

**IDENTIFICATION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF *APPI*-ENCODED
PHOSPHATIDATE PHOSPHATASE IN *SACCHAROMYCES CEREVISIAE***

by

MINJUNG CHAE

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Identification and Characterization of *APP1*-encoded Phosphatidate Phosphatase in

Saccharomyces cerevisiae

By MINJUNG CHAE

Dissertation Director:
Dr. George M. Carman

Phosphatidate phosphatase (PAP) catalyzes the dephosphorylation of phosphatidate to yield diacylglycerol. In the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, PAP activity is encoded by *PAH1*, *DPP1*, and *LPP1*. The presence of PAP activity in the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* triple mutant indicated another gene(s) encoding the enzyme. I purified PAP activity from the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* triple mutant by salt-extraction of mitochondria, followed by chromatography with DE52, Affi-Gel Blue, phenyl-Sepharose, MonoQ, and Superdex 200. Liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry analysis of a PAP-enriched sample revealed multiple putative phosphatases. By analysis of PAP activity in mutants lacking each of the proteins, I found that *APP1*, a gene whose molecular function has been unknown, confers ~30 % PAP activity of wild type cells. The overexpression of *APP1* in the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant exhibited a 10-fold increase in PAP activity. The PAP activity shown by App1p that was heterologously expressed in *Escherichia coli* confirmed that *APP1* is the structural gene for the enzyme. Introduction of the *app1Δ* mutation into the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant resulted in a complete loss of PAP activity, indicating that the enzyme in *S. cerevisiae* is encoded by *APP1*, *PAH1*, *DPP1*, and *LPP1*.

Protein A-tagged App1p PAP was expressed and purified from *S. cerevisiae*. The App1p PAP activity followed saturation kinetics with respect to the molar concentration of phosphatidic acid (PA) ($K_m = 0.5$ mM) but followed positive cooperative (Hill number of ~2.3) kinetics with

respect to the surface concentration of PA ($K_m = 2.0$ mol %) in Triton X-100/PA mixed micelles. The App1p also exhibited lysoPA phosphatase and diacylglycerol pyrophosphate phosphatase activities. The order of substrate preference was phosphatidic acid > diacylglycerol pyrophosphate > lysoPA. The maximum PAP activity was dependent on Mg^{2+} ions at pH 7.5 at 30 °C. The activation energy for the reaction was 16.5 kcal/mol, and the enzyme was labile above 40 °C. The App1p PAP activity was inhibited by Ca^{2+} , Mn^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , *N*-ethylmaleimide, propranolol, nucleotides, diacylglycerol, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylcholine, and sphinganine, while lysoPA, cardiolipin, phosphatidylglycerol, phosphatidylserine, sphingosine and sphingosine 1-phosphate stimulated the activity. Lipid analysis of cells lacking the PAP genes, singly or in combination, showed that Pah1p is the only PAP involved in the synthesis of triacylglycerol as well as in the regulation of phospholipid synthesis. App1p, which shows interactions with endocytic proteins, may play a role in vesicular trafficking through its PAP activity.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CDP-DAG	cytidine diphosphate diacylglycerol
CL	Cardiolipin
CMP	cytidine monophosphate
CTP	cytidine triphosphate
DAG	Diacylglycerol
DGK	diacylglycerol kinase
DGPP	diacylglycerol pyrophosphate
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
ER	endoplasmic reticulum
GTP	guanosine triphosphate
HAD	haloacid dehalogenase
Ins	Inositol
kDa	kilo Daltons
LPA	lysoPA
LPP	lipid phosphate phosphatase
NEM	<i>N</i> -ethylmaleimide
PA	phosphatidic acid
PAP	phosphatidate phosphatase
PC	phosphatidylcholine
PE	phosphatidylethanolamine
PG	phosphatidylglycerol
PI	phosphatidylinositol

Pi	inorganic phosphate
PL	Phospholipid
proPr	propranolol
PS	phosphatidylserine
PVDF	polyvinylidene difluoride
SC	synthetic complete
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulfate
TAG	Triacylglycerol
TTP	thymidine triphosphate
UAS _{INO}	upstream activating sequence, inositol responsive element
UTP	uridine triphosphate

INTRODUCTION

Biological membranes are an essential component of cells (1). They consist of lipid bilayers where proteins are associated by noncovalent interactions to form a flexible and hydrophobic layer around the cell and their organelles (1). Cell membrane functions as selective barriers by protecting the cells from the external environment and maintaining the cell integrity (2, 3). Communications between cells through the transduction of molecular signals by proteins embedded on the cell surface are other important functions of membranes (2, 3). The budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* has been extensively studied for cellular membranes because of its similarity to higher eukaryotes (4, 5, 6). Moreover, feasibility of genetic manipulation (recombination) was a strong advantage of using the yeast as a model organism (2, 7). Of course, another advantage of yeast is its ease of growth and short time of generation, thus allowing the isolation of large amounts of cells for biochemical studies (5, 8).

Phospholipids are the most abundant class of membrane lipids, and, therefore, intimately linked to cellular growth (1). Phospholipid functions as macromolecule precursors, protein-membrane associations, molecular chaperones and reservoirs of lipid signaling molecules (9, 10, 11, 4). The crucial roles of phospholipids in cells are highly conserved from bacteria to humans (5). Phospholipids are essential amphipathic molecules composed of a glycerol molecule, two fatty acyl chains, and a hydrophilic head group (2, 3). The most abundant phospholipid found in yeast membranes are PC, PE, PS, and PI (Fig. 1) (2, 5, 6, 10, 12, 13). These phospholipids contain the head groups choline, ethanolamine, serine, and inositol, which are attached to the phosphate group of the third carbon of the glycerol backbone (2, 3, 11). All phospholipids share a common structure, where the common fatty acids esterified to the glycerol backbone are palmitic acid (16:0), palmitoleic acid (16:1 $\Delta^{9,10}$), stearic acid (18:0) and oleic acid (18:1 $\Delta^{9,10}$) in yeast (10).

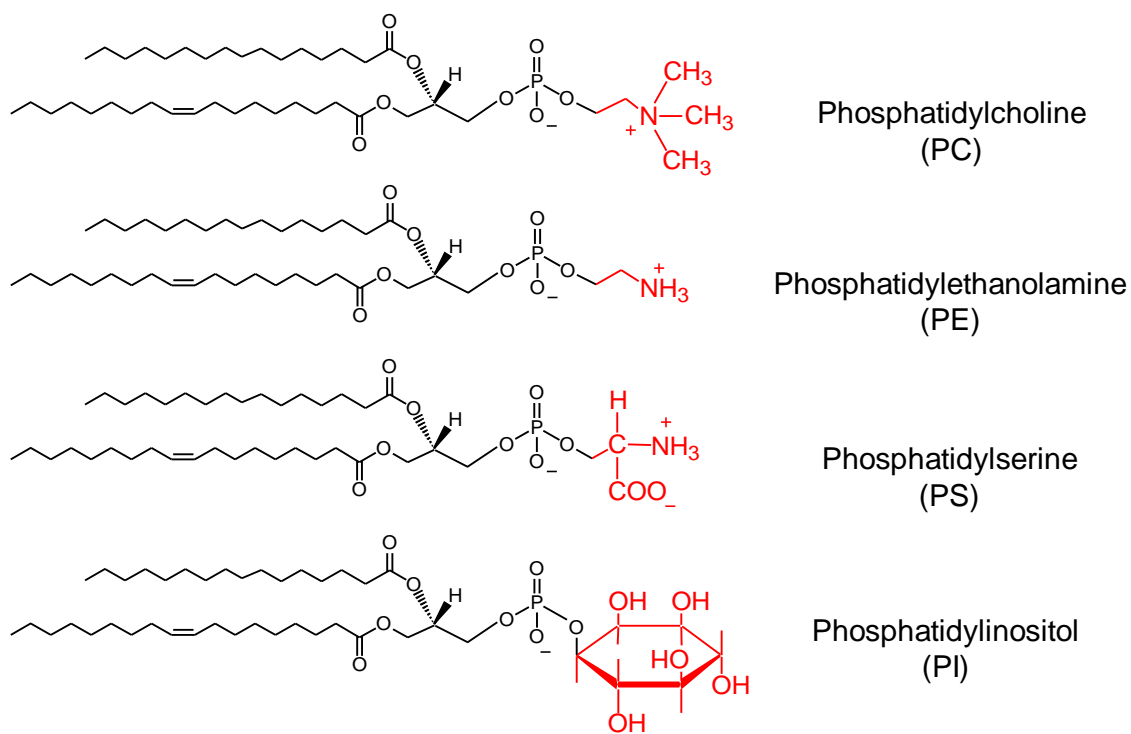


FIGURE 1. Major Phospholipids in *S. cerevisiae*.

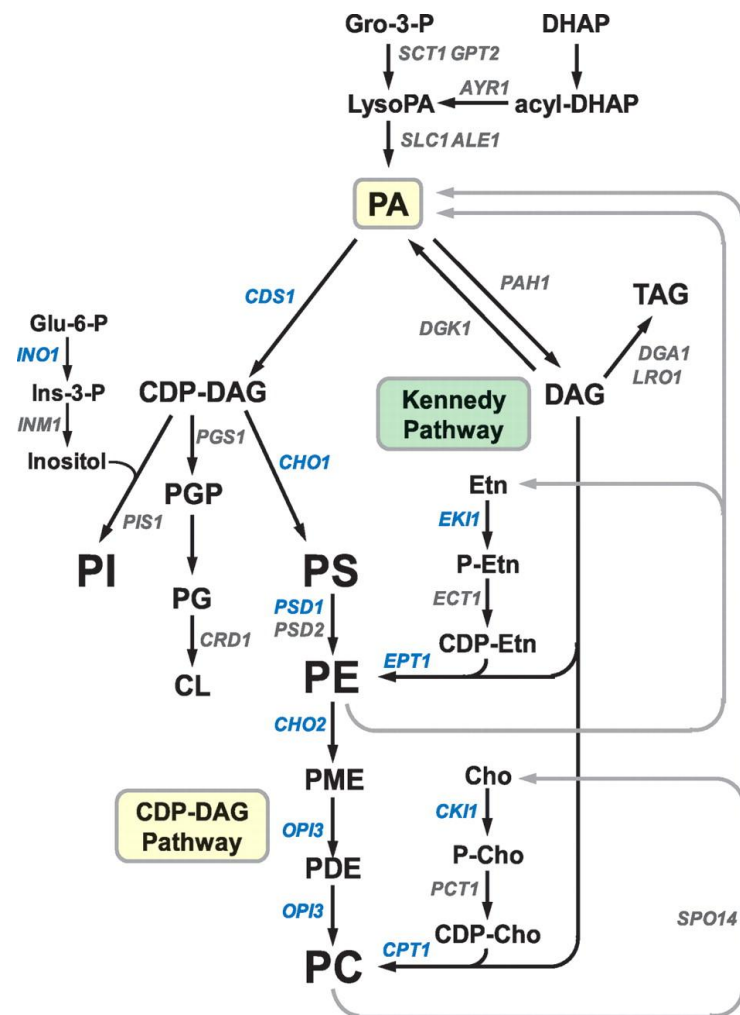
Phospholipid Biosynthetic Pathways

There are two pathways involved in the synthesis of the major phospholipid in yeast, the CDP-DAG pathway and the Kennedy pathway (Fig. 2) (10, 11). The major phospholipids PS, PE and PC are synthesized from PA via the CDP-DAG pathway (Fig. 2). In the CDP-DAG pathway, Cds1p CDP-DAG synthase catalyzes the formation of energy-rich intermediate CDP-DAG from PA and CTP (14, 15). The CMP in CDP-DAG is replaced by serine to form PS by Cho1p PS synthase (16-19). After decarboxylating reactions catalyzed by Psd1p and Psd2p PS decarboxylase, PS is converted to PE (16, 20-23). PC is finally synthesized through three sequential methylations of PE, catalyzed by the Pem1p/Cho2p PE methyltransferase and Pem2p/Opi3p phospholipid methyltransferase (24-27).

DAG generated from PA by the PAP reaction is utilized for the synthesis of PE and PC via the CDP-choline and CDP-ethanolamine branches of the Kennedy pathway (Fig. 2). Choline (28) and ethanolamine (29) are first phosphorylated by Cki1p choline kinase and Eki1p ethanolamine kinase to form PC and PE, respectively. These intermediates are activated by CTP to form CDP-choline and CDP-ethanolamine, which are catalyzed by Pct1p phosphocholine cytidyltransferases and Ect1p phosphoethanolamine cytidyltransferases, respectively (30, 31). The reactions of phospholipid synthesis in yeast are very similar to those in higher eukaryotes except the synthesis of PS. The PS is synthesized from CDP-DAG and serine in yeast, while, in higher eukaryotes, PS is formed via exchange reaction between PE and serine or PC or between PC and serine (32).

CDP-DAG is a key branch point in phospholipid biosynthesis (14, 15). The CDP-DAG pathway is used for the synthesis of PE and PC when yeast cells are grown in the absence of ethanolamine or choline, respectively (5, 12). When the cell is supplemented with exogenous choline and ethanolamine, PC and PE are primarily synthesized by the Kennedy pathway (5, 12).

FIGURE 2. Phospholipid Biosynthesis in *S. cerevisiae*. The CDP-DAG, CDP-choline, and CDP-ethanolamine pathways are shown for the synthesis of phospholipids, and include the relevant steps discussed throughout. The genes that are known to encode enzymes catalyzing individual steps in the lipid synthesis pathway are indicated. UAS_{INO}-containing genes that are subject to inositol regulation are highlighted in blue. P-Etn, phosphoethanolamine; P-Cho, phosphocholine. Taken from Carman and Han 2009 (33).



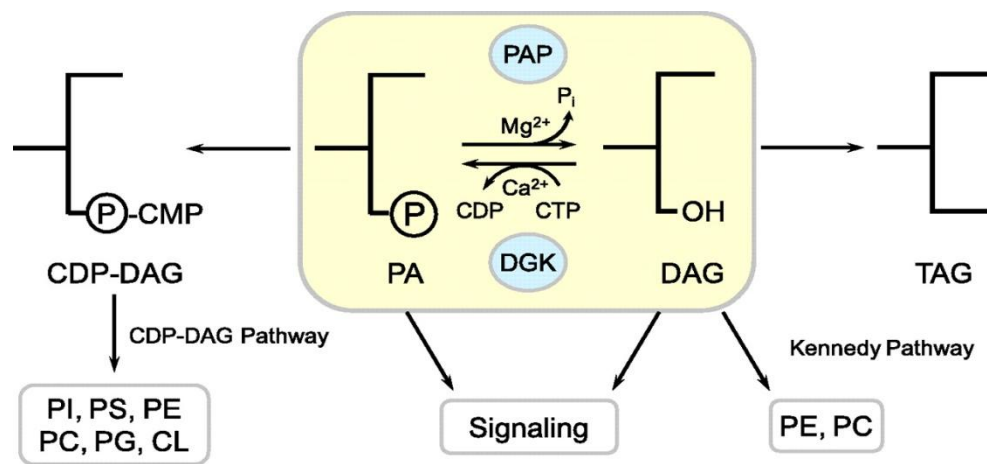
However, the Kennedy pathway still can contribute to the synthesis of PE and PC in the absence of ethanolamine or choline, because they can be generated through the phospholipase D-mediated turnover of PE and PC synthesized via CDP-DAG (34-37). The Kennedy pathway shows a critical role in PC synthesis in mutants defective in enzymes involved in the CDP-DAG pathway (6, 12, 34, 38, 39). Mutants in this pathway require choline or ethanolamine for growth (38, 39). However, Kennedy pathway mutants do not exhibit any auxotrophic requirements, unlike mutants defective in the CDP-DAG pathway (21, 26, 27, 37).

CDP-DAG is also used for the synthesis of PI, PG and CL (Fig. 2) (6, 40). The CMP of CDP-DAG can be replaced by inositol to form PI by *Pis1p* PI synthase. The inositol used for the PI synthase is derived from glucose-6-phosphate, which is converted to inositol-3-phosphate by *Ino1p* inositol-3-phosphate synthase, and subsequently to inositol by *Inm1p* inositol phosphatase (11, 40-43). PG and CL are confined to the mitochondrial membranes (6, 40). The synthesis of CL is catalyzed by the *Pgs1p* PGP synthase, which synthesizes PGP by displacement of the CMP of CDP-DAG with glycerol-3-phosphate (44, 45). PGP is then dephosphorylated by PGP phosphatase to synthesize PG (39), which is further catalyzed by *Crd1p* CL synthase to form CL (1).

Importance of PAP in Yeast

PAP catalyzes the dephosphorylation of PA, yielding DAG and inorganic phosphate (Fig. 3) (12, 46, 47). PA is the simplest membrane phospholipid that serves as a central intermediate for the synthesis of membrane lipids and storage lipids (3, 48). PA is produced from glycerol-3-phosphate by two successive acyltransferase reactions, and also generated by the action of phospholipase D from PC (3, 49). PA serves as a precursor for the formation of CDP-DAG by CDP-DAG synthase and DAG by PAP (Fig. 3) (11).

FIGURE 3. Roles of PAP in Lipid Synthesis. The reaction catalyzed by the Pah1p PAP enzyme is highlighted and its roles in lipid synthesis depicted. Taken from Carman and Han 2008 (50).



As discussed above, DAG is a precursor for membrane phospholipids such as PC and PE by the Kennedy pathway and it is also used to make TAG (28-32, 50, 51). In addition, CDP-DAG pathway also serves in the synthesis of all membrane phospholipids through the intermediate CDP-DAG (14, 15). Thus, regulation of PAP activity is important to determine whether the cells make storage lipids through DAG or phospholipids through CDP-DAG (50, 51).

PAP enzymes have roles in the generation or degradation of lipid signaling molecules in eukaryotic cells, as well as the synthesis of lipids (49-54). In the lipid signaling, PAP generates a pool of DAG used for protein kinase C activation (52-54). In addition, PAP activity can attenuate the signaling function of PA, which includes promoting cell growth and proliferation, vesicular trafficking, secretion and endocytosis (32, 50-53). In addition, PAP is involved in the transcriptional regulation of phospholipid synthesis (50, 51). Genetic and biochemical studies in yeast and mammalian cells have revealed PAP as a major regulator of lipid metabolism and cell physiology (33, 50, 51)

Importance of PA and DAG in Lipid Signaling on the Vesicle Formation

Although the bulk of cellular PA is synthesized via acylation pathways, PA is also generated via other types of lipid-modifying enzymes on a much faster time scale, which pathway serves to produce PA that functions in a signaling molecule controlling cell biological processes. There are two major families of enzymes involved in generation of PA during signaling events — Phospholipase D hydrolyzes PC to yield choline and PA, and DAG kinase (DGK) phosphorylates DAG to generate PA (55). Conversely, PA can be converted into DAG through dephosphorylation, via the action of PAP.

Both in yeast and in mammals, DAG is a simple and small sized signal-transducing lipid which is required for protein transport from the Golgi complex to the cell surface. DAG acts in the *trans*-Golgi network as a membrane acceptor for the protein kinase D, mediated by the

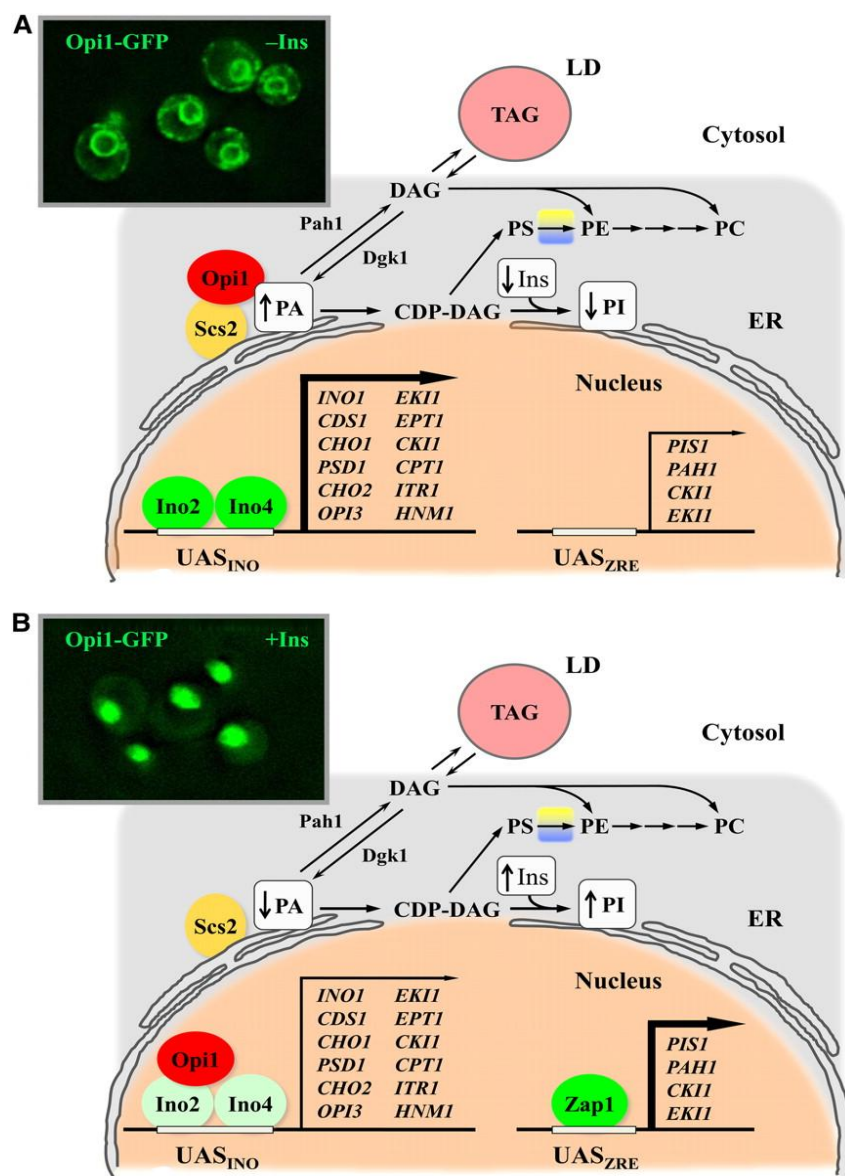
binding of its C1 domain (56). DAG also promotes the Golgi membrane targeting and activation of other C1 domain-containing signaling molecules such as other protein kinase C isoforms (57-59). The structure of DAG has a pronounced cone shape due to an electrically neutral polar head, explaining its capacity to undergo rapid transbilayer movement. Thus, DAG may induce membrane bending and facilitate the formation of highly curved membrane intermediates, thereby enhancing membrane constriction (60) and fusion (61). PA has special biophysical properties by providing a docking site for interfacial insertion of positively charged membrane protein domains (62, 63). Thus, a PA-DAG interconversion cycle could be crucial for final membrane constriction/fission of coated/noncoated transport vesicles.

Importance of PA Levels in Transcriptional Regulation of Phospholipid Synthesis

PAP is involved in the transcriptional regulation of phospholipid synthesis by controlling the PA levels on the nuclear/ER membrane (64). The UAS_{INO} element, which contains a 10 base pair consensus sequence (5'-CATGTGAAAT-3'), has been identified by sequence inspection of the promoter of several genes that are responsive to inositol and choline (5, 65). This sequence is known as inositol-sensitive upstream activating sequence (UAS_{INO}) or an inositol choline responsive element (ICRE). The regulation of phospholipid synthesis genes is dependent on the transcriptional regulatory proteins Ino2p, Ino4p, Opi1p, and UAS_{INO} elements present in the promoters of the phospholipid synthesis genes (Fig. 4) (66, 67). Ino2p-Ino4p heterodimer complex activates the transcription of phospholipid synthesis genes by binding to the UAS_{INO} elements (6, 10, 68). The first 6 bases of UAS_{INO} elements serves as the binding site of the Ino2p-Ino4p heterodimer, and substitution of these sites can completely eliminate or severely reduce the transcriptional activation (69, 70). The activation of transcription by Ino2p-Ino4p is repressed by Opi1p, which binds to Ino2p (Fig. 4) (64). Opi1p binds PA and the Scs2p protein at the nuclear/endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane, which block its repressor function in the nucleus

FIGURE 4. Model for the Opi1p-Mediated Regulation of Phospholipid Biosynthetic Genes.

(A) In exponential phase and/or inositol depleted conditions under which the levels of PA are relatively high, the Opi1p repressor is tethered to the nuclear/ER membrane, and UAS_{INO}-containing genes are maximally expressed (boldface arrow) by the Ino2p-Ino4p activator complex. (Inset) Localization of Opi1p, fused with GFP at its C-terminal end and integrated into the chromosome, being expressed under its own promoter in live cells growing logarithmically in synthetic complete medium lacking inositol (–Ins) and analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. (B) In stationary phase and/or inositol supplementation under which the levels of PA are reduced, Opi1p dissociates from the nuclear/ER membrane, and enters into the nucleus where it binds to Ino2p and attenuates (thin arrow) transcriptional activation by the Ino2p–Ino4p complex. (Inset) Localization of Opi1p, as described in A, except that the cells are growing logarithmically in medium containing 75 μ M inositol. PA level decreases by the stimulation of PI synthesis in response to inositol (+Ins) supplementation. The regulation in response to stationary phase occurs without inositol supplementation. Pah1p and Dgk1p play important roles in controlling PA content and transcriptional regulation of UAS_{INO}-containing genes. Taken from Henry and Carman 2012 (66).



(71-73). Upon reduction of PA levels, Opi1p is released from the nuclear/ER membrane and enters the nucleus (72), where it interacts with Ino2p and represses transcription. Since the PAP activity controls PA levels at the nuclear/ER membrane, its regulation is an important factor that controls the Opi1p-mediated regulation of UAS_{INO}-containing genes.

The maximal expression of UAS_{INO}-containing genes occurs during exponential phase in the absence of inositol and choline, while they are repressed in the stationary phase, even, in the absence of inositol (74). This repression leads to a decrease in the activities of the phospholipid biosynthetic enzymes in the route PA to PC, leading to divert PA to TAG at the expense of total phospholipid synthesis (74, 75). When the inositol is supplemented to the growth medium, the level of PA is reduced through the utilization of CDP-DAG to synthesize PI (76) because inositol exhibits allosteric inhibition of the Cho1p PS synthase (77), leading to the activation of the Pis1p PI synthase (73). The decreased PA levels cause Opi1p to be released from the nuclear/ER membrane and its translocation into the nucleus and consequently repress UAS_{INO}-containing genes (72).

Differentiation of PAP Enzymes

PAP was first described in chickens by Smith *et al.* in 1957 (78). The discovery of PAP completed the well-known scheme of glycerolipids biosynthetic pathway by providing a link between the neutral lipids and phospholipid synthesis pathways in mammalian cells. Due to the instability of the mammalian enzyme, the isolation of PAP remained elusive for more than three decades. The enzymes known for PAP are differentiated by their cofactor requirement for its catalytic activity. Besides the difference in their cofactor requirement, these enzymes are distinguished by NEM sensitivity and catalytic motifs.

Cofactor Requirement

Mg²⁺-independent PAP

One of the Mg²⁺-independent PAP activities in yeast was purified 33,333-fold from *S. cerevisiae* as an enzyme that catalyzes the dephosphorylation of DGPP (79). Its purification procedure included Triton X-100 solubilization of microsomal membranes, followed by chromatography with DE53, Affi-Gel Blue, hydroxylapatite, and MonoQ (79). The procedure resulted in the isolation of an apparent homogeneous protein with a subunit molecular mass of 34 kDa. The enzyme catalyzed the dephosphorylation of the β -phosphate of DGPP to form PA, and subsequently dephosphorylation of PA to produce DAG. Thus, the enzyme was termed DGPP phosphatase (79). Although the DGPP phosphatase enzyme utilized PA as substrate in the absence of DGPP, DGPP was the preferred substrate for the enzyme with a specificity constant (V_{max}/K_m) 10-fold greater than that for PA (80). Amino acid sequence information derived from DGPP phosphatase was used to identify and isolate the *DPPI* (diacylglycerol pyrophosphate phosphatase) gene encoding the enzyme (80). *LPPI* (lipid phosphate phosphatase) gene has been identified by the sequence information of *DPPI* (80).

Dpp1p (80) and Lpp1p (81) PAP enzymes are integral membrane proteins with six transmembrane spanning regions (80, 81), and the majority of PAP activity in yeast is attributed to the Dpp1p enzyme (82). Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP enzymes have the molecular mass of 34 and 32 kDa, respectively, and are localized in the vacuole and Golgi, respectively (80, 81). Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP enzymes have broad substrate specificity. In addition to PA, the Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP enzymes use various lipid phosphate substrates, including DGPP, LPA, sphingoid base phosphates and isoprenoid phosphates (80, 81). However, only DGPP and PA have shown to be substrates *in vivo* (81). The Dpp1p enzyme shows a preference for DGPP as a substrate (80), whereas the Lpp1p enzyme has similar substrate specificity for both PA and DGPP (81). The substrate specificity of the Dpp1p and Lpp1p suggests that these enzymes are involved in

signaling events rather than in phospholipid synthesis (49, 83). Moreover, Dpp1p and/or Lpp1p, which localize in the vacuole and Golgi, respectively, are not responsible for the *de novo* synthesis of phospholipid and TAG that occurs presumably in the ER (51). The mutant lacking *DPPI* and *LPPI* genes shows normal growth and morphology without any defects, indicating that the Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP are not required for cell viability (82).

Mg²⁺-dependent PAP

Hosaka *et al.* (84) reported that Mg²⁺-dependent PAP was first identified and partially purified from the soluble fraction about 600-fold in yeast. The purification procedure included (NH₄)₂SO₄ fractionation, poly (ethylene glycol) 6000 fractionation and chromatography on DEAE-Sepharose, Sephadex G-100 and Blue-Sepharose. The purified enzyme was dependent on Mg²⁺ ions for the activity. The molecular mass of the enzyme was estimated to approximately 75 kDa by analytical gel filtration on Sephadex G-100. The enzyme is specific for PA with an apparent K_m for 0.05 mM (84).

In 1989, the purification of the membrane associated PAP in yeast was reported the procedure included sodium cholate solubilization of total membranes followed by chromatography with DE53, Affi-gel Blue, hydroxylapatite, MonoQ, and Superose 12 (7). The purification resulted in the isolation of a homogeneous protein with a subunit molecular mass of 91 kDa (7). PAP activity was dependent on Mg²⁺ ions and Triton X-100 at pH 7, and was sensitive to thioreactive reagents. The K_m for PA was 50 μ M, and the V_{max} was 30 μ mol/min/mg (7). Additionally, immunoblot analysis of cell extracts using antibodies specific for the 91 kDa form of membrane-associated PAP revealed the existence of 45-kDa form of PAP, and the study also showed that the 91 kDa form of PAP is the proteolytic product of a 104 kDa protein (85). The 45 and 104 kDa enzymes were isolated from mitochondria and microsome, respectively (85).

In 2006, a gene, *PAH1*, encoding Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP in yeast was identified through a reverse genetic approach by mass spectrometry analysis of the amino acid sequence derived from a purified preparation of the 91 kDa enzyme (86). The deduced sequence matched that of previously known as *SMP2*, which has been implicated in plasmid maintenance and respiration (87). Upon identification of the protein product as a PAP, the gene was renamed *PAH1* (phosphatidic acid phosphohydrolase). The *PAH1* is localized on chromosome XIII and does not have any sequence motifs suggesting introns in the gene (86). The Pah1p PAP shows that the enzymological properties of recombinant Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP predicted size of 95 kDa are very similar to those of 91 kDa Mg^{2+} -dependent enzyme previously purified from yeast (7, 86).

Pah1p found in the cytosolic and membrane fractions of the cell, and the membrane bound form of the enzymes is salt extractable, indicating its peripheral nature (51, 86). The monomeric Pah1p is a 95 kDa protein that migrates upon SDS-PAGE as a 124 kDa protein (51, 86). Smaller molecular mass forms (e.g., 91 kDa) of PAP purified from yeast appear to be proteolytic products of the enzyme (86). Unlike the Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP, the Pah1p PAP is specific for PA, The Pah1p PAP has been identified to contribute a major regulation of PA content among the enzymes (eg., LPA acyltransferase, CDP-DAG synthase, PAP, DAG kinase, phospholipase D) that control the metabolism of PA (51). Lipid analysis shows that the mutant lacking *PAH1* (*pah1Δ* mutant) accumulates PA and has reduced amounts of DAG and its acylated derivative TAG (86). In addition, the *pah1Δ* mutation affects the contents of the major phospholipids, PC, PE and PI, sterol esters, and fatty acids, indicating PAP controls the regulation of overall lipid synthesis (86). The effects of the *pah1Δ* mutation on phospholipid composition are most pronounced in exponential phase, but its effect is not as great in stationary phase. Interestingly, the effects on the contents of TAG and other neutral lipids are more dramatic in stationary phase (86). The loss of PAP activity in stationary phase cells resulted in more than a 90% decrease in TAG content (86). Along with the change in lipid synthesis, the *pah1Δ* mutant

exhibits the massive expansion of the nuclear/ER membrane and abnormally high expression of key phospholipid biosynthetic genes (i.e., *INO1* involved in PI synthesis, and *OPI3* involved in PC synthesis) (88). In the *pah1Δ* mutant, PA levels are elevated and tethers Opi1p at nuclear/ER membrane along with Scs2 and prevents its translocation into the nucleus, where it functions to repress transcription of phospholipid synthesis genes (14). Thus, PA content at the nuclear/ER membrane is an important factor that controls the Opi1p-mediated regulation of UAS_{INO}-containing gene expression (14). In addition, the *pah1Δ* mutant presents slow growth (86), temperature sensitivity (86), respiratory deficiency (86, 89), defects in lipid droplet formation (90) and morphology (91), vacuole homeostasis and fusion (92), and fatty acid induced lipotoxicity (93).

Thioreactive Sensitivity and Catalytic Motifs

The study of sensitivity to the thioreactive compound NEM indicates that the Dpp1p and Pah1p enzyme is insensitive to NEM (80) while the Lpp1p enzyme is sensitive to NEM (81, 86). Sequence information indicates that NEM-sensitive enzymes have more cysteine residues than NEM-insensitive one. For example, Lpp1p contains ten cysteine residues, while Dpp1p and Pah1p contain only three (51).

The catalytic motifs that govern the phosphatase reactions of these enzymes are different. The Pah1p PAP enzyme has a DXDXT catalytic motif present in a haloacid dehalogenase (HAD)-like domain, which is found in a superfamily of Mg²⁺-dependent phosphatase enzymes (94, 95). Its first aspartate residue is responsible for binding the phosphate moiety in the phosphatase reaction (33). However, the Dpp1p and Lpp1p enzymes have a three domain lipid phosphatase motif that is localized to the hydrophilic surface of the membrane (96). A superfamily of Mg²⁺-independent LPP have conserved motifs consisting of the consensus sequence KXXXXXXRP (domain 1), PSGH (domain 2), and SRXXXXHXXXD (domain 3) (96). The conserved arginine

residue in domain 1 and the conserved histidine residue in domain 2 and 3 are critical for the catalytic activity of the Dpp1p and Lpp1p enzymes (97).

Regulation of PAP Enzymes

PAP enzymes have roles in the synthesis of lipids and the generation or degradation of lipid signaling molecules in eukaryotic cells (51). In addition, PAP is involved in the transcriptional regulation of phospholipid synthesis (64). As discussed on the *pah1Δ* mutant phenotype, accumulation of PA and reduction of DAG is toxic to cell. A balanced level of PA and DAG mediated by the Pah1p PAP activity must be achieved to maintain lipid homeostasis and normal cell physiology. In view of the variety of cellular processes in which PA and DAG play a role, the regulation of PAP activity is crucial and complex, being controlled by genetic and biochemical mechanisms.

Genetic Regulation of PAP

The expression of the Pah1p PAP activity is affected by intracellular levels of zinc (98). Since zinc serves as a cofactor for numerous enzymes (99, 100) and structural component of many proteins (99, 101, 102), the tight control of intracellular zinc levels is accomplished by the action of zinc transporters located in the plasma, vacuole, ER, and mitochondrial membranes (102-112). A deficiency in zinc changes the phospholipid composition mediated by an induction in the expression of many of zinc transporters, which is a result from the transcriptional regulation of various phospholipid synthesis genes (64, 113-115). The *PAH1* expression is induced in response to zinc depletion in a Zap1p-dependent manner through its interaction with zinc-responsive upstream activating (UAS_{ZRE}) sequences in the *PAH1* promoter (99). This induction correlates with an increase in Pah1p PAP activity and elevated TAG levels (99).

Biochemical Regulation of PAP

Maximum Pah1p PAP is dependent on MgCl_2 (1 mM) and non-ionic detergent Triton X-100 at pH 7.5 (86, 116). The Triton X-100 forms a mixed micelle which provides a favorable environment for catalysis (7, 117, 118). Thus, PAP activity is dependent on the molar (e.g., number of micelles containing substrate) and surface (e.g., number of PA molecules on the micelle surface) concentration of PA (116), which is indicative of surface dilution kinetics (116). By this mechanism, PAP binds to micelle surface before binding its substrate and catalyzes its dephosphorylation, which is relevant *in vivo* since PAP is presumed to associate with PA at the ER/nuclear membrane. The PAP enzyme is specific for PA, and exhibits positive cooperative kinetics with respect to the surface concentration of PA (50, 86).

Phospholipid synthesized through CDP-DAG, including CDP-DAG, PI and CL, which act as mixed competitive activators of PAP activity, stimulates the Pah1p PAP activity (50, 118). Since PA is partitioned between CDP-DAG and DAG, and CDP-DAG is precursor for PI and CL, the activation of PAP activity by CDP-DAG, PI and CL, would favor PE and PC synthesis and TAG synthesis through DAG. Simultaneously, the activation of PAP activity lowers PA content, leading to repression of UAS_{INO} -containing genes that encode enzymes for phospholipid synthesis via CDP-DAG (33, 64). On the other hand, PAP activity is inhibited by the sphingoid bases sphingosine, phytosphingosine, and sphinganine (119) in parabolic competitive manner, indicating that more than one inhibitor molecule contribute to the exclusion of PA from the enzyme (50). This inhibition causes an increased PA contents, stimulating phospholipid synthesis through the activation of UAS_{INO} -containing genes (50).

Cellular ATP and CTP levels are correlated with synthesis of phospholipid and TAG. The nucleotide ATP and CTP, which are precursors for the synthesis of phospholipid, inhibit PAP activity (42, 66). Kinetic studies show that ATP and CTP are competitive inhibitors with respect to Mg^{2+} ions, indicating that the mechanism is based on the chelation of the cofactor (120).

Moreover, cellular ATP and CTP levels correlate with synthesis of phospholipids and TAG (120). A high level of ATP resulted in an increased level of PA and phospholipid synthesis, while low level of ATP favored a reduced level of PA and an increase in the synthesis of TAG (120). A high level of CTP caused an increase of PA and thus resulted in derepression of UAS_{INO}-containing phospholipid synthesis genes (121).

Regulation of PAP by Phosphorylation/Dephosphorylation

A reversible covalent modification of a protein by phosphorylation is a common posttranslational modification to regulate its biological function (3). Phosphorylation is catalyzed by protein kinases, which recognize a specific consensus motif and transfers the γ -phosphate group from ATP to the target proteins (48, 122). The addition of a bulky and charged phosphate group in an enzyme could change its activity, subcellular localization, protein stability, as well as its interaction with other proteins (48, 123-125)

Biochemical analysis showed that the phosphorylated PAP is a substrate for Nem1p-Spo7p protein phosphatase complex (88). Since Nem1p-Spo7p protein complex is localized in the nuclear/ER membrane, phosphorylated PAP is recruited to membrane for its dephosphorylation. Cells lacking either Nem1p or Spo7p phosphatase complex resulted the same aberrant nuclear/ER membrane expansion phenotype exhibited by the *pah1* Δ mutation (88, 126), indicating that physiological functions of PAP require this protein phosphatase complex.

PAP is subject to the covalent modification of phosphorylation (127). Mass spectrometry analysis of purified PAP has identified multiple (i.e.) 14 sites of phosphorylation (126). Of these, seven sites (Ser¹¹⁰, Ser¹¹⁴, Ser¹⁶⁸, Ser⁶⁰², Thr⁷²³, Ser⁷⁴⁴, and Ser⁷⁴⁸) are contained within the minimal Ser/Thr-Pro motif that is a target for Pho85p-Pho80p phosphorylation (128) and three of the sites (Ser⁶⁰², Thr⁷²³, and Ser⁷⁴⁴) are also targets of Cdc28p-cyclin B (129). Phosphorylation by pho85p-Pho80p results in a 6-fold reduction in the catalytic efficiency of PAP (V_{max}/K_m), while

activity was not affected by phosphorylation via Cdc28p-cyclin B (129). Recent study shows Pah1p was a *bona fide* substrate for protein kinase A, and five sites (Ser¹⁰, Ser⁶⁷⁷, Ser⁷⁷³, Ser⁷⁷⁴, and Ser⁷⁸⁸) are targets for phosphorylation (130). Protein kinase A-mediated phosphorylation of Pah1p inhibits its PAP activity by decreasing catalytic efficiency (1.8-fold), and the inhibitory effect was primarily conferred by phosphorylation at Ser-10 (130). The protein kinase A-mediated phosphorylation of Ser-10 functions in conjunction with the phosphorylations mediated by Pho85p-Pho80p and Cdc28p-cyclin B and that phospho-Ser-10 should be dephosphorylated for proper PAP function (130). The remaining sites are putative targets for protein kinases, such as protein kinases C, casein kinases I and II, and MAPK, indicating that the regulation of PAP by phosphorylation is complex.

The localization of PAP is affected by phosphorylation of Pho85p-Pho80p and Cdc28p-cyclin B kinase (128, 129). Subcellular fractionation analysis shows that PAP enzyme of the phosphorylation-deficient 7A mutant, where all seven sites within the Ser/Thr-Pro motif are mutated to a nonphosphorylatable alanine, is enriched in the membrane fractions and exhibits elevated PAP activity (129). *In vivo*, expression of the 7A mutant enzyme complements the *pah1Δ nem1Δ* double mutant phenotypes that include temperature sensitivity, nuclear/ER membrane expansion, and derepression of phospholipid synthesis genes (127, 129). Cells lacking the Nem1p-Spo7p complex exhibit reduced TAG due to loss of PAP function, thus indicating lack of phosphorylation of the seven sites renders Pah1p capable of bypassing the Nem1p-Spo7p requirement for *in vivo* function (129).

Lipin Connection

The identification of *PAH1* gene in yeast revealed that its mammalian homologs *Lpin 1*, 2, and 3 encode PAP activity in mammalian cells (50, 86). The Pah1p PAP protein has sequence homology with the lipin-1 in evolutionarily conserved N-terminal domain (NLIP) and HAD-like

domain (50, 86). In addition to its PAP activity, lipin-1 functions as a transcriptional coactivator in the regulation of lipid metabolism gene expression (65). This transcriptional coactivator function is dependent on an LXXIL motif found near the DXDX(T/V) motif but independent of PAP activity (65).

LPIN1, identified by positional cloning, is the gene mutated in the fatty liver dystrophy (*fld*) mouse (131). At that time, the function of lipin-1 was linked to fat metabolism, as lipin-1 deficiency leads to lipodystrophy and insulin resistance, otherwise excess of lipin-1 results in obesity and insulin sensitivity (131-133). In addition, the mice lacking lipin-1 exhibit peripheral neuropathy that is characterized by myelin degradation, Schwann cell differentiation and proliferation, and reduction in nerve conduction velocity (132, 135, 136). The phenotypes are caused by the degradation of myelin through the MEK/ERK signaling pathway that is activated by elevated levels of PA (136). Mutations in the *LPIN1* gene in human are associated with metabolic syndrome, type 2 diabetes, and recurrent acute myoglobinuria in children, whereas mutations in the *LPIN2* gene cause Majeed syndrome associated with anemia and inflammatory disorders (138-140). *LPIN1* expression is required for adipocyte differentiation with the stimulation by glucocorticoids (138-141), otherwise *LPIN2* expression is repressed during adipogenesis. This elucidates that *LPIN1* and *LPIN2* have distinct functions in adipocytes (138). In addition, alternative splicing of mouse *LPIN1* mRNA results in two lipin 1 isoforms (α and β) that may play distinct functions in adipogenesis (134).

Phosphorylation of lipin-1, which influences cellular location, is stimulated by insulin and mediated by the mTOR signaling pathway (141). Lipin-1 is also phosphorylated during the mitotic phase of the cell cycle (138). Phosphorylated forms of lipin-1 are enriched in the cytosolic fraction, whereas the dephosphorylated forms are enriched in the membrane fraction (7, 138, 142). The translocation of lipin-1 from the cytosol to the membrane is essential to its function as a PAP enzyme.

Specific Aims of the Study

In the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant, there is still a remaining Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP in the cytosol and membrane fractions (86). The residual activity is NEM sensitive and salt extractable (86). These data indicate that an additional gene other than *PAH1*, *DPP1*, and *LPP1* encodes a Mg^{2+} -dependent PA phosphatase enzyme in *S. cerevisiae*. The studies into its mode of action and regulation require the identification of the gene and purification of the enzyme. Thus, the specific aim of my study was to identify the gene encoding PAP through a reverse genetics approach using protein sequence information derived from the purified PAP enzyme preparation from the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* triple mutant. Using genetic information, the PAP enzyme was expressed and purified to characterize the enzymological and kinetic properties. Furthermore, the effects of this PAP on the synthesis of TAG and lipid metabolism was examined, leading to define the role of this PAP in the cells.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials

All chemicals were reagent grade. Growth medium supplies were purchased from Difco. Polyvinylidene difluoride membrane, the enhanced chemifluorescence Western blotting detection kit, phenyl-Sepharose CL-4B, MonoQ, Superdex 200 columns, Sepharose Fast-Flow and IgG Sepharose were purchased from GE Healthcare. DE52 (DEAE-cellulose) was purchased from Whatman. Affi-Gel Blue, protein assay reagents, electrophoretic reagents, and protein standards were purchased from Bio-Rad. Radiochemicals were purchased from PerkinElmer Life Sciences. Bovine serum albumin, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, benzamidine, aprotinin, leupeptin, pepstatin, isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactoside, sodium cholate, Triton X-100, Nucleotides, oligonucleotides, ammonium molybdate and molecular mass standards for gel filtration were purchased from Sigma. Lipids were obtained from Avanti Polar Lipids. Silica gel thin layer chromatography plates were from EM Science. Restriction endonucleases, modifying enzymes, and recombinant Vent DNA polymerase were purchased from New England Biolabs. Plasmid isolation and gel extraction kits, Ni^{2+} -NTA agarose resin, spin column were purchased from Qiagen. Invitrogen was the source of the DNA size standards, the yeast deletion consortium strain collection and His₆-tagged tobacco etch virus protease. The Yeast Maker yeast transformation kit was purchased from Clontech. Stratagene supplied the QuickChange site-directed mutagenesis kit. Malachite green was from Fisher. Protease inhibitor mixture tablets, Mouse monoclonal anti-HA and anti-His₆ antibodies were from Roche Applied Science. Anti-App1p antibodies were prepared in rabbits against the C-terminal portion (residues 490-502) of the protein at EZBiolab. Alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG antibodies and alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibodies were from Thermo Scientific

and Pierce, respectively. Scintillation counting supplies were purchased from National Diagnostics.

Strains and Growth Conditions

The strains used in this work are listed in Table 1. Yeast cells were grown in YEPD medium (1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose) or in synthetic complete (SC) medium containing 2% glucose at 30 °C as described previously (143, 144). For selection of yeast cells bearing plasmids, appropriate amino acids were omitted from SC medium. Plasmid maintenance/amplifications (strain DH5 α) and App1p expression (strain BL21(DE3)pLysS) were performed in *Escherichia coli*. The bacterial cells were grown in LB medium (1% tryptone, 0.5% yeast extract, 1% NaCl, pH 7.4) at 37°C, and ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) was added to select for the cells carrying plasmid. For growth on solid media, agar plates were prepared with supplementation of either 2% (yeast) or 1.5% (*E. coli*) agar. For App1p PAP purification in yeast, *pah1 Δ dpp1 Δ lpp1 Δ* mutant cells were grown to late exponential phase in YEPD medium at 30 °C. Uracil was omitted from the growth medium to select for cells carrying plasmid pMC104, and 2 % agar was included for growth on plates. For App1p PAP purification, yeast cells were grown in 2 liters of synthetic complete medium with 2 % raffinose as the carbon source. To induce expression of protein A-tagged App1p PAP, the growth medium was supplemented with 2 % galactose. Maximum expression, as confirmed by immunoblot analysis using anti-protein A antibodies, was obtained after 6 hours of growth. For heterologous expression of His₆-tagged App1p, *E. coli* BL21(DE3)pLysS cells bearing pMC101 were grown to A_{600 nm} = 0.5 at 30 °C in 1 L of LB medium containing ampicillin (100 μ g/ml) and chloramphenicol (34 μ g/ml). The culture was then incubated for 3 h with 1 mM isopropyl-B-D-thiogalactoside to induce the expression of the PAP enzyme.

DNA Manipulations, Cloning of *APPI*, and Construction of Plasmids

Standard methods were used to isolate plasmid and genomic DNA and for manipulation of DNA using restriction enzymes, DNA ligase, and modifying enzymes (144). Transformations of *S. cerevisiae* (145) and *E. coli* (144) with DNA/plasmids, and PCR reactions (146) followed the standard protocols. The plasmids used in this work are listed in Table 1. The *S. cerevisiae APPI* gene was cloned by PCR. A 3,024-bp DNA fragment that contains the entire coding sequence (1,764 bp) of *APPI*, the 5'-untranslated region (824 bp) and the 3'-untranslated region (436 bp) was amplified from W303-1A genomic DNA (forward, 5'-GATTATAAGCTTAACTGACACCCATATCGCTTGACCC-3'; reverse, 5'-GGTCAATATACGTGCATCTAGAAAGGCCTTTCCCGAC-3'). The *APPI* DNA fragment was digested with HindIII/XbaI and inserted into plasmid YEp351 at the same restriction enzyme sites. The multicopy plasmid containing *APPI* was named pMC102. The *APPI* gene was used to construct *APPI*^{HA}, in which the sequence for the HA epitope (YPYDVPDYA) was located after start codon. The 854-bp (forward, 5'-GATTATAAGCTTAACTGACACCCATATCGCTTGACCC-3'; reverse, 5'-AGCGTAGTCTGGGACGTCGTATGGGTACATCTTTTATTCCTTCTCCAAAGCAATTTT TCCCCC-3') and 2,224-bp (forward, 5'-TACCCATACGACGTCCCAGACTACGCTAATAGTCAAGGTTACGATGAAAGCTCTTCC TCTACTGC-3'; reverse, 5'-GGTCAATATACGTGCATCTAGAAAGGCCTTTCCCGAC-3') *APPI* DNA fragments that contain the HA tag at the 3' and 5' ends, respectively, were amplified by PCR. These PCR products containing 27 bp overlapping ends were combined by overlap-extension PCR. The combined 3,051 bp DNA was then amplified followed by digestion with HindIII and XbaI and inserted into YEp351 at HindIII/XbaI sites. The multicopy plasmid containing *APPI*^{HA} was named pMC103. Plasmids pMC102-D281E and pMC103-D281E were

TABLE 1. Strains and Plasmids Used in This Work

Strain or plasmid	Relevant characteristics	Source or Ref
Strains		
<i>E. coli</i>		
DH5 α	F ϕ 80d <i>lacZ</i> Δ M15 Δ <i>lacZYA-argF</i> U169 <i>deoR recA endA1 hsdR17</i> ($r_K^- m_K^+$) <i>phoA supE44</i> $\lambda^- thi-1$ <i>gyrA90 relA1</i>	(144)
BL21(DE3)pLysS	F ϕ <i>ompT hsdS_B</i> ($r_B^- m_B^-$) <i>gal dcm</i> (DE3) pLysS	Novagen
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>		
BY4741	<i>MATa his3Δ1 leu2Δ0 met15Δ0 ura3Δ0</i>	(147)
BY4741- <i>app1</i> Δ	<i>app1</i> Δ :: <i>KanMX4</i> derivative of BY4741	Deletion consortium
W303-1A	<i>MATa ade2-1 can1-100 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1</i>	(148)
GHY63	<i>app1</i> Δ :: <i>natMX4</i> derivative of W303-1A	This study
GHY57	<i>pah1</i> Δ :: <i>URA3</i> derivative of W303-1A	(86)
GHY64	<i>app1</i> Δ :: <i>natMX4</i> <i>pah1</i> Δ :: <i>URA3</i> derivative of W303-1A	This study
TBY1	<i>dpp1</i> Δ :: <i>TRP1/Kan^r</i> <i>lpp1</i> Δ :: <i>HIS3/Kan^r</i> derivative of W303-1A	(97)
GHY65	<i>app1</i> Δ :: <i>natMX4</i> <i>dpp1</i> Δ :: <i>TRP1/Kan^r</i> <i>lpp1</i> Δ :: <i>HIS3/Kan^r</i> derivative of W303-1A	This study
GHY58	<i>pah1</i> Δ :: <i>URA3</i> <i>dpp1</i> Δ :: <i>TRP1/Kan^r</i> <i>lpp1</i> Δ :: <i>HIS3/Kan^r</i> derivative of W303-1A	(86)
GHY66	<i>app1</i> Δ :: <i>natMX4</i> <i>pah1</i> Δ :: <i>URA3</i> <i>dpp1</i> Δ :: <i>TRP1/Kan^r</i> <i>lpp1</i> Δ :: <i>HIS3/Kan^r</i> derivative of W303-1A	This study
Plasmids		
YEp351	Multicopy <i>E. coli</i> /yeast shuttle vector with LEU2	(149)
pMC102	<i>APP1</i> gene inserted into YEp351	This study
pMC102-D281E	<i>APP1</i> (D281E) derivative of pMC102	This study
pMC103	<i>APP1</i> ^{HA} gene inserted into YEp351	This study
pMC103-D281E	<i>APP1</i> (D281E) derivative of pMC103	This study
pYES2	Yeast protein expression vector with a galactose-inducible promoter (GAL1), 2 μ origin and a <i>URA3</i> gene as selectable marker, Ampr	Invitrogen
pMC104	<i>APP1</i> -PtA gene inserted into pYES2	This study
pET-15b	<i>E. coli</i> expression vector with N-terminal His ₆ -tag fusion	Novagen
pMC101	<i>APP1</i> coding sequence inserted into pET-15b	This study

produced by PCR-mediated site-directed mutagenesis with the codon change of GAT to GAA. The nucleotide change in the *APP1* and *APP1^{HA}* alleles was confirmed by DNA sequencing. The 1.8-kb *APP1* coding sequence with a 30-bp linker at the 3' end was amplified from pMC102 (forward, 5'-TGGAGAGAGCTCAAAAAAATGAATAGTCAAGG-3'; reverse, 5'-ATACAGGTTTTTCGGTCGTTGGGATGGATCCGTTTGAATACTTCTCCCTAATTCTGCG-3'), and the 0.45-kb *Staphylococcus aureus spa* coding sequence with a 30-bp linker at the 5' end was amplified from YCplac111-*PAHI*-PtA (forward, 5'-GGATCCATCCCAACGACCGAAAACCTGTAT-3'; reverse, 5'-ATAACACTCGAGTTAGCATGCTGAATTCGCG-3'). The *APP1* and *spa* coding sequences were combined through the common 30-bp linker by overlap-extension PCR. The 2.2-kb *APP1-spa* sequence was digested with *SacI* and *XhoI*, and inserted into plasmid pYES2 at the same restriction sites. The recombinant plasmid for galactose-inducible overexpression of protein A-tagged App1p was named pMC104. For expression of *APP1* in *E. coli*, the entire coding sequence of *APP1* (except the first adenosine because the blunted (Klenow) *NdeI* site of pET-15b starts with adenosine) was amplified by PCR from genomic DNA template (forward, 5'-TGAATAGTCAAGGTTACGATGAAAGCTCTTCC-3'; reverse, 5'-TAATCCTCGAGTTAGTTTGAATACTTCTCCCTAATTCTGCG-3'). The PCR product (~1.8 kb) was digested with *XhoI*, and the vector was digested with *NdeI*, filled with Klenow, and digested with *XhoI*. The blunt-cohesive end PCR products were inserted into pET-15b at *NdeI* (Klenow)/*XhoI* sites. The plasmid bearing His₆-tagged *APP1* was named pMC101.

Construction of the *app1Δ* Mutant and Its Derivatives

The *app1Δ* mutation in the wild type strain W303-1A and in the *dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant strain TBY1 was generated by one-step gene replacement (68). The strains were transformed with the 1,219-bp disruption cassette (*app1Δ::natMX4*) that had been amplified from pAG25 (Euroscarf)

using the primers APP1-natMX-F (5'-AGTTCCGTCAAA GGGGGAAAAAATTGCTTTGGAGAAGGAATAAAAAGATGACATGGAGGCCCAAGAATA CCC-3') and APP1-natMX-R (5'-TATACAATTTTTTAACTCCCTCCCGATGTATATAAATAACAGTGTATTTACAGTATAG CGACCAGCATTCA C-3'). Yeast transformants were selected on YEPD medium containing 100 µg/ml nourseothricin, and the *app1*Δ mutation in the nourseothricin-resistant cells was confirmed by PCR amplification of the 1,217-bp fragment from genomic DNA using the primers APP1-F-36 (5'-AGGGGGAAAAAATTGCTTTGGA-3') and APP1-R-46 (5'-ATACAATTTTTTAACTCCCTCCCG-3'). The *pah1*Δ mutation in the *app1*Δ mutant strain GHY63 and the *app1*Δ *dpp1*Δ *lpp1*Δ mutant strain GHY65 was generated by one-step gene replacement as described previously (86). These experiments were performed by Gil-Soo Han.

Partial Purification of App1p PAP from *S. cerevisiae*

The *pah1*Δ *dpp1*Δ *lpp1*Δ mutant strain GHY58 (86) was used for purification to eliminate the PAP activities encoded by the *PAH1* (84) *DPP1* (80), and *LPP* (81) genes. All steps were performed at 8 °C.

Step 1: Preparation of Cell Extract

The cell extract was prepared from 200 g (wet weight) of *pah1*Δ *dpp1*Δ *lpp1*Δ mutant cells by disruption with glass beads (0.5 mm diameter) using a Biospec Products Bead Beater as described previously (150) using buffer A (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 0.3 M sucrose, 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM Na₂ EDTA, 0.5 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride, 1 mM benzamide, 5 µg/ml aprotinin, 5 µg/ml leupeptin, 5 µg/ml pepstatin). Unbroken cells and glass beads were removed by centrifugation at 1,500 x g for 10 min.

Step 2: Preparation of Crude Mitochondria

Crude mitochondria were collected from the cell extract by centrifugation at 32,000 x g for 10 min (151).

Step 3: Preparation of NaCl Extract

Mitochondria were suspended in buffer A containing 1 M NaCl to a final protein concentration of 10 mg/ml. The suspension was centrifuged at 32,000 x g for 10min to remove non-salt extractable proteins from mitochondrial membranes. The supernatant containing the salt-extractable proteins was then dialyzed overnight against buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 1mM MgCl₂, 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 1 mM PMSF) containing 0.5% sodium cholate. Sodium cholate was included in buffer B to prevent the precipitation of PAP that occurred after the removal of salt from the enzyme preparation.

Step 4: DE52 Chromatography

A DE52 column (1.5 x 7 cm) was equilibrated with buffer B containing 0.5% sodium cholate. The enzyme preparation from the previous step was applied to the column at a flow rate of 40 ml/h, and the column was washed with 5 column volumes of buffer B plus 0.5% sodium cholate., followed by elution of the enzyme in 5-ml fractions with 10 column volumes of a linear NaCl gradient (0-0.5 M) in the same buffer. The peak of PAP activity eluted at 0.2 M NaCl.

Step 5: Affi-Gel Blue Chromatography

An Affi-Gel Blue column (1.5 x 5 cm) was equilibrated with buffer B containing 0.2 M NaCl and 0.5% sodium cholate. The DE52-purified enzyme was applied to the column at a flow rate of 60 ml/h. The column was washed with 5 column volumes of buffer B containing 0.5 M NaCl and 0.5% sodium cholate. PAP activity was then eluted in 3-ml fractions with 12 column volumes of a linear gradient of NaCl (0.5 – 3.0 M) in buffer B and 0.2% sodium cholate. The peak of activity eluted at a NaCl concentration of 1.3 M.

Step 6: Phenyl-Sepharose Chromatography

A phenyl-Sepharose (0.8 x 2 cm) column was equilibrated with buffer B containing 3 M NaCl and 0.2% sodium cholate. The Affi-Gel Blue-purified enzyme was made to contain 3 M NaCl and then applied to the column under gravity flow. The column was first washed with 10 column volumes of buffer B containing 3 M NaCl and then washed with 10 column volumes of buffer B without NaCl. PAP activity was then eluted in 1-ml fractions with 10 column volumes of buffer B containing 1% Triton X-100.

Step 7: MonoQ Chromatography

A MonoQ column (0.5 x 5 cm) was equilibrated with buffer B containing 0.5% Triton X-100. The phenyl-Sepharose-purified enzyme was applied to the column; the column was then washed with 5 column volumes of buffer C containing 0.5% Triton X-100 followed by elution of PAP in 1-ml fractions with 20 column volumes of a linear NaCl gradient (0-1 M) at a flow rate 24 ml/h. The peak of activity was eluted at NaCl concentration of 0.5 M.

Step 8: Superdex 200 Chromatography

A gel filtration Superdex 200 column (1 x 30 cm) was equilibrated with buffer B containing 0.5 M NaCl and 0.5% Triton X-100. The MonoQ-purified enzyme was applied to the column at a flow rate of 40 ml/h. The enzyme was then eluted in 0.5-ml fractions with 1 column volume of the same buffer. The column was calibrated with molecular mass standards (β -amylase, 200 kDa; alcohol dehydrogenase, 150 kDa; bovine serum albumin, 66 kDa; carbonic anhydrase 29 kDa; cytochrome c, 12.4 kDa) under the same conditions used to purify PAP.

Purification of His₆-tagged App1p PAP from *E. coli*

All steps were performed at 8 °C. *E. coli* cells expressing His₆-tagged App1p were suspended in 20 ml of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) buffer containing 0.5 M NaCl, 5mM imidazole, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. Cells were disrupted by a freeze-thawing cycle and by two passes through a French press at 20,000 pounds/square inch. Unbroken cells and cell debris

were removed by centrifugation at 12,000 *g* for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant (cell lysate) was gently mixed with 2 ml of 50 % slurry of Ni²⁺-NTA agarose for 2 h. The Ni²⁺-NTA agarose/enzyme mixture was packed in a 10-ml column and washed with 20 ml of 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) buffer containing 0.5 M NaCl, 45 mM imidazole, 10% glycerol, and 7 mM 2-mercaptoethanol. His₆-tagged App1p was eluted from the column in 1-ml fractions with 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) buffer containing 0.5 M NaCl, 250 mM imidazole, 10% glycerol, and 7 mM 2-mercaptoethanol. Purified enzyme preparations were stored at -80 °C.

Purification of Protein A-tagged App1p from *S. cerevisiae*

Yeast cells (~ 3 g wet weight) were disrupted with glass beads (0.5 mm diameter) using a Biospec Products Bead Beater in lysis buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 1% Triton X-100, and a cocktail of protease inhibitors. Unbroken cells and glass beads were removed by centrifugation at 1,500 *x g* for 10 min. The cell extract (supernatant) was precleared of contaminating proteins by incubation with 1 ml Sepharose Fast-Flow resin in a centrifuge tube. The enzyme sample was obtained by centrifugation at 1,500 *x g* for 10 min, and then it was passed through 0.2 ml IgG Sepharose resin packed in a Bio-Rad Poly-Prep chromatography column. The column was washed with 10 ml of lysis buffer followed by 10 ml of wash buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 M NaCl. The resin was then transferred to a 1 ml spin column and incubated with an equal volume of elution buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 M NaCl, 3 mM glutathione, 0.3 mM oxidized glutathione, and 100 units of tobacco etch virus protease. After incubation for 5 h, the column was subjected to a brief centrifugation and the eluted enzyme (supernatant) was transferred to another 1 ml spin containing a mixture of protein A-Sepharose resin (0.1 ml) and Ni²⁺-NTA-agarose resin (0.1 ml) for the removal of contaminating IgG and tobacco etch virus protease. After 30 min incubation, the spin column was briefly centrifuged to obtain the purified

App1p PAP enzyme. The concentration of purified App1p was determined by the method of Bradford using bovine serum albumin as the standard. Enzyme concentration was also determined by ImageQuant analysis of App1p and bovine serum albumin standards in SDS-polyacrylamide gels stained with Coomassie Blue. Both methods of protein concentration determination yield similar results.

Native Molecular Mass Determination by Superdex 200 Chromatography

The native molecular mass of App1p was determined by gel filtration chromatography using a Superdex 200 HR 10/30 column attached to an Ä KTA fast protein liquid chromatography system. The buffer system used for the chromatography contained 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) and 0.15 M NaCl, and the flow rate was 40 ml/h. The molecular mass standards were β -amylase (200 kDa), alcohol dehydrogenase (150 kDa), bovine serum albumin (66 kDa), carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa), and cytochrome c (12.4 kDa).

Preparation of [32 P]PA and Malachite Green-Molybdate Reagent

[32 P]PA was synthesized enzymatically from DAG and [γ - 32 P]ATP using *E. coli* DAG kinase as described by Carman and Lin (152). A color reagent to detect inorganic free phosphate was prepared by modification of the procedure described by Mahuren *et al.* (153) and was composed of 3 volumes of 0.1 mM malachite green and 1 volume of 34 mM ammonium molybdate in 5 M HCl.

Preparation of Triton X-100/Lipid-mixed Micelles

PA in chloroform was transferred to a glass test tube, and the solvent was eliminated *in vacuo* for 1 h. Triton X-100 was added to PA to prepare Triton X-100/PA-mixed micelles. Micelles containing other lipids were prepared in the same manner. The mol % of a lipid in a

Triton X-100/lipid-mixed micelle was calculated using the following formula, $\text{mol \% lipid} = 100 \times [\text{lipid (molar)}] / ([\text{lipid (molar)}] + [\text{Triton X-100 (molar)}])$. The total lipid concentration in the Triton X-100/lipid-mixed micelles was kept below 15 mol % to ensure that the structure of the lipid-mixed micelles was similar to that of pure Triton X-100 micelles (154, 155)

PAP Assay and Protein Determination

PAP activity was measured for 20 min by following the release of water-soluble [^{32}P]P_i from chloroform-soluble [^{32}P]PA (~5,000 cpm/nmol) at 30 °C as described previously (151). The reaction mixture contained 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.5), 10 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM PA, 2 mM Triton X-100, 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, and enzyme protein in a total volume of 0.1 ml. For the characterization of App1p, a reaction mixture contained 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5) buffer, 1.0mM MgCl₂, 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, 2 mM dioleoyl [^{32}P]PA (5,00 cpm/nmol), 20 mM Triton X-100, and 1 ng of enzyme protein in a total volume of 0.1 ml. Following phase separation, 0.5 ml of the aqueous (upper) phase was measured for radioactivity. In the assay with non-radioactive PA, the enzyme reaction was terminated as described above except that 1 mM MgCl₂ was replaced with water. After phase separation, 1 volume of the upper phase was mixed with 2 volumes of malachite green-molybdate reagent, and the mixture was measured for absorbance at 650 nm. The same assay was used to examine the dephosphorylation of other nonradioactive lipid phosphate molecules. Enzyme assays were conducted in triplicate, and the average standard deviation of the assays was $\pm 5 \%$. All reactions were linear with time and protein concentration. A unit of enzyme activity was defined as the amount of enzyme that catalyzed the formation of 1 nmol or 1 μmol of product per minute. Protein concentration was estimated by the method of Bradford (156) using bovine serum albumin as the standard.

SDS-PAGE and Western Blot Analysis

SDS-PAGE (157) using 10 % slab gels and Western blotting (158, 159) using polyvinylidene difluoride membrane were performed as described previously. Proteins on polyacrylamide gels were visualized with Coomassie Blue R250. The anti-HA, anti-His₆, anti-Protein A and anti-App1p antibodies were used at a dilution of 1:5000. Alkaline phosphatase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG antibodies and goat anti-rabbit IgG antibodies were used at a dilution of 1:5,000. Immune complexes were detected using the enhanced chemifluorescence Western blotting detection kit. Fluorimaging was used to acquire images from Western blots.

Identification of Proteins by Tandem Mass Spectrometry

An SDS-polyacrylamide gel slice containing protein purified through the Superdex 200 chromatography step was subjected to trypsin digestion (160) followed by tandem mass spectrometry using a Thermo Fisher Scientific LTQ Orbitrap Velos instrument (161). The spectra were searched against the Swiss-Prot yeast database using the MASCOT (V.2.3) search engine (160). The band on the gel containing purified from Protein A fusion App1p was digested with trypsin, and the peptides were analyzed by MALDI-TOF/TOF. This work was performed at the Center for Advanced Proteomics Research facility of the University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey (Newark, NJ).

Labeling and Analysis of Lipids

Steady-state labeling of phospholipids and neutral lipids with ³²P_i and [2-¹⁴C]acetate, respectively, were performed as described previously (86). Lipids were extracted from labeled cells by the method of Bligh and Dyer (162). Phospholipids were analyzed by two-dimensional thin-layer chromatography on silica gel plates using chloroform/methanol/ammonium hydroxide/water (45:25:2:3, v/v) as the solvent system for dimension one and chloroform/methanol/glacial acetic acid/water (32:4:5:1, v/v) as the solvent system for dimension two (163). Neutral lipids were

analyzed by one-dimensional thin-layer chromatography on silica gel plates using the solvent system hexane/diethyl ether/glacial acetic acid (40:10:1, v/v) (164). The identity of the labeled lipids on TLC plates was confirmed by comparison with standards after exposure to iodine vapor. Radiolabeled lipids were visualized by phosphorimaging analysis. The relative quantities of labeled lipids were analyzed using ImageQuant software. These experiments were performed by Gil-Soo Han.

Analyses of Data

Statistical analyses were performed with SigmaPlot software. Kinetic data were analyzed according to the Michaelis-Menten and Hill equations using the SigmaPlot enzyme kinetics module. Student's *t* test (SigmaPlot software) was used to determine statistical significance, and *p* values of <0.05 were taken as a significant difference.

RESULTS

PAP Activity is Purified from the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* Triple Mutant and is Identified as the Product of the *APPI* Gene

An NEM sensitive Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP activity is present *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant cells (86). This activity is found in both the soluble and membrane fractions of the cell, and its association with the membrane is peripheral in nature (86). The triple mutant was used to purify this PAP enzyme, and by doing so, we eliminated the activities encoded by *PAH1*, *DPP1*, and *LPP1* (80, 81, 86). PAP specific activity was enriched 5-fold in the mitochondrial fraction, and accordingly, this fraction was used as the source of enzyme. PAP activity was dissociated from the mitochondrial membranes with 1 M NaCl followed by chromatography with DE52 (Fig. 5), Affi-Gel Blue (Fig. 6), phenyl-Sepharose, MonoQ (Fig. 7), and Superdex 200 (Fig. 8). The Superdex 200 chromatography step afforded the greatest enrichment (4.5-fold) in specific activity (Table 2), and the peak fraction of activity emerged from the column at the position of the 66 kDa molecular mass standard (Fig. 8). An SDS-PAGE analysis indicated that the enzyme preparation was not homogeneous (Fig. 8). However, further attempts to purify the enzyme to homogeneity were unsuccessful, mainly because the PAP activity was labile. Overall, PAP was purified 2,143-fold over the cell extract to a final specific activity of 1,500 nmol/min/mg with an activity yield of 5 % (Table 2).

The peak of PAP activity that emerged from the Superdex 200 column correlated with the enrichment of a minor protein band that migrated near the size of the 50 kDa molecular mass marker (Fig. 8, fraction 27). An SDS-polyacrylamide gel slice containing this band was subjected to trypsin digestion followed by the analysis of peptides by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. This analysis revealed that the minor band from the polyacrylamide gel contained 112 proteins (or proteolytic fragments thereof) (Table 3). We narrowed down the list of

FIGURE 5. Elution Profile of PAP Activity after DE52 Chromatography. Salt extracts from mitochondrial membranes were subjected to the DE52 chromatography. Fractions (5 ml of each fraction) were collected and assayed for PAP activity ($U = \text{nmol/min/mg}$) (●) and protein (○) by Bradford reagent. The NaCl gradient profile is indicated by the dashed line.

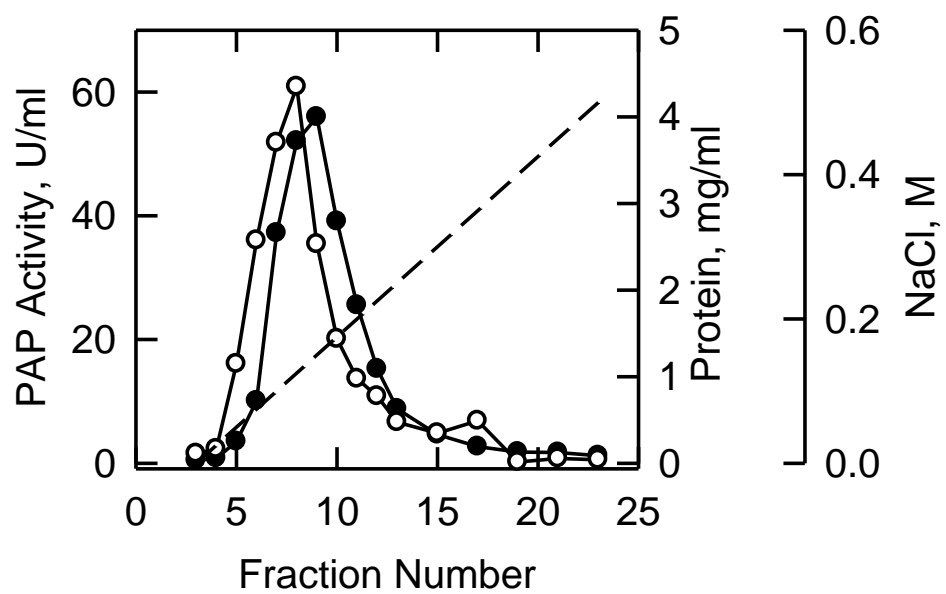


FIGURE 6. Elution Profile of PAP Activity after Affi-gel Blue Chromatography. The most active fractions from the DE52 chromatography were subjected to the Affi-Gel Blue chromatography. Fractions (3 ml of each fraction) were collected and assayed for PAP activity (●) and protein (○) by Bradford reagent. The NaCl gradient profile is indicated by the dashed line.

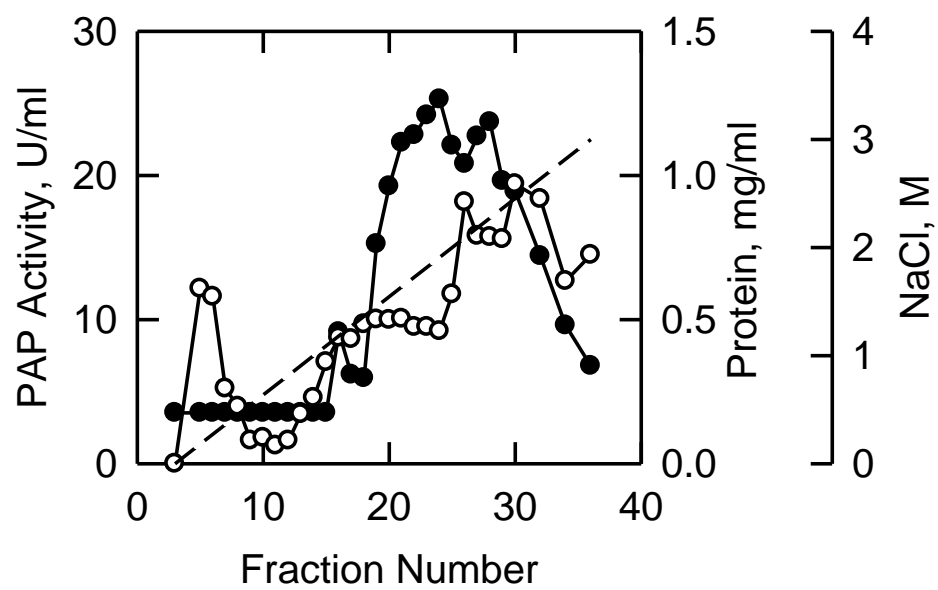


FIGURE 7. Elution Profile of PAP activity after MonoQ Chromatography. The active fractions from the phenyl-Sepharose chromatography were subjected to the Mono Q chromatography. Fractions (1 ml of each fraction) were collected and assayed for PAP activity (●) and protein (○) by the absorbance at 280 nm. The NaCl gradient profile is indicated by the dashed line.

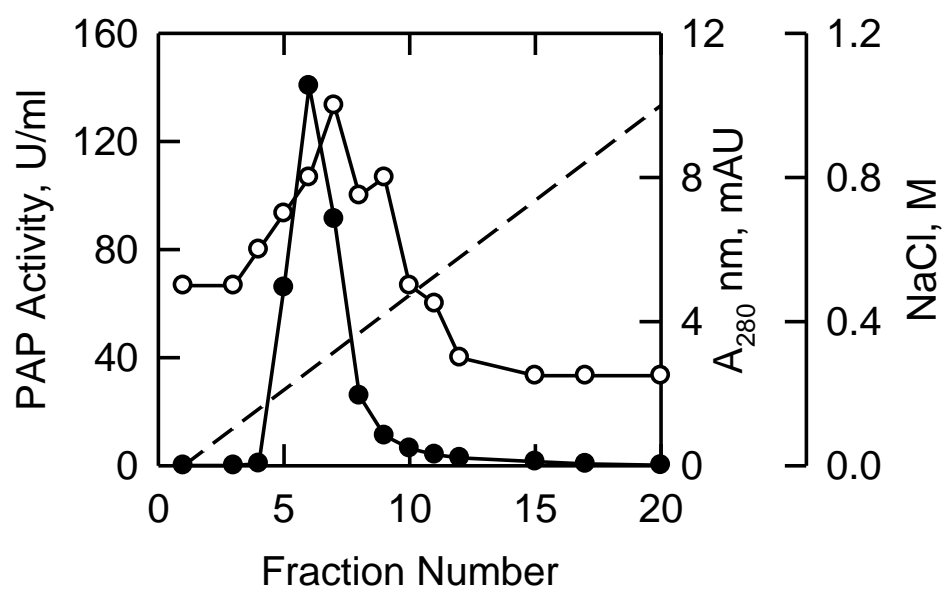


FIGURE 8. Elution Profile of PAP activity after Superdex 200 Chromatography and SDS-PAGE of the Purified Enzyme. The MonoQ-purified PAP enzyme preparation was subjected to Superdex 200 chromatography. Fractions (0.5 ml of each fraction) were collected and assayed for PAP activity (●) and protein (○). Fractions 24-30 were subjected to SDS-PAGE followed by staining with Coomassie Blue (*above plot*). The band derived from fraction 27 that was used for protein sequencing is indicated by the *asterisk*.

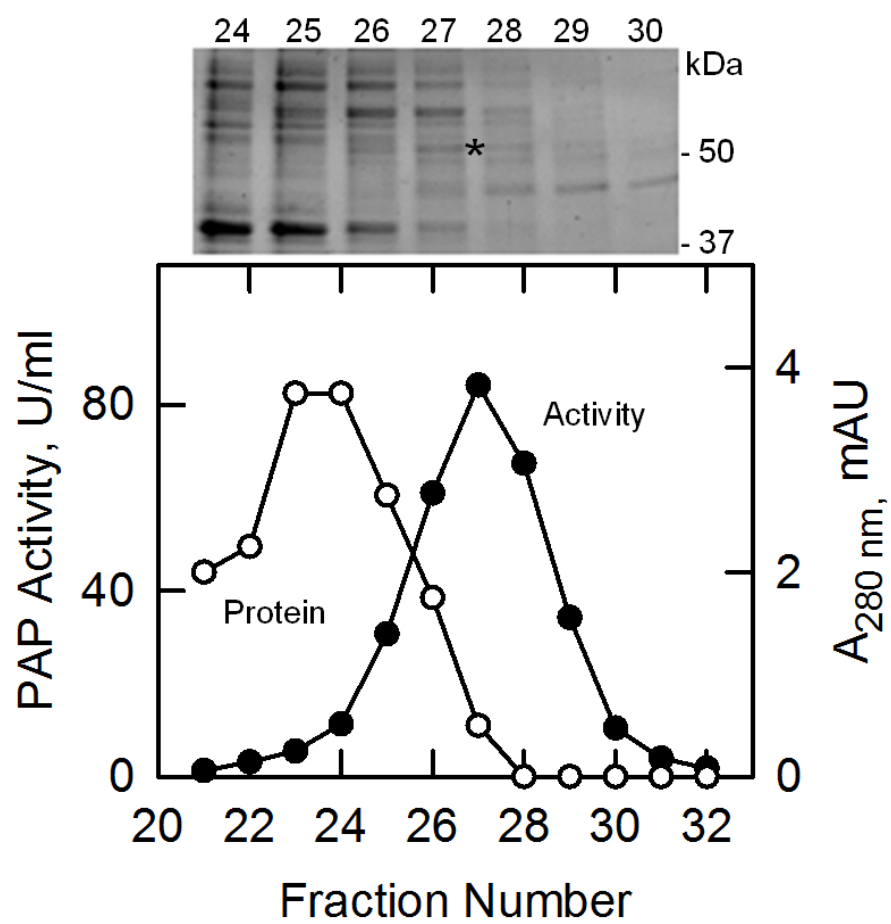


TABLE 2. Partial Purification of PAP from *S. cerevisiae*.

PAP was purified from *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutant cells as described under “Experimental Procedures.” The data are based on starting with 200 g (wet weight) of cells.

Purification step	Total units	Protein	Specific activity	Yield	Purification
	<i>nmol/min</i>	<i>Mg</i>	<i>units/mg</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>-fold</i>
1. Cell extract	3237	4625	0.7	100	1
2. Mitochondria	2200	628	3.5	68	5
3. NaCl extract	1745	346	5	54	7
4. DE52	1053	65	16	33	23
5. Affi-Gel Blue	770	20	39	24	56
6. Phenyl-Sepharose	545	4	137	17	196
7. MonoQ	300	0.9	330	9	471
8. Superdex 200	150	0.1	1500	5	2143

TABLE 3. Mass Spectrometry Analysis.
Proteins containing a phosphatase motif were indicated in bold.

Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)	Standard Name	MM (kDa)
<i>ORC1</i>	104	<i>CBF1</i>	39	<i>GCD11</i>	58	<i>MDM20</i>	55	<i>SPO14</i>	195	<i>RSP5</i>	92	<i>TRP2</i>	54	<i>YFR006 W</i>	62
<i>GND1</i>	54	<i>CCR4</i>	94	<i>SEC2</i>	85	<i>BLM3</i>	75	<i>ADE4</i>	57	<i>SAC1</i>	71	<i>UBP3</i>	102	<i>YGL004C</i>	46
<i>SSK2</i>	181	<i>CDC19</i>	56	<i>GLK2</i>	55	<i>LEU1</i>	83	<i>SER1</i>	43	<i>CDC3</i>	60	<i>UBP6</i>	57	<i>YGL110C</i>	72
<i>ALA1</i>	107	<i>VPS13</i>	358	<i>GLT1</i>	238	<i>DBF20</i>	66	<i>PAB1</i>	64	<i>SET3</i>	86	<i>VTC4</i>	75	<i>YGR266 W</i>	81
<i>ATF1</i>	61	<i>RGR1</i>	123	<i>SEC12</i>	52	<i>KRE2</i>	51	<i>PHM1</i>	95	<i>FKS3</i>	207	<i>FOL1</i>	98	<i>YJL049W</i>	53
<i>APP1</i>	66	<i>YLR345 W</i>	58	<i>DYN1</i>	238	<i>KTR7</i>	61	<i>YBR139 W</i>	58	<i>SRO9</i>	52	<i>UTP7</i>	62	<i>YJR098C</i>	74
<i>GGA2</i>	64	<i>BNR1</i>	220	<i>HXK2</i>	54	<i>AI2</i>	98	<i>PTP2</i>	86	<i>SRP1</i>	49	<i>VTC3</i>	96	<i>YMR192 W</i>	82
<i>HOM3</i>	58	<i>LAT1</i>	52	<i>SOK1</i>	101	<i>MDM38</i>	65	<i>PUB1</i>	51	<i>SSA2</i>	69	<i>YAR042W</i>	135	<i>YNL077C</i>	59
<i>TRA1</i>	433	<i>POL1</i>	60	<i>NRG2</i>	25	<i>SSC 1</i>	71	<i>RAP1</i>	92	<i>ERG6</i>	43	<i>YBL004W</i>	288	<i>YOL098C</i>	118
<i>ISW1</i>	131	<i>YDR444 W</i>	78	<i>HOS3</i>	79	<i>MVP1</i>	60	<i>ENP2</i>	82	<i>YNL209 W</i>	67	<i>YCG1</i>	120	<i>YOR227 W</i>	139
<i>TUB2</i>	51	<i>EMI2</i>	56	<i>UTR1</i>	60	<i>TRM1</i>	64	<i>REH1</i>	50	<i>TED1</i>	55	<i>YDR023W</i>	51	<i>YOR374 W</i>	57
<i>POB3</i>	55	<i>ENT5</i>	45	<i>IMI1</i>	182	<i>PDC1</i>	61	<i>SRO9</i>	52	<i>GDB1</i>	175	<i>YDR432W</i>	35	<i>YPR031 W</i>	86
<i>BRE3</i>	47	<i>ERG11</i>	52	<i>KEL1</i>	131	<i>PFK1</i>	108	<i>RPA190</i>	186	<i>TEF2</i>	31	<i>YDR485C</i>	92	<i>YTA12</i>	93
<i>BRE5</i>	58	<i>FRA1</i>	85	<i>CDC54</i>	105	<i>PFK2</i>	105	<i>RRP6</i>	84	<i>TRL1</i>	95	<i>YER166W</i>	178	<i>ZPR1</i>	55

of proteins that might be a product of a PAP gene by choosing those proteins without an identified molecular function and possessed a phosphatase motif. I also considered proteins whose genes showed genetic interactions with other genes involved in lipid metabolism. Based on these criteria, cell extracts derived from twenty mutants from the yeast deletion strain collection (mutants derived from BY4741) for a defect in PAP activity were examined. One of the mutants, namely *app1Δ* exhibited a decrease (50 %) in cytosolic PAP activity when compared with the wild type parental strain (Fig. 9). I then constructed the *app1Δ* mutation in the W303-1A genetic background so that all of our PAP mutants (see below) were isogenic (Table 1). This *app1Δ* mutant (strain GHY63) also exhibited a reduced (32 %) PAP activity in the cell extract. This result provided confidence that I might have identified *APP1* as the gene encoding the enzyme. The gene acronym stands for actin patch protein because its product App1p is a component of cortical actin patches (166-173). App1p is annotated in the *Saccharomyces* genome database as a protein of unknown function. Coincidentally, App1p has a subunit molecular mass of 66.1 kDa (587 amino acids in length).

I used heterologous expression of the *S. cerevisiae* *APP1* gene in *E. coli* to further test the hypothesis that the gene encodes a PAP enzyme. The purified His₆-tagged App1p migrated upon SDS-PAGE at the expected size (Fig. 10A). In addition, the purified protein reacted with antibodies directed against the His₆ epitope and against a peptide sequence found at the C-terminal portion of App1p (Fig. 10A). Moreover, the purified protein exhibited PAP activity and this activity was almost completely inhibited by NEM (Fig. 10B). These data established that *APP1* is a *bona fide* structural gene encoding a PAP enzyme in *S. cerevisiae*.

PAP Activity is Affected by the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* Mutations and by the *APP1*(D281E) Mutation

The analysis of the *app1Δ pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* quadruple mutant indicated that all

FIGURE 9. PAP Activity in Various Mutants. Cytosols were prepared from the indicated cells at the exponential phase of growth and assayed for PAP activity. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

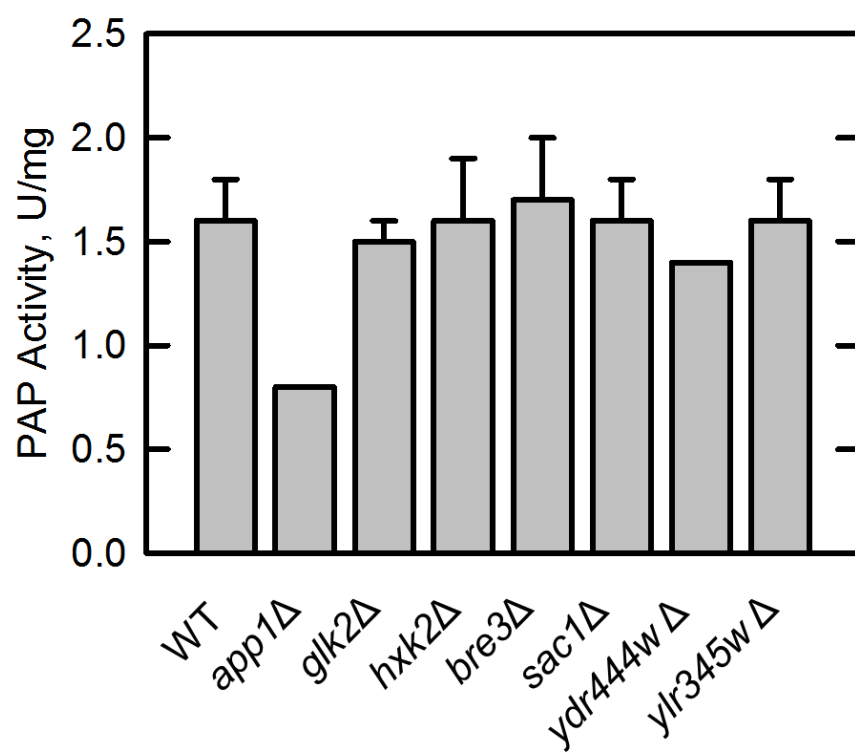
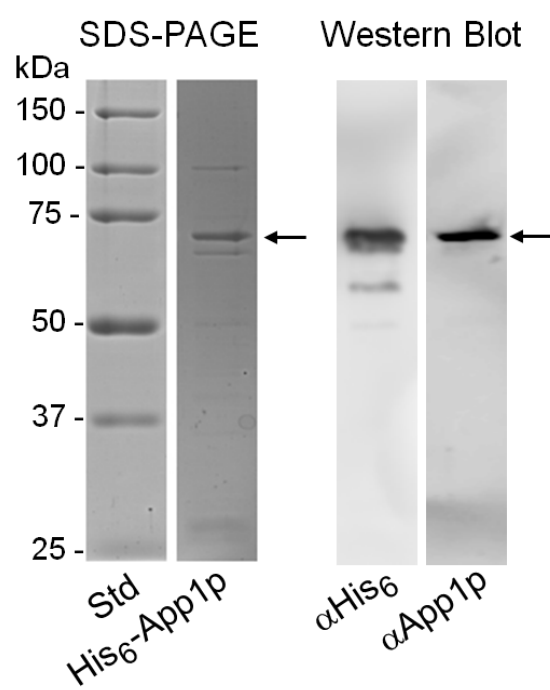
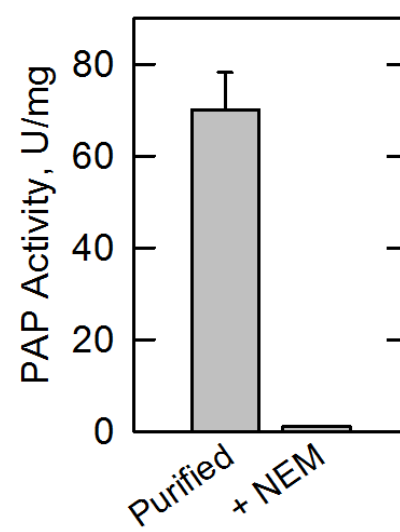


FIGURE 10. SDS-PAGE and Western Blot Analysis of His₆-tagged App1p Purified from *E. coli* and the PAP Activity of the Purified Enzyme. *A*, molecular mass standards (*Std*) and His₆-tagged App1p (1 µg) purified from *E. coli* were subjected to SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie Blue (*left*). The purified His₆-tagged App1p (samples of 1 µg and 1 ng, respectively) was subjected to Western blot analysis using a 1:5000 dilution of anti-His₆ (α His₆) and anti-App1p (α App1p) antibodies, respectively (*right*). *B*, PAP activity (U = µmol/min) of purified His₆-tagged App1p measured in the absence and presence of 20 mM *N*-ethylmaleimide (*NEM*). The data in *A* were representative of two experiments, whereas the data in *B* were the average of three experiments \pm S.D. (*error bars*).

A



B

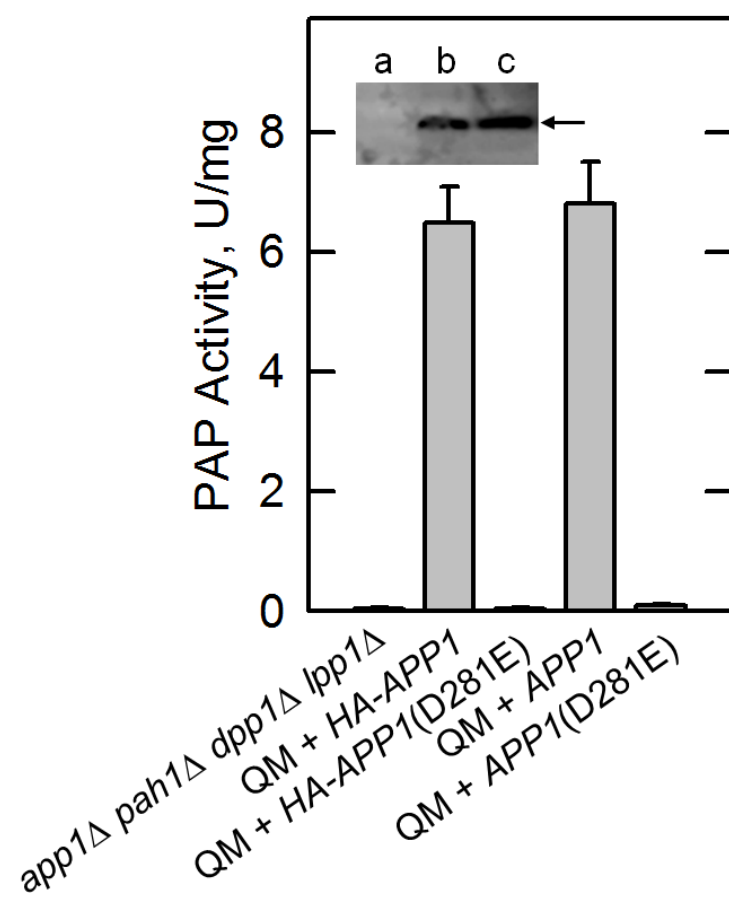


detectable PAP activity in *S. cerevisiae* was attributed to *APP1*, *PAH1*, *DPP1* and *LPP1* (Fig. 11). The *APP1* coding sequence along with its 5'- and 3'-flanking sequences was amplified by PCR using genomic DNA from strain W303-1A as the template. The fidelity of the gene sequence was confirmed by DNA sequencing. *APP1* and *HA-APP1* versions were expressed on a multicopy plasmid in the *app1Δ pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* quadruple mutant, cell extracts were prepared, and used for the measurement of PAP activity. Both plasmids directed the overexpression of PAP to specific activities of 6.8 ± 0.7 and 6.5 ± 0.6 nmol/min/mg, respectively (Fig. 11), indicating that the HA epitope did not compromise enzyme function. App1p contains a DXDXT/V (residues 281-285) motif found in the superfamily of Mg^{2+} -dependent phosphatase enzymes (95) that include the Pah1p PAP (86), but not the Dpp1p (80) and Lpp1p (81) PAP enzymes. The first conserved aspartate residue in the motif was mutated to glutamate by site-specific mutagenesis. Glutamate was chosen to replace aspartate to conserve the charge of the amino acid at this position, and thus, preserve enzyme structure. The D281E mutation abolished the overexpressed PAP activity directed by the *APP1* and *HA-APP1* genes (Fig. 11). An immunoblot analysis using anti-HA antibodies showed that the D281E mutation in the HA-tagged version of App1p did not affect the expression of the enzyme (Fig. 11, *inset*). These data indicated that the DXDXT/V catalytic motif in App1p is responsible for its PAP catalytic function.

Protein A-tagged App1p PAP was Purified from Yeast

We expressed App1p fused with Protein A sequence at the C terminus under *GALI*-inducible promoter in yeast. A significant proteolysis of the expressed App1p-PtA in cell extracts was observed by probing with anti-Protein A antibody. However, SDS-PAGE analysis showed that affinity purification using IgG-Sepharose and TEV protease digestion resulted in highly purified enzyme preparation (Fig. 12). One single protein band at the predicted size of ~68 kDa was observed and sequence of the band was confirmed as App1p by mass spectrometry. Native

FIGURE 11. PAP activity is Affected by the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* Mutations, the Overexpression of the *APP1* Gene, and the *APP1*(D281E) Mutation. Cell extracts were prepared from the indicated cells at the exponential phase of growth and assayed for PAP activity. *Inset*, samples (50 μg protein) of the cell extracts were subjected to Western blot using anti-HA antibodies. *Lanes a, b, and c* correspond to the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* quadruple mutant (*QM*), and the *QM* mutant overexpressing *HA-APP1* and *HA-APP1*(D281E), respectively. The *arrow* indicates the position of HA-tagged App1p. The activity data shown in *A* and *B* were the average of three experiments \pm S.D. (*error bars*), whereas the Western blot shown in *B* is representative of three experiments.



molecular mass was estimated as 66 kDa by Superdex 200 gel filtration (Fig 13).

Enzymological Properties of App1p PAP

The protein exhibited PAP activities in the range of the pH 6.5-8.5, with optimum activities at pH 7.5 (Fig. 14). The App1p PAP activities were dependent on either Mg^{2+} or Mn^{2+} ions, with Mg^{2+} being the preferred cofactor based on maximum activities (Fig. 15). The activity at optimum concentration of Mn^{2+} at 40 μ M exhibited 58 % of the activity at optimum concentration of Mg^{2+} at 1 mM. Concentrations of Mg^{2+} or Mn^{2+} above their optimums resulted in the inhibition of PAP activity. With Mg^{2+} as the cofactor, the PAP activity was inhibited by the addition of 1mM concentration of Ca^{2+} , Mn^{2+} and Zn^{2+} by 81, 95 and 96 %, respectively (Fig. 16). The equilibrium constant for the App1p PAP reaction was determined using 2 mM PA allowing the reaction to come to equilibrium (Fig. 17). At equilibrium (45 min), the concentration of DAG and Pi was 1.8 mM. The equilibrium constant was calculated to be 16.2, indicating that the forward reaction was favored *in vitro*.

NEM sensitivity has been studied on Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP and Mg^{2+} -independent PAP. The Pah1p and Dpp1p enzymes are known to be NEM sensitive whereas the Lpp1p and residual PAP in *pah1 Δ dpp1 Δ lpp1 Δ* enzymes are NEM-insensitive (79, 84). NEM inhibited the App1p PAP activity in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 18A). At a concentration of 10 mM, NEM inhibited the activity by 63%. In addition, the enzyme activity was stimulated (79%) by the addition of 10 mM β -ME to assay systems that did not contain NEM (Fig. 18B). The effect of general phosphatase inhibitors on the App1p PAP was examined. ProPr (non-selective β -blocker) at a concentration of 2.5 mM, and higher concentration of phenylglyoxal (an arginine reactive compound) at 20 mM inhibited the activity by about 90% (Fig. 19).

FIGURE 12. SDS-PAGE Analysis of the Purified App1p from Yeast. the App1p-PtA was purified by IgG-Sepharose and Protein A fusion was cleaved by tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease. Purified App1p (1.25 μ g) was subjected to SDS-PAGE and stained with Coomassie Blue.

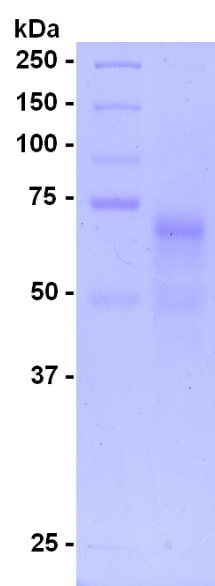


FIGURE 13. Calibration Curve for the Determination of Native Molecular Mass of the App1p PAP. Marker Protein β -amylase (200 kDa), alcohol dehydrogenase (150 kDa), bovine serum albumin (66 kDa), carbonic anhydrase (29 kDa) and cytochrome C (12.4 kDa) were applied on Superdex 200 column, and the values of ratio elution volume (V_e) to the void volume (V_o) were determined. The void volume was determined by the elution of blue dextran (2,000 kDa). The curve was plotted as log molecular mass (kDa) of protein standards *versus* V_e/V_o . The peak activity of App1p PAP was eluted out at the fraction where the 66 kDa albumin was eluted.

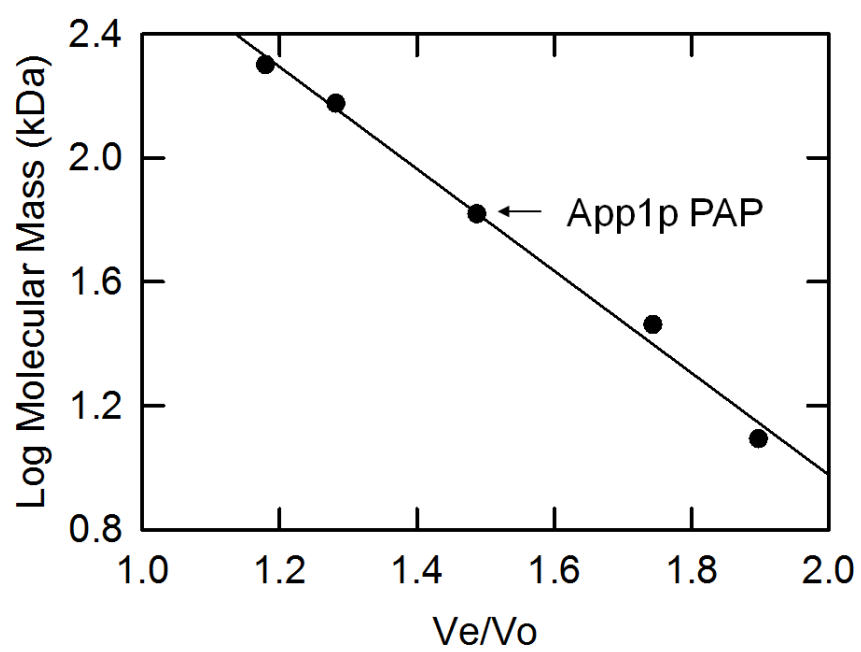


FIGURE 14. **Effects of pH on App1p PAP Activity.** PAP activity ($U = \mu\text{mol}/\text{min}$) was measured at the indicated pH values with 50mM Tris-maleate-glycine buffer. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

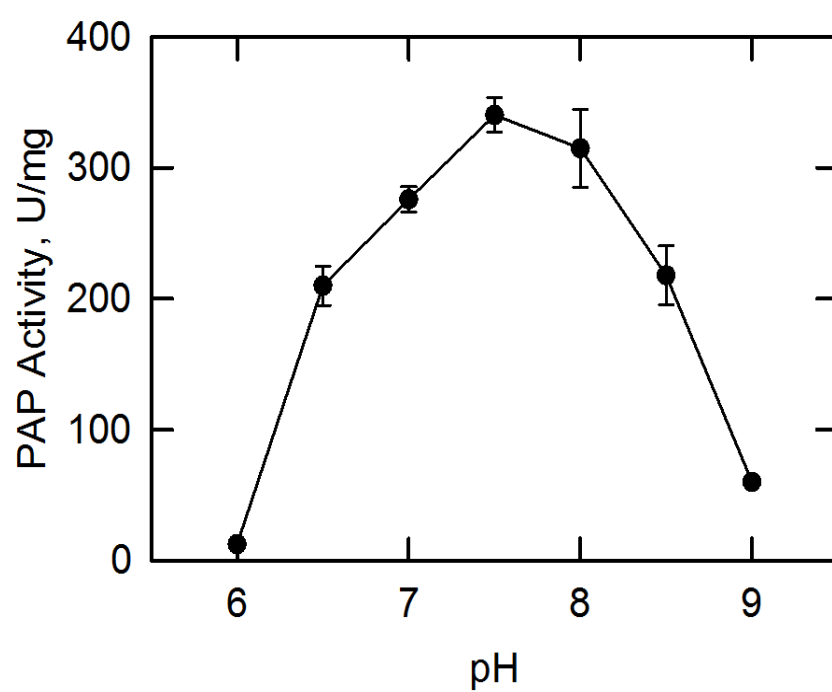


FIGURE 15. Effects of Mg^{2+} and Mn^{2+} on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the absence and presence of the indicated concentration of $MgCl_2$ or $MnCl_2$. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

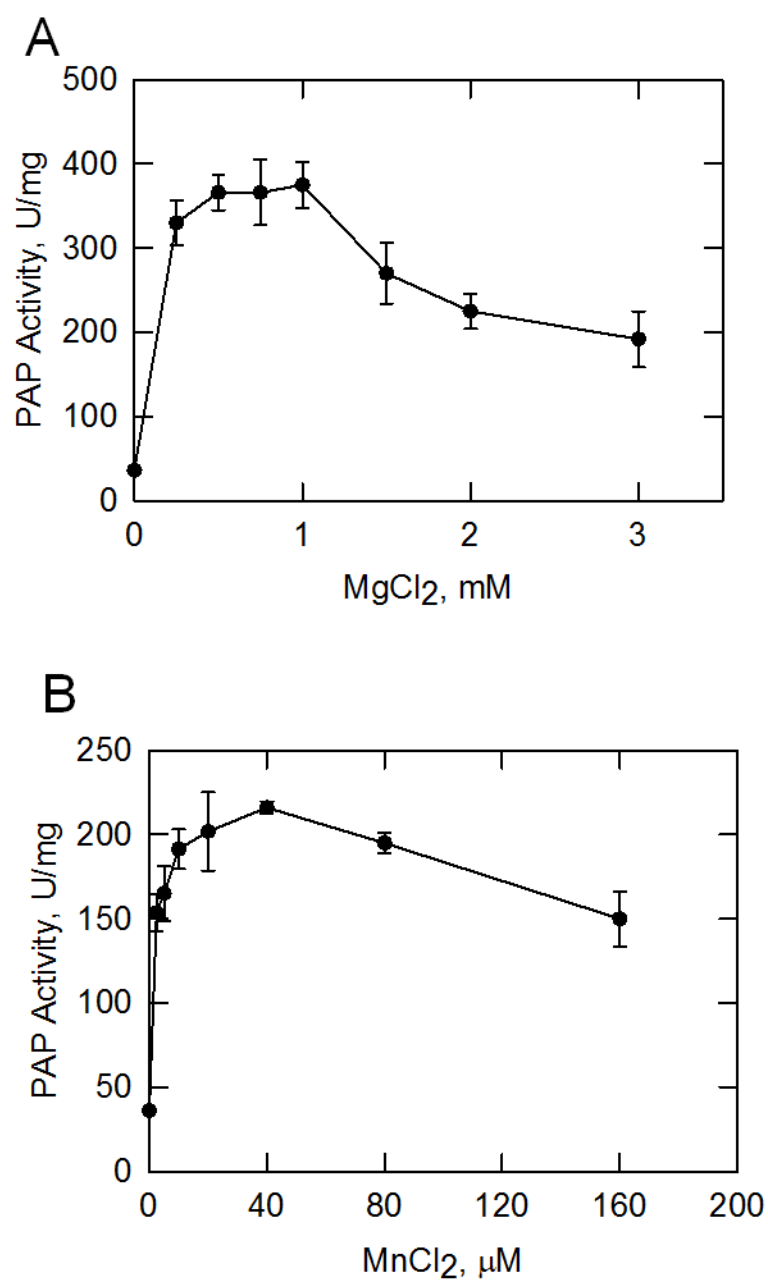


FIGURE 16. Effects of Divalent Cations on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of CaCl_2 , MnCl_2 and ZnCl_2 . The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

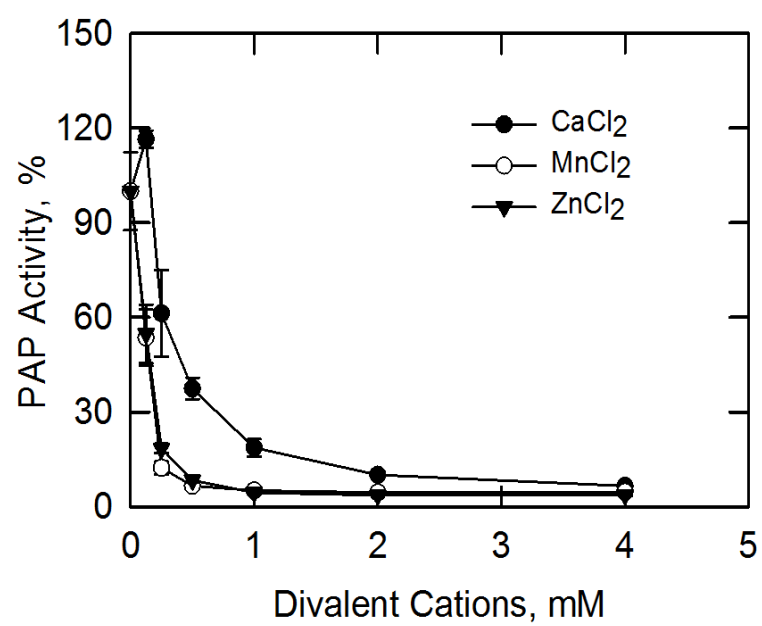


FIGURE 17. Equilibrium Constant of the App1p PAP Reaction. The equilibrium constant for the App1p PAP reaction was determined using 2 mM PA. The formation of DAG was measured at indicated time point. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

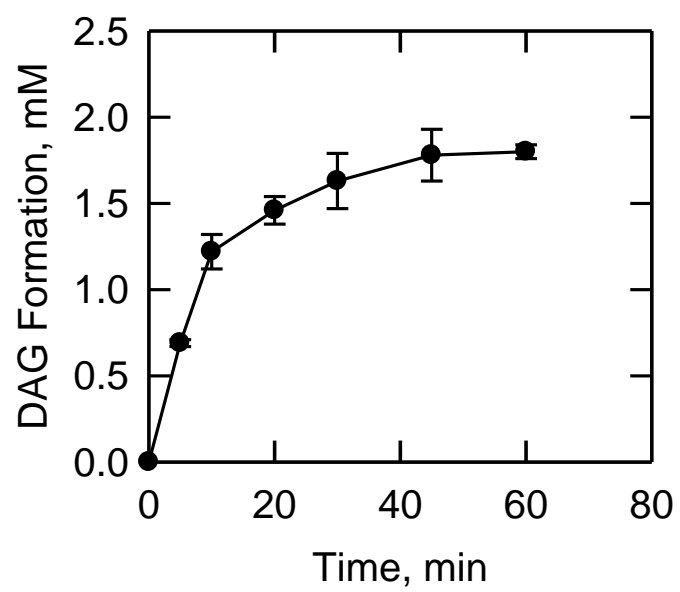


FIGURE 18. Effects of NEM and β -ME on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of NEM (*A*) or β -ME (*B*). In *A*, β -ME was not present. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

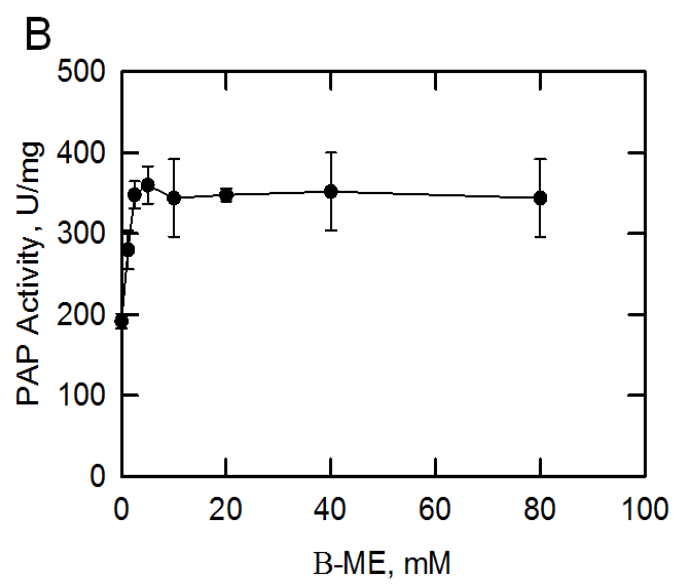
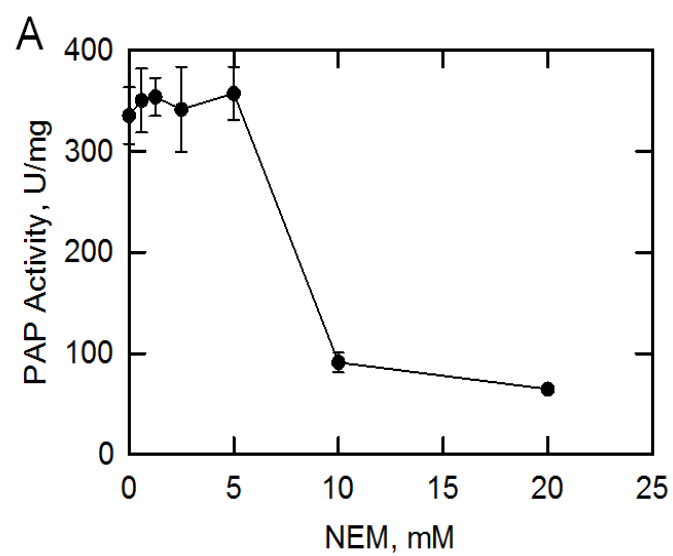
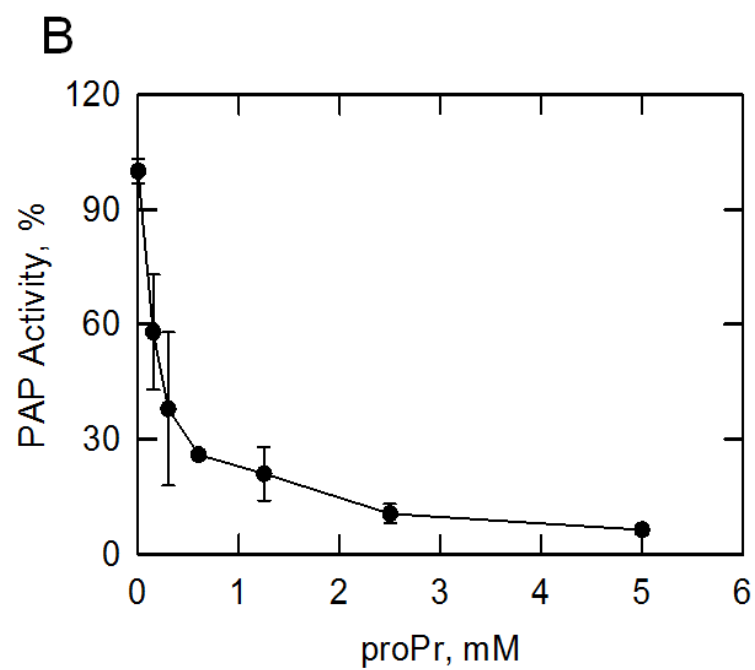
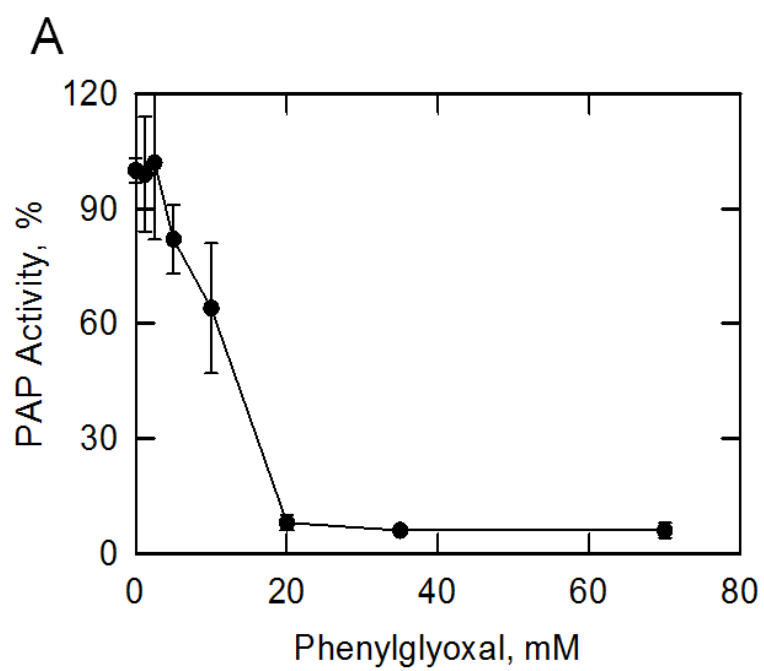


FIGURE 19. Effect of Phenylglyoxal and ProPr on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of phenylglyoxal (*A*) and proPr (*B*). The enzyme samples were incubated for 50 min at 30 °C with the indicated concentration of phenylglyoxal (*A*) and proPr (*B*) in the standard reaction mixture minus substrate. Following incubation, [γ -³²P] labeled substrate was added to the reaction mixtures and PAP activity was measured for 20 min in a 30 °C. 100 % activity is 370 U/mg.



Effect of Temperature on App1p PAP

The effect of temperature on the App1p PAP activity was examined. Maximum activity was observed at 30 °C and was essentially inactive at 50 °C (Fig. 20A). Arrhenius plots of the data from 0 to 30 °C were constructed and the energy of activation was calculated to be 16.5 kcal/mol (Fig. 20B). The App1p PAP was examined for its thermal stabilities by preincubation at temperatures ranging from 0 to 70 °C for 20 min (Fig. 21). Following the preincubation, the enzyme samples were cooled on ice for renaturation and then measured for PAP activity at 30 °C. A loss of the PAP activity of the App1p PAP was minor after preincubation at 30 °C, whereas 83% of the activity was lost at 40 °C (Fig. 21).

Kinetic Properties of App1p PAP

The kinetics analysis of the App1p PAP was performed using Triton X-100/PA mixed micelles. This micelle system permitted the analysis of the PAP activity in an environment that mimics the surface of the cellular membrane (116, 174). To examine an enzyme according to surface dilution kinetics, activity is measured as a function of the bulk concentration of PA at a series of set surface concentrations of PA. Activity was dependent on the bulk concentration of PA. As the mol % of PA of the mixed micelle decreased, there was a decrease in the apparent V_{max} (Fig. 22A). A double-reciprocal plot of the results showed that PAP exhibited saturation kinetics when the bulk concentration of substrate was varied at each fixed mol % of PA (Fig. 22B). The equation predicts that a replot of the $1/V$ intercepts *versus* $1/B$ from Fig. 14B should be linear and the intercept of the $1/V$ intercept axis is $1/V_{max}$ and the intercept of the $1/B$ axis is $-1/xK_m^B$ (Fig. 22C). A replot of the data was linear and the V_{max} and xK_m^B were calculated to be 557 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ and 4.2 mol %. The equation also predicts that a replot of the slopes *versus* $1/B$ from should be linear and pass through the origin. The slope of the replot is equal to nK_s^A

FIGURE 20. Effects of Temperature on App1p PAP Activity. *A*, PAP was measured at the indicated temperatures for 20 min in a temperature controlled water bath. *B*, the data in *A* from 0 to 30 °C were plotted as log PAP activity *versus* the reciprocal of the absolute temperature ($1/^{\circ}\text{K}$). The curves drawn were a result of a least squares analysis of the data. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

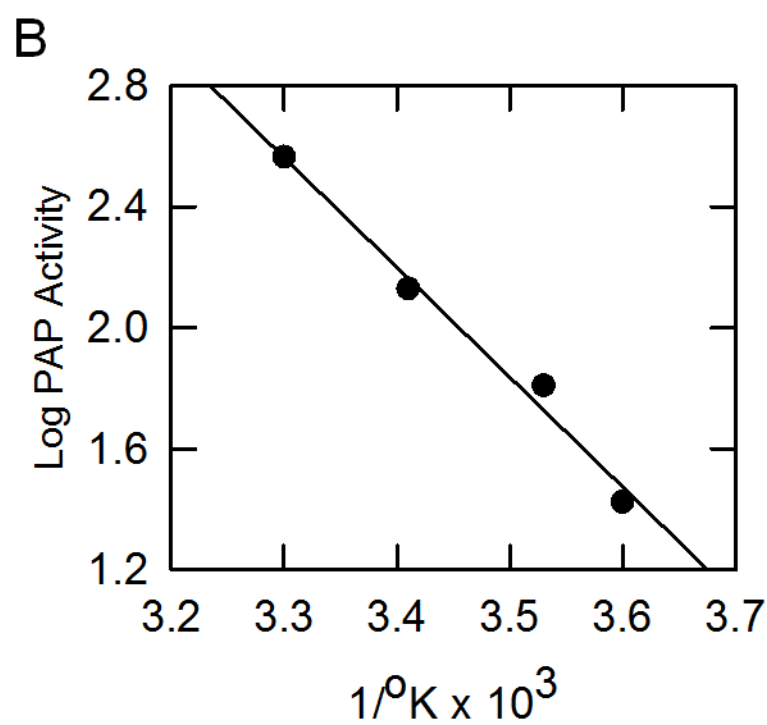
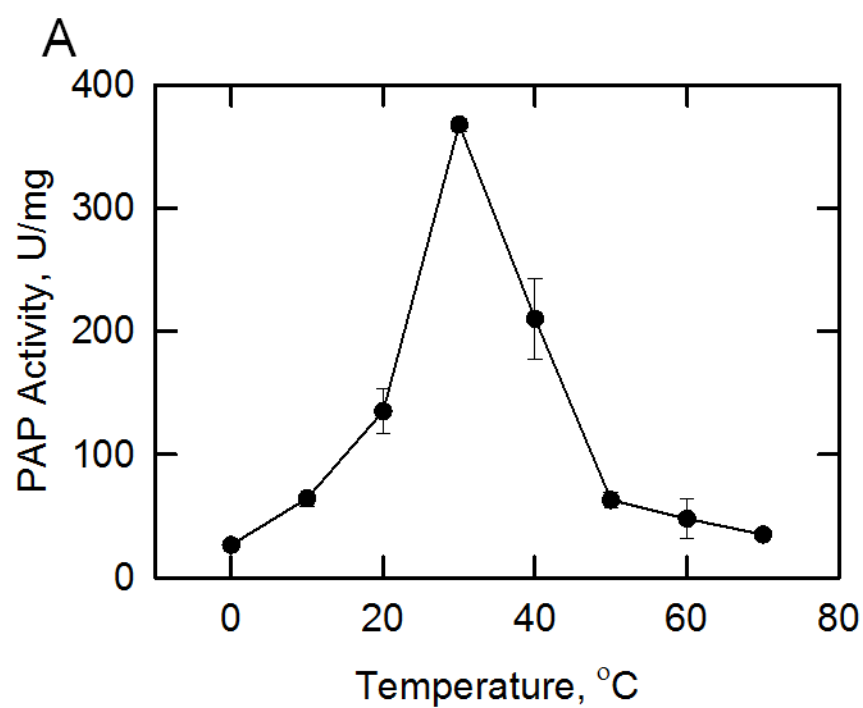


FIGURE 21. Effects of Temperature on the Stability of App1p PAP Activity. The enzyme samples were first incubated for 20 min at the indicated temperatures. After incubation, the samples were cooled in an ice bath for 10 min allow for enzyme renaturation, and PAP was measured for 20 min in a 30 °C. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

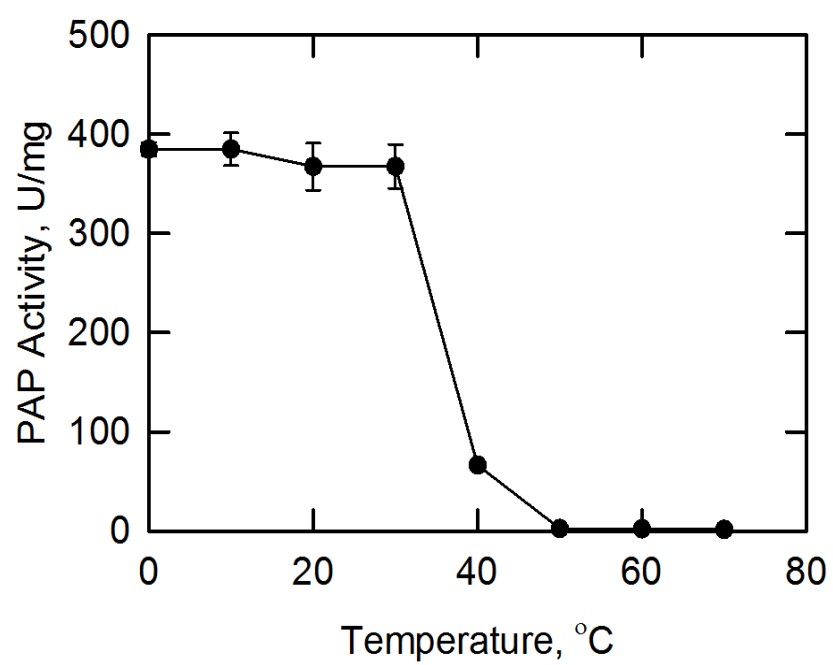
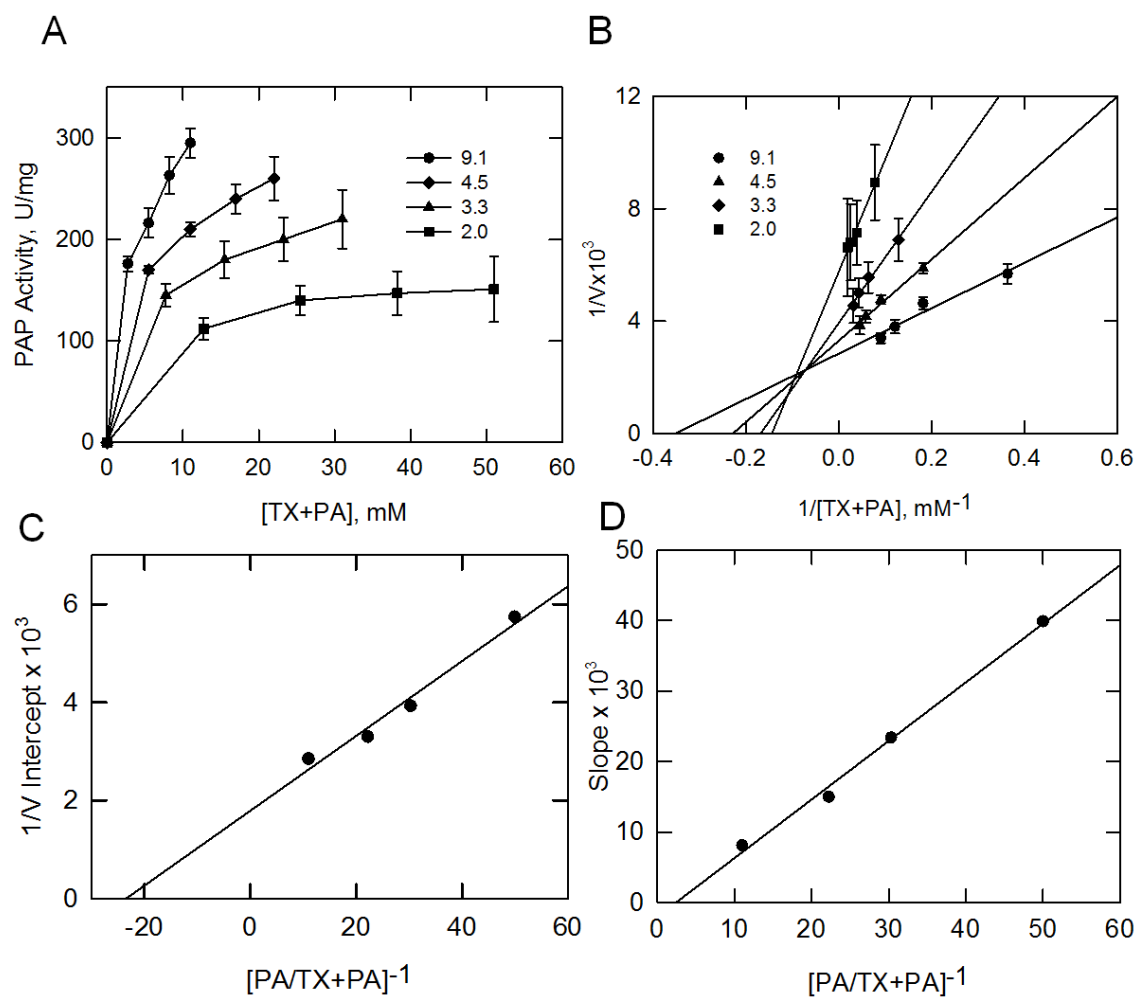


FIGURE 22. **Activity of PAP toward PA in Mixed Micelles with Triton X-100.** *A*, PAP activity was measured as a function of the sum of the molar concentrations of Triton X-100 (*TX*) plus PA at set mol % of PA: ●, 9.1; ◆, 4.5; ▲, 3.3; and ■, 2.0. *B*, reciprocal plot of the data in *A*. *C*, replot of $1/V$ intercepts obtained in *B* *versus* the mol % of PA. *D*, replot of slopes obtained in *B* *versus* the mol % of PA. The lines drawn are a result of a least squares analysis of the data.



$xK_m^B/x/V_{max}$. Fig. 25D shows that such a replot was linear and pass through the origin. The nK_s^A was calculated to 11 mM.

Since the enzyme follows surface dilution kinetics, we performed a more simple analysis to vary molar at only one mol % of PA and surface at only one molar concentration of PA. In the first set of kinetics experiments, the activity was measured as a function of the molar concentration of PA by maintaining the molar ratio of Triton X-100 to PA in the micelle at 10:1 (i.e. 9.1 mol %). Under these conditions, the enzyme followed Michaelis-Menton kinetics (Fig. 23A). Analysis of the data according to the Michaelis-Menton kinetics showed that V_{max} and K_m were 463 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$ and 0.52 mM, respectively. In the second set of kinetic experiments, the enzyme activity was measured as a function of the surface concentration (mol %) of PA in the micelle by maintaining the molar concentration of PA at 2mM (Fig. 23B). Under these conditions, the activity was independent of the PA molar concentration, and they followed positive cooperative kinetics with respect to the surface concentration of PA. The maximum activity was observed at 9.1 mol %. Analysis of the data according to the Hill equation showed that K_m and Hill value for PA surface concentration are 2.0 mol % and 2.3, respectively. Under optimum assay conditions, the specific activity of App1p PAP was 400 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$.

Substrate specificity of the App1p was examined using lipid phosphate molecules, such as LPA, DGPP, sphinganine 1-phosphate, sphingosine 1-phosphate, and ceramide 1-phosphate. The App1p exhibited DGPP phosphatase and LPA phosphatase activities which were measured as a function of the surface concentration (mol %) of DGPP and LPA, respectively, in the micelle by maintaining the molar concentration of DGPP and LPA at 2 mM (Fig. 24). Analysis of the data according to the Hill equation yielded a V_{max} for DGPP and LPA of 143 and 139 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}$, respectively, a K_m for DGPP and LPA of 2.9 and 4.8 mol %, respectively, and a Hill value for DGPP and LPA of 3.3 and 3.4, respectively (Table 4). The specificity constants

FIGURE 23. Dependence of App1p PAP Activity on the Molar and Surface Concentrations of PA. PAP activity was measured as a function of the indicated molar concentrations of PA (*A*) and as a function of the indicated surface concentration of PA (*B*). For the experiment shown in *A*, the molar ratio of Triton X-100 to PA was maintained at 10:1 (9.1 mol % PA). For the experiment shown in *B*, the molar concentration was varied to obtain the indicated surface concentrations. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations. The best fit curves were derived from the kinetic analysis of the data.

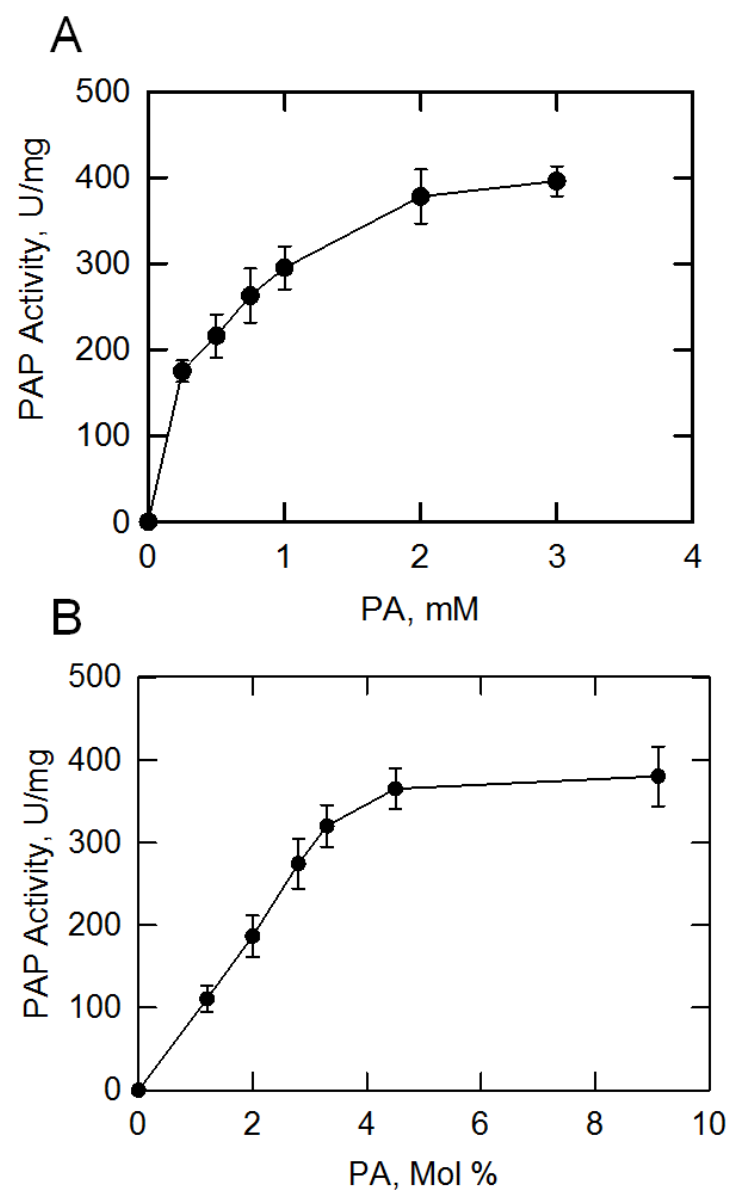


FIGURE 24. App1p Utilized PA, LPA and DGPP as Substrates and the Activities Were Dependent on Surface Concentration of PA, LPA, and DGPP. PA, LPA and DGPP phosphatase activities was measured as a function of the indicated surface concentration of PA, LPA and DGPP, respectively. The bulk concentration was maintained in 2mM for PA, LPA and DGPP, respectively. The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations.

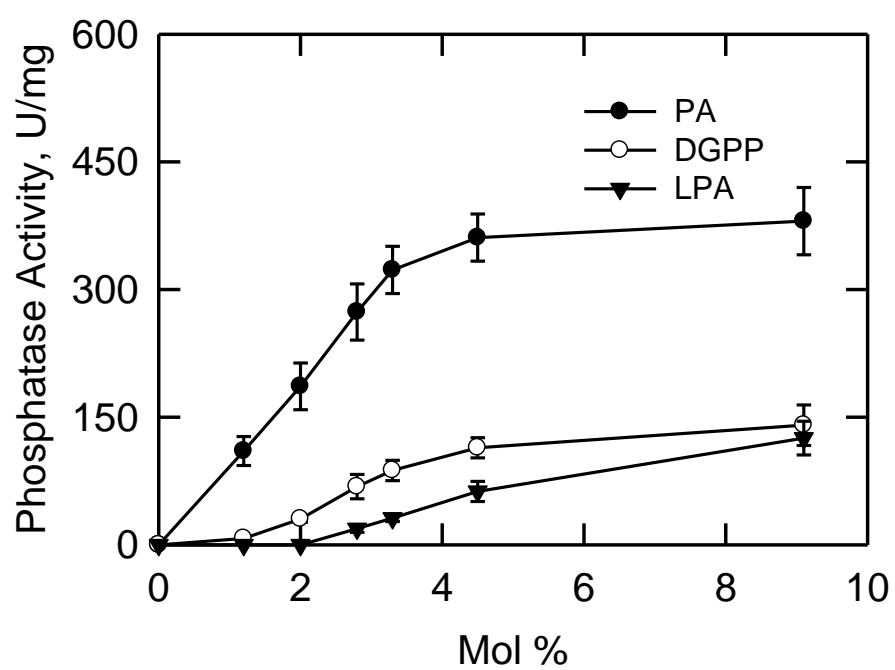


TABLE 4. Kinetic Constants for the App1p PAP of Its Substrates

Substrate	V_{max}	K_m	V_{max}/K_m	Hill no.
	<i>Units/mg</i>	<i>Mol %</i>		
PA	400	2.0	200	2.3
DGPP	143	2.9	49	3.3
LPA	139	4.8	29	3.4

(V_{max}/K_m) of PAP showed 4- and 7- fold higher than DGPP phosphatase and LPA phosphatase, respectively, suggesting that PA was the best substrate for App1p phosphatase.

Effect of Nucleotides and Lipids on App1p PAP

The effect of nucleotides on the activity of the App1p PAP was examined. PAP was inhibited by ATP (IC_{50} 3.1 mM), GTP (IC_{50} 3.8 mM), CTP (IC_{50} 3.3 mM), TTP (IC_{50} 5.5 mM) and UTP (IC_{50} 3.8 mM) in a dose-dependent manner (Fig 25). ATP and CTP were the most potent inhibitors of the enzyme. It was suggested that the mechanism of enzyme inhibition by nucleotides was the chelation of Mg^{2+} ion (120) because the mechanism of nucleotide inhibition with respect to Mg^{2+} ions was competitive.

The effect of phospholipids, neutral lipids, and sphingolipids on the activity of the App1p PAP was examined (Fig. 26 and Fig. 27). To better observe the stimulatory or inhibitory effects of lipids on the enzyme, the activity was measured with a subsaturating concentration of PA (2.5 mol % at 0.2 mM PA) and various concentrations of the lipid effectors. The activity was inhibited by phospholipids DAG, PE, PC, and sphingoid bases sphinganine, while phospholipids, LPA, CL, PG, PS, TAG, DGPP, CDP-DAG, and sphingoid base, sphingosine and sphingosine 1-phosphate, stimulate the activities. In particular, at concentration of 7.5 mol %, the sphinganine, DAG and PC inhibit the activity by 90, 61 and 57 %, respectively.

Effects of the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* Mutations on Lipid Composition

The PAP deletion mutants were used to determine the contribution of *APPI*, *PAHI*, *DPPI*, and *LPPI* to lipid composition. In the first set of experiments, wild type and mutants cells were labeled to steady state with [2- ^{14}C] acetate to analyze DAG, TAG, and total phospholipids. Cells were grown to the stationary phase (the growth phase where DAG and TAG are most affected (86)), lipids were extracted, and then analyzed by one-dimensional TLC. The *app1Δ* and

FIGURE 25. Effect of Nucleotides on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of nucleotides. The surface concentration of PA was 2.5 mol % (bulk concentration of 0.2 mM PA). The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations. 100 % activity is 70 U/mg.

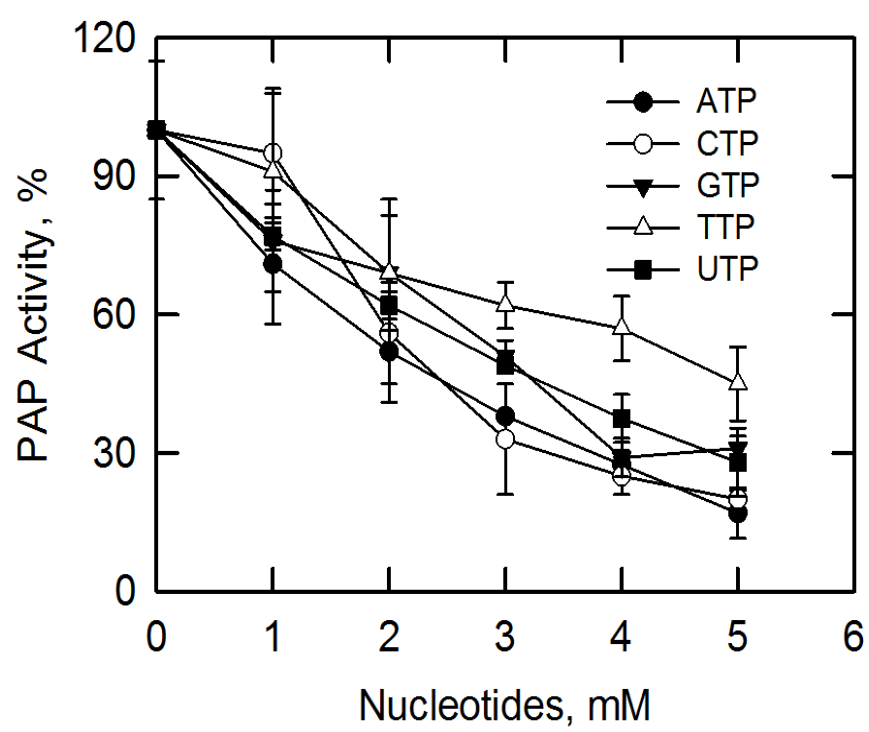


FIGURE 23. Effect of Phospholipids and Neutral Lipids on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of phospholipids or neutral lipids. The surface concentration of PA was 2.5 mol % (bulk concentration of 0.2 mM PA). The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations. 100 % activity is 76 U/mg.

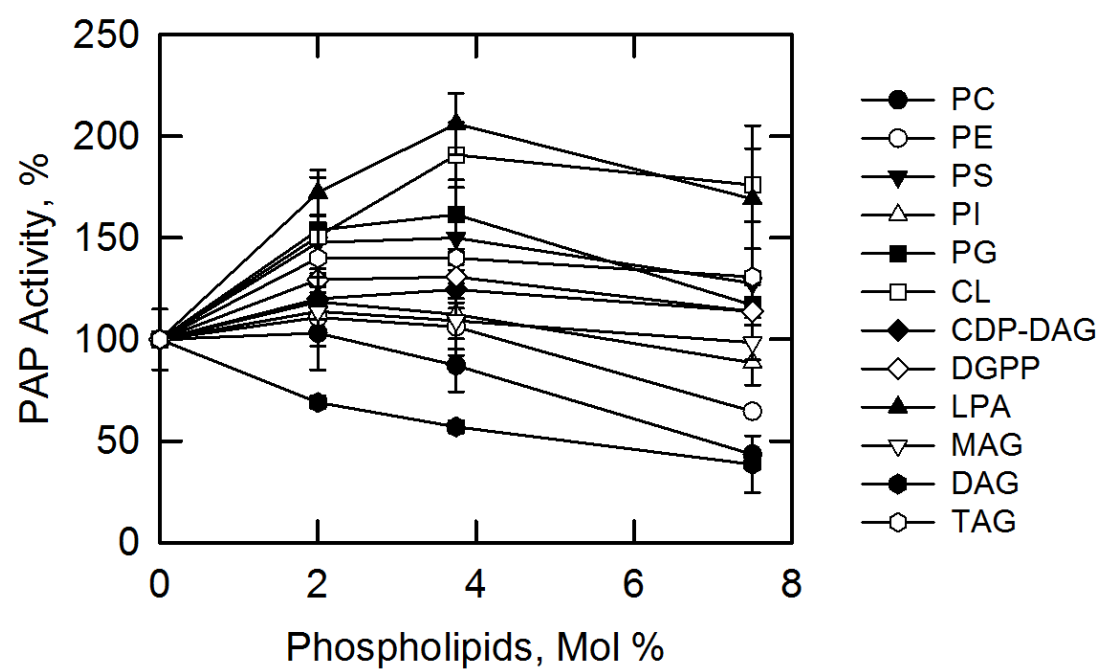
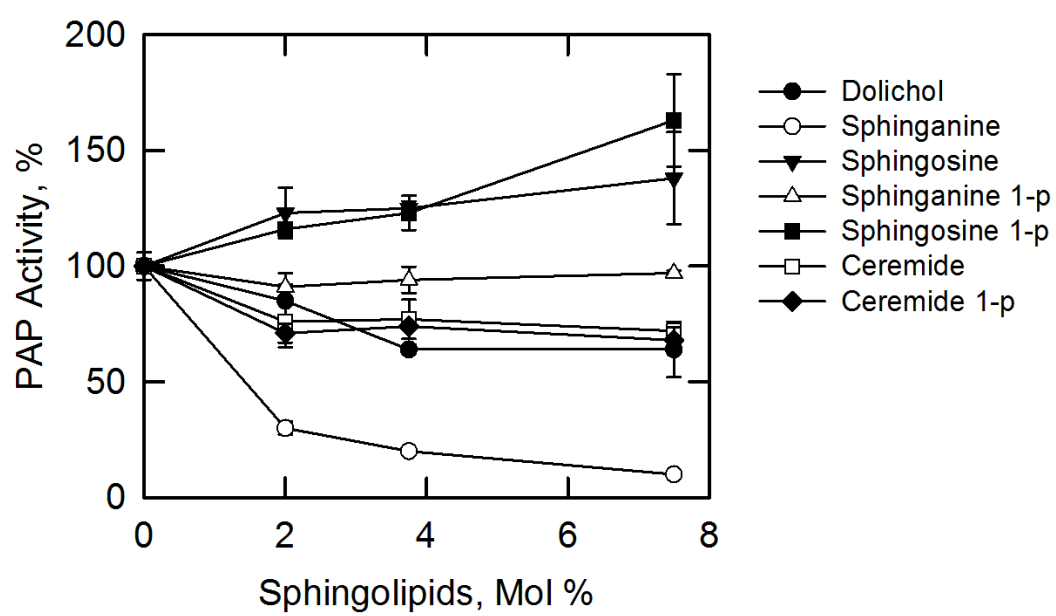


FIGURE 24. Effect of Sphingolipids on App1p PAP Activity. PAP activity was measured in the presence of the indicated concentration of sphingolipids. The surface concentration of PA was 2.5 mol % (bulk concentration of 0.2 mM PA). The data shown are means \pm S.D. from triplicate enzyme determinations. 100 % activity is 72 U/mg.



dpp1Δ lpp1Δ mutations did not have a significant effect on the relative amounts of DAG, TAG, and total phospholipids (Fig. 28). This analysis did show however, that of all the genes that encode PAP activity in yeast, *PAH1* was responsible for the synthesis of TAG and regulated the relative amounts of TAG and total phospholipids (Fig. 28). Moreover, alterations in lipid composition observed in the double, triple and quadruple mutants of which *pah1Δ* was included could be attributed to the *pah1Δ* mutation (Fig. 28). In the second set of experiments, the wild type and mutant cells were labeled to steady state with $^{32}\text{P}_i$ to analyze the composition of individual phospholipids. The phospholipids were extracted from exponential phase cells (the growth phase where phospholipid composition is most affected (86)) and analyzed by two-dimensional TLC. The relative amounts of the major phospholipids PC, PE, PI, PS, and the precursor PA were not affected by the *app1Δ* and *dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutations (Fig. 29). The relative amounts of these phospholipids, however, were affected by the *pah1Δ* mutation alone, and in combination with the *app1Δ* and *dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutations (Fig. 29). As described previously (86), the *pah1Δ* mutation caused decreases in the amounts of PC (37 %) and PS (33 %), and increases in the amounts of PE (108 %), PI (42 %), and PA (86 %). Interestingly, when combined with the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* mutations, the *app1Δ* mutation reversed the effects of the *pah1Δ* mutation on phospholipid composition. The reason for this observation is unclear.

FIGURE 28. Effects of the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* Mutations on DAG, TAG, and Total Phospholipids. The indicated cells were grown to the stationary phase of growth in the presence of [2-¹⁴C]acetate (1 μCi/ml). Lipids were extracted, separated by one-dimensional TLC, and the images were subjected to ImageQuant analysis. The percentages shown for the individual lipids were normalized to the total ¹⁴C-labeled chloroform-soluble fraction, which also contained sterols, fatty acids, and unidentified neutral lipids. Each data point represents the average of three experiments ± S.D. (*error bars*). PL, phospholipids. These experiments were performed by Gil-Soo Han.

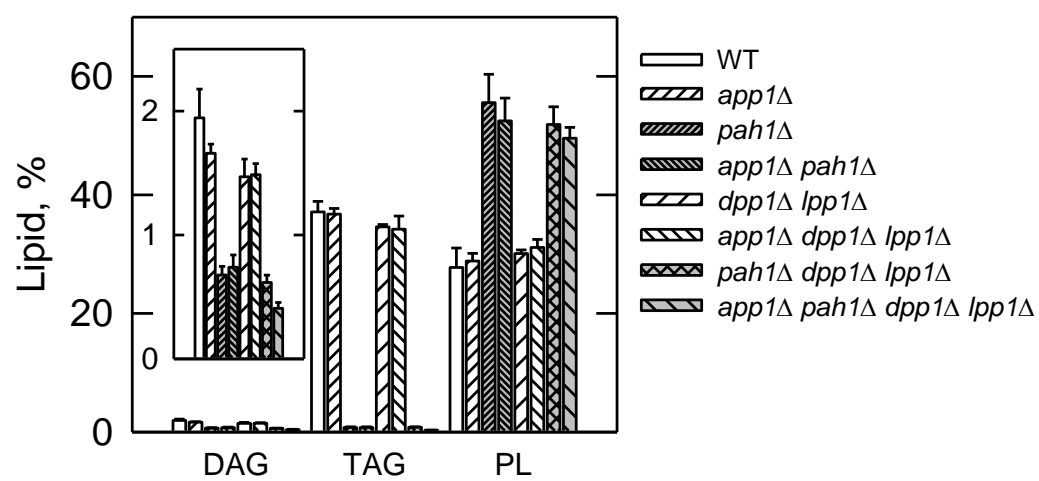
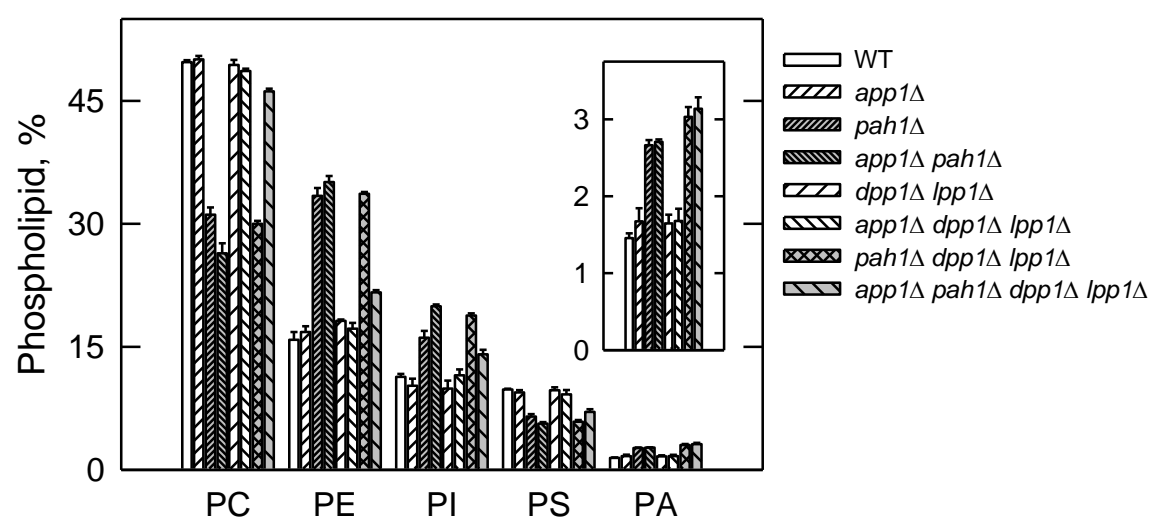


FIGURE 29. **Effects of the *app1Δ*, *pah1Δ*, *dpp1Δ*, *lpp1Δ* Mutations on Phospholipid Composition.** The indicated cells were grown to the exponential phase of growth in the presence of $^{32}\text{P}_i$ (10 $\mu\text{Ci/ml}$). Phospholipids were extracted, separated by two-dimensional TLC, and the images were subjected to ImageQuant analysis. The percentages shown for the individual phospholipids were normalized to the total ^{32}P -labeled chloroform-soluble fraction that included sphingolipids and unidentified phospholipids. Each data point represents the average of three experiments \pm S.D. (*error bars*). These experiments were performed by Gil-Soo Han.



DISCUSSION

It has been recognized that three genes *PAH1*, *DPP1*, and *LPP1* encode PAP enzymes in *S. cerevisiae* (80, 81, 86). One of the genes, *PAH1* encodes a Mg^{2+} -dependent soluble 95-kDa protein with a HAD-like domain with a catalytic DXDXT motif (86, 89). The Pah1p PAP has been shown to play a central role in the *de novo* synthesis of TAG and phospholipids (via the Kennedy pathway) in *S. cerevisiae*. The *pah1Δ* shows elevated levels of PA and decreased levels of DAG and TAG (86). Additionally, the amounts of phospholipids, fatty acids, and sterol esters are also elevated in response to the *pah1Δ* mutation (86). Unlike *PAH1*, *DPP1* and *LPP1* are Mg^{2+} -independent PAP enzymes with a three-domain lipid phosphatase motif comprised of the consensus sequences KXXXXXXRP(I), PSGH(II), and SRXXXXXHXXD (III) (81, 96). Dpp1p is a Zn^{2+} -regulated seven transmembrane domains PAP localized to the vacuole, and acts on DAG pyrophosphate and PA (43). Lpp1p is a polytopic PAP localized to Golgi puncta and dephosphorylates PA, LPA, and DGPP (80). The *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* triple mutant still shows residual activity in a Mg^{2+} -dependent PAP that is sensitive to inhibition by NEM (86).

APP1 was identified through a reverse genetics approach using protein sequence information derived from the PAP enzyme purified from the *pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* triple mutant. The PAP activity was labile in the absence of high salt, which comprised the effectiveness of some chromatography steps. While the developed eight-step purification scheme resulted in a 2,143-fold enrichment in PAP specific activity, it did not result in a homogenous enzyme preparation that could be used for unequivocal protein sequence determination. In addition, the advanced liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry technology used to obtain sequence information from the protein band enriched for PAP activity yielded very complex sequence information. Moreover, the reduced activity in the *app1Δ* mutant from the yeast deletion strain collection was only 30%, which did not provide much confidence that *APP1* encoded a PAP.

Nonetheless, the collective data (e.g., reduction of PAP activity in the *app1Δ* mutant, the *APPI*-directed overexpression of PAP activity in the *app1Δ pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* quadruple mutant, and the heterologous expression of App1p PAP activity in *E. coli*) provided a conclusive level of evidence that *APPI* is the structural gene encoding a PAP enzyme in *S. cerevisiae*.

Efforts to identify *APPI* by informatics and by genetic approaches were unsuccessful. For example, a protein blast search using Pah1p as the query did not identify App1p or any other homologs in the *Saccharomyces* genome database. A blast search against higher eukaryotic organism databases identified mammalian lipin proteins, but this was expected since a blast search with mouse lipin-1 as the query identifies yeast Pah1p (133). Likewise, a blast search using App1p as the query does not identify Pah1p or the mammalian lipins. Instead, this blast identifies homologous proteins that are only found in fungi. A synthetic genetic array screen using the *pah1Δ* mutant in combination with the *cho2Δ* and *opi3Δ* mutations defective in the PE methylation steps of PC synthesis via the CDP-DAG pathway (175, 176) has also been performed. The rationale being that a gene might be identified encoding a PAP enzyme that could bypass the loss of Pah1p and produce DAG for PC synthesis via the Kennedy pathway (66, 175). This genetic screen, however, did not lead to the identification of *APPI*, indicating that the molecular functions of App1p and Pah1p are not overlapping with respect to lipid synthesis. This assertion was further supported by the fact that *APPI* did not complement the temperature sensitive phenotype exhibited by the *pah1Δ* mutant, and that the analysis of cells possessing the *app1Δ* mutation alone and in combination with mutations for all the known PAP genes showed that only Pah1p PAP was involved in *de novo* lipid synthesis.

While there is essentially no protein sequence homology between App1p and Pah1p, both enzymes possess the canonical DXDX(T/V) catalytic motif that is typical of Mg^{2+} -dependent phosphatase enzymes (95). For Pah1p, its DIDGT catalytic sequence is contained within the HAD-like domain similar to that found in the mammalian lipin PAP enzyme (51, 134, 177).

However, the HAD-like domain is not found in App1p, but instead, it contains a conserved domain found in fungi that has some sequence similarity to the HAD-like domain found in Pah1p and lipin (178). It is within this domain that the App1p DIDDT catalytic sequence is found (Fig. 26), and indeed, the D281E mutation abolished PAP activity confirming this to be the catalytic sequence.

PAP activities have been isolated from *S. cerevisiae* that have molecular masses of 91 kDa (12), 75 kDa (84), 45 kDa (85), and 34 kDa (79). Protein sequence information has confirmed that the 91-kDa enzyme is a proteolysis product of Pah1p (86), and that the 34-kDa enzyme is Dpp1p (80). Lpp1p PAP was identified based on its sequence homology with Dpp1p (81). The identity of the genes encoding the 75- and 45-kDa forms of PAP activity has been an enigma. While the basic enzymological properties of these enzymes are similar, the 75-kDa enzyme is soluble whereas the 45-kDa enzyme is associated with mitochondria (84, 85). Because of the differences in size and location, it has been assumed that the 75- and 45-kDa PAP activities are encoded by different genes. Based on the fact that no detectable PAP activity was present in the *app1Δ pah1Δ dpp1Δ lpp1Δ* quadruple mutant, we hypothesize that the 75-kDa PAP was the soluble form of App1p and that the 45-kDa PAP was a proteolytic fragment of App1p bound to mitochondrial membranes. Unfortunately, this hypothesis cannot be addressed because preparations of the 75- and 45-kDa PAP enzymes are no longer available.

The identification of *APP1* as the gene encoding PAP allows us to express, purify, and characterize this new enzyme. App1p predicted to have a subunit molecular mass of ~66 kDa was migrated to be ~68 kDa upon SDS-PAGE. The molecular mass was also calculated to be ~66 kDa by gel filtration, suggesting its monomer properties. Early studies have provided useful information (*e.g.* pH optimum, Mg^{2+} ion requirement, and sensitivity to modifying chemicals like NEM) about the basic enzymological properties of PAP from yeast (84-86). However, the data derived from this work are difficult to interpret in a definitive way because they have been

derived from studies using impure enzymes. The work reported here on the App1p PAP did not contain competing and/or modifying enzymes or molecules that inhibit or stimulate activity. This work also reported the fact that Mn^{2+} could partially substitute for the Mg^{2+} dependences of the activity. However, Mg^{2+} and especially Mn^{2+} were inhibitory to the PAP activity at concentrations higher than their optimum levels. In addition, the purified enzyme was potently inhibited by Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} .

The availability of the purified App1p PAP permitted defined kinetic studies using Triton X-100/PA-mixed micelles. Indeed, the App1p PAP followed surface dilution kinetics because their PAP activities were dependent on both the molar (*e.g.* number of micelles containing PA) and the surface (*e.g.* number of PA molecules on a micelle surface) concentrations of PA. The K_m values for the molar concentration of PA reflected the interactions of the enzymes with the micelle surface, whereas the K_m values for the surface concentration of PA reflected the interactions with PA within the surface. These kinetic properties may reflect the *in vivo* condition, where soluble PAP binds to the mixed micelle surface before binding to its substrate and catalysis occurs (132). Specific constants (V_{\max}/K_m , $\mu\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{mg}/\text{mol} \%$) of App1p, Pah1p, Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP showed 200, 1.3 (126), 32 (42), and 4.2 (42), respectively. The App1p PAP activity exhibits the highest specific constant among all known PAP enzymes, indicating the best efficiency on dephosphorylation of PA.

The App1p PAP also shows LPAP and DGPP phosphatase activities. The V_{\max} for PA has 3- fold higher than the V_{\max} for DGPP and LPA, whereas K_m for PA has 2.4- and 1.5- fold lower than the K_m for DGPP and LPA, respectively. Thus, the specificity constant was in the order of $\text{PA} > \text{DGPP} > \text{LPA}$. The cooperative nature (Hill number ~ 2) of the activities with respect to the PA surface concentration may reflect cooperative interactions with the PA substrate, suggesting that the enzyme interacts with one PA molecule before it dephosphorylates another PA molecule (116). Like App1p enzyme, Dpp1p and Lpp1p enzymes have broad substrate specificity (PA,

LPA, and DGPP) (42, 79, 81). The order of substrate preference of *DPPI* gene products was DGPP> LPA> PA (79), whereas the order of *LPPI* gene products was PA> DGPP> LPA (81). The broad substrate specificity of App1p elucidates its important roles in lipid signaling like Dpp1p and Lpp1p.

Interestingly, LPA another substrate for App1p phosphatase simulated PAP activity. We expected LPA inhibits the PAP activity because PA and LPA were competitor for enzyme but otherwise LPA activated PAP activity. This activation can be explained by change in surface charge density of the micelle. Mosior and McLaughlin (179) report cooperative binding of peptides and proteins to membrane bilayers is induced by the additional electrostatic term in the binding energy as well as the reduced dimensionality. PAP activation by CL, CDP-DAG, and PI is previously reported and the activation by anionic phospholipids may be physiologically relevant (118). The activation of App1p PAP activity by CL and PG both of which are anionic phospholipids might be due to change in the surface charge density. The App1p PAP activities were inhibited by phospholipids DAG, PC and PE, which may be explained by downstream product inhibition or overall charge change of the micelle surface by zwitterionic phospholipids (PC and PE), which is consistent with a previous report PE and PC had a slight inhibitory effect on PAP (118). Sphingoid bases sphinganine was potently inhibitor of the App1p PAP. Sphinganine is a precursor of phytosphingosine in *S. cerevisiae* (180, 181) and sphingosine and phytosphingosine in mammalian cells (182). It is reported that sphinganine, a positively charged sphingoid base, inhibits the PAP activity and antagonizes the activation of the enzyme by CL and PI (118, 119). This inhibition provides the interrelationship between PA metabolism and sphingolipid signaling.

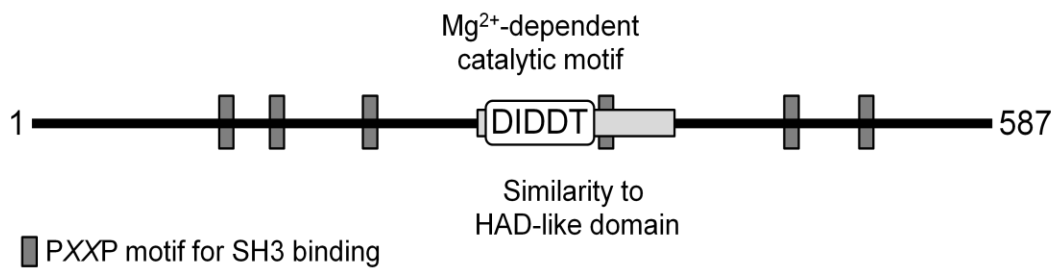
The PAP enzymes in *S. cerevisiae* are found in different cellular locations and play diverse roles in cell physiology (173). Pah1p is a cytoplasmic enzyme that associates with and functions at the nuclear/ER membrane to regulate the synthesis of TAG and membrane

phospholipids (33, 51, 86, 173, 183). Dpp1p and Lpp1p PAP are thought to control the signaling functions of PA, DGPP and LPA in the vacuole and Golgi membranes, respectively, the organelles for which these enzymes reside (79- 81, 33, 50, 43, 173, 184, 185). Like Pah1p, App1p is a cytoplasmic protein (185) that associates with membranes, but the role this PAP plays in cell physiology is not yet clear. An important clue as to its cellular function might come from the fact that it interacts with endocytic proteins at cortical actin patches (165-172).

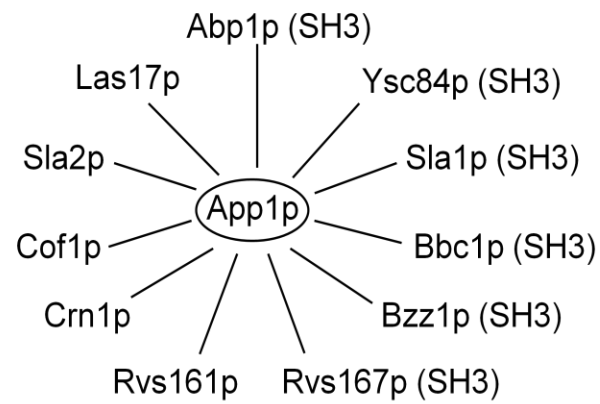
The formation of endocytic vesicles in *S. cerevisiae* involves a series of processes that include actin patch assembly, actin polymerization, and changes in membrane structure and curvature (170, 186). These processes involve numerous endocytic proteins, and App1p physically interacts with many of them (165-172) (Fig. 30). While these interactions have yet to be studied in great detail, the presence of proline-rich regions (PXXP motifs) in App1p suggests interactions with SH3 domains of Abp1p, Ysc84p, Sla1p, Bbc1p, Bzz1p, and Rvs167p (198, 199). App1p interactions with proteins that do not possess SH3 domains (e.g., Las17p, Sla2p, Cof1p, Crn1p, and Rvs161) must occur through other mechanisms yet to be defined. In any event, the position of App1p at cortical actin patches (186) raises the suggestion that its PAP activity controls the local concentrations of PA and DAG. These lipids are known to control membrane fission/fusion events in model systems (60, 176, 187-190) and they are also known to interact with and regulate enzymes (e.g., protein kinase C, protein kinase D) that play important roles in vesicular trafficking (52, 53, 56). For example, in mammalian cells, the proPr-mediated inhibition of PAP activity attenuates protein kinase D recruitment to Golgi membranes blocking vesicle bud formation and protein transport to the cell surface (56). We speculate that in yeast App1p PAP activity plays a role in vesicle formation through its recruitment from the cytoplasm to cortical actin patches via endocytic proteins. These proteins may simply serve as a scaffold to attract App1p to actin patches and/or may serve to regulate PAP activity to control the relative

FIGURE 30. Motifs in App1p and Interacting Endocytic Cortical Actin Patch Proteins. *A*, the diagram shows a linear representation of App1p with the approximate positions of the region that has similarity to an HAD-like domain (183), the DXDX(T/V) catalytic motif, and the PXXP motif for SH3 binding. *B*, the diagram shows that App1p interacts with the endocytic proteins Abp1p (167-169, 171, 172), Bbc1p (171, 172), Bzz1p (171-173), Cof1p (168), Crn1p (166), Las17p (170), Rvs161p (165, 166, 171-173), Rvs167p (165, 166, 171-173), Sla1p (166, 172), Sla2p (166), and Ysc84p (171-172). The proteins that possess SH3 binding domains are indicated by the *parentheses* after the name.

A



B



amounts of PA and DAG, which in turn, may control vesicle formation directly and/or indirectly. The work reported here provides the impetus to address these questions.

App1p was first known as an actin patch protein because of its interaction with Rvs161p and Rvs167p, which form a heterodimer through their BAR (Bin Amphiphysin Rvs) domains (191). In budding yeast, Rvs161p and Rvs167p (192) are the only BAR domain proteins and members of the BAR domain superfamily play important roles in membrane remodeling processes (193). Rvs161p consists solely of a BAR domain, whereas Rvs167p is composed of a BAR domain followed by a region rich in glycine, proline, and alanine (GPA), and an SH3 (Src-homology 3) domain at its C-terminus (194). The *rvs* defects results in polarizing the actin cytoskeleton, endocytosis, growth on salt, and sporulation (192, 195). In growing yeast cells, Rvs161p and Rvs167p localize to cortical actin patches, which are sites of endocytosis, and plays important roles in vesicle-scission step (195-198). A significant fraction of the endocytic patches begin to be internalized and move inward from the cell surface but are then retracted toward the cortex in *rvs161Δ*, *rvs167Δ* and *rvs161Δ rvs167Δ* mutants (198). We speculate the biochemical mechanism by which Rvs161p-Rvs167p promoting scission may be mediated by interaction with App1p.

For the future study, the effect of App1p on the endocytosis should be examined. Morphology of endocytosis could be monitored under an electron microscopy in *app1Δ* and *APP1* overexpression strains. Besides, the mechanism of interaction of App1p with endocytic cortical actin patch proteins should be examined. The interaction can be mediated through PXXP motif for SH3 binding (Abp1p, Ysc84p, Sla1p, Bbc1p, Bzz1p, and Rvs167p) or other mechanisms (Las17p, Sla2p, Cof1p, Crn1p, and Rvs1). We speculate the interaction with those actin patch proteins may regulate the App1p PAP activity because the App1p PAP purified from yeast shows much higher specific activity (400 μmol/min/mg) than that in cell extracts (1 nmol/min/mg). PAP activities in mutants lacking actin patch proteins interacting with App1p

should be measured to test this hypothesis. If the mutants show any changes in PAP activity, the proteins deleted in the mutants could be purified to test the effect of them on the App1p PAP activity and to determine the mechanism of interactions by defining the binding mode of the actin patch proteins with App1p. Furthermore, mutants with the actin patch proteins in combination with App1p should be constructed to see defects in endocytosis. Finally, while an App1p homolog does not exist in higher eukaryotes, the mammalian lipins do catalyze the PAP reaction (86, 199, 200), and as indicated above, PAP activity has been implicated in vesicular trafficking in mammalian cells.

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VITA

Minjung Chae

Education

- 2005 B.S., in Food and Nutrition, and Biological Science, Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea
- 2007 M.S., in Food Science and Technology, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon
- 2013 Ph.D., in Food Science, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey

Publication

- Chae, M. and Su, Y. C. (2009) Temperature effects on the depuration of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* and *Vibrio vulnificus* from the American oyster (*Crassostrea virginica*). *J Food Sci.* 74:M62-M66
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