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Article

TPI and GAPDH Interact with Rad9, Linking Glycolytic Enzymes to Cancer

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Abstract

Cancer cells, like yeast, use fermentation despite the presence of oxygen, a phenomenon called aerobic glycolysis. The advantage is that it maintains most of the C-C bonds of glucose, allowing highly proliferating cells to produce the biomolecules that are necessary for cytokinesis. However, aerobic glycolysis is less energy-efficient than respiration, and it must operate at a higher frequency and produces more toxic by-products like methylglyoxal, which damages DNA. Cancer cells, like yeast cells, developed efficient systems to repair their damaged DNA. This makes cancer cells resistant to radiotherapy, which requires a combination with chemotherapy using drugs that inhibit DNA repair. However, this converts healthy cells to cancer cells, indicating that more research is required regarding the relationship between glycolysis and cancer. Using yeast as a model, we have discovered that the glycolytic enzymes TPI1 and GAPDH interact with the DNA damage-dependent checkpoint Rad9p. Furthermore, we have isolated TPI1 and GAPDH mutant strains that are unable to repair their damaged DNA. The TPI1 mutant strain has lower TPI enzymatic activity, suggesting that it accumulates methylglyoxal, while the GAPDH mutant strains have normal GAPDH enzymatic activity, confirming that GAPDH moonlights in the DNA Damage Response.

Keywords: RAD9; TPI1; GAPDH; DNA Damage Response

1. Introduction

“There is no Cure for this Disease.” - Hilaire Belloc (Belloc, 1907).

“Tumours destroy man in a unique and appalling way, as flesh of his own flesh which has somehow been rendered proliferative, rampant, predatory and ungovernable. They are the most concrete and formidable of human maladies, yet despite more than 70 years of experimental study they remain the least understood.” - Francis Peyton Rous, tumour virologist, Nobel Lecture, 1966.

Cancer is the principal cause of lethality worldwide, accounting for nearly 10 million deaths in 2020, or nearly one in six deaths (WHO, 2023; Ferlay, 2020). Deregulated cellular metabolism is a hallmark of cancer that characterizes the cancer cell's adjustments of energy metabolism for it to grow and divide (Hanahan, 2011). In the presence of oxygen, normal human cells inhibit fermentation and process glucose to pyruvate via glycolysis in the much more energy-efficient mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, known as the Pasteur Effect (Moulin, 2023; Weinberg, 2014). An interesting observation that cancer cells carry out aerobic glycolysis was reported by Warburg in the 1920s, who also coined the term. In the presence of oxygen, the Warburg Effect, or aerobic glycolysis occurs, converting glucose to lactate in the presence of oxygen (Pecorino, 2012). A similar phenomenon

occurs in yeast, where it is known as the Crabtree Effect (Crabtree, 1929). In alcohol-producing yeast cells, aerobic glycolysis is triggered within a few seconds (Crabtree, 1929), while in tumour cells, the Warburg Effect requires protein expression and takes days to develop (Martins Pinto, 2023). Aerobic glycolysis allows yeast and human cancer cells to generate energy in the form of ATP and NADH, while maintaining C-C bonds that proliferating cells require for the synthesis of biomolecules (Vander Heiden, 2009). However, per molecule of glucose, respiration produces approximately $40 - 2 = 38$ ATP molecules, while aerobic glycolysis produces only $4 - 2 = 2$ ATP molecules. Therefore, aerobic glycolysis consumes much more glucose than respiration. We decided to use the budding yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* as a model system to study the link between metabolism and cancer, as both yeast and human cancer cells are highly proliferative and rely on aerobic glycolysis to generate energy while maintaining C-C bonds to produce biomolecules like deoxyribose that are required to duplicate the DNA before cell division.

There are many known links between glycolysis and DNA damage. Methylglyoxal (MG) is a toxic by-product of glycolysis that damages DNA (Iacobini, 2023; Richard 1991), and cells relying on aerobic glycolysis have efficient DNA repair systems, making cancer cells resistant to radiotherapy (Groelly, 2023). Chemotherapy with drugs that inhibit DNA repair promotes the killing of cancer cells on one hand but causes tumorigenesis of healthy cells on the other hand, as the failure to repair damaged DNA is even another hallmark of cancer (Hanahan, 2011). MG is a potent and emerging biological factor involved in the onset and progression of cancer (Bellahcene, 2018). MG is a strong glycation agent in the body and leads to alterations of proteins and DNA and cellular dysfunction (Bellier, 2019). Triosephosphate Isomerase (TPI) catalyzes the interconversion of dihydroxyacetone phosphate (DHAP) and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (GAP) in the glycolysis pathway (Colasanti, 2009). Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) is the next glycolytic enzyme which catalyzes the conversion of GAP into glycerate-1,3-bisphosphate (Nicolescu, 2023; Supplementary Figure S1). TPI (Supplementary Figure S8) is highly expressed in many types of human tumors and is involved in the migration and invasion of cancer cells (Chen, 2017). GAPDH (Supplementary Figure S11) plays a role in several cancer-related biological processes and was reported to be commonly dysregulated in multiple cancer types (Wang, 2023). Many metabolic enzymes such as hexokinase and phosphoglycerate kinase 1 are known to function in tumour development (Lu, 2018). Hexokinase in the first step of glycolysis is known to enter the nucleus and interact with nuclear proteins in acute myeloid leukaemia (AML) (Thomas, 2022). GAPDH was shown to facilitate homologous recombination repair by stabilizing RAD51 in an HDAC1-dependent manner (Shi et al., 2023). Upon DSB occurrence, GAPDH translocates into the nucleus and is involved in homologous recombination repair by stabilizing RAD51. According to the model proposed by Shi and co-workers, the interaction with GAPDH disassociates HDAC1 from its inhibitor Maspin.

Rad9p, an adaptor protein that triggers the DNA Damage Response (DDR), is required for cell cycle checkpoint function (Kiely et al., 2026). By mediating phosphorylation of important effector kinases like Rad53p and Chk1p, Rad9p facilitates the amplification of initial signals in response to DNA damage (Toh, 2003). Because of the ability of Rad9p to associate with double-stranded breaks, it is speculated that Rad9p also initiates these checkpoint signal transduction cascades by acting as a DNA damage sensor (Naiki, 2004). Rad9p is required throughout the cell cycle as it has been shown to function at G1/S, intra-S, and G2/M (Siede, 1993; Paulovich, 1997; Weinert, 1988). Rad9p is phosphorylated during normal progression of the cell cycle but becomes hyperphosphorylated by Mec1p and Tel1p in response to DNA damage (Vialard, 1998; Emili, 1998). Activated Rad9p then stimulates Mec1p phosphorylation of the effector kinases Chk1p and Rad53p (Blankley, 2004; Ma, 2006; Sweeney, 2005). Chk1p and Rad53p phosphorylation leads to various processes associated with cellular arrest, such as transcriptional upregulation of DNA damage repair genes, transcriptional repression of cyclins, and stabilization of replication forks (Chen, 2004; Weinert, 1998). Rad9p has two BRCT (BRCA1) domains that facilitate Rad9p-Rad9p interaction after DNA damage (Soulier, 1999). It also has a tandem Tudor domain that binds to double-stranded DNA (Lancelot, 2007). *rad9* gene deletion mutants are viable but exhibit sensitivity to X-ray and UV irradiation, fail to arrest in

response to DNA damage, and are prone to chromosomal instability (Weinert, 1988; Weinert, 1990; Fasullo, 1998). No single human ortholog has been identified; instead, in humans there exists a family of proteins, which includes BRCA1 and 53BP1, that contain tandem BRCT domains (Alpha-Bazin, 2005; Bork, 1997).

Hypothesis

Aerobic glycolysis, which proliferating cells use, is much less energy-efficient than respiration. Therefore, glycolysis linked to fermentation (to alcohol in yeast cells and to lactic acid in human cancer cells) operates at a much higher frequency than glycolysis linked to the TCA cycle in respiration. The toxic glycolytic by-product MG damages DNA, and yeast and human cancer cells had to develop efficient systems to repair their damaged DNA thus. We hypothesize that, in addition to sensing dsDNA breaks, Rad9p could sense the quantity and activity status of metabolic enzymes. According to this model, high levels and activity of glycolytic enzymes would signal to Rad9p that the DNA-damaging agent MG is being produced.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. PCR-Based Random Mutagenesis of GAPDH

For each tube, 1 μ L of template was added. 49 μ L of mix containing 10 μ L 5X buffer, 3 μ L 25mM Magnesium Sulfate, 1 μ L nucleotides, 2 μ L forward primer, 2 μ L reverse primer, 30 μ L water and 1 μ L *Taq* enzyme was distributed to each tube. The tubes were then mixed and spun down for 7000 rpm for 10 seconds. Finally, they were placed in the PCR machine with the programme indicated below.

Step 1: 95.0°C 0:01:00
Step 2: 95.0°C 0:00:30
Step 3: 45.0°C 0:00:30
Step 4: 72.0°C 0:01:00; 34 x return to step 2
Step 5: 72.0°C 0:10:00
Step 6: 4.0°C ∞

2.2. Mass Spectrometry

GST fusion proteins were purified with glutathione beads subjected to SDS PAGE. The gel was stained with InstantBlue Coomassie Protein Stain. The bands of the protein of interest were cut out and in-gel trypsinated. The tryptic peptides were subjected to liquid chromatography – mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis using an Eksigent nanoLC Ultra and ChiPLC-nanoflex (Eksigent) in trap-elute configuration, with a 200 μ m \times 0.5 mm trap column and a 75 μ m \times 150 mm analytical column. Both trap and analytical columns were made of ChromXP C18-CL, 3 μ m (Eksigent). Peptides were separated by a gradient formed by 2% ACN, 0.1% FA (mobile phase A) and 98% ACN, 0.1% FA (mobile phase B): 5% to 7% of mobile phase B in 0.1 min, 7% to 30% of mobile phase B in 10 min, 30% to 60% of mobile phase B in 4min, 60% to 90% of mobile phase B in 1 min, 90% to 90% of mobile phase B in 5 min, 90% to 5% of mobile phase B in 1 min and 5% to 5% of mobile phase B in 10 min, at a flow rate of 300 nl/min. The MS analysis was performed on a TripleTOF 5600 system (AB SCIEX, Foster City, CA, USA) in Information Dependent Mode. MS spectra were acquired across the mass range of 400–1250 m/z in high resolution mode (>30000) using 250 ms accumulation time per spectrum. A maximum of 10 precursors per cycle were chosen for fragmentation from each MS spectrum with 100 ms minimum accumulation time for each precursor and dynamic exclusion for 8 s. Tandem mass spectra were recorded in high sensitivity mode (resolution >15000) with rolling collision energy on.

Peptide identification and the detection of post-translational modifications were carried out with the ProteinPilot 5.0.3.0 software Revision 5313 (AB SCIEX) using the Paragon database search algorithm (5.0.3.0.5312), against a protein sequence database (6128 entries) of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

2.3. Generation of the Yeast Strain Expressing Human HsTPI1 in Place of Endogenous Tpi1p

The tryptophane auxotrophic *BY4741/2/3ΔW* strains have been described (Wang et al., 2020). *BY4141ΔW* and *BY4742ΔW* cells were transformed with the *URA3*-marked single-copy plasmid *PactT316-Tpi1*, which expresses *Tpi1p* under the control of the strong constitutive *ACT1* promoter/terminator cassette. Next, the *TPI1* gene was replaced with the *HIS3* gene by homologous recombination and the strains were mated to generate the diploid *BY4743ΔW TPI1::HIS3+PactT316-Tpi1* strain, which was transformed with *LEU2*-marked single- and multi-copy plasmids expressing Nub-HA-*Tpi1p* wild-type and mutant or Nub-HA-HsTPI1 wild-type and mutant under the control of the strong constitutive *ADH1* promoter/terminator cassette or the empty vector control. Plasmid shuffle was performed on FOA plates (Figure 3).

2.4. Generation of the Yeast Strain Expressing *Gapdh* Mutants in Place of Endogenous *GAPDH*

The *TDH1* gene of *BY4741ΔW* and *BY4742ΔW* was replaced with the *TRP1* gene. Next, the *TRP1* marker was recovered with the help of the *TR-hisG-URA3-hisG-P1* cassette of NKY1009 (Alani et al., 1987) and the *URA3* marker was recovered on an FOA plate. Subsequently, the *TDH2* gene was replaced with the *LEU2* gene and the *BY4741ΔW* strain was transformed with *PactT316-Tdh2*, while the *BY4742ΔW* strain was transformed with *PactT316-Tdh3* for no apparent reason. Finally, the *TDH3* gene was replaced with *HIS3* and the strains were mated to generate *BY4743ΔW TDH1::hisG/TDH1::hisG; TDH2::LEU2/TDH2::LEU2; TDH3::HIS3/TDH3::HIS3+PactT316-Tdh2+PactT316-Tdh3*, named *BY4743ΔWΔTDH1-3+PactT316-Tdh23* in this study. The strain was transformed with the *TRP1*-marked plasmids *PactT424-GST-Tdh123* wild-type and mutants and *PactT316-Tdh23* was shuffled out on an FOA plate.

2.5. Yeast Breaking for Enzyme Assay

Cells were resuspended and transferred into a screw cap tube before 100μL of appropriate buffer (KAlert buffer for *GAPDH* assay, yeast lysis buffer for *TPI* assay) was added. Afterwards, glass beads of equal volume to the cells were added into the same screw cap tube. Next, the cells were broken in the bead beater at 6000 rpm, 3x20s, 10 seconds interval. After each cycle, the tubes were placed onto an ice box for 3 minutes, the breaking and cooling were repeated 3 times. Subsequently, the cells were placed into a 4°C centrifuge and spun down at 15000 rpm for 10 minutes. Finally, the supernatant was transferred into a new eppendorf tube.

2.6. *GAPDH* Enzyme Assay

BY4743 yeast cells were inoculated in 10ml YPDA culture media and grown overnight to OD 1 to 2. After which, cells were lysed and total protein concentration was measured using nanodrop. The KAlert™ *GAPDH* Assay Kit by invitrogen was used to measure *GAPDH* enzyme activity. To a cuvette, 88.8μL of solution A, 0.68μL of solution B and 0.47μL of solution C was added. Solutions A, B and C contain the required substrates: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate (G-3-P), phosphate ions and NAD⁺ to measure *GAPDH* enzyme activity. 20μL of yeast protein extract was added and mixed with 900μL of water in the cuvette. After that, the cuvette was placed into the spectrophotometer to measure *GAPDH* enzyme activity at 615nm for 5 minutes in 30 second intervals. The results of the measurement were then recorded.

2.7. *TPI* Enzyme Assay

BY4743 cells were inoculated overnight in 25ml YPDA culture media to OD 1 to 2. After which, cells were lysed and total protein concentration measured using nanodrop. To a cuvette, 44μL of *TPI*

Assay Buffer, 2 μ L of TPI Enzyme Mix, 2 μ L of TPI Developer and 2 μ L of TPI Substrate was added. On top of that, a volume of extract from yeast breaking depending on the protein concentration measured in the nanodrop was added. The cuvette was then topped up to 100 μ L with TPI Assay Buffer. 900 μ L of sterile water was added to the cuvette and mixed. After that, the cuvette was placed into the spectrophotometer to measure TPI enzyme activity at 450nm for 5 minutes in 30 seconds intervals. The results of the measurement were then recorded.

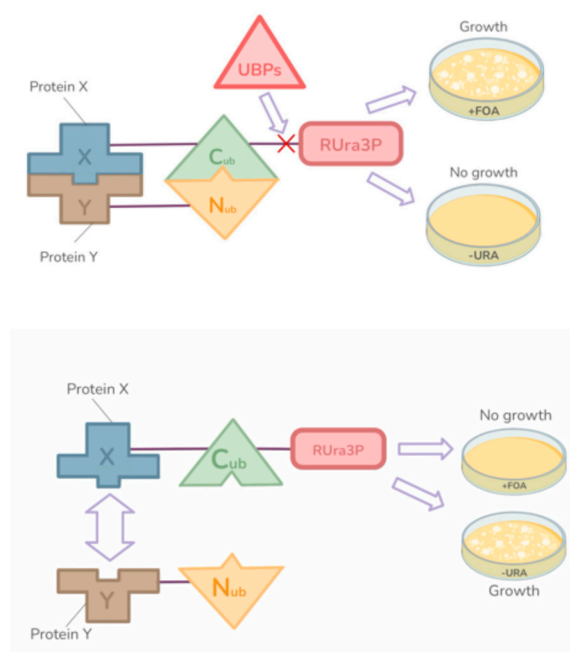


Figure 1. The Split-Ub Assay. The Nub construct consists of a protein of interest fused to the N-terminal half of ubiquitin. While the Cub construct is made of a protein of interest fused to the C-terminal of ubiquitin extended by the RUra3 protein, which is OMP whose first amino acid had been replaced with an arginine (R). **Left Panel: Presence of Protein-Protein interaction:** If the two proteins of interest (Protein X and Y) interact inside the living cell, the Cub attached to Protein Y will be in close proximity with the Nub that was fused to protein X. This results in the formation of a native-like Ubiquitin moiety that will be recognised by ubiquitin-specific proteases (UBPs), leading to UBPs cleaving the bond between Cub and RUra3p. Free RUra3p will be rapidly degraded by 26S proteasomes due to the N-end rule. As a result, there will no longer be Ura3p in the cells. When these cells are plated on a fluoroorotic acid plate (+FOA), Ura3p is not present to convert FOA into toxic fluorouracil, allowing for the cells to survive. However, when these cells are plated onto plates lacking uracil (-URA), there will not be Ura3p present to synthesise uracil required for RNA synthesis, thereby resulting in no cell growth. **Right Panel: Absence of Protein-Protein interaction:** If the two proteins of interest (Protein X and Y) do not interact inside the living cell, the Cub that is attached to Protein X and the Nub fused to protein Y will not be in close proximity. As such, a full native-like ubiquitin moiety will not be formed and the UBPs will not cleave the peptide bond between the Cub and RUra3p. As a result, RUra3p will not be degraded and will still be present inside the yeast cell. When these cells are plated onto FOA plates (+FOA), Ura3p will be present to convert FOA into toxic fluorouracil, resulting in the cells to die. On the other hand, when these cells are plated onto plates lacking uracil (-URA), the cells will be able to make uracil, allowing for the cells to grow.

3. Results and Discussion

We tested the yeast DNA damage-dependent checkpoint Rad9p for interaction with yeast metabolic enzymes in the Split-Ub assay. Figure 2 shows that Rad9p interacted with GAPDH (Tdh1p, Tdh2p & Tdh3p, lines 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8), Fumarate Reductase (Frd1p, lines 11, 12), Hexokinase 2 (Hxk2p, lines 13, 14), Phosphoglucokinase (Pkg1p, lines 17, 18), cytosolic Malate Dehydrogenase 2 (Mdh2p, lines 23, 24), Phosphofructokinase 1 (Pfk1p, lines 25, 26) and Triosephosphate Isomerase (Tpi1p, lines

31, 32). When the cells were grown under conditions of DNA damage (+ HU), all these interactions became stronger and Rad9p interacted additionally with Glucokinase 1 (Glk1p, lines 35, 36). No interaction was observed for Malic Enzyme (Mae1p, lines 19, 20) nor for the mitochondrial dicarboxylate carrier Dic1p (lines 29, 30).

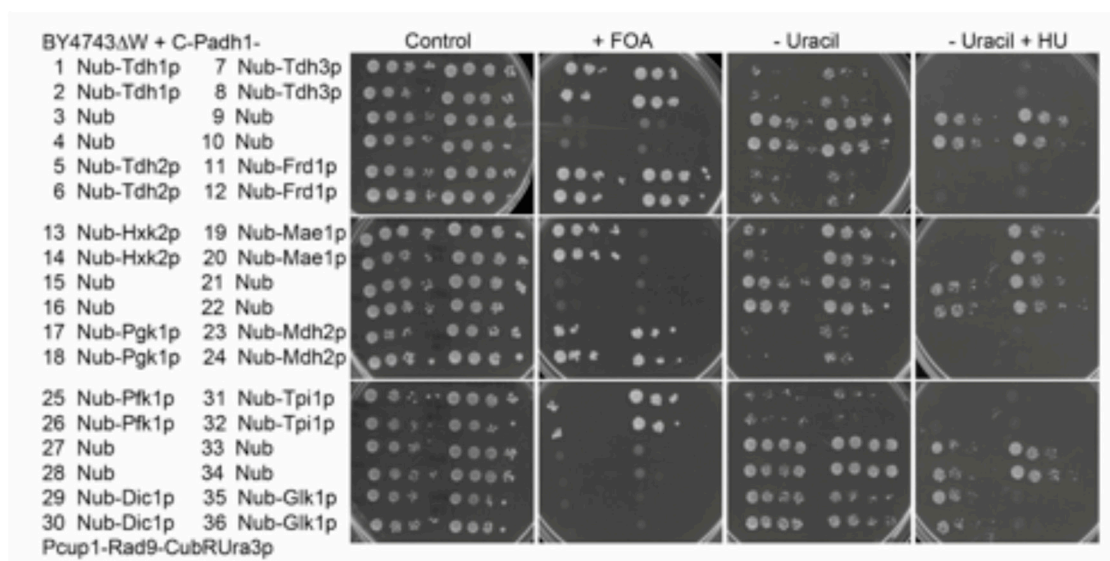


Figure 2. Rad9p interacted with metabolic enzymes in living yeast cells. Tenfold serial dilutions of cells expressing the indicated proteins were spotted onto the depicted plates and incubated at 28°C for six days. Protein-protein interaction inside the living cells is revealed by growth on the FOA plates and by lack of growth on the plates lacking uracil.

The glycolytic enzymes Tpi1p, which interconverts DHAP and GAP and generates the DNA damaging agent MG as a by-product, and GAPDH, which converts DHAP to 1,3BPG, were chosen for further study. Human patients suffering from Triosephosphate isomerase deficiency (TPID) express the HsTPI1E105D mutant protein (Daar, 1986). TPID is an autosomal recessive multisystem disorder characterized by congenital hemolytic anemia, progressive neuromuscular dysfunction, susceptibility to bacterial infection, and cardiomyopathy (uniprot/P60174). While the patients have lower TPI1 enzymatic activity in the serum, the mutation reduces the stability of TPI1 and does not alter its enzymatic activity. In order to determine if the E105D mutation or the more severe E105A mutation would affect the DDR in yeast, we expressed Nub fusions of human HsTPI1 and its mutant derivatives under the control of the strong *ADH1* promoter from single-copy (C) and multi-copy (D) plasmids in yeast cells lacking the essential chromosomal *TPI1* gene that were kept alive with the help of the *URA3*-marked plasmid *PactT316-Tpi1*, expressing Tpi1p from the *ACT1* promoter. The left panels of Figure 3 shows that human HsTPI1 and its mutant derivatives were able to complement the yeast gene deletion strain and grow on the FOA plate, which counter-selects the *PactT316-Tpi1* plasmid (lines 1 to 12), with cells expressing the HsTPI1E105A mutant protein from the single-copy vector displaying a growth phenotype (line 9). The figure further shows that the HsTPI1E105A mutant strain was sensitive to the DNA-damaging agent HU (lines 17, 18). Western Blots were performed to compare the expression levels of HsTPI1 with its mutant derivatives. The right panels of Figure 3 show that the E105A mutant protein was expressed at even higher levels than wild-type HsTPI1.

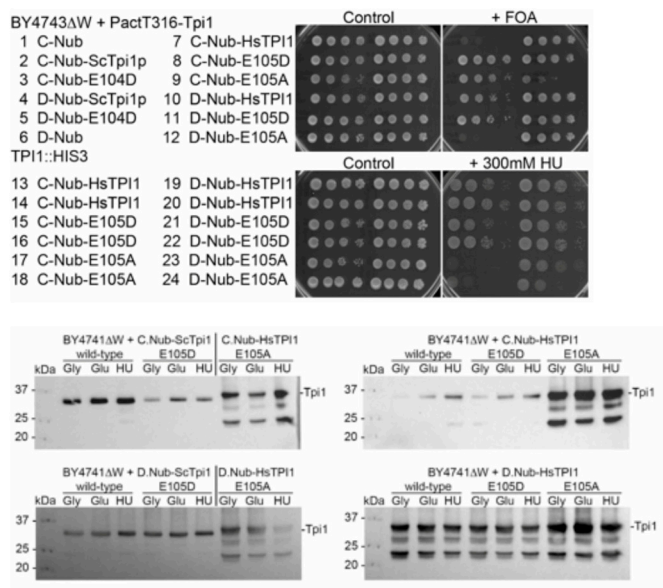


Figure 3. Yeast cells expressing human HsTPI1E105A in place of endogenous Tpi1p are viable but unable to repair their damaged DNA. *Left Panels:* The URA3-marked plasmid PactT316-Tpi1 expressing endogenous Tpi1p was removed on the FOA plate (right top panel), and cells expressing Nub-HsTPI1 from single-copy (C) and multi-copy (D) plasmids were tenfold serially diluted and spotted onto HU plates to test for their ability to repair their damaged DNA. *Right Panels:* HsTPI1E105A is expressed at higher protein levels than wild-type HsTPI1. Yeast cells were grown to mid-log phase in glucose liquid media (Glu) and incubated for two hours with 300mM HU (HU). Cells were boiled in SDS loading dye, separated by SDS PAGE and visualized with an anti-HA antibody.

In order to determine if the E105A mutation reduced the enzymatic activity of HsTPI1, TPI commercial enzyme assays (Abcam) were performed with extracts from yeast cells expressing HA-tagged HsTPI1 and its mutant derivative in place of yeast Tpi1p. Figure 4 shows that the E105A mutation reduced the enzymatic activity of HsTPI1 two-fold. The figure further shows that exposure to DNA damaging conditions for two hours reduced the enzymatic activity of HsTPI1 two-fold as well. One possible explanation of the HU sensitivity of the E105A mutant strain is that the defective TPI1E105A enzyme results in the accumulation of DHAP, which dephosphorylates to the DNA-damaging agent MG. Supplementary Figure S8 shows the location of E105 relative to the catalytically active residues H96 and E166.

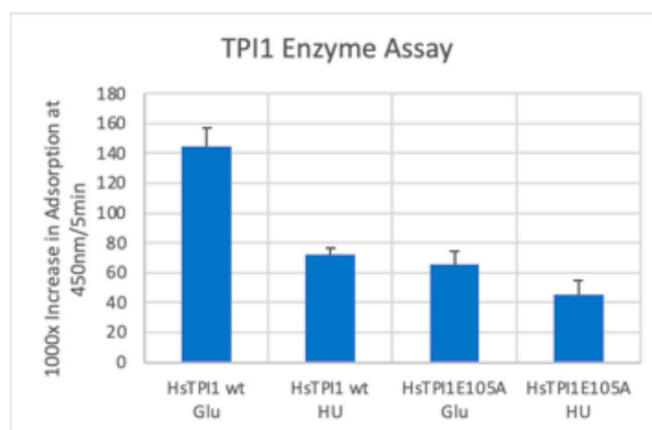


Figure 4. The E105A mutation reduced the enzymatic activity of HsTPI1 twofold. Yeast cells expressing HsTPI1 and the E105A derivative in place of yeast Tpi1p were grown to mid-log phase in glucose liquid media (Glu) and incubated with 300mM HU for two hours (HU). Extracts were generated with bead beating and the protein concentration was determined by nanodrop. 80 μ g of extract were used for the TPI1 assay and the increase in

adsorption at 450 nm was measured for 5 minutes. The error bars represent the standard deviation between triplicates. The student T-test was 0.000415057 for wt Glu vs E105A Glu and 0.000355559 for wt Glu vs wt HU.

Enzyme activity could be modulated by post-translational modification, and we purified GST-Tpi1p from yeast cells that had been grown under normal conditions and from yeast cells that had been incubated with HU for two hours. Mass spectrometry revealed that Tpi1p was specifically modified at 30 residues upon exposure to conditions of DNA damage (Figure 5). Our results for the TPI1 assay indicate that these modifications reduce the enzymatic activity of Tpi1p.

```

NP_010335.1 TPI1 YDR050C SGDID:S000002457 GLU vs HU
MARTFFVGGNFKLNGSKQSIKEIVERLNTASIPENVEVVICPPATYLDYSVSLVKPKQVTVGQAQNAYLKASG
AFTGENSVDQIKDVGAKWVILGHSERSYFHEDDKFIADKTKFALGQGVGVILCIGETLEEKKAGKTLDVVE
RQLNAVLEEVKDWTNVVVAYEPVAIGTGLAATPEDAQDIHASIRKFLASKLGDKASELRILYGGSANGSN
AVTFKDKADVDGFLVGGASLKPEFVDIINSRN

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Figure 5. Tpi1p is post-translationally modified at 30 residues under conditions of DNA damage. Residues shown in bold red were found to be modified specifically when the cells were grown with HU and residues shown in bold green were found to be modified specifically when the cells were grown under normal, glucose conditions. A figure with the nature of these modifications can be found in the appendix. T75 was phosphorylated when the cells had been grown under normal conditions and ubiquitinated when the cells had been exposed to 300mM HU for two hours.

Mass Spectrometry was also carried out with GST-Tdh1p purified from yeast cells grown under normal conditions and under conditions of DNA damage. The results showed that Tdh1p was methylated at S149 and T152 when the cells had been grown under normal conditions and phosphorylated at S146 and S149 and methylated at N153 when the cells had been exposed for two hours to conditions of DNA damage (Figure 6). These residues are close to the catalytically active C150, and S149 binds GAP (uniprot), indicating that these modifications modify the enzymatic activity of Tdh1p (Supplementary Figure S11).

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NP_012483.3 TDH1 YJL052W SGDID:S000003588 GLU vs HU
MIRIAINGFGRIGRLVLRALQRKDIEVVAVNDPFFISNDYAAAYMVKYDSTHGRYKGTVSHDDKHIIIDGVKI
ATYQERDPANLPWGSLKIDVAVDSTGVFKELDTAQKHIDAGAKKVVITAPSSAPMFVVGVNHTKYTPDKKI
VSNASCTNCLAPLAKVINDAFGIEEGLMTTVHSMTATQKTVDGPSHKDWRGRTASGNIIPSSTGAAKAVG
KVLPELQGKLTGMAFRVPTVDVSVVDLTVKLEKEATYDQIKKAVKAAAEGPMKGVLGYTEDAVVSSDFLGDT
HASIFDASAGIQLSPKFVKLISWDNEYGSARVVDLIEYVAKA

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Figure 6. Tdh1p is post-translationally modified at three residues under conditions of DNA damage. Residues shown in bold red were found to be modified specifically when the cells were grown with HU and residues shown in bold green were found to be modified specifically when the cells were grown under normal, glucose conditions. A figure with the nature of these modifications can be found in the appendix. S149 was methylated when the cells had been grown under normal conditions and phosphorylated when the cells had been exposed to 300mM HU for two hours.

In order to block post-translational modifications, S146 and S149 were mutated to A and expressed in yeast as GST fusions. Figure 7 shows that these mutant proteins were rapidly degraded when the cells were exposed for two hours to conditions of DNA damage. The figure further shows that the mutant proteins failed to complement a *TDH1-3* gene deletion strain that was kept alive with the *URA3*-marked plasmids PactT316-Tdh2/3, expressing Tdh2p and Tdh3p from the *ACT1* promoter, indicating that S146 and S149 are important for the enzymatic function of the essential Tdh1p.

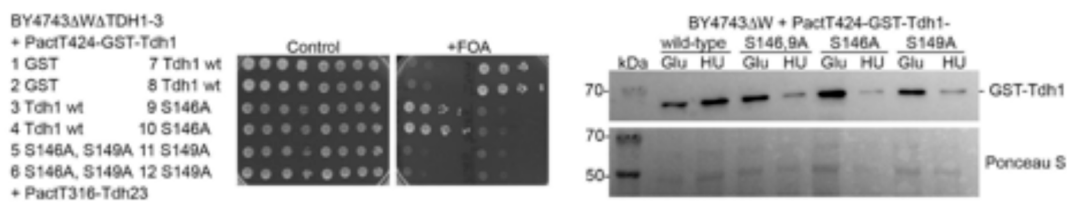


Figure 7. The Tdh1S146A and Tdh1S149A mutant proteins fail to complement a *TDH1-3* gene deletion strain.

Left panel: Yeast cells expressing the indicated GST fusions in place of endogenous Tdh1-3 proteins were tenfold serially diluted and spotted onto plates with and without FOA. *Right panel:* Yeast cells expressing the indicated GST fusions were grown to mid-log phase in glucose liquid media (Glu) and exposed to two hours of DNA damage (HU). Cells were boiled in SDS loading dye and proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE. Proteins were blotted onto nitrocellulose and GST fusions were visualized with the help of an anti-GST antibody.

We used the *TDH1-3* gene deletion strain to generate GAPDH mutants that are sensitive to HU with the goal to study the role of GAPDH in the DDR. Random PCR-based mutagenesis coupled with gap repair and plasmid shuffle on FOA plates followed by replica plating resulted in the Tdh1p mutant proteins H60R, L88R, L103S and K192S, T244A (Figure 8) and the Tdh3p mutant protein L219S (Figure 9). Subcloning revealed that only the T244A mutation caused sensitivity to HU and that the K192S mutation had no effect.

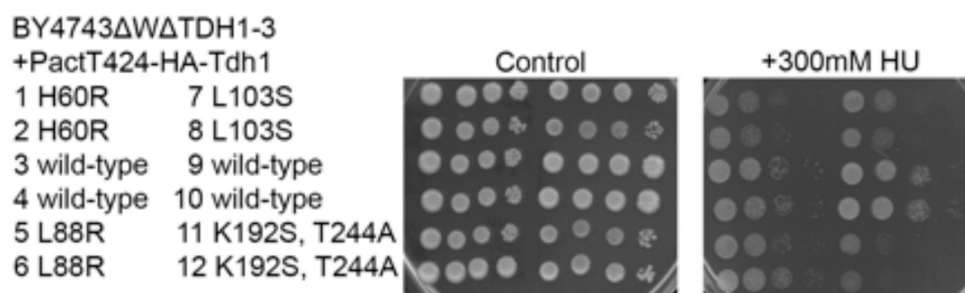


Figure 8. Random mutagenesis identified Tdh1 mutant proteins that confer sensitivity to HU. Tenfold serial dilutions of cells expressing the indicated proteins were spotted onto control plates and onto plates containing 300mM HU.

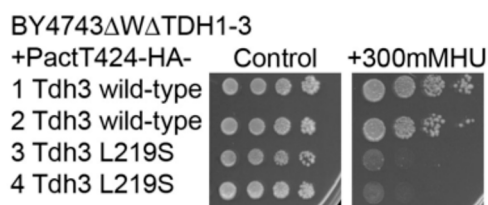


Figure 9. Random mutagenesis identified the Tdh3L219S mutant strain that is sensitive to HU. Tenfold serial dilutions of cells expressing the indicated proteins were spotted onto control plates and onto plates containing 300mM HU.

In order to determine if the mutations reduced the GAPDH enzymatic activity, GAPDH commercial enzyme assays (Invitrogen) were performed with extracts from yeast cells expressing GST-Tdh1/3p and their mutant derivatives in place of yeast Tdh1/3p. Figure 10 shows that exposure to DNA damaging conditions for two hours increased the enzymatic activity of all fusions. Surprisingly, all mutant enzymes were fully active. One possible explanation is that GAPD

moonlights in the DDR with a function independent from its ability to interconvert GAP and 1,3BPG: by stabilizing Rad51p (Shi et al., 2023).

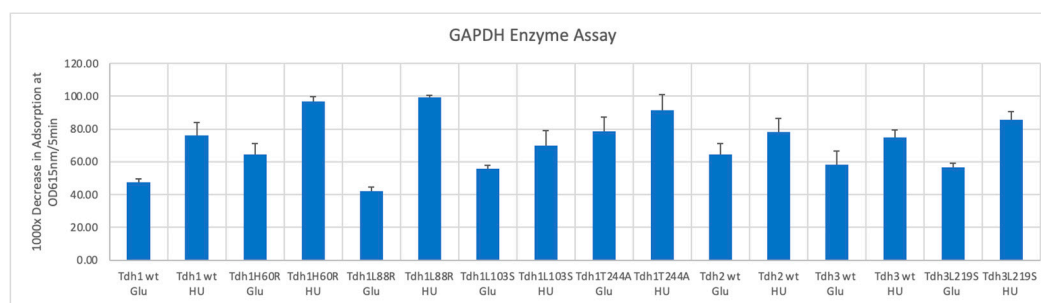


Figure 10. DNA damage conditions stimulated GAPDH activity, but the mutations had no effect on enzyme activity for GAP. Yeast cells expressing the indicated proteins were grown to mid-log phase in glucose liquid media (Glu) and treated with 300mM HU for two hours (HU). Extracts were generated with bead beating and the protein concentration was determined by nanodrop. 80 ug of extract were used for the GAPDH assay and the decrease in adsorption at 615 nm was measured for 5 minutes. The error bars represent the standard deviation between triplicates. The student T-tests were below 0.05 for all Glu vs HU pairs with the exception of the one for Tdh2 (0.10079935).

4. Conclusions

The glycolytic enzymes TPI and GAPDH were implicated in the DDR as they interacted with the DNA damage-dependent checkpoint Rad9p, and mutants that were unable to repair their damaged DNA were isolated. The TPI1E105A mutant protein showed reduced enzymatic activity, suggesting that MG levels might be high in this strain, while the GAPDH mutants were enzymatically fully active, presumably reflecting that GAPDH moonlights in the DDR by preventing proteolytic degradation of HDAC1.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at the website of this paper posted on Preprints.org.

Author Contributions: VXYC contributed Figures 1 to 4; JMX Y contributed the yeast strains *BY4743ΔW TPI1::HIS3/TPI1::HIS3+PactT316-Tpi1p* used in Figure 3 to 5 and *BY4743ΔW TDH1::hisG/TDH1::hisG TDH2::LEU2/TDH2::LEU2 TDH3::HIS3/TDH3::HIS3+PactT316-Tdh2+PactT316-Tdh3* used in Figures 6 to 10; RT purified GST-Tpi1 ± HU and contributed Figure 5; DGKL purified GST-Tdh1p ± HU and contributed Figure 6; DK contributed Figure 7, MTKC & SZQL contributed Figures 8 to 10; TKL and QL performed and analysed the MS; RLT, OP and NL designed the experiments, mentored VXYC, JMX Y, MTKC, SZQL, RT, DGLK & KD, and wrote the manuscript.

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