Pantothenate Kinase 4 Governs Lens Epithelial Fibrosis by Negatively Regulating PKM2 Related Glycolysis

Xue Li [1], Lin-Lin Luo [1], Qiu-Mei Hu [1], Xi Chen [1], Rui-Feng Li [1], Chun-Lin Chen [1], Min Sun [1]*, Sen Lin [2]*

[1]Department of Ophthalmology, Daping Hospital, Army Medical Center of PLA, Army Medical University, Chongqing, 400042
[2]Department of Neurology, Xinqiao Hospital, The Second Affiliated Hospital, Army Medical University, Chongqing, 400037

Corresponding authors: Lin Sen, sam_lin_amc@163.com; Sun Min, minmins@126.com

Abstract

Lens fibrosis is one of the leading causes of cataract. Though the epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) causes anterior subcapsular cataract (ASC) and posterior capsule opacification (PCO) which could be eliminated by surgery, yet lacks effective drug, and the mechanism elucidation which may shed on light on other organ fibrosis treatment. In current study, we discovered a novel mechanism that regulate lens epithelial cell (LEC) EMT. Firstly, pantothenate kinase 4 (PANK4) level is corelated with aging in cataract patients and mice. Loss of function of PANK4 significantly contribute to alleviate the EMT of LECs by upregulating PKM2 which was phosphorylated at Y105 residue thus switching oxidative phosphorylation to glycolysis. However, PKM2 regulation did not affect PANK4 which demonstrate the downstream role of PKM2. Inhibition of PKM2 in *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ mice cause lens fibrosis, which strengthen the results that PANK4-PKM2 axis is required for LEC EMT. It was also found glycolytic governed HIF signaling involves in the PANK4-PKM2 related downstream signaling. However, HIF-1 elevation is independent of PKM2(S37) but Y105 residue when PANK4 deleted, which demonstrated PKM2 and HIF-1 not involve in a classic positive feedback loop. Collectively, these results indicated a novel PANK4 related glycolysis switch which may contribute to HIF-1 stabilization and PKM2 phosphorylation at Y105, and inhibit the LEC EMT process.

Introduction

Lens fibrosis, which is characterized by hyperproliferation, migration, and the epithelial–mesenchymal transition (EMT) of LECs, cause anterior subcapsular cataract (ASC) and posterior capsule opacification (PCO) insulting the vision by changing light scattering[1]. Because the unique biological properties of lens, it could act as an ideal model for investigating the molecular mechanisms of tissue and organ fibrosis, such as liver cirrhosis, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis and renal fibrosis, which account for more than 45% mortality[2, 3]. EMT is a major cause of the progression in organ fibrosis and ocular fibrosis, including several eye diseases, including PCO, ASC, pterygium, and glaucoma, and is part of the wound-healing process post-ocular surgery[4-9]. In fibrotic cataract, lens epithelium loss their integrity and normal function but disorganized with excessive fibronectin (FN) and collagen (Col) in extracellular matrix (ECM). When transition of epithelial-to-mesenchymal starts, the EMT of lens epithelium was regulated by varieties of mechanisms with the classic prominent roles of Transforming growth factor (TGFβ)/Smad signaling[10-13] and glycolytic metabolism[14]. The lens is an avascular tissue relying on limited supply of oxygen and glucose[15] and lens epithelium can utilize oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) for the generation of ATP by mitochondria, however, the lens fiber cells are reliant on the glycolysis to support their energy demands[14]. Hence, the regulation of glycolytic metabolism of LECs would be a potential strategy to prevent lens fibrosis. However, publications on the relationship of cataract to statins (HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors) have reported inconsistent findings[16-18]. Acetyl-CoA is the precursor to HMG-CoA, one of the products of CoA which is produced during the second step of aerobic cellular respiration, pyruvate decarboxylation, occurs in the matrix of the mitochondria. PANK1, PANK2 and PANK3 are key regulatory enzymes involved in the CoA biosynthetic pathway[19], which catalyze the phosphorylation of the vitamin pantothenate to 4'-phosphopantothenate, subsequently leads to the formation of CoA. However, the fourth member of PANK family, PANK4, lacks enzyme activity because it misses an important catalytic glutamate site and its name is thus a misnomer[19-21]. In previous study, we found a novel PANK4 mutation in congenital cataract formation[22], which results in the apoptosis of lens epithelial cells and the aberrant expression patterns of crystallin. Yet, the function and mechanism of PANK4 is still under consideration.

Studies in Han Chinese have indeed shown that gene polymorphisms in PANK4 are associated with type 2 diabetes[23] and functional experiments have shown that PANK4 can affect the apoptosis of pancreatic β cells[24]. In diabetic cataract formation, aldose reductase (AR) mediated polyol accumulation has been shown to lead to EMT, characterized by osmotic imbalances and oxidative stress that result in fiber cell swelling, liquefaction and eventually development of cataracts[25, 26] [27]. Eventually, the AR leads to the formation of pyruvate generation which is limited by pyruvate

kinase M2 isozyme (PKM2) in the last step of glycolysis [28, 29]. It was indicated rat Pank4 was found to be associated with PKM2 with KOG2201 and KOG4584 domain under both in vitro and in vivo conditions[30]. PKM2 was previously reported expressed in fetal tissues and cancers, and has been shown to be part of EMT in human colorectal cancer cells[31]. PKM2 expression is enhanced in cancers and favors the glycolytic pathway and potentially the metastatic potential such as in pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma tissues and cell lines[32]. PKM2-mediated glycolysis also involved in inflammasome activation by modulating EIF2AK2 phosphorylation in macrophages[33]. Moreover, activation of PKM2 is a potentiate treatment against diabetic nephropathy by increasing the glucose metabolic flux and inhibiting the production of toxic glucose metabolites[34]. PKM2 is recruited to phosphorylate histone H3 at T11 which results in H3-K9 acetylation and transcription of glycolytic genes including *GLUT1, MYC, CCND1,* lactate dehydrogenase A (*LDHA*) that enhancing the Warburg effect, whereas PKM2 is reported as a substrate of Cdc25A which formed a positive feedback loop[35-38]. Unlike many other organs, lens grows throughout our life although at a slow rate in adult lenses compared to the young lenses depending on glycolic activities [39]. However, is it unclear whether PKM2 dependent glycolic metabolism maybe one of the major activities in lens epithelium maintenance and in lens epithelium EMT process. Nonetheless, the relationship of PANK4 and PKM2 in cataract and lens epithelium metabolism remain unclear.

In current study, we investigated a role of PANK4 in lens epithelium EMT and fibrosis. We show that PANK4 specifically expressed in human and mice lens epithelium, which negatively regulates the LEC EMT process and functions in a PKM2 phosphorylation depending glycolytic metabolism manner. Without PANK4, the aging and injury related lens epithelium fibrosis are attenuated. Meanwhile, the glycolytic metabolism balance is perturbed. The suppression of the metabolic switch in LEC through PKM2 activation or by PANK4 loss of function speeds the EMT of the LECs. In contrast, preemptive amplification of the metabolic response through inhibition of PKM2 confers the promotion of lens epithelium EMT process, which shed light on the potentiation of clinical drugs in preventing the PCO formation.

Materials and Methods

Pank4 transgenic mice generation

Pank4$^{-/-}$ mice were generated by Nanjing Biomedical Research Institute of Nanjing University, China, similar as previously described, with 5bp mutation [40]. Briefly, we made *pank4* knockout mice via the CRISPR/Cas9 system. Cas9 mRNA and sgRNA were co-injected into zygotes. sgRNA direct Cas9 endonuclease caused a cleavage in exon3, and creates a double-strand break (DSB). Such breaks will be repaired by non-homologous end jointing (NHEJ), and result in destruction of the *Pank4* gene. The

Pank4 targeting sequence is *gacgtggagcaggatcatgagccaccctatgagatctcagtccaggag agatcacagctcgcctgcatttcatcaagtttgagaatacctacatggaagcctgcctggacttcatcagagaccaccta gtcaacactgagaccaaggtcatccaggccactgggggtggagcctacaagttcaaggacctcatcgaggagaagc tgcgtctgaa*. Offspring were screened for correct genotype by PCR analysis of tail DNA. Mice were housed in cages in a room with a 12-hr light-dark cycle with ad libitum access to water and rodent chow diet. Animal protocols have been approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of Army Medical Center, Army Medical University (No. AMUWEC20201055).

Lens capsular injury induced fibrosis model

Lens capsular injury induced fibrosis was performed as described previously[41, 42]. Briefly, 6-8 weeks old male mice were anesthetized generally with intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (70 mg/kg) and topically with dicaine eyedrop. After topical application of mydriatic, a small incision was made in the central anterior capsule of the right eye through the cornea with a 31-gauge hypodermic needle. The depth of injury was approximately 300 μm, which has been reported to form the fibrotic tissue around the lens puncture point. The mice were allowed to heal for 7 days. After that, the mice were sacrificed and the eyes were enucleated for the following experiments.

Lens epithelial tissue collection from cataract patients

A total of 27 cataract patients (age 17 to 81 yrs) with unilateral cataract presenting to the Depart of Ophthalmology, Army Medical Center, Army Medical University, participated in this study. Especially, the 17yrs patient suffered from traumatic cataract. Other patients have age related cataract. The parents provided informed consent to participate in the study and all samples were collected with written informed consent from the participants. The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee of Army Medical Center (No. 2018-31-32 and No. 2020-131). All procedures involving human material were performed in accordance with current ethical standards of the institutional and national research committee and with the Declaration of Helsinki ethical standards. All patients underwent detailed examination that included photography and slit-lamp microscopy of the lens. Lens epithelium samples were only from healthy patients. Abnormal coagulation function, etiological examination including hepatitis B, hepatitis C, syphilis, and human immunodeficiency virus, diabetes, hypertension, hyperlipidemia were excluded from the study.

Cell culture and EMT Induction

The human lens epithelial cell (SRA01/04) line was presented by Hao-Tian Lin from Zhong Shan Ophthalmic Center, Sun Yat-Sen University, as previously described [43].

SRA01/04 were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) FBS, 100 U/mL streptomycin, and 100 U/mL penicillin and grown at 37°C in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. Then LECs were seeded in 12-well cell culture plates at a concentration of 5.0×10^4 cells/mL and incubated in incubator (37°C and 5% CO_2) in standard medium for 24 h. Then LECs were treated with TGF-β2 (1 μg/mL) for 12h until the cell density grew to 60%. Next, the LECs were divided into different groups, to deal with pkm-in-1 or dasa-58 separately for 24h.

Lens culture and treatment

All experimental procedures conformed to the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research. Briefly, lens culture protocol was followed previous publication with some modification[44-46]. Briefly, lenses from one-month C57BL/6J mice were carefully removed using forceps and a pair of fine scissors, and maintained in 4ml serum-free DMEM/F12 medium, containing 0.1 mg/ml L-glutamine, 50 IU/ml penicillin and 50 mg/ml streptomycin. TGF-β2 was added to the culture medium at the final concentrations of 5 ng/ml. Culture medium was renewed every second day throughout the culture period. Lenses were cultured for up to 5 days and the images were captured by using a dissecting microscope (Olympus, Japan).

Immunofluorescence staining

For mice, the eyeballs were removed and fixed in 4% PFA for 3h, then dehydrated in a sucrose solution (30%) for 3h. After that, eyeballs were embedded in OCT Tissue Tek Medium, and cut into 10-μm-thick sections adhered onto anti-slip slides by using a frozen section machine. For LECs, cells were grown on 13-mm coverslips in 24-well plates, and fixed in 4% PFA for 15 min at RT. Eyeballs sections and fixed LECs were washed with PBS, then samples were permeabilized and blocked in 0.3% Triton X-100 and 3% bovine serum albumin in PBS for 30 min at RT. After that, samples were incubated with appropriate primary antibodies (Table 1) overnight at 4◦C. After these steps, the samples were washed in PBS and incubated with the fluorescent secondary antibodies (Table 1) for 0.5 h at RT. And, samples were mounted after DAPI staining. In this process, samples were washed with PBS for 3 times/3min between each step. Images were captured with a confocal microscope.

Protein extraction and Western blot

Protein was were obtained from lens tissues in vivo experiments or primary cultured SRA01/04 in vitro. Samples were lysed in ice-cold lysis buffer, which consisted with RIPA and the protease inhibitor cocktail. Then, protein was clarified by heraeus sepatech and the supernatant was collected in new tubes. Then the concentrations of protein were determined by BCA Protein Assay kit. Loading buffer was added in

protein, and the mixture were boiled for 10min, and stored at -80°C.

For Western blot, twenty micrograms of total protein were used to separate on 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels, and transferred to the polyvinylidene fluoride membranes. The membranes were blocked for 2h in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) with 5% non-fat skimmed milk powder, at RT. Then, the membranes were probed with primary antibodies (Table 1) at 4°C for overnight, and probed by the secondary antibodies at RT for 1.5h. Last, the Images were captured by Western blot automatic exposure apparatus.

Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP)

Co-immunoprecipitation was performed as manual described. Briefly, after thoroughly resuspend, magnetized and washed, SureBeads (Biorad, 1614013) were resuspended wit 5 µg PKM1 (CST, D30G6) PKM2(CST, D78A4); PANK4 (CST, D8N2C) antibodies in final volume of 200 µl, respectively, and IgG as the control. Rotate 10 min at room temperature (RT). Magnetize beads and discard supernatant, followed by repeat wash with 1,000 µl PBS-T for three times. Total lysate (300µg) from WT and $Pank4^{-/-}$ mice lens epithelium was diluted into a final volume of 500 µL NP40 Lysis Buffer (Solarbio, N8032), and PMSF (Solarbio, P0100). Rotate for 1 hr at room temperature (RT). Magnetize beads and discard supernatant. Wash with 1,000 µl PBS-T, resuspend the beads thoroughly, magnetize beads and discard supernatant, repeat three times (3×). Before the last magnetization, transfer the resuspended beads to a new tube. Spin down all tubes for several seconds. Magnetize beads and aspirate residual buffer from the tubes Add 40 µl 1× Laemmli buffer (biorad,1610747) and incubate for 10 min at 70°C. Magnetize beads and move eluent to a new vial. Equal amounts of extracts were separated by SDS-PAGE, and then they were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes and then blotted with specific Antibodies.

Wound healing assay

SRA01/04s were cultured in a 12-well plate. After cells were grouped and got the corresponding treatment. Then when cell density grew to 90%, a 10 µl pipette tip was used to make a straight scratch through the monolayers. In the following period, cells migrated into the wound surface. The scratch width was used to represent the migrating ability of SRA01/04s. After 24 h, the scratch width was measured in five randomly selected fields. Data presented are repeated three times.

ATP measurement

Intracellular ATP was determined by using an ATP assay kit as previously described[47]. Briefly, cells were lysed 5 minutes, and centrifuged at 12,000 g at 4°C for 5 minutes. Then supernatant was added to test plate pre-treated with ATP detection reagent. Luminescence was measured by using a microplate reader. And the remaining cells

lysate was measured with the BCA protein assay kit to determine the concentration of protein. Finally, ATP concentration was expressed as μmol/g protein.

mRNA-Sequence and bio-informative data analysis

Total RNA extraction, mRNA library construction, and RNA sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from the lens epithelial tissues using TRIzol (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the previously described protocol[48, 49]. Briefly, after routine RNA extraction, 25-100μL of diethyl pyrocarbonate-treated water was added to dissolve the RNA. The first-strand cDNA was generated using random hexamer-primed reverse transcription, followed by second-strand cDNA synthesis. A-tailing mix and RNA index adapters were added for incubating for end repair. The cDNA fragments were amplified using PCR, and the products were purified using Ampure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) dissolved in EB solution. The product was validated using an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer for quality control. The double-stranded PCR products were heated, denatured, and circularized by the splint oligo sequence to derive the final library. The single-strand circle DNA (ssCir DNA) was formatted as the final library. The final library was amplified with phi29 to prepare a DNA nanoball (DNB), with more than 300 copies. DNBs were loaded into the patterned nanoarray, and single-end 50-base reads were generated on an MGISEQ2000 sequencing platform. The mRNA sequencing was performed by Genetics Biotech Inc and Biowavelet Inc in Chongqing, China.

Identification of differentially expressed genes

The expression level of genes was calculated using Salmon (version 1.4.0). The heatmap was drawn using pheatmap (version 1.0.8). Essentially, differential expression analysis was performed using the DESeq2 (version 1.4.5) with Q-value ≤0.05. To gain insight into the change of phenotype, geneontology (GO, http://www.geneontology.org/) and KEGG (https://www.kegg.jp/) enrichment analyses of the annotated differently expressed genes were performed using Phyper (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hypergeometric_distribution) based on the hypergeometric test. The significant terms and pathways were corrected with Q-value with a rigorous threshold (Q-value ≤0.05) using the Bonferroni method.

Pyruvate detection

The PA levels were determined by pyruvate assay kit (Pyruvate Assay Kit (ab65342/K609-100), Abcam). PA content were evaluated by measuring the absorbance at 505 nm. and the concentration PA was calculated using the following formula (A is an abbreviation of absorbance): PA content (μmol/ml) = (A (sample) - A (blank)) / (A (standard) - A (blank)) × standard concentration (0.2 μmol/ml) / protein concentration of sample (mg/ml).

Seahorse measurement

Seahorse analysis has been performed as previously described[50]. The Oxygen Consumption Rate (OCR) and the extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) were determined using the Seahorse XF96 Extracellular Flux Analyzer through the Seahorse XF Mito Stress Test Kit and Seahorse XF Glycolysis Stress Test Kit. It's used to measure the dependence of cells on the oxidative metabolism or preferentially the glycolytic function in cells. LECs were counted and seeded in XF96 Seahorse® microplates with 10,000 cells per well. After cells were grouped and got the corresponding treatment. Then when cell density grew to 80%, cells were cultured in XF Assay Medium supplemented with 1 mM glutamine in order to assess ECAR, in XF Assay Medium supplemented with 2 mM glutamine in order to assess OCR. and cells were placed in a CO_2-free incubator with 37℃ for 0.5h. The plate was left to equilibrate in before being transferred to the Seahorse XF96 analyzer. The pre-hydrated cartridge was filled with the indicated compounds and calibrated for 30 min in the Seahorse Analyzer. All the experiments were performed at 37℃. Normalization to protein content was performed after each experiment. The Seahorse XF Report Generator automatically calculated the parameters from Wave data that have been exported to Graphpad.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed by Graph pad prism software (version 8.4, GraphPad Software). Data were presented as mean ± SD. For comparison between two groups, student's t test was performed. For comparisons among more than two groups, one way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post hoc test was performed. All statistical tests were two-side. A $p<0.05$ was considered statistically significant. All experiments were carried out at least three times unless otherwise stated.

Results

PANK4 levels increase with age in both rodent and human lens epithelium

PCO related fibrosis is reported associating with the aging process of lens epithelium[12]. In our study, we measured the expression levels of PANK4 in collected lens epithelium from different age-stages in human (from 17yrs old to 81yrs) and in mice (postnatal 15day (P15), 2-month old (2Mo), 6Mo and 12Mo). The intensity of fluorescence analysis reveals the expression patterns of PANK4 in lens epithelium at different age stages (Fig. 1A). It was found the levels of PANK4 increased gradually in parallel with the elevated aging stages (Fig. 1A). PANK4 puncta are specifically located in the cytoplasm of lens epithelium presented from 17yrs, 47yrs and 81yrs patients (Fig. 1A). To evaluate the distribution of the puncta, we outline the tangential plane of LEC with ImageJ software, thus quantified the gray value of the intensity of the fluorescence of which 47- and 81-yrs groups exhibit more intensive gray value in the cytoplasm (Fig.

1B). Furthermore, an increased number of puncta was found in the intracellular cytoplasm of LECs in aged groups compared with that in younger groups (Fig. 1C). To verify the immune-intensity results, we collected and pooled lens epithelium from patients at ages of 40-50 yrs, 50-60 yrs, 60-70 yrs and over 80yrs groups. The intensities of PANK4 blots were elevated in parallel with the increasing of age (Fig. 1D). While in mice, PANK4 is localized in the whole anterior lens epithelium and equator by immunostaining (Fig. 1E). Amplified high power crops showed the PANK4 positive signals in cytoplastic localization (Fig. 1E and F), which are in consistent with the immunostaining suggesting the promising pattern of PANK4 in lens. We collected mice lens epithelium tissues at P15, 2Mo, 6Mo and 12Mo. PANK4 was also found increased dramatically in an age-dependent tendency (Fig.1H), which strengthen the tendency of PANK4 in human. Meanwhile, the lens epithelial EMT related characteristic molecules such as N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA, which were upregulated in an aging dependent tendency (Fig. 1H). These data suggest PANK4 is correlated with age dependent lens epithelium fibrosis.

PANK4 is required for lens epithelium fibrosis and EMT

TGF-β2 is the major isoform in the aqueous humor, acts as the predominant pathogenic factor in the development of lens epithelium EMT[51, 52]. Owing to this, we inject TGF-β2 in to the anterior chamber to induce the EMT. As expected, the expression levels of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA upregulated, consistent with previous reports[2, 53, 54]. Meanwhile, PANK4 protein level elevated as well (Fig. 2A and B), which suggested the TGF-β2 induced LEC EMT is correlated with PANK4 level, in another word, addition of TGF-β2 contributed to PANK4 expression. We next considered whether the PANK4 modification alter the EMT by using *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. It was noticed dramatic decrease levels of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA in lens epithelium of 2-month-old *Pank4*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 2C and D). To illustrate whether PANK4 is required for aging related lens fibrosis, we detected 1-year-old WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. Similarly, N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA were also inhibited when PANK4 was deficient (Fig. 2E and F). To determine the loss-of-function effect of PANK4 in EMT alleviation, we next set up lens fibrosis model by TGF-β2 injection into mice eye. Compared with WT group, *Pank4*^{-/-} mice showed dramatic decrease of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA with and without TGF-β2 injections (Fig. 2G and H). Alleviation of lens fibrosis was either found in TGF-β2 injection groups and lens puncture groups (Fig. 2I) compared with WT mice. Together, these results demonstrated that PANK4 is required for lens epithelial EMT. To confirm the loss-of-function effect of PANK4, we also used siRNA[*Pank4*] to knockdown it in SRA01/04s. Here we tested 3 different siRNA sequences (#274, #962 and #1114) of which #1114 showed sufficient almost 80% inhibition of PANK4, while the other two siRNAs exhibited attenuated inhibition effect

of nearly 30% (Suppl Fig.1). After 48h interference of Pank4 mRNA, the levels of collagen I and α-SMA decreased remarkably to 33% and 30%, while N-cadherin reached to 41% reduction (Fig. 2J and K). These results were accompanied by a decrease in HLCs migration test (Fig. 2L and M) that siRNA^{Pank4} inhibit the migration rate of HLCs, while overexpression of PANK4 by Lenti virus-Pank4 accelerate the migration, which together suggested PANK4 implicating in HLC EMT process.

PANK4 increases the EMT of lens epithelium by regulating respiratory electron transport and OXPHOS

Although PANK4 is considered as a putative kinase in PANK family, all amniote PANK4s, including human PANK4, encode Glu138Val and Arg207Trp substitutions which are predicted to inactivate kinase activity [55], the exact role of it is still under consideration. To investigate the causative role and mechanisms of PANK4 in EMT, we screen the mRNAs of lens epithelium by RNA-seq in comparation of WT and *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice (n=4). Volcano analysis indicated UCP2 (Fig3A), a mitochondrial uncoupling protein that is an ion/anion transporter located in mitochondrial inner membrane, and has a crucial role in regulating oxidative stress, cellular metabolism, cell proliferation and cell death[56]. Among molecular function, cellular component and biological process, "collagen binding", "growth cone" and "regulation of cell-cell adhesion" GO terms were enriched (Fig. 3B). To further elucidate the mRNA enrichment, we performed GSEA analysis and found "electron transport chain", "respiratory electron transport" and "oxidative phosphorylation" were enriched in WT group, which demonstrate the potential role of PANK4 in negatively regulating the process of glycolysis. To verify this potentiation, we tested concentrations of pyruvic acid and ATP in control and siRNA^{Pank4} groups. Dramatic elevation of pyruvic acid was found when Pank4 was knocked down, but reduction of ATP was observed compared with siControl group (Fig 3D). To test the transformation of OXPHOS to glycolysis by PANK4, we used Seahorse real-time detection to measure the extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) when *Pank4* was knock down by siRNA^{Pank4}. No significant of basal respiration was found between the two groups, however, spare respiratory capacity and maximum respiration were decreased in siRNA^{Pank4} group. Non-mitochondrial oxygen consumption was found dramatically increased (Fig 3E). In addition, GSEA analysis showed an enrichment of "Glycolysis" gene cluster in *Pank4$^{-/-}$* group (Fig. 3F). Meanwhile, ratio of glycolytic rate, glycolytic capacity and glycolysis were all significant increase when *Pank4* was knocked down (Fig. 3G). These evidences suggested the essential role of PANK4 in negatively regulating the glycolysis. To verify the glycolysis status of lens epithelium when PANK4 deficient, we tested HIF-1α, HIF-1β and HIF-2α which are typical cellular oxygen sensors. As expected, all three hypoxic sensors elevated dramatically in *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice (Fig 3H) which strengthen the

conclusion that PANK4 is a negative regulator in the shift of OXPHOS and glycolysis. To investigate how deficiency of PANK4 contribute to the incline of glycolysis and OXPHOS, we also tested acetyl CoA carboxylase (ACC) and found unexpected elevations (Fig. 3I). To confirm the possible role of PANK4 in catalyzing CoA, we also tested the production of CoA under WT and Pank4 knock-out conditions. Similarly as reported previously[55], no significant difference of CoA was observed between the two groups (Suppl Fig. 2) which suggested there is a putative alternative role of PANK4 in regulating EMT. Interestingly, the concentration of lactate was also increased in lens epithelium but not in blood (Fig. 3J). Since ACC is the key enzyme in catalyzing the step of acetyl-CoA+ATP to malonyl-CoA+ADP/Pi, and the evidence showed ATP level was declined in $Pank4^{-/-}$ group (Fig3. D), we speculated the step exhaust amount of ATP. Alternatively, to further confirm the bypass of pyruvate to lactate, we tested the levels of PFKP, PFKB3, LDHA, PDHK1 and PDH. No significant change was found in PFKB3, PDHK1 and PDH, but levels of PFKP and LDHA were elevated (Fig. 3L and M), which suggested an increasing activity of glycolysis, as the schematic diagram indicated (Fig. 3N).

PANK4 alters the balance of OXPHOS and glycolysis by negatively regulating PKM2

As PKM2 is considered as an associated protein that interact with rat PANK4 which isolated from rat muscle cDNA library by yeast two-hybrid screening[30]. In addition, by STRING protein-protein interaction networks functional enrichment analysis (https://string-db.org/), we also found the potentiation relationship of PANK4 and PKM with a score of 0.705. Seldom other evidence demonstrates the relationship between the two molecules till now. Therefore, we use Co-IP to identify the potential binding relationship between the two proteins. The blot results showed that PKM2 significantly increased when immune-preciated binding with PANK4, while PKM1 not. To verify the binding relationship of them, we used PKM2 antibody to bait the protein, which show significant PANK4 immunoprecipitation (Fig 4A), indicating the promise functional binding relationship of PANK4 and PKM2. It was clearly indicated the specific location of PKM2 in lens epithelium (Fig. 4B), and the co-staining pattern of PKM2 and PANK4 in cytoplasm of lens epithelial cells (Fig. 4C). We then ask the regulation mechanism of them by using $Pank4^{-/-}$ mice, which demonstrated a significant elevated level of PKM2 in lens epithelium and equator by immunostaining (Fig.4E and F) as well as Western blot results (Fig.4G and H), with no significant difference of PKM1 expression between WT and $pank4^{-/-}$ groups. By siRNA^{Pank4} knockdown of $Pank4$ mRNA in HLE cells, we also noticed the remarkable increase of PKM2 in cytoplasm (Fig.4I), in consistent with the consequence of genome deficiency of pank4 in lens epithelium (Fig. 4D and E), following by a Western blot confirmation of elevated

PKM2 protein level without PKM1 significant change (Fig. 4J and K). With TGF-β2 injection induced lens epithelium fibrosis, deletion of *Pank4* increase the level of PKM2 as well (Fig. 4M and N), which suggested the negative regulation between PANK4 and PKM2. In subject of the conversion of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) to pyruvic acid, PEP is alternatively catalyzed by PKM2[57]. Strikingly, we found pyruvic acid increased when PANK4 was inhibited in LECs (Fig. 4L). These data suggested a potential novel role of PANK4-PKM2 axis in glycolysis in lens epithelium (Fig. 4M).

Inhibition of PKM2 attenuates EMT of lens epithelium by promoting the glycolysis related Warburg effect

The inhibition and activation of PKM2 by PKM-IN-1 and DASA-58, which are typical antagonist and agonist of PKM2, did not significantly change the PANK4 level which suggest the downstream role of PKM2. In presence of the PKM2 inhibition or activation by PKM-IN-1 or DASA-58, the levels of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA increased when PKM2 inhibited, yet attenuated when activated, respectively and significantly (Fig. 5A and B). These results indicated an important role of PKM2 downstream the PANK4 in regulating the EMT of LECs. To confirm the downstream role of PKM2 which negatively regulated by PANK4, we used PKM-IN-1 to inhibit PKM2 elevation when PANK4 ablated. As expected, the expression of PKM2 was decreased but phosphor-PKM2 elevated, as well as the increased level of EMT markers, such as α-SMA, collagen I and N-cadherin (Fig. 5C). To understand the OXPHOS to glycolysis with EMT by PKM2 facilitation, we used Seahorse real-time detection to measure the mito-stress during the procedure (from 0 to 80 mins). Increase in extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) after adding glucose indicated the level of glycolysis of the cells, while a decrease in oxygen consumption rate (OCR) after adding oligomycin indicated the level of ATP production or OXPHOS of the cells. By DASA-58 treatment, glycolysis rate, glycolysis capacity and glycolysis reserve ECAR values were all decreased compared with *Pank4* knock down group (Fig. 5D and E). DASA-58 rescued the *Pank4* knock down related ECAR value elevation. No difference of maximum respiration, basal respiration and ATP production were found between sipank4 and DASA-58+sipank4 groups, which suggested the potential glycolysis regulation of PANK4 via PKM2 (Fig. 5F, G and H). Conversely, OCR value of spare respiratory capacity was increased (Fig. 5F, G and H). Pyruvate acid concentration was declined by PKM-in-1 treatment while increased when treated with DASA-58 (Fig. 5I). ATP level decreased strikingly in DASA-58 treatment group, while did not in PKM-IN-1 group (Fig. 5I), which suggested DASA-58 is effective in shifting PKM2 dependent OXPHOS and glycolysis. These results above directly reflect the lower level of glycolytic activity of SRA01/04 by DASA-58 treatment, yet could be rescued by *Pank4* knock down. However, PKM-IN-1 did not effectively take function in both ECAR and

OCR analysis. Since the activation of PKM2 attenuate lens epithelial EMT phenotype,
we tried injection of PKM-IN-1 into anterior chamber in a TGF-β2 induced lens
epithelium fibrosis model. By slit lamp observation, we could see opaque anterior lens
(fibrosis) in PKM-IN-1 treated group at 3d, however, transparent lens in Veh group (Fig.
5J), which revealed PANK4 deficiency dependent activation of PKM2 is a promising
target in lens epithelial fibrosis inhibition via incline of OXPHOS to glycolysis (Fig.
5M).
479
PANK4 deficiency is responsible for PKM2 phosphorylation at Y105 and HIF-α1
activation
Since we found a PANK4 deficiency related PKM2 elevation, we ask further
mechanisms. Previous studies indicated that cytoplasmic PKM2 functions with
tetramer formation, whereas nuclear PKM2 functions with dimer/monomer formation
which may provide a protein binding ability[58]. Here we firstly treated the protein
without SDS to exhibit the status of PKM2 under PANK4 deletion result in increased
expression of ~120-kDa complex and ~60-kDa band, corresponding to dimeric and
monomict PKM2 (Fig 6A and B). Increased total PKM2 was found at both ~120-kDa
and ~60-kDa, while no significant increase of it was found at ~240-kDa (Fig. 6C).
Further, p-PKM2(Y105) exert no significant difference between WT and *Pank4*^{-/-}
groups, but p-PKM2(S37) indeed declined (Fig. 6D and E), which suggested all the
relative elevation of t-PKM2 was due to phosphorylation of Y105 residue. To
investigate the cellular locations of p-PKM2 (Y105 and S37), we performed
immunofluorescence staining in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} lens epithelium. It was showed p-
PKM2 (Y105) signals were mainly located in the nuclear of lens epithelial cell in WT
group, but in the cytoplasm of *Pank4*^{-/-} ones (Fig. 6F). Plot profile of
immunofluorescence signal described the levels of p-PKM2 (Y105) in lens epithelium
of WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} groups (Fig. 6G). To investigate the location of p-PKM2 (Y105), a
transection of single cellular profile was delineated (Fig. 6H), which strengthen the
immunofluorescence results that p-PKM2 (Y105) was mainly located in cellular
nuclear. Meanwhile, p-PKM2 (S37) immunofluorescence signals were found puncta-
shape and located in the cytoplasm and nuclear of WT lens epithelial cells, however,
less puncta were found in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. Plot profile analysis indicated lower levels of
p-PKM2 (S37) OD values in both cytoplasm and nuclear (Fig. 6G). For a single lens
epithelial cell, the curve indicated a typical lower level of p-PKM2 (S37) in nuclear of
lens epithelial cell in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. Together, these results indicated a mechanism that
PANK4 deficiency contribute to the elevations of dimer and monomer forms of p-
PKM2 (Y105), but not S37 residue.
PKM2 was previously reported as a PHD3 stimulated coactivator for hypoxia
inducible factor 1 (HIF-1) to favor the genes associated with glycolysis[59]. Tyrosine

phosphorylation of PKM2 at residue 105 inhibit the formation of a PKM2 tetramer by dislodging the FBP binding, which was demonstrated to be important for the Warburg effect in hypoxia and cancer[60]. To illustrate the relationship between PKM2 and HIF-1 signaling contributed to lens epithelial EMT procedure attenuation. We perform Co-IP to investigate why PANK4 deletion triggered the LEC to a relatively hypoxic condition. Interestingly, much more binding activity was showed in WT lens epithelium rather than that of *Pank4*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 6L), which demonstrated that PKM2(Y105) is physically interact with HIF-1α. However, no binding activity of PANK4 with HIF-1 was found in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 6L). Numerous evidences reported aberrant EMT activator Zeb1 is the key factor for cell plasticity and promotes metastasis in kinds of cancers[61-63]. In response to the PKM2 upregulation and Y105-phospho form trans-nuclear activity, we speculate the p-PKM2 may correspondence to the HIF-1α and thus activate the transcription of EMT related transnuclear factors such as zeb1 and zeb2. To verify this hypothesis, we tested the mRNA levels of Zeb1 and Zeb2, which dramatically decreased in *Pank4*^{-/-} group (Fig. 6M), which suggested a lower progression of EMT. To detail further potential signaling that has been affected by the PANK4 deletion, based on the RNAseq analysis, we noticed a relatively attenuation of Notch1 (Fig. 6N), which is one of the most important factors in leading epithelial EMT process, including lens fibrosis[51, 64]. Therefore, our results provided evidence that PANK4 is considered as a novel regulator of EMT in lens fibrosis. Deficiency of PANK4 contributed to the incline of lens epithelial cell glycolysis, with ATP exhaustion and thus HIF elevation. These results indicated deletion of PANK4 may contribute to the Warburg effect by alleviating pyruvate generation. We also found a relationship of PANK4 and PKM2 that the former negatively regulated PKM2 elevation and PKM2 dimer/monomer phosphorylation at Y105 residue. Both inhibition of PANK4 and activation of PKM2 by DASA-58 resulted in EMT process attenuation, which provide a promising potential target for lens fibrosis and PCO treatment.

Discussion

Cataract is the leading cause of blindness worldwide, tough it can be effectively cured by surgery, an EMT is central to fibrotic cataract[65]. In current study, we demonstrated that PANK4, which is the family member of PANK, is pivotal in LEC EMT process by regulating the balance of OXPHOS and glycolysis. We also found a potential and novel relationship between PANK4 and PKM2, and glycolysis related HIF elevation. Consequently, we propose a model for the regulation of PKM2 in response to PANK4. The PANK4 is strong enough to control LEC EMT process, whilst it was KO or KD, the typical EMT markers such as N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA were decreased, as well as the transcription factors that control the EMT process, like ZEB1, ZEB2.

PANK4 is located on chromosomes 1p36.32[66] and was firstly described as a

putative gene in type 2 diabetes in Chinese population[23]. High glucose could upregulate PANK4 in rat muscle from which was cloned[30]. However, 16 years later till then, limited literature investigated the further mechanism. We tried to collect diabetic patients' blood to exam the putative relationship between PANK4 and diabetes. Unfortunately, no significant difference of PANK4 mRNA level was seen (Suppl Fig. 3), which suggested PANK4 may not be a diabetic candidate gene. Interestingly, Liu's et al reported high PANK4 expression was more common in patients with poor-risk and complex karyotype and was an independent risk factor for event-free survival and overall survival [67], which need further demonstration. Due to the anti-apoptotic effect of PANK4, they speculated high level of PANK4 inhibit the pro-caspase-9, thus result in the shortage of patients' survival. In previous study, we generated a *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mouse line by CRISPR/Cas9 system which showed increased number of apoptotic lens epithelial cells rather than WT group[22]. Therefore, PANK4 may have prominent anti-apoptotic role not only in pancreas, myeloid cells, but also in lens epithelium.

The human genome encodes three characterized pantothenate kinases (PANK1-3) plus a putative bifunctional protein PANK4 with a with a predicted amino-terminal Type II PANK domain and a carboxyterminal phosphatase domain (DUF89) which is large, diverse, and present in all domains of life[20, 68, 69]. DUF89 (Pfam01937) protein family occur as C-terminal fusions to pantothenate kinase (PanK) in plants, animals and chytrid fungi. Human PANK4 had activity against 4'-phosphopantetheine and its S-sulfonate or sulfonate was comparable to that against nitrophenyl phosphate (pNPP) [68]. However, Yao et al. described that all amniote PANK4s, including human PANK4, encode Glu138Val and Arg207Trp substitutions which are predicted to lack pantothenate kinase activity[55]. We firstly designed and generated *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice which have 5-bp mutation prior to exon 3 to get rid of the function PANK4. Interestingly, no significant difference of ac-CoA was found in lens between WT and *pank4$^{-/-}$* mice, which demonstrated PANK4 may not involve in the pathway of CoA synthesis, namely lack the kinase activity. Nonetheless, GSEA analysis revealed noteworthy tendency of OXPHOS, electron transport chain, respiratory electron transport and ATP synthesis enriched in WT mice rather than in *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice (Fig 3A), which suggested the potential ability of PANK4 in redox regulation, independent of ac-CoA pathway.

With respect to Fang et al published papers, PKM2 was highlighted to be associated with PANK4 by the application of yeast two-hybrid system[30]. In current study, we discovered a novel regulation relationship between PANK4 and PKM2. When PANK4 loss it's function, PKM2 increased significantly which suggested a negative relation between them, without PKM1 was changed (Fig 4G). PKM2 controls the balance between energy production and the synthesis of metabolic precursors, thus has both metabolic and nonmetabolic functions, which are essential in the cytoplasm and nucleus, respectively. PKM2 with tetramer functions as a pyruvate kinase, whereas nuclear

PKM2 forms a dimer and functioning as a protein kinase[58], which interact with STAT3 to control downstream gene expression in SW480 cells. However, STAT3 and p-STAT3 were unchanged in lens epithelium of *Pank4*^{-/-} mice by Western blot detection (Suppl Fig. 4), which suggested the nuclear dimeric PKM2 regulated nonmetabolic function intendent of classic STAT3 signaling. PKM2 activity is inhibited after phosphotyrosine binding through the release of FBP from the PKM2 allosteric pocket by Y105 phosphorylation which disrupt the tetrameric PKM2[60, 70]. We also noticed increased dimer and monomer forms of PKM2 under the PANK4 deletion, which indicate the glycolytic metabolic function was not likely due to the tetrameric PKM2. Thus, we speculate PKM2 not contribute to the glycolysis of LEC by tetramer formation under Pank4 ablation but involve in p-PKM2 related signaling transduction.

PKM2-dependent histone H3 modifications are instrumental in EGF-induced expression of cyclin D1 and c-Myc, tumor cell proliferation, cell-cycle progression, and brain tumorigenesis in its nonmetabolic functions of histone modification [71]. In our study, PKM2 dimer and monomer were increased, suggesting that metabolic activity of PKM2 is attenuated during LEC EMT. Thus, it is conceivable that the molecular interaction of PKM2 is highly context dependent, with cell fate determined by the form of PKM2 in regulating gene expression. In addition, PKM2 take essential role in Warburg regulation. Methylation of PKM2 activates aerobic glycolysis to promote tumorigenesis[29]. In transformed tumor cells, PKM2 are phosphorylated at Y105 by kinds of oncogenic kinases and dissociated to PKM2Y105 dimers which promote YAP nuclear translocation for tumor cell growth and transformation[72]. In our study, though the PKM2Y105 elevated dramatically when PANK4 loss of function, the total PKM2 increased at the same time which demonstrated the ratio of phosphorylation of Y105 vs total PKM2 protein consistent, in other words, the elevated PKM2 protein was phosphorylated at Y105. Meanwhile, we noticed the ratio of PKM2S37 *vs* total PKM2 decreased, but no significant change when *vs* inner control (Fig. 6A, B and C). In hepatocellular carcinoma cell lines, PKM2 could be phosphorylated at Ser37 by EGFR-activated ERK when stimulated with EGF, which promoted its nuclear translocation. Acting as both a serine/threonine protein kinase and a tyrosine protein kinase, PKM2 binds to and phosphorylates multiple transcription factors such as β-catenin and STAT3 in the nucleus to promote tumor-related gene transcription. And H3-Thr11 phosphorylation was dependent on the phosphorylation of PKM2 at Ser37[73]. Herein, to clarify whether PKM2S37 phosphorylate STAT3 under PANK4 deletion, STAT3 and p-STAT3 were both detected, but no change was observed (Suppl Fig. 4). Meanwhile, immunostaning of PKM2S37 in lens epithelium was attenuated in *Pank4*^{-/-} group, which strengthen the conclusion that S37 residue related PKM2 transnuclear function may not involve in PANK4 unlocked PKM2 elevation.

The lens is sustained in a hypoxic environment in the eye without any vessel supply.

The oxygen partial pressure (pO_2) at the surface of the lens is 2.9 mm Hg, rather lower than 24.1 mm Hg at the surface of the eye[74]. Thus, PKM2 activity contributes to a high glycolytic potential to support lens metabolism [75-77]. It was indicated PKM2 is capable of catalyzing the final rate-limiting step of glycolysis, which functioned as a dimer to translocate into the nucleus, where it stimulates hypoxia-inducible factor 1α (HIF-1α) transactivation domain function and recruitment of p300 to the hypoxia response[59]. In current study, we found a novel phenomenon that HIF-1α and HIF-1β increased dramatically in parallel with total PKM2 and PKM2Y105 elevation under the PANK4 deletion. Current results showed a physical relationship of PKM2 and HIF-1α in WT mice but dissociated in *Pank4*^{-/-} group. Since lens epithelium in a hypoxic environment in WT condition, PKM2 and HIF-1α may contribute to the homeostasis of LEC survival and the balance of metabolism. Once the PANK4 was absent, more PKM2 were phosphorylated at Y105 residue and dissociated with HIF-1α, together with the favor of glycolysis, suggesting a negative regulation loop of PANK4 on hypoxia. Even though the *Pank4*^{-/-} mice were housed in a high-level oxygen (70%) condition for continuous 7 days, the HIF-1α were still elevated in the lens epithelium of *Pank4*^{-/-} mice (Suppl Fig. 5), which suggested HIF-1α elevation not only due to hypoxic condition, but also could be regulated by PANK4. In normoxia condition, HIF-1α could be hydroxylated in its C-terminal transcription activation domain by the arginyl hydroxylase factor-inhibiting HIF (FIH)[78]. Oxygen dependent degradation of HIF-1α is mediated by the hydroxylation of prolines 402 and 564 of human HIF-1α. However, Warburg effect is capable of activating PI3K and Akt signaling to stabilize the HIF-1α in an aerobic condition, which promote the pyruvate related glycolysis as well[79]. Therefore, the consistent elevation of HIF-1α is depend on PANK4 deletion, whatever in normoxia, hypoxia or hyperoxia conditions. Concerning the uncoupling result of PKM2 and HIF-1α when PANK4 loss of function (Fig.6L), we speculate the elevation of PKM2 and HIF-1α may take function in different ways rather than the classic PKM2-HIF-1 positive feedback loop. PANK4 may functions as a coordinator that organize PKM2 and HIF-1α in cellular OXPHOS and glycolysis activities. In addition, we still cannot exclude the possibility that HIF-1α promote the PKM2 gene transcription or PKM2 promote the HIF-1α gene transcription which need further evidence. It was indicated in older animals, HIF-1α is necessary to maintain high level of p27KIP1 which inhibiting the proliferation of LECs. In previous study, we also discovered apoptotic phenotype of lens epithelial cell in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice, which strengthen the conclusion that PANK4 deficiency dependent HIF-1α elevation may shed inhibition effect on the apoptosis and EMT of LECs.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. PANK4 elevated with age and related to lens fibrosis and EMT.

(**A**) Immunostaining of PANK4 in lens epithelium from patients aged at 17yrs, 47yrs and 81yrs. The scale bar = 10μm. (**B**) Plot profile analysis of immunostaining in lens epithelium of patients aged from 17yrs, 47yrs and 81yrs. (**C**) Quantification of PANK4 immunostaining positive puncta per cell in LECs, from patients aged at 17yrs, 47yrs and 81yrs. (**D**) The levels of PANK4 protein in lens epithelium from cataract patients (50-60yrs, 60-70yrs, 70-80yrs and more than 80yrs groups) were determined by Western blotting assay and quantified by densitometry. (**E**) Immunostaining pattern of PANK4 in the lens epithelium of adult mice. The scale bar = 200μm. HE image presented an anatomy structure of lens. (**F**) and (**G**) High power images of PANK4 immunostaining results in anterior lens epithelium and equator of adult WT mice. The scale bar = 10μm. (**H**) The levels of PANK4 protein in lens epithelium of from P15, 2Mo, 6Mo and 12Mo mice, detected by Western blotting assay and quantified by densitometry. (**I**) The levels of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA protein in lens epithelium of from P15, 2Mo, 6Mo and 12Mo mice, detected by Western blotting assay and quantified by densitometry. Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=15 independent cell for C; n=6 independent samples for D. n=4 independent experiments for H and I). *$p < 0.05$ compared with 17yrs group in C; *$p < 0.05$ compared with 50-60yrs group in D; *$p < 0.05$ compared with P15 group in H and I.

Figure 2. PANK4 is required for lens epithelium fibrosis and EMT

(**A**) and (**B**) The levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA protein in WT lens epithelium after vehicle and TGF-β2 injection. (**C**) and (**D**) The levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA protein in 2-month-old (2Mo) WT and *Pank4⁻/⁻* lens epithelium. anti-PANK4 as positive control. (**E**) and (**F**) The levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA protein in 12-month-old (12Mo) WT and *Pank4⁻/⁻* lens epithelium. anti-PANK4 as positive control. (**G**) and (**H**) The levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, collagen I and α-SMA protein in 2-month-old (2Mo) WT and *Pank4⁻/⁻* lens epithelium, with and without TGF-β2 injection. (**I**) Cultured lens with TGF-β2 (5.0ng/mL) addition for 2 and 4 days (solid arrow indicated fibrosis in the lens). In vivo lens fibrosis phenotype, 7 days after puncture experiment in WT and *Pank4⁻/⁻* mice. Observed and recorded by slit light microscope. (**J**) and (**K**) The levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, collagen I, α-SMA and PANK4 protein after siRNA administration. (**L**) and Lens epithelial cell migration assay at 0h, 12h and 24h, with Lenti virus-*Pank4* overexpression and siRNA interference treatments. (**M**) Quantifications of the wound healing rate (%) at 0h, 12h and 24h. Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=4 independent experiment for A-K; n=6 independent samples for L and M). *$p < 0.05$ compared with 2-Mo WT group in B and D; *$p < 0.05$ compared with 12-Mo WT group in F; *$p < 0.05$ compared with WT group, WT+ TGF-β2 group, respectively, in H. *$p < 0.05$ compared with siPank4 group. *$p < 0.05$ compared with

Pank4 OE group, siPank4 groups, respectively, in M.

Figure 3. EMT of lens epithelium by regulating respiratory electron transport and OXPHOS

(**A**) Volcano plot analysis of different expressed genes in lens epithelium in WT vs *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ mice. (**B**) The most enriched GO terms of biological process, molecular function and cellular component. (**C**) GSEA analysis enriched in electron transport chain, oxidative phosphorylation and respiratory electron transport, showed positive correlation with *Pank4*. (**D**) Concentrations of pyruvic acid and ATP in siControl and si*Pank4* groups in lens epithelial cells. (**E**) Energy metabolism was analyzed on day 2 during reprogramming with the Seahorse instrument. Decrease in oxygen consumption rate (OCR) after si*Pank4* was considered as the ATP production ability of the cells. Spare respiratory capacity and maximum respiration were decreased, while non mitochondrial oxygen consumption was increased after si*Pank4* treated. (**F**) GSEA analysis enriched in electron transport chain, oxidative phosphorylation and respiratory electron transport, showed negative correlation with *Pank4*. (**G**) Increase in extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) after si*Pank4* treatment was considered as glycolysis ability of the cells. (**H**) The Western blot results and the quantifications indicated the protein levels of HIF-1α, HIF-1β and HIF-2α. (**I**) The protein level and quantification of acetyl CoA carboxylase (ACC) in WT and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ lens. (**K**) Concentration of Acetyl-CoA (μM/L) in lens epithelium and (**L**) concentrations of lactate (ng/μL) in blood and lens epithelium of WT and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ mice. (**M**) The Western blot results and the quantifications of PFKP, PFKB3, LDHA, PDHK1and PDH in WT and and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ lens. (**N**) Schematic illustration of current results. Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=4 independent experiment for A-C, F; n=4 independent experiment for D-M). *$p < 0.05$ compared with siPank4 group in D-G; *$p < 0.05$ compared with adult WT group in H-M.

Figure 4. PANK4 negatively regulating PKM2 in lens epithelium

(**A**) Co-IP results of PANK4 and PKM2. (B) Immunofluorescence staining results of PKM2 in whole WT lens. PKM2 located in lens epithelium and equator. The scale bar = 500μm. (**C**) Co-Immunofluorescence staining of PKM2 and PANK4 in lens epithelium. The scale bar = 10μm. (**D**) and (**E**) Immunofluorescence staining of PKM2 in lens epithelium and equator of WT and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ lens. The scale bar = 10μm (**F**) Plot profile curve of PKM2 in WT and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ lens. (**G**) and (**H**) Protein levels and quantifications of PANK4, PKM1, PKM2 in WT and *Pank4*$^{-/-}$ lens. GAPDH as inner control. (**I**) Immunofluorescence staining results of PKM2 in LECs in siControl group and si*Pank4* group. The scale bar = 10μm (**J**) and (**K**) Protein levels and quantifications of PANK4, PKM1, PKM2 in si-control group and siPank4 group. (**M**) and (**N**) Protein

levels and relative expression quantifications of PKM2 in lens epithelium of WT, WT

with TGF-β2 injection, *Pank4$^{-/-}$*, *Pank4$^{-/-}$* with TGF-β2 injection groups. (**L**)

Concentrations of pyruvic acid (μg/ml) in LECs of negative control group, si-control

group and siPank4 group. (**M**) Schematic illustration of current results. Results are

expressed as means ± SD (n=4 independent experiment for G, H, J, K, M, N, L). Results

are expressed as means ± SD (n=3 independent experiment for A-E). *p<0.05 compared

with *Pank4$^{-/-}$* group in H; *p < 0.05 compared with siControl group in K and L; *p<0.05

compared with WT, WT+TGF-β2, *Pank4$^{-/-}$* group, respectively, in N.

Figure 5. **Negatively regulation of PKM2 by PANK4 attenuates EMT of lens**

epithelium by promoting the glycolysis related Warburg effect

(**A**) and (**B**) Protein levels and quantifications of N-cadherin, α-SMA and collagen-I

under PKM-IN-1 and DASA-58 treatments. GAPDH as inner control. (**C**) Protein

levels and quantifications of p-PKM2, PKM2, N-cadherin, α-SMA and collagen-I under

PKM-IN-1 inhibition in *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice. (**D**) and (**E**) Energy metabolism was analyzed

on day 2 during Pank4 knockdown with the Seahorse instrument. Increase in

extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) after si*Pank4* treatment was considered as

glycolysis ability of the cells. Glycolysis, glycolysis capacity and glycolysis reserve

were all increased, respectively, in si*Pank4* group rather than PKM-IN-1, DASA-58,

PKM-IN-1+si*Pank4*, and DASA-58+si*Pank4* groups. (**F**) and (**G**) Decrease in oxygen

consumption rate (OCR) after si*Pank4* was considered as the ATP production ability of

the cells. Spare respiratory capacity elevated in si*Pank4* compared with PKM-IN-1,

DASA-58 and PKM-IN-1+si*Pank4* groups, but decreased in comparison with

DASA-58+si*Pank4* group. (**H**) Maximum respiration increased after si*Pank4* treatment

compared with DASA-58 and DASA-58+si*Pank4* groups, while Proton leak increased

after si*Pank4* treatment compared with PKM-IN-1, PKM-IN-1+si*Pank4* and DASA-

58+si*Pank4* groups. ATP production was elevated in PKM-IN-1, DASA-58 and PKM-

IN-1+si*Pank4* groups. (**I**) Concentration of pyruvic acid (μg/ml) increased in DASA-

58 but decreased in PKM-IN-1 groups. Concentration of ATP (%) elevated both in

Vehicle and PKM-IN-1 groups rather than that in DASA-58 group. (**J**) TGF-β2

injection with vehicle and PKM-IN-1 treatment in 2Month old *Pank4$^{-/-}$* mice. (**M**)

Scheme summarizing of current results. Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=4

independent experiment for A-I). Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=3

independent experiment for J). *p<0.05 compared with Vehicle (Veh) group in B and I;

*p < 0.05 compared with si*Pank4* group in E, G, H.

Figure 6. **PANK4 deficiency is responsible for PKM2 Y105 phosphorylation and**

HIF-1α interaction with PKM2 Y105

(**A**) Represented blot image of mice lens epithelium samples to show PKM2 monomer,

dimer and tetramer. (**B**) Relative expression of t-PKM2 vs GAPDH. (**C**) Analysis of relative OD values of WT PKM2 monomer, dimer and tetramer compared with that in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. (**D**) and (**E**) Levels of proteins and relative quantifications of p-PKM2(Y105), p-PKM2(S37) and t-PKM2 in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium. (**F**) Immunofluorescence staining of p-PKM2(Y105) in lens epithelium of WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. (**G**) Plot profile analysis described the level of p-PKM2(Y105) in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium. (**H**) Plot profile analysis of represented single lens epithelial cell immunofluorescence stained with p-PKM2(Y105). (**I**) Immunofluorescence staining of p-PKM2(S37) in lens epithelium of WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. (**J**) Plot profile analysis described the level of p-PKM2(S37) in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium. (**K**) Plot profile analysis of represented single lens epithelial cell immunofluorescence stained with p-PKM2(S37). (**L**) Co-IP was performed in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium. HIF-1α was physically interacted with PKM2, but dramatically dissociated when PANK4 ablated. (M) Relative mRNA levels of transcript factor Zeb1 and Zeb2, which decreased in *Pank4*^{-/-} mice. (N) Transcriptional sequencing analysis of WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium. (O) Scheme summarizing of the whole results. Results are expressed as means ± SD (n=4 independent experiment for B, E and M).

Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure 1. Screen assay of 3 types of designed siPank4.

Figure 2. Concentrations of acetyl-CoA in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium, brain cortex and retina.

Figure 3. Relative mRNA of Pank4 in healthy and diabetes patients.

Figure 4. Protein levels of total-Stat3 and phosphor-stat3 in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens epithelium.

Figure 5. Protein levels of PKM2 and HIF-1α in WT and *Pank4*^{-/-} mice lens with and without 70% oxygen treatment for continuous 7 days.

Conflict of Interest Statement

All the authors declared that there is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgement

We thank those heroes combating the 2019-nCov, especially Miss Ying Li and Juan Yu in our department, with respect. We also thank Prof. Lei Li from Shanghai Tech University for data evaluation. We thank our team members (Especially Jiao Hu) for their diligent work. The project is supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 82070945), Science and Technology Innovation Enhancement Project of Army Medical Center, Army Medical University (No. 2019CXJSB009 and No.

823 2019CXJSB021) and part grants from Basic Research and Scientific Frontier
824 Foundation of Chongqing (cstc2019jcyj-msxmX0010).
825

References

1.   Saika S, Yamanaka O, Sumioka T, Miyamoto T, Miyazaki K, Okada Y, Kitano A, Shirai K, Tanaka
S and Ikeda K. Fibrotic disorders in the eye: targets of gene therapy. Prog Retin Eye Res. 2008;
27(2):177-196.
2.   Eldred JA, Dawes LJ and Wormstone IM. The lens as a model for fibrotic disease. Philos Trans
R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2011; 366(1568):1301-1319.
3.   Piera-Velazquez S, Mendoza FA and Jimenez SA. Endothelial to Mesenchymal Transition
(EndoMT) in the Pathogenesis of Human Fibrotic Diseases. J Clin Med. 2016; 5(4).
4.   Wormstone IM. Posterior capsule opacification: a cell biological perspective. Exp Eye Res.
2002; 74(3):337-347.
5.   Lovicu FJ and McAvoy JW. Structural analysis of lens epithelial explants induced to
differentiate into fibres by fibroblast growth factor (FGF). Exp Eye Res. 1989; 49(3):479-494.
6.   Saika S. Relationship between posterior capsule opacification and intraocular lens
biocompatibility. Prog Retin Eye Res. 2004; 23(3):283-305.
7.   Marcantonio JM, Syam PP, Liu CS and Duncan G. Epithelial transdifferentiation and cataract
in the human lens. Exp Eye Res. 2003; 77(3):339-346.
8.   Nagamoto T and Eguchi G. Morphologic compatibility or intraocular lens haptics and the lens
capsule. J Cataract Refract Surg. 1997; 23(8):1254-1259.
9.   Nagamoto T and Eguchi G. Effect of intraocular lens design on migration of lens epithelial
cells onto the posterior capsule. J Cataract Refract Surg. 1997; 23(6):866-872.
10. Shu DY, Wojciechowski M and Lovicu FJ. ERK1/2-mediated EGFR-signaling is required for
TGFbeta-induced lens epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Exp Eye Res. 2019; 178:108-121.
11. Shu DY and Lovicu FJ. Enhanced EGF receptor-signaling potentiates TGFbeta-induced lens
epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Exp Eye Res. 2019; 185:107693.
12. Raghavan CT, Smuda M, Smith AJ, Howell S, Smith DG, Singh A, Gupta P, Glomb MA,
Wormstone IM and Nagaraj RH. AGEs in human lens capsule promote the TGFbeta2-mediated
EMT of lens epithelial cells: implications for age-associated fibrosis. Aging Cell. 2016; 15(3):465-
476.
13. Roberts AB, Tian F, Byfield SD, Stuelten C, Ooshima A, Saika S and Flanders KC. Smad3 is key
to TGF-beta-mediated epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition, fibrosis, tumor suppression and
metastasis. Cytokine Growth Factor Rev. 2006; 17(1-2):19-27.
14. Swarup A, Bell BA, Du J, Han JYS, Soto J, Abel ED, Bravo-Nuevo A, FitzGerald PG, Peachey NS
and Philp NJ. Deletion of GLUT1 in mouse lens epithelium leads to cataract formation. Exp Eye Res.
2018; 172:45-53.
15. Dahm R, van Marle J, Quinlan RA, Prescott AR and Vrensen GF. Homeostasis in the vertebrate
lens: mechanisms of solute exchange. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2011; 366(1568):1265-
1277.
16. Casula M, Soranna D, Corrao G, Merlino L, Catapano AL and Tragni E. Statin use and risk of
cataract: A nested case-control study within a healthcare database. Atherosclerosis. 2016;
251:153-158.
17. Leuschen J, Mortensen EM, Frei CR, Mansi EA, Panday V and Mansi I. Association of statin use

with cataracts: a propensity score-matched analysis. JAMA Ophthalmol. 2013; 131(11):1427-1434.

18. Dobrzynski JM and Kostis JB. Statins and Cataracts--a visual insight. Curr Atheroscler Rep.
2015; 17(2):477.

19. Zhang YM, Chohnan S, Virga KG, Stevens RD, Ilkayeva OR, Wenner BR, Bain JR, Newgard CB,
Lee RE, Rock CO and Jackowski S. Chemical knockout of pantothenate kinase reveals the metabolic
and genetic program responsible for hepatic coenzyme A homeostasis. Chem Biol. 2007;
14(3):291-302.

20. Hortnagel K, Prokisch H and Meitinger T. An isoform of hPANK2, deficient in pantothenate
kinase-associated neurodegeneration, localizes to mitochondria. Hum Mol Genet. 2003;
12(3):321-327.

21. Hong BS, Senisterra G, Rabeh WM, Vedadi M, Leonardi R, Zhang YM, Rock CO, Jackowski S
and Park HW. Crystal structures of human pantothenate kinases. Insights into allosteric regulation
and mutations linked to a neurodegeneration disorder. J Biol Chem. 2007; 282(38):27984-27993.

22. Sun M, Chen C, Hou S, Li X, Wang H, Zhou J, Chen X, Liu P, Kijlstra A, Lin S and Ye J. A novel
mutation of PANK4 causes autosomal dominant congenital posterior cataract. Hum Mutat. 2018.

23. Li Y, Wu GD, Zuo J, Meng Y and Fang FD. [Screening susceptibility genes of type 2 diabetes
in Chinese population by single nucleotide polymorphism analysis]. Zhongguo Yi Xue Ke Xue Yuan
Xue Bao. 2005; 27(3):274-279.

24. Xiang RL, Yang YL, Zuo J, Xiao XH, Chang YS and De Fang F. PanK4 inhibits pancreatic beta-
cell apoptosis by decreasing the transcriptional level of pro-caspase-9. Cell Res. 2007; 17(11):966-
968.

25. Zablocki GJ, Ruzycki PA, Overturf MA, Palla S, Reddy GB and Petrash JM. Aldose reductase-
mediated induction of epithelium-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) in lens. Chem Biol Interact.
2011; 191(1-3):351-356.

26. Yadav UC, Ighani-Hosseinabad F, van Kuijk FJ, Srivastava SK and Ramana KV. Prevention of
posterior capsular opacification through aldose reductase inhibition. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.
2009; 50(2):752-759.

27. Kinoshita JH and Nishimura C. The involvement of aldose reductase in diabetic complications.
Diabetes Metab Rev. 1988; 4(4):323-337.

28. WJ I, TL D, SM D, BP F, AM H, G B, J L, Y Y, M S, JW H, LN B, J X, MJ J, et al. PKM2 isoform-
specific deletion reveals a differential requirement for pyruvate kinase in tumor cells. Cell. 2013;
155(2):397-409.

29. F L, F M, Y W, L H, H Z, C J, Y W, P L, IM O, B L, G C, J J, S G, et al. PKM2 methylation by
CARM1 activates aerobic glycolysis to promote tumorigenesis. Nature cell biology. 2017;
19(11):1358-1370.

30. Li Y, Chang Y, Zhang L, Feng Q, Liu Z, Zhang Y, Zuo J, Meng Y and Fang F. High glucose
upregulates pantothenate kinase 4 (PanK4) and thus affects M2-type pyruvate kinase (Pkm2). Mol
Cell Biochem. 2005; 277(1-2):117-125.

31. Wong N, Ojo D, Yan J and Tang D. PKM2 contributes to cancer metabolism. Cancer Lett. 2015;
356(2 Pt A):184-191.

32. Li C, Zhao Z, Zhou Z and Liu R. PKM2 Promotes Cell Survival and Invasion Under Metabolic
Stress by Enhancing Warburg Effect in Pancreatic Ductal Adenocarcinoma. Dig Dis Sci. 2016;
61(3):767-773.

33. M X, Y Y, R K, S Z, L Y, L Z, X S, M Y, TR B, H W, L C, J J and D T. PKM2-dependent glycolysis

promotes NLRP3 and AIM2 inflammasome activation. Nature communications. 2016; 7:13280.

34.   Qi W, Keenan HA, Li Q, Ishikado A, Kannt A, Sadowski T, Yorek MA, Wu IH, Lockhart S, Coppey LJ, Pfenninger A, Liew CW, Qiang G, et al. Pyruvate kinase M2 activation may protect against the progression of diabetic glomerular pathology and mitochondrial dysfunction. Nat Med. 2017; 23(6):753-762.

35.   Liang J, Cao R, Zhang Y, Xia Y, Zheng Y, Li X, Wang L, Yang W and Lu Z. PKM2 dephosphorylation by Cdc25A promotes the Warburg effect and tumorigenesis. Nat Commun. 2016; 7:12431.

36.   Yang W, Zheng Y, Xia Y, Ji H, Chen X, Guo F, Lyssiotis CA, Aldape K, Cantley LC and Lu Z. ERK1/2-dependent phosphorylation and nuclear translocation of PKM2 promotes the Warburg effect. Nat Cell Biol. 2012; 14(12):1295-1304.

37.   Yang W, Xia Y, Ji H, Zheng Y, Liang J, Huang W, Gao X, Aldape K and Lu Z. Nuclear PKM2 regulates beta-catenin transactivation upon EGFR activation. Nature. 2011; 480(7375):118-122.

38.   Yang W, Xia Y, Hawke D, Li X, Liang J, Xing D, Aldape K, Hunter T, Alfred Yung WK and Lu Z. PKM2 phosphorylates histone H3 and promotes gene transcription and tumorigenesis. Cell. 2012; 150(4):685-696.

39.   Lovicu FJ, McAvoy JW and de Iongh RU. Understanding the role of growth factors in embryonic development: insights from the lens. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci. 2011; 366(1568):1204-1218.

40.   Sun M, Chen C, Hou S, Li X, Wang H, Zhou J, Chen X, Liu P, Kijlstra A, Lin S and Ye J. A novel mutation of PANK4 causes autosomal dominant congenital posterior cataract. Hum Mutat. 2019; 40(4):380-391.

41.   Saika S, Kono-Saika S, Ohnishi Y, Sato M, Muragaki Y, Ooshima A, Flanders KC, Yoo J, Anzano M, Liu CY, Kao WW and Roberts AB. Smad3 signaling is required for epithelial-mesenchymal transition of lens epithelium after injury. Am J Pathol. 2004; 164(2):651-663.

42.   Xiao W, Chen X, Li W, Ye S, Wang W, Luo L and Liu Y. Quantitative analysis of injury-induced anterior subcapsular cataract in the mouse: a model of lens epithelial cells proliferation and epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Sci Rep. 2015; 5:8362.

43.   Wang R, Li J, Zhang X, Zhang X, Zhang X, Zhu Y, Chen C, Liu Z, Wu X, Wang D, Dongye M, Wang J and Lin H. Extracellular vesicles promote epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition of lens epithelial cells under oxidative stress. Exp Cell Res. 2021; 398(1):112362.

44.   Chen X, Xiao W, Chen W, Luo L, Ye S and Liu Y. The epigenetic modifier trichostatin A, a histone deacetylase inhibitor, suppresses proliferation and epithelial-mesenchymal transition of lens epithelial cells. Cell Death Dis. 2013; 4:e884.

45.   Hales AM, Chamberlain CG and McAvoy JW. Cataract induction in lenses cultured with transforming growth factor-beta. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 1995; 36(8):1709-1713.

46.   Hales AM, Chamberlain CG and McAvoy JW. Susceptibility to TGFbeta2-induced cataract increases with aging in the rat. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 2000; 41(11):3544-3551.

47.   Choi J, Seo BJ, La H, Yoon SH, Hong YJ, Lee JH, Chung HM, Hong K and Do JT. Comparative analysis of the mitochondrial morphology, energy metabolism, and gene expression signatures in three types of blastocyst-derived stem cells. Redox Biol. 2020; 30:101437.

48.   Zhou JX, Liu YJ, Chen X, Zhang X, Xu J, Yang K, Wang D, Lin S and Ye J. Low-Intensity Pulsed Ultrasound Protects Retinal Ganglion Cell From Optic Nerve Injury Induced Apoptosis via Yes Associated Protein. Front Cell Neurosci. 2018; 12:160.

49.   Zhang Z, Liu W, Huang Y, Luo L, Cai X, Liu Y, Ai L, Yan J, Lin S and Ye J. NLRP3 Deficiency
Attenuates Secondary Degeneration of Visual Cortical Neurons Following Optic Nerve Injury.
Neurosci Bull. 2020; 36(3):277-288.

50.   Sun H, Yang X, Liang L, Zhang M, Li Y, Chen J, Wang F, Yang T, Meng F, Lai X, Li C, He J, He
M, et al. Metabolic switch and epithelial-mesenchymal transition cooperate to regulate
pluripotency. EMBO J. 2020; 39(8):e102961.

51.   Chen X, Xiao W, Chen W, Liu X, Wu M, Bo Q, Luo Y, Ye S, Cao Y and Liu Y. MicroRNA-26a
and -26b inhibit lens fibrosis and cataract by negatively regulating Jagged-1/Notch signaling
pathway. Cell Death Differ. 2017; 24(8):1431-1442.

52.   Allen JB, Davidson MG, Nasisse MP, Fleisher LN and McGahan MC. The lens influences
aqueous humor levels of transforming growth factor-beta 2. Graefes Arch Clin Exp Ophthalmol.
1998; 236(4):305-311.

53.   Dawes LJ, Elliott RM, Reddan JR, Wormstone YM and Wormstone IM. Oligonucleotide
microarray analysis of human lens epithelial cells: TGFbeta regulated gene expression. Mol Vis.
2007; 13:1181-1197.

54.   Lee JM, Dedhar S, Kalluri R and Thompson EW. The epithelial-mesenchymal transition: new
insights in signaling, development, and disease. J Cell Biol. 2006; 172(7):973-981.

55.   Yao J, Subramanian C, Rock CO and Jackowski S. Human pantothenate kinase 4 is a pseudo-
pantothenate kinase. Protein Sci. 2019; 28(6):1031-1047.

56.   Li J, Jiang R, Cong X and Zhao Y. UCP2 gene polymorphisms in obesity and diabetes, and the
role of UCP2 in cancer. FEBS Lett. 2019; 593(18):2525-2534.

57.   Israelsen WJ and Vander Heiden MG. Pyruvate kinase: Function, regulation and role in cancer.
Semin Cell Dev Biol. 2015; 43:43-51.

58.   X G, H W, JJ Y, X L and ZR L. Pyruvate kinase M2 regulates gene transcription by acting as a
protein kinase. Molecular cell. 2012; 45(5):598-609.

59.   Luo W, Hu H, Chang R, Zhong J, Knabel M, O'Meally R, Cole RN, Pandey A and Semenza GL.
Pyruvate kinase M2 is a PHD3-stimulated coactivator for hypoxia-inducible factor 1. Cell. 2011;
145(5):732-744.

60.   Hitosugi T, Kang S, Vander Heiden MG, Chung TW, Elf S, Lythgoe K, Dong S, Lonial S, Wang
X, Chen GZ, Xie J, Gu TL, Polakiewicz RD, et al. Tyrosine phosphorylation inhibits PKM2 to promote
the Warburg effect and tumor growth. Sci Signal. 2009; 2(97):ra73.

61.   Krebs AM, Mitschke J, Lasierra Losada M, Schmalhofer O, Boerries M, Busch H, Boettcher M,
Mougiakakos D, Reichardt W, Bronsert P, Brunton VG, Pilarsky C, Winkler TH, et al. The EMT-
activator Zeb1 is a key factor for cell plasticity and promotes metastasis in pancreatic cancer. Nat
Cell Biol. 2017; 19(5):518-529.

62.   Mohammadi Ghahhari N, Sznurkowska MK, Hulo N, Bernasconi L, Aceto N and Picard D.
Cooperative interaction between ERalpha and the EMT-inducer ZEB1 reprograms breast cancer
cells for bone metastasis. Nat Commun. 2022; 13(1):2104.

63.   Han Y, Villarreal-Ponce A, Gutierrez G, Jr., Nguyen Q, Sun P, Wu T, Sui B, Berx G, Brabletz T,
Kessenbrock K, Zeng YA, Watanabe K and Dai X. Coordinate control of basal epithelial cell fate
and stem cell maintenance by core EMT transcription factor Zeb1. Cell Rep. 2022; 38(2):110240.

64.   Zhou J, Jain S, Azad AK, Xu X, Yu HC, Xu Z, Godbout R and Fu Y. Notch and TGFbeta form a
positive regulatory loop and regulate EMT in epithelial ovarian cancer cells. Cell Signal. 2016;
28(8):838-849.

65.   Kalluri R and Neilson EG. Epithelial-mesenchymal transition and its implications for fibrosis. J
Clin Invest. 2003; 112(12):1776-1784.

66.   Zhou B, Westaway SK, Levinson B, Johnson MA, Gitschier J and Hayflick SJ. A novel
pantothenate kinase gene (PANK2) is defective in Hallervorden-Spatz syndrome. Nat Genet. 2001;
28(4):345-349.

67.   Liu Y, Cheng Z, Li Q, Pang Y, Cui L, Qian T, Quan L, Dai Y, Jiao Y, Zhang Z, Ye X, Shi J and Fu
L. Prognostic significance of the PANK family expression in acute myeloid leukemia. Ann Transl
Med. 2019; 7(12):261.

68.   Huang L, Khusnutdinova A, Nocek B, Brown G, Xu X, Cui H, Petit P, Flick R, Zallot R, Balmant
K, Ziemak MJ, Shanklin J, de Crecy-Lagard V, et al. A family of metal-dependent phosphatases
implicated in metabolite damage-control. Nat Chem Biol. 2016; 12(8):621-627.

69.   Tilton GB, Wedemeyer WJ, Browse J and Ohlrogge J. Plant coenzyme A biosynthesis:
characterization of two pantothenate kinases from Arabidopsis. Plant Mol Biol. 2006; 61(4-5):629-
642.

70.   HR C, MG VH, N W, JM A and LC C. Pyruvate kinase M2 is a phosphotyrosine-binding protein.
Nature. 2008; 452(7184):181-186.

71.   W Y, Y X, D H, X L, J L, D X, K A, T H, WK AY and Z L. PKM2 phosphorylates histone H3 and
promotes gene transcription and tumorigenesis. Cell. 2012; 150(4):685-696.

72.   Zhou Z, Li M, Zhang L, Zhao H, Sahin O, Chen J, Zhao JJ, Songyang Z and Yu D. Oncogenic
Kinase-Induced PKM2 Tyrosine 105 Phosphorylation Converts Nononcogenic PKM2 to a Tumor
Promoter and Induces Cancer Stem-like Cells. Cancer Res. 2018; 78(9):2248-2261.

73.   Niu J, Li W, Liang C, Wang X, Yao X, Yang RH, Zhang ZS, Liu HF, Liu FY, Pei SH, Li WQ, Sun H,
Fang D, et al. EGF promotes DKK1 transcription in hepatocellular carcinoma by enhancing the
phosphorylation and acetylation of histone H3. Sci Signal. 2020; 13(657).

74.   Helbig H, Hinz JP, Kellner U and Foerster MH. Oxygen in the anterior chamber of the human
eye. Ger J Ophthalmol. 1993; 2(3):161-164.

75.   Cheng HM, Chylack LT, Jr. and Chien J. Control pyruvate kinase activity in the lens. Exp Eye
Res. 1978; 27(1):39-44.

76.   Cheng HM, Chylack LT, Jr. and von Saltza I. Supplementing glucose metabolism in human
senile cataracts. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci. 1981; 21(6):812-818.

77.   Banroques J, Gregori C and Schapira F. Aging of pyruvate kinase isozymes in rabbit lens. Exp
Eye Res. 1978; 27(4):427-434.

78.   Hewitson KS, McNeill LA, Riordan MV, Tian YM, Bullock AN, Welford RW, Elkins JM, Oldham
NJ, Bhattacharya S, Gleadle JM, Ratcliffe PJ, Pugh CW and Schofield CJ. Hypoxia-inducible factor
(HIF) asparagine hydroxylase is identical to factor inhibiting HIF (FIH) and is related to the cupin
structural family. J Biol Chem. 2002; 277(29):26351-26355.

79.   Semenza GL. HIF-1: upstream and downstream of cancer metabolism. Curr Opin Genet Dev.
2010; 20(1):51-56.

1037

A

input | IgG | PKM2 | Pkm1
IB: PANK4 ◀82KD

input | IgG | PANK4 | PKM1
PKM2 ◀60KD

B

Epithelium (Anterior)
PKM2 | PKM2
(Equator) | (Equator)
Lens
(Posterior)

C

Epithelium
PKM2
PANK4
Merged

D

Epithelium
WT
PKM2
PKM2/DAPI
Pank4⁻/⁻

E

Equator
WT
PKM2 | PKM2 DAPI
Pank4⁻/⁻

F

WT
Pank4⁻/⁻

OD of PKM2
200
150
100
50
0.0 0.4 0.8 1.2
Distance (μm)

G

WT | *Pank4*⁻/⁻
PANK4 ◀82KD
PKM1 ◀60KD
PKM2 ◀60KD
GAPDH ◀37KD

H

ns
Relative PKM1 expression vs GAPDH
1.0
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2

*
Relative PKM2 expression vs GAPDH
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2

*
Relative PANK4 expression vs GAPDH
1.5
1.0
0.5
WT | *pank4*⁻/⁻

I

PKM2 | DAPI
si-Cont
si-pank4

J

NC | siCtrl | sipk4
PANK4 ◀82KD
PKM1 ◀60KD
PKM2 ◀60KD
GAPDH ◀37KD

K

NC | si-Ctrl | si-pank4

* *
Relative PKM2 expression vs GAPDH
1.5
1.0
0.5

Relative PKM1 expression vs GAPDH
2.0
1.5
1.0
0.5

* *
Relative PANK4 expression vs GAPDH
1.5
1.0
0.5

M

WT | WT+TGFβ2 | *Pank4*⁻/⁻ | *Pank4*⁻/⁻+TGFβ2
PKM2 ◀53KD
GAPDH ◀40KD

N

* *
*
Relative PKM2 expression vs GAPDH
0.4
0.3
0.2
0.1
WT | WT+TGFβ2 | *Pank4*⁻/⁻ | *Pank4*⁻/⁻+TGFβ2

L

NC | si-Ctrl | si-pank4
* *
Concentration of Pyruvic Acid (μg/ml)
6
4
2

M

Glucose — Membrane
PEP
PKM2 ⟷ PANK4
Pyruvate ⬆ | ATP ⬇
LDHA | PDH | CoA
⬆ Lactate | Acetyl-CoA | ADP AMP ppi
TCA cycle

⬆ Up-regulated
⟷ No changed
⬇ Down-regulated