

[5–7]. As both chains are simultaneously measured in most routine, mass spectrometry (MS)-based analyses, this molecular species is usually referred to as 'C38:4' PI. Early analyses focussed only on PI, but recent MS studies have shown that the acyl compositions of PI, PIP, PIP $_2$ and PIP $_3$ are very similar (current MS methods do not discriminate between regio-isomers), consistent with rapid interconversion between the various phosphorylated forms of these lipids and parental PI (Figure 1) [8,9]. These observations suggest evolution has favoured the selective enrichment of this species of PIPn in mammals, but we know very little about the advantages provided by this acyl chain species and the molecular mechanisms responsible for creating it.

How is the acyl composition of mammalian PIPn determined?

In principle, the C38:4 species of PI could be selectively synthesized and/or enriched by subsequent acyl chain 'remodelling'. The pathways for synthesis of PI and acyl chain remodelling by the 'Lands

Cycle' (Figure 2

CDS2 has a significant preference for C20:4 in the sn-2 position of PA, but CDS1 is less selective [16], although it prefers unsaturated species of PA compared with fully saturated species [17]. CDS2 is ubiquitously expressed, while CDS1 is restricted to a subset of tissues [16,18] and might be induced when a high rate of PI synthesis is required [19]. Furthermore, overexpressed CDS1 and CDS2 show slightly different patterns of localization in the ER [17]. These observations suggest that the formation of CDP-DG from PA is likely to be a regulated step and CDS1 and 2 have evolved to play differing roles, although definitive evidence for their

pro-inflammatory phenotype may be related to defective processing of C20:4 by MBOAT7 rather than small changes in PI species.

The first committed step in PI remodelling is its hydrolysis into LPI by PLAs, and thus coupling this process PI synthesis might be envisaged to facilitate remodelling. Indeed, it has been suggested that the faster remodelling of atypical PE and PS species produced involves their selective degradation by PLAs [41]. Similarly, PIs generated from exogenous C32:0 CDP-DG in liver microsomes were rapidly hydrolyzed into LPI, while little LPI was formed from pre-existing PIs, suggesting a selective de-acylation of newly synthesized PIs [42]. As yet, no PI-PLA activity selective for these intermediate species has been identified and the roles of the PLA superfamily of enzymes in phospholipid remodelling are not clearly defined [43]. The inhibition of Ca²⁺-independent phospholipase A2b (iPLA2b) reduces the incorporation of C20:4 into phospholipids [44,45] while its overexpression increases the levels of C38:4 PI [46]. The analysis of brains from iPLA2b-/mice, however, suggest that it is not required for C38:4 enrichment [47]. DDHD1 seems to be the PLA1 involved in the generation of C20:4 LPI [48], an endogenous activating ligand of G protein-coupled receptor GPR55 [49,50]. Although loss of the homologue of DDHD1 in C. a , IPLA-1, results in a dramatic change in their predominant PI species, from C18:0/20:5 to 18:1/20:5 [29], in DDHD1-/- mice there were no changes in C38:4 PIPn whilst there was a relative increase in 18:1/C20:4 PIPn at the expense of shorter and more saturated species [51]. Regarding the products of PLA activity on PIs, C18:0 LPI shows the highest levels in mouse tissues, with C20:4 LPI also being abundant in the nervous system [52]. However, this provides little information about the kinetics of remodelling in sn-1 and sn-2 as these species can be formed as remodelling intermediates but also from C38:4 PI for signalling purposes. Thus, if it is not reacylated, LPI can be metabolized by lysophospholipases A, C or D to generate glycerophosphoinositol [53], monoacylglycerol [54] or LPA [55], which will all have different signalling roles [56].

(Figure 3; [63]). The activation of a $PI(4,5)P_2$ -selective PLC by receptors is now accepted to be a central signal transduction mechanism in multicellular organisms and liberates the 'second messengers' IP_3 and DG, which stimulate intracellular Ca^{2+} -release and the activation of PKC, respectively [64,65]. Whilst PIPn can be interconverted by kinases and phosphomonoesterases, the action of a PLC produces DG, which is a common biosynthetic intermediate in lipid metabolism. This creates a potential problem for cells in segregating PLC-derived-DG from other sources of DG, enabling it to both act as a selective signal for the activation of PKC and also as a source of PA for the PI-cycle. Furthermore, PLC activation is often observed to occur in parallel with activation of a PLD which usually appears to be directed predominantly against PC, adding a further source of complexity in segregating pools of PA (and DG via PA phosphatases) destined for different purposes [66].

C32:0 species were used to derive the SF-1 crystals (Figure 4E). It has also been described that nuclear p53 can bind $PI(4,5)P_2$, which results in its stabilization [94]. This interaction was resistant to denaturation, and was observed with natural $PI(4,5)P_2$ but not with dioctanoyl- $PI(4,5)P_2$.

The synthesis of PI from CDP-DG and free inositol via PIS is conserved in all eukaryotes (reviewed in [95]), which also present most of their phosphorylated forms [96]. While these PIPn participate in homologous functions in different organisms, the PI enrichment in C38:4 backbones has only been observed thus far in vertebrates. Therefore, tracing the emergence of C38:4 enrichment during the evolution of PIPn signalling could provide some insights into the evolutionary pressures favouring a distinct and homogeneous acyl chain composition in this key family of signalling lipids.

While C38:4 enrichment might be restricted to vertebrates, a common feature of PIPn across many different organisms is the concentration of saturated acyl chains in sn-1 compared with other phospholipids [29,97,98]. In yeast, the enrichment in C16:0 or C18:0 in sn-1 appears to take place by distinct mechanisms; the PI synthase Pis1p seems to select CDP-DG molecules containing C16:0 [99], while C18:0 chains are incorporated via remodelling by the LPI acyltransferase Psi1p, their closest homologue to mammalian AGPAT8 [100]. P 1\Delta yeast strains present an abnormal localization of PI4P and PI(4,5)P₂ and alterations in vesicle trafficking and cell polarity, which has been attributed to non-redundant functions of the PIPn pool containing C18:0 [101]. The main lysophospholipid sn-2 acyltransferase in yeast microsomes is Ale1p, an MBOAT family enzyme with a strong preference for mono- and poly-unsaturated acyl-CoA chains, though the longer chain C20:4-CoA is a poor substrate [102]. Studies investigating the substrate preferences of the mammalian MBOAT family suggest some overlapping selectivity for the lyso-phospholipid head group and varying selectivity for acyl-CoA chain length and degree of unsaturation [26], but MBOAT7 appears remarkably selective for both LPI and C20:4-CoA [28]. Similar results are observed with homologues in nematode [27] and fly [103], though C20:4 is absent from flies [104]. Therefore, during the evolution of PIPn signalling, two different families of acyltransferases (AGPAT and MBOAT) have evolved to generate a pool of PIPn with a stearoyl chain in sn-1 and a polyunsaturated fatty acid in sn-2, which in vertebrates becomes C20:4. Remarkably, the social amoeba , which branched before the divergence of fungi and metazoa, also presents a unique hydrocarbon backbone in PIPn, composed of an ether-linked C16:0 chain in sn-1 and a ester-linked C18:1 chain in sn-2 (C34:1e) [105]. Taken together, a theme emerges that suggests a core functional advantage to the selected PI backbone, such as availability within the bilayer and/or IPn head-group presentation to effectors. This advantage may be fine-tuned in individual organisms to the precise temperature and lipid composition of the membranes in which they must act. Moreover, in some organisms, such as vertebrates and D c there appears to have been further enrichment to more precise molecular species, which may imply additional advantages, such as metabolic identity and optimal PIPn-protein interactions.

While the hydrolysis of PI(4,5)P₂ by PLC seems to be ubiquitous in eukaryotes, the emergence of PLC signalling in metazoans might have increased the pressure for PIPn homeostatic mechanisms. In fly photoreceptor cells, which present heterogeneous PIPn species and require the rapid replenishment of PI(4,5)P₂ to sustain their light-activated PLC signalling, an efficient PI cycle is organised by a specialized ER-PM contact site, the Submicrovillar Cisternae, where PI is resynthesized using PA molecules transferred from the PM by RdgB proteins (a homologue of mammalian Nir2) [68]. In mammals, the efficient operation of a PI cycle in different cell types might be facilitated by an additional layer of selectivity provided by the C38:4 backbone (see discussion above). This may be reflected in the divergence of C38:4-selective CDS2 and non-selective CDS1 in vertebrates [106] and it would be informative to investigate whether other proteins involved in the mammalian PI cycle, such as Nir2/3, have evolved selectivity for C38:4 substrates.

The presence of alternative PIPn species

Whilst the forgoing discussion has focussed on the enrichment of the C38:4 species of PIPn in primary mammalian tissue, several examples have been reported where this enrichment does not occur, or at least not to the same extent $[107thesubstr\ rinsn-168]$

same manner as C38:4 PIPn. In addition, the stimulation of the PI3K and PLC pathways in platelets indicated that some minor PIPn species present different dynamics to the C38:4 PIPn pool [108].

Alternative PIPn species might also be enriched in certain cell compartments. The exosomes released by prostate cancer cell line PC-3, showed a higher proportion of C34:1 and C36:1 species in PI compared with the parental cells [110]. As PI levels were very low in exosomes, their unusual composition could indicate an exclusion of polyunsaturated PI species during exosome formation. This lack of C38:4 enrichment in PIs has also been observed in extracellular vesicles derived from other prostate cell lines [111] or differentiated 3T3-L1 adipocytes [112], although their levels were not compared with those of the parental cells. Similarly, PI in lung surfactant showed a predominance of saturated/monounsaturated species, which could be related to its biophysical functions [25,113].

A higher saturation degree in alternative PIPn species could render functional advantages, such as facilitating their packing [3]. PIPn can aggregate in microdomains, as seen with clusters of synthasin- $1A/PI(4,5)P_2$ control-

• Ne y dare frmy eyd fye maab cd amc f PIP m ecar ece a dy e c fye ac ca arabe f g a a dyr g ra a a .

AGPAT, ac __cer _3- a e ac u ra fera e; CDP-DG, CDP-d ac __cer _ CDS, CDP-d ac __cer _

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