



New Analytical Tools to Interrogate Inositol Pyrophosphate Signaling

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Erklärung des Autors

Diese Arbeit wurde vom 01.09.2015 bis zum 20.9.2019 unter der Aufsicht von Prof. Dorothea Fiedler am Institute für Chemie der Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin und am Leibniz-Forschungsinstitut für Molekulare Pharmakologie angefertigt.

Deklaration

Ich erkläre, dass ich diese Dissertation selbständig und nur unter Verwendung der von mir gemäß § 7 Abs. 3 der Promotionsordnung der Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät, veröffentlicht im Amtlichen Mitteilungsblatt der Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin Nr. 42/2018 am 11.7.2018 angegebenen Hilfsmittel angefertigt habe.

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Berlin, 18.09.2019

Declaration

Hereby, I declare that I have authored the present dissertation independently and only by means of the stated resources in accordance to § 7 Abs. 3 der Promotionsordnung der Mathematisch-Naturwissenschaftlichen Fakultät, published in the Amtlichen Mitteilungsblatt der Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin Nr. 42/2018 at 11.7.2018. All citations are marked as such. This thesis was not submitted to other examination boards in the same or similar form before.

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Abstract

Inositol pyrophosphates (PP-InsPs) are an important group of second messengers that intersect with a wide range of processes in eukaryotic cells including phosphate homeostasis, insulin signaling and apoptosis. However, despite their discovery more than two decades ago, elucidating the underlying signaling mechanisms still remains a significant challenge due to the limited access of synthetic PP-InsPs and a lack of widely available analytical tools. Therefore, a new set of chemical and analytical methods was developed to improve our understanding of these intriguing molecules on the biochemical and cellular level.

To overcome the shortage of synthetic PP-InsPs, a highly efficient and scalable chemoenzymatic approach was designed. Coupled to a simple purification method based on the precipitation with Mg^{2+} ions, the major mammalian PP-InsPs could be obtained in hundreds of milligrams quantities and high purity circumventing labor-intensive classical organic synthesis. In parallel, a new analytical tools was developed to quantify levels of PP-InsPs in complex samples. Chemoenzymatic access to ^{13}C -labeled *myo*-inositol and ^{13}C -labeled PP-InsPs enabled the detection of low concentrations of PP-InsPs using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. *In vitro*, these compounds were of great use for the biochemical characterization of PP-InsPs kinases from mammals and plants. Endogenous pools of PP-InsPs from human cell lines could be identified and quantified by metabolic labeling with ^{13}C -labeled *myo*-inositol and followed by assignment of characteristic signals using synthetic PP-InsP standards. Finally, a new proteomics workflow towards the detection of protein pyrophosphorylation, a posttranslational modification (PTM) mediated by PP-InsPs, using mass spectrometry (MS) was optimized and endogenously modified mammalian proteins could be identified for the first time and with high confidence. In

total, 36 pyrophosphorylated proteins could be detected and gene ontology analysis suggests a function of this PTM in ribosome biogenesis, cell-cell adhesion and cell division.

Taken together, the chemical and analytical tools presented have great potential to accelerate the understanding of PP-InsP signaling and metabolism. The supply of large amounts of PP-InsPs to the research community will strongly encourage scientists to interrogate these molecules in their biological context. In addition, the quantification of PP-InsPs with NMR and the identification of endogenous pyrophosphorylation sites by MS are complementary methods that will be essential to unraveling the signaling mechanisms underlying the diverse phenotypes associated with these metabolites.

Zusammenfassung

Bei den Inositolpyrophosphaten (PP-InsPs) handelt es sich um eine wichtige Gruppe eukaryotischer sekundärer Botenstoffe, die mit einer Reihe von verschiedenen Prozessen wie Apoptose, Phosphathomeostase und Insulinsignalkaskaden verknüpft sind. Trotz ihrer Entdeckung vor mehr als 20 Jahren bleibt es eine große Herausforderung, die Mechanismen hinter den Signalwirkungen dieser Moleküle zu verstehen. Die Ursache dafür ist der limitierte Zugang zu synthetischen PP-InsPs und es einen Mangel an allgemein zugänglichen analytischen Methoden. Daher wurden in dieser Arbeit chemische und analytische Methoden entwickelt, um unser Verständnis von diesen Molekülen sowohl auf ein biochemischer als auch auf zelluläre Ebene zu verbessern.

Um der Knappheit an synthetischen PP-InsPs entgegen zu wirken, wurde ein hocheffizientes synthetisches Verfahren entwickelt. In Kombination mit einer einfachen Aufreinigungsmethode, durch Fällung mittels Zugabe von Mg^{2+} Ionen, konnten mehr als 100 mg aller wesentlichen PP-InsPs von Säugern hergestellt werden. Parallel wurde ein neues analytisches Werkzeug entwickelt, dass Konzentrationen von PP-InsPs in komplexen Proben quantifizieren konnte. Mittels Enzymkatalyse konnten ^{13}C -markiertes *myo*-inositol und ^{13}C -markierte PP-InsPs hergestellt werden und niedrige Konzentrationen mit nuklearer Magnetresonanzspektroskopie (NMR) detektiert werden. *In vitro* waren diese Verbindungen sehr nützlich, um PP-InsP Kinasen von Pflanzen und Säugern biochemisch zu charakterisieren. Endogene Konzentrationen von PP-InsPs konnten durch metabolisches Markieren mit ^{13}C -markiertem *myo*-inositol in humanen Zelllinien identifiziert und quantifiziert werden. Letztendlich wurde auch ein neuer proteomischer Ansatz zur Detektion von Proteinpyrophosphorylierung, eine von PP-InsP eingebaute posttranslationale Proteinmodifikation (PTM), mittels

Massenspektrometrie (MS) optimiert und endogen modifizierte Proteine von Säugertieren konnten zum ersten Mal nachgewiesen werden. Insgesamt wurden so 36 pyrophosphorilierte Proteine gefunden und eine Genanalyse suggerierte Funktionen dieser PTM in Ribosombiogenese, Zell-Zell Adhäsion und Zellteilung.

Zusammenfassend haben die aufgelisteten chemischen und analytischen Werkzeuge ein hohes Potenzial das Verständnis von PP-InsPs bedingten Prozessen zu beschleunigen. Die Bereitstellung von größeren Mengen an PP-InsPs für die breite Forschung wird Wissenschaftler ermutigen diese Moleküle in neuen biologischen Kontexten zu studieren. Zusätzlich werden die komplementären Methoden, Quantifizierung von PP-InsPs mittels NMR und Identifikation von Proteinpyrophosphorilierung mittels MS, essenziell sein, um die Signalmechanismen, die den diversen Phänotypen der PP-InsPs zu Grunde liegen zu verstehen.

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List of Abbreviations

[¹³ C ₆]	uniformly ¹³ C-labeled on 6 carbon atoms (of <i>myo</i> -inositol)
[¹³ C ₆]1,5(PP) ₂ -InsP ₄	[¹³ C ₆]1,5-bisdiphosphoinositol tetrakisphosphate
[¹³ C ₆]1PP-InsP ₅	[¹³ C ₆]1-diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate
[¹³ C ₆]5PP-InsP ₅	[¹³ C ₆]5-diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate
[¹³ C ₆]InsP ₅	[¹³ C ₆]inositol pentakisphosphate
[¹³ C ₆]InsP ₆	[¹³ C ₆]inositol hexakisphosphate
¹ H, ¹ H-COSY	¹ H, ¹ H correlation spectroscopy
¹ H, ¹³ C-HMQC	¹ H, ¹³ C Heteronuclear Multiple-Quantum Correlation
¹ H, ³¹ P-HMBC	¹ H, ³¹ P Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Correlation
1,5(PP) ₂ -InsP ₄	1,5-bisdiphosphoinositol tetrakisphosphate
1PP-InsP ₅	1-diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate
4,5(PP) ₂ -InsP ₄	4,5-bisdiphosphoinositol tetrakisphosphate
5PP-InsP ₅	5-diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate
6,5(PP) ₂ -InsP ₄	6,5-bisdiphosphoinositol tetrakisphosphate
AC	adenylyl cyclase
ADP	adenosine diphosphate
Amp	ampicillin
AMP	adenosine monophosphate
Akt	protein kinase B
AP-3	adaptor protein 3
Asp1	diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate kinase from <i>S. pombe</i>
Arg82	<i>myo</i> -inositol polyphosphate multikinase from <i>S. cerevisiae</i>
ATP	adenosine triphosphate
βCN	β-cyanoethyl
BIRD	bilinear rotation decoupling
BIRD-HMQC	HMQC experiment with BIRD-pulse
Bn ₂	dibenzyl
BSTFA	<i>N,O</i> -bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide
cAMP	cyclic adenosine monophosphate
CID	collision-induced dissociation
CK2	casein kinase 2
CREB	cAMP response element binding protein
CrK	creatine kinase
CSA	camphorsulfonic acid
CV	column volume
DAPI	4',6-diamidin-2-phenylindol
DBU	1,8-Diazabicyclo(5.4.0)undec-7-ene
DCI	4,5-dicyanoethyl imidazole
DCM	dichloromethane

Ddp1	diphosphoinositol-polyphosphate diphosphatase from <i>S. cerevisiae</i>
DIPP1	diphosphoinositol-polyphosphate diphosphatase from <i>H. sapiens</i>
DIBAL-H	diisobutylaluminiumhydrid
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium
DMF	<i>N,N</i> -dimethylformamide
DMSO	dimethylsulfoxide
DPA	dipicolylamine
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
EThcD	electron-transfer dissociation combined with higher energy collision dissociation
Fm	fluorenylmethyl
FPLC	fast protein liquid chromatography
Gen	Gentamycin
GDP	guanosine diphosphate
GLUT4	glucose transporter type 4
GPCR	G-protein coupled receptor
GTP	guanosine triphosphate
HEPES	2-[4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethanesulfonic acid
HPLC	high performance liquid chromatography
hSAX	hydrophilic interaction strong anion exchange chromatography
IMAC	immobilized metal affinity chromatography
Ins	<i>myo</i> -inositol
InsP ₃	<i>myo</i> -inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate
InsP	<i>myo</i> -inositol phosphate
InsP ₅	<i>myo</i> -inositol pentakisphosphate
InsP ₆	<i>myo</i> -inositol hexakisphosphate
IP6K1	inositol hexakisphosphate kinase 1 from <i>H. sapiens</i> (Genbank: AC099668)
IP6KA	inositol hexakisphosphate kinase A from <i>E. histolytica</i> (Genbank: XP_648490.2)
lpk1	inositol-pentakisphosphate-2-kinase from <i>S. cerevisiae</i>
IPMK	inositol polyphosphate multikinase from <i>H. sapiens</i>
IPPK	inositol-pentakisphosphate 2-kinase from <i>H. sapiens</i>
lpk1	inositol-pentakisphosphate 2-kinase <i>S. cerevisiae</i>
IPS	inositol-3-phosphate synthase (WP_010879290.1)
IPTG	Isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranosid
IRS1	insulin receptor substrate 1
LC-MS	liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry
LIC	ligation independent cloning
Kan	Kanamycin

k_{cat}	turnover number
Kcs1	inositol hexakisphosphate kinase from <i>S. cerevisiae</i> and <i>S. pombe</i>
Kif3A	kinesin-like protein 3A
K_M	Michaelis-Menten constant
MBP	maltose binding protein
<i>mCPBA</i>	<i>meta</i> -chloroperoxybenzoic acid
MDD	metal dye detection
MES	2-(<i>N</i> -morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid
MOPS	3-morpholinopropane-1-sulfonic acid
MS	mass spectrometry
MS/MS	tandem mass spectrometry
mTOR	mammalian target of rapamycin
NADH	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (reduced form)
NAD^+	nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance (spectroscopy)
NTA	nitrilotriacetic acid
OD ₆₀₀	optical density at 600 nm
PAGE	polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
pCr	creatine phosphate
PDK1	phosphoinositide-dependent kinase 1
PH domain	plekstrin homology domain
Pi	phosphate
PI3K	phosphoinositide kinase 3-kinase
PHR	Pi starvation response
PLC	phospholipase C
PMB	<i>para</i> -methoxybenzyl
PPIP5K	diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate kinase from human
PPIP5K2 ^{KD}	(human) diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate kinase 2 kinase domain (Genbank: NP_001263206.1)
PtdInsP ₂	phosphatidyl <i>myo</i> -inositol-4,5-diphosphate
PtdInsP	phosphatidyl <i>myo</i> -inositol phosphate
PTM	posttranslational modification
rt	room temperature
SAX	strong anion exchange
SILAC	stable isotope labeling with amino acids in cell culture
SIMAC	sequential elution immobilized metal affinity chromatography
Siw14	protein tyrosine phosphatase
SMIT1	sodium- <i>myo</i> -inositol co-transporter
SPX domain	domain found in SYG1/Pho81/XPR1 proteins
sumo	small ubiquitin like modifier

TB	Terrific broth medium
TFA	trifluoroacetic acid
TLC	thin layer chromatography
TRIS	tris(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethan
V_0	initial specific velocity
VIH2	Vip1 homolog kinase
VIH2 ^{KD}	kinase domain of Vip1 homolog kinase
Vip1	diphosphoinositol pentakisphosphate kinase from <i>S. cerevisiae</i>
V_{max}	maximum specific velocity
wt	wild type
Xy	xylyl

Publications, Posters and Talks

Publications

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Posters

- [1] R. Harmel*, R. Puschmann*, M. Nguyen Trung, A. Saiardi, P. Schmieder, D.Fiedler. ¹³C-Labeled myo-inositol as a tool to interrogate inositol polyphosphate messengers. Poster presentation at the EMBO conference Chemical Biology **2018**, Heidelberg, Germany
- [2] R. Harmel*, R. Puschmann*, M. Nguyen Trung, A. Saiardi, P. Schmieder, D.Fiedler. ¹³C-Labeled myo-inositol as a tool to interrogate inositol polyphosphate messengers. Poster presentation at 1st UCSF-Berlin Integrative Structural Biology Meeting (ISB Meeting) **2019**, Berlin, Germany

(* contributed equally)

Talks

- [1] R. Harmel, J. A. M. Morgan, M. Penkert, E. Krause, F. Liu, D. Fiedler, Detection of Endogenous Protein Pyrophosphorylation Sites by a Tailored Proteomics Approach. 15 min talk presented on the Jungchemikerforum (JCF) **2018**, Berlin, Germany. Awarded for best talk.
- [2] R. Harmel, Session host at 1st UCSF-Berlin Integrative Structural Biology Meeting (ISB Meeting) **2019**, Berlin, Germany

Chapter 1 Introduction: Signal Transduction by Inositol Pyrophosphates

Cellular Signaling of Second Messengers

The transfer of information from the exterior to the interior of a cell is pivotal to all biological processes including cell proliferation, differentiation and even cell death. Disruption of signaling pathways and incorrect processing of cellular information are responsible for many diseases including cancer, diabetes and Alzheimer's disease. A better understanding of the mechanisms underlying signal transduction can guide the development of bespoke and effective medical therapies, as well as prevention strategies.

Converting extracellular information into a specific cellular response is a very complex process. Many signals must be recognized simultaneously, and the sum of this information must be combined into an appropriate feedback. Throughout the course of evolution, organisms have developed various signal transduction strategies that broadly follow three fundamental steps: signal perception, transduction relay and response. (**Figure 1.1**) At first, extracellular stimuli, usually in the form of small molecules or proteins (ligands), are recognized by a detector on the cell surface or within a cell (receptor).

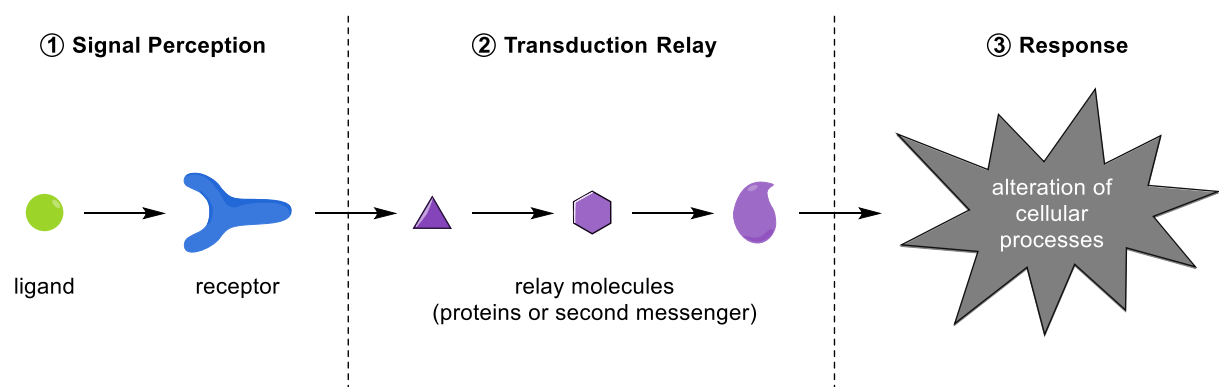


Figure 1.1: Fundamental steps of signal transduction: signal perception, transduction relay and response. Extracellular stimuli (ligands) are recognized by a receptor and the information is transferred through the cell by second messengers and/or proteins. These events lead to a cellular response, altering cellular processes.

The observed signal is then relayed by the receptor through intracellular signaling pathways *via* proteins and/or second messengers. The end of the transduction cascade results in an alteration of cellular processes which facilitates an adequate phenotypic change tailored to the initial extracellular stimulus.

An integral part of signaling is the transduction of information by second messenger molecules. In the second half of the 20th century, Earl Sutherland (Nobel Prize 1971) and colleagues have postulated the idea of a “second messenger” while investigating the function of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP).¹ Together with the pioneering work of Rodbell and Gilman (Nobel Prize 1994) on G-proteins, we now have a detailed mechanistic understanding of this process.² (**Figure 1.2**)

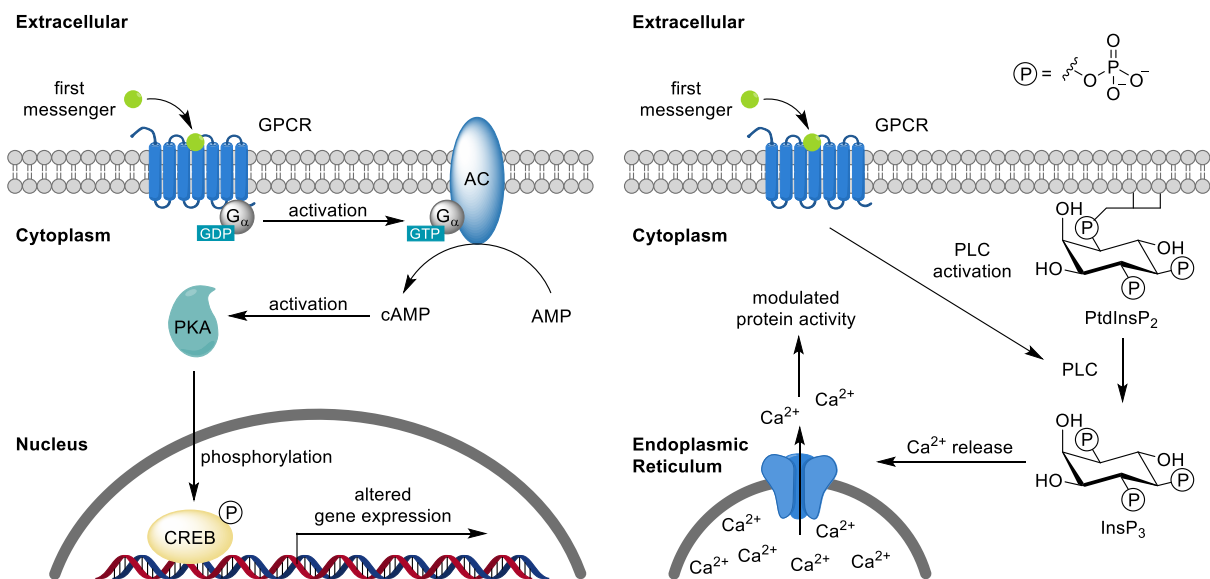


Figure 1.2: Cellular signaling of second messengers cAMP and InsP₃. (left) Proteome alteration *via* cAMP signaling. A first messenger is recognized by the GPCR and stimulates AC through the translocation of the G_α-protein. Activated PKA can phosphorylate CREB to alter gene expression. (right) Modulation of protein activity *via* InsP₃ signaling. A first messenger is recognized by the GPCR and PLC is activated in an analogous fashion as AC. PtdInsP₂ is cleaved to form InsP₃ which can interaction with the InsP₃-gated calcium channel. The release of Ca²⁺ from the endoplasmic reticulum leads to a modulation of protein activity inside the cell.

In their studies, they showed that neurotransmitters including dopamine and epinephrine bound to G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) on the cell surface and activated the production of cAMP from adenosine monophosphate (AMP) by adenylyl cyclase (AC).³⁻⁸ (**Figure 1.2 left**) The messenger cAMP then activated protein kinase A (PKA) which phosphorylated transcription factors, such as the cAMP response element (CREB) to alter gene expression. Today, it is well established that cAMP intersects with a plethora of biological functions such as the regulation of transcription factors, is associated with diseases such as cancer, and plays a wide role in metabolism.⁹

The example of cAMP shows how second messengers can directly create a response by changing the gene expression of a given cell. However, signal transduction chains also include downstream events where the function of already existing proteins is modulated. A molecule involved in such a mechanism is inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate (InsP₃) which participates in the regulation of cell proliferation and muscle contraction.¹⁰ (**Figure 1.2 right**) Upon ligand binding to the GPCR, phospholipase C (PLC) activity is upregulated and cleaves phosphatidyl *myo*-inositol-4,5-bisphosphate (PtdInsP₂) to liberate InsP₃ into the cytosol. Binding of InsP₃ to an InsP₃-gated calcium channel releases Ca²⁺ from the endoplasmic reticulum into the cytosol which subsequently modulates the activity of several proteins.

In the last five decades, scientists have come to a general understanding of second messenger systems and their underlying mechanisms. Particularly, the examples of cAMP and InsP₃ illustrated the enormous impact that these molecules can have on cells. However, over the years, new signaling molecules were found where the underlying mechanisms are not well established, yet. Therefore, continuous work

in this field will provide future opportunities to find new targets and strategies for therapeutic intervention.

Inositol Polyphosphates and Pyrophosphates

The inositol phosphates are one of the most important and versatile classes of second messengers and are based on the *myo*-inositol scaffold. They consist of two major subclasses, characterized by the lipid-anchored phosphatidyl *myo*-inositol phosphates (PtdInsPs) and the diffusible *myo*-inositol phosphates (InsPs). Biochemically, these messengers are synthesized directly from *myo*-inositol that can either be taken up by cells through the sodium-*myo*-inositol co-transporter (SMIT1) or synthesized *de novo* from glucose.^{11,12} (**Figure 1.3**) *myo*-Inositol is then incorporated into the cell membrane as PtdInsPs through a series of enzymatic transformations. PtdInsPs consist of several structurally related molecules (not shown) that fulfill functions such as synaptic vesicle trafficking and recruitment of proteins to the cell membrane, and represent an interesting group of signaling molecules in their own right.^{13,14} Cleavage of PtdInsP₂ by PLC leads to the formation of InsP₃ which can be further elaborated by *myo*-inositol polyphosphate multikinase (*Homo sapiens*: IPMK; *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: Arg82) and inositol-pentakisphosphate-2-kinase (*H. sapiens*: IPPK; *S. cerevisiae*: Ipk1) to the most abundant InsPs: InsP₅ and InsP₆ (10–100 μM in mammalian cells).¹⁵ These molecules are densely negatively charged, which provides them with distinct properties that enable specific functions. For example, InsP₆ can strongly chelate di- and trivalent cations but can also bind positively charged amino acid side chains.¹⁶ In the latter case, it can act as scaffolding molecule that is proposed to be involved in the assembly of the Gag hexamer and therefore the regulation of capsid stability in HIV.^{17,18}

5PP-InsP₅, respectively.^{21,22} PPIP5Ks modify InsP₆ at the 1-position to deliver 1PP-InsP₅.^{23,24} Finally, the combined actions of these two kinases produces 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ which possesses eight phosphoryl groups including two pyrophosphate moieties. Theoretically, 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ could be synthesized from either 1PP-InsP₅ or 5PP-InsP₅ but it is believed that the main biosynthetic pathway proceeds *via* a 5PP-InsP₅ intermediate as it is the most abundant PP-InsP (1–3 μM) and a much better substrate for PPIP5Ks than InsP₆.^{15,23–26} Compared to the kinases, the PP-InsP phosphatases are less well understood. One of the best characterized representatives is diphosphoinositol-polyphosphate diphosphatase (*H. sapiens*: DIPP1–5; *S. cerevisiae*: Ddp1), a member of the nudix hydrolyses, which can dephosphorylate both the 1- as well as the 5-position.^{27–32} Quite recently, protein tyrosine phosphatase (*S. cerevisiae*: Siw14) was shown to dephosphorylate PP-InsPs at the 5-position specifically.^{33,34}

The initial identification and characterization of PP-InsPs immediately raised speculation about their function as signaling molecules, as the cell must invest substantial energy in the production of these metabolites. This hypothesis was based on the observation that the biosynthesis of PP-InsPs requires at least seven or eight equivalents of ATP and that a rapid metabolic turnover of PP-InsP pools had been observed.^{19,20} PP-InsPs were found in yeast (*S. cerevisiae*, *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*), in the social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum* and in higher organisms like *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Mus musculus* and *H. sapiens* and even in plants suggesting a conserved and vital role in eukaryotic signaling.^{35–38} The last two decades have amplified the interest in these messengers due to a plethora of strong phenotypic associations that were identified, specifically through genetic intervention of the PP-InsPs biosynthetic pathway. (**Table 1.1**) For example, knockouts of the murine IP6K isoforms led to defects in insulin signaling, impaired spermatogenesis, and caused

resistance to fat-induced obesity.^{39–41} In mammalian cell lines, genetic perturbation of IP6Ks reduced migration and invasion of cells, and apoptosis was promoted.^{42–52} In yeast, the overexpression of Kcs1 perturbed the length of telomeres and changed cell cycle progression.^{53–55} The activity of PPIP5Ks has also been associated with distinct phenotypes. A PPIP5K missense mutation in humans was identified as a locus of hearing loss which could be recapitulated in PPIP5K2^{-/-} deficient mice.⁵⁶ In yeast, changes of Asp1 (the PPIP5K of *S. pombe*) or Vip1 (the PPIP5K of *S. cerevisiae*) were identified to regulate the dimorphic switch.^{57,58}

Table 1.1: Examples of identified phenotypes associated with IP6Ks and PPIP5Ks.

Enzyme	Organism	Effect	Reference
IP6K1	mouse	insulin signaling and sensitivity	35,40,59,60
	mouse	impaired spermatogenesis	40,41,61
	mouse, human	reduced cell migration and invasion	42,43
IP6K2	mouse, human	promoting apoptosis	44–52
	mouse	cancer metastasis and cell migration	43,62
IP6K3	mouse	life span	63
	human	susceptibility to Alzheimer’s disease	64
Kcs1	yeast	regulation of rRNA transcription	65
	yeast	cell cycle progression	55
	yeast	phosphate homeostasis	66
	yeast	telomere maintenance	53,54
PPIP5K1	human	bioenergetics homeostasis	67
	human	downregulation of apoptosis	68
	human	cell migration	69
PPIP5K2	mouse, human	hearing loss	56
Vip1	yeast	regulation of dimorphic shift	57,58

Together, these discoveries have painted *myo*-Inositol-based messengers as an interesting class of signaling molecules that are involved in many cellular processes. In particular, the unique PP-InsP subclass is associated with many intriguing phenotypes, which emerge upon genetic perturbation of the biochemical pathway, and remain an exciting area of investigation today.

Towards a Better Understanding of Inositol Pyrophosphate Signaling

The development of genetic model systems and the identification of PP-InsP-specific phenotypes was greatly aided by analytical tools that could elucidate the metabolism of these messengers and monitor levels of PP-InsP. Due to the absence of a UV-absorbing group in these molecules, the main methods used to visualize PP-InsPs strongly relied on radioactive labeling with ^3H and ^{32}P .^{19,20} *In vitro*, radioactively-labeled PP-InsP became the tool of choice for the identification of IP6Ks and PPIP5Ks in metazoan and yeast cells. Here, the purification of the enzyme could be followed by assaying the conversion of ^3H or ^{32}P -labeled InsP₆ or PP-InsPs to the corresponding PP-InsP product on polyethyleneimine-cellulose TLC plates. This method established a thorough understanding of PP-InsPs metabolism. *In vivo*, one of the major tools to analyze PP-InsPs pools was radioactive labeling of cells (yeast, *D. discoideum*, human) with [^3H]*myo*-inositol or [^{32}P]orthophosphate. Upon incorporation of these radioactive labels, PP-InsPs were extracted using perchloric acid and separated by strong anion exchange (SAX) high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) followed by their detection through scintillation counting of the collected fractions. (**Figure 1.4**). This method facilitated the discovery of these messengers and identified cellular conditions that modulate the PP-InsPs levels *in vivo*. For example, studies in

yeast cells indicated that PP-InsP levels are dependent on cell cycle progression and on phosphate availability.^{55,70}

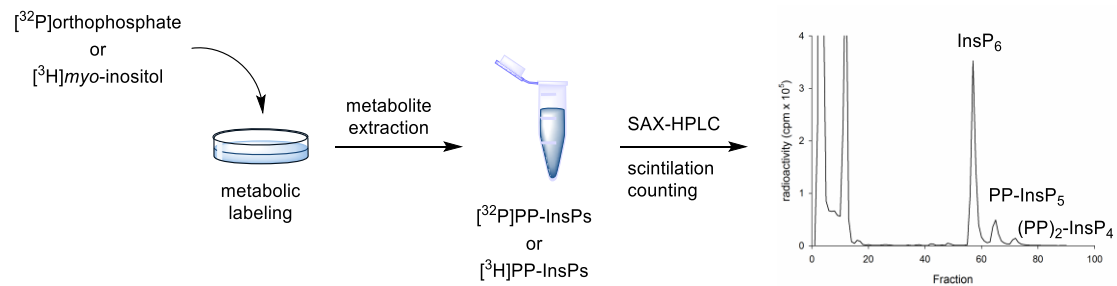


Figure 1.4: Metabolic labeling of eukaryotic cells with radioactive isotope tracers.

Genetic perturbation of PP-InsP metabolism and the analytical detection of these molecules by radioactivity had led to a good understanding of the processes PP-InsPs are involved in, but how these molecules induce their multifaceted phenotypes remained unclear in most cases. What were their underlying signaling mechanisms? A more elaborate understanding of this fundamental question required new biochemical methods that would offer a more detailed analysis of PP-InsPs signal transduction. The development of such techniques had been supported by the preparation of PP-InsPs as standards, reagents and even chemical probes. Traditionally, radioactively labeled PP-InsPs had been synthesized with the help of enzymes using short synthetic routes on a small scale.^{71,72} In order to produce highly pure material on a larger scale, chemists designed multistep syntheses that are challenging but delivered low milligram quantities.^{73,74} Regardless of their synthetic origin, PP-InsPs standards and reagents were provided to a wider scientific community by both methods. Unfortunately, the distribution of these small molecule messengers in sufficient amounts, especially in the case of the unsymmetrical PP-InsPs, is far from optimal and remains a major bottle neck in this field.

In the meantime, scientists that had access to these molecules started to investigate their underlying signaling mechanisms. Based on the chemical structure of these compounds it was obvious to draw a connection to the lower phosphorylated InsPs. Both classes have a high charge density, can chelate divalent metals and the pKa of the phosphoryl groups is perturbed.^{16,75} InsPs like InsP₃, InsP₄ and InsP₆ are known to interact with proteins and modulate their activity through binding of positively charged domains.^{76–78} Consequently, this mechanism of action had also been proposed for PP-InsPs. So far, only a few cases were identified where PP-InsPs specifically modulated biological processes as compared to other InsPs. A prominent example is the regulation of protein kinase B (Akt) by 5PP-InsP₅. (**Figure 1.5**)

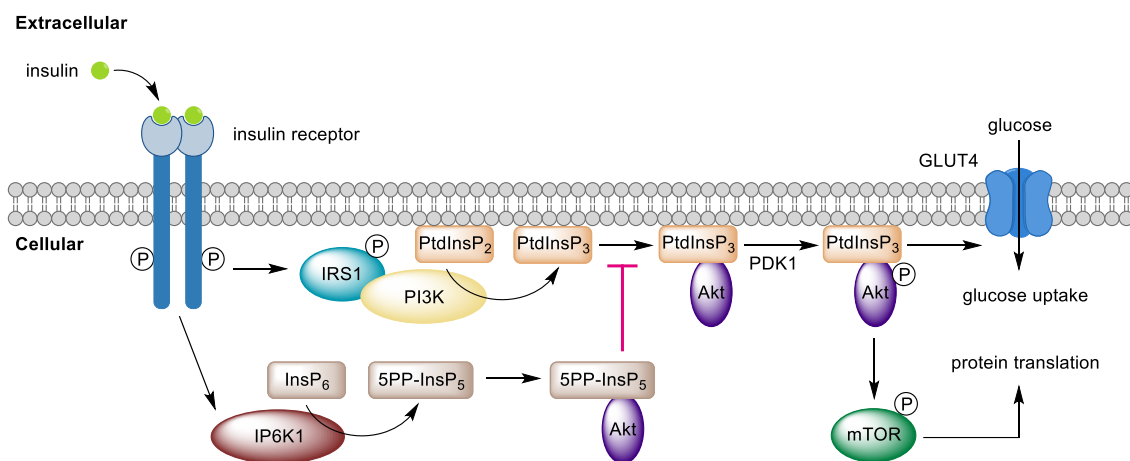


Figure 1.5: Insulin/Akt signaling pathway is regulated *via* inositol pyrophosphates. Akt is recruited to the membrane upon insulin signaling by PtdInsP₃ and activates GLUT4 and mTOR which leads to glucose uptake and protein translation. Simultaneously, the insulin receptor stimulates the production of 5PP-InsP₅ which competes with PtdInsP₃ for the PH domain of Akt and inhibits its translocation to the membrane. (Figure adapted from ‘Insulin Signaling: Inositol Phosphates Get Into the Akt’.⁷⁹).

After the observation of insulin hypersensitivity in IP6K1^{-/-} mice, the underlying mechanism was investigated.⁵⁹ Canonically, upon binding of insulin to its receptor, insulin receptor substrate 1 (IRS1) activates phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K). PtdInsP₂ is phosphorylated at the 3-position by PI3K to form PtdInsP₃ which recruits

Akt and phosphoinositide-dependent kinase-1 (PDK1) to the cell membrane by binding to their pleckstrin homology (PH) domain. Here, Akt is activated by phosphorylation through PDK1 and stimulates downstream protein translation *via* mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling and supports glucose uptake *via* glucose transporter type 4 (GLUT4). 5PP-InsP₅ is a physiological regulator of this process and its biosynthesis is elevated through insulin. It acts by binding to the PH domain of Akt and prevents its translocation to the membrane. In IP6K1^{-/-} mice, Akt activity cannot be perturbed by 5PP-InsP₅ leading to insulin hypersensitivity. Conversely, increased stimulation of 5PP-InsP₅ synthesis might lead to reduced activity of Akt and therefore insulin resistance. A similar effect was obtained upon delivery and subsequent photorelease of exogenous 5PP-InsP₅ into cells.⁸⁰ Beside the PH domain, PP-InsP are known to bind to C2B domains and SPX domains suggesting a role in exocytosis and phosphate homeostasis.^{77,81,82}

In an effort to identify more binding interactions between PP-InsPs and proteins, an unbiased proteomics pull-down approach using a non-hydrolyzable analog of 5PP-InsP₅ identified more than 100 proteins in yeast that are selectively enriched over immobilized phosphate.⁸³ Interestingly, most of these proteins had an affinity for InsP₆ and only in a few cases, selectivity for 5PP-InsP₅ was observed. In this study, two distinct sets of proteins were found to bind 5PP-InsP₅ either in the absence or presence of Mg²⁺ ions with only little overlap in between. This observation indicated the presence of two different sets of interacting partners – and potentially signaling mechanisms – where one of these was essentially dependent on divalent metal cations.

Indeed, besides binding to proteins in a manner comparable to the lower InsPs, a second mechanism of action was proposed for PP-InsPs that utilizes their unique phosphoanhydride bond. Interestingly, it was found that cell invest a lot of energy into

the regeneration of this moiety, resulting in up to 50% turnover of InsP₆ into PP-InsPs every hour.^{19,84} Moreover, the energy of hydrolysis of the pyrophosphate bond in 5PP-InsP₅ and 5,6(PP)₂-InsP₄ was predicted to be in between the values of ATP (−30.5 kJ/mol) and ADP (−26.7 kJ/mol) or even higher.⁸⁵ These observations led to the hypothesis that PP-InsPs might be able to transfer their β-phosphoryl group onto a given substrate.

This proposed mechanism had been investigated by Snyder and coworkers in the mid 2000's. Using 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P, they detected *in vitro* phosphorylation of proteins in cell lysate samples from yeast, fruit flies, and mice but not in bacterial extracts.⁸⁶ (**Figure 1.6**) In this report, it was shown that the phosphoryl transfer is likely to occur *via* an enzyme-independent mechanism, requiring only Mg²⁺ or Ca²⁺ as a co-factor. In a follow-up article, the phosphorylation of proteins by PP-InsPs was found to be resistant to some phosphatases, like λ-phosphatase, and was localized at polyacidic stretches that bear a consensus motive for casein kinase 2 (CK2).⁸⁷

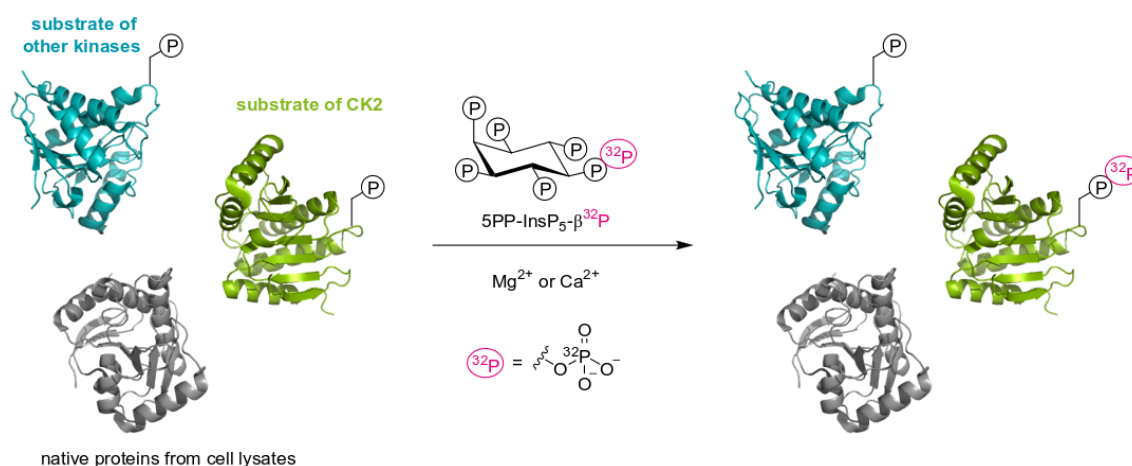


Figure 1.6: *In vitro* pyrophosphorylation of proteins from cell lysates using 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P. Proteins that are substrates of CK2 become pyrophosphorylated while non-CK2 site and unphosphorylated proteins remain unmodified.

Finally, more detailed analysis of the modified sites showed that the phosphoryl transfer was only possible on CK2-phosphorylated serine residues. Together with the previous findings, this new posttranslational modification (PTM) became known as protein pyrophosphorylation. Besides mechanistic aspects, the work from the Snyder laboratory also identified several *in vitro* pyrophosphorylated proteins from yeast (NSR1, SRP40, YGR130c, APL6) and mammals (Nopp140, AP3 β 3A, and TCOF1). These proteins are associated with essential cellular processes such as ribosome biogenesis, nucleocytoplasmic transport and regulation of translation.

Since the discovery of protein pyrophosphorylation, there had been various efforts to show the significance of this modification *in vivo*. This was achieved in an indirect fashion by comparing the *in vitro* pyrophosphorylation of proteins from lysates with different genetics backgrounds: wild type and IP6K^{-/-}. (**Figure 1.7**)

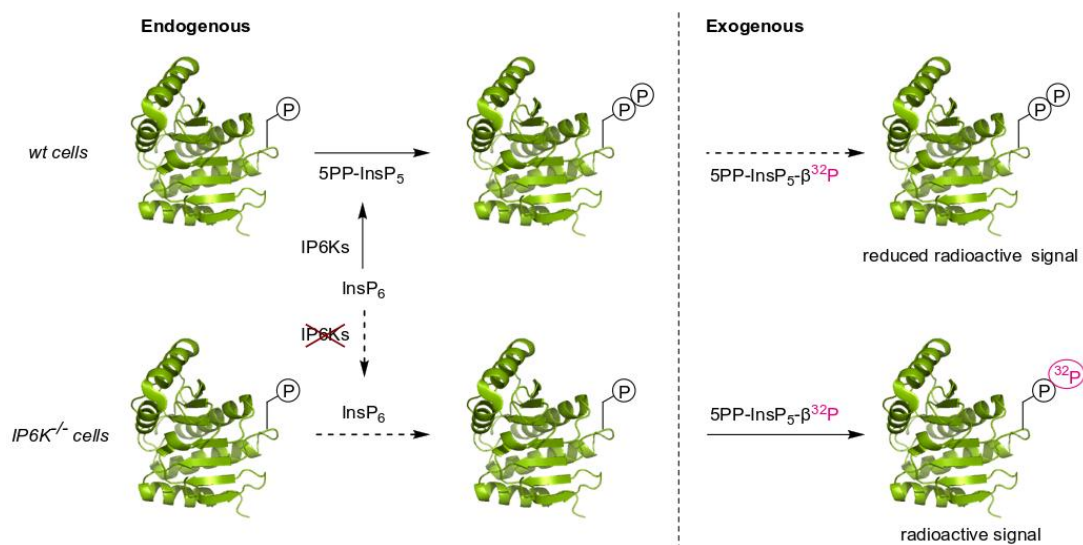


Figure 1.7: Detection of potential endogenous pyrophosphorylation sites by the ‘back-pyrophosphorylation assay’. In wild type cells, 5PP-InsP₅ pyrophosphorylates proteins thereby reducing pyrophosphorylation by 5PP-InsP₅- $\beta^{32}P$. In IP6K^{-/-} cells, 5PP-InsP₅ is not present which maximizes the signal intensity induced by the pyrophosphorylation with 5PP-InsP₅- $\beta^{32}P$. Radioactive proteins are usually analyzed by PAGE.

The so-called 'back-pyrophosphorylation assay' was based on the assumption that IP6K^{-/-} cell lines were unable to produce 5PP-InsP₅ which should significantly lower the pyrophosphorylation of proteins, allowing more *in vitro* phosphoryl group transfer to subsequently occur. Consequently, *in vitro* pyrophosphorylation by 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P should create a higher radioactive signal compared to the wild type sample. Using this method, it was demonstrated that protein pyrophosphorylation can modulate protein-protein interactions. Specifically, pyrophosphorylation prevented the interaction of the adaptor protein 3 (AP-3) complex with kinesin-like protein 3A (Kif3A), thus modulating its ability to regulate the HIV-1 gag release.⁸⁸ On the other hand, pyrophosphorylation of dynein enhanced its interaction with dynactin, thereby regulating cytoplasmic dynein-driven transport.⁸⁹ Interestingly, protein pyrophosphorylation was also identified as a regulator of RNA transcription.⁶⁵ These results were not obtained by the back-pyrophosphorylation assay but by investigating a phenotype in *kcs1* Δ cell lines. Transcription by RNA polymerase 1 was compromised in these cells and three subunits of this enzyme were identified as substrates for *in vitro* pyrophosphorylation. Taken together, all of these findings slowly solidified pyrophosphoserine residues as signaling entities but up until now endogenous protein pyrophosphorylation has never been detected directly. Therefore, some scientists in the field raised reasonable concerns over the current methods, and the overall impact of this modification *in vivo* remains controversial.^{90,91}

The field of PP-InsP research has come from correlating PP-InsP levels with different genetic backgrounds to a more mechanistic understanding of how PP-InsP fulfil their multifaceted functions. This transition was possible through the development of more elaborate biochemical techniques that disentangle different signaling aspects of PP-InsPs such as protein binding or protein pyrophosphorylation. A deeper

understanding of these processes will enable future scientists to identify new checkpoints in signal transduction pathways and potentially lead to the discovery of new targets for pharmacological intervention.

Conclusions

Second messenger-based signaling is a very important process that plays a central role in many cellular functions as well as in severe diseases. Among these messengers, the PP-InsPs family is associated with many intriguing phenotypes suggesting a significant impact within signaling cascades. In the last 25 years, scientists have pursued a deeper understanding of the underlying mechanisms of these small molecules and have proposed binding interactions with proteins and protein pyrophosphorylation as the two major mechanisms of action. So far, many aspects of the binding-related modulation of proteins by PP-InsPs remain unclear and many proteins that were identified as potential binders have not been fully characterized yet. In the case of protein pyrophosphorylation, we are even further away from a thorough understanding. Neither the existence nor the biological significance of this PTM *in vivo* has been proven so far and the mechanisms that regulates temporal and spacial distribution or dynamics are unknown. To enable a broader scientific community to engage with PP-InsP research and to accelerate this field, widely available and sophisticated methods are necessary to study new aspects of PP-InsPs signaling *in vitro* and especially *in vivo*. This should be accompanied by the replacement of the traditional methods that are based on radioactivity. Even though radiolabeling is one of the most sensitive techniques, *in vivo* applications are limited and combinations with modern high resolution techniques like nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, mass spectrometry (MS) or cryo electron microscopy

are not possible. Finally, the development of novel methods and their usage will be highly dependent on the availability of the PP-InsPs molecules, so novel procedures to produce large amounts of these messengers are desperately needed.

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Chapter 2 Scalable Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of Inositol Pyrophosphates

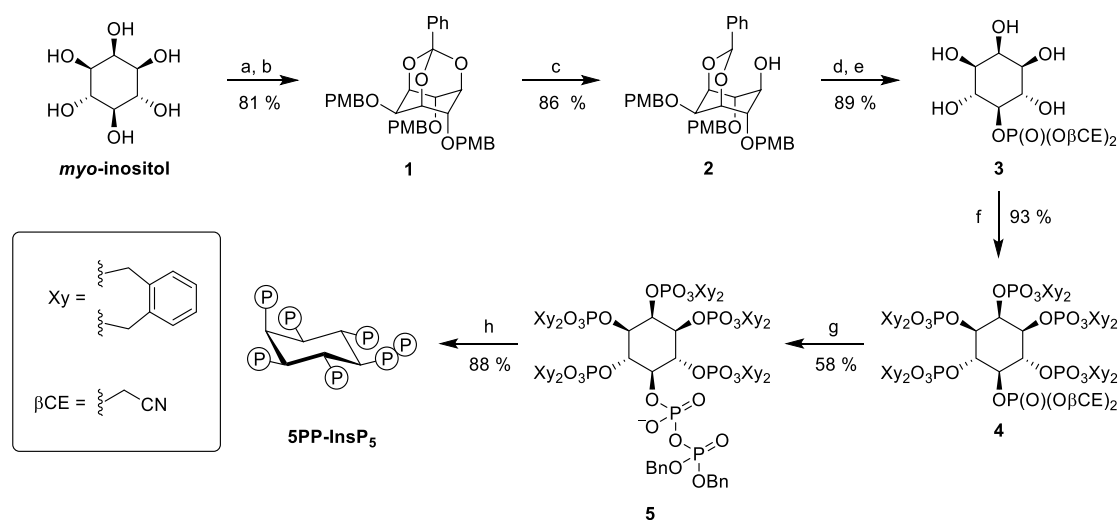
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Project Collaborators: R. Puschmann performed the cloning of the IP6KA and PPI5K2 kinases into pET vectors and the optimization of the protein expression. Protein expression and synthesis of InsP₆ were conducted by both R. K. Harmel and R. Puschmann. PAGE gel analysis was performed by R. Puschmann. Preliminary optimization experiments on the 5PP-InsP₅ synthesis were performed by M. Nguyen Trung under the supervision of R. K. Harmel. R. Puschmann optimized the synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P.

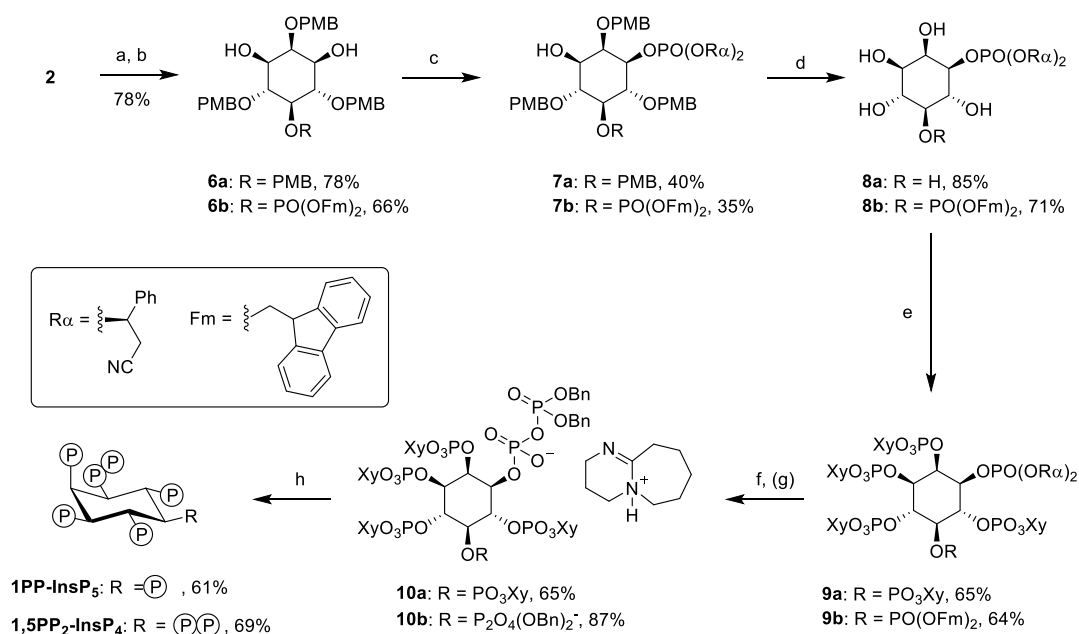
Introduction: Design of a Scalable Synthesis of PP-InsPs

The synthesis of PP-InsPs has been pursued using two main approaches: classical organic chemical synthesis and chemoenzymatic synthesis. The chemical syntheses employed orthogonally protected *myo*-inositol to introduce the pyrophosphate groups at the desired positions. In case of 5PP-InsP₅, *myo*-inositol was converted into an orthobenzoate ester followed by PMB protection. (**Scheme 2.1**) The resulting compound **1** was selectively deprotected by DIBAL-H at the 5-position to yield acetal **2**. The 5-position was phosphorylated with β -cyanoethyl (β CN) phosphoamidite followed by global acid deprotection. Pentaol **3** was then phosphorylated on positions 1–4 and 6 using xylyl (Xy) phosphoamidite to give **4**, followed by β CN deprotection and pyrophosphorylation at the 5-position with dibenzyl (Bn₂) phosphoamidite. Global hydrogenation of compound **5** afforded 7 mg of 5PP-InsP₅ in 30% yield over 7 steps starting from *myo*-inositol.^{1–5}



Scheme 2.1: Chemical Synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅ with 30% overall yield. a) PhC(OMe)₃, CSA, DMSO b) NaH, PMB-Cl, DMF c) DIBAL-H, DCM d) β CE phosphoamidite, DCI, MeCN, then *t*BuOOH e) 5% TFA, DCM f) Xy phosphoamidite, DCI, MeCN/DMF, then *m*CPBA g) DBU, BSTFA, MeCN, then MeOH, TFA, then Bn₂- phosphoamidite, tetrazole, MeCN then *m*CPBA h) NaHCO₃, Pd(black)/H₂, H₂O/*t*BuOH.

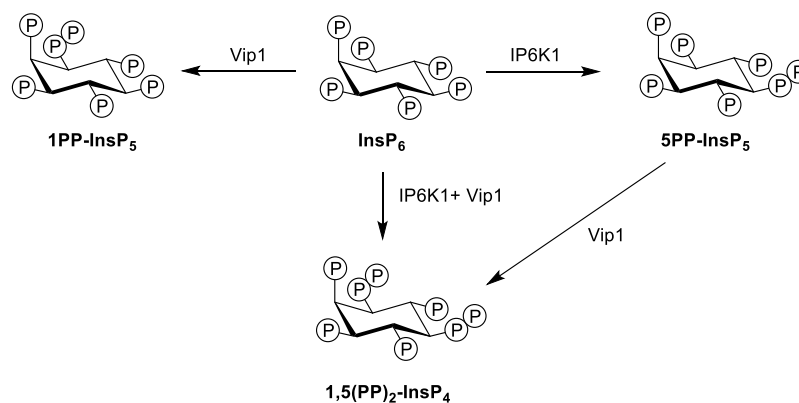
Compared to 5PP-InsP₅, the synthesis of the asymmetric 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ molecules was more challenging and lower yielding.^{2,3} (**Scheme 2.2**) For 1PP-InsP₅, **2** was protected with PMB at the 5-position and the acetal was removed by acid hydrolysis to give **6a**. Phosphorylation at the 1- and the 3-positions with a chiral phosphoamidite led to a mixture of diastereoisomers which could be separated using silica chromatography. The PMB groups of the obtained **7a** were deprotected with acid and global phosphorylation of **8a** yielded the pentaphosphate ester **9a**. Selective deprotection and pyrophosphorylation of the 1-position yielded **10a** as the DBU salt which could be globally deprotected to afford 6 mg of 1PP-InsP₅ in 4.8% yield over 9 steps from *myo*-inositol. The chemical synthesis of 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ was performed in an analogous fashion.



Scheme 2.2: Chemical Synthesis of 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. a) **6a**: NaH, PMB-Cl, DMF; **6b**: Fm phosphoamidite, phenyl tetrazole, MeCN, then *t*BuOOH b) pTsOH, H₂O/MeOH or DCM/MeOH c) R α phosphoamidite, tetrazole, MeCN, then *m*CPBA d) 2.5–5% TFA in CHCl₃ e) Xy phosphoamidite, DCI, MeCN, then *m*CPBA f) DBU, BSTFA, MeCN, then TFA, MeOH g) then Bn₂ phosphoamidite, tetrazole, MeCN, then *m*CPBA h) NaHCO₃, Pd(black)/H₂, H₂O/*t*BuOH.

Here, a third orthogonal phosphoryl protecting group was introduced at the 5-position that facilitated the introduction of the pyrophosphate in compound **10b**. Global deprotection afforded 11 mg of 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ in 4.4% yield over 9 steps from *myo*-inositol. Overall, organic syntheses of the PP-InsPs have been improved in recent years, but they still require multi-step procedures and remain viable only in the hands of skilled organic chemists in the context of an appropriately equipped laboratory. Organic chemistry, however, remains the only scalable solution to obtain milligram quantities of PP-InsPs in high purity.

An alternative route to generate PP-InsPs is their synthesis from InsP₆ using two distinct classes of small molecule kinases: IP6Ks and PPIP5Ks.^{6,7} (**Scheme 2.3**) IP6K1 has been applied in the synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅ and the kinase domain (^{KD}) of PPIP5Ks either from *S. cerevisiae* or *H. sapiens* can be utilized for the synthesis of 1PP-InsP₅. The combined action of IP6K1 and PPIP5K^{KD} can provide access to 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. This approach has been in particular useful for the synthesis of radioactively labeled compounds where long syntheses are not suitable.⁶ While the number of synthetic steps is strongly reduced compared to chemical synthesis, the challenge of this chemoenzymatic approach lies in separation of the PP-InsPs from other reaction components such as salts, buffer, proteins or other small molecules. HPLC and preparative polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) have been valuable tools to purify PP-InsP (discussed in detail in Chapter 3). Unfortunately, these techniques lack scalability and have thus far disqualified chemoenzymatic approaches as major sources for PP-InsPs.



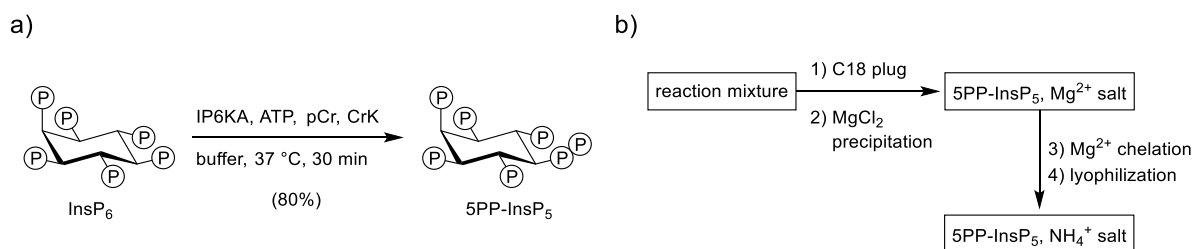
Scheme 2.3: Chemoenzymatic synthesis of PP-InsPs utilizes Vip1 or/and IP6K1.

In Chapter 2, a new strategy that merges the high efficiency of the enzymatic synthesis with the scalability of a classical synthetic approach is reported. High yielding procedures for the chemoenzymatic synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅, 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ on a 100–350 mg scale were developed, using the recently identified inositol hexakisphosphate kinase A (IP6KA) from *Entamoeba histolytica* and the kinase domain of human PPIP5K2 (PPIP5K2^{KD}). Coupled to a purification method that relies on precipitation of the PP-InsP-Mg complexes and strong anion exchange chromatography on a SAX fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) system, the PP-InsPs could be obtained in high purity. In the long term, easily accessible PP-InsP syntheses will enable researchers in fields removed from synthetic chemistry to investigate these molecules in a variety of biological contexts, enhancing our molecular understanding of PP-InsP signaling in healthy and diseased states.

Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅

To synthesize 5PP-InsP₅ chemoenzymatically, we recombinantly expressed IP6KA, an InsP₆ kinase from the parasitic amoeba *E. histolytica*.^{8,9} The advantage of this enzyme, compared to the commonly used human IP6K1, is the fast enzyme reaction kinetics, good stability, and high expression yield (ca. 100 mg of protein per 1L of *E. coli* culture). Initially, we obtained an MBP-tagged IP6KA construct from Shears and co-workers that was only catalytically active upon TEV-mediated removal of the MBP-tag. The MBP-tag was replaced by a His-tag which allowed expression of a catalytically active IP6KA, circumventing the TEV cleavage. The substrate for IP6KA, InsP₆, was prepared from *myo*-inositol using a straightforward two step literature procedure.¹⁰

With substrate and enzyme in hand, reaction conditions were optimized (pH, time, enzyme- and Mg²⁺-concentration) by monitoring PP-InsP kinase activity using NMR spectroscopy and uniform ¹³C-labeled ([¹³C₆]) InsP₆. This new spectroscopic approach was developed in parallel with the synthetic effort reported here, and is explained in detail in Chapter 3.¹¹ Full conversion of InsP₆ to the 5PP-InsP₅ product was achieved within 30 min, applying 0.3 μM of IP6KA at pH 6.4 in combination with an ATP recycling system (**Scheme 2.4 a**). The recycling of the ATP was necessary because accumulation of ADP favors the reverse reaction, resulting in an overall conversion to 5PP-InsP₅ of only 30%. Determining the optimal ratio of phosphate-containing species, Mg²⁺ ions, and pH was an integral consideration in preventing the precipitation of InsP₆ during the reaction. Therefore, the Mg²⁺ ion concentration was kept slightly below or equal to the combined concentration of phosphocreatine and ATP.



Scheme 2.4: Chemoenzymatic synthesis and purification of 5PP-InsP₅. a) Optimized conditions for the conversion of InsP₆ by IP6KA. Conditions: 250 μM InsP₆, 2 mM ATP, 7 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM creatine phosphate (pCr) and 1 U/mL creatine kinase (CrK), 0.3 μM IP6KA, 50 mM NaCl, 20 mM MES pH 6.4. b) Separation of the 5PP-InsP₅ from the reaction components. Enzymes were removed by a C18 plug and the product precipitation as a PP-InsP-Mg complex by addition of excess MgCl₂. that forms an insoluble PP-InsP-Mg complex. Mg²⁺ ions were subsequently exchanged by solid phase chelation in ammonium carbonate buffer and lyophilization afforded the product as the ammonium salt.

Employing the optimized conditions, the reaction was scaled up to 350 mg of InsP₆ starting material (based on the free acid) and a total reaction volume of 2 L. To accurately control the reaction time, it was crucial to preincubate the reaction mixture at 37 °C before the addition of IP6KA, and to quench the solution by cooling to 4 °C within 3–5 min using a –78 °C dry ice bath. For large scale purification, the proteins were removed by passing the solution through a fritted filter carrying a short plug of C18 reversed phase silica gel (**Scheme 2.4 b**). To separate 5PP-InsP₅ from other components in the mixture, we took advantage of the magnesium-chelating properties of InsPs and PP-InsPs.^{12,13} At basic pH these highly negatively charged molecules form strong Mg-complexes and precipitate almost quantitatively. Therefore, an excess of MgCl₂ was added to the reaction mixture and the pH was raised to 8.8–9.0. The resulting precipitate could easily be isolated by centrifugation and separated from soluble impurities. To redissolve the 5PP-InsP₅-Mg complex, and to remove the Mg²⁺ ions, we applied an immobilized chelator (Amberlite® IRC 748) in NH₄HCO₃ buffer (pH 7.5). Initial attempts using water instead of buffer led to substantial hydrolysis of the

phosphoanhydride bond during this step, due to exposure of the product to elevated pH (up to 12). The instability of 5PP-InsPs in unbuffered solutions was a particular problem during upscaling because the incubation times with the chelator resin became longer compared to the smaller scale reactions. Finally, 5PP-InsP₅ was isolated by lyophilization as the ammonium salt in 80% yield (312 mg, >95% purity determined by NMR).

While 5PP-InsP₅ had been synthesized enzymatically before by Saiardi and co-workers, the scale of those reactions was substantially smaller.⁷ The purification of the product was accomplished by preparative PAGE, followed by gel extraction (100–200 µg 5PP-InsP₅ per gel). We have reproduced this purification step on 5PP-InsP₅ mixed together with all reaction components except IP6KA. The gel band was cut, extracted and analyzed by NMR spectroscopy. (**Figure 2.1**)

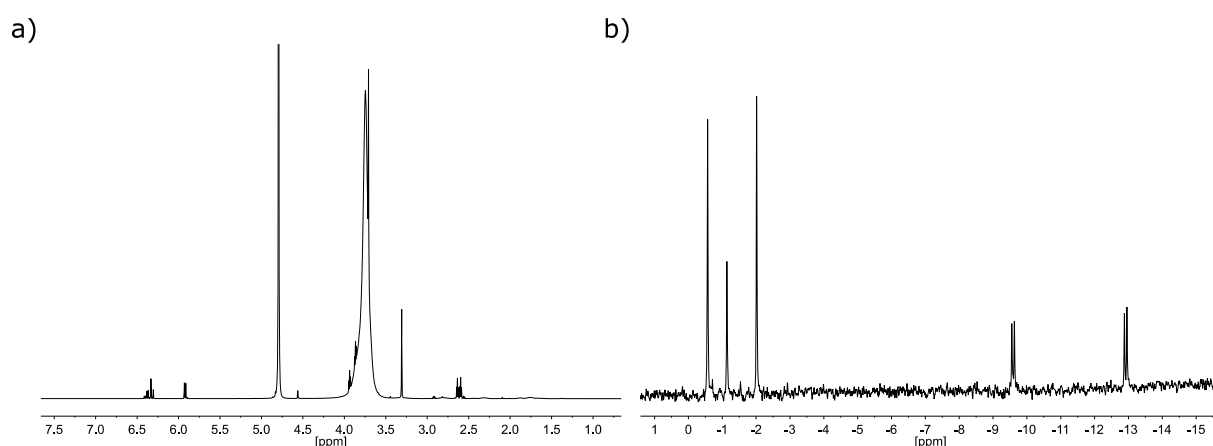


Figure 2.1: PAGE purified 5PP-InsP₅ is contaminated with buffer components. Pure chemoenzymatically prepared 5PP-InsP₅ was mixed with all kinase reaction components except IP6KA and purified by PAGE followed by gel extraction. a) ¹H NMR spectrum shows several highly abundant species that are a 10–100 fold higher in intensity which precludes the observation of the inositol protons. b) ³¹P NMR spectrum shows 5PP-InsP₅ and no other PP-InsP species.

While the ^{31}P NMR showed only the expected 5PP-InsP₅ peaks, several impurities were observed in the ^1H NMR that are 10–100 fold higher in intensity and precluded the observation of the *myo*-inositol signals. These results indicate that our precipitation-based purification is superior to the isolation by preparative PAGE with respect to scalability and purity of the final product.

During the optimization of the 5PP-InsP₅ synthesis, we were surprised to observe the formation of one major side product during extended reaction times. It was speculated that this species could be another PP-InsP₅ regioisomer or even an (PP)₂-InsP₄ species. The unknown compound was isolated by SAX-FPLC using NH₄HCO₃ (pH 7.5) as elution buffer. After lyophilization, analysis by one- and two-dimensional NMR spectroscopy revealed the unknown product as 4,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ or 6,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ (the enantiomers are not distinguishable by NMR). (**Figure 2.2**)

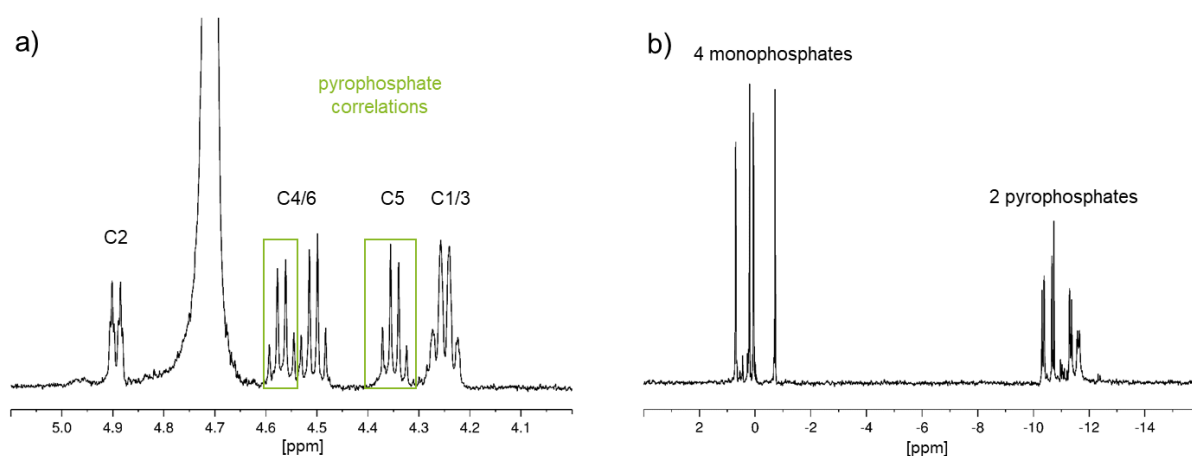


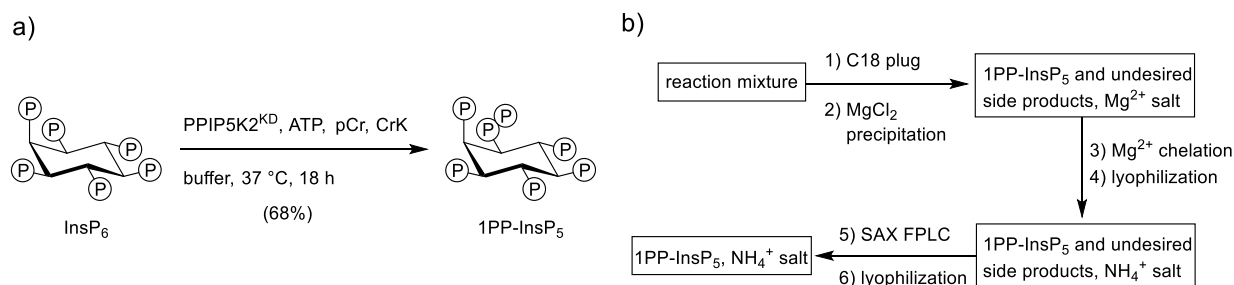
Figure 2.2: NMR spectroscopic analysis of 4/6,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. a) ^1H NMR spectrum with the positions on the *myo*-inositol ring depicted as C1–6 as determined by ^1H , ^1H -COSY NMR analysis. Green boxes show the positions that correlate with the pyrophosphate region of the ^{31}P NMR spectrum. b) ^{31}P NMR spectrum shows 4 monophosphates around 0 ppm and 2 pyrophosphates between –10 and –12 ppm.

Interestingly, previous reports that utilized IP6KA or IP6K1 in enzymatic reactions did not mention the formation of this product, and whether this compound has a physiological relevance has not been determined yet. However, 6,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ is the dominant (PP)₂-InsP₄ regioisomer in the slime mold *D. discoideum*.^{14–16} Synthetic access to this compound could therefore be of use to study PP-InsP signaling in this organism.

In summary, our chemoenzymatic synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅ outperforms classical organic chemistry approaches in yield and accessibility. The precipitation of the 5PP-InsP₅-Mg complex offers a scalable purification procedure that can deliver hundreds of milligrams large amounts of high purity 5PP-InsP₅.

Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄

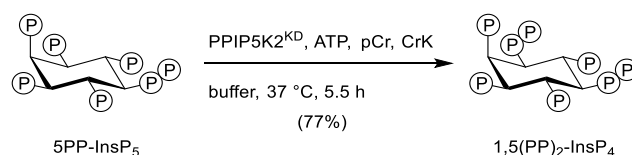
The successful, large-scale chemoenzymatic synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅ encouraged us to apply our strategy to the synthetically more challenging asymmetric PP-InsPs: 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. Pyrophosphorylation at the 1-position of InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅ is known to be catalyzed by PPIP5Ks. We thus expressed the His-tagged kinase domain of human PPIP5K2 (PPIP5K2^{KD}), but low solubility resulted in low overall protein yields. To increase the solubility, the His-tag of PPIP5K2^{KD} was replaced with a solubility-enhancing SUMO-tag, leading to the isolation of the desired protein in sufficient yield (25 mg of protein per 1L of *E. coli* culture). Next, the biochemical reaction for the formation of 1PP-InsP₅ was optimized with labeled [¹³C₆]InsP₆ as substrate. Extended reaction time of 18 hours and an increased enzyme concentration of 2 μM were necessary to guarantee full conversion. (**Scheme 2.5 a**)



Scheme 2.5: Chemoenzymatic synthesis and purification of 1PP-InsP₅. a) Optimized conditions for the synthesis of 1PP-InsP₅: 250 μM InsP₆, 2 mM ATP, 6 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM creatine phosphate (pCr) and 1 U/mL creatine kinase (CrK), 2 μM PPIP5K2^{KD}, 250 mM NaCl, 20 mM MES pH 6.4. b) Separation of the 1PP-InsP₅ from the reaction components was performed analogous to 5PP-InsP₅ followed by SAX FPLC to remove remaining side products.

Following precipitation and Mg²⁺-chelation, 1PP-InsP₅ still contained impurities, probably due to the formation of side products under the prolonged reaction times. To remove these compounds, 1PP-InsP₅ was subjected to SAX-FPLC (**Scheme 2.5 b**), allowing for the isolation of ca. 100 mg of 1PP-InsP₅ in two purification runs. After lyophilization, 1PP-InsP₅ was isolated as the ammonium salt in 68% yield (77 mg, >95% purity determined by NMR).

With robust procedures for enzymatic pyrophosphorylation at the 5- and the 1-position of the inositol ring in hand, we lastly sought to synthesize the most densely phosphorylated PP-InsP: 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. Full conversion from InsP₆ to 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ using both enzymes in a one-pot reaction proved to be challenging. Therefore, a one-step protocol starting from purified 5PP-InsP₅ was pursued. (**Scheme 2.6**) Reaction optimization with [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ confirmed that 5PP-InsP₅ is the preferred substrate for human PPIP5K2^{KD}, compared to InsP₆, and full conversion could be obtained with 1.5 μM enzyme in 5.5 hours. 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ was purified analogously to 5PP-InsP₅ by precipitation with Mg²⁺ ions. The product was isolated as the ammonium salt in 77% yield (111 mg, >85% purity determined by NMR).



Scheme 2.6: Chemoenzymatic synthesis and purification of 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄. Optimized conditions for the synthesis of 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄: 250 μM 5PP-InsP₅, 2 mM ATP, 5 mM MgCl₂, 5 mM creatine phosphate (pCr) and 1 U/mL creatine kinase (CrK), 1.5 μM PPIP5K2^{KD}, 250 mM NaCl, 20 mM MES pH 6.4.

Overall, the synthesis of asymmetric 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ was achieved in an analogous fashion to 5PP-InsP₅ with only minor changes in the purification protocol. The purification of 1PP-InsP₅, by contrast, required an additional step, limiting access to this compound to ca.100 mg batches. Preparation of similar amounts of 1PP-InsP₅ by chemical means, however, also remains challenging and demands specialized chemistry equipment that is typically not present in biochemistry and molecular biology laboratories.

Conclusion and Outlook

Over the last decade we have witnessed significant progress in the synthesis of PP-InsPs. Still, the general availability of these compounds in good quantities, especially of the asymmetric regioisomers, has been limited. Here, we have established a robust workflow for PP-InsP synthesis and purification. With the required enzymes and relevant substrates in hand, all characterized mammalian PP-InsPs were synthesized on at least a 100 mg scale in one or two steps, without the need for specialized chemistry equipment. While our method is efficient in synthesizing the reported PP-InsPs, some limitations remain to be addressed in the future. The current protocol is restricted by the availability and activity of the small molecule kinases that selectively install the pyrophosphate groups. For example, *D. discoideum*, a slime mold

containing the highest concentration of PP-InsPs measured to date, produces PP-InsP regioisomers that bear pyrophosphate groups at the 5- or 6-position or on both.¹⁵ In addition, our method is not suited to synthesize analogs of PP-InsPs, such as non-hydrolyzable bisphosphonate analogs or photo-caged derivatives. Especially in the case of large structural perturbations of the PP-InsPs we envision that those syntheses remain in the realm of classical organic chemistry. Overall, the scalable biochemical syntheses of the major mammalian PP-InsPs make these compounds readily available to a broader research community and will greatly aid a thorough analysis of the varied properties of PP-InsPs. Just as access to other second messengers greatly aided the structural and biochemical elucidation of their signaling function, the method presented here will facilitate a thorough and granular analysis of the varied properties of PP-InsPs. Such detailed investigations are much needed, to determine the molecular mechanisms underlying the pleiotropic phenotypes associated with PP-InsP signaling, and ultimately guide the development of novel therapeutic strategies.

Thus far, the biochemically prepared PP-InsPs have enabled a broad use of these molecules in many research projects. The facile precipitation procedure of PP-InsPs proved to be equally useful on a small scale, as demonstrated for the synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P.¹⁷ In this case, HPLC purification of the radioactive compound was no longer necessary to obtain high purity 5PP-InsP₅-β³²P. The route to this material can be easily reproduced without high instrumental hurdles and will be a valuable source to study protein pyrophosphorylation. Access to large amounts of 5PP-InsP₅ also enabled the development of a stringent high throughput screen with 35,000 compounds to identify inhibitors of IP6K. The rationale for these experiments were developed in Chapter 3 and will be explained in detail. Using 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ as a substrate an analogous approach is planned for the PPIP5Ks in the near future.

Recently, providing larger amounts of PP-InsPs established several new collaborations. Together with the Moldoveanu laboratory, we started to investigate the role of PP-InsPs in necroptosis through activation of MLKL, a known allosteric substrate of InsPs.¹⁸ Furthermore, 5PP-InsP₅ was provided to the Hothorn group to aid crystallization studies of plant proteins. We also working together with the Saiardi group on PP-InsPs in *D. discoideum* and therefore pursue the synthesis to the specific regioisomers from this organism. It is planned to optimize the reaction conditions for the synthesis of 4/6,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ using IP6KA and together with Siw14, a selective 5PP-InsP pyrophosphatase, we will try to synthesize also 4/6PP-InsP₅.^{19,20}

Finally, the access to large amounts of PP-InsPs can also contribute to the study of protein pyrophosphorylation. With this material in hand, the energy of hydrolysis can be experimentally determined to confirm and rank the ability of these molecules to transfer the β-phosphoryl group onto proteins. At the moment, it is only known that all PP-InsPs have pyrophosphorylation potential but the differences between PP-InsPs – whether these are different substrate specificities or distinct reaction rates – have not been investigated. In line with this, we also want to observe and optimize the *in vitro* pyrophosphorylation of proteins in combination with MS or/and NMR spectroscopy. Currently, radiolabeling is the only method that can detect pyrophosphorylation *in vitro*, probably due to the low efficiency of this reaction.^{6,21} Flexible use of PP-InsPs will allow a thorough identification and analysis of important parameters that govern the formation of this modification. Overall, the chemoenzymatic synthesis of PP-InsPs expands the use of the molecules to many new applications and will allow more groups to study their biological role and function.

Methods

General Information

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, VWR, Carl Roth, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Alfa Aesar, TCI and used without further purification unless stated otherwise. All dry solvents were purified using a solvent purification system MBRAUN MB-SPS-5 by passing through activated alumina columns. Deuterated solvents were purchased from Euriso-Top. The C18 reversed phase silica was purchased from Carl Roth. Telos® was ordered from Kinesis. Automated flash chromatography was performed using gradient grade solvents on a CombiFlash® Rf from Teledyne Isco using prepacked CombiFlash® columns (40–63 μm). LC-MS analysis was carried out with an Agilent 1260 Infinity Binary LC system connected to an Agilent 6130 Quadrupole LC-MS system with a ZORBAX Rapid Resolution HT Narrow Bore SB-C18 1.8 μm column (2.1 x 50mm) at 30 °C using API-ESI (atmospheric pressure ionization-electrospray) in positive ion mode. The eluent consisted of 10% ACN in water with 0.1% formic acid at 0.7 mL/min flow rate.

NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker spectrometers operating at 300 or 600 MHz for proton nuclei, 75 or 151 MHz for carbon nuclei or 122 and 244 MHz for phosphorous nuclei. NMR data are given as follows: chemical shift δ in ppm (multiplicity, coupling constant(s) J Hz, relative integral) where multiplicity is defined as: s = singlet, d = doublet, t = triplet, q = quartet, m = multiplet, br = broad or combinations of the above. Measurement for the determination of enzyme activity was performed on Bruker AV-III spectrometers (Bruker Biospin, Rheinstetten, Germany) at 310 K using cryogenically cooled 5 mm TCI-triple resonance probe equipped with one-axis self-shielded gradients. The software used to control the spectrometer was topspin 3.5 pl6. Temperature had been calibrated using d₄-methanol and the formula

of Findeisen et al.²² High-resolution mass spectrometry was performed by direct injection on an Orbitrap™ Q-Exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For the purification *via* FPLC an NGC Quest™ 10 Chromatography System from Bio-Rad was used with an integrated NGC™ Sample Pump Module and a BioFrac™ Fraction Collector. For the spin filtration Amicon Ultra 0.5 mL centrifugal filters with a cut off of 10 kDa or 3 kDa from Merck Millipore were used.

Recombinant Protein Expression

Inositol Hexakisphosphate Kinase A (IP6KA)

The procedure was adopted from.¹¹ In short: The codon optimized *Entamoeba histolytica* IP6KA-gene in a pET15b plasmid was transformed into *E. coli* BL21 Arctic Express (DE3) and an overnight culture of this strain was diluted into 1 L of TB-Amp/Gen to a final density of OD₆₀₀ 0.1. The cells were grown for 6 h at 37 °C. The culture was then switched to 18 °C for 30 min before induction with 0.1 mM IPTG for 18 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C) and washed with ice cold water. The cell pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer (25 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 50 mM imidazole). For 1 g wet weight 10 mL lysis buffer was used. The cell suspension was supplemented with lysozyme, DNase I, and 1 tablet cOmplete™ protease inhibitor (Roche), and incubated for 15 min on ice. The cells were lysed with a Microfluidizer™ LM10 at 15,000 psi with five iterations. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation (30,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). The supernatant was filtered (VWR® vacuum filter, PES 0.45 µm), and loaded onto a Ni-NTA column (GE, 5 mL, HiTrap IMAC HP) equilibrated with lysis buffer with a flowrate of 2.5 mL/min. The column was washed with lysis buffer until the absorption was constant. IP6KA was eluted with a gradient of elution buffer (25 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 200 mM NaCl, 500 mM

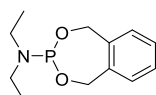
imidazole) in lysis buffer from 0–100 % over 10 CV. 1.5 mL fractions were collected. The fractions containing IP6KA were concentrated by spin filtration (Amicon® Ultra 0.5 mL 10K) and dialyzed overnight against dialysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT). The following day the protein was adjusted to 25 % glycerol, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C.

Diphosphoinositol Pentakisphosphate Kinase 2 Kinase Domain (PPIP5K2^{KD})

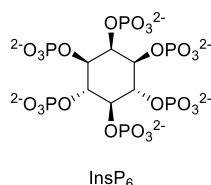
The codon optimized human PPIP5K2^{KD}-gene was subcloned from a pET21a vector into a pSumo vector using the restriction sites NdeI and XhoI. The resulting vector was transformed into *E. coli* Arctic Express (DE3) and an overnight culture of this strain was diluted into 2 L of TB-Kan/Gen to a final density of OD₆₀₀ 0.1. The cells were grown for 4 h at 37 °C. The culture was then switched to 15 °C for 30 min before induction with 0.2 mM IPTG for 18 hours. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C) and washed with ice cold water. The cell pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl). For 1 g wet weight 10 mL lysis buffer was used. The cell suspension was supplemented with lysozyme, DNase I, and 2 tablets cComplete™ protease inhibitor (Roche), and incubated for 15 min on ice. The cells were lysed using a Microfluidizer™ LM10 at 15,000 psi with five iterations. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation (30,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). The supernatant was filtered (VWR® vacuum filter, PES 0.45 µm), and loaded onto a Ni-NTA column (GE, 5 mL, HiTrap IMAC FF) equilibrated with lysis buffer with a flowrate of 3.5 mL/min. The column was washed with 3 CV lysis buffer and 10 CV of 10 % elution buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 600 mM imidazole) in lysis buffer or until the absorption was constant. PPIP5K2 was eluted with 100 % elution buffer over 10 CV. 1.4 mL fractions were collected. The fractions containing PPIP5K2 were

dialyzed overnight against dialysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT). The following day the protein was adjusted to 20 % glycerol, frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Chemical Synthesis of InsP₆



The compound was synthesized as described before in two steps starting from *myo*-inositol. Analytical data were identical with the values reported in the literature.^{23,24}



The compound was synthesized as described before in two steps starting from *myo*-inositol. Analytical data were identical with the values reported in the literature.¹⁰

Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of Inositol Pyrophosphates

For all enzymatic syntheses the following stock solutions were prepared:

Creatine kinase stock solution: 350 U/mL creatine kinase in 200 mM MOPS pH 6.5, 20 mM MgCl₂, 20 mM DTT

IP6KA stock solution: 10 mg/mL IP6KA in 20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT

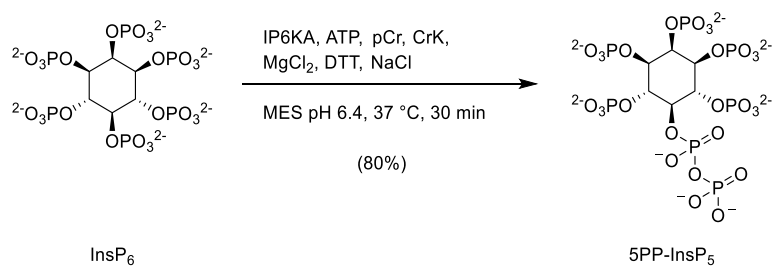
PPIP5K2^{KD} stock solution: 10 mg/mL 20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 40% glycerol

ATP stock solution: 100 mM in MilliQ® water pH 6.4; (Note: Concentration was determined *via* UV-Vis analysis at 259 nm; $\epsilon_{259} = 15.4 \text{ E/mmole/cm}$)

Amberlite® IRC-748 resin was prepared as follows:

500 mL resin was placed on a big fritted filter and washed with 1 L MeOH and 1 L H₂O and stored at 4 °C in 20 % MeOH. For a 100 mg reaction roughly 30 mL of resin were placed on a filter, washed with 500 mL H₂O and acidified with 250 mL of 1 M HCl. The resin was washed with H₂O (usually 1–2 L) until it reached pH 6–7 and the resin was equilibrated with 250 mL 1 M NH₄HCO₃ pH 7.5–8. The resin was washed with 1 L H₂O and left dry on the filter until use.

Synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅



MilliQ® water was prewarmed to 37 °C by incubation in a water bath. A solution of InsP₆ (250 μM, 350 mg based on free acid 647.9 g/mol), MES (20 mM, pH 6.4), NaCl (50 mM), ATP (disodium salt, 2 mM), creatine phosphate (5 mM), MgCl₂ (7 mM), DTT (1 mM) in 2.16 L prewarmed MilliQ® water was prepared. The solution was evenly split among 3 × 1 L Schott bottles and the bottles were incubated in the water bath at 37 °C for 10 min. IP6KA (1 μM) and creatine kinase (1 U/mL) were added and the Schott bottles were gently inverted several times to homogenize and left to react for 30 min without shaking. (Note: The correct temperature was essential to assure full conversion of the starting material within 30 min. Prolonged reaction times above 1 h led to side reactions. However, the speed of the reaction will depend on the batch and quality of the recombinantly expressed IP6KA.)

Purification: The reaction was stopped by cooling the reaction mixture down to 4 °C within 5 min with the help of a dry ice isopropanol bath. A fritted filter was loaded with 21 g of C18 reversed phase silica gel suspended in MeCN and sand was added on top. The C18 plug was washed with 100 mL MeCN and 100 mL H₂O and the complete reaction mixture was passed through the filter under vacuum. The C18 plug was washed with 2 × 100 mL H₂O and all the combined flow through was supplemented with 12.5 mM MgCl₂. The pH was adjusted to 8.8–9.0 by drop wise addition of 10 mM NaOH solution which leads to precipitation of the PP-InsPs as magnesium complex within 1 h at room temperature. (The precipitation can also be performed overnight at

room temperature.) The suspension was collected in 4 canonical 50 mL tubes by centrifugation (2 min at 3000 g) and the supernatant was removed. The precipitate of each tube was washed 3 times with 15 mL MgCl₂ solution (8 mM, pH 9 adjusted with NaOH).

The precipitate of each tube was resuspended in 20 mL NH₄HCO₃ buffer (10 mM, pH 8) and vortexed with Amberlite® IRC-748 (20 mL wetted bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH₄HCO₃, pH 7.5–8) until the precipitate dissolved. The buffer/resin suspension of each tube was added to a short Amberlite® IRC-748 column (5 mL bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH₄HCO₃, pH 8) to remove excess Mg²⁺. The product was flushed through the column with 50 mL water and all eluents were collected, combined and lyophilized in a round-bottom flask to afford the ammonium salt of the product as white solid. The solids were dissolved in D₂O and the concentration of the solution was determined by NMR against a standard (phosphonoacetic acid) to determine yield and purity: 30 mL of 14.3 mM solution were obtained which corresponds to 312 mg (80% yield, purity > 95%) 5PP-InsP₅ based on the free acid 726.9 g/mol.

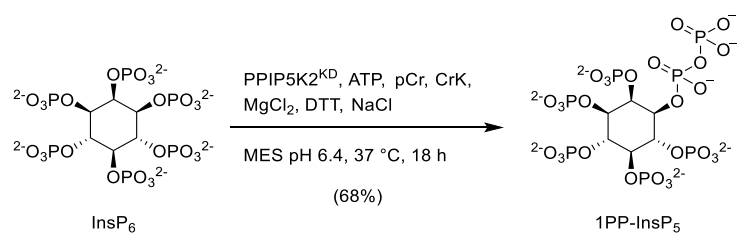
¹H NMR (300 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 4.46 (q, *J* = 9.4 Hz, 2H), 4.27 (q, *J* = 9.4 Hz, 1H), 4.10 (t, *J* = 9.6 Hz, 2H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, D₂O, pD 5.0) δ 77.57, 75.81, 75.69, 73.20.

³¹P NMR (243 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 0.60, 0.53, -0.42, -10.31 (d, *J* = 19.9 Hz), -10.86 (d, *J* = 19.9 Hz).

HRMS (ESI) calculated for C₆H₁₇O₂₇P₇(M⁻) 738.8204, found 738.8222.

Synthesis of 1PP-InsP₅



MilliQ® water was prewarmed to 37 °C by incubation in a water bath. A solution of InsP₆ (250 μM, 100 mg based on free acid 647.9 g/mol), MES (20 mM, pH 6.4), NaCl (250 mM), ATP (disodium salt, 2 mM), creatine phosphate (5 mM), MgCl₂ (6 mM), DTT (1 mM) in 617 mL prewarmed MilliQ® water was prepared in a 1 L Schott bottles and incubated in a water bath at 37 °C for 10 min. PPIP5K2^{KD} (2 μM) and creatine kinase (1 U/mL) were added and bottle gently inverted several times to homogenize and left to react overnight for 18 h without shaking.

Purification: The reaction was stopped by cooling the reaction mixture down to 4 °C within 5 min with the help of a dry ice isopropanol bath. A fritted filter was loaded with 6 g of C18 reversed phase silica gel suspended in MeCN and sand was added on top. The C18 plug was washed with 30 mL MeCN and 30 mL H₂O and the complete reaction mixture was passed through the filter under vacuum. The C18 plug was washed with 2 × 30 mL H₂O and all the combined flow through was supplemented with 12.5 mM MgCl₂. The pH was adjusted to 8.8–9.0 by drop wise addition of 10 mM NaOH solution which leads to precipitation of the PP-InsPs as magnesium complex within 1 h at room temperature. (The precipitation can also be performed overnight at room temperature.) The suspension was collected in 2 canonical 50 mL tubes by centrifugation (2 min at 3000 g) and the supernatant was removed. The precipitates of each tube were washed 3 times with 15 mL MgCl₂ solution (8 mM, pH 9 adjusted with NaOH).

The precipitate of each tube was resuspended in 15 mL NH_4HCO_3 buffer (10 mM, pH 8) and vortexed with Amberlite® IRC-748 (15 mL wetted bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH_4HCO_3 , pH 7.5–8) until the precipitate dissolved. The buffer/resin suspension of each tube was added to a short Amberlite® IRC-748 column (5 mL bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH_4HCO_3 , pH 8) to remove excess Mg^{2+} . The product was flushed through the column with 40 mL H_2O and all eluents were collected, combined and lyophilized in a round-bottom flask. The resulting white solid was purified in 2 runs using a SAX-FPLC (HiPrep™ Q HP 16/10, GE Healthcare) and H_2O as buffer A and 1 M NH_4HCO_3 as buffer B. The column was washed with 100% B and equilibrated at 1% B. The sample was dissolved and loaded in 1% B and, followed by a gradient from 1% to 20% in 1 CV. The product was eluted in a gradient from 20%–40% over 10 CV. Fractions were analyzed by a metal dye detection assay²⁵ in a 96-well plate format and product containing fractions were combined and lyophilized in a round-bottom flask. The solids were dissolved in D_2O and the concentration of the solution was determined by NMR against a standard (phosphonoacetic acid) to determine yield and purity: 20 mL of 5.3 mM solution were obtained which corresponds to 77 mg (68% yield, purity > 95%) 1PP-InsP₅ based on the free acid 726.9 g/mol.

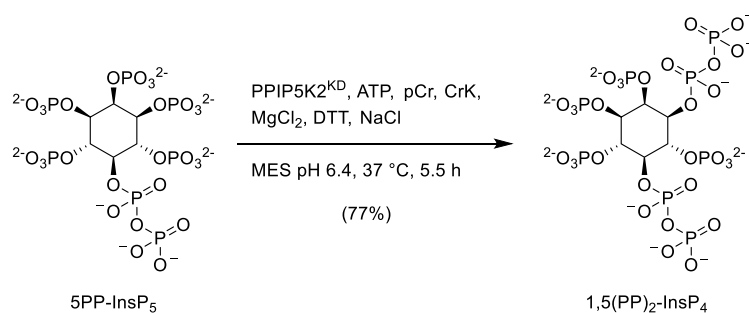
¹H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 5.08 (d, J = 9.8 Hz, 1H), 4.40 (p, J = 9.7 Hz, 2H), 4.21 (t, J = 9.8 Hz, 1H), 4.15 (q, J = 9.5 Hz, 1H), 4.09 (t, J = 9.2 Hz, 1H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, D_2O , pD 5.0) δ 77.32, 76.11, 75.68, 75.58, 73.70, 73.08.

³¹P NMR (243 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 1.64, 0.90, 0.40, 0.32, -0.94, -8.70, -10.89 (d, J = 18.7 Hz).

HRMS (ESI) calculated for $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{17}\text{O}_{27}\text{P}_7(\text{M}^-)$ 738.8204, found 738.8198.

Synthesis of 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄



MilliQ® water was prewarmed to 37 °C by incubation in a water bath. A solution of 5PP-InsP₅ (250 μM, 100 mg based on free acid 726.9 g/mol), MES (20 mM, pH 6.4), NaCl (250 mM), ATP (disodium salt, 2 mM), creatine phosphate (5 mM), MgCl₂ (5 mM), DTT (1 mM) in 715 mL prewarmed MilliQ® water was prepared in a 1 L Schott bottles and incubated in the water bath at 37 °C for 10 min. PPIP5K2^{KD} (1.5 μM) and creatine kinase (1 U/mL) were added and bottle gently inverted several times to homogenize and left to react overnight for 5.5 h without shaking.

Purification: The reaction was stopped by cooling the reaction mixture down to 4 °C within 5 min with the help of a dry ice isopropanol bath. A fritted filter was loaded with 6 g of C18 reversed phase silica gel suspended in MeCN and sand was added on top. The C18 plug was washed with 30 mL MeCN and 30 mL H₂O and the complete reaction mixture was passed through the filter under vacuum. The C18 plug was washed with 2 × 30 mL H₂O and all the combined flow through was supplemented with 12.5 mM MgCl₂. The pH was adjusted to 8.8–9.0 by drop wise addition of 10 mM NaOH solution which leads to precipitation of the PP-InsPs as magnesium complex within 1 h at room temperature. (The precipitation can also be performed overnight at room temperature.) The suspension was collected in 2 canonical 50 mL tubes by centrifugation (2 min at 3000 g) and the supernatant was removed. The precipitates of

each tube were washed 3 times with 15 mL MgCl₂ solution (8 mM, pH 9 adjusted with NaOH).

The precipitate of each tube was resuspended in 15 mL NH₄HCO₃ buffer (10 mM, pH 8) and vortexed with Amberlite® IRC-748 (15 mL wetted bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH₄HCO₃, pH 7.5–8) until the precipitate dissolved. The buffer/resin suspension of each tube was added to a short Amberlite® IRC-748 column (5 mL bed volume, pre-equilibrated with NH₄HCO₃, pH 8) to remove excess Mg²⁺. The product was flushed through the column with 40 mL H₂O and all eluents were collected, combined and lyophilized in a round-bottom flask to afford the ammonium salt of the product as white solid. The solids were dissolved in D₂O and the concentration of the solution was determined by NMR against a standard (phosphonoacetic acid) to determine yield and purity: 12 mL of 12.7 mM solution were obtained which corresponds to 111 mg (77% yield, purity > 85%) 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ based on the free acid 805.9 g/mL.

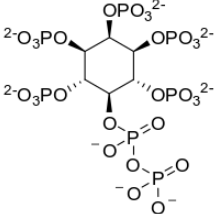
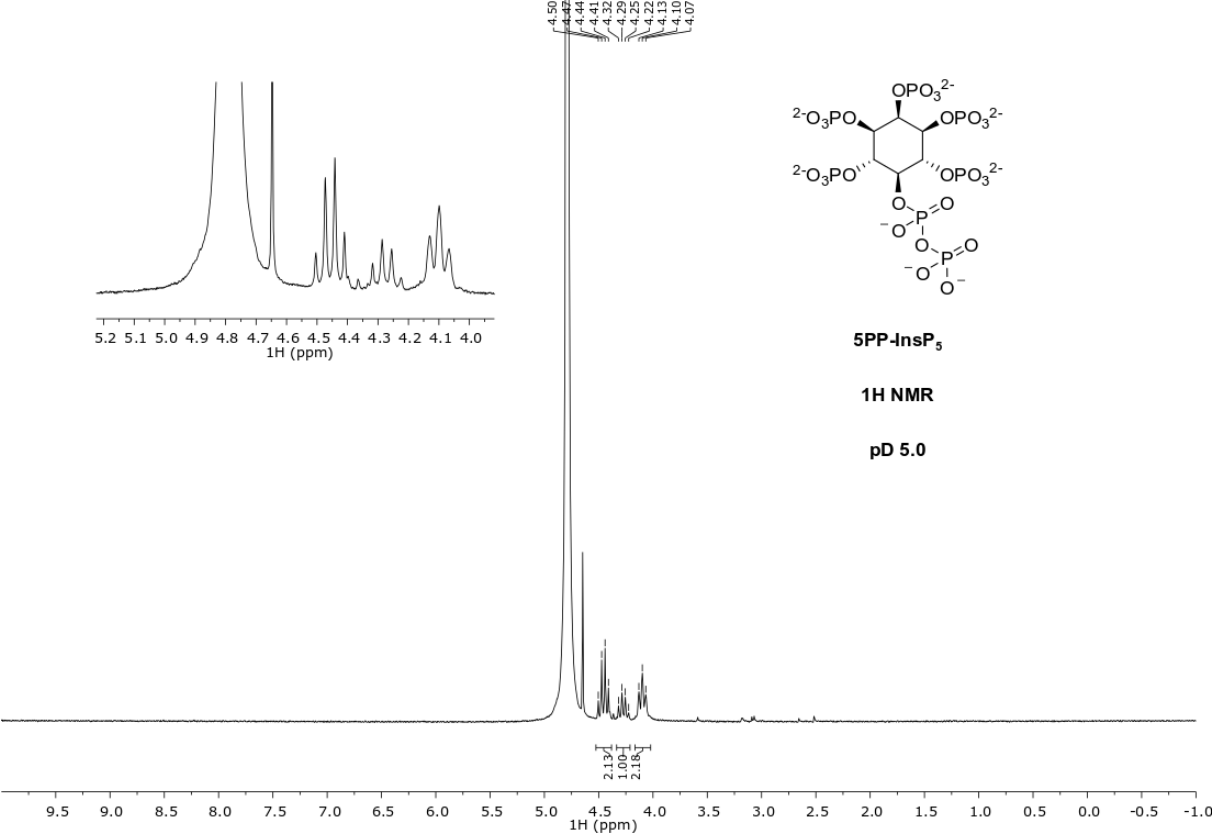
¹H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 5.01 (d, *J* = 9.6 Hz, 1H), 4.55 (p, *J* = 9.9 Hz, 2H), 4.36 (q, *J* = 9.8 Hz, 1H), 4.25 (t, *J* = 9.4 Hz, 1H).

³¹P NMR (243 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 0.56, 0.33, -0.26, -1.04, -10.34 (dd, *J* = 29.9, 19.2 Hz), -11.03 (dd, *J* = 60.0, 19.3 Hz).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, D₂O, pD 5.0) δ 77.42, 76.05, 75.53, 74.78, 73.53, 73.18.

HRMS (ESI) calculated for C₆H₁₇O₂₇P₇(M⁻) 818.7868, found 818.7865.

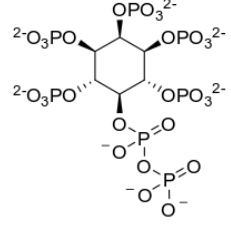
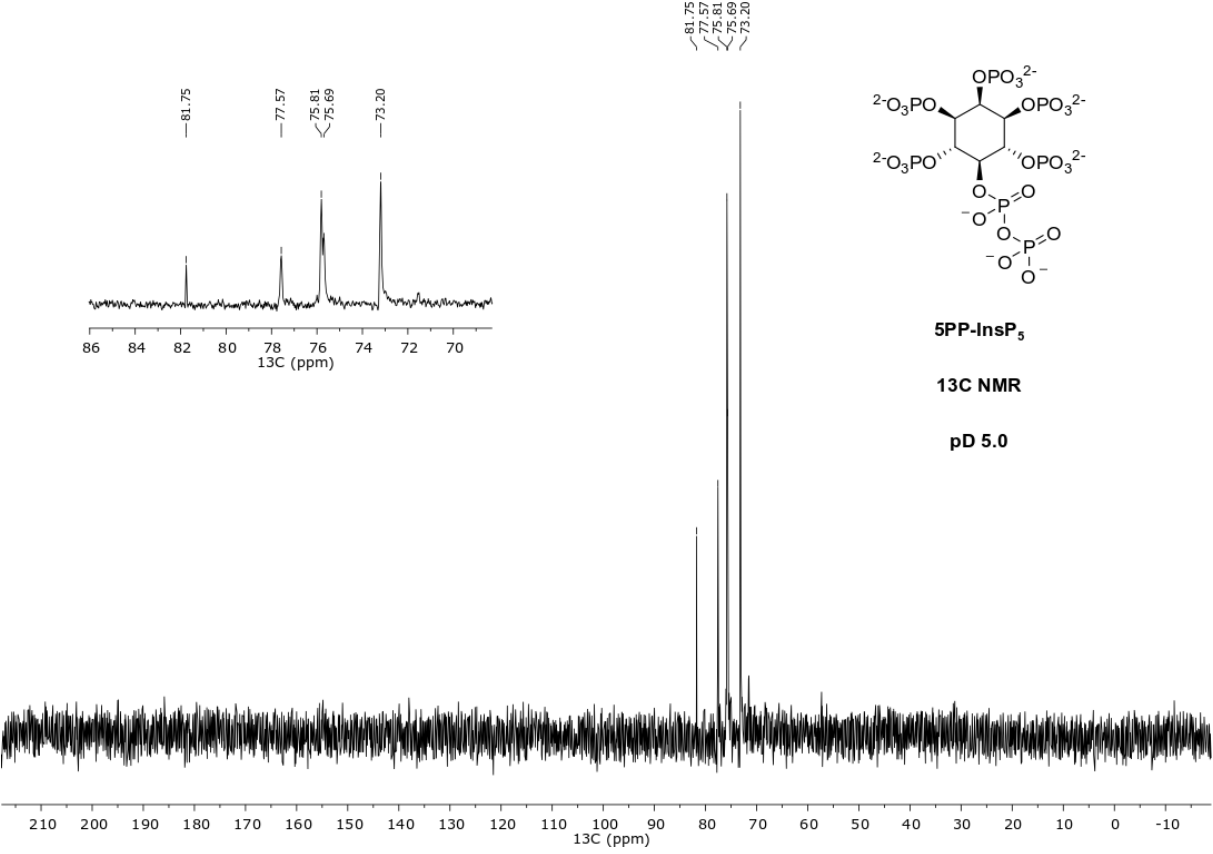
NMR Spectra



5PP-InsP₅

^1H NMR

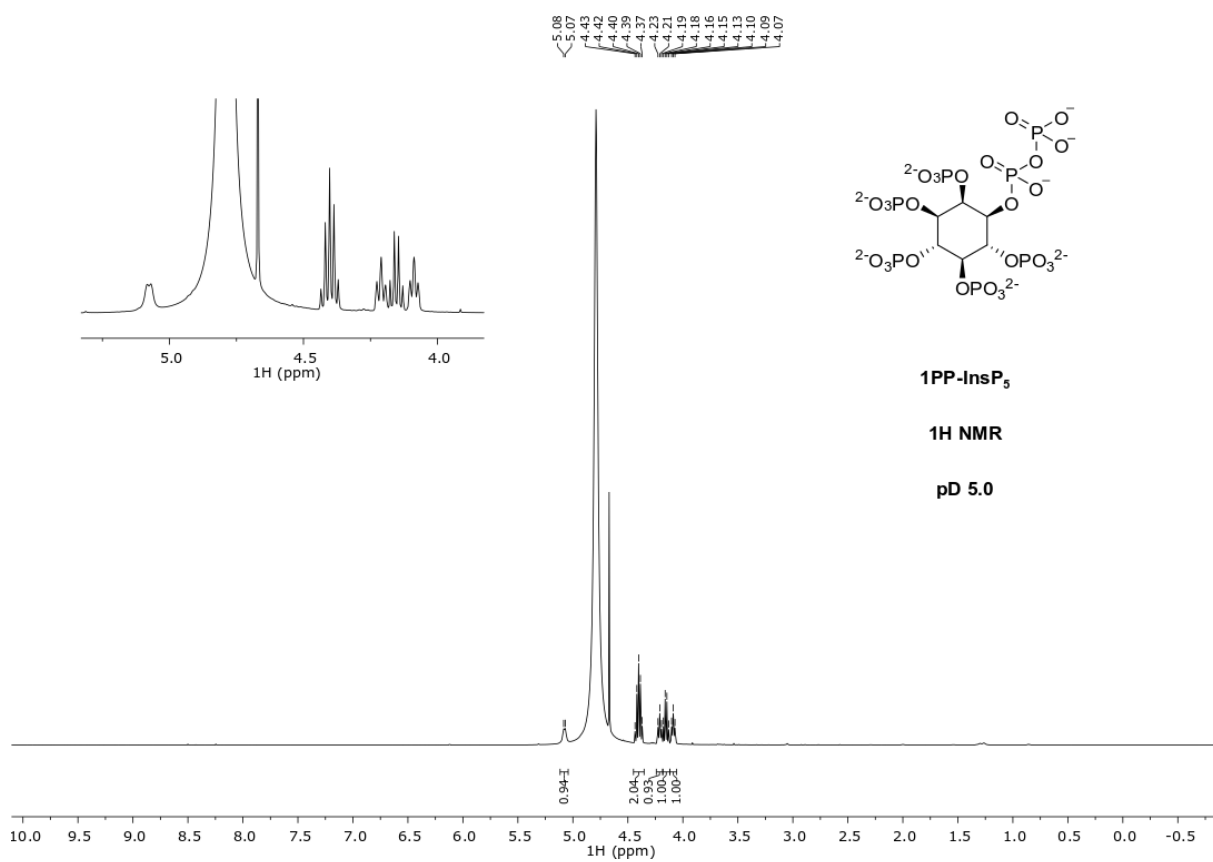
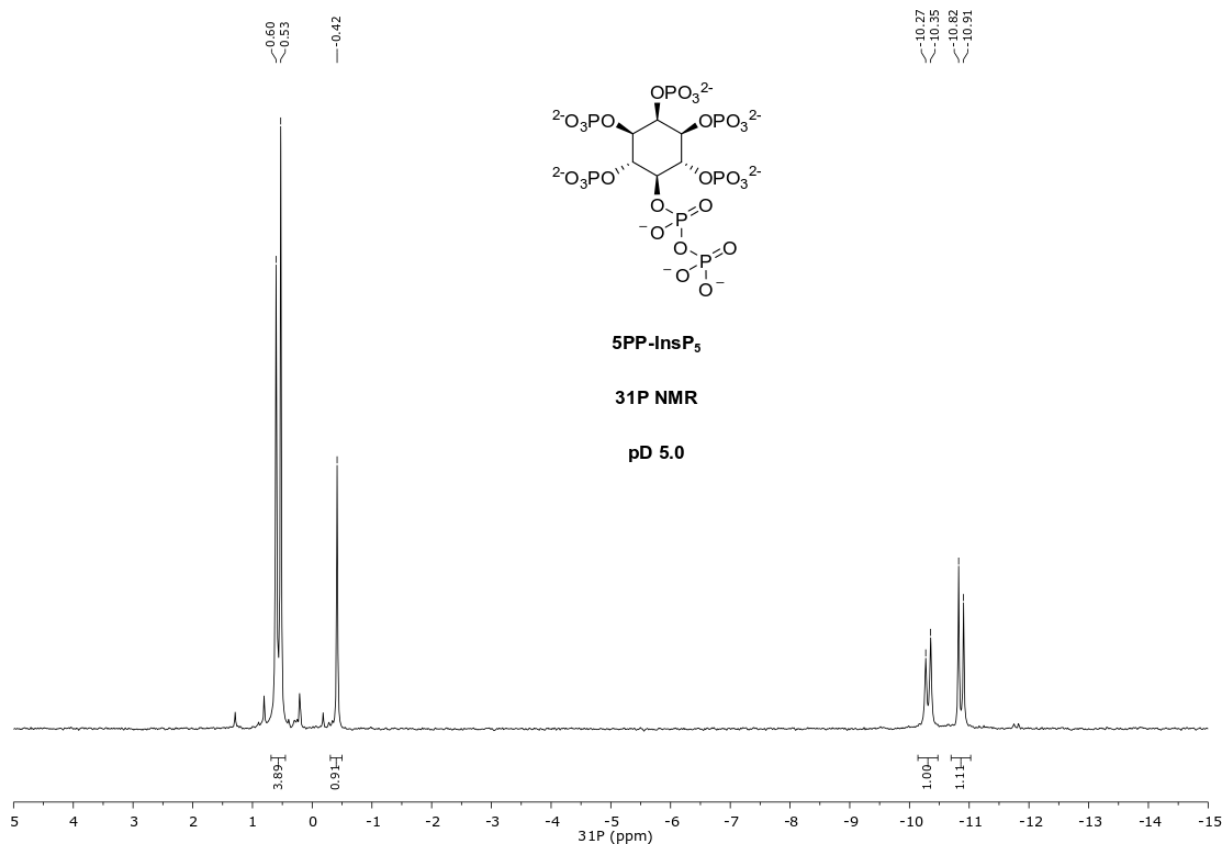
pH 5.0

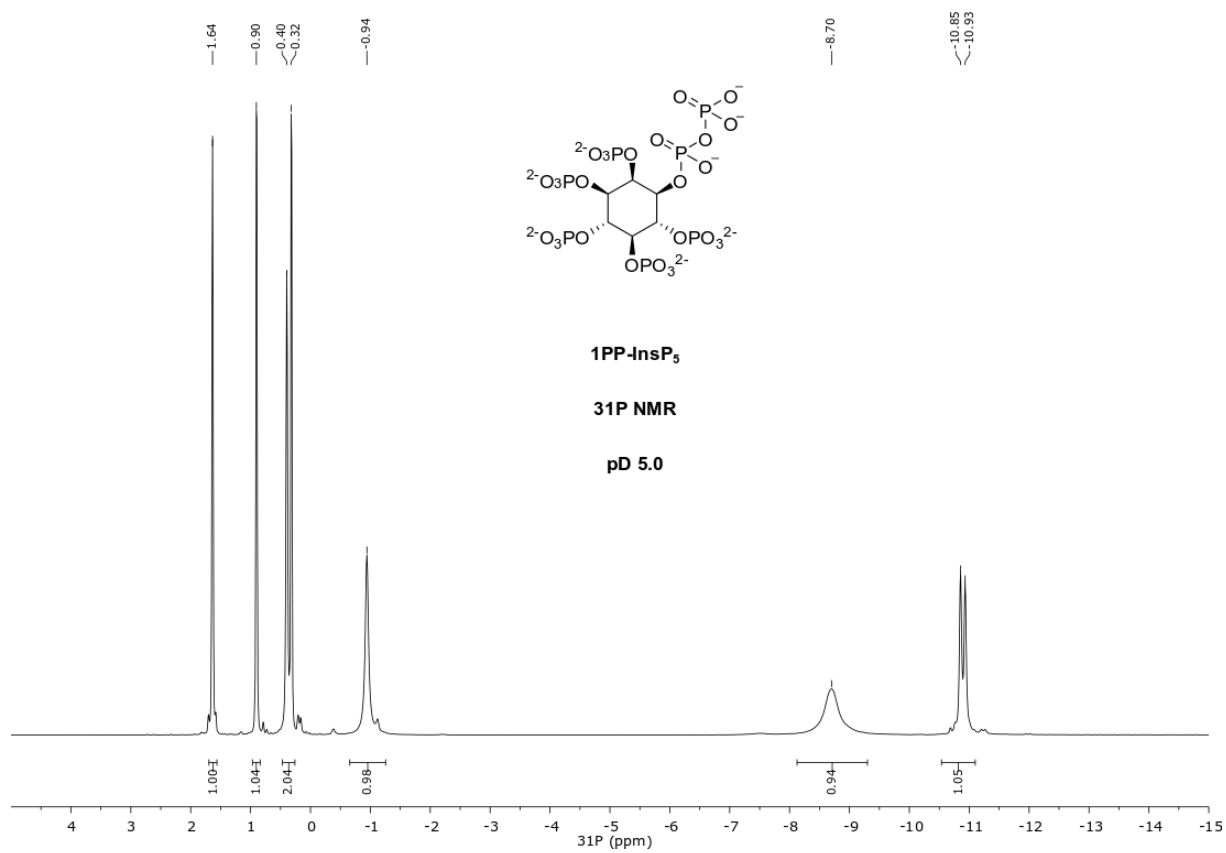
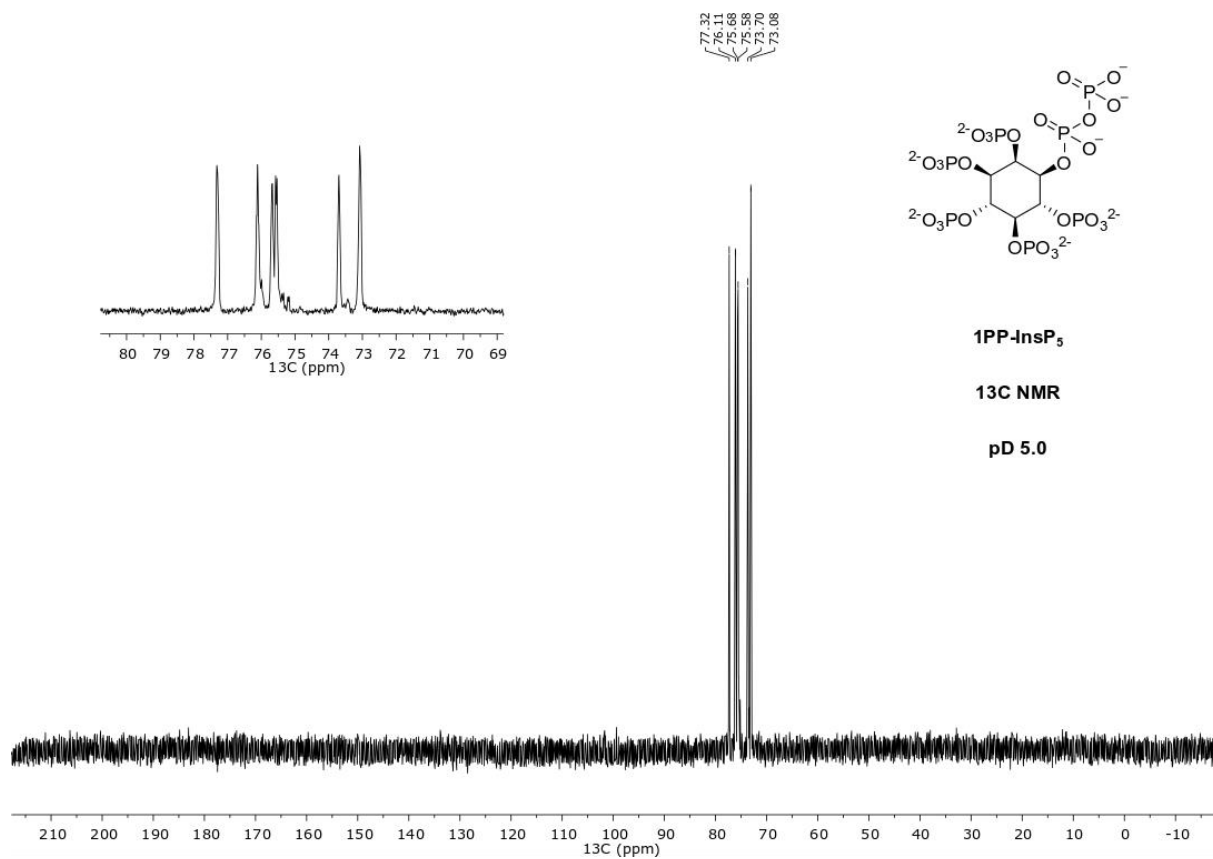


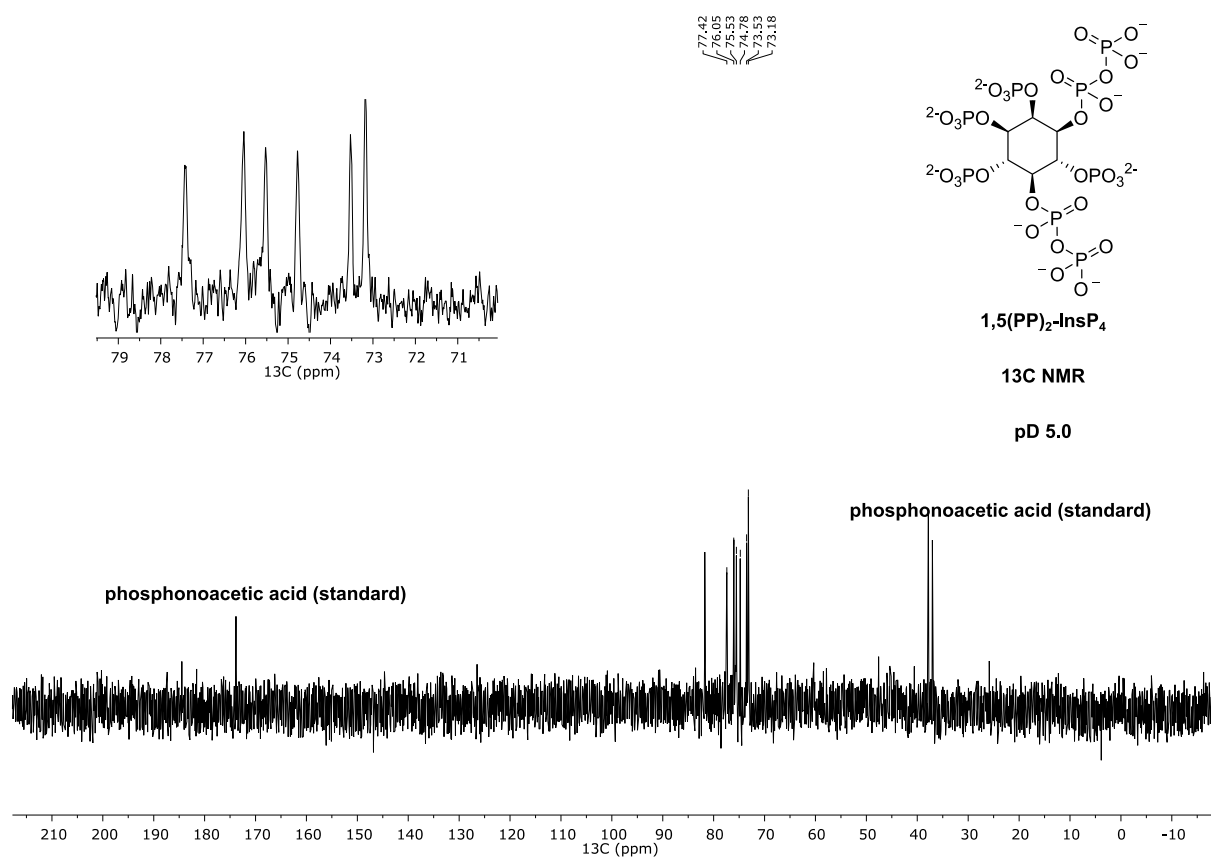
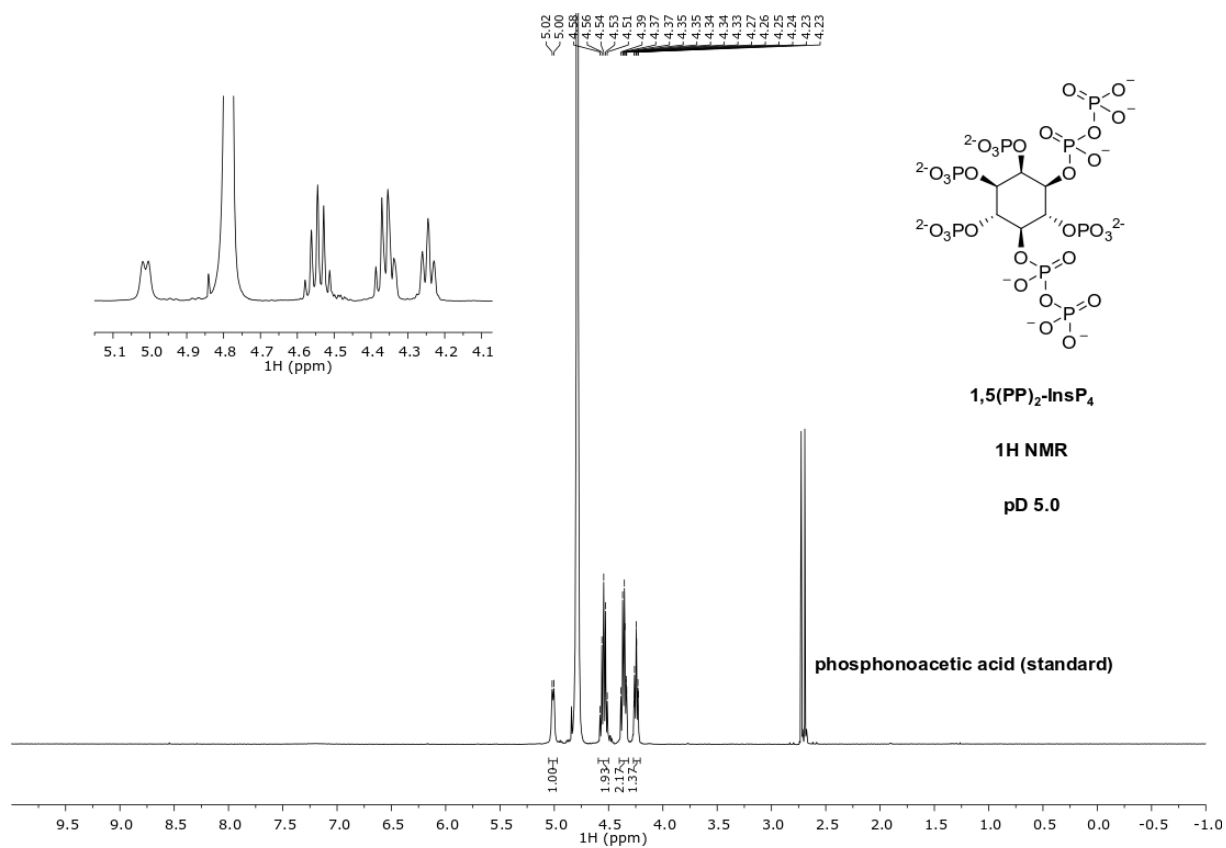
5PP-InsP₅

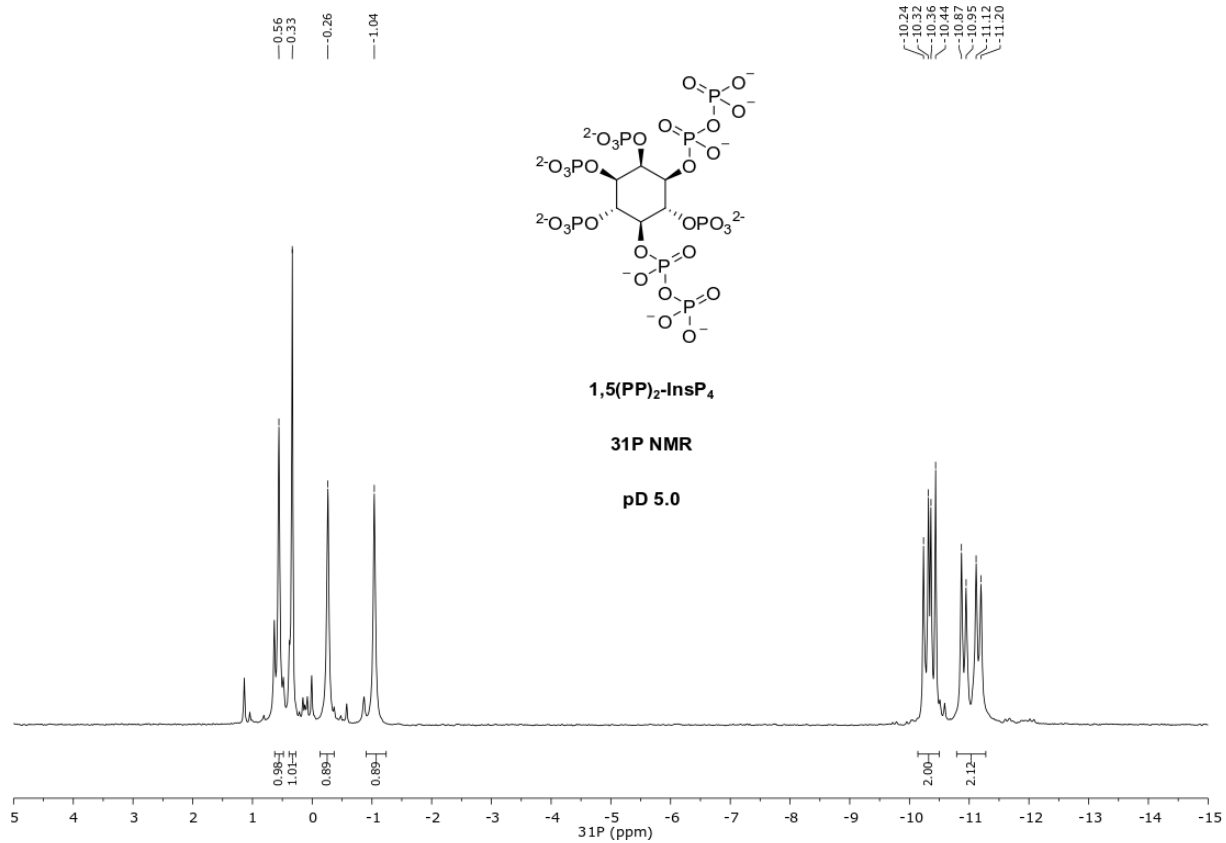
^{13}C NMR

pH 5.0









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Chapter 3 ¹³C-Labeled *myo*-Inositol as a Tool to Study Inositol Pyrophosphates *In Vitro* and *Ex Vivo*

Reproduced in part with permission from (1) [R. K. Harmel*](#), R. Puschmann*, M. Nguyen Trung, A. Saiardi, P. Schmieder, D. Fiedler, *Chem. Sci.* **2019**, 10, 5267–5274.
(2) Jinsheng Zhu *et al.* *eLIFE* **2019**, 8, e43582.

(* contributed equally)

Project Collaborators: The experiments in this chapter were performed in close collaboration with R. Puschmann. Therefore, contributions of these authors are indicated more specifically as footnotes in the individual sections. Under supervision of R. K. Harmel, M. Nguyen Trung performed preliminary optimization experiments on the [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ synthesis and recorded time-resolved progress curves on IP6KA reactions. Experiments with enzymes from *A. thaliana* were performed in collaboration with the Hothorn and the Schaaf groups. *D. discoideum* was metabolically labeled by Saiardi and coworkers.

Introduction: New Methods to Monitor PP-InsPs in Complex Mixtures

Monitoring PP-InsPs levels and dynamics is one of the major readouts to identify and characterize biological functions of these second messengers. Since the first discovery of these small molecules, radioactively-labeled *myo*-inositol and PP-InsPs have been among the most applied tools to interrogate PP-InsP signaling. (**Chapter 1, Figure 1.4**) This approach established the existence of PP-InsPs as well as their participation in phosphate homeostasis and cell cycle progression.¹⁻⁴ The use of radioactive methods prevented many groups from entering the PP-InsP field and limited analysis of these small molecules to *yeast*, *D. discoideum* and a few mammalian cell lines. Therefore, new methods were developed over the last three decades. Early on, Mayr and coworkers used an alternative HPLC-based method that allowed label-free analysis of PP-InsP content from cell extracts by metal-dye detection (MDD).⁵ (**Figure 3.1 a**)

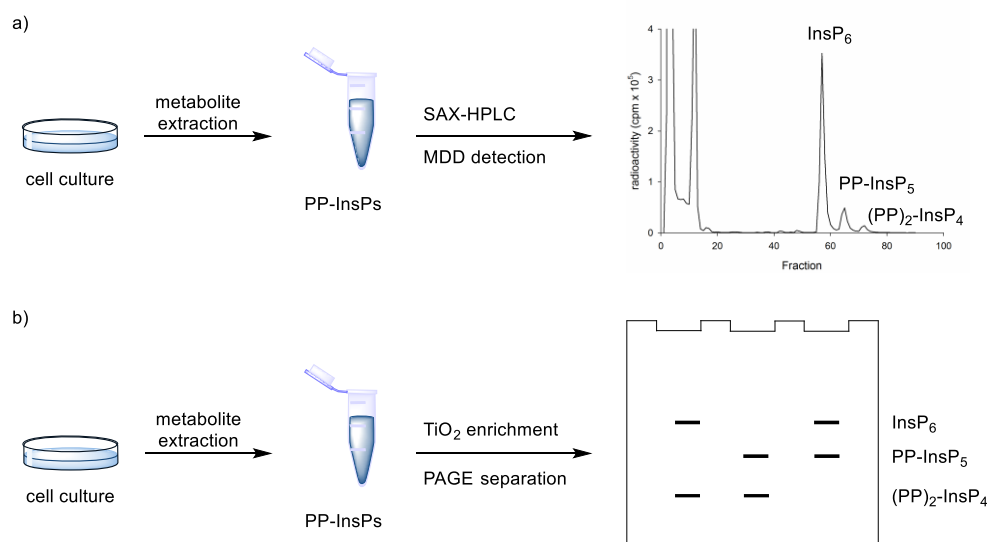


Figure 3.1: Alternative techniques to monitor PP-InsPs in cell extracts avoiding radioactivity. a) Analysis of PP-InsPs by SAX-HPLC using MDD detection. b) Analysis of PP-InsP by TiO₂ enrichment followed by PAGE separation and staining with toluidine blue.

The method relies on the detection of the specific absorption of a metal dye complex. In presence of InsPs and PP-InsPs, the metal-chelating dye is displaced from the metal centre, resulting in a decrease in absorbance of the complex. This approach allowed relative and absolute quantification and has been used since the initial characterization of PP-InsPs in *D. discoideum*.² MDD requires a three pump HPLC system which is not readily implemented. Eversince this method was published, only the Mayr laboratory had this setup available which made it overall sparsely used in the field. More recently, a new method avoided the use of rather harsh HPLC conditions for the separation.⁶ PP-InsPs were enriched from acidified cell extracts by TiO₂ beads, followed by their separation on high percentage acrylamide gels. **(Figure 3.1 b)** Unlabeled PP-InsPs were visualized using a cationic dye like toluidine blue that binds PP-InsPs and were analyzed quantitatively using a gel imager. This method showed systematically increased PP-InsP concentrations compared to radiolabeling and MDD, which can be attributed to the milder separation conditions.⁶ The relatively low technical requirements and the independence from radioactive tracers have allowed more laboratories to employ this approach, but the lack of an InsP-specific analytical handle entailed a more elaborate sample preparation and is limited to the detection of only the most highly phosphorylated InsPs.

While all methods mentioned above have been instrumental to understand PP-InsP function, they are only able to discriminate InsP and PP-InsP based on their charge and lack a clear distinction of the structural isomers of InsPs and PP-InsPs. These methods also lack the ability to monitor conversion of InsP species in real time *in vitro*, thereby losing informative kinetic insight contained within biochemical experiments. Furthermore, various separation and resolution steps were required and direct measurements in complex environments like cell extracts have not been possible so

far. Therefore, novel approaches that discriminate PP-InsPs based on their structure and that generate reliable information quickly with limited sample preparation are highly needed.

NMR spectroscopy is a non-invasive analytical method that can provide detailed information about the chemical and structural environment of a nucleus solely based on the chemical shift and magnetic couplings between nuclei. For example, two-dimensional $^1\text{H},^{31}\text{P}$ -NMR has been used to elucidate the structure of PP-InsPs.^{7,8} Since experiments utilizing the $^3\text{J}(^1\text{H},^{31}\text{P})$ coupling are of limited sensitivity due to the inefficient magnetization transfer *via* these couplings, high analyte concentrations were necessary. In addition, the low chemical shift dispersion and the broad lines of ^{31}P can limit the information content.^{7,8} In contrast, the chemical shift dispersion of the NMR-active nucleus ^{13}C is superior to ^{31}P and magnetization transfer *via* $^1\text{J}(^1\text{H},^{13}\text{C})$ one-bond couplings is much more efficient. Unfortunately, the sensitivity of NMR experiments including ^{13}C is strongly hampered by the low natural abundance of this isotope of approx. 1 %. In the past, this disadvantage could be overcome by the use of ^{13}C isotope-labeled small molecules and has been widely applied to elucidate various metabolic pathways and processes.^{9–11} The 100-fold higher concentration of ^{13}C nuclei enhanced the detectability of labeled compounds with respect to sample background and experimental noise, thereby providing targeted information on these molecules in complex environments. Consequently, we envision that ^{13}C -labeled *myo*-inositol, and the corresponding labeled InsPs and PP-InsPs, could enable NMR measurements at low, biologically relevant analyte concentrations and within intricate samples.

In this chapter, a new a tool that combines NMR spectroscopy and ^{13}C -labeled *myo*-inositol to study InsP and PP-InsPs is reported. To this end, a high yielding, gram-scale synthesis of highly pure uniformly ^{13}C -labeled ($[^{13}\text{C}_6]$) *myo*-inositol was developed. In combination with synthetic procedures from the literature and the chemoenzymatic efforts, provided in chapter 2, $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ InsPs and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ PP-InsPs were prepared. We employed the $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ InsPs and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ PP-InsPs to monitor *in vitro* activity of PP-InsP metabolizing enzymes from *H. sapiens* and *A. thaliana* and characterized the kinetic parameters of these kinases. Moreover, we demonstrate metabolic labeling of two mammalian cell lines (HCT116 and HEK293T) and the social amoeba *D. discoideum* with $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ *myo*-inositol, and subsequent detection of the *in vivo* generated $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ InsPs and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ PP-InsPs species within a complex cell extract. These findings highlight the utility and applicability of ^{13}C -labeled InsPs to improve our understanding of InsP and PP-InsP biochemistry and metabolism, and to interrogate and elucidate their cellular functions.

Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of ^{13}C -labeled PP-InsPs

*Enzymatic Synthesis of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ *myo*-Inositol on a Gram Scale¹*

To analyze inositol-based signaling molecules by NMR we first sought to prepare pure $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ *myo*-inositol on a large scale. The approaches to obtain ^{13}C -labeled *myo*-inositol reported to date have either relied on expensive $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ glucose-6-phosphate as a starting material (7000 €/g) or – when starting from $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ glucose – were low yielding (9.9 % and 6.7 %, respectively).^{12–14} In addition, all procedures lacked a scalable purification strategy for the product, precluding the isolation of large

¹ Optimization of the enzymatic synthesis was conducted by R. Puschmann. Optimization of the chemical derivatization and purification was performed by R. K. Harmel. $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ *myo*-inositol was synthesized on a large scale by R. Puschmann and R. K. Harmel.

and pure amounts of product. Consequently, these methods have only been applied on a small scale. To circumvent these limitations, and to subsequently synthesize sufficient quantities of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsPs, we pursued a 3-step enzymatic synthesis that uses affordable [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose (80 €/g) as a starting material and employed a chemical purification strategy at the end. (**Figure 3.2**)

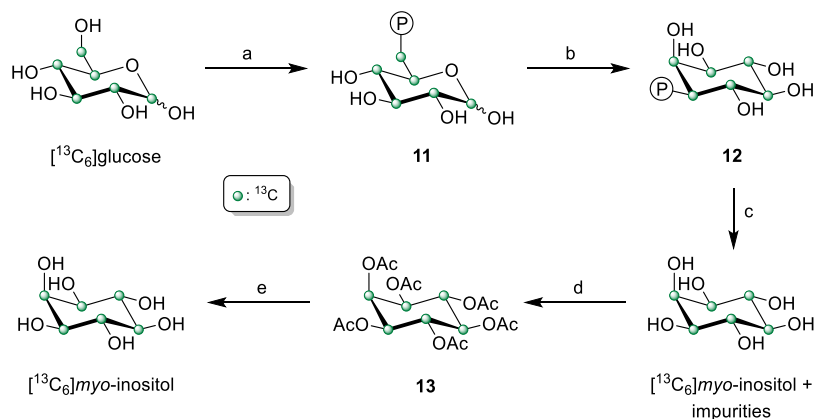


Figure 3.2: Chemoenzymatic synthesis of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol followed by derivatization and purification. a) [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose, MOPS pH 6.5, creatine phosphate, ATP, DTT, MgCl_2 , hexokinase, creatine kinase, H_2O . b) Tris pH 8.0, NAD^+ , NaCl , MgCl_2 , inositol phosphate synthase in H_2O . c) Glycine pH 9.8, ZnCl_2 , alkaline phosphatase in H_2O . d) Ac_2O , pyridine. e) NaOMe in MeOH .

As a first step, [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose was phosphorylated at the 6-position using commercially available hexokinase in a modified literature procedure.¹⁵ Next, we optimized and scaled up the isomerization reaction of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose-6-phosphate (**11**) to [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol-3-phosphate (**12**) published by Saiardi and coworkers.¹² During this step the conditions were altered to use Mg^{2+} rather than paramagnetic Mn^{2+} , so the progress of the reaction could be monitored by ^{13}C NMR spectroscopy. Securing full conversion to **12** was crucial for the overall synthetic strategy, as it bypasses the discrimination between **11** and **12** in the subsequent dephosphorylation step. Thereby, [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol could be obtained by dephosphorylation with robust and commercially available alkaline phosphatase instead of using recombinantly

expressed inositol monophosphatase. While the desired product was clearly visible in the ^{13}C NMR spectrum, the isolated yield exceeded 100%, indicative of contamination with salts and buffer components. Because purification of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol by ion-exchange, normal-phase, and reverse-phase chromatography proved difficult, we applied a chemical derivatization strategy in which the product mixture containing $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol was treated with an excess of acetic anhydride in pyridine. The resulting $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol hexakisacetate (**13**) could be purified by normal-phase chromatography and subsequent saponification and precipitation provided gram amounts of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol in excellent purity with a 50% overall yield (with respect to $[^{13}\text{C}_6]$ glucose). In comparison to previous syntheses, our approach provides a simpler and shorter route with greatly improved yield.

Chemical Synthesis and Characterization of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsPs}$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{PP-InsPs}$

With large quantities of pure $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol in hand, we prepared $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$; as they are the most abundant inositol polyphosphates.¹⁶ (**Figure 3.3**) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ was obtained analogous to the procedure used in chapter 2 in two steps with 35% yield *via* the xylyl protected intermediate **14**.¹⁷ Unfortunately, efforts to optimize the solvent system or use of other reported protecting groups (9-fluoenylmethyl- or benzyl) led to no significantly improved yield.¹⁸ The synthesis of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ consists of 5 steps and was optimized using unlabeled *myo*-inositol, then performed with $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol. The synthetic route started with the formation of the orthobenzoate ester **15**.¹⁹ While the published procedure suggested recrystallization from EtOAc, we found that precipitation with water simplified the product purification due to the easy removal of the DMSO. Acidic hydrolysis of **15** followed by phosphorylation with xylyl phosphoamidite generated and oxidation by *m*CPBA

compounds **16**. Removal of the xyl- and the benzoyl groups afforded $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ in 38% overall yield which is consistent with the literature yields.

Compared to the syntheses of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$, obtaining $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{PP-InsPs}$ by chemical means would require large amounts of starting material and be quite challenging.^{20–22} Fortunately, we could easily adopt the new findings described in chapter 2 to produce large amounts PP-InsPs enzymatically in high purity. Using this method, 100 mg of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]5\text{PP-InsP}_5$ and 50 mg of each $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1\text{PP-InsP}_5$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$ were synthesized chemoenzymatically.

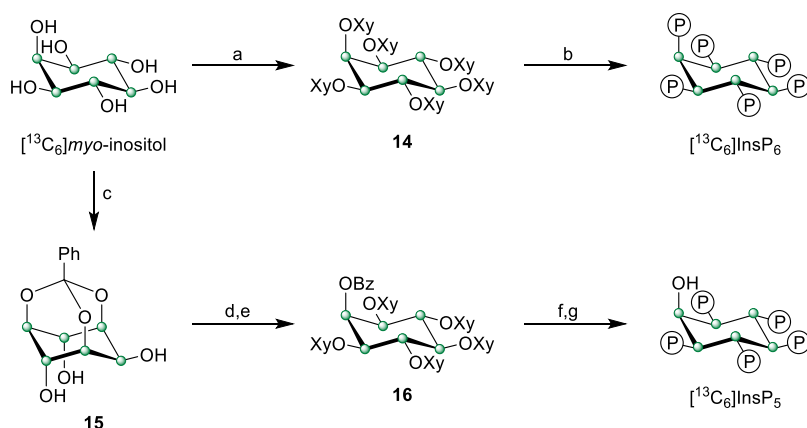


Figure 3.3: Chemical synthesis of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{-InsP}_6$. a) Xy phosphoramidite, 5-Phenyltetrazol, DCM, then mCPBA. b) $\text{Pd}(\text{OH})_2/\text{H}_2$, $\text{MeOH}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$. c) trimethyl orthoformate, camphorsulfonic acid, DMSO. d) 10% TFA. e) Xy phosphoramidite, 1H-tetrazole, mCPBA, DCM. f) $\text{Pd}(\text{OH})_2/\text{H}_2$, $\text{MeOH}/\text{H}_2\text{O}$. g) conc. $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$

We examined all prepared ^{13}C -labeled compounds by $^1\text{H},^{13}\text{C}$ -HMQC spectroscopy. In general, ^{13}C and ^1H nuclei of phosphorylated positions are more deshielded compared to their unphosphorylated counterparts and displayed higher chemical shifts which was most pronounced in the ^1H -dimension. (**Figure 3.4 a, b**) The spectra of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo-inositol}$, $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$, $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]5\text{PP-InsP}_5$ showed four resonances due to the plane of symmetry in these molecules. (**Figure 3.4 a–d**) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1\text{PP-InsP}_5$ and $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$ exhibited six signals as the symmetry is

broken through the pyrophosphate group at the 1-position and the signals at the 1/3 positions are clearly split. (Figure 3.4 e, f) Importantly, the spectra revealed unique peaks for each of the InsPs which was very promising with respect to the analysis of complex mixtures and unpurified cell extracts. Especially, the chemical shift of the 2-position was strongly affected by the given phosphorylation pattern. Remarkably, spectra could be obtained using only 32 scans (2 h) at 5 μM for $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ which illustrates the high visibility provided by labeling with ^{13}C .

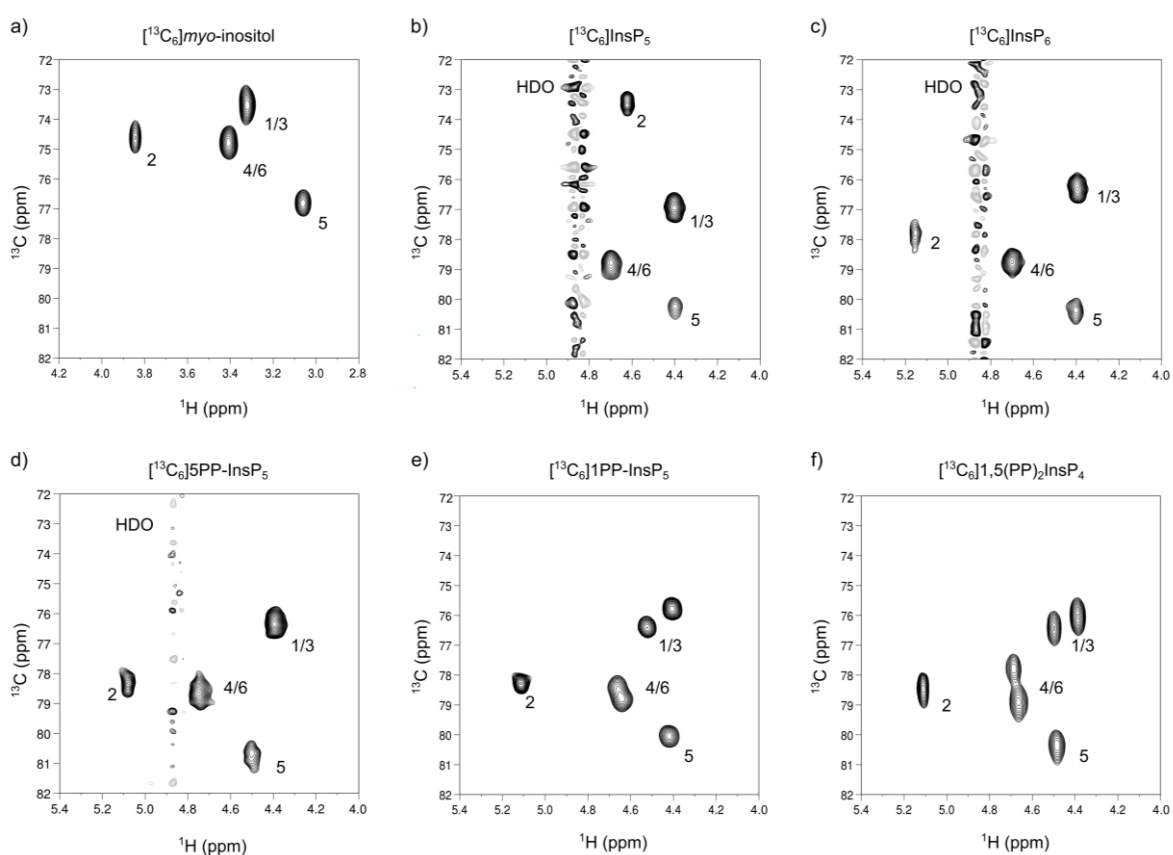


Figure 3.4: $^1\text{H},^{13}\text{C}$ -HSQC spectra of all synthesized ^{13}C -labeled compounds. a) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo-inositol}$ b) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$ c) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ d) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]5\text{PP-InsP}_5$ e) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1\text{PP-InsP}_5$ f) $[^{13}\text{C}_6]1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$.

***In Vitro* Characterization of PP-InsP Metabolizing Enzymes**

*Biochemical Characterization of IP6KA and IP6K1*²

With the synthetic ¹³C-labeled standards in hand, we pursued the *in vitro* characterization of PP-InsP kinases by NMR spectroscopy. To date, enzymatic activities of IP6Ks and PPIP5Ks were mostly assessed by monitoring PP-InsP conversion using radioactivity or MDD, or were measured indirectly *via* quantification of ADP content using bioluminescent assays.^{1–5,23} We envisioned that an NMR-based method could resemble a valuable alternative to these methods. The NMR workflow would avoid the use of radioactive compounds and cumbersome HPLC purification. In addition, atomic resolution provided by the NMR spectra would give high confidence about the identity of the substrate. Overall, this could simplify sample preparation and analysis, and could minimize the risk of false interpretation of the obtained data.

As proof of principle, the kinase activities of IP6KA and IP6K1 were investigated. While optimizing the enzymatic synthesis of [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ with IP6KA, we noted that the progression of the reaction could be followed readily by NMR, even in the presence 10% H₂O and high concentrations of non-deuterated buffer and ATP (**Figure 3.5**). Specifically, the diagnostic signals for the protons at the 2-position of the inositol ring of [¹³C₆]InsP₆ and [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ were baseline-separated in the ¹H-dimension (5.2 ppm for [¹³C₆]InsP₆, 5.1 ppm for [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅) and showed no overlap with signals from other compounds within the mixture.

² Optimization and biochemical characterization of IP6K1 was performed by both R. K. Harmel and R. Puschmann. Kinetic data were analyzed and illustrated by R. Puschmann.

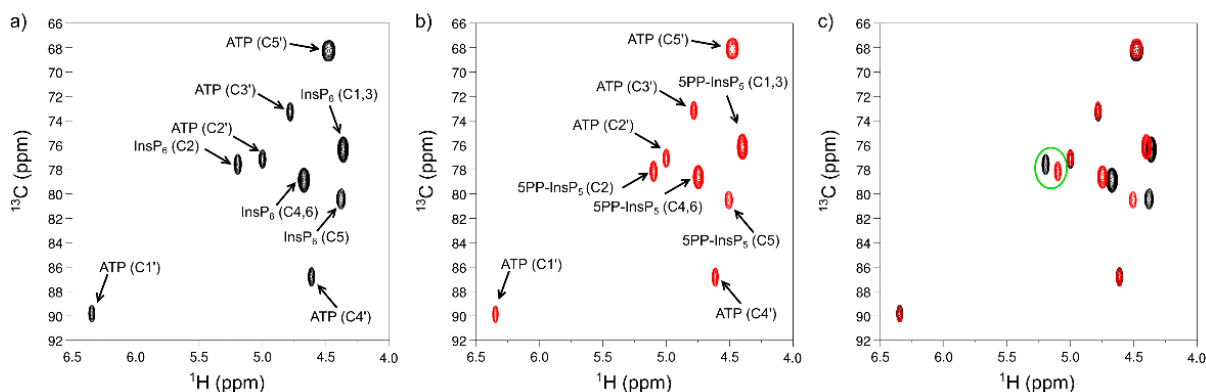


Figure 3.5: ^1H , ^{13}C -HMQC-Spectra to determine conversion to $[^{13}\text{C}_6]5\text{PP-InsP}_5$. a) Control reaction without IP6KA shows no conversion of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$. b) Full conversion of $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ to $[^{13}\text{C}_6]5\text{PP-InsP}_5$. c) Overlay of a and b to illustrate that the C2 peaks (highlighted with green circle) are well resolved and can be used to monitor the reaction progress.

The ability to resolve the ^1H -signals at the 2-position provided the opportunity to monitor the enzymatic reaction in a time-resolved fashion, using a pseudo-2D spin-echo difference experiment. This pulse sequence was similar to the ^1H , ^{13}C -HMQC experiments and resulted in a series of one-dimensional spectra that only displayed resonances for ^1H -nuclei that are bound to ^{13}C -nuclei. By plotting the peak intensity of the ^1H -nuclei at the 2-position against time (each experiment required only 75 seconds at a substrate concentration of $175\ \mu\text{M}$) the progress of the kinase reaction could be observed. (**Figure 3.6**) The non-invasive nature of the NMR measurements allowed for continuous reaction monitoring, providing time-resolved data from one sample.

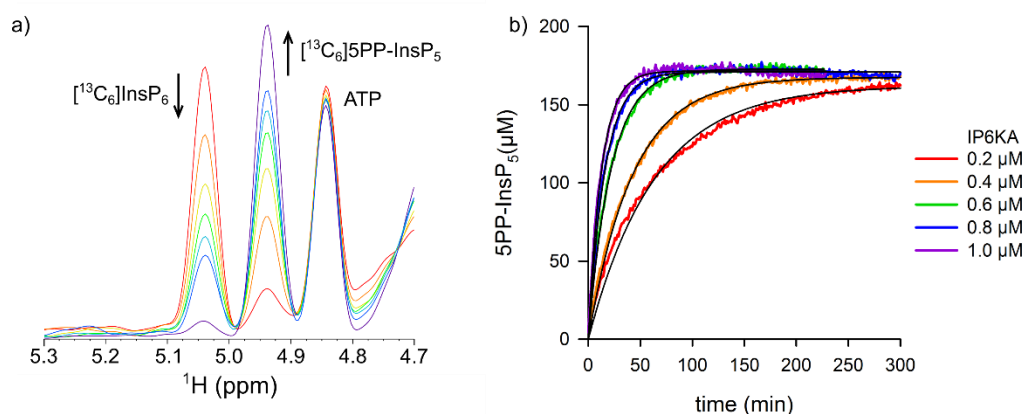


Figure 3.6: NMR-based measurements of IP6KA activity. a) Superimposed pseudo-2D spin-echo difference spectra at different time points (6 min, 28 min, 50 min, 73 min, 95 min, 118 min, 455 min). The InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅ peaks are labeled and the change over time is indicated by the arrows. The intensity of the ATP-peak hardly changed due to the ATP regenerating system. b) Progress curves of [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ synthesis at different IP6KA concentrations. An individual NMR-spectrum was recorded every 75 seconds. The [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ peak height was normalized against the HEPES signal and the data was fitted with a first order decay model.

With a fast and robust workflow to determine kinase activity set up, the kinetic parameters for human IP6K1 were determined to validate our NMR analysis. (**Figure 3.7**) Measurement of the initial rates at constant [¹³C₆]InsP₆ concentration (175 μM) and varying ATP concentrations (62.5 μM to 8 mM) provided the Michaelis-Menten constant. In this assay, we decided to use time points rather than continuous time curves in order to save experimental and instrument time. IP6K activity is dependent on Mg²⁺ ions and therefore we chose to quench each time point by addition of EDTA. The K_M measured for ATP (353 ± 167 μM) was comparable to previous reports and is close to cellular ATP concentrations, which supports the assertion that the IP6Ks are uniquely sensitive to ATP availability.^{23,24} The V_{max} value (192 ± 41 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹) for IP6K1 was also within the range of published literature values, which varied greatly depending on the protein-tag and purification strategy employed (37.3 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹ to 1410 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹).^{24,25} Interestingly, we found that ATP concentrations above

2 mM led to substrate inhibition of IP6K1 (K_i : 7.48 mM), which had not been quantified before.²⁵ The robust measurements of InsP conversion by NMR spectroscopy has provided kinetic data with low experimental error, which, in turn, allowed the observation of substrate inhibition by ATP.

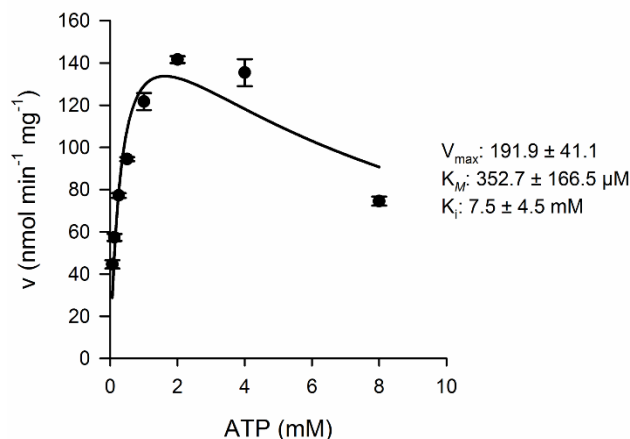


Figure 3.7: Kinetic characterization of IP6K1. Michaelis-Menten kinetics for IP6K1. The initial velocity was measured in triplicates at different ATP concentrations and fitted against a model for substrate inhibition.

All in all, biochemical characterization of IP6K1 showed great potential to monitor conversion of PP-InsPs in general. Consequently, this approach became the method of choice to optimize reaction conditions for the large-scale synthesis of PP-InsPs described in chapter 2 and to compensate for batch-dependent variations in enzyme activity. In the future, the developed NMR workflows can be adapted for the analysis of other PP-InsPs metabolizing enzymes.

Evaluation of IP6K1 Inhibitors³

IP6Ks regulate important aspects of metabolism and signaling in mammals and in pathogenic microorganisms like *Trypanosoma brucei* and therefore increased efforts to identify selective inhibitors have been made.^{23,26,27} Thus far, two molecules, TNP (*N*²-(*m*-Trifluorobenzyl)-*N*⁶-(*p*-nitrobenzyl)purine), and Myricetin were shown to inhibit IP6K1 activity at low micromolar concentrations. TNP was identified in a study that tested InsP₃-3-kinase inhibitors on IP6Ks.²⁶ Here, the conversion of radioactive [³H]InsP₆ was followed by TLC or HPLC assays. In an attempt to find more potent inhibitors for IP6K1, a high-throughput-screening approach using a bioluminescence-based ADP detection assay identified myricetin among a few others hits.²³ Given that we could directly measure product formation, we expanded the scope of our NMR method towards the characterization of IP6K1 inhibitors. (**Figure 3.8**)

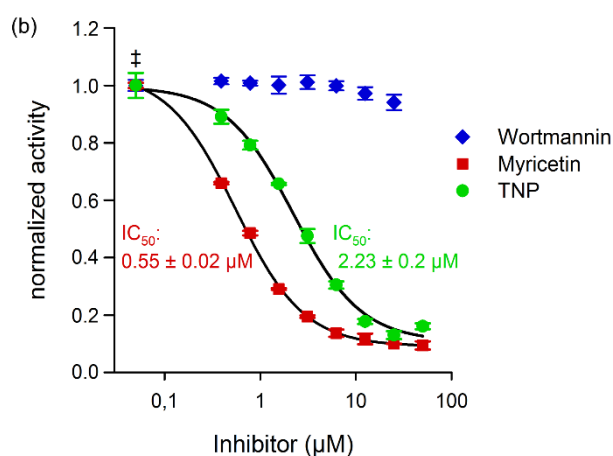


Figure 3.8: The inhibitory effect of TNP (*N*²-(*m*-Trifluorobenzyl)-*N*⁶-(*p*-nitrobenzyl)purine), Myricetin, and Wortmannin were tested at different concentrations and the IC₅₀ values were determined. The ATP concentration was 2.5 mM for all inhibitor measurements. (‡ enzyme activity at 0 μM inhibitor).

³ Evaluation of inhibitors was performed by both R. K. Harmel and R. Puschmann. Inhibition data were analyzed and illustrated by R. Puschmann.

Indeed, we found that TNP and myricetin inhibited IP6K1 with IC₅₀ values of 2.25 μM and 0.6 μM, respectively, while Wortmannin (a PI3K inhibitor) did not affect enzyme activity even at high concentrations. All in all, we found that the NMR-based method represented a good alternative to the radioactive assay and the direct read-out of the substrate and the reaction product provided data with high certainty.

Evaluation of the ATP Synthase Reaction as a Tool for High-Throughput-Screening of IP6K1 Inhibitors

Our newly established NMR assay was not suitable to rapidly screen for new inhibitors of PP-InsPs kinases. However, the high reliability of our approach inspired us to utilize this technique as a tool to develop and validate new high-throughput-screening platforms for the discovery of selective IP6K inhibitors. Such inhibitors are potentially of value as lead compounds for pharmaceutical intervention in PP-InsP-mediated diseases or as chemical probes for further interrogation of PP-InsPs signaling. In 2017, Wei and coworkers developed a homogeneous high-throughput screen for IP6K1 inhibitors.²³ Kinase activity was assessed by the detection of the produced ADP using a commercially available ADP-Glo™ assay kit. (**Figure 3.9**)

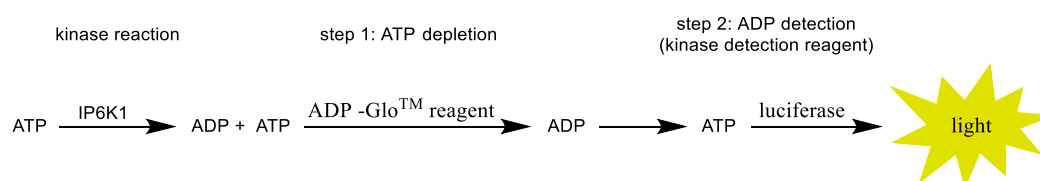


Figure 3.9: ADP detection by commercially available ADP-Glo™ assay.

Unfortunately, the most potent hits identified in this screen were flavonoids like myricetin which are known to interact with many other kinases.^{28–30} This polypharmacological behaviour disqualifies these compounds as chemical probes to

study PP-InsP signaling in cells. Therefore, new approaches to identify IP6K specific or even IP6K isoform specific inhibitor are highly needed.

In previous NMR experiments to optimize the synthesis of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]5PP-InsP₅, it was found that the kinase reaction would reach an equilibrium at roughly 30% conversion of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆, even though the concentration of the generated ADP was low. According to Snyder and coworkers, the reverse reaction, also referred to as ATP synthase reaction, was strongly dependent on the ADP concentration (K_M for ADP: 1.57 mM) and displayed a V_{max} value roughly twice as high, compared to the forward reaction.³¹ Together these results indicated that the ATP synthase reaction could be readily favored over the kinase reaction. Since we were now able to produce large amounts of 5PP-InsP₅ with the methods developed in Chapter 2, the reverse reaction of IP6K1 could be explored as a platform to screen inhibitors for this enzyme.

Most kinase inhibitors compete for the nucleotide binding site and we postulated that the K_D for ATP and ADP should be similar so our new approach could work. Unfortunately, these values were not published so there was no biochemical evidence that the aforementioned assumption was correct. However, an array of experiments was conducted to support the initial hypothesis. To this end, we first validated that ADP is not an inhibitor of the forward reaction but rather induces the reversed reaction. Therefore, the ATP synthase reaction had been performed with ADP and [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]5PP-InsP₅ and the formation of ATP and InsP₆ was observed by NMR. **(Figure 3.10 a, b)** A reaction with 20 μM TNP was included in one of these samples and showed a reduction of ATP synthase activity by 78% compared to the DMSO control.

The indication that TNP is indeed an inhibitor of the reverse reaction motivated us to investigate the compatibility of this reaction with the Kinase Glo™ assay that monitors ATP synthesis. **(Figure 3.10 c)** The commercial kit was adapted to a 96-well

plate format using total reaction volumes of 200 μ L. Triplicate experiments were set-up to test the activity of IP6K1 against DMSO and TNP, including two controls either lacking 5PP-InsP₅ or enzyme. (**Figure 3.10 d**) After 30 min, the Kinase Glo™ reagent was added directly to the wells, and luminescence intensity was analyzed using a gel imager.

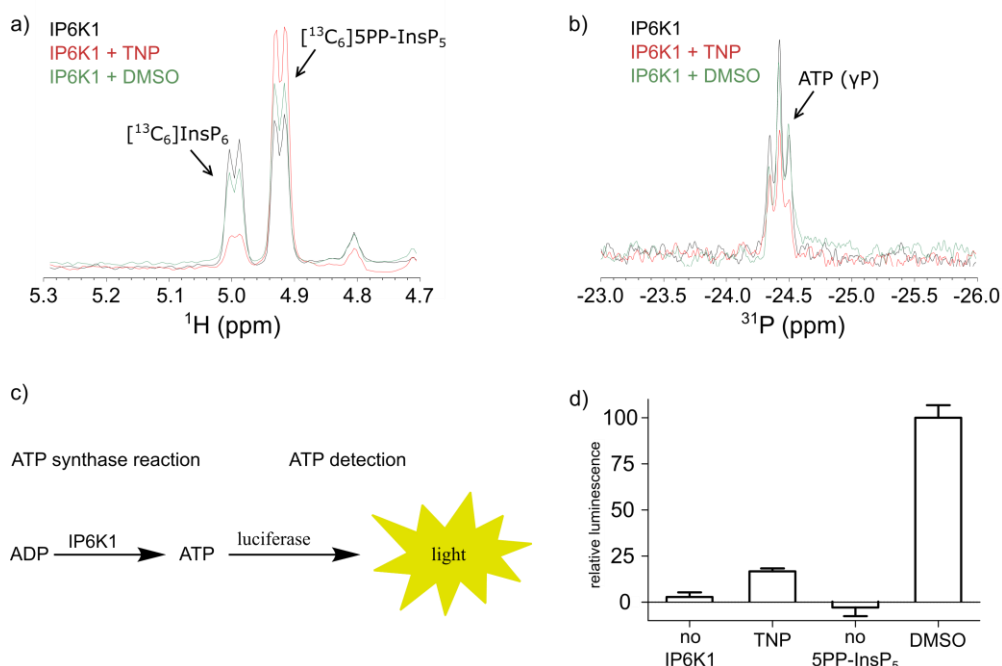


Figure 3.10: ATP synthase reactions of IP6K1 analyzed by NMR and ATP kinase Glo™ assay. Formation of a) $[\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ and b) ATP analyzed by NMR. c) ATP detection by commercially available Kinase Glo™ assay. d) Quantification of luminescence obtained from Kinase Glo™ assay corrected to the average of no IP6K1 and no 5PP-InsP₅ controls and normalized to average of kinase reaction with DMSO added.

As for the NMR experiment, we observed robust kinase reactivity in the positive control and strongly reduced activity for the samples containing the inhibitor. The reduction in kinase activity by TNP was in line with the NMR experiments. Both negative controls showed no reaction and only background signal from the already yellowish Kinase Glo™ assay solution. Notably, the error between replicates is quite small compared to the differences found in these samples.

All in all, these preliminary experiments paved the way for the optimization and setup of a high-throughput-screening assay to find specific inhibitors against IP6K1 using the ATP synthase reaction. Previously, a comparable assay would not have been a valid option because the high amounts of 5PP-InsPs required for large screen were inaccessible by organic synthesis. However, together with the newly developed enzymatic synthesis described earlier in chapter 2, this screen became feasible and is currently pursued by a postdoc and a PhD student in our lab.

*Biochemical Characterization of VIH2 and ITPK1 from Arabidopsis Thaliana*⁴

The *in vitro* characterization of IP6K1 showed great potential to be expanded towards other PP-InsP metabolizing enzymes. Therefore, we sought to apply our new NMR approach to investigate PP-InsP metabolism in *A. thaliana*, in collaboration with the Hothorn (University of Geneva) and Schaaf groups (University of Bonn). In plants, the biosynthesis of PP-InsPs as well as their biological function remains an understudied field compared to yeast and mammalian cells. So far, only a kinase called VIH2 was demonstrated to have PPIP5K-like behavior using a genetic model in yeast.^{32,33} The IP6K family enzymes were completely unknown. Consequently, only a few phenotypes had been recognized in plants that intersect with PP-InsPs. For examples, it had been shown that jasmonate specifically increased 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ pools and that these changes were dependent on VIH2.³³ These experiments indicated that this kinase is involved in jasmonate perception and plant defenses against herbivorous insects and necrotrophic fungi. Another intriguing observation in *A. thaliana* was the role of PP-InsPs in phosphate (Pi) homeostasis.²¹ PP-InsPs strongly

⁴ Biochemical characterization of full length Vip1 was performed by R- Puschmann.

interact with SPX domains. These evolutionary conserved elements are either stand-alone proteins or located in proteins that support Pi uptake, storage and signaling.^{21,34–42} In plants, the Pi starvation response (PHR) transcription factor binds SPX protein in a PP-InsPs dependent fashion.^{43–46} (**Figure 3.11**) During low Pi availability PHR attaches to the DNA and mediates the expression of Pi starvation-induced genes. During high Pi supply, the PP-InsP levels are elevated compared to low Pi availability. Thereby, the formation of the PHR-SPX complex is promoted and PHR dissociates from its target promoter. While these studies indicated a vital role of PP-InsPs in Pi homeostasis in *A. thaliana*, it remained unclear how Pi availability was sensed and communicated within these cells. To get more insight in the underlying mechanisms a thorough biochemical characterization of PP-InsPs metabolizing enzymes is highly needed.

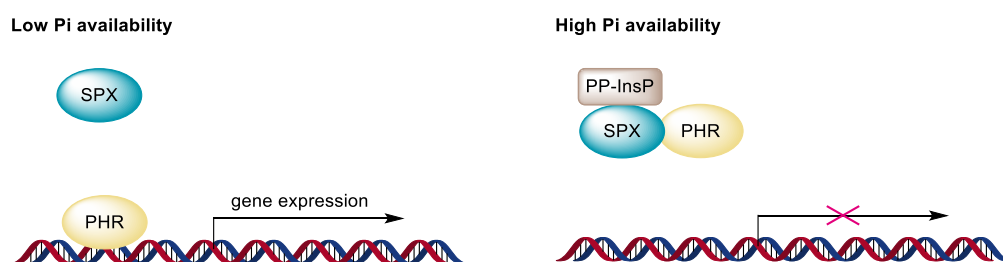


Figure 3.11: Regulation of PHR by SPX protein and PP-InsPs.

In recent attempt to understand Pi starvation response in plants, the Hothorn group found that VIH2 knockout plants responded sensitively to external Pi levels and suspected a major switch for Pi starvation response in this enzymes. To better understand how this enzyme senses levels of Pi, VIH2 was characterized biochemically. Like all PPIP5K enzymes, VIH2 contained a phosphatase domain and a kinase domain that was expected to be catalytically active on PP-InsPs. We focused

on the kinase domain (VIH2^{KD}) and identified substrates and reaction products by NMR spectroscopy. (Figure 3.12)

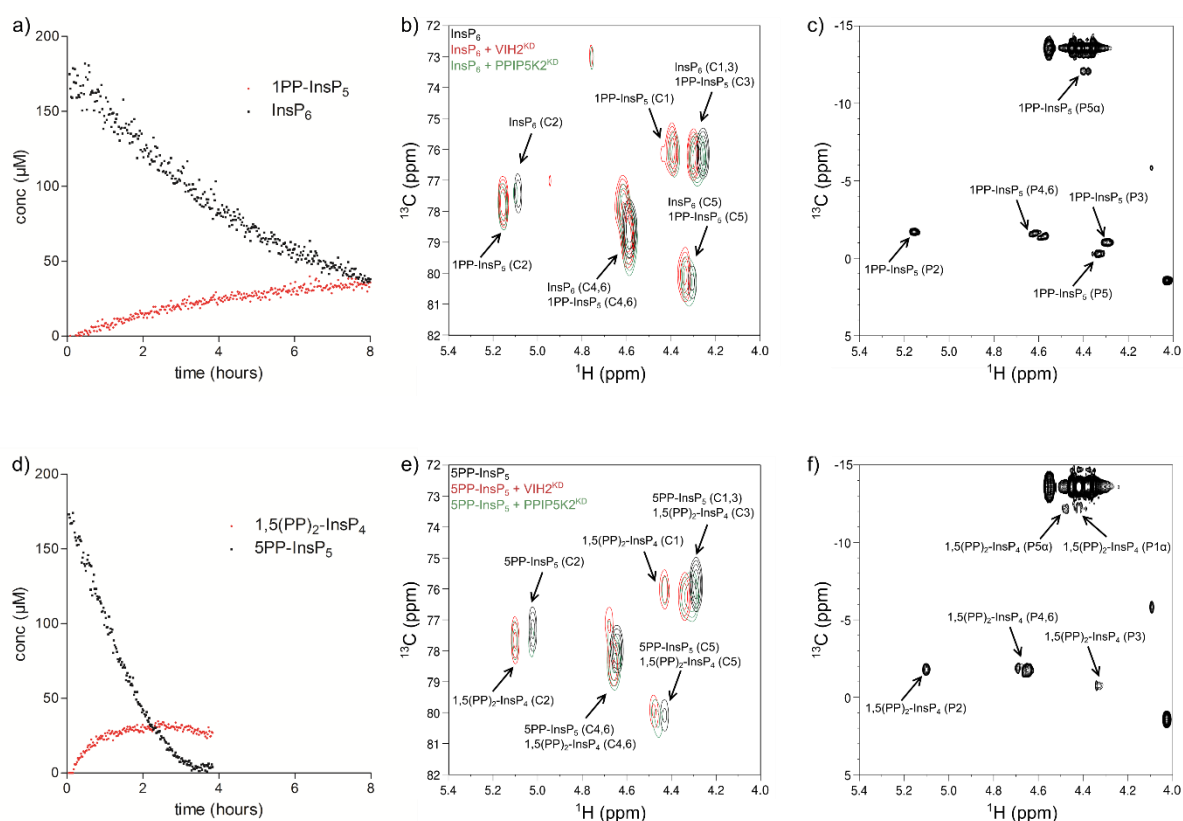


Figure 3.12: Biochemical characterization of VIH2^{KD} using [¹³C₆]InsP₆ and [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅. a) Time-resolved analysis of [¹³C₆]InsP₆ consumption and [¹³C₆]1PP-InsP₅ synthesis. b) ¹H,¹³C-HMQC analysis of reaction product from VIH^{KD} with [¹³C₆]InsP₆ as substrate and comparison to reaction product from PPIP5K2^{KD} with [¹³C₆]InsP₆ as substrate. c) ¹H,³¹P-HMBC analysis of reaction product from VIH^{KD} with [¹³C₆]InsP₆ as substrate. d) Time-resolved analysis of [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ consumption and [¹³C₆]1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ synthesis. e) ¹H,¹³C-HMQC analysis of reaction product from VIH^{KD} with [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ as substrate and comparison to reaction product from PPIP5K2^{KD} with [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ as substrate. f) ¹H,³¹P-HMBC analysis of reaction product from VIH^{KD} with [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ as substrate.

Continuous reaction monitoring was performed and estimated the initial rates by fitting data points within 20% conversion. A 4.9-fold higher activity for [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ (21.1 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹) compared to [¹³C₆]InsP₆ (4.3 nmol min⁻¹ mg⁻¹) was found. (Figure 3.12 a, d) Next, the identity of the reaction products was elucidated by

comparison to an analogous, well-characterized reaction with PPIP5K2^{KD}, as no purified standards were available at this time. Additionally, the position of the pyrophosphate was verified by ¹H,³¹P-HMBC. (**Figure 3.12 b,c,e,f**) The ¹H,¹³C-HSQC spectra of PPIP5K2 and VIH2^{KD} samples showed good overlap between the reaction products. The pyrophosphate could be localized at the 1- or 3-position. Notably, no further products were observed in these reactions even after long incubations of more than 10 h. All in all, these experiments confirm that VIH2 belongs indeed to the PPIP5K family.

After completion of the analysis of the VIH2 kinase activity, the Hothorn group wanted to further investigate the influence of Pi levels on the activity of VIH2 full length proteins including the phosphatase domain. Unfortunately, they were unable to purify active protein and therefore all of the experiments were performed using the yeast homolog Vip1 (full length) as a mimic. In brief, we could show that high Pi availability led to an increase of [¹³C₆]1PP-InsP₅ and [¹³C₆]1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ and a significant decrease of [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ compared to samples without Pi. Especially 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ is expected to bind strongly to SPX domain containing proteins leading to a downregulation of the Pi starvation response. These results corroborated the hypothesis that VIH2 activity was regulated in response to Pi availability.

At this point, all phenotypes associated with PP-InsPs in plants were explained by the regulation of VIH2. On the other hand, phenotypes associated with IP6K family enzymes were completely unknown because no IP6K-like activity had been discovered. In an effort to identify this missing kinase, the Schaaf group examined the sequence homology of different InsP kinases and found an analog of human ITPK1, an InsP₃ kinase, that could effectively convert InsP₆ and 1PP-InsP₅ into 5PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄, respectively. Using our approach we enabled the determination of the

V_{\max} ($106,1 \pm 3.7 \text{ nmol} \cdot \text{min}^{-1} \cdot \text{mg}^{-1}$) and the K_M ($965.5 \pm 107.4 \mu\text{M}$) for ATP for this enzyme called now *Afl*TPK1. (**Figure 3.13**) At this time, no [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]1PP-InsP₅ was available and only the reaction with [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆ as substrate was characterized. As expected for enzymes of the IP6K family, the K_M was remarkably high indicative of a strong dependence of the enzyme activity on cellular ATP levels. Unlike IP6K1, we found no substrate inhibition at high ATP concentrations for *Afl*TPK1.

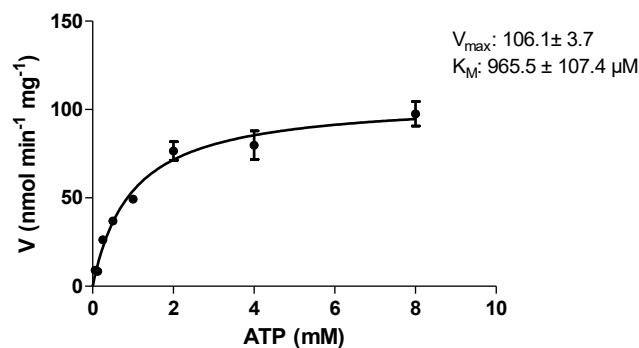


Figure 3.13: Determination of K_M for ATP and V_{\max} for InsP₆. Initial rates (v) plotted against multiple ATP concentrations in triplicate.

All In all, the robust and straightforward analysis of PP-InsP metabolizing enzymes by NMR spectroscopy allowed us to produce qualitative and quantitative data with low experimental error and high confidence. Especially, the discrimination between the different PP-InsP₅ isomers in complex samples was useful to aid the identification of the Pi starvation response in plants and to confirm the identity of VIH2 as PPIP5K class enzyme.

***Ex Vivo* Analysis of Metabolically Labeled Eukaryotic Cells**

*Metabolic Labeling of Mammalian Cells*⁵

In the previous sections we showed that ¹³C-labeled PP-InsPs are useful tools to study and monitor kinase activity of PPIP5Ks and IP6Ks *in vitro* by NMR spectroscopy without the need for isolation of PP-InsPs. Encouraged by these results, we decided to apply our NMR analysis to much more complex samples. As explained in chapter 1, metabolic labeling of yeast and mammalian cells by ³H-inositol is one of the most widely used methods to assay cellular InsP and PP-InsP ratios until today. Considering our access to [¹³C₆]myo-inositol, we envisioned an analogous method that analyzes full cell extracts by NMR spectroscopy and tested the metabolic labeling of the human colon cancer cell line HCT116. (**Figure 3.14 a**) HCT116 cells were grown in the presence of 100 μM [¹³C₆]myo-inositol and subsequently lysed using 1 M HClO₄. The extract was neutralized, lyophilized, dissolved in D₂O, and a ¹H,¹³C-HMQC spectrum was recorded. (**Figure 3.14 b**)

⁵ Metabolic labeling of HCT116 cells was performed by R. Puschmann and R. K. Harmel. Spike in experiments, TiO₂ enrichments, and preliminary experiment for the identification of unknown NMR signals were performed by R. Puschmann. Calibration curves with Me₄PBr were produced by R. Puschmann.

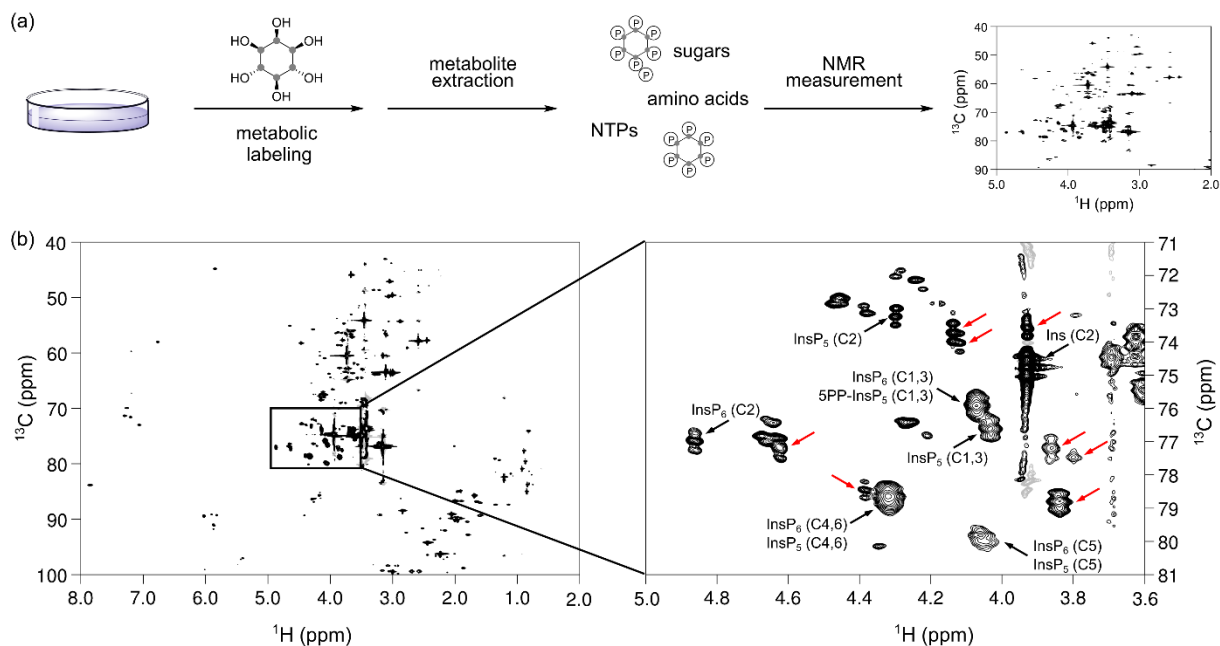


Figure 3.14: Metabolic labeling of mammalian cell line HCT116, followed by NMR analysis. (a) General workflow for the preparation of whole cell extracts for NMR spectroscopy. (b) Left: ^1H , ^{13}C -HMQC spectrum of an HCT116 extract. The peaks from 80 to 100 ppm in the F1 and between 0 and 3 ppm are folded into an empty region of the spectrum. Right: the inositol phosphate region of the spectrum is depicted in more detail. The identified InsPs are annotated while peaks that exhibit the expected splitting pattern in the carbon dimension but could not be attributed to either *myo*-inositol (Ins), InsP_5 , InsP_6 , nor 5PP-InsP_5 are highlighted by red arrows.

The spectrum displayed several strong peaks in the characteristic chemical shift region for InsPs and PP-InsPs (^1H : 5.0–3.6 ppm; ^{13}C : 81–71 ppm). At high spectral resolution a characteristic triplet pattern emerged due to the coupling of neighboring ^{13}C nuclei in the *myo*-inositol ring. Comparison to an extract prepared with $^{12}\text{C}_6$ *myo*-inositol confirmed that these peaks were a result of labeling with $^{13}\text{C}_6$ *myo*-inositol (**Figure 3.15 a, b**). To verify that the labeling success was not limited to HCT116 cells, we next treated human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293T) with $^{13}\text{C}_6$ *myo*-inositol and observed robust labeling again. (**Figure 3.15 c**)

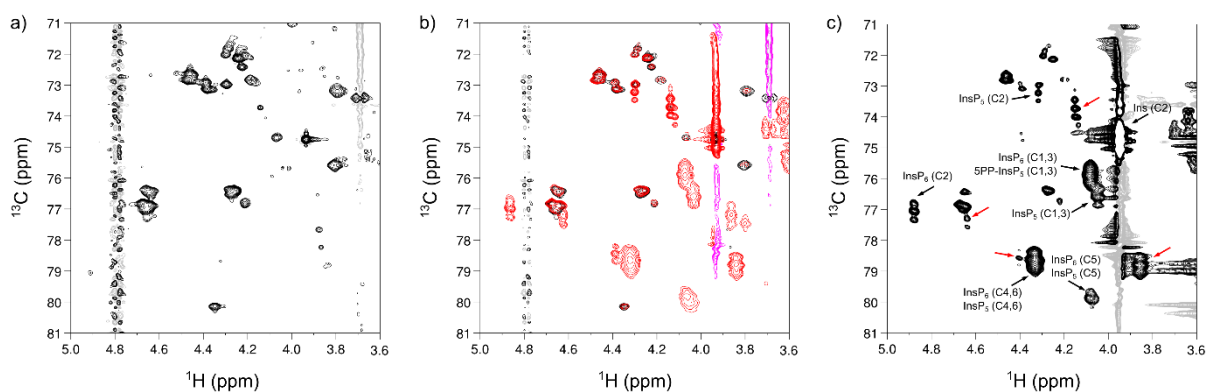


Figure 3.15: Metabolic labeling of HCT116 with [$^{12}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol and HEK293T with [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol. a) Inositol phosphate region of the unlabeled HCT116 wt extract. b) Inositol phosphate regions of overlay between [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol-labeled (red) and unlabeled (black) HCT116 wt extracts. c) HEK293T cell extract. HEK293T cells were extracted with 1 M HClO_4 and the soluble fraction was measured by NMR-spectroscopy. The relevant InsP peaks are labeled and additional peaks displaying the triplet pattern are highlighted by red arrows.

To annotate characteristic resonances for endogenous InsP₅, InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅, we performed spike-in experiments with synthetic standards on the labeled extracts (**Figure 3.16 a–c**) and confirmed the presence of the above mentioned InsPs. We further added a mixture containing synthetic InsP₅, InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅ to an unlabeled extract from HCT116 and detected all signals at their expected chemical shifts (**Figure 3.16 d**).

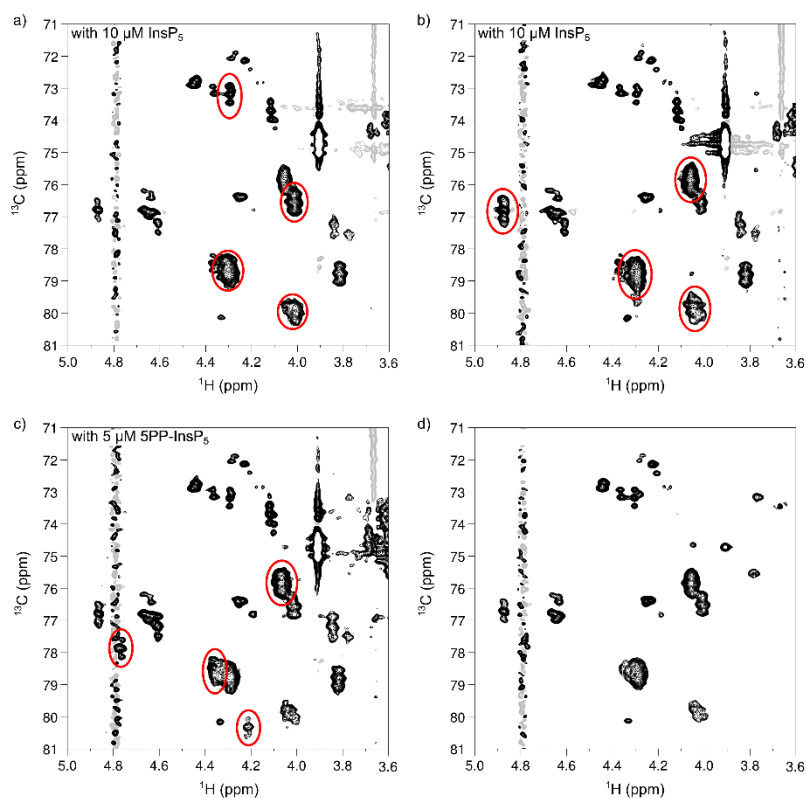


Figure 3.16: Spike in experiments to confirm the identity of InsP₅, InsP₆, and 5PP-InsP₅ in HCT116 extracts. a) Extract + InsP₅. (10 μM final concentration). b) Extract + InsP₆. (10 μM final concentration). c) Extract + 5PP-InsP₅ (5 μM final concentration). d) spike in of PP-InsPs into unlabeled cell extract.

For absolute quantification of InsP₅, InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅, we prepared [¹³C₆]myo-inositol labeled HCT116 extracts containing a known concentration of an internal standard (tetramethyl phosphonium bromide, PMe₄Br). Resonances corresponding to the C2-position were integrated and referenced to a set of calibration curves (**Figure 3.17 a**). Assuming full replacement of the unlabeled InsP pools, we calculated respective concentrations of $26.7 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{M}$ InsP₅, $29.4 \pm 7.6 \mu\text{M}$ InsP₆, and $1.9 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{M}$ PP-InsP₅, based on packed cell volume (**Figure 3.17 b**; **Table 3.1**). The measured concentrations are consistent with previous publications with respect to InsP₅ and InsP₆, however, the amount of 5PP-InsP₅ determined by NMR is at least 2-fold higher.^{16,47} These results underline the mild sample preparation and the

quantitative nature of NMR spectroscopy and highlight its potential for future measurements of labeled cells or tissues.

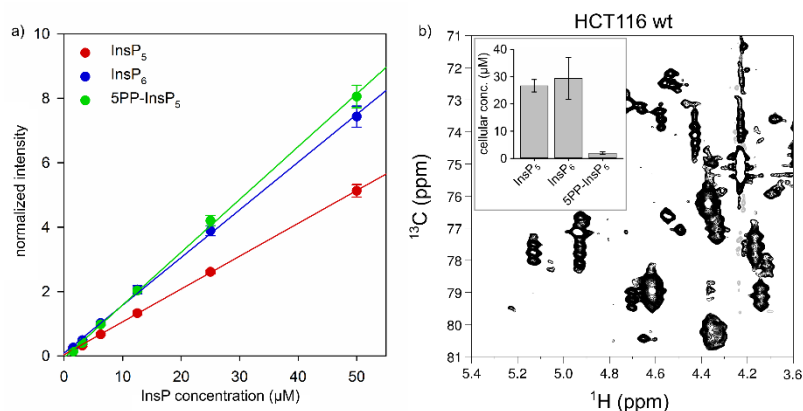


Figure 3.17: Quantification of PP-InsP pools in HCT116 wt. a) Calibration curves for InsP C2 peak intensities normalized to the reference standard PMe₄Br. Changes in 5PP-InsP₅ levels can be observed by NMR spectroscopy. b) ¹H,¹³C-HMQC spectrum of a HCT116 wild type cell extract for quantitative analysis.

Table 3.1: Absolute quantification of InsP₅, InsP₆, and 5PP-InsP₅ in different cell lines.

Cell line	Condition	Cellular Concentration (μM) ^(a)		
		InsP ₅	InsP ₆	5PP-InsP ₅
HCT116 wt	no treatment	26.7 ± 2.3	29.4 ± 7.6	1.9 ± 0.5
	10 mM NaF ^(b)	18.6 ± 0.7	11.0 ± 0.9	14.7 ± 2.0
<i>PP1P5K</i> ^{-/-}	no treatment	19.4 ± 6.1	33.7 ± 7.8	5.1 ± 2.3
	10 mM NaF ^(b)	11.2 ± 1.0	9.3 ± 0.7	23.8 ± 3.1

(a) The C2 peak was used for quantification. The concentration in the NMR sample was calculated based on PMe₄Br as an internal standard and the cellular concentration was calculated based on the packed cell volume.

(b) Cells were treated with 10 mM NaF 1 hour before extraction. Packed cell volume was based on untreated sample.

The ability to quantify mixtures of InsP messengers prompted us to analyze the concentrations of InsP₅, InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅ in HCT116 cells with perturbed PP-InsP metabolism. When HCT116 cells were treated for one hour with 10 mM sodium fluoride (NaF), an agent previously shown to elevate 5PP-InsP₅ levels,⁴⁸ the content of 5PP-InsP₅ increased dramatically to an absolute concentration of 14.7 ± 2.0 μM (**Figure 3.18 a; Table 3.1**). Elevated concentrations of 5PP-InsP₅ were also reported in cells

lacking PPIP5K1 and PPIP5K2.⁴⁹ We therefore grew *PPIP5K*^{-/-} cells and indeed, a general increase of 5PP-InsP₅ was detected compared to HCT116 wt cells (**Figure 3.18 b, Table 3.1**). Addition of NaF to this knock-out cell line resulted in extracts which contained more 5PP-InsP₅ than InsP₆ or InsP₅ (**Figure 3.18 c, Table 3.1**). These trends of increasing 5PP-InsP₅ concentrations had been observed before and the ratio of 5PP-InsP₅ to InsP₆ in all our samples was consistent with previous publications.⁴⁹

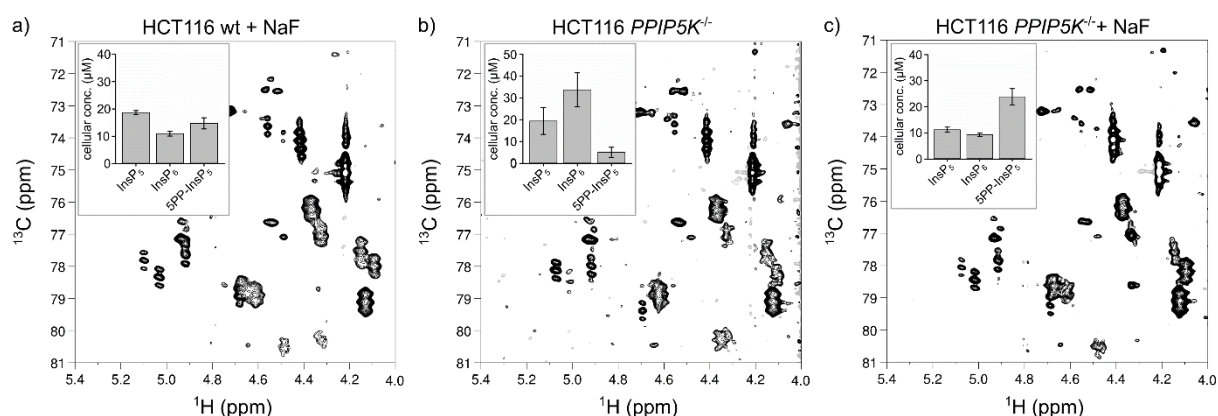


Figure 3.18: Changes in 5PP-InsP₅ levels can be observed by NMR spectroscopy. a) ¹H, ¹³C-HMQC spectrum of an extract of HCT116 wt cells treated with 10 mM NaF before extraction. b) ¹H, ¹³C-HMQC spectrum of HCT116 *PPIP5K*^{-/-} cell extract. c) ¹H, ¹³C-HMQC spectrum of an extract of HCT116 *PPIP5K*^{-/-} cells treated with 10 mM NaF before extraction. The inserts display triplicates of absolute cellular concentration of InsP₅, InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅ based on packed cell volume.

To our surprise, the analysis of the mammalian extracts uncovered additional NMR signals that displayed a triplet-pattern in the carbon-dimension. These signals were absent in the corresponding samples prepared with unlabeled *myo*-inositol and must therefore stem from metabolic labeling with [¹³C₆]*myo*-inositol (**Figure 3.14 b, Figure 3.15 a**). Interestingly, several of these signals increased upon NaF treatment (**Figure 3.18 a**). To determine whether these signals correspond to other InsP or PP-InsP species, the ¹³C-labeled, NaF treated HCT116 wt extract was incubated with TiO₂ beads, which enrich phosphate containing molecules.^{6,50} In addition to retaining InsP₅,

InsP₆ and 5PP-InsP₅, a putative asymmetrical InsP species (InsP₁ or InsP₂) could be observed (**Figure 3.19**).

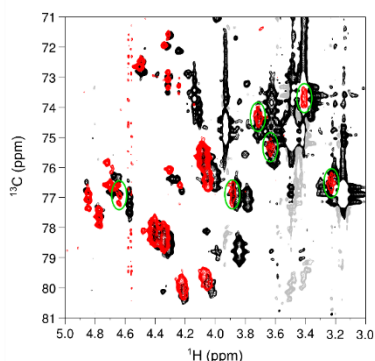


Figure 3.19: Overlay of TiO₂ enrichment of NaF treated, ¹³C-labeled HCT116 wt cell extract (red) and the original NaF treated, ¹³C-labeled HCT116 wt cell extract (black). One set of 6 peaks (green circles) was retained that corresponds to a putative unsymmetrical InsP₁ or InsP₂ species. All other labeled unassigned peaks were removed.

Nevertheless, most unassigned labeled resonances were not bound by the TiO₂ beads. To test for conversion of *myo*-inositol to related metabolites, spectra of *D-chiro*-inositol, *scyllo*-inositol and glucuronic acid were recorded (**Figure 3.20 a–c**), none of which were superimposable with our unassigned labeled species.^{51,52} Lastly, we considered that the additional peaks corresponded to PtdInsPs. However, after a phospholipid extraction, the aqueous layer still contained the unidentified resonances, strongly implying a non-lipid, hydrophilic character of these molecules (**Figure 3.20 a–d**). These observations suggest that the supplemented [¹³C₆]*myo*-inositol has been diverted into an unknown metabolic pathway. Detection of these unanticipated species was only possible because the NMR-analysis was conducted on the crude extract and did not require a separation step. Elucidating the structure and function of these molecules connected to inositol metabolism will be of interest in the future.

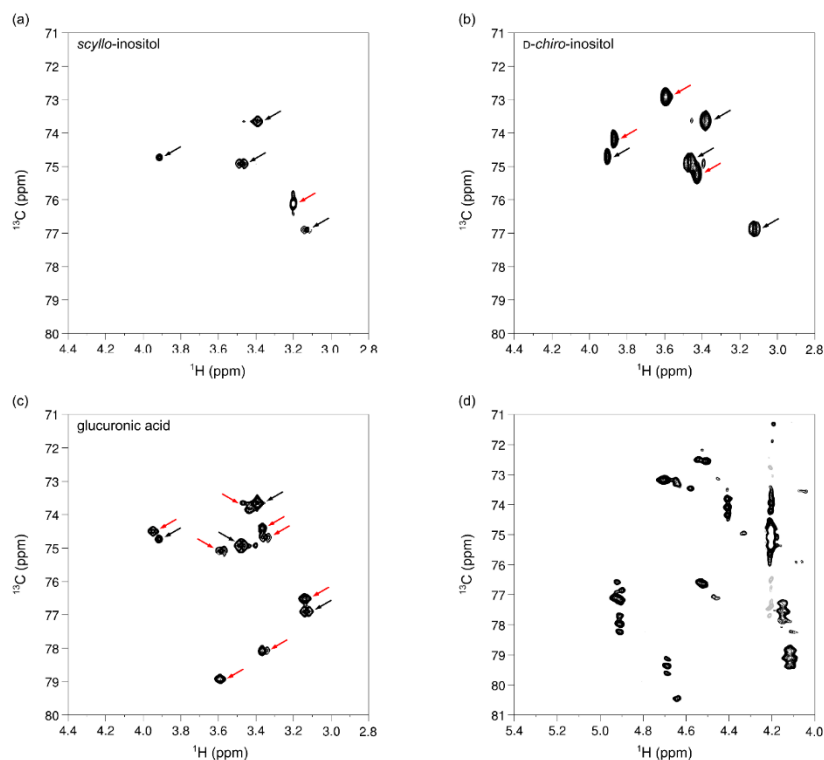


Figure 3.20: Preliminary analysis of unannotated NMR signals. HMQC spectrum of 1 mM a) *scyllo*-inositol, b) *D*-*chiro*-inositol, and c) glucuronic acid (highlighted with red arrows) in KClO_4 saturated D_2O . 1 mM *myo*-inositol was included as an internal reference (black arrows). d) Lipid extraction of HCT116 wt retained all unassigned peaks except for the putative unsymmetrical InsP_1 or InsP_2 species.

Metabolic Labeling of D. Discoideum

After we established the metabolic labeling with $[^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo}$ -inositol in mammalian cells, we started to expand our method towards the model organism *D. discoideum*, together with A. Saiardi and coworkers (UCL). This social amoeba marks an evolutionary transition between unicellular and multicellular organisms and has been applied as a model to study the transition from uniform to differentiated cells.^{53,54} Interestingly, *D. discoideum* was the first organism in which PP- InsPs were identified, and were subsequently shown to play a role in chemotaxis.^{2,55} Opposed to mammalian cells and yeast, the main PP- InsP species were characterized as 6PP- InsP_5 and 5,6(PP)₂- InsP_4 and were present at a much higher concentration of 60 μM and 180 μM

respectively.^{7,8,56} Retrospectively, the presence of another set of regioisomers was confounding because the kinases that form the pyrophosphate moieties show a high sequence homology between *D. discoideum* and *H. sapiens*. Therefore, the Saiardi group wanted to revisit these findings and hypothesized that either the isomers were incorrectly assigned or that the enzymology differs to other eukaryotic cells.

To this end, wild type *D. discoideum* and genetically modified stains (ppip5k null and ip6k/ppip5k null amoeba) were labeled with [¹³C₆]myo-inositol and unpurified acidic extracts from wild type samples were measured. The ¹H,¹³C-HSQC spectrum showed four intense signals between 3.4 and 4.2 ppm and four signals between 4.2 and 5.2 ppm, corresponding to myo-inositol and InsP₆, respectively. (Figure 3.21 a)

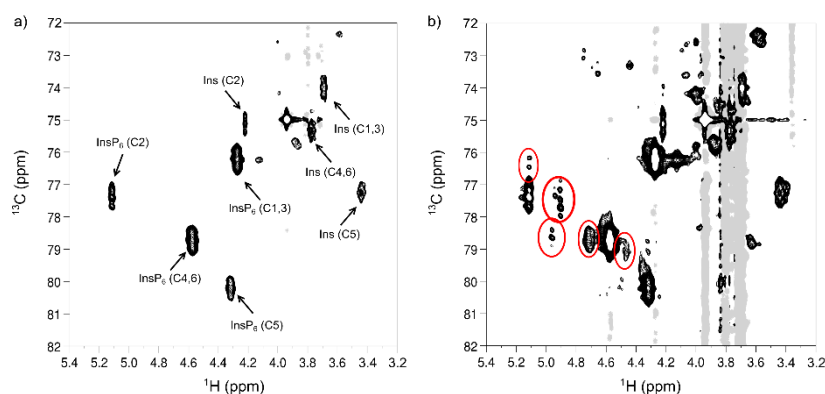


Figure 3.21: ¹H,¹³C-HSQC spectra of extracts from metabolically labeled *D. discoideum*. a) High abundant species: InsP₆ and myo-inositol. b) Lower abundant ¹³C-labeled compounds circled in red.

In contrast to mammalian extracts, InsP₆ was present at a higher concentration than myo-inositol in these samples and there was no indication of an InsP₅ species. Upon increasing the counter levels, lower abundant ¹³C-labeled species became visible, which we suspected to be PP-InsPs. (Figure 3.21 b) Unfortunately, the potentially different isomeric PP-InsP forms and the high sample complexity, made a clear analysis difficult. To deconvolute the sample, the Saiardi group provided extracts that

were resolved by PAGE and purified by TiO₂ beads. Individual gel bands were cut, extracted and analyzed by NMR spectroscopy. **(Figure 3.22 a)** In the wild type, four different InsP- or PP-InsP species were observed (column 1–4). The InsP₅ species showed 6 resonances and did not match the synthetically prepared (1,3,4,5,6)-InsP₅ which was mostly found in mammalian cells. **(Figure 3.22 b)** The chemical shift of the resonance corresponding to the unphosphorylated position suggested that the free OH-group is most likely located at the 1- or 3-position. HSQC-COSY experiments confirmed this proposal, as strong cross peaks with the 4/6-position were displayed. **(Figure 3.22 c)**

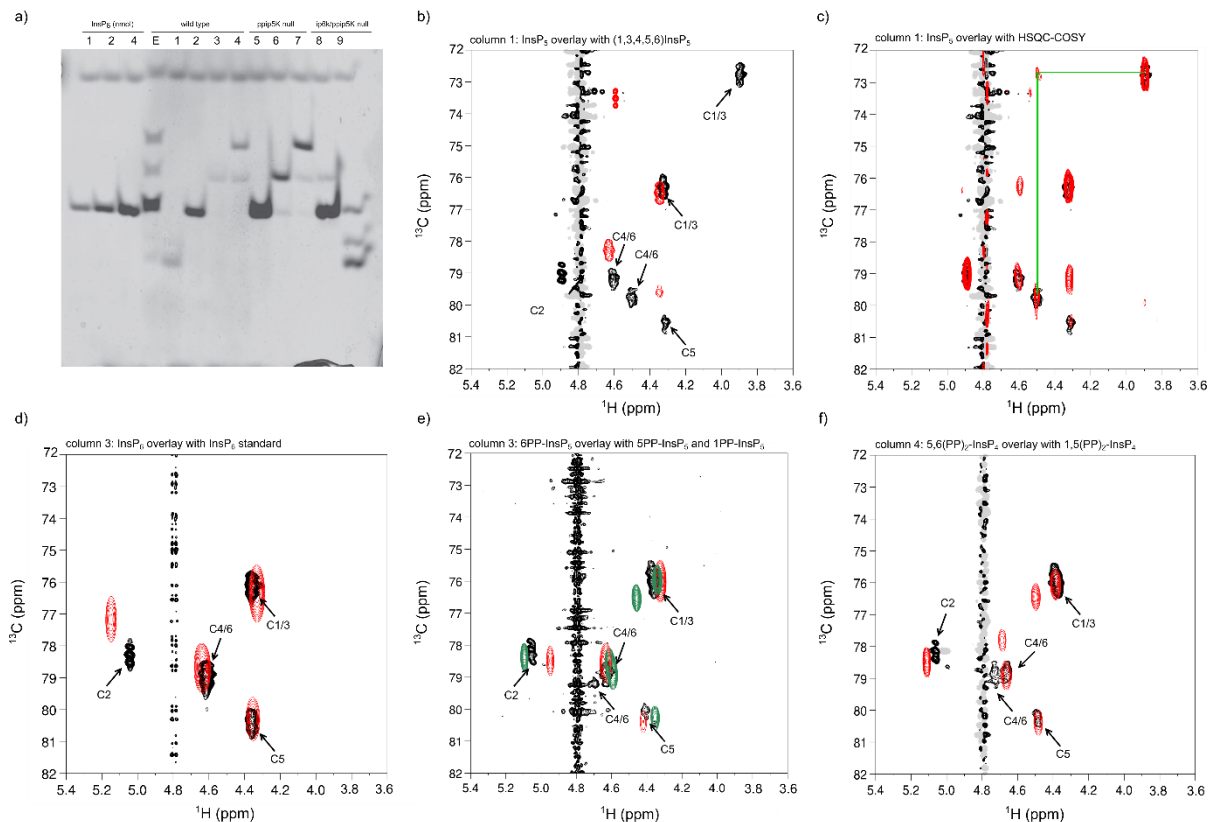


Figure 3.22: ¹H, ¹³C-HSQC NMR analysis of TiO₂/gel-purified bands from wild type *D. discoideum*. a) PAGE analysis of individual gel bands from wild type, ppi5k null and ip6k/ppi5k null amoeba b) black: column 1, InsP₅; red: synthetic (1,3,4,5,6)InsP₅ standard. c) black: column 1, InsP₅; red: ¹H, ¹³C-HSQC-COSY of InsP₅; green: cross correlation between 4/6- and putative 1/3-positions. d) black: column 2, InsP₆ species; red: synthetic InsP₆ standard e) black: column 3, 6PP-InsP₅; red: synthetic 5PP-InsP₅ standard; green: synthetic 1PP-InsP₅ standard. f) black: column 4, 5,6(PP)₂-InsP₄; red: synthetic 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄ standard.

The InsP₆ of wild type amoeba nearly matched the human InsP₆. (**Figure 3.22 d**). Spectral differences especially visible at the 2-position were probably due to different ionic strength of the samples. No evidence of PP-InsPs like PP-InsP₄ was found. In agreement with previous reports we found 6PP-InsP₅ and 5,6(PP)₂-InsP₄. (**Figure 3.22 e-g**) Compared to the mammalian PP-InsPs we saw a splitting of the 4/6-positions rather than of the 1/3-positions as exemplified for 5,6(PP)₂-InsP₄. For 6PP-InsP₅ we observed 5 signals which did not match the spectra of 5PP-InsP₅ which typically have only 4 signals.

After the identification of the different InsP and PP-InsP species in the wild type, we further investigated the ppi5k null and the ip6k/ppi5k null amoeba. Surprisingly, NMR analysis of the PP-InsPs in the ppi5k knockout showed no difference as compared to the wild type but a higher concentration of PP-InsP overall, which could also be observed *via* PAGE analysis. (**Figure 3.22 a**, column 5–7) The presence of 5,6(PP)₂-InsP₄ in the ppi5k null amoeba suggested that Ppi5k is either not the main PPIP5K species in *D. discoideum*, or a complementary biosynthetic pathway exists. As explained already for VIH2 of *A. thaliana* Ppi5k is expected to have a kinase and a phosphatase domain. Apparently, the main effect observed from the absence of Ppi5k was the depletion of the phosphatase domain that could no longer dephosphorylate PP-InsPs, thereby raising PP-InsP levels in general. Compared to the knockout of Ppi5k, the change in PP-InsPs in the ip6k/ppi5k null amoeba was rather dramatic. These samples showed barely detectable amounts of PP-InsPs and mainly InsP₆ and several InsP₅ species as shown in the PAGE analysis. (**Figure 3.22 a**, column 8, 9) An NMR analysis of the InsP₅ species in a mixture was performed, suggested the presence of four different InsP species which could be derived from the observation of 4 peaks for the 2-position in this sample. (**Figure 3.23 a**)

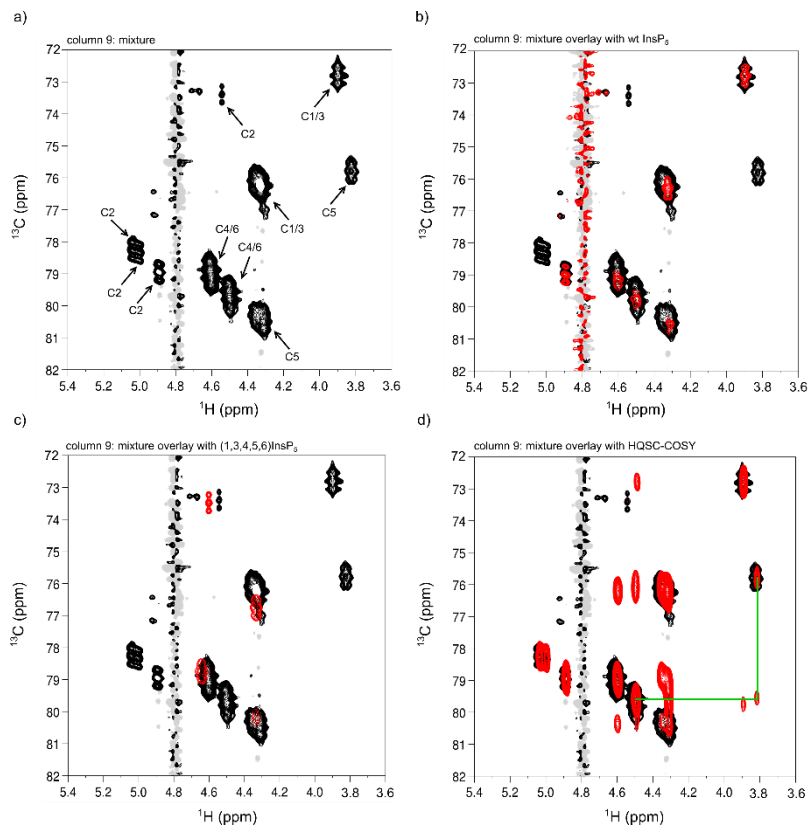


Figure 3.23: ^1H , ^{13}C -HSQC NMR analysis of TiO_2 /gel-purified bands from ppi5k-ip6k null *D. discoideum*. a) column 9; mixture of InsP_6 and InsP_5 species. b) black: column 9, mixture of InsP_6 ; red: column 1, wild type InsP_5 . c) black: column 9, mixture of InsP_6 and InsP_5 species; red: synthetic (1,3,4,5,6) InsP_5 standard. d) black: column 9, mixture of InsP_6 and InsP_5 species; red: ^1H , ^{13}C -HSQC-COSY of mixture of InsP_6 and InsP_5 species; green: cross correlation between 4/6- and putative 5-position.

In line with the PAGE analysis we saw InsP_6 in these samples and probably 3 different InsP_5 species. As observed previously for the wild type, we presumed one of the asymmetric species to be (2,3,4,5,6) InsP_5 or (1,2,4,5,6) InsP_5 . (**Figure 3.23 b**) Furthermore, we suggest the presence of (1,3,4,5,6) InsP_5 by comparison to our synthetically prepared standard. (**Figure 3.23 c**) Finally, we performed HSQC-COSY analysis on this sample and identified an additional signal at 3.8 ppm that coupled to the 4/6 positions and that did not belong to any of the other species. (**Figure 3.23 d**) Since unphosphorylated 1/3-positions carbons tend to appear at a lower chemical shift in the carbon dimension, this resonance might be an unphosphorylated 5-position

hinting towards the presence of (1,2,3,4,6)InsP₅ in the sample. The analysis of the mixture should only be recognized as preliminary because the strong overlap between the resonances of different InsP species in the ¹H,¹³C-HSQC made a thorough and fully conclusive analysis difficult. However, the presence of these 3 different InsP₅ species was surprising and warrants further investigation.

The analysis of [¹³C₆]myo-inositol labeled *D.discoideum* samples that were purified with TiO₂ and SDS PAGE provided a good method to structurally analyze PP-InsPs. It was confirmed that this slime mold can produce different InsP₅ species compared to mammalian cells and that the presence of the PP-InsPs is not affected by knockout of Ppip5k but only in combination with an Ip6k deletion. These observations suggest substantially altered biosynthetic pathways for PP-InsPs compared to other eukaryotic organisms.

Conclusions and Outlook

Inositol-containing molecules are ubiquitous in nature. Yet, their detection and quantification has proven to pose a formidable challenge, as these molecules typically lack a handle that would facilitate their analysis. Therefore, researchers in the field rely strongly on separation techniques and radioactive tools to answer the biological questions surrounding these metabolites.⁵⁷ We now provide a new set of methods, which emanate from access to benign ¹³C-labeled compounds, in combination with commonly accessible NMR technology. This approach has enabled the detection and quantification of InsPs and PP-InsPs within complex mixtures including cell extracts and minimized sample purification. Specifically, the ¹³C-labeled compounds could be employed to biochemically characterize the enzymatic activity of kinases of the IP6K and the PPIP5K family from *H. sapiens* and *A. thaliana*. In the case of IP6K1, we

investigated forward and reversed enzyme activity in response to inhibitors and established the foundation for the development of a new bioluminescent high-throughput-screening assay. In plants, we determined kinetic parameters for *At*ITPK1 and VIH2 and enabled the identification of VIH2 in combination with PP-InsP as a possible sensor of phosphate availability. In addition, the non-toxic nature of [¹³C₆]myo-inositol allowed for metabolic labeling of mammalian cells and *D. discoideum*, followed by detection of the generated InsP and PP-InsP species. Furthermore, the structural information gained by the NMR analysis ensured reliable assignment of the identity of the detected InsP species but revealed previously unknown small molecules.

In the future, the facile applicability of this method will allow for the interrogation of new, or more complex, biological questions. On the biochemical side, for example, further characterization of kinase like human PPIP5Ks could aid the validation and identification of inhibitors as we have done for IP6Ks. The characterization of InsP- and PP-InsP phosphatases will benefit greatly from the structural information provided by the NMR measurements, and the substrate specificity of these enzymes can be unequivocally determined. Additionally, new enzymes that have been, or will be, found to metabolize InsPs can be characterized more easily, and the reaction products can be assigned with certainty.

We also envision to an important application for the labeled InsPs and PP-InsPs to gain better structural insights into their interactions with proteins. To date, the only a few canonical binding domains are known for the highly phosphorylated inositols, but many other proteins physically interact with these metabolites.⁵⁸ Instead of isotopically labeling these proteins to investigate their ligand-binding *via* NMR, applying a labeled ligand can have advantages. For example, using a ¹³C-labeled mannose trisaccharide has recently informed the binding mode between the sugar and its protein binding

domain.⁵⁹ By analogy, the ^{13}C -labeled compounds reported here could help to obtain structural information on the conformation and the biochemical environment of the InsP ligands.

Closely related to InsP messengers are the lipid-anchored phosphatidyl inositols (PtdInsPs), which are crucial in signaling and occupy a pivotal role in health and disease.⁶⁰ Following the procedure established here for metabolic labeling, but isolating and analyzing the membrane fractions instead, may provide important information on this group of messengers. Considering that the PtdInsPs and InsPs are metabolically linked, concomitant analysis of both groups of molecules could uncover unprecedented information on the coordination of these two messenger networks. While NMR suffers from an innate low sensitivity, advances using hyperpolarization methods in recent years have greatly enhanced the signal of ^{13}C nuclei and could help to increase the sensitivity of our method in order to reliably detect inositol phosphates of low abundance, such as 1PP-InsP₅ and 1,5(PP)₂-InsP₄, or PtdInsPs *via* NMR.^{61,62} Overall, [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsPs will expand the analytical tool box to interrogate inositol based messengers and their role and regulation at a biochemical and cellular level.

Methods

General Information

Please see method section of chapter 2.

Recombinant Protein Expression

Inositol Phosphate Synthase (IPS)

The IPS-gene from *A. fulgidus* cloned into a pET23a vector (Prof. Helena Santos, Universidade Nova de Lisboa)⁶³ was transformed into *E. coli* BL21(DE3). Two 0.8 liter overnight cultures (37 °C) in TB supplemented with Ampicillin were each diluted with 400 mL TB, prewarmed to 37 °C. After 30 min the expression was induced with 0.25 mM IPTG. After 4 hours the cells were harvested by centrifugation (3,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C) and washed with ice cold water. The pellet was stored at –80 °C until further use. The frozen cells were resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 250 mM NaCl). For 1 g cell pellet wet weight, 5 mL lysis buffer was used. The cell suspension was supplemented with lysozyme and DNase I, and incubated for 15 min on ice. The cells were lysed with a Microfluidizer™ LM10 at 15,000 psi with five iterations. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation (30,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). The supernatant was incubated for 30 min at 80 °C and the precipitate was removed by centrifugation (30,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). The volume of the heat-treated supernatant was reduced to 22 mL with spin filtration (Amicon® Ultra 15 mL 10K) and the solution was dialyzed against lysis buffer overnight. The protein solution was adjusted to 33 % (v/v) glycerol, aliquoted, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at –80 °C.

Inositol Hexakisphosphate Kinase 1 (IP6K1)

The procedure is adapted from.⁶⁴ In short: The codon optimized human IP6K1-gene was subcloned via LIC into a in a pET-MBP vector and transformed into *E. coli* arctic express (DE3). An 800 mL expression culture (37 °C) was inoculated at OD₆₀₀ 0.1 in TB-Amp/Gen and grown for 4 h. The culture was switched to 15 °C for 30 min the expression was induced with 0.1 mM IPTG. The Expression occurred overnight. The cells were harvested by centrifugation (3,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C) and washed with ice cold water. The pellet was stored at –80 °C until further use. The frozen cells were resuspended in lysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl). For 1 g wet weight 10 mL lysis buffer was used. The cell suspension was supplemented with lysozyme, DNase I and 1 tablet cComplete™ protease inhibitor (Roche), and incubated for 15 min on ice. The cells were lysed with a Microfluidizer™ LM10 at 15,000 psi with five iterations. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation (30,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). The supernatant was adjusted to 0.1 % (v/v) Triton X-100, filtered (VWR® vacuum filter, PES 0.45 µm), and loaded onto a Co-NTA column (GE, 1 mL, HiTrap IMAC HP) that was equilibrated with lysis buffer with a flowrate of 1 mL/min. The column was washed with wash buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 50 mM imidazole, 0.1 % (v/v) Triton X-100) until the absorption was constant. IP6K1 was eluted with a gradient of elution buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 500 mM imidazole, 0.1 % (v/v) Triton X-100) in wash buffer from 0–100 % over 10 CV. 1 mL fractions were collected. The fractions containing IP6K1 were concentrated and dialyzed overnight against dialysis buffer (20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT). The protein was adjusted to 20 % (v/v) glycerol and stored at –80 °C.

NMR experiments

Progress Curve Measurements with IP6KA

Progress curves were recorded for different IP6KA concentrations ranging from 0.2–1 μM . The reactions contained 20 mM HEPES NaOD pH* 7.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 10 mM ATP, 11 mM MgCl_2 , 176 μM [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆Na₁₂ (**6**), 5 mM creatine phosphate, 2 mM Me_4PBr , and 1 U/mL creatine kinase in D_2O . All stock solutions were prepared in D_2O . The reactions were run in a total volume of 650 μl and equilibrated at 37 °C. The reactions were transferred into a 5 mm NMR tube and the reaction was started by the addition of the appropriate amount of IP6KA (in D_2O buffer). The NMR tubes were inserted into the NMR instrument, locked, tuned and matched, and shimmed. A spin echo difference pulse was used to measure consecutively 75 sec spectra until the reaction was finished.

Kinetic Characterization of IP6K1

The $K_{\text{M,ATP}}$ and V_{max} were determined for IP6K1. The buffer contained 20 mM HEPES NaOD pH* 7.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 1 mg/mL BSA, 1 μM IP6K1, 5 mM creatine phosphate, and 1 U/mL creatine kinase in D_2O . The ATP concentration ranged from 8 mM to 62.5 μM (two-fold dilution series) and the MgCl_2 concentration was adjusted to be 5 mM plus the ATP concentration. The reaction volume was 500 μL and the reaction was started after 10 min equilibration at 37 °C by the addition of 175 μM [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆. The reaction was quenched with 38 μL 0.7 M EDTA (in D_2O , pH* 8.0) after approximately 20 % conversion (5 min for IP6K1). Before the NMR measurements the pH* was adjusted to 8, if needed. The conversion of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆ at different ATP

concentration was determined by NMR spectroscopy. The data was fitted against a kinetic model for substrate inhibition: $v = \frac{V_{max}}{1 + \frac{K_m}{S} + \frac{K_i}{S}}$ using SigmaPlot 12.5.

Determination of IC₅₀ Values for IP6K1 Inhibitors

For the IC₅₀ value determination a two-fold dilution series of the appropriate inhibitor in DMSO-d₆ was used. The reactions were run in a total volume of 500 μL and contained 20 mM HEPES NaOD pH* 7.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 2.5 mM ATP, 7.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 μM IP6K1, 1 mg/mL BSA, 5 mM creatine phosphate, and 1 U/mL creatine kinase in D₂O. The inhibitor concentration ranged from 50 μM to 195 nM (200 x stock solutions were used). The reactions were equilibrated to 37 °C for 10 min and initiated by the addition of 175 μM [¹³C₆]InsP₆. The reactions were quenched after 3 hours by the addition of 38 μL of 0.7 M EDTA (in D₂O, pH* 8.0). Before the NMR measurements the pH* was adjusted to 8, if needed. The conversion of [¹³C₆]InsP₆ at different inhibitor concentrations was determined by NMR spectroscopy. The data was fitted against a kinetic model for dose response inhibition: $v = \frac{bottom + (top - bottom)}{1 + \frac{x^{Hillslope}}{IC_{50}}}$ using SigmaPlot 12.5.

Metabolic Labeling of Mammalian Cell Lines

HCT116 wt, HCT116 PPIP5K^{-/-} (a kind gift from Stephen Shears)⁴⁹ and HEK293T cells were grown in DMEM lacking *myo*-inositol and supplemented with 10 % dialyzed fetal bovine serum, 100 μM either [¹²C₆]- or [¹³C₆] *myo*-inositol, and Penicillin/Streptomycin at 37 °C and 5 % CO₂. 1 liter DMEM w/o inositol was prepared from pre-mixed medium components (8.1 g, Dulbecco), NaHCO₃ (3.7 g), HEPES (10

mL of a 1 M stock, pH 7.4), L-glutamine (584 mg), L-serine (42 mg), D-glucose (4.5 g), and NaH₂PO₄ (125 mg). The cells were grown in 15 cm dishes (for one experiment we used five to ten plates) until they reached 80–90 % confluency. For harvesting, cells were washed with PBS and 0.9 % NaCl solution, and trypsinized. The trypsin was quenched with regular DMEM. The cells were collected and washed two more times with PBS before lysis and extraction. The packed cell volume and the cell number of the preparations were determined. If needed, the cells were incubated with 10 mM NaF for one hour before harvest.

Inositol Phosphate Extraction

All steps were performed at 4 °C. The protocol was adapted from Azevedo et al.⁶⁵ For HCT116 wt we used ten 15 cm dishes and for HCT116 wt with NaF treatment, HCT116 PPIP5K^{-/-} and HCT116 PPIP5K^{-/-} with NaF treatment we used three 15 cm dishes. Cell pellets were lysed with 5 mL of 1 M HClO₄, containing 3 mM EDTA, by vortexing. The lysate was incubated on ice for 30 min before the precipitate was removed by centrifugation. The supernatant was neutralized with 2 M KOH, containing 3 mM EDTA, and the pH was adjusted to 5.8–6. The resulting KClO₄ precipitate was removed by centrifugation and the supernatant was lyophilized. After lyophilization the supernatant was redissolved in 1 mL D₂O and the resulting precipitate was removed by centrifugation. The supernatant was lyophilized again and the residue was redissolved in 600 µL D₂O containing the 50–150 µM Me₄PBr standard for absolute quantification.

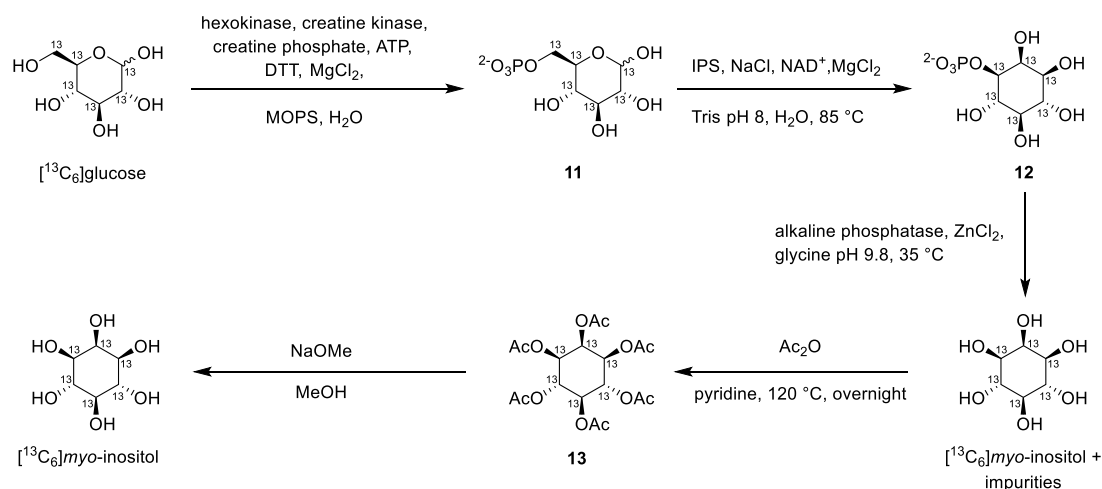
TiO₂ Enrichment

All steps were performed at 4 °C. The protocol was adapted from Wilson *et al.*⁶ TiO₂ beads 4-5 mg were washed with 500 µL of water and 500 µL of 1 M HClO₄. Cell extract was adjusted to pH 1 with 1 M HClO₄ and added to the beads. The beads were rotated for 5 min and after centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded. The beads were washed twice with 500 µL of 1 M HClO₄ and the InsPs were eluted by incubating the beads twice with 200 µL 2.8 % NH₄OH solution. The eluate was lyophilized and the dry residue was dissolved in 600 µL of 1 mM MES (pH* 6.0) in D₂O.

Lipid Extraction

The lipid extraction was adopted from Clark *et al.*⁶⁶ In summary: The cells from 3 15 cm dishes were trypsinized and washed twice with PBS. The cells were resuspended in 1.7 mL Milli-Q water and 7.5 ml quench mix (48.4 mL MeOH, 24.2 mL CHCl₃, 2.4 mL 1 M HClO₄) was added. The cells were lysed by vortexing for 30 sec. 1.7 mL 1 M HClO₄ and 7.25 mL CHCl₃ were added to induce phase separation and the mixture was vortexed for 30 sec. The sample was centrifuged at 3000 g for 5 min to facilitate phase separation. The top aqueous layer was collected and washed with 7 mL CHCl₃. The aqueous layer was collected and neutralized with 2 M KOH containing 3 mM EDTA. The KClO₄ salt was removed by centrifugation and the sample was lyophilized. After lyophilization the supernatant was redissolved in 1 mL D₂O and the resulting precipitate was removed by centrifugation. The supernatant was lyophilized again and the residue was redissolved in 600 µL D₂O.

Synthesis of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-Inositol



The following stock solutions were prepared:

Hexokinase stock solution: 1000 U/mL in 50 mM citrate pH 7, 10 mM MgCl_2 , 1 mg/mL BSA.

Creatine kinase stock solution: 350 U/mL in 200 mM MOPS pH 6.5, 20 mM MgCl_2 , 20 mM DTT.

Inositol phosphate synthase stock solution: 4 mg/mL in 20 mM Tris HCl pH 7.4, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT.

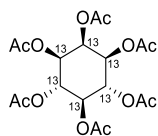
Alkaline phosphatase stock solution: 100 U/mL, 10 mM Tris pH 8.5, 5 mM MgCl_2 , 0.2 mM ZnCl_2 , 50 % (v/v) glycerol.

A solution containing D-[$^{13}\text{C}_6$]glucose (83 mM, 1000 mg, 5.4 mmol), MOPS (100 mM, pH 6.5), creatine phosphate (87 mM), ATP (1 mM), DTT (20 mM) and MgCl_2 (20 mM) in MilliQ® water (65 mL total reaction volume) was prepared and evenly split (32.5 mL each) into two 50 mL conical tubes. Hexokinase (1 U/mL) and creatine kinase (1.75 U/mL) were added and the reaction incubated at 30 °C overnight. The resulting solution was monitored by TLC (MeOH:H₂O:NH₄OH:AcOH, 50:30:15:5; stained by KMnO_4 or excessive heating) and upon completion diluted 5-fold with 320 mL of water. An anion-

exchange column (DOWEX® 1X8) was equilibrated with 1 M NH_4HCO_3 and washed with water. The reaction mixture was loaded onto the column followed by washing with water to remove unreacted D- $^{13}\text{C}_6$ glucose. $^{13}\text{C}_6$ glucose-6-phosphate (**11**) was eluted by 0.1 M $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$ and lyophilized to obtain product **11** in combination with high amount of salts (4 g) as a white solid.

The product/salt mixture was redissolved in 40 mL MilliQ® water and added to a solution of Tris (50 mM, pH 8.0), NAD^+ (0.5 mM), NaCl (50 mM) and MgCl_2 (2 mM) in MilliQ® (196 mL total reaction volume). The pH was adjusted to 8.0, if necessary, and the mixture was evenly split (49 mL each) into four 50 mL conical tubes. Recombinantly expressed inositol-3-phosphate synthase (IPS) (500 μL of 4 mg/mL stock) was added to each tube and the reaction mixture was incubated at 85 °C monitoring conversion by NMR. After 4 h, NAD^+ (10 mg, 0.8 mM total) and IPS (500 μL , 4 mg/mL) were added to each tube and the mixture was incubated for additional 4 h at 85 °C. After full conversion of **11** into $^{13}\text{C}_6$ myo-inositol-3-phosphate (**12**) was observed by ^{13}C NMR the reaction mixture was directly used for the subsequent dephosphorylation reaction.

For the dephosphorylation reaction, the 200 mL reaction mixture was split evenly across 5 conical tubes (40 mL each). For a total reaction volume of 50 mL, glycine (50 mM, pH 9.8) was added and the pH adjusted to 9.8. ZnCl_2 (0.25 mM) and alkaline phosphatase (0.5 U/mL) were added and the solution was filled up to 50 mL with MilliQ® water. After incubation at 35 °C overnight, all tubes were combined (250 mL total) and diluted with 300 mL MilliQ® water and the reaction mixture was applied to an ion exchange column (DOWEX® 1×8 in HCO_3^- form). The flow-through was collected and lyophilized to afford $^{13}\text{C}_6$ myo-inositol with salts (7.5 g) as a brown solid which was directly used for the acetylation reaction.



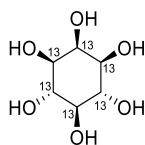
[¹³C₆]Inositol Hexakisacetate (**13**)

The crude and unpurified [¹³C₆]myo-inositol (7.5 g) was suspended in pyridine (161 mL) and treated with acetic anhydride (68.5 mL) at 120 °C overnight. The black solution was concentrated to minimize the amount of pyridine, re-dissolved in DCM (500 mL), and 1 M HCl was added. The resulting suspension was filtered and the filter washed with DCM and water. All filtrates were combined and organic and aqueous phase were separated. (Note: Phase separation is hard to see because of the black solution so use a flash light to find the separation layer.) The aqueous layer was extracted twice with DCM and the combined organic layers were washed with 1 M NaHCO₃. The aqueous layer was washed twice with DCM and the combined organic layers were washed with brine, dried with Na₂SO₄ and concentrated under reduced pressure. The residue was immobilized on Telos® and purified by column chromatography on silica gel changing the eluent step wise (hexane:EtOAc, 10:1 → 5:1 → 1:1 → 1:2) assisted by analysis of the fractions by LCMS to afford compound **13** (1200 mg, 2.7 mmol) as a white solid in 50% overall yield from D-[¹³C₆]glucose.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 5.79 – 5.54 (m, 1.5H), 5.53 – 5.32 (m, 1.5H), 5.32 – 5.12 (m, 1.5H), 5.11 – 4.82 (m, 1.5H), 2.20 (s, 3H), 2.01 (s, 3H), 2.01 (s, 6H), 2.00 (s, 6H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 169.94, 169.81, 169.56, 71.68 – 70.65 (m), 70.11 – 69.15 (m), 69.11 – 67.90 (m), 20.89, 20.69, 20.60.

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) m/z: [M + K]⁺ calcd. for C₁₂¹³C₆H₂₄KO₁₂ 477.1101; Found 477.1091.



[¹³C₆]myo-Inositol

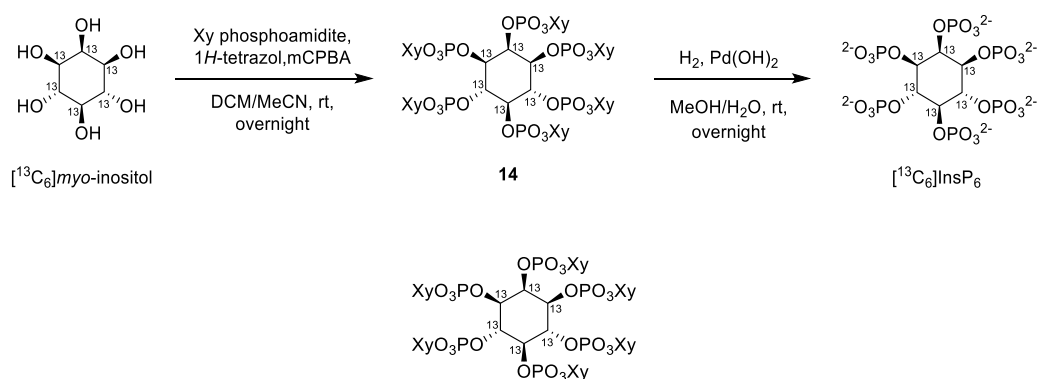
To a solution of **13** (1200 mg, 2.7 mmol) in methanol (249 mL), 5.4 M NaOMe in MeOH (3.35 mL, 18.1 mmol) was added and the reaction was left to stir for 2 hours. The resulting suspension was neutralized by the addition of DOWEX 50W x 8 (H⁺ form) followed by filtration. The residue was washed with methanol (100 mL) and water (100 mL) to dissolve all precipitated [¹³C₆]myo-inositol and the filtrate was evaporated. The resulting solids were redissolved in H₂O and precipitated by the addition of MeCN. Subsequently, the solids were redissolved in H₂O and lyophilized to afford [¹³C₆]myo-inositol (505 mg, 2.7 mmol) as white solid in 99% yield.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, D₂O, pD 7.0) δ 4.29 – 4.14 (m, 0.5H), 4.03 – 3.90 (m, 0.5H), 3.82 – 3.60 (m, 2H), 3.59 – 3.34 (m, 2.5H), 3.25 – 3.12 (m, 0.5H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, D₂O, pD 7.0) δ 74.96 – 73.80 (m), 72.86 – 71.71 (m), 71.60 – 70.50 (m).

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) m/z: [M – H]⁻ Calcd for ¹³C₆H₁₁O₆ 185.0762; Found 185.0814.

Synthesis of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆



Xylyl-protected [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆ (**14**)

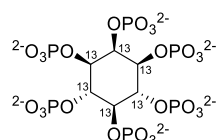
Xylyl-protected [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]InsP₆ (**14**) was synthesized according to a modified procedure of Podeschwa and coworkers.¹⁷ Under nitrogen atmosphere a suspension of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]myo-inositol (100 mg, 0.54 mmol) and Xy phosphoamidite (900 mg, 3.76 mmol) in dry DCM (38.65 mL) was prepared and sonicated for 1 min. 1H-tetrazole in anhydrous MeCN (14.33 mL, 6.45 mmol, 0.45 M) was added and the solution was stirred at rt overnight. For workup the solution was cooled to $-40\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and an anhydrous solution of *m*CPBA in DCM (30 mL dried with Na₂SO₄) was added. The solution was allowed to warm to rt, and the stirring was continued for another hour. The reaction mixture was diluted with DCM (300 mL) and washed consecutively with aqueous sodium bisulfite (20%, 2 × 50 mL), saturated NaHCO₃ (3 × 100 mL), and then with brine. After evaporation of the solvents, the crude was immobilized on Telos® and purified by CombiFlash® chromatography on silica gel (12 g column, gradient: 0% → 2% → 4% → 10% MeOH in DCM) and afforded the product (221 mg, 0.173 mmol) as a white solid in 32% yield.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 7.60 – 7.49 (m, 18H), 7.44 (d, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 6H), 5.93 (dd, *J* = 13.8, 9.5 Hz, 2.5H), 5.84 (dd, *J* = 13.7, 9.1 Hz, 2H), 5.79 – 5.70 (m, 6H), 5.66 (s, 0.5H), 5.55 (dd, *J* = 13.9, 12.4 Hz, 3H), 5.50 – 5.16 (m, 15H), 5.12 (s, 1H).

^{13}C NMR (151 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 135.94, 135.91, 135.73, 135.69, 135.52, 134.62, 129.72, 129.60, 129.47, 129.45, 129.42, 129.40, 129.39, 129.36, 129.19, 129.13, 78.48 – 76.20 (m), 73.92 (dd, $J = 43.9, 34.0$ Hz), 69.84, 69.79, 69.68, 69.62, 69.57, 69.51, 69.45.

^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ -2.80, -3.57, -4.48, -4.71.

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) m/z : $[\text{M} + \text{H}]^+$ Calcd for $\text{C}_{48}^{13}\text{C}_6\text{H}_{54}\text{O}_{24}\text{P}_6$ 1279.1705; Found 1279.1676.



$[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$

$[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ was synthesized according to a modified procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ Compound **14** (148 mg 0.12 mmol) was dissolved in methanol (10.53 mL) and water (2.63 mL) and 20% $\text{Pd}(\text{OH})_2/\text{C}$ (50% wetted with water) (68 mg, 0.49 mmol) was added. The resulting suspension was stirred at room temperature overnight under hydrogen atmosphere. The reaction mixture was passed through a PTFE syringe filter and the filtrate was evaporated under reduced pressure. The free acid was treated with NaOH (1 M) to afford the dodecasodium salt of $[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_6$ as a white solid (136 mg, 0.10 mmol, 66 w/w%) in 83% yield.

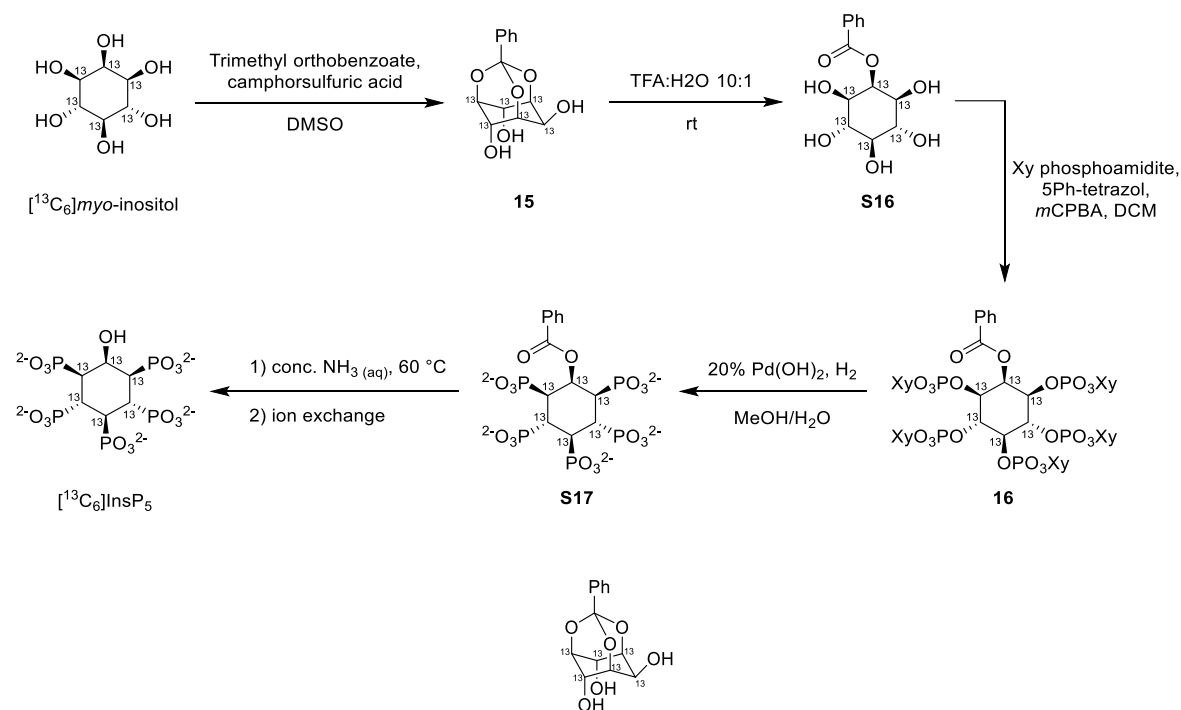
^1H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 5.01 – 4.90 (m, 0.5H), 4.71 – 4.63 (m, 0.5H), 4.48 – 4.34 (m, 1H), 4.22 – 4.04 (m, 2.5H), 3.95 – 3.78 (m, 1.5H).

^{13}C NMR (151 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 79.99 (d, $J = 35.7$ Hz), 78.52 (t, $J = 40.0$ Hz), 77.60 – 74.58 (m).

^{31}P NMR (122 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 1.99, 1.04, 0.77.

HRMS no ion detected.

Synthesis of $[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{InsP}_5$



$[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo-Inositol-(1,3,5)-orthobenzoate}$ (**15**)

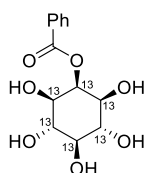
$[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{inositol-(1,3,5)-orthobenzoate}$ (**15**) ester was synthesized according to a modified procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ A suspension of $[\text{}^{13}\text{C}_6]\text{myo-inositol}$ (1.045 g, 5.61 mmol) and CSA (26.08 mg, 0.11 mmol) in DMSO (3.74 mL) was heated to 80 °C under vacuum (Rotovap, 30–40 mbar) to remove residual water. Upon the addition of trimethyl orthobenzoate (1.125 g, 6.17 mmol, 1.061 mL), the mixture was left at 80 °C under vacuum (Rotovap, 30–40 mbar) until the suspension became clear. The resulting solution was quenched with TEA (62.5 mg, 0.62 mmol, 86 μL). (Note: Quenching of acid is highly important to assure the stability of the formed orthoester during the workup.) The product was slowly precipitated through the addition of water

(16 mL) at 4 °C and the solids were filtered and washed with ice cold water 3 times. The mother lye was combined with the washings and applied to reversed phase chromatography changing the eluent step wise (5 % → 25 % → 50 % MeCN in H₂O) to separate residual product from DMSO. The product containing fractions were lyophilized and the precipitates were dissolved in 50 % MeCN in H₂O and lyophilized to afford the product **15** (1.300 g, 4.78 mmol) as white solid in 85% yield.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Methanol-*d*₄) δ 7.71 – 7.64 (m, 2H), 7.42 – 7.30 (m, 3H), 4.70 (s, 1H), 4.45 (s, 2.5H), 4.37 (s, 0.5H), 4.18 (s, 1.5H), 4.13 (s, 0.5H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, Methanol-*d*₄) δ 130.12, 128.58, 126.74, 77.50 (t, *J* = 37.2 Hz), 71.63 (t, *J* = 37.7 Hz), 68.98 (t, *J* = 37.7 Hz), 60.20 (t, *J* = 36.8 Hz).

HRMS no ions detected.



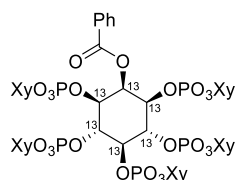
[¹³C₆]2-Benzoyl inositol (**S16**)

[¹³C₆]2-Benzoyl inositol (**S16**) was synthesized according to a procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ A mixture of TFA (1.8 mL) and water (180 μL) was added to **15** (300 mg, 1.1 mmol) and the solution was stirred for 1 h and the conversion was followed by TLC (100 % EtOAc; starting material R_f 0.6; product R_f 0.0). The reaction mixture was then co-evaporated with water *in vacuo*, redissolved in water and lyophilized to obtain the product **S16** (314 mg, 1.08 mmol) as a white solid in quantitative yield.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 8.10 (d, *J* = 7.8 Hz, 2H), 7.74 (d, *J* = 7.5 Hz, 1H), 7.59 (t, *J* = 7.7 Hz, 2H), 5.86 (s, 0.5H), 5.60 (s, 0.5H), 4.02 – 3.89 (m, 2H), 3.78 – 3.66 (m, 2H), 3.58 – 3.51 (m, 0.5H), 3.36 – 3.28 (m, 0.5H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 170.73, 136.84, 132.46, 131.52, 77.85 (t, *J* = 38.6 Hz), 77.09 (t, *J* = 38.6 Hz), 75.62 (t, *J* = 38.8 Hz), 72.63 (td, *J* = 38.8, 6.6 Hz).

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) *m/z*: [M + H]⁺ calcd. for C₇¹³C₆H₁₇O₇ 291.1170; Found 291.1166.



Xylyl-protected [¹³C₆]benzoyl *myo*-inositol (**16**)

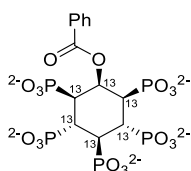
Xylyl-protected [¹³C₆]benzoyl *myo*-inositol (**16**) was synthesized according to a procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ To a solution of **S16** (200 mg, 0.7 mmol) and 5-phenyltetrazole (1.01 g, 6.89 mmol) in dry DCM (4.9 mL) under nitrogen atmosphere was added Xy phosphoamidite (1.24 g, 5.17 mmol). The suspension was sonicated (1 min) and further stirred overnight at rt. The reaction mixture was cooled to -40 °C, and *m*CPBA (1.70 g, 6.89 mmol) was added portion-wise while stirring. The cooling bath was removed, and the mixture was allowed to reach rt and diluted with DCM (50 mL), washed with 10% sodium sulfite solution (2 × 100 mL), dried and solvent evaporated *in vacuo*. The crude was immobilized on Telos® and purified by CombiFlash® chromatography on silica gel (120 g column, gradient: 1% → 4% → 10% MeOH in DCM) to afford the product **16** (651 mg, 0.54 mmol) as white solid in 79% yield.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 8.06 (d, *J* = 7.1 Hz, 2H), 7.61 – 7.53 (m, 1H), 7.49 – 7.45 (m, 2H), 7.43 – 7.35 (m, 10H), 7.35 – 7.30 (m, 6H), 7.29 – 7.27 (m, 1H), 7.26 – 7.23 (m, 2H), 6.53 (s, 0.5H), 6.27 (s, 0.5H), 5.64 (ddd, *J* = 17.9, 13.9, 8.1 Hz, 4H), 5.58 – 5.47 (m, 3H), 5.41 (dd, *J* = 13.7, 9.4 Hz, 2H), 5.27 (s, 1H), 5.21 (dd, *J* = 13.5, 10.9 Hz, 3.5H), 5.16 (d, *J* = 9.8 Hz, 1H), 5.12 (d, *J* = 8.7 Hz, 1H), 5.05 (ddd, *J* = 22.1, 13.8, 5.8 Hz, 8H), 4.96 (s, 1.5H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, Chloroform-*d*) δ 78.00 – 76.46 (m), 74.25 (td, *J* = 38.4, 36.8, 6.5 Hz), 70.59 (t, *J* = 38.5 Hz).

³¹P NMR (122 MHz, CDCl₃) δ -3.32, -4.25, -4.90.

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) *m/z*: [M + Na]⁺ Calcd for C₄₇¹³C₆H₅₁NaO₂₂P₅ 1223.1613; Found 1223.1613.



[¹³C₆]Benzoyl InsP₅ (**S17**)

[¹³C₆]Benzoyl InsP₅ (**S17**) inositol was synthesized according to a procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ **16** (50 mg, 0.04 mmol) was dissolved in methanol (3.8 mL), and water (0.95 mL) and 20% Pd(OH)₂/C (50% wetted with water) (25 mg, 0.18 mmol) were added. The resulting suspension was stirred at rt overnight under hydrogen atmosphere. The catalyst was filtered through a PTFE syringe filter, and the filtrate neutralized by the addition of 1 M Et₃NHCO₃ until the pH 7.5 was reached. Lyophilization afforded the product **S17** (50 mg, 0.037 mmol, 8 × EtN₃ salt) as white

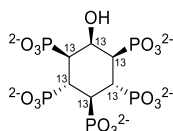
solid in 88% yield. The amount of the TEA-counter ion was determined by NMR spectroscopy.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 8.19 (dd, $J = 8.2, 1.9$ Hz, 2H), 7.74 (t, $J = 7.2$ Hz, 1H), 7.61 (dd, $J = 9.0, 6.6$ Hz, 2H), 6.10 (s, 0.5H), 5.84 (s, 0.5H), 4.58 – 4.45 (m, 2H), 4.39 (s, 0.5H), 4.27 (s, 1H), 4.16 (d, $J = 11.1$ Hz, 0.5H), 3.21 (qd, $J = 7.3, 2.5$ Hz, EtN₃), 1.30 (td, $J = 7.3, 2.6$ Hz, EtN₃).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 77.65 (t, $J = 39.7$ Hz), 76.46 (t, $J = 39.7$ Hz), 73.93 (t, $J = 38.6$ Hz), 72.53 (t, $J = 39.9$ Hz), 46.60, 8.23.

³¹P NMR (122 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 0.33, -0.00, -0.80.

HRMS (ESI/Orbitrap) m/z : $[M - 2H]^{2-}$ calcd. for C₇¹³C₆H₁₉O₂₂P₅ 343.9634; Found 343.9954.



[¹³C₆]InsP₅

[¹³C₆]InsP₅ was synthesized according to a procedure of Godage and coworkers.¹⁹ Compound **S17** (50 mg, 0.037 mmol) was dissolved in concentrated aqueous ammonia solution (2.0 mL) and heated at 60 °C overnight in a Pyrex pressure tube. After evaporation of the solution under vacuum, the residue was dissolved in water and the benzamide byproduct was removed by washing with DCM. The ammonium salt of the product was obtained by evaporation of the ammonia and converted into the free acid by quick filtration (Note: Prolonged exposure causes phosphoryl group migration.) through DOWEX 50W x 8 (H⁺ form) (10-fold molar

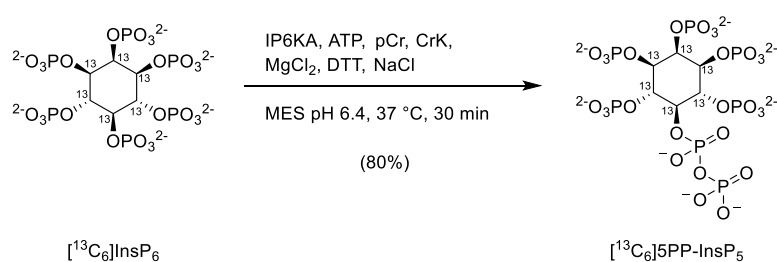
excess, previously washed with MilliQ® water) and then to its hexasodium salt by titration to pH 7.40 with 0.1 M sodium hydroxide solution. Lyophilization afforded [¹³C₆]InsP₅ (17 mg, 0.024 mmol) as white solid in 65% yield.

¹H NMR (300 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.5) δ 4.72 – 4.53 (m, 1.5H), 4.47 – 4.25 (m, 1.5H), 4.24 – 4.02 (m, 1.5H), 3.96 – 3.74 (m, 1.5H).

¹³C NMR (75 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.5) δ 78.28 – 74.98 (m), 73.92 (t, *J* = 37.7 Hz), 70.68 (t, *J* = 37.6 Hz).

³¹P NMR (122 MHz, D₂O, pD 7.5) δ 1.49, 1.23, 0.86.

Chemoenzymatic Synthesis of [¹³C₆]Inositol pyrophosphates



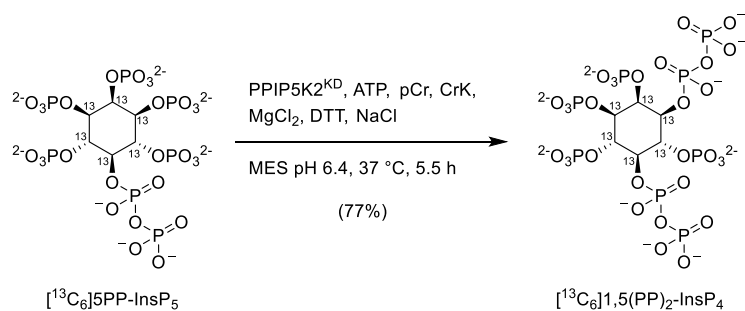
[¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅

The synthesis of [¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅ was done according to the synthesis of 5PP-InsP₅ which is described in the method section of chapter 2.

¹H NMR (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.5) δ 5.05 – 4.95 (m, 0.5H), 4.69 – 4.58 (m, 1H), 4.49 – 4.36 (m, 1.5H), 4.35 – 4.26 (m, 1H), 4.25 – 4.15 (m, 0.5H), 4.12 – 4.00 (m, 1H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.5) δ 80.74 – 79.46 (m), 79.32 – 77.17 (m), 76.03 (t, *J* = 38.7 Hz).

³¹P NMR (243 MHz, D₂O, pD 7.5) δ -1.45, -2.00, -2.45, -10.32, -13.41.



$[\text{C}_6^{13}]1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$

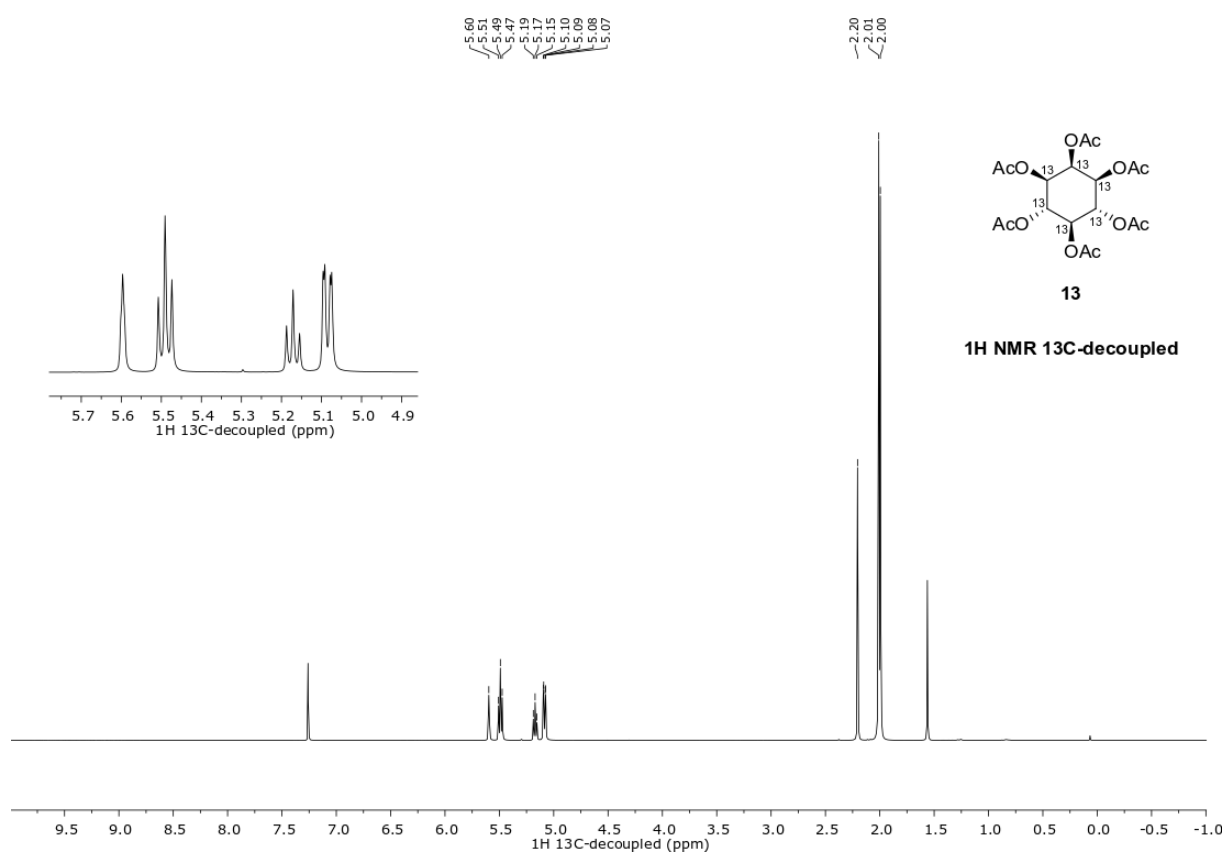
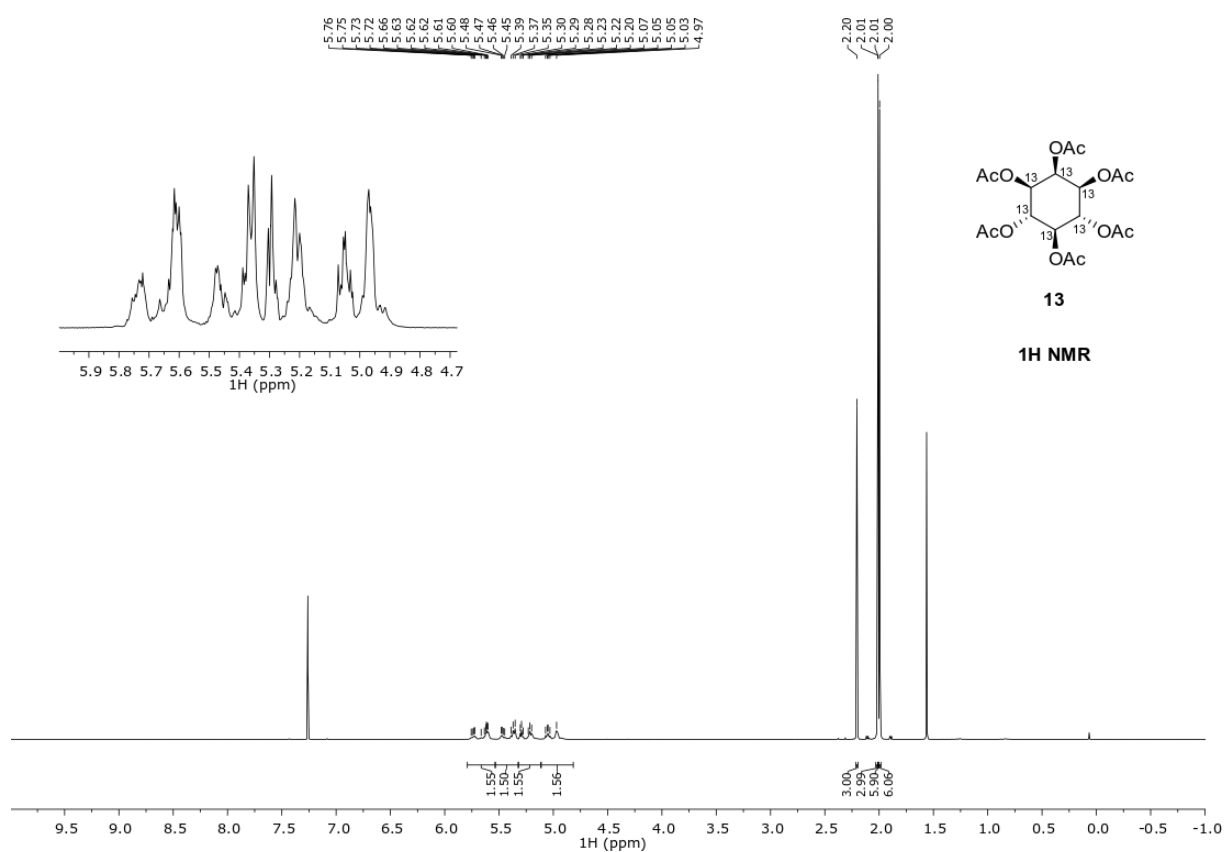
The synthesis of $[\text{C}_6^{13}]1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$ was done according to the synthesis of $1,5(\text{PP})_2\text{-InsP}_4$ which is described in the method section of chapter 2.

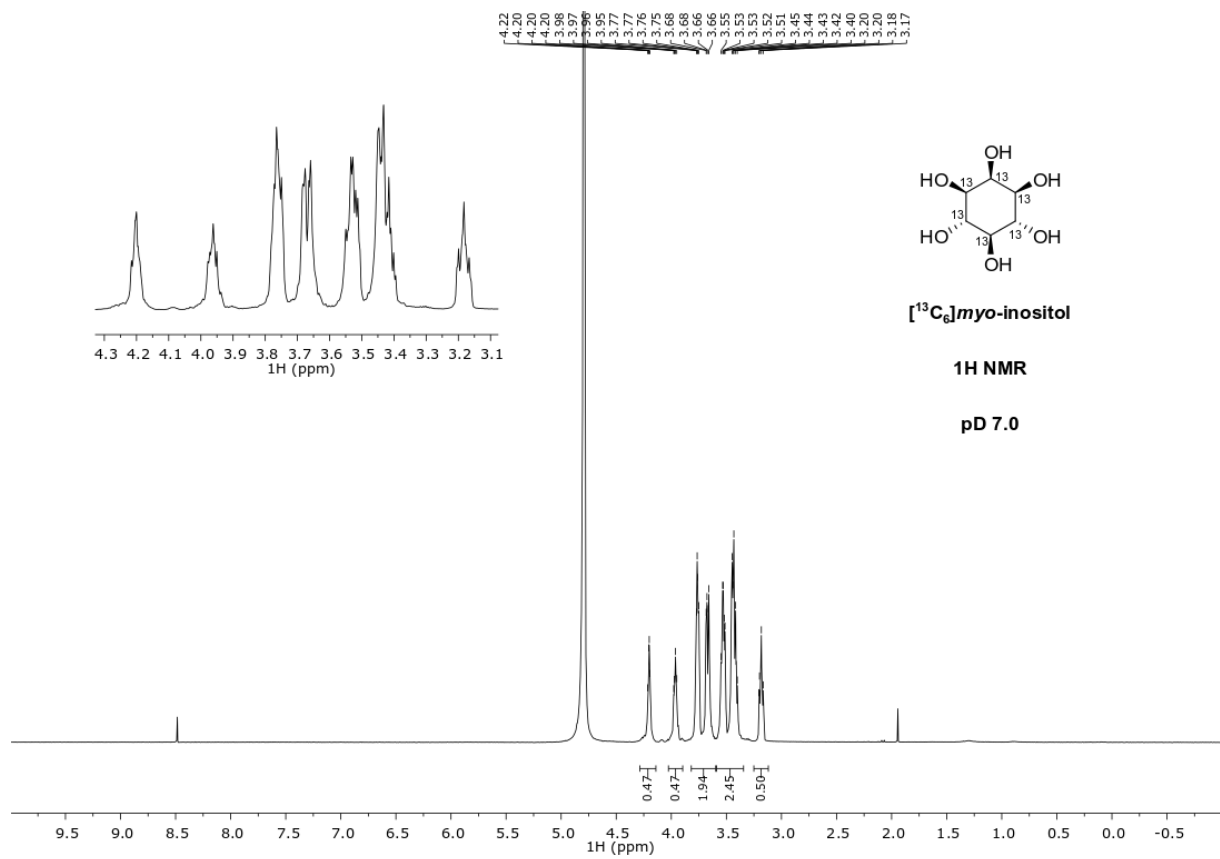
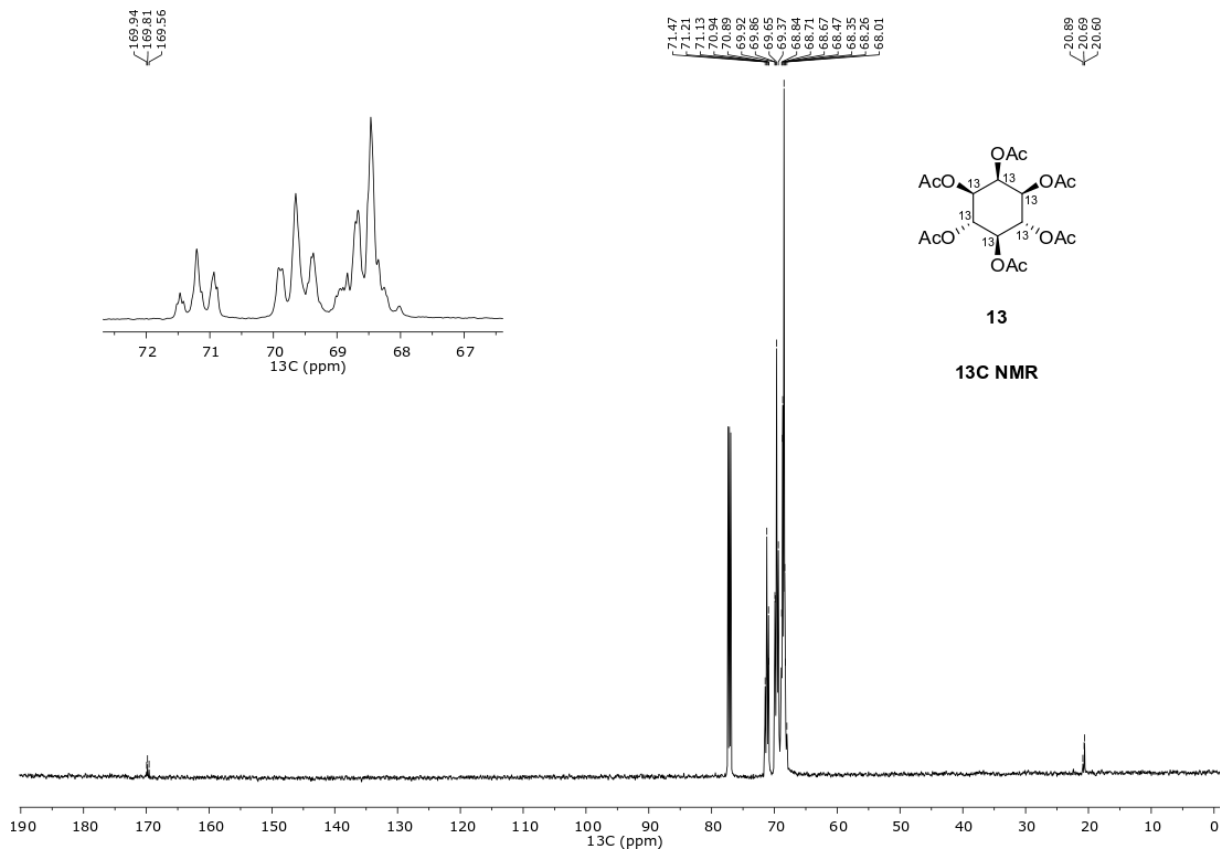
$^1\text{H NMR}$ (600 MHz, Deuterium Oxide) δ 5.27 – 5.20 (m, 0.5H), 5.01 – 4.94 (m, 0.5H), 4.65 – 4.58 (m, 1H), 4.56 – 4.47 (m, 1.5H), 4.41 – 4.33 (m, 1H), 4.31 – 4.21 (m, 0.5H).

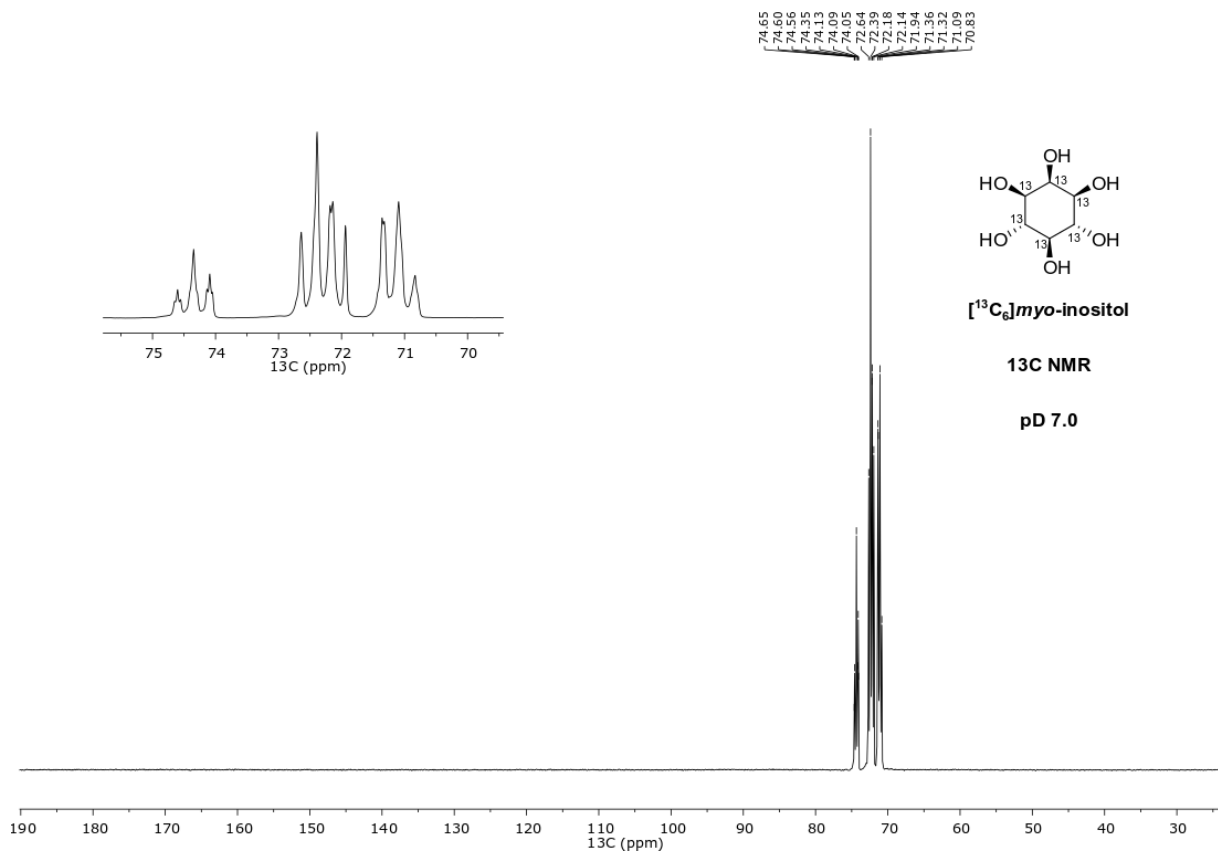
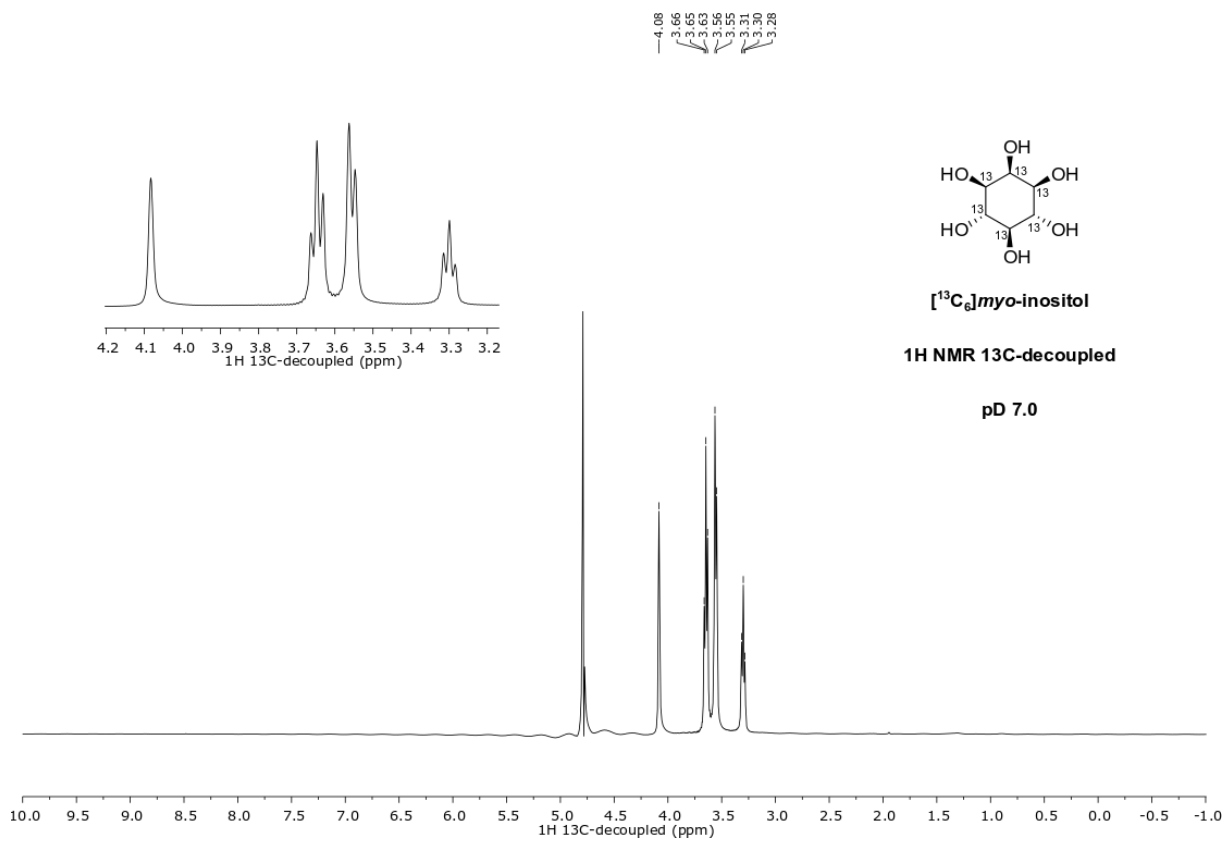
$^{13}\text{C NMR}$ (151 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 77.53 (t, $J = 39.4$ Hz), 76.68 – 74.55 (m), 73.48 (q, $J = 42.5, 39.9$ Hz).

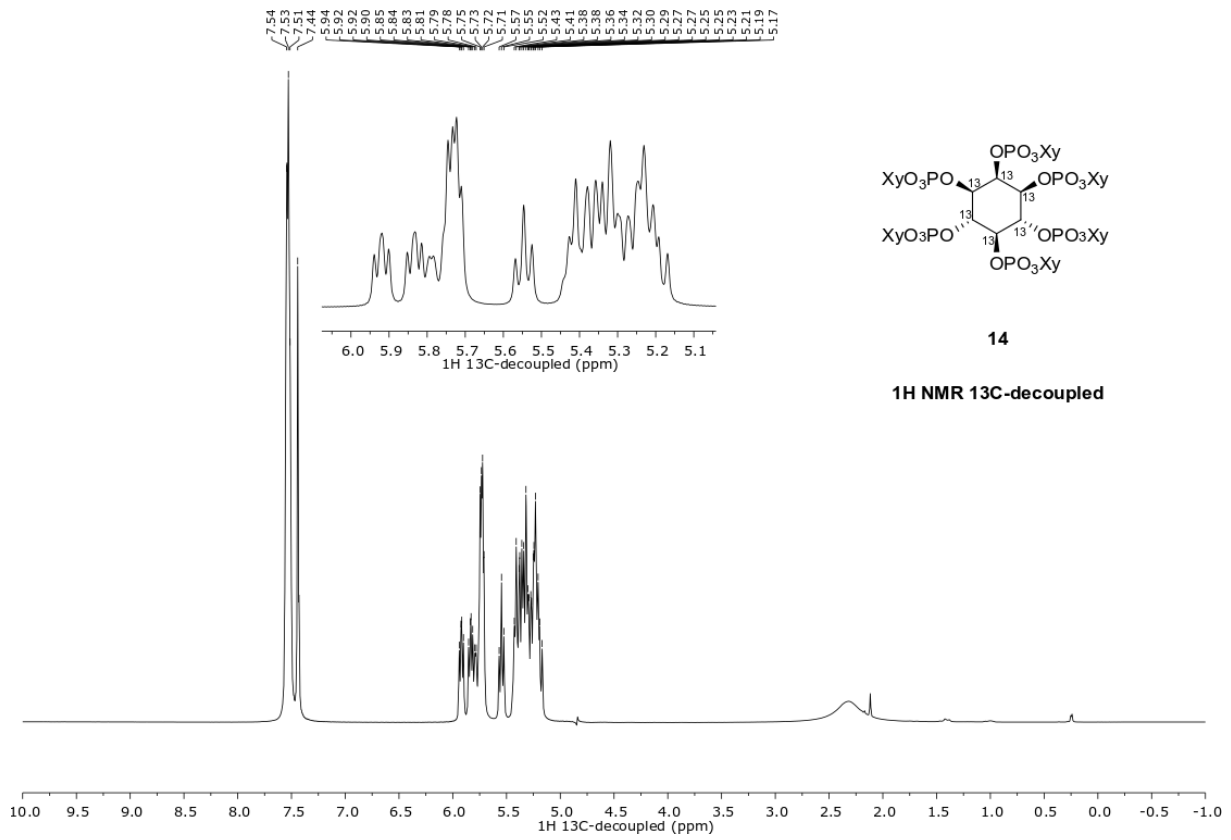
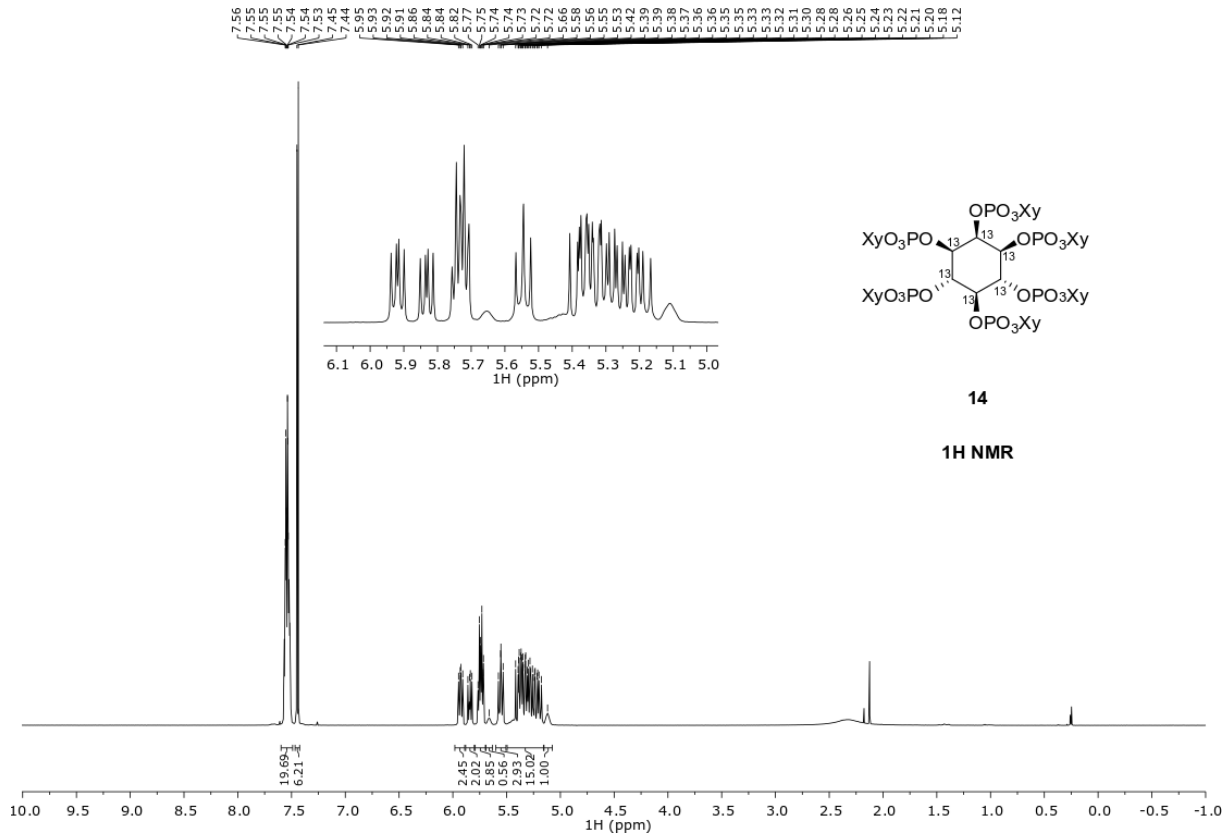
$^{31}\text{P NMR}$ (243 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 5.0) δ 0.55, 0.30, -0.19, -1.04, -10.53 (t, $J = 21.3$ Hz), -11.10 (dd, $J = 50.4, 20.0$ Hz).

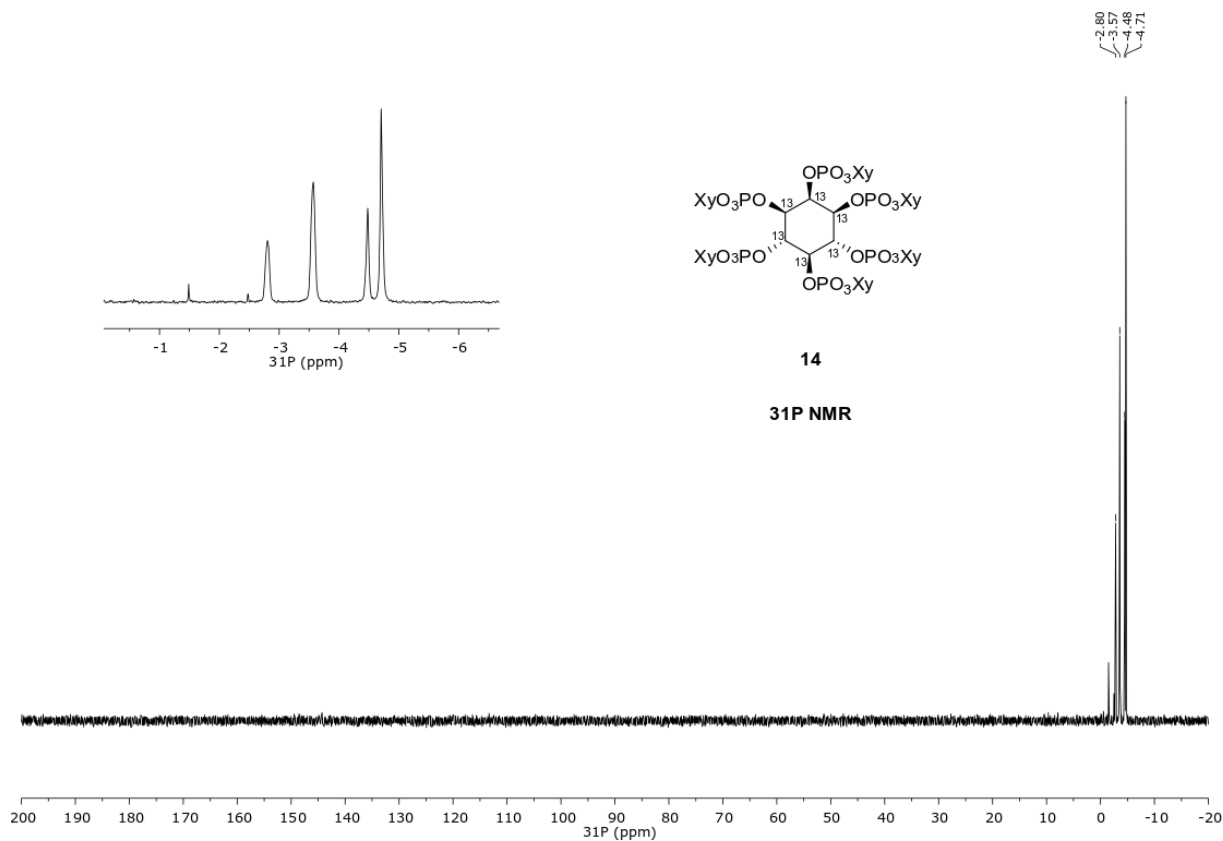
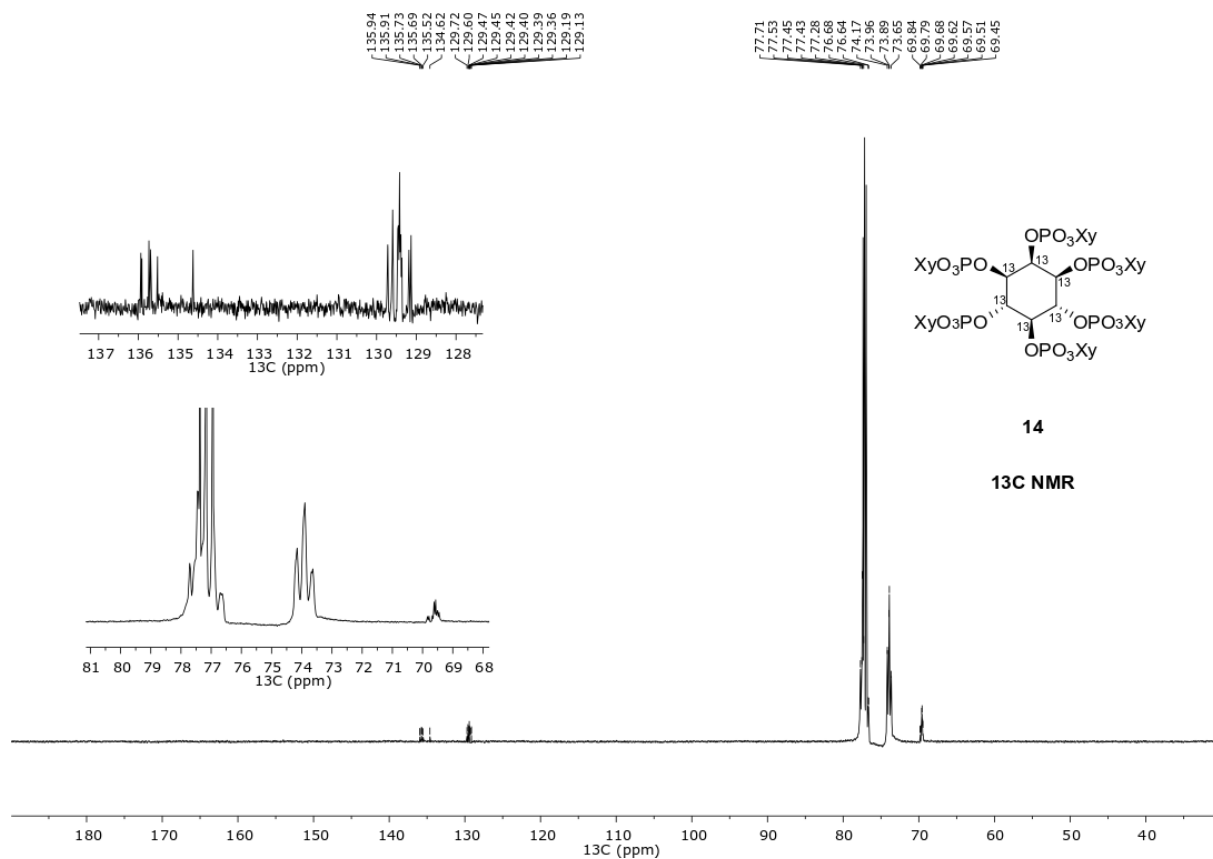
NMR Spectra

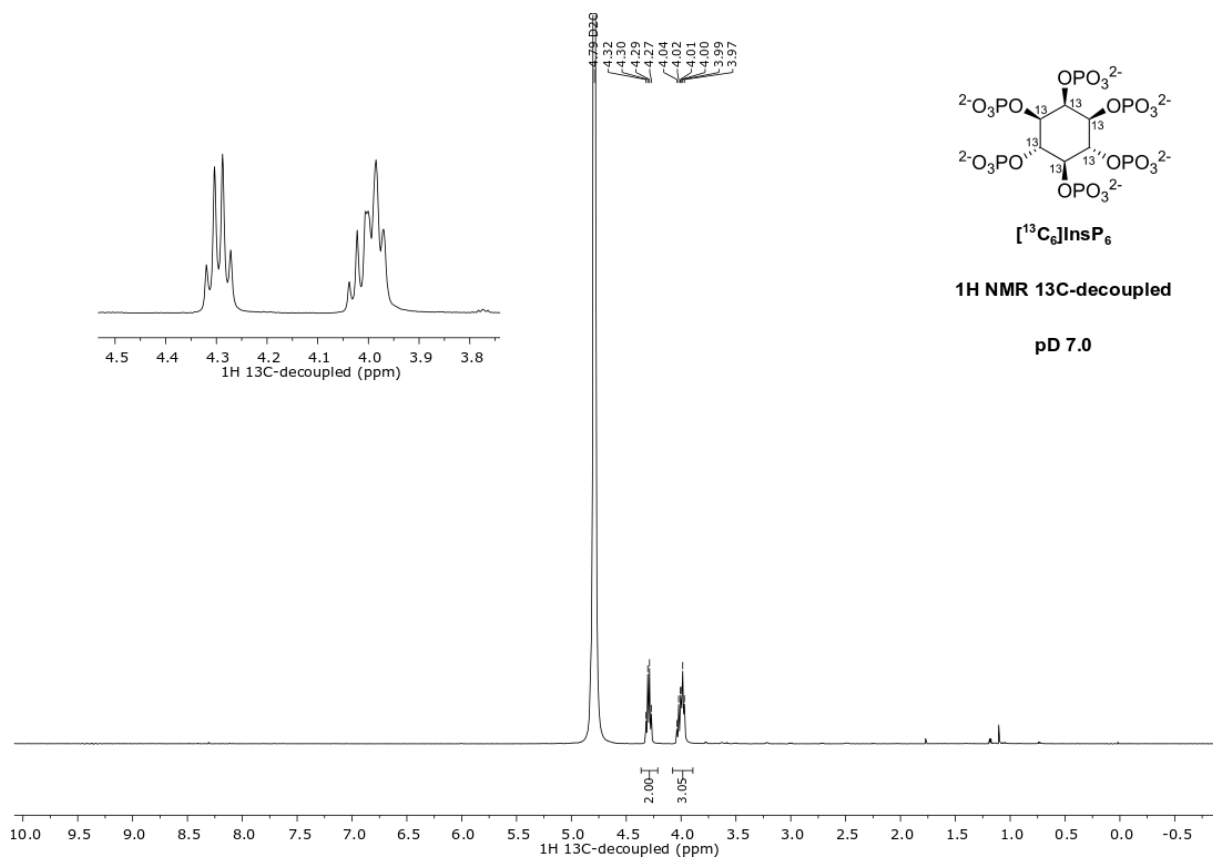
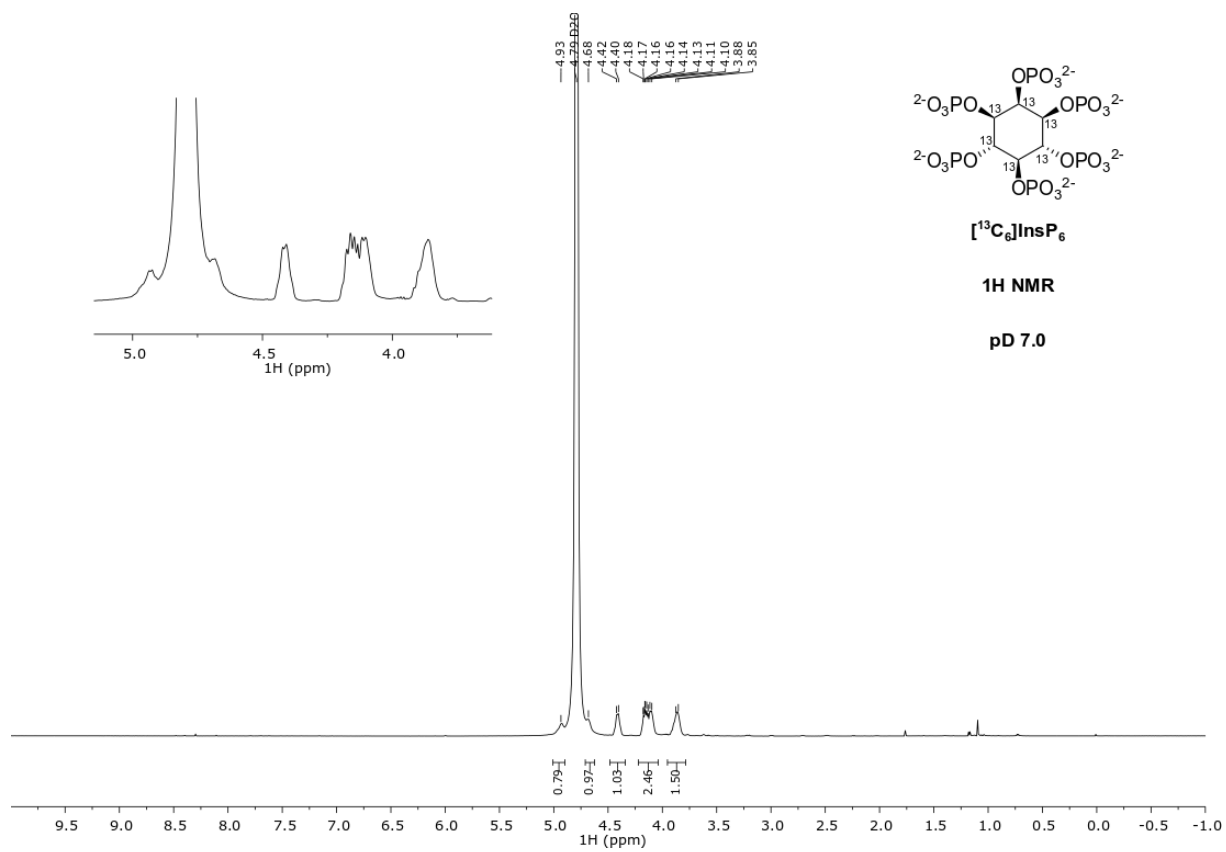


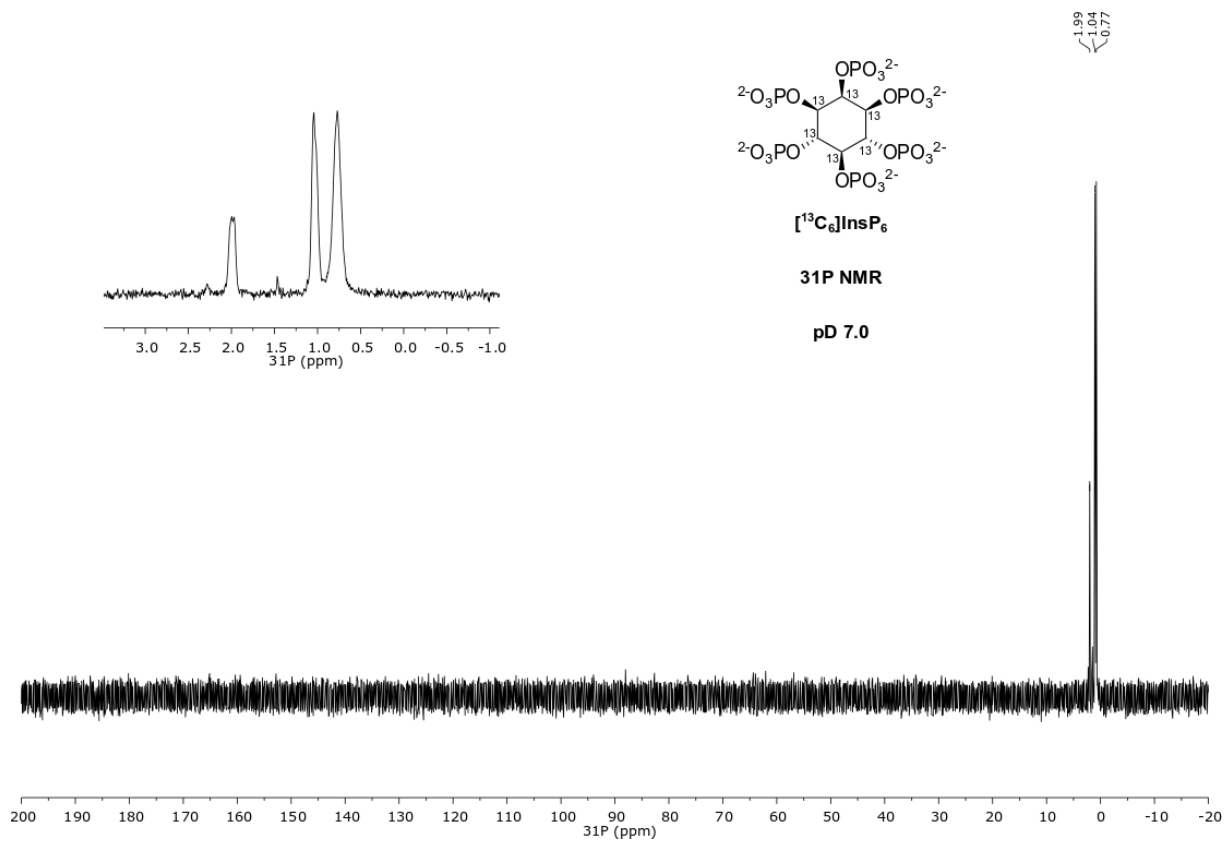
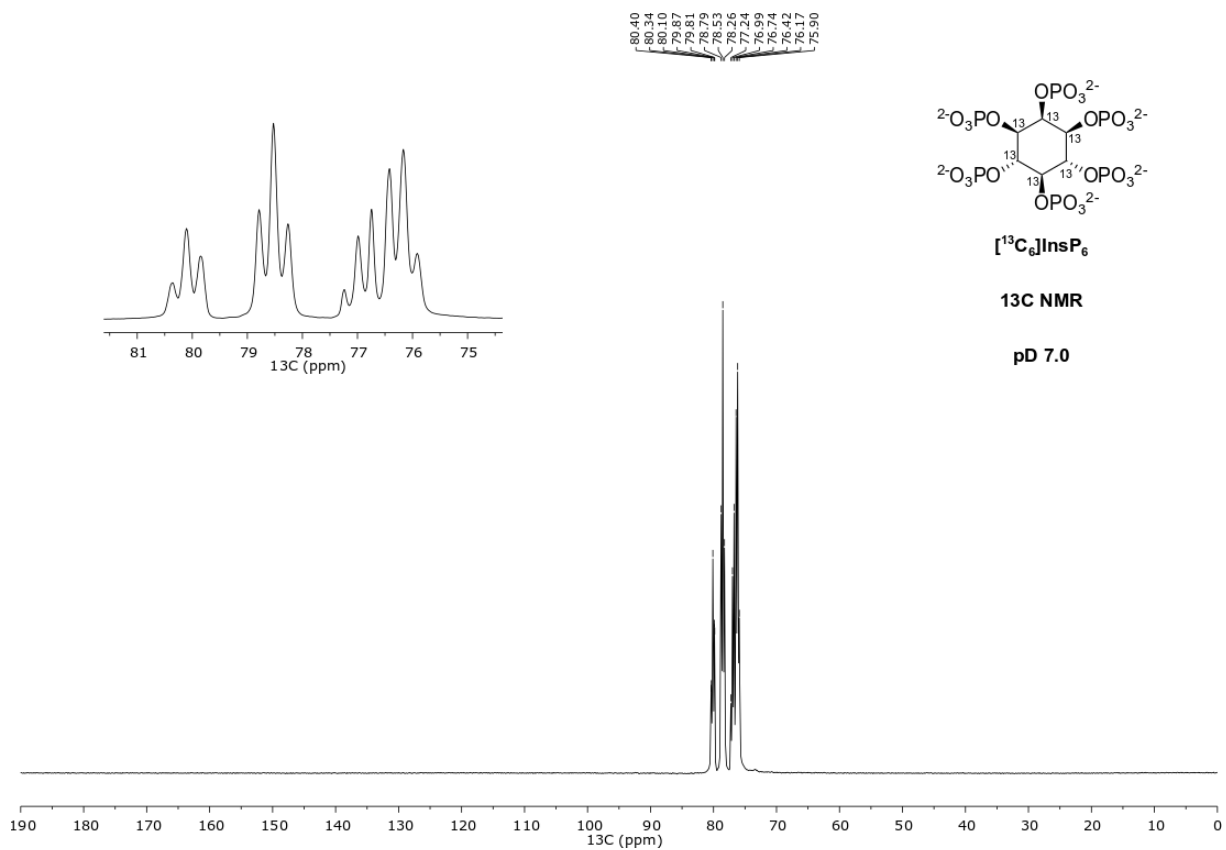


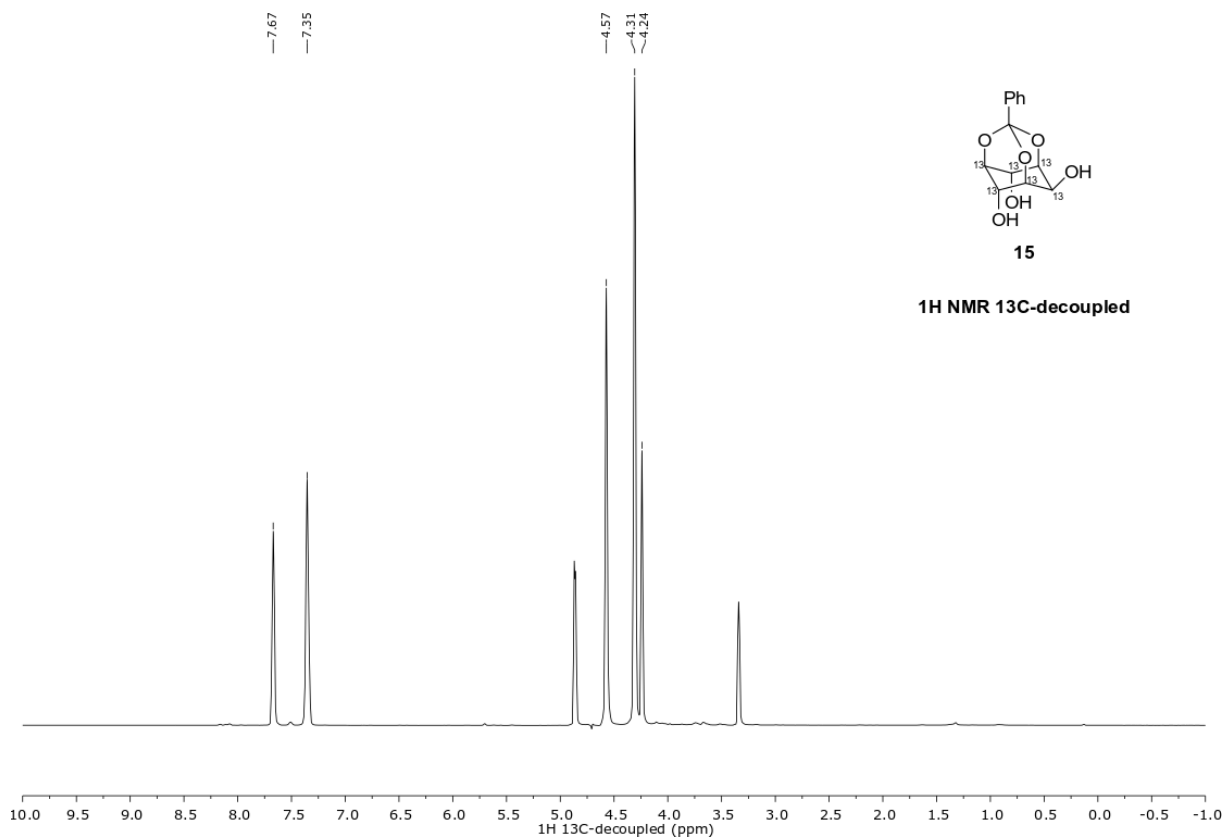
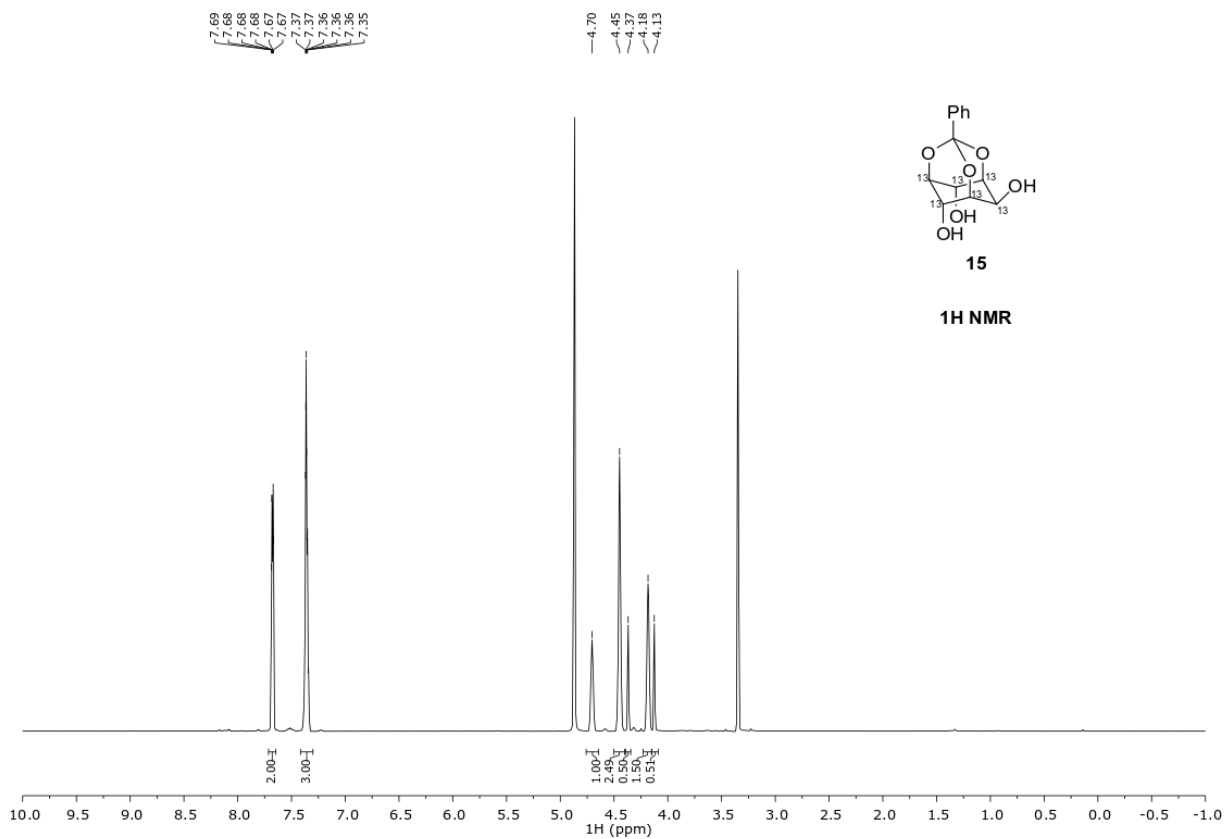


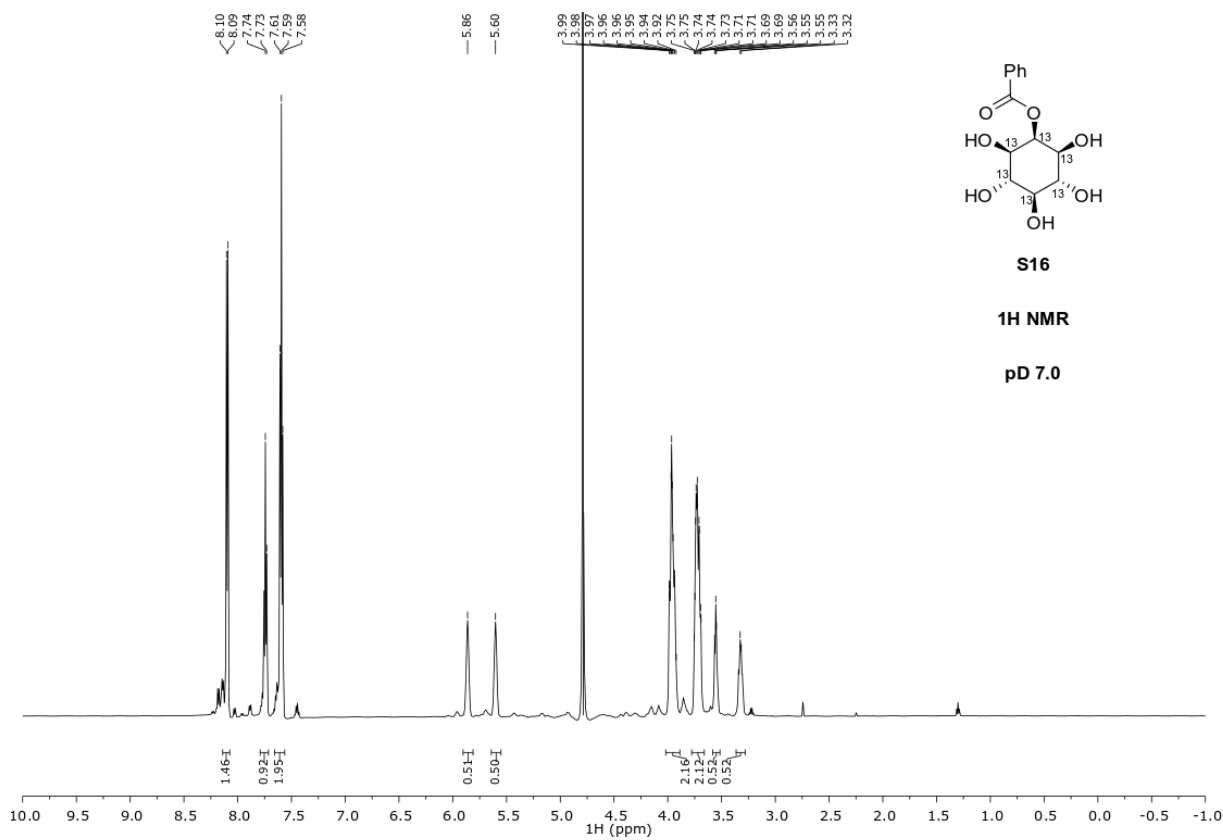
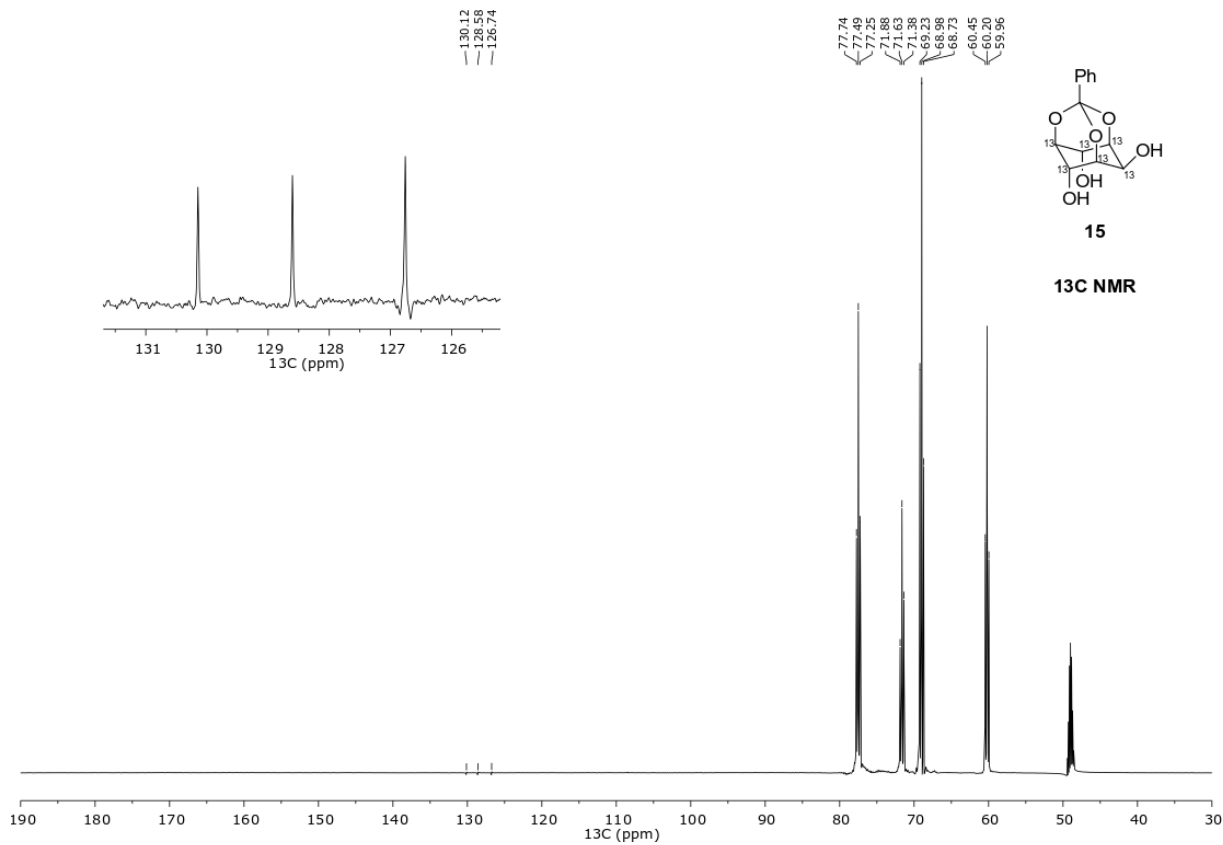


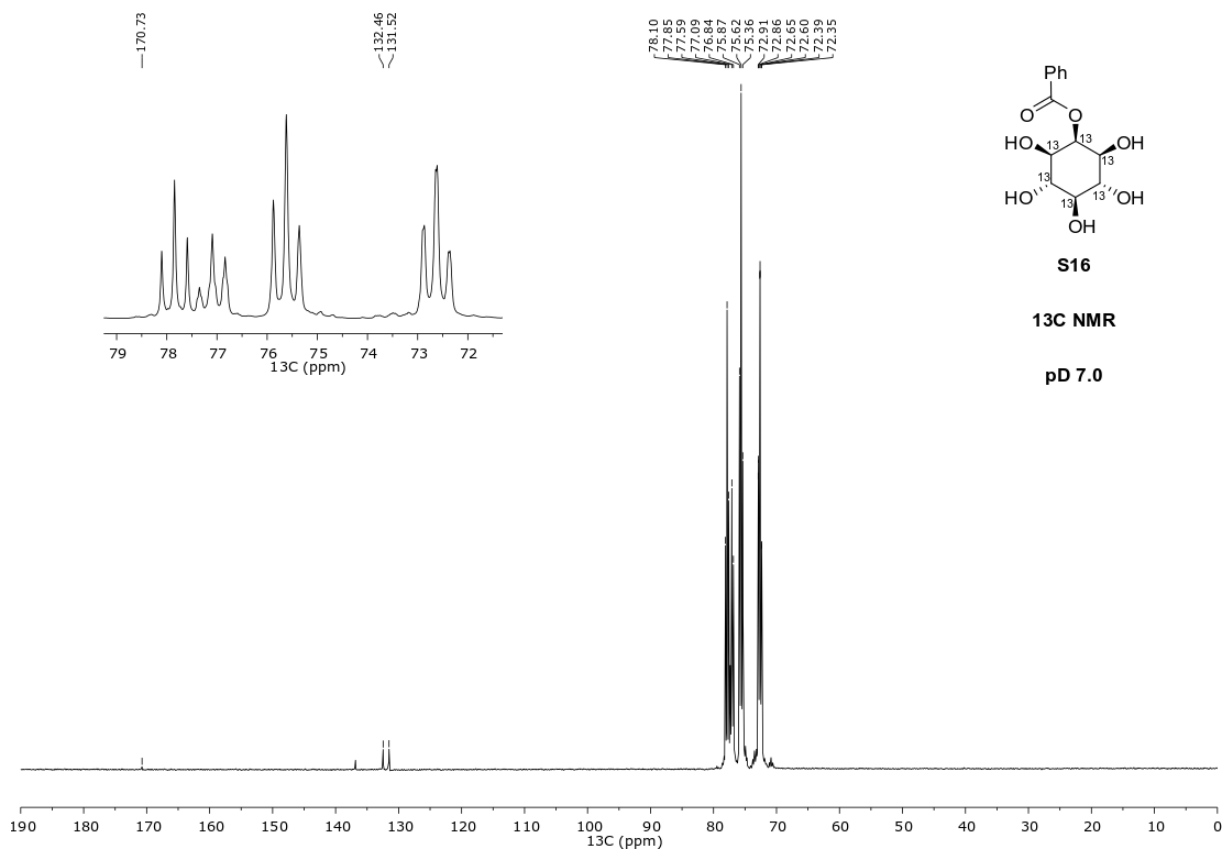
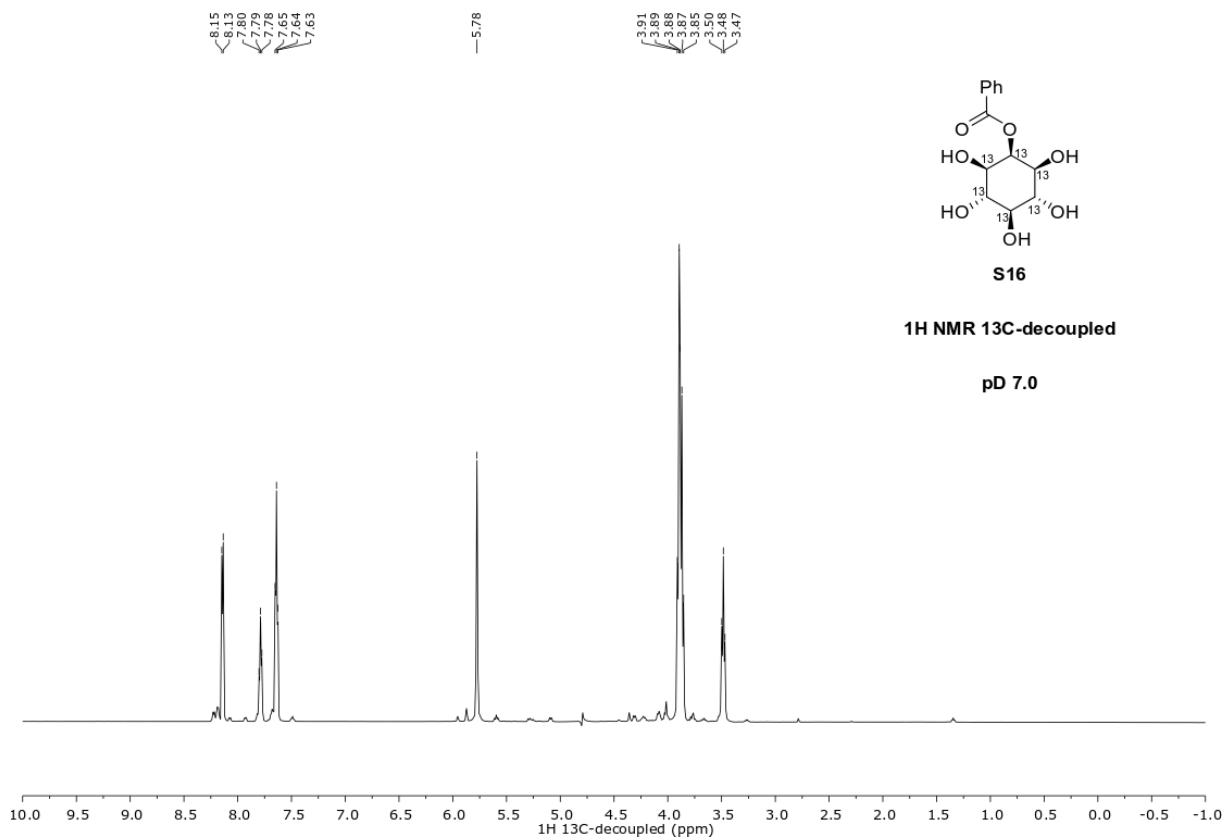


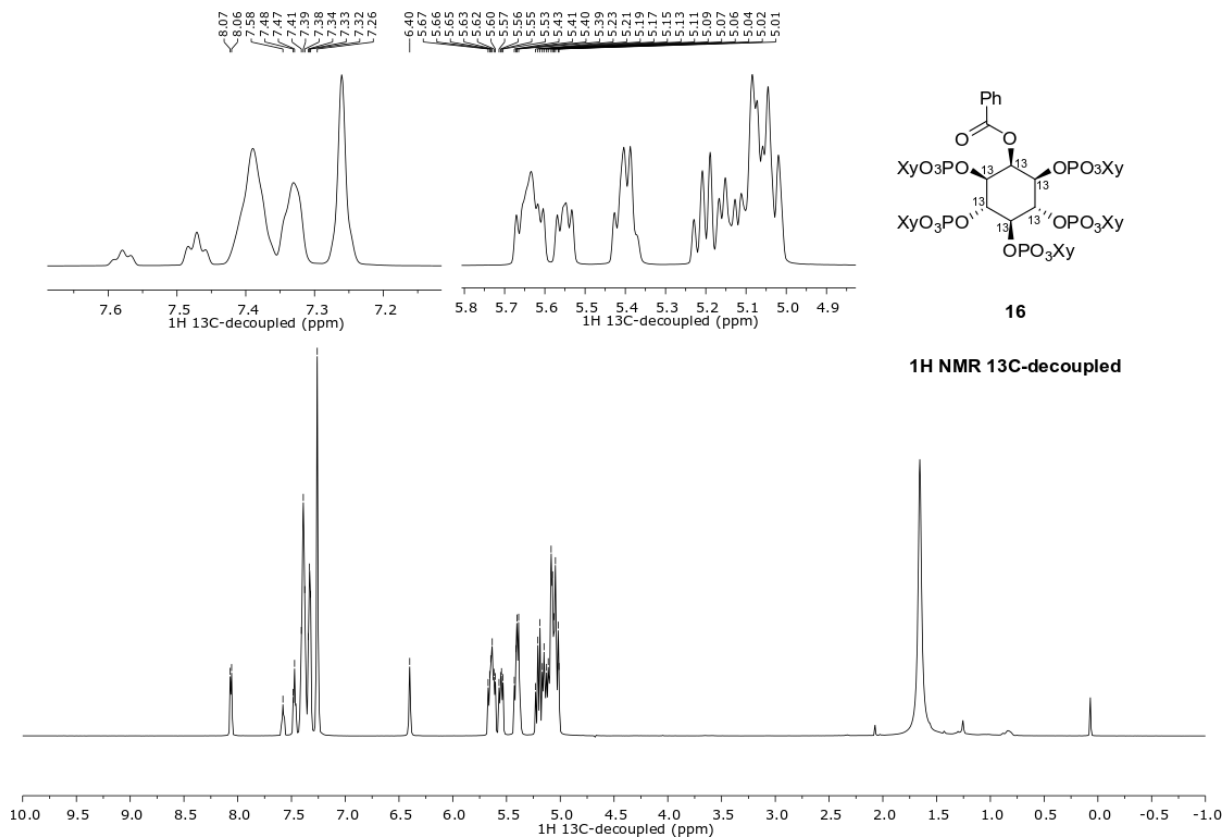
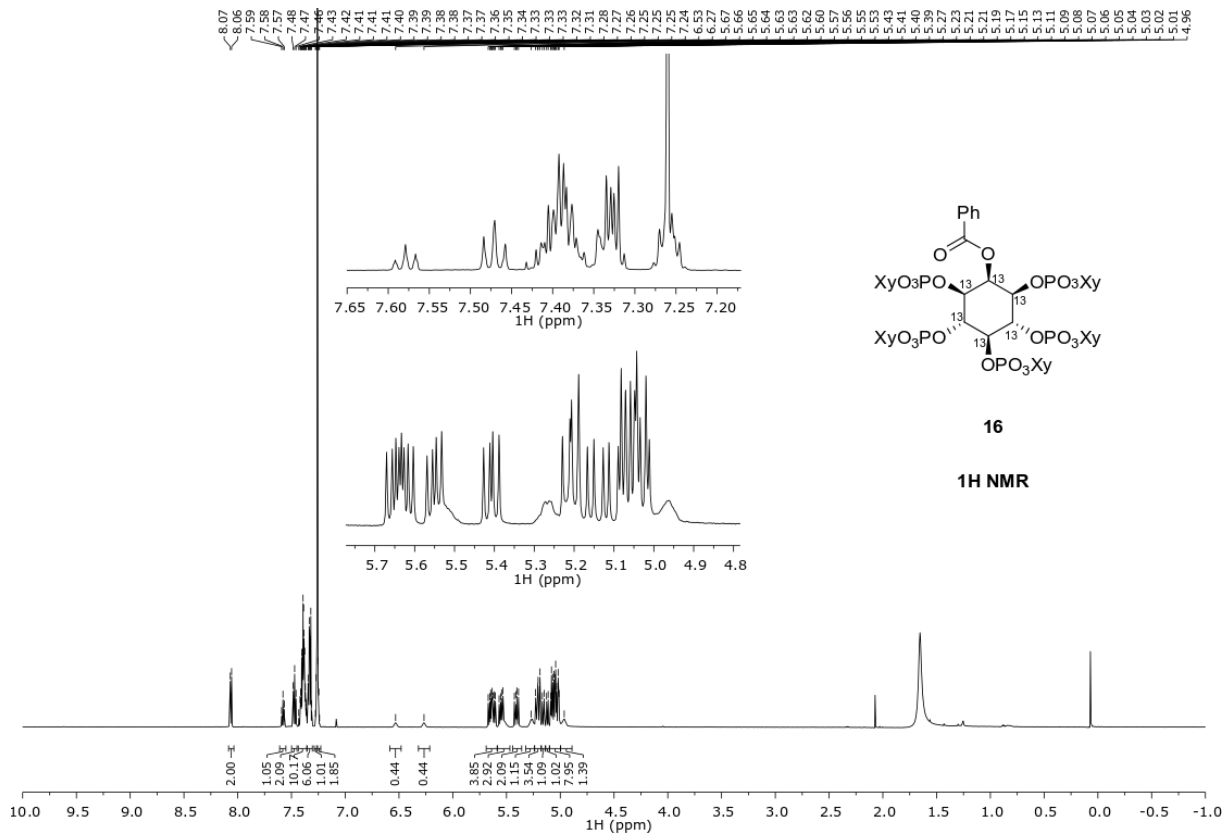


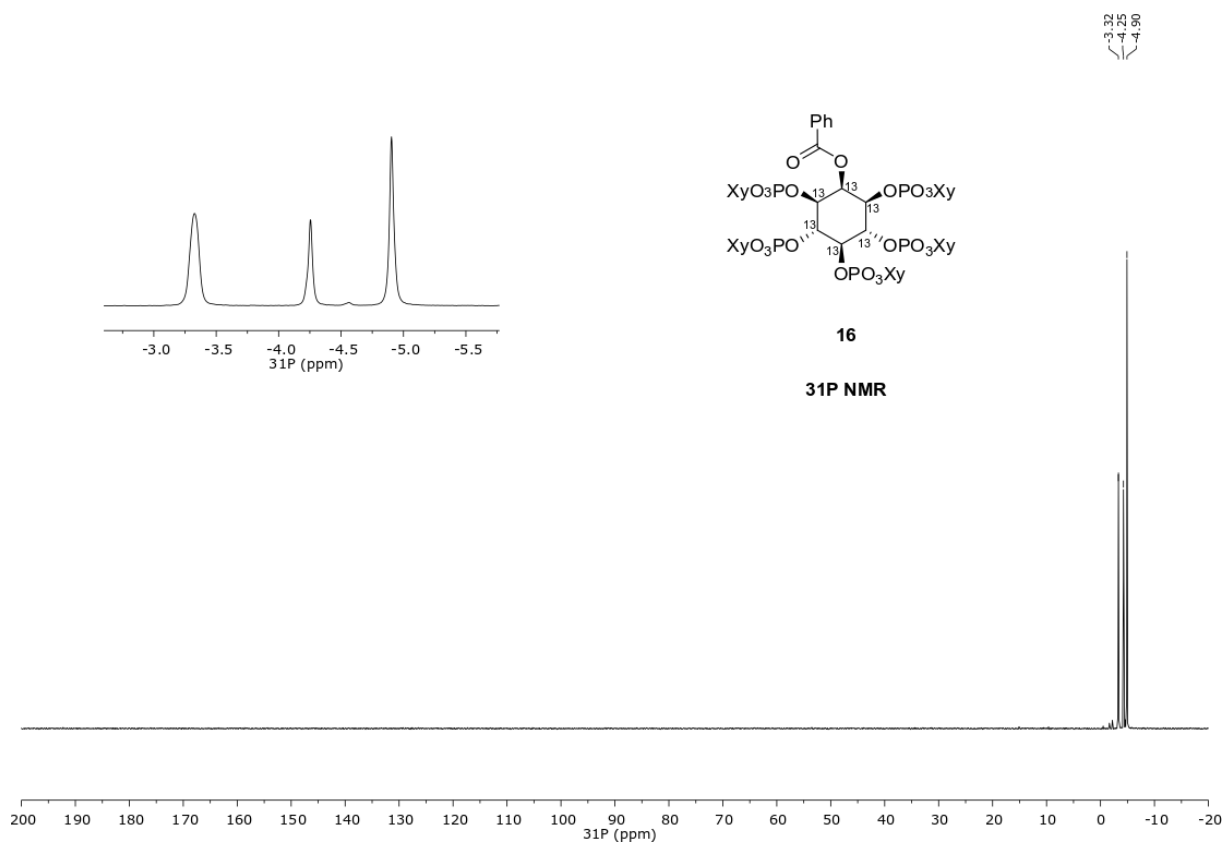
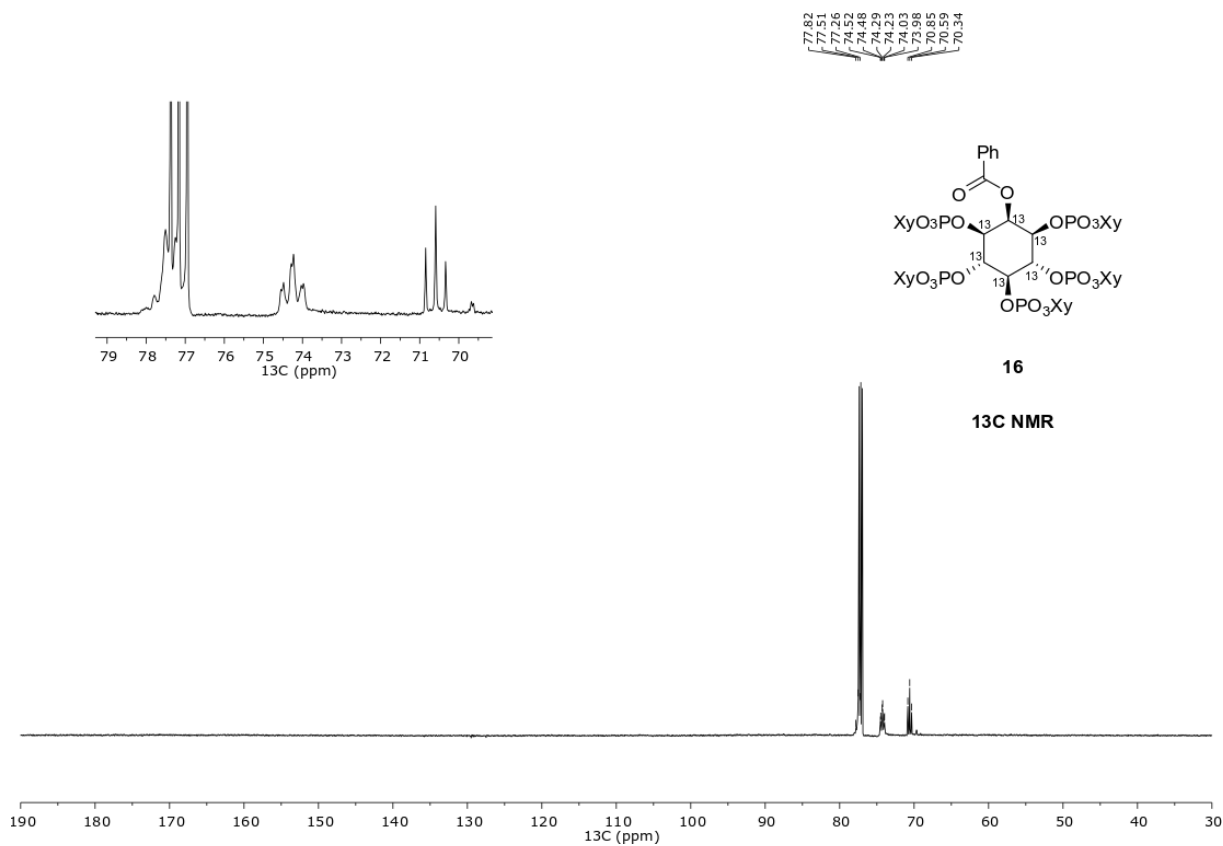


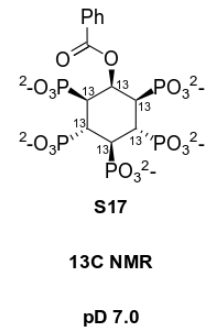
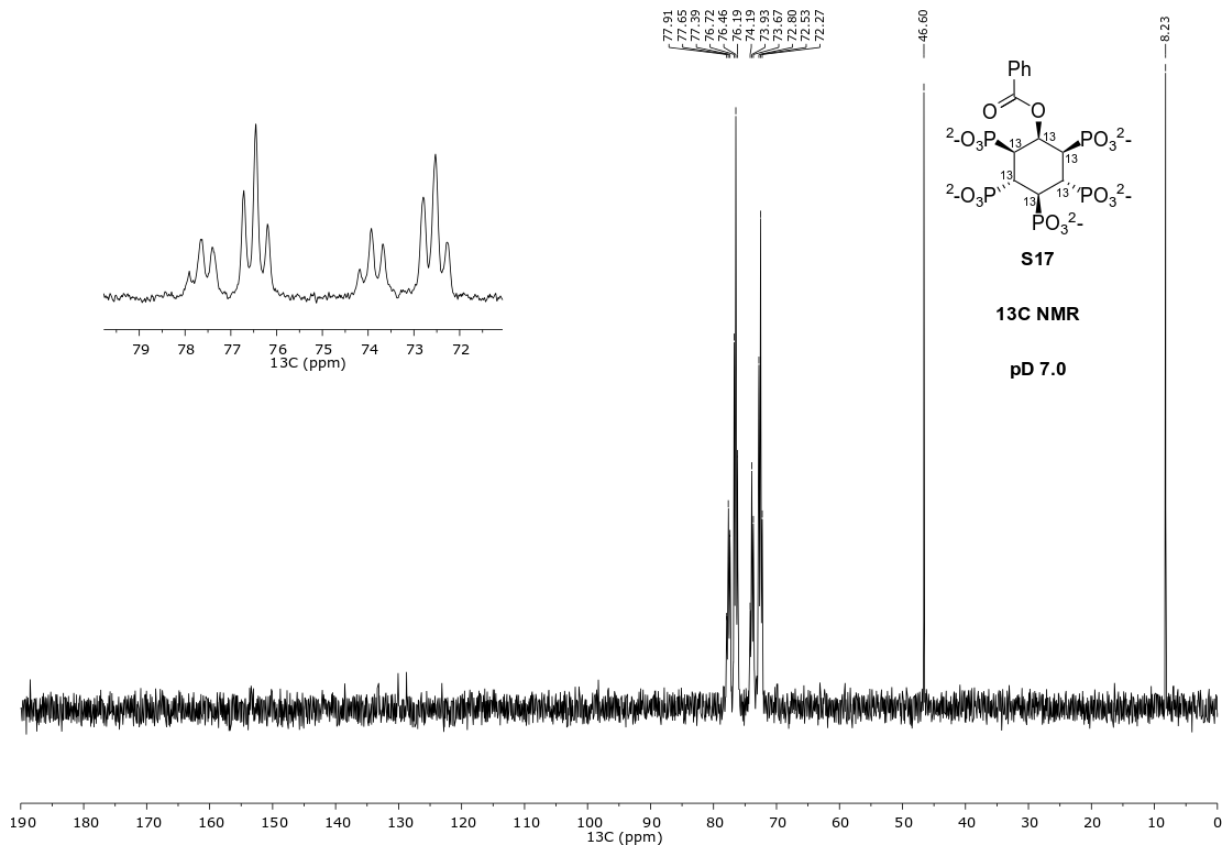
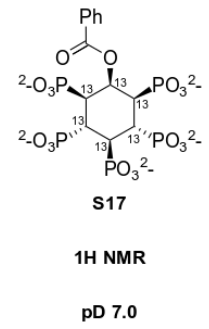
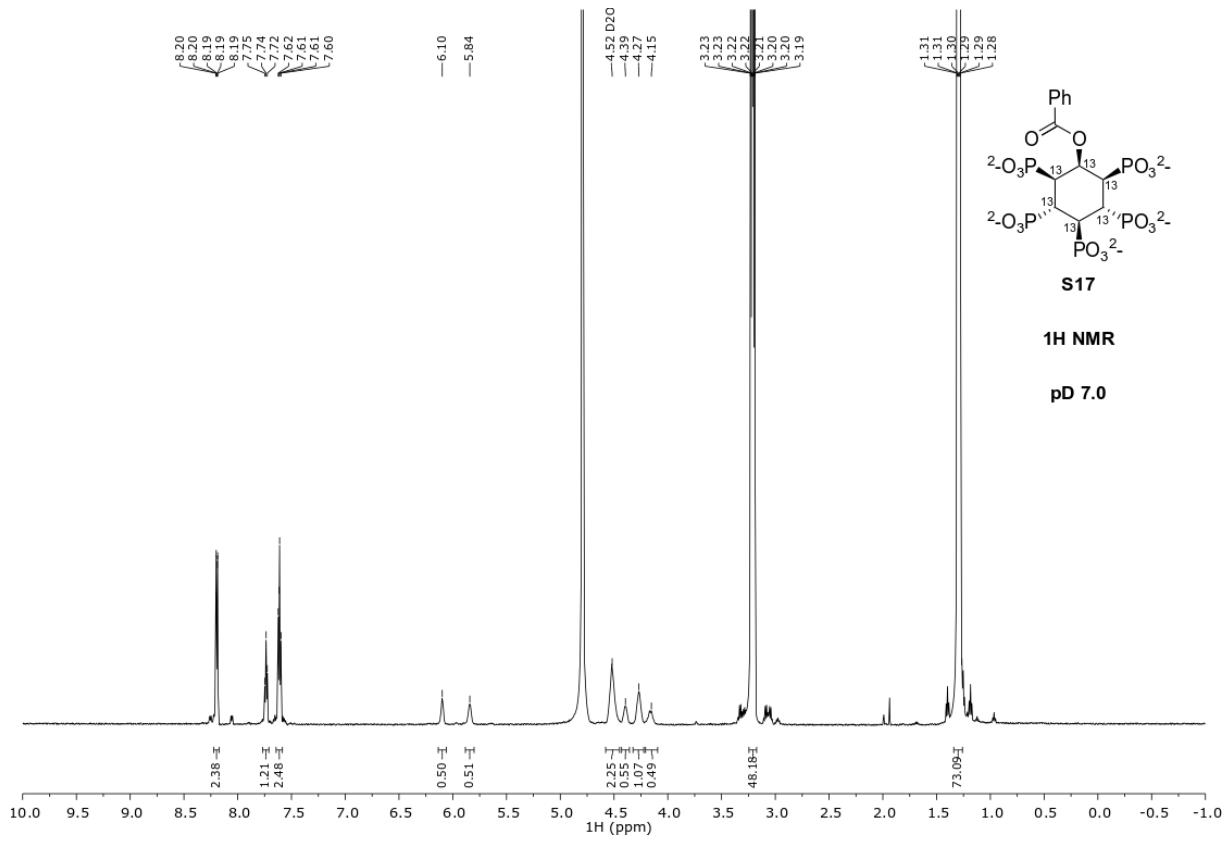


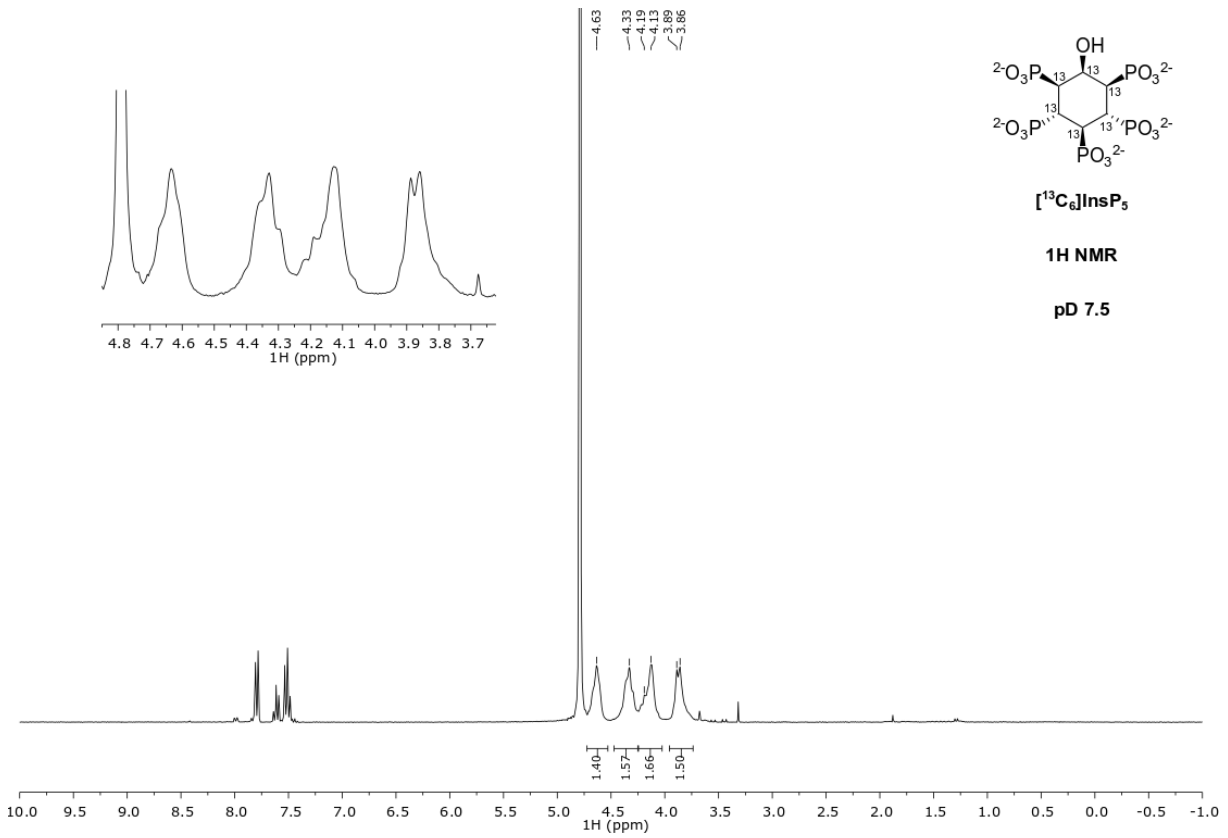
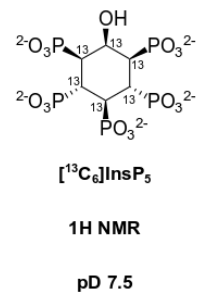
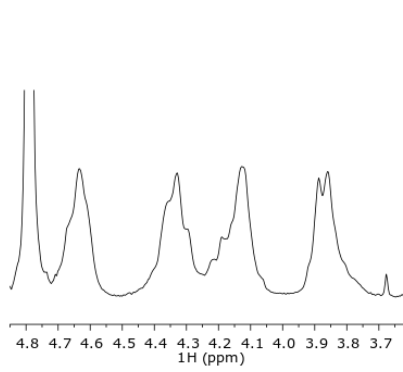
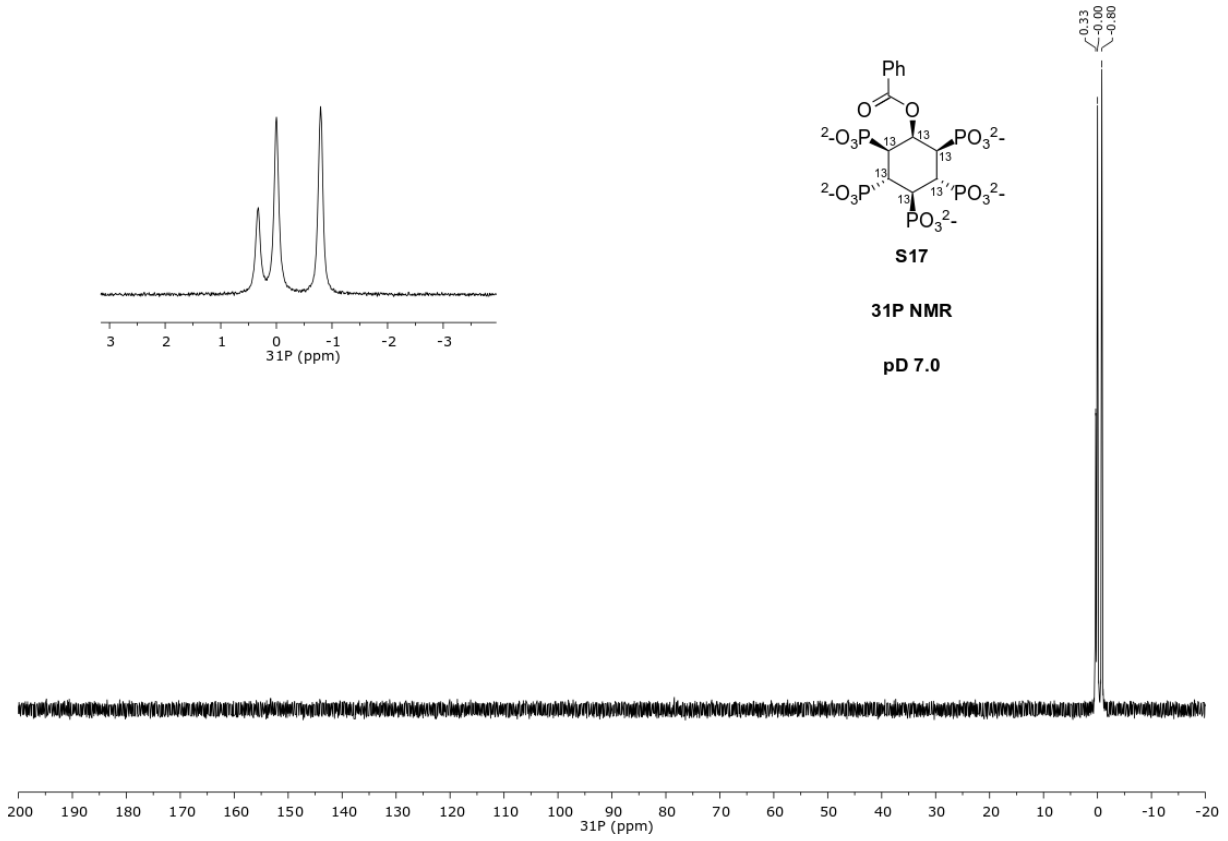
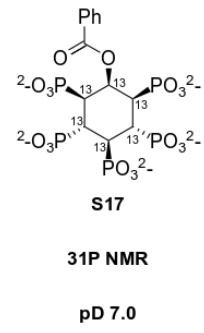
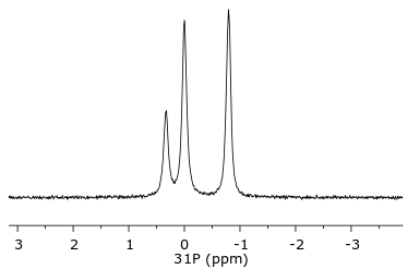


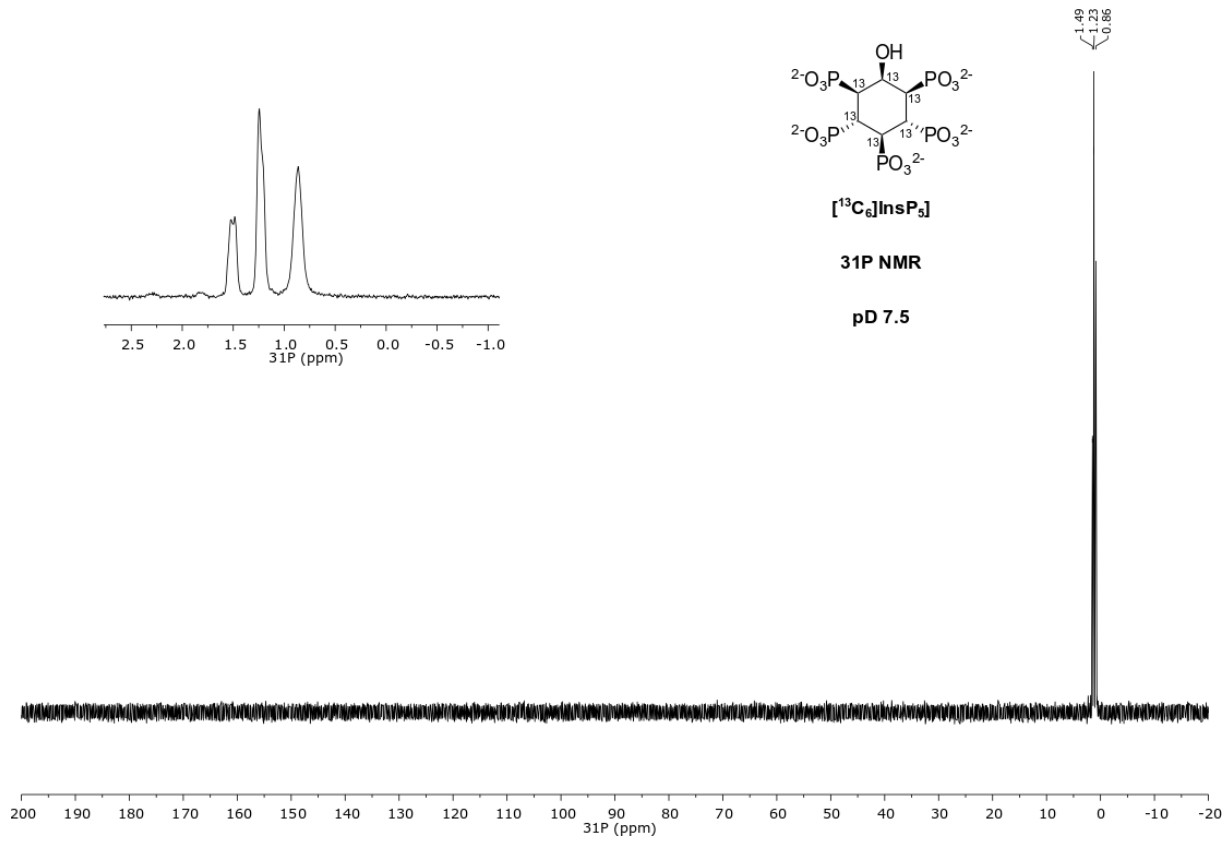
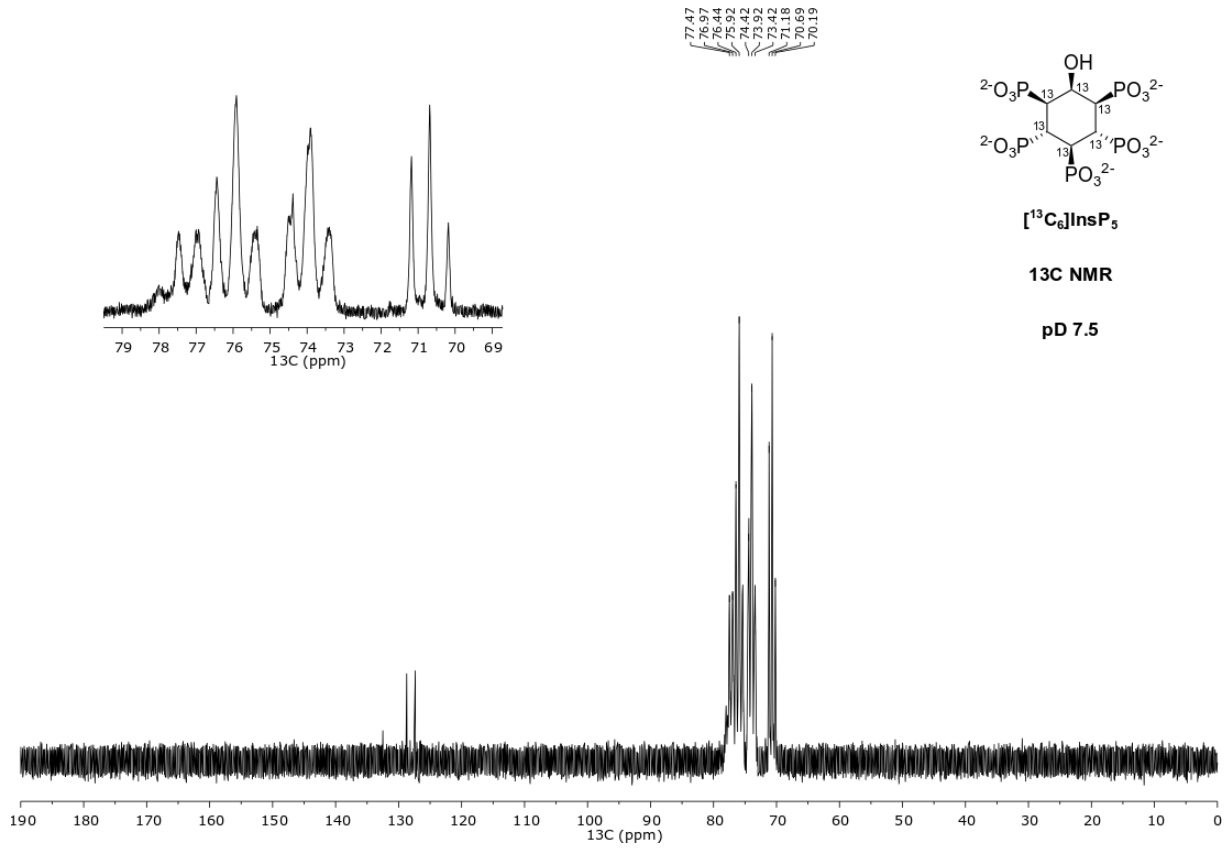


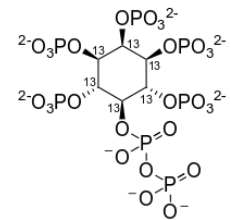
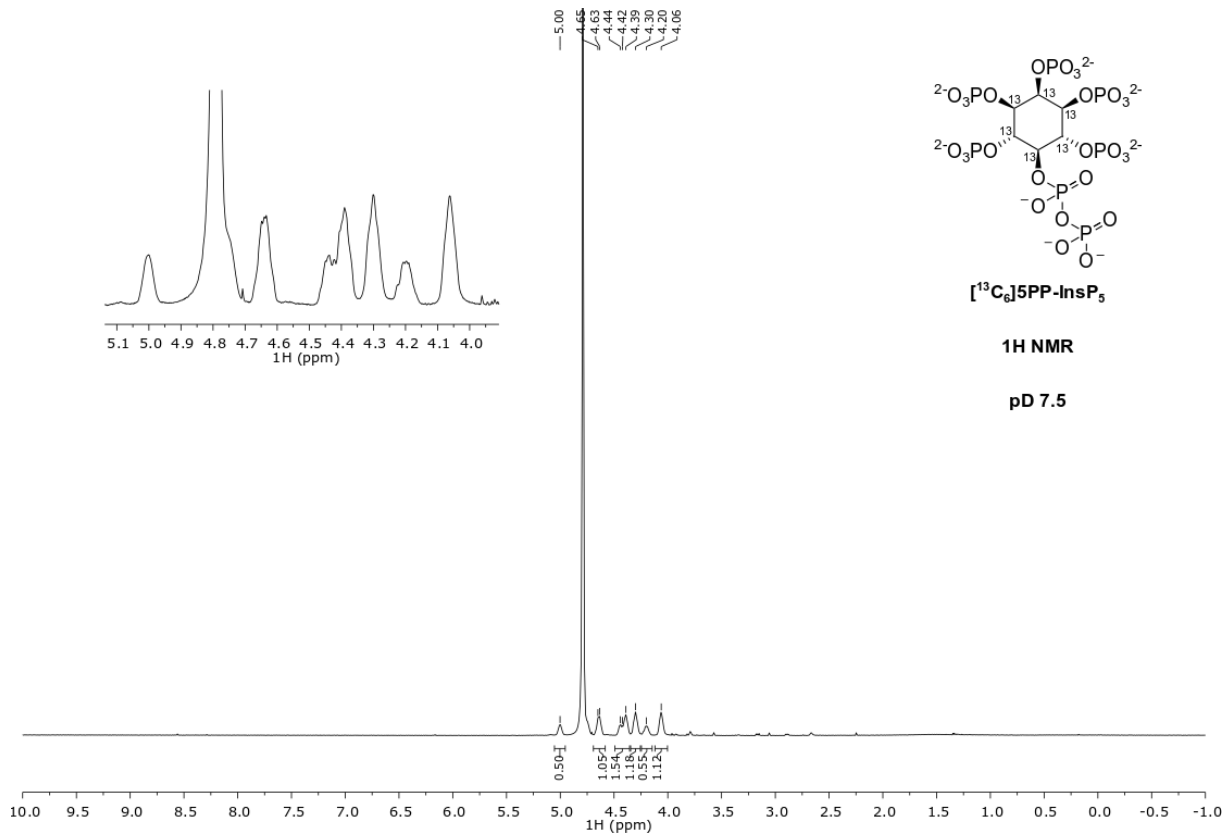








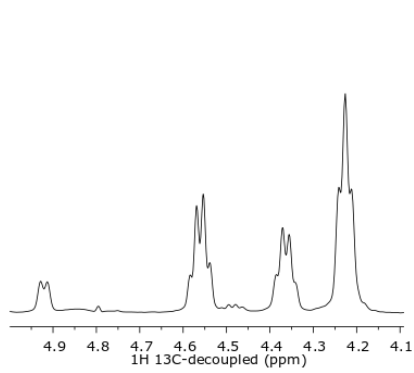




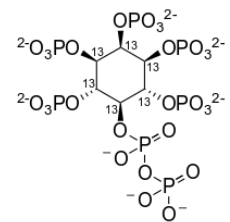
[¹³C₆]5PP-InsP₅

1H NMR

pD 7.5



4.93
4.91
4.59
4.55
4.54
4.39
4.37
4.36
4.34
4.23
4.21

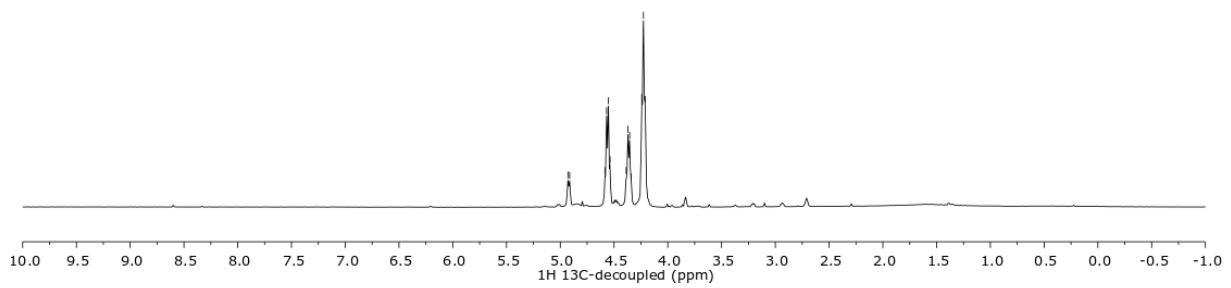


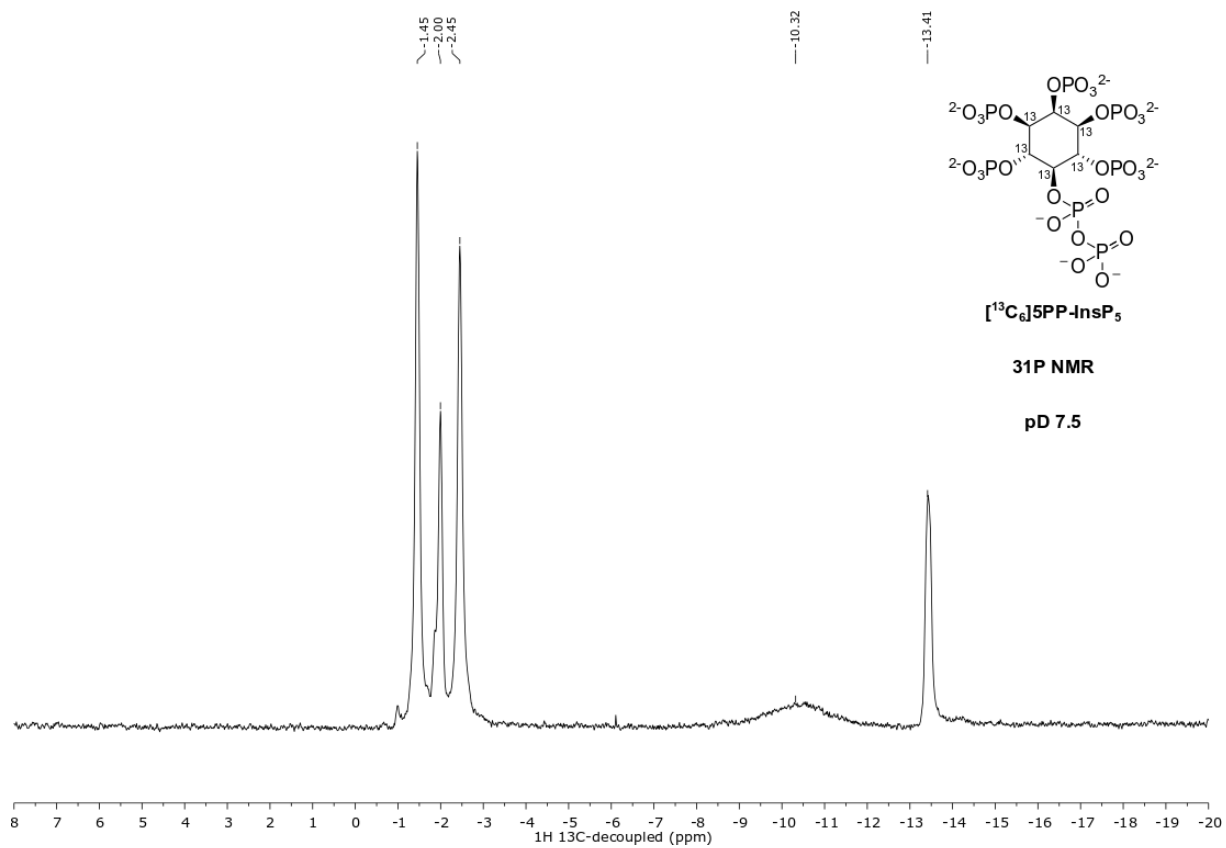
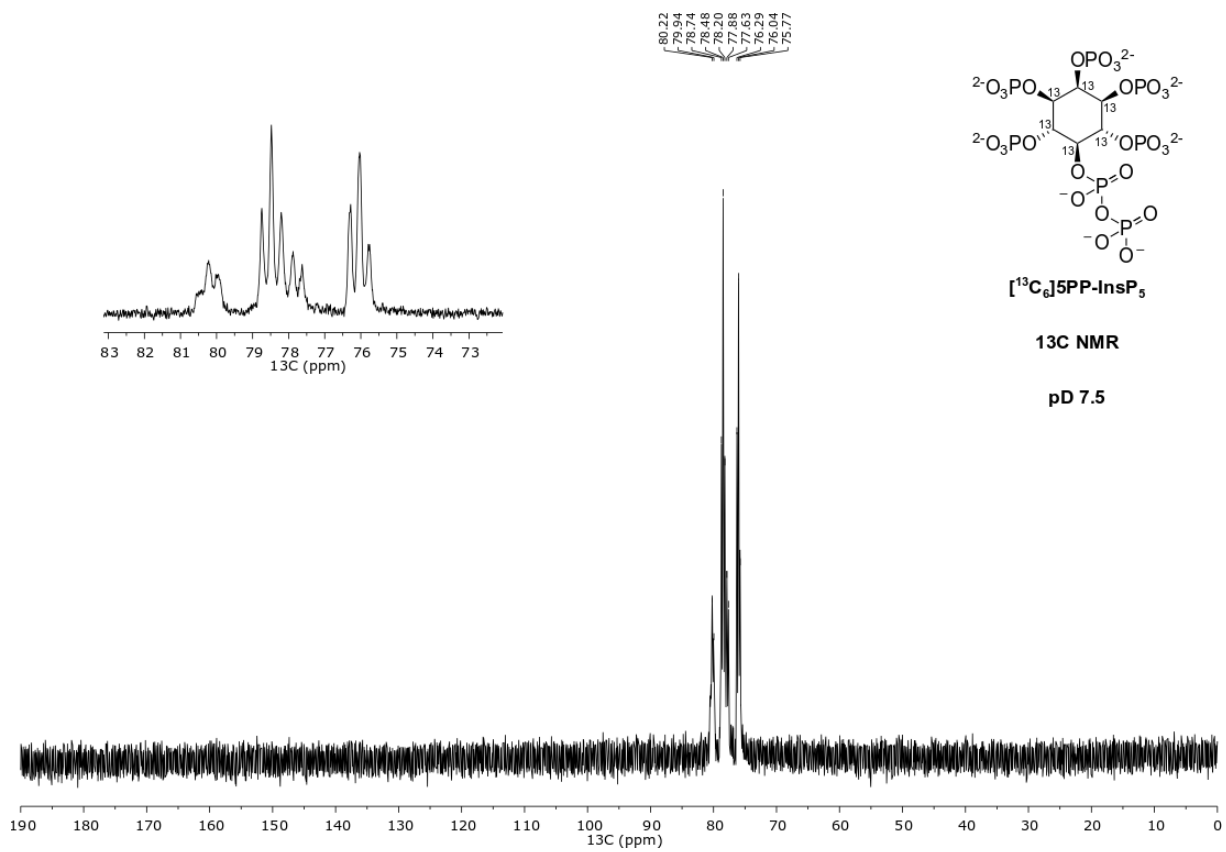
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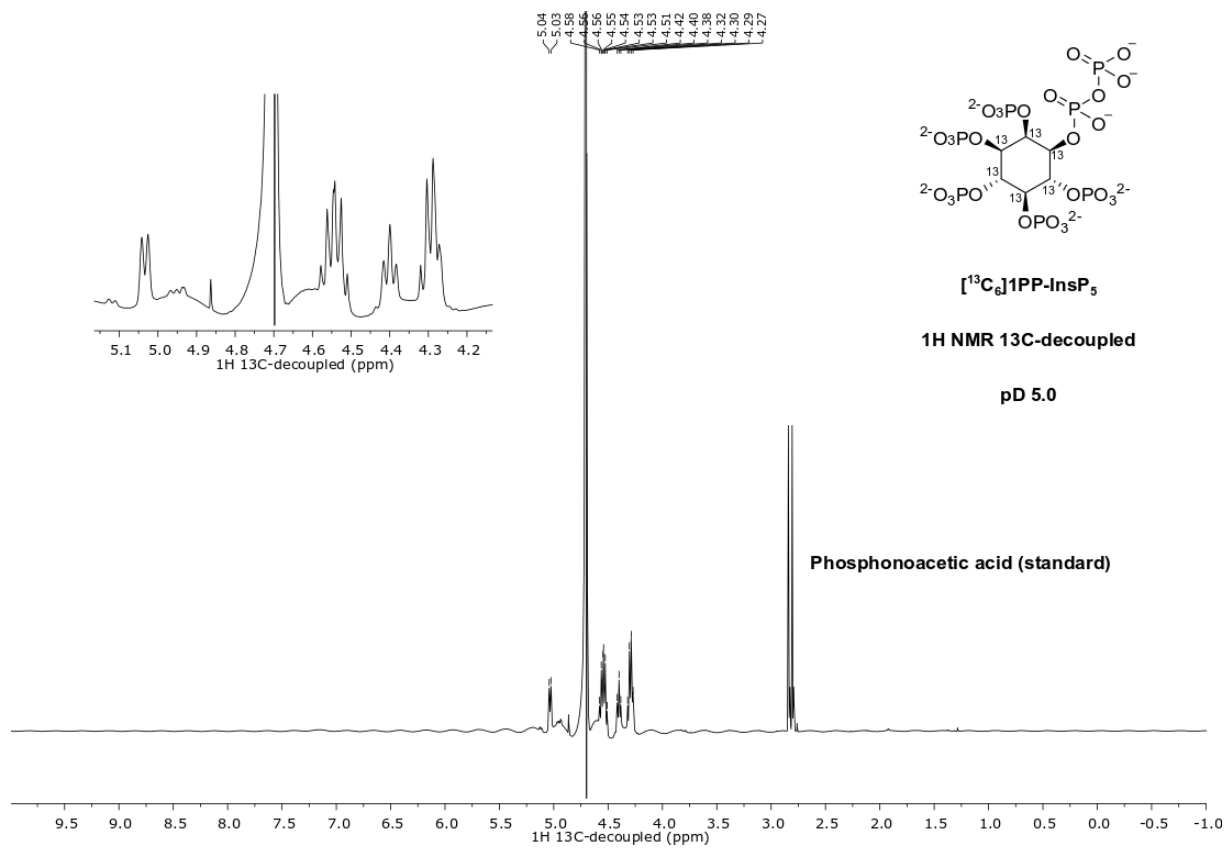
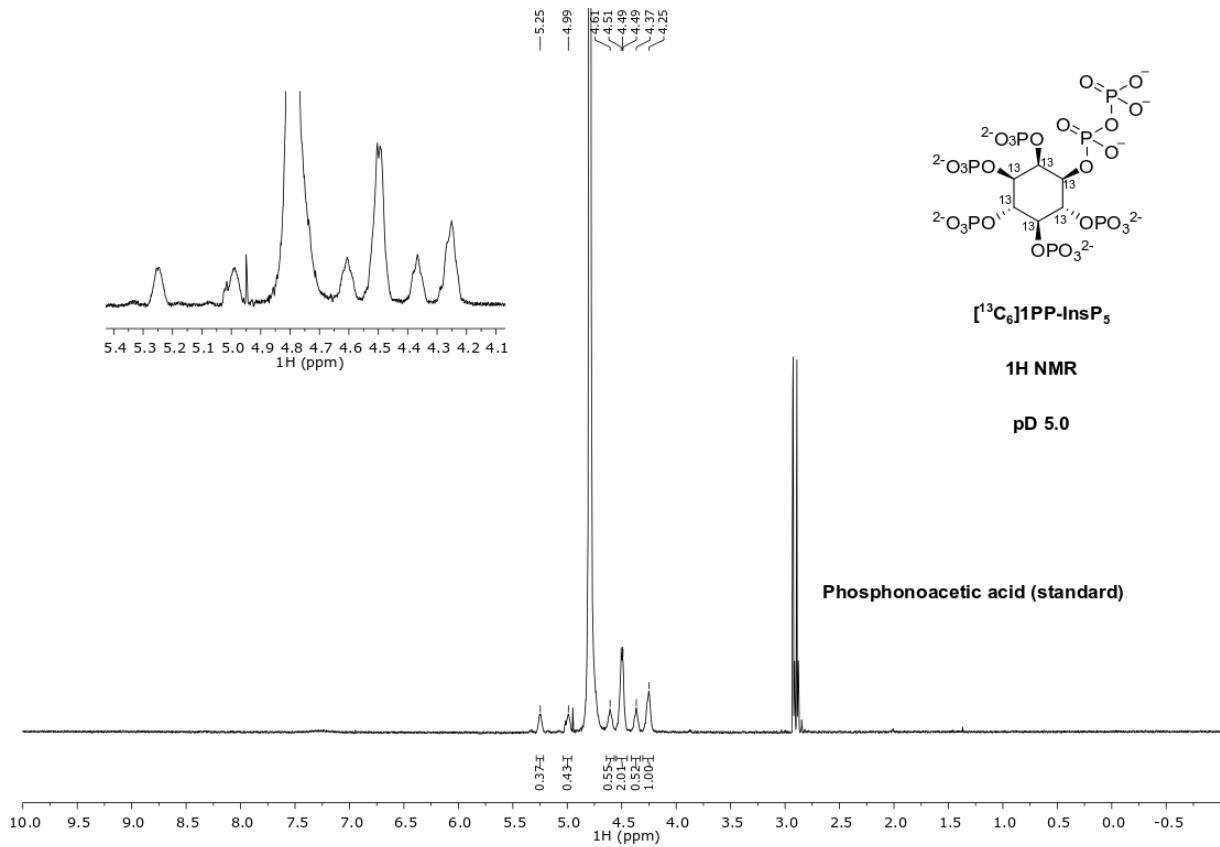
1H NMR 13C-decoupled

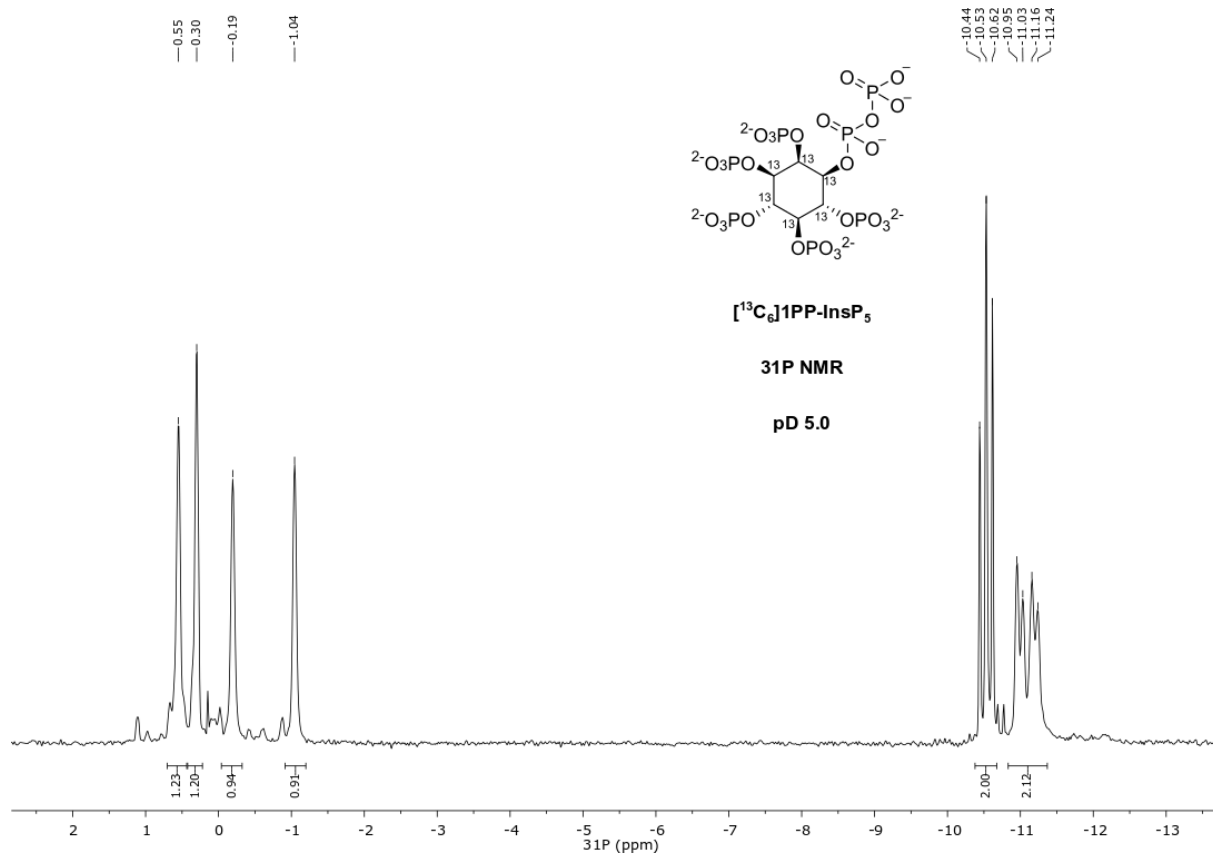
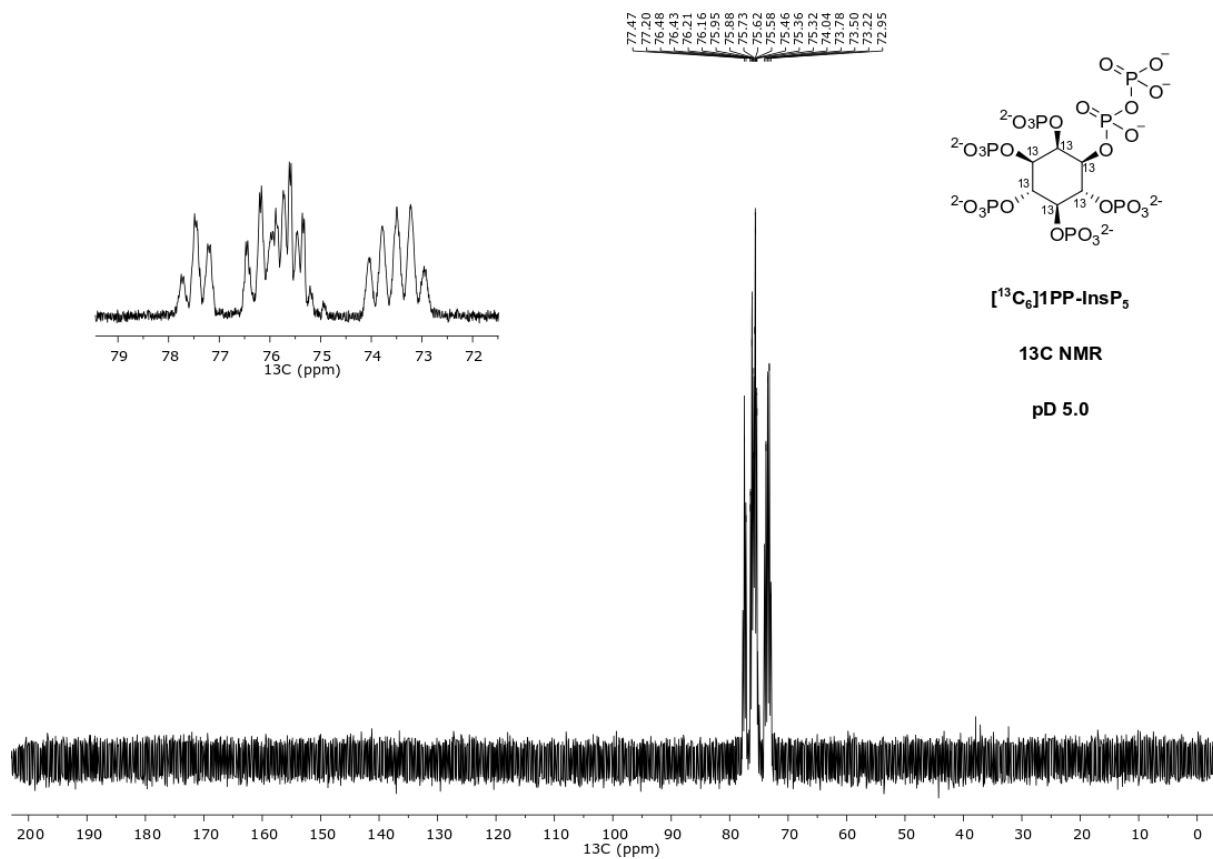
(water suppression)

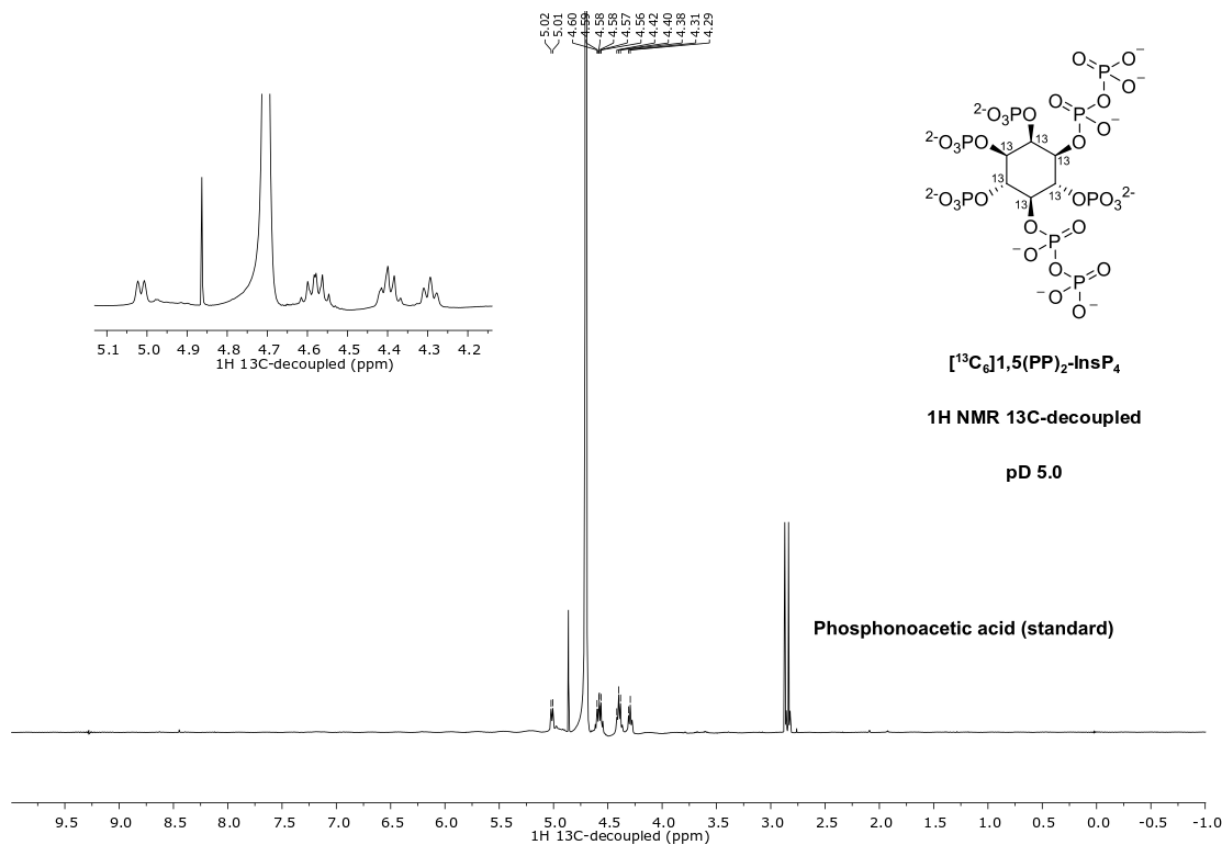
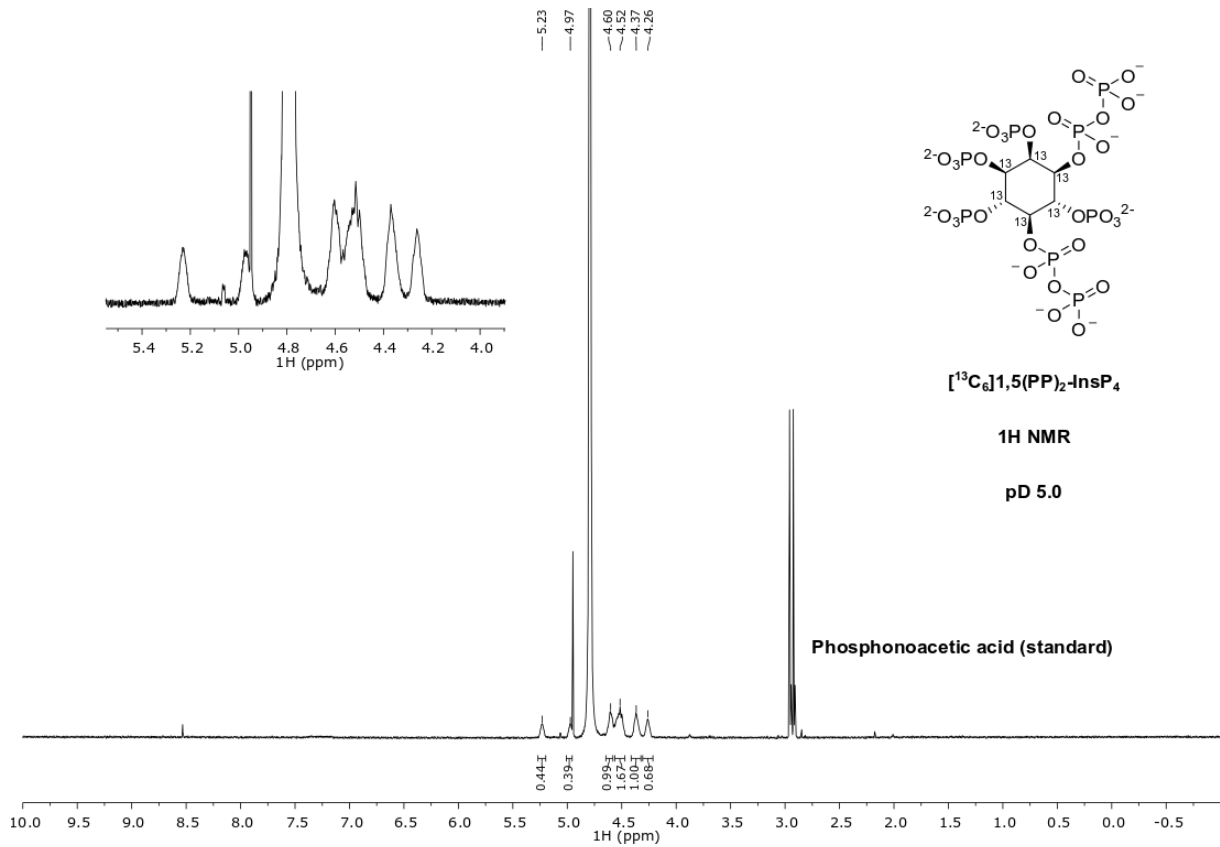
pD 7.5

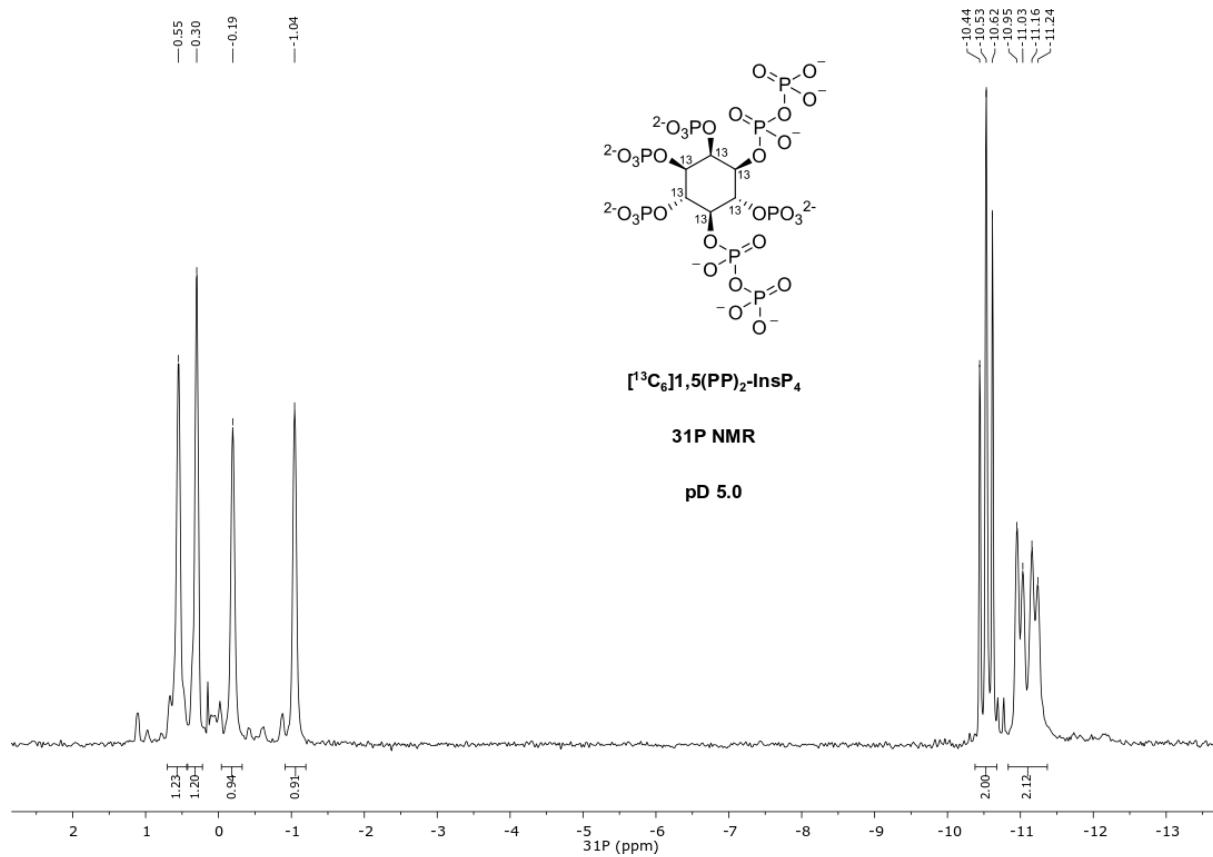
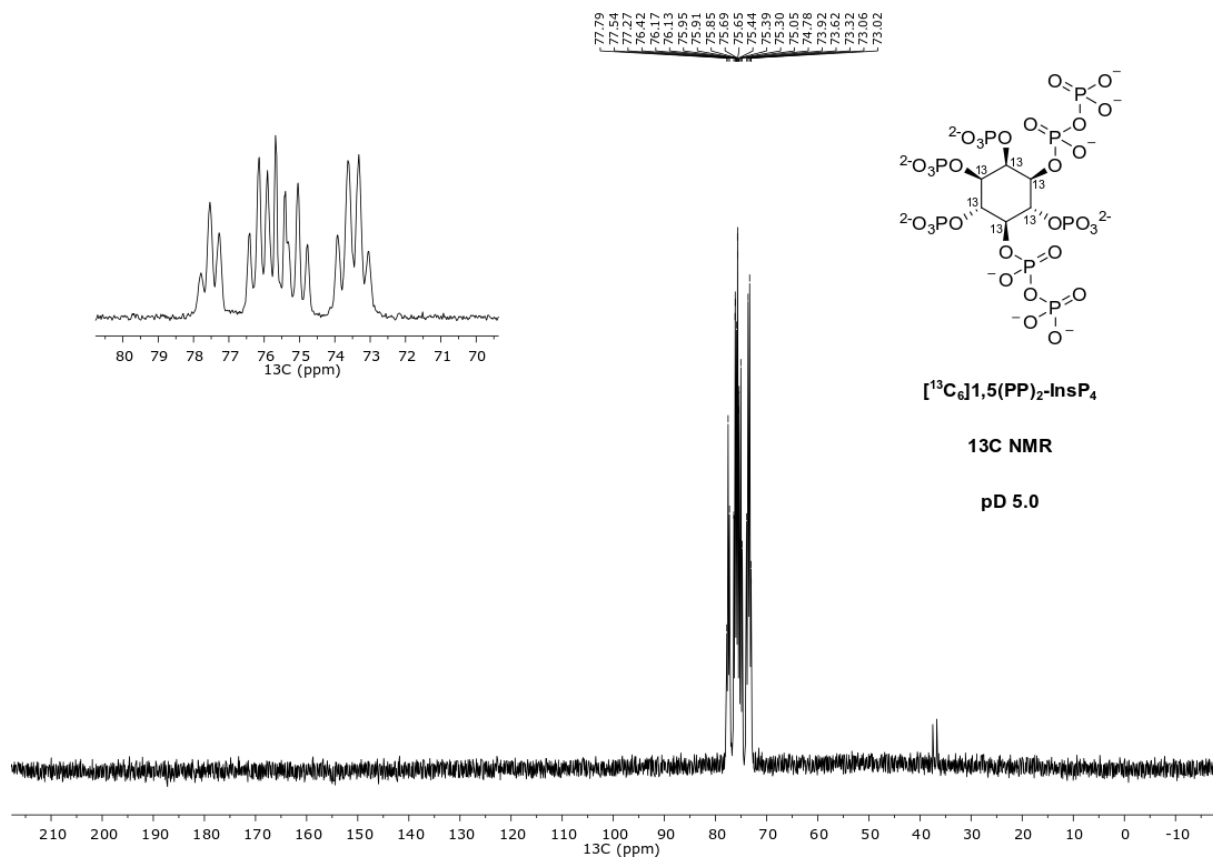












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Chapter 4 Identification of Endogenous Protein Pyrophosphorylation by Mass Spectrometry

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Project Collaborators: The projects in this chapter were performed in an intensive collaboration with Dr. J. A. M Morgan. Therefore, contributions of these authors are indicated more specifically as footnotes in the text. Preliminary enrichment experiments in *S. cerevisiae* were performed by Dr. L. Yates and Dr. J. Conway. MS was performed together with the Liu group (MS core facility; former: Krause group) by Dr. M. Nadler-Holly and Dr. M. Penkert. MS data were analyzed by Dr. M. Penkert or Dr. J. A. M. Morgan. Proteomic and phosphoproteomics experiments on *S. cerevisiae* lysates were conducted by the MS core facility. High pH fractionation was performed by Dr. J. A. M. Morgan or Dr. M. Penkert. Mammalian cell lysates were prepared by Dr. J. A. M. Morgan or by L. von Oertzen.

Introduction: Design of a Pyrophosphoproteomics Workflow

PP-InsPs transmit information *via* two distinct signaling mechanisms.^{1,2} **Figure 4.1)** They can either directly modulate protein activity by binding to positively charged domains or transfer their structurally unique β -phosphoryl group onto phosphoproteins, a process coined protein pyrophosphorylation.

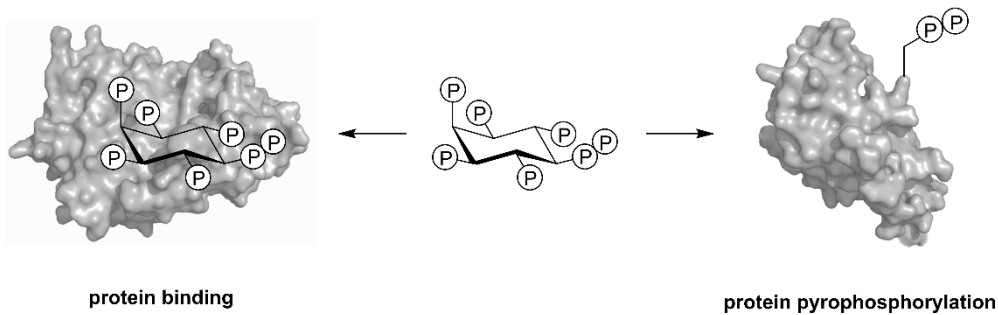


Figure 4.1: Proposed mechanisms of PP-InsP signaling. Protein binding and protein pyrophosphorylation, a covalent posttranslational modification.

Especially, the latter process is poorly understood. Radiolabeling experiments indicated that PP-InsPs could phosphorylate proteins *in vitro* and with this technique, a handful of substrates were identified.³⁻⁷ However, the existence of this posttranslational modification *in vivo* and its dependence on PP-InsPs is still under debate because there are currently no methods available to directly detect endogenous pyrophosphorylation sites. To establish the biological significance for this putative PTM, new analytical approaches must be explored that can unambiguously detect pyrophosphorylated proteins in complex samples.

Modern MS techniques have succeeded in sensitive, rapid identification and interrogation of many PTMs in a high-throughput format.^{8,9} The development of these methods required the design and optimization of bespoke proteomic workflows that overcame challenges associated with the chemical properties inherent to particular modifications. One of the best characterized modifications is protein phosphorylation.

In most cases, this PTM is investigated using a bottom-up phosphoproteomics approach.¹⁰ (**Figure 4.2**) In this process, cells are lysed and the denatured proteins are enzymatically digested into peptides with specific proteases such as trypsin, which cleaves after the C-terminus of arginine and lysine. Like many other PTMs, phosphopeptides are usually present in substoichiometric amounts as compared to the pool of non-modified peptides.

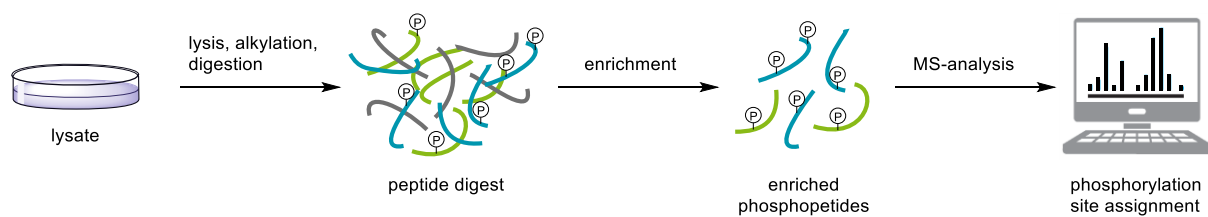


Figure 4.2: Schematic representation of the phosphoproteomics workflow. Denatured proteins are extracted from cells and enzymatically digested into peptides using specific proteases. Subsequently, the phosphopeptides are enriched and further analyzed by LC-MS/MS followed by database analysis of the obtained fragments.

In addition, the negative charge of the phosphoryl group reduces the ionization efficiency during traditional positive ion mode MS. Therefore, non-phosphorylated peptides had to be separated from tryptic digests to maximize discovery rates of phosphopeptides during MS analysis. Selective enrichment of phosphate-containing peptides is achieved by positively charged affinity reagents like IMAC or MOAC, through immunoprecipitation, chemical derivatization or chromatography.¹⁰ Finally, enriched samples are mostly fractionated based on hydrophobicity and sequenced by tandem-MS (MS/MS). Depending on the residue attached to the phosphoryl group, specific fragmentation strategies provide fingerprint fragments that enabled the identification of phosphorylated amino acids. Today, phosphoproteomic analyses of serine, threonine and tyrosine sites are highly optimized procedures and can detect several thousand phosphorylated peptides from a single biological sample.

Establishing robust phosphoproteomic workflows with MS strongly accelerated the understanding of protein phosphorylation and their regulation by kinase/phosphatase networks. An analogous procedure for unbiased identification of protein pyrophosphorylation by MS would probably have a large impact in this fairly new field. The chemical similarity of the phosphoryl- and pyrophosphoryl moiety inspired our research group to adopt the general phosphoproteomics approach to identify endogenous pyrophosphopeptides. It was expected that establishing this workflow would be even more challenging than analyzing phosphopeptides. Since protein pyrophosphorylation was shown to depend on a priming phosphorylation event, the levels of pyrophosphopeptides were expected to be substoichiometric to that of phosphopeptides.^{3,4} Furthermore, pyrophosphopeptides bear an additional negative charge and have so far been localized to polyacidic peptide fragments that further reduce ionization. Finally, the labile phosphoanhydride bond and the anticipated difficulty in distinguishing isobaric pyrophospho- from bisphosphopeptides was expected to complicate interpretation of tandem-MS data. To overcome challenges associated with pyrophosphorylated peptides, a new set of tools was developed in our group. (**Figure 4.3**)

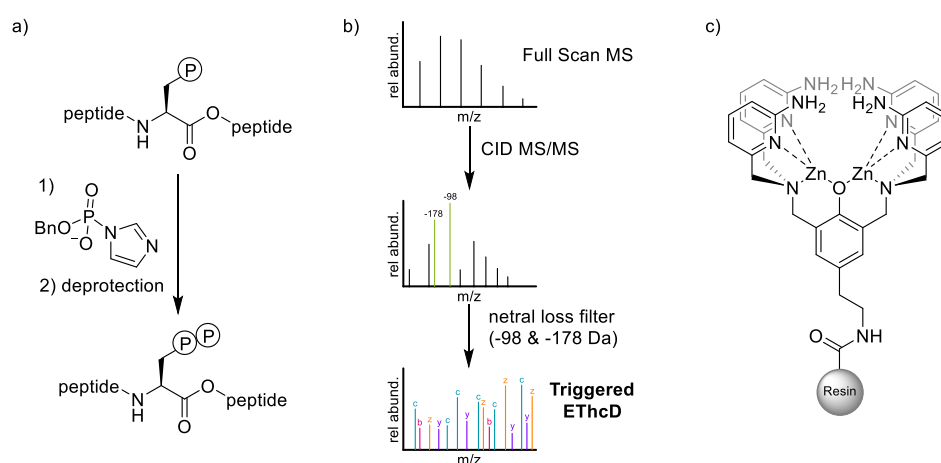


Figure 4.3: New chemical biology tools to study protein pyrophosphorylation. a) Peptide pyrophosphorylation by phosphoimidazole reagents. b) CID neutral loss triggered EThcD fragmentation to identify and sequence pyrophosphopeptides. c) Zn-DPA affinity reagent for the enrichment of pyrophosphopeptides

More specifically, a new methodology was developed to grant access to synthetic pyrophosphopeptides using phosphoimidazolid reagents.¹¹ (**Figure 4.3 a**) In turn, this allowed the study of the pyrophosphate moiety during ionization and fragmentation, and the development of tailored analysis methodologies.^{12,13} Gratifyingly, a unique neutral loss pattern (pyrophosphoric acid; m/z -178) during collision-induced dissociation (CID) fragmentation was identified that could be used to rapidly characterize pyrophosphorylated peptides. (**Figure 4.3 b**) Coupled to electron-transfer dissociation combined with higher energy collision dissociation (ETHcD) high quality MS/MS spectra were obtained that enabled unambiguous annotation of pyrophosphosites. This data driven CID-ETHcD method was later applied to identify pyrophosphorylated peptide standards spiked into HeLa protein digests where 100 fmol peptide could be reliably detected.¹² The detection sensitivity for a given pyrophosphopeptide was approximate 100-fold less than for the corresponding phosphopeptide. In parallel, pyrophosphopeptides were utilized to develop a selective enrichment method based on a Zn-DPA complex.¹⁴ (**Figure 4.3 c**) This novel affinity reagent was able to recover spiked-in pyrophosphopeptides from complex cell lysates, and showed a 30-fold stronger binding for these peptides compared to phosphopeptides. Finally, a preliminary trial to identify endogenous protein pyrophosphorylation was conducted using lysates from *S. cerevisiae* by adopting a protocol from Gygi and coworkers.¹⁵ Remarkably, high amounts of tryptic digest (6 mg) were necessary to find any evidence of sites above the limit of detection. Three pyrophosphopeptides were identified with high confidence, derived from proteins RRP5, RPA34 and PUF6. (unpublished results) The sequence of these peptides could be fully annotated *via* their representative ion series. Unfortunately, these results were not reproducible in further replicates and therefore more optimization appeared necessary to produce a stable result.

In this Chapter, we optimized the pyrophosphoproteomics workflow and detected the first endogenous protein pyrophosphorylation sites in mammalian cells. With the improved workflow, we could identify a total of 39 endogenous pyrophosphosites from 36 proteins with high confidence. While the corresponding proteins were located in a range of cellular compartments, the nucleus and cytoplasm were the two most common ones. Gene ontology analysis revealed an enrichment of RNA- and cadherin binding proteins and identified regulation of telomerase activity and ribonucleoprotein complex assembly among the top 3 enriched biological processes. Collectively, these initial results suggest a function for protein pyrophosphorylation in ribosome biogenesis, cell-cell adhesion and cell division.

Evaluation of the Initial Pyrophosphoproteomics Workflow

To reproducibly detect endogenous pyrophosphorylation sites from eukaryotic cells, we first isolated potential bottlenecks by further dissecting the pyrophosphoproteomics workflow used previously. The procedure consisted of 7 steps as depicted. (**Table 4.1**) One of the most crucial variables was the cell culture. Conceptually, to maximize the discovery of pyrophosphosites, an organism or cell line with a high degree of pyrophosphorylated proteins should be chosen as a starting point. Moreover, the pyrophosphoproteome should be kept stable to obtain reproducible results. Unfortunately, the abundance of pyrophosphorylation as well as the fluctuation of this PTM was unknown. Previous work had already successfully identified the first endogenous pyrophosphosites in *S. Cerevisiae*. Therefore, analyzing the proteome of this organism was a rational starting point.

Table 4.1: Potential bottlenecks that may hamper the detection of protein pyrophosphorylation in the first generation pyrophosphoproteomic workflow.

Entry	Step	Potential Bottlenecks
1	cell culture	low levels of pyrophosphorylated proteins
2	cell lysis	enzymatic pyrophosphate degradation
3	protein alkylation	pyrophosphate instability
4	tryptic digestion	inefficient tryptic digestion
5	peptide desalting	loss of peptides
6	Zn-DPA enrichment	no pyrophosphopeptide binding
7	enriched peptide desalting	loss of peptides

Apart from ensuring the presence of *in vivo* pyrophosphosites amenable to detection in the biological sample, we were also concerned about the stability and recovery of pyrophosphorylated peptides throughout the course of the workflow. During cell lysis and alkylation, residual phosphatase activity and elevated temperatures at pH 8.0 could possibly degrade the endogenous pyrophosphates. Seminal work from Yates *et al.* investigated the hydrolysis of pyrophosphopeptides in the presence of different buffer conditions and in *S. cerevisiae* cell lysates.¹⁶ Only minor degradation was observed in the presence of Tris at pH 7.5, even at 37 °C over 24 hours. Complete phosphatase activity in cellular lysates was however only abolished through a combination of EDTA and phosphatase inhibitor treatment. The original phosphoproteomics workflow was EDTA-free and the addition of this chelator potentially complicates subsequent steps. Therefore, we refrained from using EDTA in initial experiments as we expected no phosphatase activity under the high denaturing conditions generated by the 8 M Urea in the lysis buffer.

Improving the recovery of peptides during processing is particularly relevant to steps 4–7. The trypsin/peptide ratio and the desalting conditions were not optimized for the highly acidic sequences expected. In addition, pyrophosphopeptides could be lost due to a failed enrichment step. To control for these possible risks, we envisioned to apply pyrophosphopeptide standards during the workflow or during the validation of single steps to estimate the loss of peptides. Together, these measures should help to isolate problems of the pyrophosphoproteomics workflow and allow further optimization.

Attempts to Optimize the Pyrophosphoproteomics workflow in *S. Cerevisiae*

After assessing the possible pitfalls of the pyrophosphoproteomics workflow, fresh immobilized Zn-DPA reagent was prepared in 15 chemical steps according to a procedure from Conway *et al.* and we tested its ability to bind and elute two fluorescently labeled pyrophosphopeptides.¹⁴ About 60% of the initial peptide concentration was recovered, consistent with the literature. Secondly, we prepared three biological replicates of wild type *S. cerevisiae* and subjected these samples to proteomic and phosphoproteomic analysis. While the unmodified proteome remained very similar, there were minor differences found within phosphopeptides. These results suggested that our growth conditions produce a fairly stable background at the proteomic and phosphoproteomic levels.

Next, we applied the complete pyrophosphoproteomics workflow to one of the *S. cerevisiae* samples, but MS analysis showed low levels of peptide in this sample. We noticed that the enriched peptide desalting (step 7) included a washing step with neutral milliQ that might elute the majority of the peptides. Avoiding this step allowed the recovery of phosphorylated and unmodified peptides. Notably, MS analysis of these samples was complicated by polymer contaminations and missed tryptic

cleavage sites were commonly encountered. These problems were reduced by switching from plastic to glass tubes and raising the ratio of trypsin/protein from 1:100 to 1:20 but these changes did not lead to the identification of pyrophosphopeptides. In an attempt to identify a specific step within the proteomic workflow where highly acidic pyrophosphorylated were lost, we produced four samples where a synthetic standard (1–10 pmol) was added at four different steps: during lysis (step 2), before enrichment (before step 6); before enriched peptide desalting (before step 7); to the enriched and desalted peptide solution. We employed a modified version of the previously found PUF6, with the aim of modeling an endogenous peptide sequence but without interfering with the detection of the natural peptide. In all cases, the peptide standard could be readily detected in the final MS analysis but no endogenous pyrophosphopeptides were observed. This suggested two possibilities: either pyrophosphorylated peptides were too low in abundance compared to the synthetic standards and below the limit of detection, or the enrichment efficiency varied greatly between endogenous sequences and the PUF6 model peptide. Finally, two more samples were produced either using more lysate (6 mg instead of 1 mg), or treated with λ -phosphatase before enrichment to specifically degrade background from phosphorylated peptides. However, neither condition appeared to improve detection, as no pyrophosphopeptides were detected.

Identification of Endogenous Mammalian Pyrophosphopeptides⁶

We speculated that *S. cerevisiae* might have low levels of endogenous pyrophosphorylated proteins and turned to explore mammalian HEK293T cells instead. We enriched 6 mg of tryptic peptides with Zn-DPA affinity reagent and included the PUF6 standard during lysis. After performing the complete workflow and analyzing the output, no pyrophosphorylated peptides were detected. In a parallel approach undertaken by our collaborator at the MS core facility, Zn-DPA-enriched peptides were subjected to high pH reversed fractionation prior to LC-MS/MS.^{17,18} Remarkably, this approach removed enough background signals to identify the first pyrophosphorylated peptide from a mammalian cell line. The observed peptide sequence was derived from the dual specificity kinase 1 or 4 (CLK1/4) and the majority of the amino acids, including the pyrophosphoserine, were annotated with high confidence by the MS. **(Figure 4.4 a)** Surprisingly, the identified site was not phosphorylated by CK2 which was previously reported for all *in vitro* characterized pyrophosphoproteins. Currently, there are no reports of other kinases modifying this site. Instead CLK proteins are known to widely autophosphorylate itself and this could be a potential priming phosphorylation in this case.¹⁹ No function has been associated with phosphorylation at this site, despite it being among the most prevalent phosphosites observed in CLK1/4 by phosphoproteomics experiments. Finally, a crystal structure of CLK1 was published that located two phosphorylated residues, one at the identified position of the proteomic analysis and a second one immediately adjacent.²⁰ **(Figure 4.4 b)** Interestingly, the phosphoserine is in close proximity to the active site and

⁶ hSAX fractionation was developed and performed by Dr. J. A. M. Morgan. Optimization of the residual workflow was performed by R. K. Harmel including the IMAC or Zn-DPA enrichment in combination with hSAX. Preliminary experiments with λ -phosphatase treatment were performed by R. K. Harmel. Further optimization including λ -phosphatase treatment and SIMAC enrichment, and identification of the residual 32 sites was performed by Dr. J. A. M. Morgan.

pyrophosphorylation potentially results in a clash with substrate suggesting a putative function in kinase inhibition.

a)

C ⁺	Seq.	Z ⁺¹
117,10224	V	
216,17065	V	2381,93229
331,19760	D	2282,86388
478,26601	F	2167,83694
535,28747	G	2020,76852
622,31950	S	1963,74706
693,35662	A	1876,71503
794,40429	T	1805,67792
957,46762	Y	1704,63024
1072,49457	D	1541,56691
1187,52151	D	1426,53997
1316,56410	E	1311,51302
1453,62301	H	1182,47043
1590,68193	H	1045,41152
1677,71395	S	908,35261
1778,76163	T	821,32058
1891,84570	L	720,27290
1990,91411	V	607,18884
2237,87880	S-pyropho	508,12042
2338,92648	T	261,15573
	R	160,10805

b)

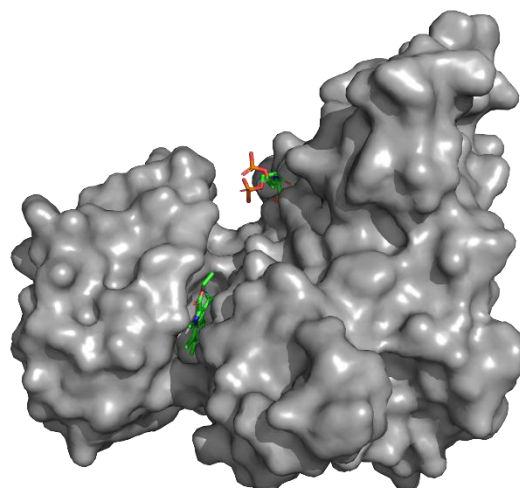


Figure 4.4: Analysis of CLK1/4 pyrophosphosite. a) Observed C⁺ and Z⁺¹ series for pyrophosphorylated peptide of CLK1/4. Colored m/z values were detected. b) Crystal structure of CLK1 reported by Knapp and coworkers.²⁰

Encouraged by these results, the fractionation method was further optimized, and we switched to a hydrophilic hSAX column with NH₄HCO₂ buffer at pH 9 that was suitable to enrich highly acidic peptides. Combining this method with Zn-DPA enrichment, the identification of CLK1/4 was reproduced in a second biological replicate and additionally, a peptide originating from mitochondrial structural protein and transcription factor MICOS complex subunit (MIC19) was identified. The hSAX chromatography significantly reduced background signals during the MS analysis and therefore we reconsidered traditional IMAC as replacement for Zn-DPA and prepared two samples for a direct comparison.²¹ In the IMAC enriched sample we found only CLK1 but the ion intensity was approximately 10 fold higher compared to the Zn-DPA enriched sample. By contrast, the Zn-DPA displayed 6 hits that were confidently

assigned as pyrophosphopeptides. This comparison suggested to us that recovery of the peptide was less important than its enrichment and separation from background phosphopeptides. To obtain more hits in a single pyrophosphoproteomics experiment, the workflow was further optimized. (**Figure 4.5**) More sites were observed by raising the amount of mammalian cell lysate to 20 mg. Previously, our group showed that phosphorylated peptides were readily dephosphorylated in the presence of λ -phosphatase while pyrophosphorylated peptides were not affected.¹⁶ Therefore, an incubation step with λ -phosphatase was included which significantly improved data quality. This effect was probably due to the removal of a significant number of phosphopeptides and the depletion of phosphorylation sites close to pyrophosphorylation sites which complicate analysis. In the enrichment step, sequential IMAC (SIMAC) spin columns offered the best results.

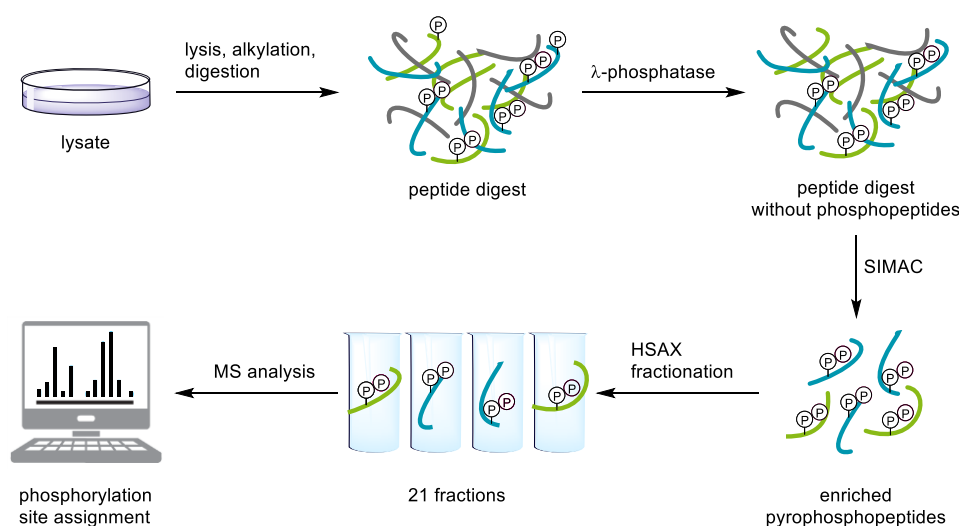


Figure 4.5: Optimized pyrophosphoproteomics workflow. A peptide digest is isolated from mammalian cells by lysis, alkylation and enzymatic digestion. Treatment with λ -phosphatase strongly reduces phosphopeptides followed by enrichment of the pyrophosphopeptides using SIMAC. hSAX fractionation produces 21 fractions that are individually analyzed by LC-MS/MS.

Compared to traditional IMAC this techniques includes an additional elution step to separate monophosphorylated from multiphosphorylated peptides.²² Pyrophosphorylated peptides were eluted in the basic elution step and background from phosphorylated peptides was reduced. Finally, the buffer for the hSAX fractionation was changed to $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_2$ at pH 9 to minimize the amount of salt after lyophilization. Notably, the low content in fractionated samples eliminated the need for the final desalting step, further reducing the risk of peptide loss during the workflow.

Analysis of Identified Pyrophosphorylated Proteins

With the improved pyrophosphoproteomics workflow we were able to identify 5–15 pyrophosphorylated peptides from HEK293 or HCT116 cell lysates in a single analysis, and together, 39 sites among 36 proteins were found. (**Appendix: Table 4.2, Table 4.3**) These include therapeutically interesting examples such as tau protein, histone deacetylase 2 (HDAC2), phosphohistidine kinase NME1 and the chaperone HSP90. The most common hit within all samples so far remained CLK1/4. It was the only protein that was consistently found in all our optimization attempts. An abundant pyrophosphorylation site in CLK1/4 may be promoted through its ability to install the priming phosphorylation by its autophosphorylation activity.¹⁹ This modification is likely to occur at a high stoichiometry as it is independent of the interaction with other kinases. In contrast, prephosphorylation of most target sites was dependent on CK2 and CDK1 (cyclin dependent kinase 1) . Even though the initial list of hits was relatively short, identification of the consensus sequence and gene ontology analysis was performed.²³ (**Figure 4.6**)

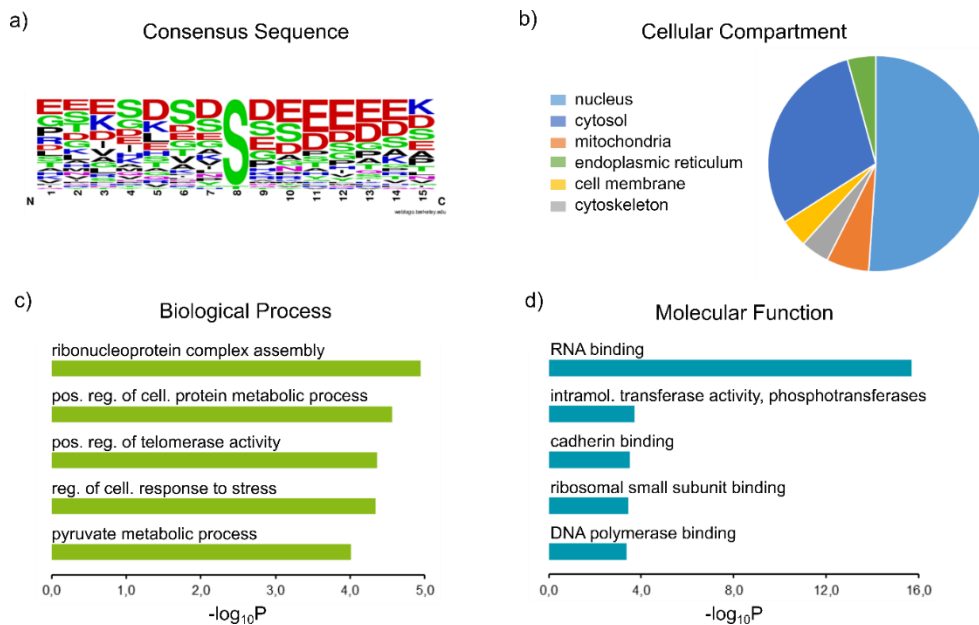


Figure 4.6: Sequence and gene ontology analysis of pyrophosphoproteins. a) Consensus sequence. b) Distribution of proteins among cellular compartments. c) GO analysis of biological processes. d) GO analysis of molecular function.

The consensus sequence revealed serine residues enclosed in a highly acidic environment, consistent with sites previously identified in biochemical assays via mutagenesis. (**Figure 4.6 a**) Furthermore, protein pyrophosphorylation was not specific to a certain group of proteins and occurred in a range of cellular compartments but mostly in the nucleus and the cytosol suggesting a fundamental role of this modification in cell signaling. Gene ontology analysis showed an enrichment of biological processes such as ribonucleoprotein complex assembly and regulation of telomerase activity, and among the top enriched molecular functions was binding to cadherin and RNA.²³ These data suggested that protein pyrophosphorylation is involved in ribosome biogenesis, cell-cell adhesion and cell division.

Conclusion and Outlook

Posttranslational phosphorylation of proteins is a highly regulated process that governs many biological processes and is an integral part of signal transduction. Consequently, powerful proteomic workflows have been developed to grant thorough analyses of this PTM. Here, the development and optimization of a pyrophosphoproteomic approach was described and the first endogenous mammalian pyrophosphopeptides were identified. Current efforts have accumulated a list of 38 endogenous targets of pyrophosphorylation and gene ontology analysis revealed a putative function in ribosome biogenesis, cell-cell adhesion and cell division.

Future work will be directed towards further optimizing the workflow. In particular, the reproducibility within technical and biological triplicates need to be addressed to create consistency. If we want to understand the biological function of this PTM, cells that are either treated differently or possess different genetic backgrounds need to be compared, ideally using SILAC to quantify differences. Unless background variability can be distinguished from experimentally-induced change, a meaningful interpretation of these data will be elusive.

Mechanistically, protein pyrophosphorylation is not well understood yet. Currently, it is unclear whether PP-InsPs are responsible for protein pyrophosphorylation *in vivo*. Genetic knockouts are useful tools to correlate PP-InsP levels with changes in pyrophosphoprotein content, and depletion or increase of intracellular PP-InsP concentrations is expected to result in a response on the PTM level with a similar trend. To further understand the impact of pyrophosphorylation on the structure and function of modified proteins, it is of utmost importance to pick pyrophosphoproteins from our current data set and characterize their properties with respect to unmodified- and phosphoproteins *in vitro*. To this end, our group recently

established a procedure to produce pyrophosphoproteins by combining the expression of phosphoproteins with genetic code expansion followed by pyrophosphorylation with phosphoimidazolide reagents.²⁴

Finally, to further understand the regulation of protein pyrophosphorylation, factors that facilitate the introduction and removal of this modification need to be assessed. Previously, pyrophosphopeptides were reported to be degraded by several unspecific phosphatases *in vitro* and within *S. cerevisiae* and HeLa lysates suggesting reversibility of protein pyrophosphorylation.²⁵ Identification of a putative pyrophosphatase could be achieved by activity enrichment or proteomic pulldowns with identified pyrophosphopeptides and would uncover new functional aspects of protein pyrophosphorylation. Genetic knockout of the pyrophosphatase potentially leads to a massive increase in protein pyrophosphorylation, further enhancing the detectability of this PTM. Analogous to phosphatases, substrate-trapping pyrophosphatases might be prepared through mutation of the catalytic residues to alanine and used a highly selective enrichment strategy for pyrophosphopeptides.^{26,27}

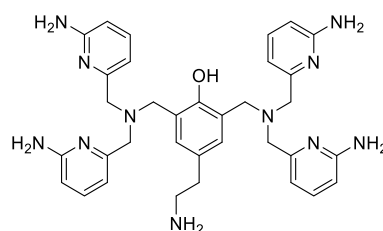
Taken together, our novel pyrophosphoproteomics workflow will significantly aid the identification and the understanding of protein pyrophosphorylation and – assuming PP-InsPs install this modification – identify new intersections of PP-InsPs within metabolism and signaling networks.

Methods

General Information

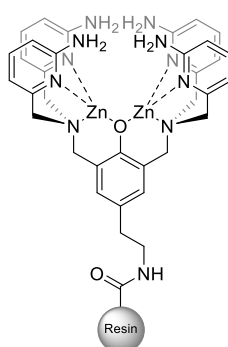
Please see method section of chapter 2.

Chemical Synthesis of Zn-DPA Resin



DPA ligand was synthesized in 13 steps starting described before by Conway and Fiedler.¹⁴ Analytical data were identical with the values reported in the literature.

¹H NMR (300 MHz, Deuterium Oxide, pD 7.0) δ 7.53 (dd, J = 8.9, 7.3 Hz, 4H), 6.68 (s, 2H), 6.58 (dd, J = 14.5, 8.1 Hz, 9H), 3.76 (s, 8H), 3.55 (s, 4H), 2.88 (dd, J = 10.7, 6.3 Hz, 2H), 2.58 (dd, J = 10.8, 6.2 Hz, 2H).



Zn-DPA resin was synthesized in 2 steps starting described before by Conway and Fiedler.¹⁴ Immobilization was followed by disappearance of starting material in LC-MS spectra. Zn²⁺ was freshly loaded right before use.

Yeast Cell Culture and Harvest

S. cerevisiae cells were prepared according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ Wild type *S. cerevisiae* cells were grown on an agar plate overnight at 30 °C. One colony was picked, suspended in YPDA medium and incubated at 30 °C while shaking. The next day, cells were diluted to an OD_{600nm} of 0.1 and grown over 5–6 to mid-log phase (OD_{600nm} = 0.600–0.700) at 30 °C. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 3,500 g for 10 min at 4 °C. The pellet was rinsed with 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.50; 10.0 mL) and isolated by centrifugation at 3,200 g for 5 min at 4 °C. 1 L of culture gave approximately 100 mg of undigested protein.

Mammalian Cell Culture and Harvest

HCT116 or HEK293T cells were grown according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ Cells were grown in 15 cm dishes in DMEM supplemented with FBS and Penicillin/Streptomycin at 37 °C and 5 % CO₂. Cells were split at 70 % confluency 1:10 and distributed on 5–10 plates and grown until they reached 80–90% confluency. For harvesting, cells were washed with PBS and 0.9 % NaCl solution, and trypsinized. The trypsin was quenched with DMEM. The cells were collected and washed two more times with PBS before lysis and extraction. One 15 cm dish of culture gave approximately 10 mg of undigested protein.

Yeast Lysate Preparation

S. cerevisiae lysate was prepared according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ To prepare yeast lysates, two EDTA-free protease inhibitor cOmplete tablet (Roche Life Sciences) was added to the mass spec (MS) lysis buffer containing phosphatase inhibitors (8 M urea, 75 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris (pH 8.2), 50 mM NaF, 50 mM β -glycerophosphate, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM PMSF; 10.0 mL) at 4 °C. All steps of the lysis were performed at 4 °C. The cell pellets of 50 mL media were treated with the MS lysis solution (300 μ L lysis buffer per cell pellet), and mixed by vortexing. The cell suspension (300 μ L) was transferred to screw-capped tubes, and glass beads were added. The cells were lysed by bead beating (Precellys Evolution, Bertin Technologies) at 6500 rpm using 2 cycles of 15s with 1 min pause in between cycles. After the lysis was complete, a hole was poked in the bottom of the tubes, and the sample was removed from the glass beads by centrifugation at 16,000 g for 1 min. Cellular debris was removed by centrifugation at 16,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was removed, and the protein concentration was determined by BCA kit (Pierce).

Mammalian Lysate Preparation

HCT116 or HEK293T lysates were prepared according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ To prepare mammalian lysates, one EDTA-free protease inhibitor cOmplete tablet (Roche Life Sciences) was added to the mass spec (MS) lysis buffer containing phosphatase inhibitors (8 M urea, 75 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris (pH 8.2), 1 mM NaF, 1 mM β -glycerophosphate, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 1 mM PMSF; 10.0 mL) at 4 °C. All steps of the lysis were performed at 4 °C. Cells in 15 cm dishes were washed with ice cold PBS (5 mL). After aspiration of the PBS, lysis buffer was added and the cells chilled for 10 min at 4 °C and the cells were scraped off by a

cell lifter and collected into 15 mL conical tube. Sonication of 3 × 1 min with 2 min rests at 15 % output was applied during lysis and cellular debris could be removed by 2,500 g for 10 min. The supernatant was collected, and the protein concentration was determined by BCA kit (Pierce).

Protein Reduction and Alkylation

Reduction and alkylation was performed according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ To reduce and alkylate the proteins in the lysate, 5 mM DTT (50 µL of a 100 mM frozen stock) was added to each 1 mL lysate aliquot, and the samples were incubated at 56 °C. After incubation for 25 min, the samples were removed and cooled to room temperature. 14 mM iodoacetamide was added to each 1 mL aliquot, and the samples were incubated at room temperature in the dark for 30 min. The samples were then quenched with another portion of DTT (10 mM final concentration) and incubated for 15 min at room temperature in the dark.

Tryptic Protein Digestion

Tryptic digestion was performed according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ For the trypsin digestion of the lysate, sequencing grade modified trypsin (Promega, cat. V5111) was used. The reduced and alkylated samples were diluted 1:5 in 25 mM Tris pH 8.0. To each sample was added 1 mM CaCl₂ and trypsin at a ratio of 1:50 protease to protein from the lysate (as determined by BCA protein concentration). The samples were incubated overnight at 37 °C with agitation. After 14–16 hours, the samples were removed and cooled to room temperature.

Desalting of Tryptic Peptides

Desalting of tryptic peptides was performed according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ Neat TFA to a final concentration of 0.4% was added to each sample, which was spun for 10 min at 2,500 g to remove any cellular debris. For the peptide desalting step 500 mg Waters C18 SepPak cartridges was used (up to 10 mg loaded). The Waters C18 SepPak was washed with MeCN (9 mL) and then with 3 mL of 50% MeCN in H₂O with 0.5% AcOH. The column was equilibrated with 0.1% TFA in H₂O (9 mL) and then loaded with the trypsinized peptide samples in 0.4% TFA in H₂O. The column was washed with 0.1% TFA in H₂O (9 mL) to desalt the peptides. The counter-ion was exchanged by a final wash with 0.5% AcOH in H₂O (900 µL). Peptides were eluted with 5–6 mL of 50% MeCN in H₂O with 0.5% AcOH. The eluent was concentrated by freeze-drying to isolate the peptides as a white to off-white solid. (For 10 mg of undigested protein we usually obtained 6–7 mg of desalted tryptic digest.)

Desalting of Zn-DPA and IMAC Enriched Peptides

Desalting of Zn-DPA or IMAC enriched peptides was performed according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ Elution fractions from IMAC or Zn-DPA were combined and acidified (pH < 2) by the addition of 10% formic acid for desalting by an Oasis HLB column. For the optimized workflow, the acidified elution fraction was then desalted using a 10 mg 1 cc Oasis HLB cartridge. The Oasis HLB column was conditioned with MeOH (1 mL) and then equilibrated with H₂O (1 mL). The acidified sample was loaded onto the cartridge, and the sample was washed with 5% formic acid in H₂O (1 mL). The peptides were eluted with 5% NH₄OH in 50% MeOH in H₂O (1 mL). The eluent was concentrated by freeze-drying to yield the enriched peptides that can be directly resuspended for mass spectrometry analysis.

Zn-DPA Enrichment

Zn-DPA enrichment was performed according to Conway et al.¹⁴ To begin the enrichment procedure with the Zn-DPA resin, the incubation buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 100 mM KCl), Pi wash buffer (1 mM Pi in incubation buffer), and PPI elution buffer (5 mM PPI in incubation buffer) were prepared. Resin loading as determined by proton NMR was between 1.0 and 1.7 $\mu\text{mol/mL}$. All steps of the enrichment were carried out at 4 °C. Zn-DPA resin slurry (200 μL , ~200–300 nmol) was transferred to Eppendorf tubes (1 tubes for ~6.5 mg of desalted tryptic peptides). The resin was washed with incubation buffer (3 \times 500 μL) and spun at 3,000 g for 3 minutes to precipitate resin. The supernatant was removed and discarded. The Zn-DPA resin was incubated with fresh ZnBr_2 (10 mM, 26.1 mg in 10 mL incubation buffer) for 10 minutes with agitation. The samples were spun, and the supernatant was discarded. The resin was washed with incubation buffer (2 \times 950 μL). The samples were spun, and the supernatant was discarded. 1 mL of tryptic digested peptides (6.5 mg/mL) in incubation buffer were added to each 200–300 nmol resin portion and agitated for 1 hour. The samples were spun at 3,000 g for 3 minutes, and the supernatant was saved as the flow-through containing non-phosphorylated peptides. The resin was washed with incubation buffer (2 \times 950 μL), spun, and the supernatant was discarded. 1 mM Pi wash buffer (500 μL) was added to the resin, and the samples were incubated for 10 minutes with mixing. The samples were spun, and the supernatant was saved. The Pi wash step was repeated 2 times. The pyrophosphorylated peptides were then eluted from the resin by treating the Zn-DPA reagent with 5 mM PPI elution buffer (500 μL) and mixing for 10 minutes. The samples were spun at 3,000 g for 3 minutes, and the supernatant was saved as the elution fraction. The PPI elution step was repeated once.

IMAC Enrichment

IMAC enrichment was performed according to Villen and Gygi.²¹ The binding buffer contains 40% MeCN in H₂O with 25 mM formic acid. The elution buffer contained 50 mM K₂HPO₄, pH adjusted to 10 with NH₄OH. All steps of this enrichment will be conducted at room temperature. IMAC beads (3 × 120 μL for 3.4 mg of tryptic peptide) are washed with 1.2 mL of binding buffer and will be spun at 10,000 rpm for 30 sec to precipitate beads. The supernatant will be removed, and this step will be repeated 3 times. After the last wash supernatant will be removed, each bead portion is resuspended in 120 μL of binding buffer to make a 50% resin slurry. 120 μL of the slurry will be added to Eppendorf tubes and then treated with 1 mL of tryptic digested peptides in binding buffer (6.5 mg peptide in 1 mL of binding buffer, 6.5 mg/mL concentration). The samples will be incubated with agitation for 60 minutes. At the completion of the incubation, the samples will be spun at 10,000 rpm for 2 minutes, and the supernatant will be removed containing the non-phosphorylated peptides. The resin is washed (3 × 720 μL) with binding buffer. The peptides are eluted from the resin using the elution buffer (3 × 240 μL). The elution fractions will be combined, and further desalted.

SIMAC Enrichment

SIMAC enrichment was performed with A 'High-Select™ Fe-NTA Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit' from Thermo. The digest from the previous step was dissolved in SIMAC loading buffer (1348 µl, 0.1% TFA, 50% ACN). 800 µl (20 mg) of the digest solution was loaded onto 4 supplied spin columns (4 columns used in total, 200 µl loading per column) and the manufacturer's protocol followed with minor adjustments. (The remaining digest solution was frozen at -80 and lyophilized.)

Spin column equilibration: Remove the bottom closure and loosen screw cap. The column was placed in a 2 mL microcentrifuge tube and storage buffer was removed at 1,000 g for 30 sec. Remove the screw cap and save it for "Bind phosphopeptides" step 2. Add 200 µL of Binding/Wash Buffer. Centrifuge at 1000 × g for 30 seconds and discard the flowthrough. Repeat this step once. Cap the bottom of the column with a white Luer plug. Place the column with the plug into the empty microcentrifuge tube.

Bind phosphopeptides: Add 200 µL of the suspended peptide sample to the equilibrated spin column. Close the screw cap. Mix the resin with the sample by holding the screw cap and very gently tapping the bottom plug for 10 seconds until the resin is insuspension. Do not vortex or invert the column to avoid splashing the resin inside the column wall. (Note: Mixing samples by vortexing or inversion results in significantly higher nonspecific peptide binding.) Incubate for 30 minutes. Mix the resin gently every 10 minutes as described in step 2. Carefully remove the bottom plug and the screw cap. (Note: Do not squeeze the bottom of the plug during removal as liquid inside the plug can backflow into the spin column.) Place the column into the microcentrifuge tube. Centrifuge at 1000 × g for 30 seconds. Discard the flow through.

Wash column: Wash column by adding 200 µL of Binding/Wash Buffer. Centrifuge at 1000 × g for 30 seconds. Repeat this step two additional times for a total of 3 washes.

Discard the flowthrough. Wash column by adding 200 μ L of LC-MS grade water. Centrifuge at 1000 \times g for 30 seconds. Wash with SIMAC buffer A (1% TFA, 20% MeCN, 2 \times 100 μ L).

Elute column: Place column in a new microcentrifuge tube. Add 100 μ L SIMAC buffer B (10 mL of 25% $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$ in 500 mL MilliQ, 0.5%). Centrifuge at 1000 \times g for 30 seconds. Repeat this step once. (Note: Resin color may turn brown, but this is normal.) Combine eluents from all column in a 2 mL low binding tube, flash freeze and lyophilize.

λ -Phosphatase Treatment

Using a NEB λ –phosphatase kit, the desalted protein digest from the previous step were dissolved in 5 ml of reaction buffer (homemade, 50 mM HEPES, 100 mM NaCl, 2 mM DTT, 0.01% Brij 35) and treated with 40000 units of λ –phosphatase (10000 units per 10 mg) in a 50 ml falcon tube. The sample was incubated at 37°C at 300 RPM for 5 hours in a heater shaker. The sample was then desalted. Neat TFA was added (0.4%, 40 μ L), the pH checked (less than pH 2), and the sample spun for 10 min at 2,500 g to remove any cellular debris. For the peptide desalting step, one 500 mg Waters tC18 SepPak cartridge were used (38 mg/ 5 ml loading per cartridge). Air pressure was used speed up washing and elution steps but was not used during the loading steps. The SepPak columns were washed with MeCN (9 mL) and then with 3 mL of 50% MeCN in H₂O with 0.5% AcOH. The columns were equilibrated with 0.1% TFA in H₂O (9 mL) and then loaded with the peptide samples in 0.4% TFA in H₂O. The column was washed with 0.1% TFA in H₂O (9 mL) to desalt the peptides. The counter-ion was exchanged by a final wash with 0.5% AcOH in H₂O (1 mL). Peptides were eluted with 6 mL of 50% MeCN in H₂O with 0.5% AcOH sequentially into 15 ml

falcon tubes, with 15-20 min equilibration time before air pressure was used to elute. The eluent was combined in a single 50 ml falcon tube and freeze-dried to isolate the peptides as a white solid.

hSAX fractionation

Enriched samples were fractionated on a hSAX column (dionex ionpac As24) using an Agilent 1260 Infinity Quaternary analytical HPLC system with quaternary solvent delivery system, an auto sampler, a diode-array detector, and a fraction collector. Buffer A: 20 mM $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$ pH 9.0, 20% MeCN. Buffer B: 500 mM $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$ pH 9.0, 1% MeCN. Gradient: 0% B for 5 min, 0–50% B from 5–65 min, 50–100% B from 65–95 min, 100% B from 95–105 min.

The lyophilized and enriched peptides were dissolved in 100 μL buffer A and fractionated in one HPLC run using a gradient depicted and collecting 21 fraction (5 min per fraction). The fractions were flash frozen and lyophilized and handed to the MS corefacility.

LC-MS/MS

LC-MS/MS was performed based on Penkert *et al.*¹² Prior to every measured sequence of samples, the trapping and analytical column was flushed with 0.1% citric acid in 1% acetonitrile to chelate any residual metal ions. For LC-MS/MS experiments, enriched peptides were dissolved in water and analyzed by a reversed-phase capillary liquid chromatography system (Dionex Ultimate3000 NCS-3500RS Nano, Thermo Scientific, San Jose, CA) connected to a Thermo Scientific Orbitrap Fusion massspectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). LC separation was performed on an in-

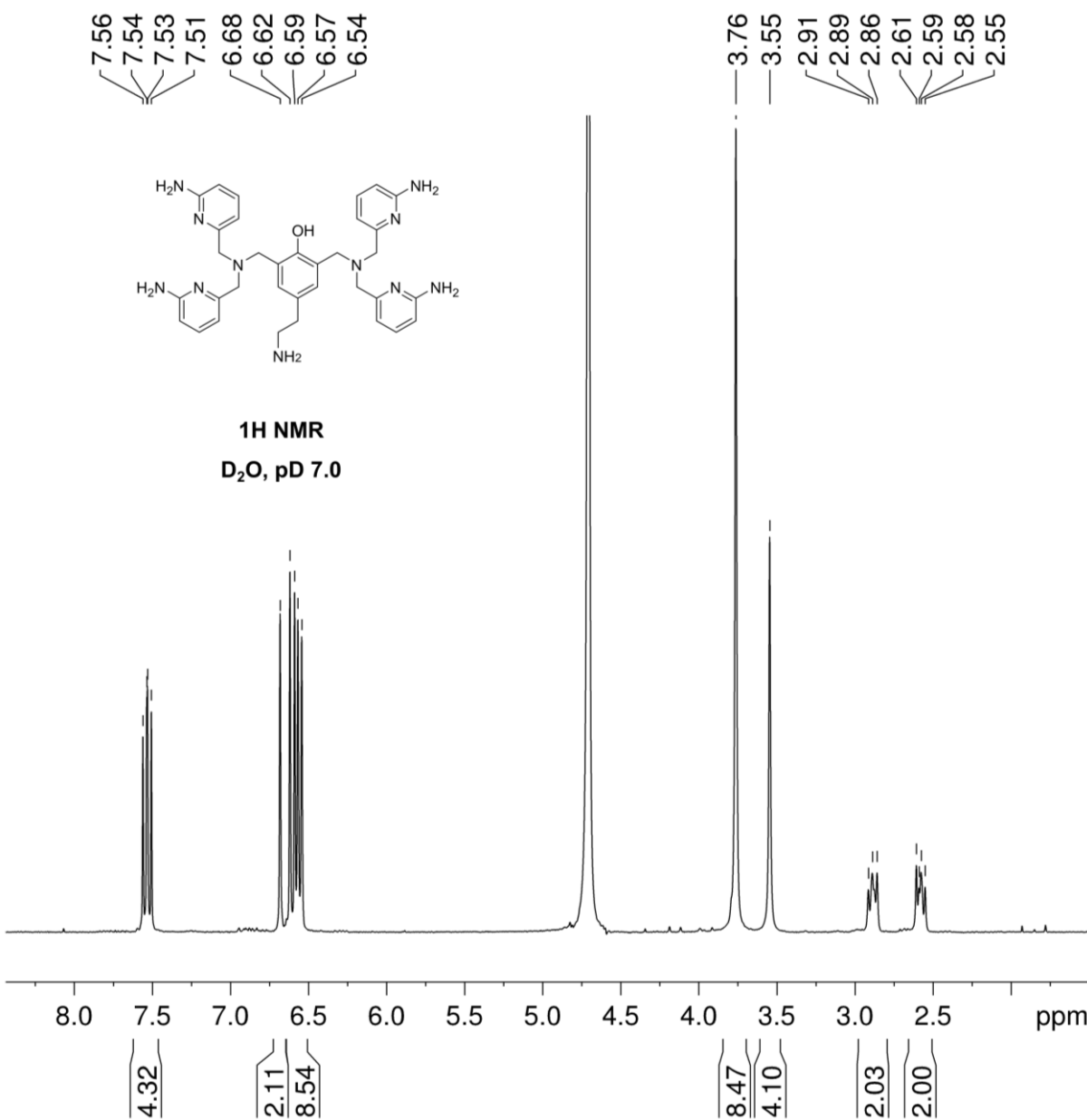
house packed 75 μ m inner diameter Pico Tip column (25 cm) packed with ReproSil-Pur C18AQ particles, 3 μ m, 120 Å (Dr. Maisch, Germany). The flow rate was 200 nL/min using gradient of 2–30% B in 60 min. Mobile phase solvent A contained 0.1% formic acid in water, and mobile phase solvent B contained 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile.

Mass spectra were acquired in data dependent acquisition mode with a FT survey scan in the range from 350 to 1500 m/z at a resolution of 120 000 (full width at half-maximum, fwhm). The maximum injection time for MS scans was set to 50 ms and the AGC target value, to 2×10^5 . Doubly and triply charged precursor ions were selected with precursor priority to the higher charge state. Precursor ions were isolated with a mass selecting quadrupole within an isolation window of 1.6m/z. Dynamic exclusion was enabled with an exclusion interval of 10 or 40 s. CID MS/MS scans were performed with a normalized collision energy of 25% and an AGC target value of 5×10^3 . MS/MS spectra were acquired in the ion trap with a maximum injection time of 50 ms. If neutral losses of 49 and 89 m/z from doubly charged precursor ions were measured above a threshold of 15% and belonged to the five most abundant ions, an additional EThcD spectrum of the same precursor ions was acquired. If triply charged precursor ions showed neutral losses of 32.7 and 59.3 m/z during CID fragmentation, an additional EThcD scan was only performed if the observed signals exhibit relative intensities above 15% and were ranked among the 6 most intense signals. EThcD spectra were measured in the Orbitrap with a resolution of 15 000 and the maximum accumulation time for an AGC target value of 1×10^5 was set to 1 s. Calibrated charge dependent ETD parameters were used for the ETD process, and HCD supplemental activation was enabled. SA collision energy was set to 50% for charge state 2 and between 25% and 30% for charge state 3 (calculated on m/z and charge state of the precursor ion).

MS/MS data analysis

MS/MS data analysis was performed based on Penkert *et al.*¹² MS raw data were analyzed with Proteome Discoverer 2.1 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). To simplify EThcD spectra, the nonfragment filter was used with the following parameters: Precursor ions and charged reduced precursors were removed within a 4 Da window and neutral losses within a 2 Da window. MS/MS spectra were searched against the Yeast proteome data base using SEQUEST or Mascot (Matrix, Science, UK). Up to two missed cleavages were allowed for protease digestion with trypsin. Precursor mass tolerance and fragment mass deviation was set to 10 ppm and 20 mmu, respectively. Oxidation of methionine, phosphorylation (STY), pyrophosphorylation (S,T), and carbamidomethyl (C) were searched as variable modifications. Results were filtered with the Target Decoy PSM Validator and a Target false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.01 at peptide identification level. EThcD MS/MS spectra of pyrophosphorylated peptides were additionally, manually verified. Manual verification was performed considering potential gas-phase rearrangements to other phosphoacceptors, the degree of neutral loss of labile modifications, the sequence coverage of the peptide, and the signal-to-noise ratio.

NMR Spectra



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Appendix

Table 4.2: Protein pyrophosphorylation sites identified in HEK293T.

	Protein	GN	Sequence (red: PP-site)	PP-Site	Cell Compartment (Uniprot)	Priming Kinase
1	Dual specificity protein kinase 1/4	CLK1/4	VVDFGSATYDDEHHSTLVST RHYR	Ser 341	Nucleus	Auto?
2	MICOS complex subunit	CHCHD3	YSGAYGASVSDEELK	Ser 50	Nucleus, Mitochondria	
3	Elongation factor 1-delta	EEF1D	KPATPAEDDEDDDEDLFGSD NEEEDKEAAQLR	Ser 162	Nucleus	CK2A1
4	Nucleophosmin	NPM1	CGSGPVHISGQHLVAVEEDA ESEDEEEEDVK	Ser 125	Nucleus, Cytoskeleton	ATR, PRP4
5	Heat shock protein HSP 90-alpha	HSP90AA1	ESEDKPEIEDVGSDEEEEEKK DGDK	Ser 263	Nucleus, cell membrane, cytoplasm	
6	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase A	NME1	VMLGETNPADSKPGTIR	Thr 94	Nucleus	CDK1
7	Myosin- 9	MYH9	KGAGDGSDEEVDGKADGAE AKPAE	Ser 1943	Cytoskeleton	CK2A1
8/9	Heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein D0	HNRNPD	IDASKNEEDEGHSNSSPR	Ser 82/ Ser 83	Nucleus	GSK3B
10	Nucleolar RNA helicase 2	DDX21	NEEPSSEEEIDAPKPK	Ser 121	Nucleus	
11	Negative Elongation Factor E	NELFE	SISADDDLQESSR	Ser 115	Nucleus	PRP4, TBK1
12	Membrane associated progesterone receptor component 1	PGRMC1	LLKEGEEPTVYSDEEEPKDE SAR	Ser 181	Endoplasmic reticulum	
13	Coiled-coil domain containing protein 168	CCDC168	LENGTSAVTSASEMLLPHTL QNHSVK	Ser 1901	-	

	Protein	GN	Sequence (red: PP-site)	PP-Site	Cell Compartment (Uniprot)	Priming Kinase
14	Calnexin	CANX	QKSDAEEDGGTVSQEEEDR KPK	Ser 564	Endoplasmic reticulum	PLK1
15	Histone Deacetylase 2	HDAC2	MLPHAPGVQMQAIPEDAVHE DSGDEDGEDPDKR	Ser 394	Nucleus	CK2A1
16	Heat shock protein HSP 90-beta	HSP90AB1	IEDVGSDEEDDSGKDKK	Ser 255	Nucleus, cell membrane, cytoplasm,	CK2A1, AurB
17/ 18	Proline-rich protein PRCC	PRCC	IAAPELHKGDSDEEEDPTK	Ser 157/ Ser159	Nucleus	
19	THUMP domain-containing protein 1	THUMPD1	FTDKDQQPSGSEGEDDDAE AALKK	Ser 86	Nucleus	
20	Plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 RNA-binding protein	SERBP1	SKSEEAHAEDSVMDHHFR	Ser 330	Nucleus, cytoplasm	PRKD1
21	Formin-binding protein 4	FNBP4	IDENSDKEMEVEESPEKIK	Ser 499	Lysosome, cell membrane	
22	Hepatoma-derived growth factor	HDGF	GNAEGSSDEEGKLVIDEPAK EK	Ser 133	Nucleus, cytoplasm	
23	Pyruvate dehydrogenase E1 component subunit alpha	PDHA1	YHGHSMSPGVSYSR	Ser 293	Mitochondrion matrix	PDHK1-4, PDK1, PDP1
24	Nuclear ubiquitous casein and cyclin-dependent kinase substrate 1	NUCKS1	NSQEDSESDKDKVK	Ser 61	Nucleus	
25	Charged multivesicular body protein 2b	CHMP2B	ATISDEEIER	Ser 199	Cytosol	TBK1
26	N-acetyl-D-glucosamine kinase	NAGK	SLGLSLSGGDQEDAGR	Ser 76	Cytosol	AurB, CDK1
27	Nucleolar protein 58	NOP58	HIKEEPLSEEEPTSTAIASPE KK	Ser 502	Nucleolus, nucleoplasm	PRP4
28	Monocarboxylate transporter 1	SLC16A1	KESEEETSIDVAGKPNEVTK	Ser 461	Cell membrane	

	Protein	GN	Sequence (red: PP-site)	PP-Site	Cell Compartment (Uniprot)	Priming Kinase
29	Gamma-soluble NSF attachment protein	NAPG	KKSPATPQAKPDGVTATAAD EEEDEYSGGLC	Ser 284	Membrane	
30	Nucleosome assembly protein 1-like 1	NAP1L1	LDGLVETPTGYIESLPR	Thr 62	Cytoplasm, nucleus	
31	Phosphoglucomutase-1	PGM1	AIGGIILTASHNPGGPNGDFGI K	Ser 117	Cytoplasm	
32	Microtubule-associated protein tau	MAPT	TDHGAEIVYKSPVVSGDTSP R	Ser 713	Cytoplasm	

Table 4.3: Protein pyrophosphorylation sites identified in HCT116.

	Protein	GN	Sequence (red: PP-site)	PP-Site	Cell Compartment (Uniprot)	Priming Kinase
1	Microtubule-associated protein tau	MAPT	AKTDHGAEIVYKppSPVVSGD TSPR	Ser 713	Cytoplasm	
2	Dual specificity protein kinase CLK1	CLK1	VVDFGSATYDDEHHSTLVpp STR	Ser 341	Nucleus	Auto?
3	Nucleolar Protein 58	NOP58	HIKEEPppSEEEPCSTAIAS PEK	Ser 502	Nucleus/nucleoplasm	PRP4
4	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase A /B	NME1	VMLGppTNPADSKPGTIR	Thr 94	Nucleus	CDK1
5	Serine/Arginine-rich splicing factor 5	SRSF5	SVppSRSPVPEK	Ser 231	Nucleus	
6	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2	UBE2Z	LHNENAEMDSDSSppSSGTE TDLHGSLR	Ser 341	Nucleus/cytoplasm	-
7	Activated RNA polymerase II transcriptional coactivator p15	SUB1	SKELVSSSSppSGSDSDSEV DKK	Ser 13	Nucleus	-
8	Nucleolar and coiled-body phosphoprotein 1	NOLC1	KKASppSSDSEDSSEEEEEV QGPPAK	Ser 84	Nucleus/cytoplasm	
9/ 10	Pre-mRNA 3'-end-processing factor FIP1	FIP1L1	VTETEDDSDppSDSDDDEDD VHVTIGDIK VTETEDDppSDSDDDEDD VHVTIGDIK	Ser 85/87	Nucleus	
11	Nucleophosmin	NPM1	CGSGPVHISGQHLVAVEEDA EppSEDEEEEDVK	Ser 125	Nucleus, Cytoskeleton	ATR, PRP4
12	N-acetyl-D-glucosamine kinase	NAGK	SLGLSLppSGGDQEDAGR	Ser 76	Cytosol, secreted	AurB, CDK1

13	MICOS complex subunit MIC19	CHCHD3	SQRYppSGAYGASVSDEELK	Ser 50	Nucleus, Mitochondria
14	Hepatoma-derived growth factor-related protein 2	HDGFL2	APSASDSDppSKADSDGAKP EPVAMAR	Ser 236	Nucleus