized abiotically, and its ubiquitous presence, polyP has been declared a “molecular” fossil, a relic of the ancient prebiotic world, which is mostly exploited by freely-living microorganisms for phosphate storage and metal chelation [1]. However, during the past several years, many exciting functions of cellular polyP in the mammals have been described. PolyP regulates bone calcification and is involved in activating the blood clotting cascade, inflammatory responses and various events of cellular signalling [2-5]. Understanding the molecular mechanisms of eukaryotic polyP synthesis and degradation appears crucial for further characterization of these intriguing activities of polyP. Although *Dictyostelium discoideum* has adopted bacterial polyphosphate kinases, probably by horizontal gene transfer, the enzymes of polyP metabolism seem not to be generally conserved between prokaryotes and eukaryotes [6]. Whereas much has been learned about bacterial polyP metabolism, our understanding of eukaryotic polyP metabolism is lagging far behind. This is best illustrated by the facts that only one type of a potential specialized polyphosphatase has been identified in mammals [7], and the role of unspecific mammalian alkaline phosphatase in polyP metabolism is still not clear [8, 9]. Most of the insights obtained so far stem from the studies in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, but also here the nature of some polyP-related enzyme activities has remained enigmatic. This mini-review presents a short summary of the known yeast enzymes, providing a glimpse on the high complexity of eukaryotic polyP metabolism (Figure 1, Table 1).

The VTC complex – a eukaryotic polyP polymerase

A hallmark of polyP metabolism in all eukaryotes is the sequestration of polyP in specialized membrane-enclosed compartments – acidocalcisomes or acidocalcisome-like organelles [10]. The discovery and characterization of the yeast polyP polymerase has provided insights into the mechanisms underlying this process.

The yeast polyP polymerase is a large membrane complex that has originally been designated as VTC (vacuolar transporter chaperone) [11]. Before its catalytic activity as a polyP polymerase had been established, the VTC complex was found to be required for V-ATPase stability and trafficking, yeast vacuole membrane fusion and microautophagy [11-14]. It remains to be determined whether these observations reflect the involvement of polyP in these processes, or whether the VTC complex itself performs mechanistically different tasks, as it has been demonstrated for V-ATPase [15, 16].

The VTC complex consists of four subunits: Vtc4 (catalytic) and Vtc1, Vtc2 and Vtc3 (accessory). Each subunit contains three transmembrane helices of related sequence. Vtc1 is a small membrane protein without hydrophilic domains. Vtc2, Vtc3 and Vtc4 have two hydrophilic N-terminal domains that face the cytosol [13]: N-terminal SPX-domain and the central domain. Most proteins containing SPX domains are implicated in phosphate metabolism, which led to the proposal that SPX domains might regulate phosphate homeostasis (reviewed in [17]). In several examples, SPX domains mediate protein-protein interactions [18-21]. The central domain of Vtc2 has been crystalized and structures of the Vtc4 catalytic domain have been resolved in complex with the reaction product polyP; with phosphate; with pyrophosphate; and with the substrate analogue adenosine-5'-[(β,γ)-imido] triphosphate and $MnCl_2$ [22]. This allowed the identification of residues important for substrate binding and catalysis. The polyP is bound inside the tunnel of Vtc4, which is lined by conserved basic residues and contains the active site. The central domains of VTC proteins are structurally-related to the RNA triphosphatase Cet1.

The recombinant central (tunnel) domain of Vtc4 is catalytically active and synthesizes polyP from ATP. This catalytic activity requires metal ions, with Mn^{2+} being the most effective. It is highly stimulated by pyrophosphate (PP_i) and moderately stimulated by inorganic phosphate (P_i) and triphosphate (P_3). It has been hypothesized that PP_i might provide the primer to start the new polyP chain. The catalytic domain has very similar affinities to ATP and dATP, and the affinities to CTP and GTP are only 5-fold lower. In the crystal structure, the nucleoside part is not resolved and the

protein contacts only the triphosphate part of the substrate trinucleotide [22]. It would be interesting to know whether the intact VTC complex has a higher selectivity for ATP.

Recently, we have developed a method to monitor polyP synthesis activity by intact VTC complex using isolated vacuoles as a model system [23]. The VTC complex displays significantly higher activity when present in an intact vacuolar membrane than in the detergent-solubilized state, even though all the subunits can be co-immunoprecipitated, indicating that the complex survives the treatment. PolyP synthesis is tightly coupled to its transport into the vacuole lumen and it depends on the proton gradient across the membrane, formed by V-ATPase. As the sequestration of polyP in acidocalcisome-like organelles is a common feature of all eukaryotes, these basic properties of polyP synthesis and translocation might be similar in higher eukaryotes, even if primary sequence comparisons could not identify direct VTC homologs in plants or animals.

VTC exists as two different sub-complexes: Vtc4/Vtc3/Vtc1 and Vtc4/Vtc2/Vtc1 (Figure 1). The first sub-complex is mostly found on the vacuole membrane; the second one can also be observed in the cell periphery (likely, ER and nuclear envelope), but localizes to the vacuole under phosphate starvation. Existence of two differently regulated sub-complexes may be necessary to create differently regulated polyP pools with presumably different functions. In line with this, polyP may not only be concentrated in the acidocalcisome-like vacuole. A distinct polyP pool in the nucleus has recently been discovered that controls the localization and activity of topoisomerase 1 via polyphosphorylation [24]. The existence of polyP in mitochondria has also been described [25].

Lys458, which is essential for catalysis in Vtc4, is substituted by isoleucine in Vtc2 and by leucine in Vtc3 [22]. Consistently, no catalytic activity has been detected for Vtc2 and Vtc3 in vitro, suggesting a regulatory role for these two subunits. A potential regulatory role of Vtc2 and Vtc3 is also suggested by the fact that only few phosphorylation sites were found in Vtc4, whereas Vtc2 and Vtc3 contain numerous phosphorylated serines and threonines (Phosphogrid). All VTC subunits contain ubiquitylation sites. Substitution of the conserved arginines in Vtc1 drastically reduces polyP synthesis activity of the VTC complex. It has been proposed that the small, membrane-integral Vtc1, together with the transmembrane domains of other VTC proteins, forms a channel that transfers polyP into the organelle lumen [22, 23]. Interestingly, Vtc1 was also found in a screen for RNA binders [26] but it remains to be determined whether this is related to any physiological function.

While the sequences of the transmembrane and central domains of VTC proteins are not conserved in the multicellular organisms, SPX domains are found also in plants, flies and mammals. Vtc1 and Vtc4 proteins are also detected in trypanosomatids. The central domains of Vtc4 homologs from *Trypanosoma brucei* and *Trypanosoma cruzi* were purified and their catalytic activities were confirmed [27, 28]. Vtc4 is essential for the infectivity of *Trypanosoma brucei* and was proposed as a potential drug target. Two Homologs of VTC proteins have been identified in the phytoplankton diatom *Thalassiosira pseudonana*, where these genes were up-regulated under phosphate limitation, leading to an increase in polyP synthesis. This finding opens the way to better understand the phosphate cycle in marine ecosystems [29]. A Vtc1 homolog in the green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* is important for acidocalcisome formation and for trafficking of S- and N-responsive periplasmic proteins under sulphur-deprivation [30]. The homolog of the catalytic subunit Vtc4 has also been identified, but its functions were not characterized.

The exopolyphosphatase Ppx1

The major polyphosphatase activity detectable in yeast is provided by Ppx1 [31]. Ppx1 is a soluble monomeric 40 kDa enzyme which processively hydrolyses polyP to release P_i and PP_i [31]. For optimal substrates of an average chain length of 250 P_i residues the k_{cat}/K_M approaches a diffusion-limited value. Ppx1 can hydrolyse PolyP chains as short as 3 P_i residues and does not act on PP_i and ATP. Its activity requires metal ions and prefers Mg^{2+} . The enzyme is active over a wide range of pH from 5.5 to 9. [32].

Ppx1 belongs to the DHH phosphoesterase superfamily, which includes also h-prune, the only mammalian exopolyphosphatase known to date, and the family 2 inorganic pyrophosphatases [7]. The active site of Ppx1 is structurally very similar to the active site of pyrophosphatases and is

located in a channel at the interface between two domains. Several positively charged residues, which are conserved between Ppx1 enzymes from different organisms, line the channel walls and are proposed to drive the polyP chain towards the active site [33].

Unlike most of the genes involved in yeast polyP metabolism, Ppx1 is expressed constitutively, independently from phosphate availability [34]. Deletion of Ppx1 shows little phenotypes and affects neither polyP chain length nor total polyP amount in the cell. Ppx1 was originally described as a cytosolic enzyme. Later, the exopolyphosphatase activities of the plasma membrane and mitochondria matrix were also attributed to Ppx1 [35, 36]. High throughput localisation studies found Ppx1 in cytosol, but also enriched in the nucleus [37]. This localization of the most active yeast polyphosphatase is somewhat unexpected as most of the polyP is stored inside the vacuole [38]. However, a small polyP pool might exist in the cytosol. The alternative function for Ppx1 could be to avoid extensive accumulation of polyP in the cytosol, which is harmful to the cells [23]. A further attractive possibility is that Ppx1 might act on the recently described polyphosphorylated proteins [24].

The endopolyphosphatase Ppn1

Ppn1 is expressed as a precursor peptide of 78 kDa, containing one N-terminal transmembrane helix. It localizes inside the vacuole lumen and depends on vacuolar proteases for activation [39, 40]. Ppn1 reaches the vacuole via the multi-vesicular body pathway, i.e. by ubiquitylation-dependent sorting into the luminal vesicles of late endosomes [41]. Subsequent fusion of these endosomes with the vacuole transfers these vesicles into the vacuolar lumen where they are degraded and Ppn1 is liberated as a soluble enzyme. Expression of the truncated versions failed to complement *ppn1* deletion, indicating that the N- and C-terminal extensions are required for the activation or correct sorting of the enzyme. Four glycosylation sites are predicted and simultaneous substitution of three of them (Asn 11, 505 and 511) also inactivates the protein [40].

For biochemical characterization Ppn1 was purified from yeast [40, 42]. Its active form is a homotetramer, consisting of proteolytically processed monomers of 35 kDa. Ppn1 acts non-processively, preferentially hydrolyses long polyP chains in the middle to release the shorter chains and requires metal (Mn^{2+} or Mg^{2+}) for activity. Reaction end products are P_i and P_3 , whereas PP_i is a potent inhibitor [42]. A recent study has revealed that, depending on the reaction conditions, Ppn1 acts preferentially as endo- or exopolyphosphatase and its endopolyphosphatase activity is inhibited by ATP, but activated by ADP [43].

PPN1 expression is induced by phosphate starvation [34]. Deletion of *PPN1* does not strongly influence the levels of polyP, but results in accumulation of longer polyP chains, lower cytosolic P_i and subtle defects of regulation of phosphate-responsive signalling (PHO) pathway [39, 44, 45].

Ddp1

Ddp1 is a 20 kDa enzyme that belongs to the Nudix hydrolase family. Ddp1 can be overexpressed and purified from *E. coli*. It has been characterized as di-adenosine and di-phosphoinositol polyphosphate hydrolase and it is an essential enzyme for the metabolism of inositol pyrophosphates [46, 47]. Unexpectedly, Ddp1 was found to preferentially hydrolyse polyphosphates in vitro, cleaving in the middle of the polyP chain to produce shorter polyP chains [48]. This property of Ddp1 is also shared by its mammalian homologs, DIPP1-3. It is possible that they play a role in the polyP metabolism of mammalian cells. Cells lacking Ddp1 show a 20% reduction of polyP levels. Like Ppx1, Ddp1 is localized in the cytosol and nucleus, where only minor quantities of polyP are found. Whether polyP is a substrate for Ddp1 in vivo it is not clear. However, it is conceivable that it might act on polyphosphorylated proteins [24].

Other yeast polyphosphatases

Polyphosphatase activity has still been detected in the cell extracts of *ppx1Δ ppn1Δ* strains [49]. One of the earlier studies detected two vacuolar polyphosphatases [50]. Whereas one of them was likely Ppn1, another one, activated by arginine and independent of vacuolar proteases, has remained unidentified. In a series of subsequent studies, a range of polyphosphatase activities were found in the cytosol, vacuoles, nucleus, mitochondria (membrane and lumen) and the cell envelope [35, 36,

51]. The partially purified enzymes differed by molecular weight and by their sensitivities to inhibitors. Unfortunately, the genes coding for the described activities have not yet been identified, precluding studies of the role of these enzymes. These results suggest that even in yeast not all enzymes of polyP metabolism are known. The advancing bioinformatics methods might facilitate identification of the remaining polyP enzymes in yeast and suggest candidates for the polyP metabolism machinery in higher organisms. A recent study proposed that a positively-charged semi-tunnel might be a common feature of polyP-binding proteins and offered a way to search for enzymes interacting with polyP in the absence of clear sequence homologies [52].

Conclusions and outlook

The number of proteins directly implicated in the synthesis and degradation of polyP in yeast keeps increasing. Vacuolar polyP constitutes the major pool and may be regarded as a simple phosphate storage tool, but we have virtually no information as to how its synthesis and degradation are regulated. This is particularly intriguing because polyphosphatases such as Ppn1 reside in the same compartment as the polyP that they degrade. Since the synthesis and degradation of polyP depend on phosphate availability, we should expect that cellular phosphate concentration is communicated to enzymes metabolizing polyP. Elucidating how this regulation is implemented is a major challenge for the future. A further field holding promises for interesting discoveries concerns the roles of polyP outside its acidocalcisome-like storage organelles, for example in the nucleus, the cytosol or in mitochondria. Recent results have provided fascinating new insights into the role of polyphosphorylation as a post-translational protein modification that can regulate protein-protein interactions in the nucleus. Exploring how these modifications are synthesized and removed may open a completely novel perspective on cellular regulation and signal transduction. Finally, novel roles for secreted polyP are emerging and begin to add interesting twists to the regulation of blood clotting, bone formation and inflammation in mammals, where the systems for polyP synthesis and degradation have remained essentially unexplored. The most exciting period of polyP research lies clearly ahead of us.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Schematic representation of yeast enzymes involved in polyP metabolism.

In the yeast cell, polyP is mainly accumulated inside the vacuole, but small pools are found also in the cytosol, nucleus and mitochondria. The VTC complex (yeast polyP polymerase) exists as two different sub-complexes that are localised on the vacuole membrane and in the cell periphery – most likely on the membranes of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and nuclear envelope. The known enzymes of polyP degradation are indicated: the exopolyphosphatase Ppx1 processively degrades polyP chains by cleaving phosphate residues one-by-one from the end of the chain; the endopolyphosphatases Ppn1 and Ddp1 cleave polyP chains in the middle to produce the shorter chains. Unidentified enzymes for which an activity has been found are indicated by question marks. PP-InsPP – inositol pyrophosphate, the dashed lines indicate the regulation of polyP synthesis by PP-InsP by yet unidentified mechanism.

Tables

Table 1. Yeast enzymes of polyP metabolism and their homologs described in the present review.

Protein	Organism	Function	NCBI gene ID	References
ScVtc1	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	accessory subunit of polyP polymerase	856803	[11, 22]
ScVtc2	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	accessory subunit of polyP polymerase	850544	[11, 22]
ScVtc3	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	accessory subunit of polyP polymerase	856088	[11, 22]
ScVtc4	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	catalytic subunit of polyP polymerase	853441	[11, 22]
TbVtc4	<i>Trypanosoma brucei</i>	catalytic subunit of polyP polymerase	3665506	[27]
TcVtc4	<i>Trypanosoma cruzi</i>	catalytic subunit of polyP polymerase	XM_824191 (Genebank)	[28]
CrVtc1	<i>Chlamydomonas reinhardtii</i>	vacuolar transport chaperone-like protein	Cre12.g510250	[30]
TpVtc4	<i>Thalassiosira pseudonana</i>	vacuolar transport chaperone-like protein	estExt_gwp_gw1.C_chr_240033	[29]
ScPpx1	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	exopolyphosphatase	856608	[31, 50]
h-prune	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	exopolyphosphatase	58497	[7]
ScPpn1	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	endopolyphosphatase	852063	[39, 40]
ScDdp1	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	endopolyphosphatase/ diadenosine hexaphosphate hydrolase/ diphosphoinositol polyphosphate phosphohydrolase	854334	[46-48]