**1** **The deubiquitinase Ubp3/Usp10 constrains glucose-mediated mitochondrial**

**2** **repression via phosphate budgeting**

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## Abstract

Many cells in high glucose repress mitochondrial respiration, as observed in the Crabtree and

Warburg effects. Our understanding of biochemical constraints for mitochondrial activation

is limited. Using a *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* screen, we identified the conserved

deubiquitinase Ubp3 (Usp10), as necessary for mitochondrial repression. Ubp3 mutants have

increased mitochondrial activity despite abundant glucose, along with decreased glycolytic

enzymes, and a rewired glucose metabolic network with increased trehalose production.

Utilizing *Δubp3* cells, along with orthogonal approaches, we establish that the high glycolytic

flux in glucose continuously consumes free Pi. This restricts mitochondrial access to inorganic

phosphate (Pi), and prevents mitochondrial activation. Contrastingly, rewired glucose

metabolism with enhanced trehalose production and reduced GAPDH (as in *Δubp3* cells)

restores Pi. This collectively results in increased mitochondrial Pi and derepression, while

restricting mitochondrial Pi transport prevents activation. We therefore suggest that

glycolytic-flux dependent intracellular Pi budgeting is a key constraint for mitochondrial

repression.

## Introduction

Rapidly proliferating cells have substantial metabolic and energy demands in order to increase biomass (Cai and Tu, 2012; Zhu and Thompson, 2019). This includes a high ATP demand, obtained from cytosolic glycolysis or mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), to fuel multiple reactions (Nelson et al., 2008). Interestingly, many rapidly proliferating cells preferentially rely on ATP from glycolysis/fermentation over mitochondrial respiration even in oxygen-replete conditions, and is the well-known Warburg effect (Vander Heiden et al., 2009; Warburg, 1925). Many such cells repress mitochondrial processes in high glucose, termed glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression or the Crabtree effect (Crabtree, 1929; De Deken, 1966). This is observed in some tumors (Vander Heiden et al., 2009), neutrophils (Xia et al., 2021), activated macrophages (Kornberg, 2020), stem cells (Abdel-Haleem et al., 2017; Pacini and Borziani, 2014; Tsogtbaatar et al., 2020), and famously *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (De Deken, 1966). Numerous studies have identified signaling programs or regulators of glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression. However, biochemical programs and regulatory processes in biology evolve around key biochemical constraints (Cornish-Bowden, 2016). The biochemical constraints for mitochondrial repression remain unresolved (Diaz-Ruiz et al., 2011; Hammad et al., 2016).

There are two hypotheses on the biochemical principles driving mitochondrial repression. The first proposes direct roles for glycolytic intermediates in driving mitochondrial respiration, by inhibiting specific mitochondrial outputs (Díaz-Ruiz et al., 2008; Lemus et al., 2018). The second hypothesizes that a competition between glycolytic and mitochondrial processes for mutually required metabolites/co-factors such as pyruvate, ADP or inorganic phosphate (Pi) could determine the extent of mitochondrial repression (Diaz-Ruiz et al., 2011; Hammad et al., 2016; Koobs, 1972). These are not all mutually exclusive, and a combination of these factors might dictate mitochondrial repression in high glucose. However, any hierarchies of importance are unclear (Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001), and experimental data for the necessary constraints for mitochondrial repression remains incomplete.

One approach to resolve this question has been to identify regulators of metabolic state under high glucose. Post-translational modifications (PTMs) regulated by signaling systems can regulate mitochondrial repression (Broach, 2012; Hitosugi and Chen, 2014; Tripodi et al., 2015). Ubiquitination is a PTM that regulates global proteostasis (Hershko and Ciechanover, 1998; Komander and Rape, 2012), but the roles of ubiquitination-dependent

processes in regulating mitochondrial repression are poorly explored. Ubiquitination itself is determined by the balance between ubiquitination, and deubiquitinase (DUB) dependent deubiquitination (Pickart and Eddins, 2004). Little is known about the roles of DUBs in regulating metabolic states, making the DUBs interesting candidate regulators of mitochondrial repression.

In this study, using an *S. cerevisiae* DUB knock-out library-based screen, we identified the evolutionarily conserved deubiquitinase Ubp3 (mammalian Usp10) as required for mitochondrial repression in high glucose. Loss of Ubp3 resulted in mitochondrial activation, along with a reduction in the glycolytic enzymes-phosphofructokinase 1 (Pfk1) and GAPDH (Tdh2 and Tdh3). This consequently reroutes glucose flux and increases trehalose biosynthesis. This metabolic rewiring increases Pi release from trehalose synthesis, and decreases Pi consumption in glycolysis, to cumulatively increase Pi pools. Using *ubp3Δ* cells along with independent analysis of wild-type cells, and isolated mitochondrial fractions, we establish that glycolytic-flux dependent Pi allocations to mitochondria determines mitochondrial activity. Through these data, we propose how intracellular Pi balance as controlled by glycolytic flux, is a biochemical constraint for mitochondrial repression.

**Results**

**A deubiquitinase deletion screen identifies Ubp3 as a regulator of glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression**

In cells such as *S. cerevisiae*, high glucose represses mitochondrial activity as well as OXPHOS-dependent ATP synthesis (De Deken, 1966; Postma et al., 1989) (illustrated in Figure 1A). Our initial objective was to identify proteostasis regulators of glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression. We generated and used a deubiquitinase (DUB) deletion strain library of *S. cerevisiae* (Figure 1-figure supplement 1A), to unbiasedly identify regulators of mitochondrial repression by measuring the fluorescence intensity of a potentiometric dye Mitotracker CMXRos (illustrated in Figure 1B). Using this screen, we identified DUB mutants with altered mitochondrial membrane potential (Figure 1C, Figure 1-figure supplement 1 A). Note: WT cells in a respiratory medium (2% ethanol) were used as a control to estimate maximum mitotracker fluorescence intensity (Figure 1-figure supplement 1B).

A prominent 'hit' was the evolutionarily conserved deubiquitinase Ubp3 (Figure 1C),

(homologous to mammalian Usp10) (Figure 1-figure supplement 1D). Due to its high degree

of conservation across eukaryotes (Figure 1-figure supplement 1D) as well as putative roles in

metabolism or mitochondrial function (Isasa et al., 2015; Nostramo et al., 2016; Ossareh-

Nazari et al., 2010), we focused our further attention on this DUB. Cells lacking Ubp3 showed

an ~1.5-fold increase in mitotracker fluorescence (Figure 1C, Figure 1-figure supplement 1A,

C). Cells with catalyticaly inactive Ubp3 (Ubp3$^{C469A}$), showed increased mitochondrial

potential comparable to *ubp3Δ* (Figure 1D). This data confirmed that Ubp3 catalytic activity

of is required to fully repress mitochondrial activity under high glucose. The catalytic site

mutation did not affect steady-state Ubp3 levels (Figure 1-figure supplement 1E).

Next, to assess the requirement of Ubp3 for mitochondrial function, we quantified the

electron transport chain (ETC) complex IV subunit Cox2 (Fontanesi et al., 2006)(Figure 1E).

*ubp3Δ* had higher Cox2 than WT (Figure 1E). As a control, we estimated total mitochondrial

content in WT and *ubp3Δ* cells, using either estimates of the structural protein Tom70, or

measuring the fluorescence-intensity in strains engineered with mitochondrial targeted

mNeonGreen (Dua et al., 2022). There was no increase in the total mitochondrial volume

(estimated by measuring the intensity of mitochondria targeted mNeon green) (Figure 1-

figure supplement 1F) or mitochondrial outer membrane protein Tom70 (Figure 1-figure

supplement 1G). This suggests that the increased Cox2 is not merely because of higher total

mitochondrial content. We next measured the basal oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of

*ubp3Δ*, and basal OCR was higher in *ubp3Δ*, indicating higher respiration (Figure 1F).

Next, we asked if mitochondrial ATP synthesis was higher in *ubp3Δ*. The total ATP

levels in WT and *ubp3Δ* were comparable (Figure 1G). However, upon treatment with the ETC

complex IV inhibitor sodium azide, ATP levels in WT were higher than *ubp3Δ*, contributing to

~60% of the total ATP (Figure 1H). In contrast, the ATP levels in *ubp3Δ* after sodium azide

treatment were ~ 40% of the total ATP (Figure 1H). These data suggest a higher contribution

of mitochondrial ATP synthesis towards the total ATP pool in *ubp3Δ*.

We next asked if *ubp3Δ* required higher mitochondrial activity for growth, using a

series of mitochondrial activity inhibitors and comparing relative growth. In high glucose, WT

cells show minimal growth inhibition in the presence of sodium azide, indicating lower

reliance on mitochondrial function (Figure 1I). Contrastingly, *ubp3Δ* or Ubp3$^{C469A}$ show a

severe growth defect in the presence of the mitochondrial ETC complex inhbitors sodium

azide and oligomycin, and the mitochondrial OXPHOS uncoupler FCCP (Figure 1I, Figure 1-

figure supplement 1H). Additionally, the loss of Ubp3 in respiration defective cox2-62 cells

(Bonnefoy et al., 2001), or Rho0 cells (which lacks mitochondrial DNA) resulted in a severe

growth defect (Figure 1-figure supplement 1I). Deletion of ATP synthase subunits Atp1 and

Atp10 also results in a severe growth defect in *ubp3Δ* compared to WT (Figure 1-figure

supplement 1I). Together, these results indicate that the loss of Ubp3 makes cells dependent

on mitochondrial ATP synthesis in high glucose.

In order to address whether the deletion of Ubp3 might increase ubiquitinated

proteins and consequent proteostatic stress, we analysed the global ubquitination state in

*ubp3Δ* cells. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells grown under brief (1 hour) heat stress, which increases

protein ubiquitination, was used as a control. However, we did not observe a significant

increase in the global ubiqutinatin state in *ubp3Δ* cells (Figure 1-figure supplement 1J). This

suggests that the altered mitochondrial metabolism in *ubp3Δ* cells is unlikely to be due to

proteostatic stress.

Collectively these data show that in 2% glucose, *ubp3Δ* have high mitochondrial

activity, respiration, and rely on this mitochondrial function for ATP production and growth.

We therefore decided to use *ubp3Δ* cells to start delineating requirements for glucose-

mediated mitochondrial repression.

**Key glycolytic enzymes decrease and glucose flux is rerouted in *ubp3Δ* cells**

Glucose-6 phosphate (G6P) is the central node in glucose metabolism where carbon-

allocations are made towards distinct metabolic arms, primarily: glycolysis, the pentose

phosphate pathway (PPP), and trehalose biosynthesis (Figure 2A). We first compared

amounts of two key ('rate-controling') glycolytic enzymes - Phosphofructokinase 1 (Pfk1),

GAPDH isozymes (Tdh2, Tdh3) (Nelson et al., 2008), along with the enolase isozymes (Eno1,

Eno2) in WT and *ubp3Δ* cells. Pfk1, Tdh2, and Tdh3 substantially decreased in *ubp3Δ* (but not

Eno1 and Eno2) (Figure 2B, Figure 2-figure supplement 1A). Since deubiquitinases can control

protein amounts by regulating proteasomal degradation, we asked if the decrease in Pfk1,

Tdh2 and Tdh3 in *ubp3Δ* is due to proteasomal degradation. To test this, we measured the

levels of these enzymes in *ubp3Δ* after treatement with proteasomal inhibitor MG132. We

did not observe any rescue in the levels of these enzymes in MG132 treated samples,

suggesting that the decreased levels of these enzymes were not due to increased proteasomal

degradation (Figure 2-figure supplement 1B). To further understand if these enzyme

transcripts are altered in *ubp3Δ*, we measured the mRNA levels of PFK1, TDH2 and TDH3 in

WT, *ubp3Δ* and Ubp3$^{C469A}$ cells. The transcripts of all the three genes in *ubp3Δ* and Ubp3$^{C469A}$

cells decreased (Figure 2-figure supplement 1C), suggesting that Ubp3 regulates the

transcripts of these glycolytic enzyme genes. The reduction in the Pfk and GAPDH enzyme

amounts was intriguing, because the Pfk and GAPDH steps are critical in determining

glycolytic flux (Nelson et al., 2008; Shestov et al., 2014). A reduction in these enzymes could

therefore decrease glycolytic flux, and would reroute glucose (G6P) allocations via mass

action towards other branches of glucose metabolism, primarily the pentose phosphate

pathway as well as trehalose biosynthesis (Figure 2A). To assess this, we first measured the

steady-state levels of key glycolytic and pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) intermediates, and

trehalose in WT or *ubp3Δ* using targeted LC-MS/MS (Figure 2C, Figure 2-figure supplement

1D). Glucose-6/fructose-6 phosphate (G6P/F6P) increased in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 2C). Concurrently,

trehalose, and the PPP intermediates ribose 5-phosphate (R5P) and sedoheptulose 7-

phosphate (S7P), increased in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 2C).

Since steady-state metabolite amounts cannot separate production from utilization,

in order to unambiguously assess if glycolytic flux is reduced in *ubp3Δ* cells, we utilized a pulse

labeling of $^{13}C_6$ glucose, following which the label incorporation into glycolytic and other

intermediates was measured. Note that because glycolytic flux is very high in yeast, this

experiment would require rapid pulsing and extraction of metabolites in order to stay in a

linear range and avoid label saturation. We therefore established a very short time point of

label-addition, quenching and metabolite extraction post $^{13}C$ glucose pulse. Since flux

saturates/reaches steady-state in seconds, we first ensured that the label incorporation into

individual metabolites after the $^{13}C$ glucose pulse was in the linear range, and for early

glycolytic intermediates this was seconds after glucose addition. This new methodology is

extensively described in materials and methods, with required controls shown in Figure 2-

figure supplement 1F. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose, pulsed with $^{13}C_6$

glucose, and the relative $^{13}C$ label incorporation into glycolytic intermediates and trehalose

were measured, as shown in the schematic (Figure 2-figure supplement 1E). In *ubp3Δ,* $^{13}C$

label incorporation into G6P/F6P as well as trehalose substantially increased (Figure 2D).

Contrastingly, $^{13}C$ label incorporation into glycolytic intermediates F1,6BP, G3P, 3PG and PEP

decreased, indicating decreased glycolytic flux (Figure 2D). We next measured ethanol

concentrations and production rates, as an additional output of relative glycolytic rates. We

observed decreased steady-state ethanol levels, as well as ethanol production rates in *ubp3Δ*

(Figure 2F).

Glycolysis-derived pyruvate is transported to mitochondria and fuels the TCA cycle.

Therefore, we asked if the decreased glycolytic rate result in a decrease in the TCA cycle flux

as well. To test this, we first measured the steady state levels of TCA cycle intermediates in

WT or *ubp3Δ* using targeted LC-MS/MS. We did not observe any significant change in the

levels of TCA cycle intermediates in *ubp3Δ,* except malate which showed a significant

decrease in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 2-figure supplement 2A). Next, in order to assess if TCA cycle flux

reduces in *ubp3Δ* cells, WT and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose, pulsed with $^{13}C_6$

glucose, and the relative $^{13}C$ label incorporation into TCA cycle intermediates was measured,

as shown in the schematic (Figure 2-figure supplement 2B). The kinetics of $^{13}C$ label

incorporation in TCA cycle intermediates are shown in Figure 2-figure supplement 2C. We did

not observe any significant change in the relative $^{13}C$ label incorporation in TCA cycle

intermediates in *ubp3Δ*. Therefore, these data suggest that the decreased glycolytic flux in

*ubp3Δ* does not result in a decrease in TCA cycle flux. The increased respiration and

mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ* cells is therefore driven via other factors.

Collectively, these results reveal that that reduced Pfk1 and GAPDH (in *ubp3Δ*)

decrease glucose flux via glycolysis, which results in rewired glucose flux towards trehalose

biosynthesis and the PPP.

**Rerouted glucose flux results in phosphate (Pi) accumulation**

We therefore asked if the proteomic state, as observed in *ubp3Δ* cells, could provide clues to explain the coupling between mitochondrial derepression and rerouted glucose flux. A recent study by Isasa et al., had systematically quantified the changes in protein levels in *ubp3Δ* cells (Isasa et al., 2015). We therefore reanalyzed this extensive dataset, looking for changes in proteins that would correlate with these metabolic processes. Notably, we observed increased levels of proteins of the mitochondrial ETC and respiration, and decreased amounts of glucose metabolizing enzymes in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 3A). Additionally, multiple proteins involved in regulating phosphate (Pi) homeostasis were decreased in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 3A) (Isasa et al., 2015). We had recently uncovered a reciprocal coupling of Pi homeostasis with the different arms of glucose metabolism, particularly trehalose biosynthesis (Gupta et al., 2019; Gupta and Laxman, 2021), and therefore wondered if a glycolytic-flux dependent change in Pi homeostatsis had any role in mitochondrial respiration. Our hypothesis was refined based on the reasoning given below.

One explanation for mitochondrial repression can be an internal competition for shared metabolites/co-factors between (cytosolic) glycolytic and mitochondrial processes, that mitochondria might not be sufficiently able to access (Diaz-Ruiz et al., 2011; Koobs, 1972; Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001). In this context, a plausible role for inorganic phosphate (Pi) in regulating mitochondrial repression can be hypothesized. Cytosolic glycolysis requires rapid, high consumption of net Pi (Mason et al., 1981; Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001; Van Heerden et al., 2014), and this could possibly limit the Pi that is continuously available for mitochondrial use (Brazy et al., 1982; Koobs, 1972), thereby repressing mitochondria. Contextually, the balance between reactions releasing vs consuming Pi could explain changes in global Pi levels (Gupta and Laxman, 2021). A continuous hub of Pi consumption is glycolysis. Here, GAPDH catalyzes G3P to 1,3BPG, converting ADP to ATP, while concurrently consuming a molecule of Pi (Hohmann et al., 1996; Van Heerden et al., 2014). This Pi that goes into ATP will subsequently be used for nucleotide biosynthesis, polyphosphate biosynthesis and protein phosphorylation (Gupta and Laxman, 2021; Hunter, 2012). Therefore, we can surmise that in high glycolytic flux, the production of ATP, nucleotides and polyphosphates is concurrent with Pi consumption (Austin and Mayer, 2020; Hohmann et al., 1996; Ljungdahl and Daignan-Fornier, 2012). Could this reaction therefore limit cytosolic Pi for the mitochondria (as illustrated in Figure 3B)? Notably, *ubp3Δ* have reduced GAPDH levels and

decreased glycolytic flux. Second, trehalose synthesis is a Pi releasing reaction, and a major source of free Pi that is critical for Pi homeostasis (Gupta et al., 2019; Van Heerden et al., 2014). Flux through this reaction is also substantially higher in *ubp3Δ*. Therefore, these cells might have increased Pi release (via trehalose), coupled with decreased Pi consumption (via decreased GAPDH). We therefore asked if total Pi increases in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 3B)?

To test this, we directly assessed total Pi levels in *ubp3Δ* and WT. *ubp3Δ* cells had higher Pi than WT, and this was comparable to Pi in WT grown in excess Pi (Figure 3C). Similarly, Pi amounts also increased in Ubp3$^{C469A}$ (Figure 3-figure supplement 1A). Therefore, the loss of Ubp3 increases intracellular Pi levels. Next, we asked if *ubp3Δ* cells exhibit signatures of a 'high Pi' state. *S. cerevisiae* maintains internal Pi balance by controlling the expression of multiple genes collectively known as the Pho regulon (Mouillon and Persson, 2006). The Pho regulon is induced under Pi limitation, and repressed during Pi sufficiency (Gupta et al., 2019; Mouillon and Persson, 2006). We assessed two major Pho proteins (Pho84: a high-affinity membrane Pi transporter, and Pho12: an acid phosphatase) in WT and *ubp3Δ* in high glucose. *ubp3Δ* cells have lower amounts of Pho84 and Pho12 (Figure 3D). Further, upon shifting to low Pi for one hour, Pho84 and Pho12 increased in *ubp3Δ*. These data suggest that reduced Pho84 and Pho12 amounts in *ubp3Δ* are because of increased Pi, and not due to altered Pho regulon function itself (Figure 3D). These data clarify earlier observations from *ubp3Δ* which noted reduced Pho proteins (Isasa et al., 2015). Therefore, *ubp3Δ* constitutively have higher Pi, and likely a consequent decrease in Pho proteins.

We next asked if the increased Pi in *ubp3Δ* is because of altered G6P allocations towards different end-points, particularly trehalose synthesis, which can be a major node of Pi restoration (Gupta et al., 2019; Van Heerden et al., 2014). We assessed the contribution of increased trehalose synthesis towards the high Pi in *ubp3Δ*, by estimating Pi levels in the absence of trehalose 6-phosphate phosphatase (Tps2), which catalyzes the Pi-releasing step in trehalose synthesis. Notably, loss of Tps2 in *ubp3Δ* decreased Pi (Figure 3E). There was no additive difference in Pi between *tps2Δ* and *ubp3Δtps2Δ* (Figure 3E). As an added control, we assessed trehalose in WT and *ubp3Δ* in the absence of Tps2, and found no difference (Figure 3-figure supplement 1B). Therefore, increasing G6P flux towards trehalose biosynthesis is a major source of the increased Pi in *ubp3Δ*.

Since the major GAPDH isozymes, Tdh2 and Tdh3, are reduced in *ubp3Δ*, we directly

asked if reducing GAPDH can decrease Pi consumption and increase Pi. To assess this, we

generated *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells, which exhibit a growth defect, but are viable, permitting further

analysis. *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* had higher Pi in high glucose (Figure 3F). Expectedly, we observed a

decrease in ethanol in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* (Figure 3-figure supplement 1C), along with an

accumulation of F1,6 BP and G3P, and decreased 3PG and PEP (Figure 3-figure supplement

1D). However, G6P and trehalose levels between WT and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were comparable

(Figure 3-figure supplement 1D, E). These data sugest that unlike in *ubp3Δ*, the increased Pi

in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* comes mainly from decreased Pi consumption (GAPDH step). To further assess

the role of reduced glycolytic flux in increasing Pi (*ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*), we measured the

Pi in these cells growing in a gluconeogenic medium – 2%, ethanol. In this scenario, the GAPDH

catalyzed reaction will be reversed, converting 1,3BPG to G3P, which should release and not

consume Pi. Compared to WT, the Pi levels decreased in *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* (Figure 3G),

suggesting that the changes in Pi in these mutants is driven by the relative change in Pi release

vs consumption.

These results collectively indicate that the combined effect of increased Pi release

coming from trehalose synthesis, and decreased Pi consumption from reduced GAPDH

increase Pi levels in *ubp3Δ*.

**Mitochondrial Pi availability correlates with mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ***

We therefore wondered if this observed Pi increase from the combined rewiring of

glucose metabolism resulted in more Pi becoming accessible to the mitochondria. This would

effectively result in Pi budgeting between cytosolic glycolysis and mitochondria based on the

relative flux in different arms of glucose metabolism, by increasing Pi availability for the

mitochondria (Figure 4A). If this were indeed so, a prediction would be that the pool of Pi in

the mitochondria of *ubp3Δ* cells would be higher than WT cells, while the opposite would be

expected in the cytosolic fraction of these cells, due to increased Pi in the mitochondria. To

test if this were so, we first measured the cytosolic pools of Pi in WT and *ubp3Δ.* The cytosolic

fraction was isolated (extensive experimental details are in the SI appendix) from WT and

*ubp3Δ* cells, and Pi levels in this fraction were estimated (Figure 4B, Figure 4-figure

supplement 1B). We observed significantly reduced Pi in the cytosolic fraction in *ubp3Δ* cells.

Since total cellular Pi amounts is higher in *ubp3Δ* cells (Figure 3), a decreased cytolosolic Pi

would be consistent with greater transport of Pi from cytosol to other organelles such as

vacuole (where it is stored as polyphosphate) and/or mitochondria. Therefore, we next asked

if the mitochondria in *ubp3Δ* have correspondingly increased Pi. Mitochondria were isolated

by immunoprecipitation from WT and *ubp3Δ*, the isolation efficiency was analyzed (Figure 4-

figure supplement 1A), and relative Pi levels compared. Pi levels were normalised to Idh1

(isocitrate dehydrogenase) in isolated mitochondria, since Idh1 protein levels did not

decrease in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 4-figure supplement 1B), and consistent with (Isasa et al., 2015).

Mitochondrial Pi was higher in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 4B). We next asked if the increased

mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ* is a consequence of high Pi. If this were so, *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* should

partially phenocopy *ubp3Δ* with respect to mitochondrial activity. Consistently, *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*

have higher mitotracker intensity as well as Cox2 levels compared to WT (Figure 4-figure

supplement 1C, Figure 4C). Also consistent with this, a high basal OCR in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* was

observed (Figure 4D), together indicating high mitochondrial activity in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*, which is

comparable to *ubp3Δ*.

We next asked if higher Pi is necessary to increase mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ* and

*tdh2Δtdh3Δ*. Since glycolysis is defective in *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*, it is necessary to

distinguish the effect of high Pi vs. only the effect of low glycolysis in activating mitochondria.

Logically, if decreased glycolysis (independent of Pi) is sufficient to activate mitochondria,

bringing down the Pi levels in *ubp3Δ* to that of WT should not affect mitochondrial activity.

Notably, *ubp3Δ* grown in low (1 mM) Pi have Pi levels similar to WT in standard (normal Pi)

medium (Figure 4-figure supplement 1D). *ubp3Δ* grown in low Pi also had decreased ethanol,

suggesting reduced glycolysis (Figure 4-figure supplement 1E). Therefore, we used this

condition to further understand the role of Pi in inducing mitochondrial activity. Mitotracker

fluorescence decreased in both *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* in low Pi (Figure 4-figure supplement

1F). Note: basal mitotracker fluorescence in WT also decreases in low Pi, which is consistent

with a required role of Pi for mitochondrial activity (Figure 4-figure supplement 1F). Similarly,

Cox2 levels were reduced in both *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* (Figure 4E). Consistent with both

reduced mitotracker intensity and Cox2 levels, basal OCR also decreased in both *ubp3Δ* and

*tdh2Δtdh3Δ* in low Pi (Figure 4F). As an additional control, we used Rho0 strains (which have

no mitochondrial DNA and therefore lack functional ETC) to compare basal OCR. The

expectation in these strains is that basal OCR will not change if Pi changes. Consistently, we

did not observe any significant difference in basal OCR in WT, *ubp3Δ* and *ubp3Δ* in low Pi in a

Rho0 strain background (which lacks mitochondrial DNA) (Figure 4-figure supplement 1G).

These data collectively suggest that high intracellular Pi is necessary to increase mitochondrial

activity in *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*.

Next, we asked how mitochondrial Pi transport regulates mitochondrial activity. Mir1

and Pic2 are mitochondrial Pi transporters, with Mir1 being the major Pi transporter

(Murakami et al., 1990; Zara et al., 1996). We first limited mitochondrial Pi availability in

*ubp3Δ* by knocking-out *MIR1*. In *mir1Δ*, the increased Cox2 observed in *ubp3Δ* was no longer

observed (Figure 4G). Consistent with this, we observed no further increase in the basal OCR

in *mir1Δubp3Δ* compared to *mir1Δ* (Figure 4H). Furthermore, *mir1Δ* showed decreased Cox2

as well as basal OCR even in WT cells (Figure 4G, Figure 4H). These data together suggest that

mitochondrial Pi transport is critical for increasing mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ*, and in

maintaining basal mitochondrial activity even in high glucose.

As a control, no significant increase in Mir1 and Pic2 was observed in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 4-

figure supplement 1H), suggesting that *ubp3Δ* do not increase mitochondrial Pi by merely

increasing the Pi transporters, but rather by increasing available Pi pools.

Taken together, these data suggest the possibility that the altered Pi homeostais in

*ubp3Δ* cells increases the mitochondrial Pi pool. This increased mitochondrial Pi pool

correlates with increased mitochondrial activity. Decreasing mitochondrial Pi by either

reducing total Pi, or by reducing mitochondrial Pi transport decreases mitochondrial activity.

**Mitochondrial Pi availability constrains mitochondrial activity under high glucose**

So far, these data suggest that the cytosolic Pi available for the mitochondria can

determine the extent of mitochondrial activity. Therefore, we further investigated if

mitochondrial Pi allocation was a necessary constraint for glucose-mediated mitochondrial

repression.

To test this, we first asked how important mitochondrial Pi transport was to switch to

increased respiration. In WT yeast, low glucose or glycolytic inhibition will result in increased

respiration (Broach, 2012). What happens therefore if we restrict mitochondrial Pi in this

context? For this, we measured the basal OCR in WT and *mir1Δ* after switching from high (2%)

to low (0.1%) glucose. We observed a significant increase in the basal OCR in WT but not in

*mir1Δ* (Figure 5A). The alternate scenario is after glycolytic inhibition. We assessed the role of

mitochondrial Pi in this context, by inhibiting glycolysis using 2-deoxyglucose (2DG). WT, but

not *mir1Δ*, increased their OCR (respiration) upon a 1-hour treatment with 2DG (Figure 5B).

Consistent with this, mitotracker fluorescence increased with an increase in 2DG in WT, but

not in *mir1Δ* (Figure 5-figure supplement 1A). We further asked if the mitochondrial Pi

transporter itself glucose repressed, and therefore assessed Mir1 amounts in high and low

glucose. Mir1 levels are higher upon a shift to low glucose, and in cells grown in 2% ethanol,

suggesting that Mir1 is glucose repressed (Figure 5C, Figure 5-figure supplement 1B). These

data suggest that mitochondrial Pi transport is necessary for increasing mitochondrial activity

after glucose derepression.

We next asked whether just adding external Pi was sufficient to increase

mitochondrial activity, when cells are in high glucose. In medium supplemented with excess

Pi, the internal Pi increases as seen earlier (Figure 3C).  Therefore, a simplistic assumption

would be that the addition of external Pi to cells in high glucose would also increase

mitochondrial Pi. However, an alternate possibility presents itself whererin since glycolytic

flux is already high in glucose, supplementing Pi will continue to fuel glycolysis. Indeed, this

was originally obseved by Harden and Young in 1908, where adding Pi increased fermentation

(Harden and Young, 1906). In such a scenario, there could be an increase in the cytosolic Pi

but not the mitochondrial Pi. We estimated the cytosolic and mitochondrial Pi in this

condition where excess Pi was externally supplemented. Notably, cells grown in high Pi had

increased cytosolic Pi, but decreased mitochondrial Pi (Figure 5-figure supplement 1C),

without any changes in total mitochondria volume or amounts (Figure 5-figure supplement

1D). Furthermore, directly adding Pi to cells growing in high glucose also decreased basal OCR

(Figure 5-figure supplement 1E), consistent with decreased mitochondrial Pi. These data

indicate that in high glucose, simply supplementing Pi will not increase Pi access to the
mitochondria, and instead results in an accumulation of Pi in the cytosol (Figure 5-figure
supplement 1C). We therefore now asked, if we inhibit glycolytic flux and then supplement
Pi, what would happen to mitochondrial activity. For this, we treated cells with 2DG, and
subsequently added Pi and measured the OCR (Figure 5-figure supplement 1F). In this case,
supplementing Pi increased the basal OCR (Figure 5-figure supplement 1F). Collectively, these
data suggest that a combination of decreasing glycolysis and increasing Pi can together
increase respiration. Next, in order to directly test mitochondrial activation based on external
Pi availability, we isolated mitochondria, and estimated activity *in vitro* upon adding
increasing Pi. Mitochondrial activity increased with increased Pi, with maximum activity
observed with 25 mM Pi supplemented (Figure 5D). In a complementary experiment, we
overexpressed the Mir1 transporter in wild-type cells, to increase Pi within mitochondria
(Figure 5-figure supplement 1G). Mir1-OE cells have higher Cox2 levels and basal OCR (Figure
5E, 5F). Therefore, increasing Pi transport to mitochondria is sufficient to increase
mitochondrial activity in high glucose.

Mitochondrial pyruvate transport is also required for mitochondrial respiration
(Timoń-Gómez et al., 2013). We asked where Pi availability stands in a hierarchy of constraints
for mitochondrial derepression, as compared to mitochondrial pyruvate transport. We
measured the amounts of the Mpc3 subunit of the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier (MPC)
complex  (Bender et al., 2015; Timoń-Gómez et al., 2013). Mpc3 protein increases in *ubp3Δ*
(Figure 5-figure supplement 1H). This also correlated with the unimpaired TCA cycle flux
(Figure 2-figure supplement 2D) and the increased mitochondrial activity. Interestingly, in
*ubp3Δ* grown in low Pi, Mpc3 further increased (Figure 5-figure supplement 1H), but as shown
earlier this condition cannot increase OCR or mitochondrial activity (Figure 4F, Figure 4-figure
supplement 1F). Basal Mpc3 levels decrease in *mir1Δ*, but upon shifting to 0.1% glucose, Mpc3
increases in both WT and *mir1Δ*, with higher levels in *mir1Δ* (Figure 5-figure supplement 1I).
Therefore, even where Mpc3 is high (*ubp3Δ* in low Pi, and *mir1Δ* in low glucose),
mitochondrial activity remains low if Pi is restricted (Figure 4F, 4H). There was also no
decrease in basal OCR in *mpc3Δ* in high glucose, and the basal OCR increased to the same
level as of WT after shifting to 0.1% glucose (Figure 5-figure supplement 1J). Since Mpc3
changes with mitochondrial Pi availability (Figure S5G, S5H), we also measured Mpc3 in the

Mir1OE. No further changes in Mpc3 were observed in Mir1OE (Figure 5-figure supplement

1K), indicating that increasing mitochondrial Pi alone need not increase Mpc3.  Overall,

although Mpc3 levels corelate with decreased glycolysis (*ubp3Δ* - Figure 5-figure supplement

1H, *ubp3Δ* in low Pi- Figure 5-figure supplement 1H, low glucose - Figure 5-figure supplement

1I), increased Mpc3 alone cannot increase mitochondrial activity and respiration in the

absence of adequate mitochondrial Pi.

Collectively, mitochondrial Pi availability constrains glucose-mediated mitochondrial

repression. Increasing available pools of Pi to enter the mitochondria is sufficient to induce

mitochondrial activity.

**430 Repression of mitochondrial respiration via Pi budgeting is conserved in Ubp3 mutants**

**431 across diverse yeast genetic backgrounds**

So far, we have identified a role for intracellular Pi budgeting as a constraint for

mitochondrial activity under high glucose. These were all carried out using a robust,

prototrophic yeast strain from a CEN.PK background. *S. cerevisiae* however, while Crabtree

positive, have tremendous genetic diversity (Peter et al., 2018). We therefore asked if this

mitochondrial repression through Pi budgeting (mediated by Ubp3 function) is conserved

across other strains of *S. cerevsiae* as well. To test this, we generated Ubp3 deletion mutants

in different genetic backgrounds of *S.* cerevsiae, including BY4742, W303 and Σ1278. In all

these strain backgrounds, we observed a significant increase in mitotracker fluorescne

intensity and Cox2 protein levels in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 6A, B). This suggests the role of Ubp3 as a

regulator of mitochondrial repression, independent of the genetic background of the yeast

(*S. cerevsiae*) strain. To further assess if loss of Ubp3 shows a concurrent increase in Pi levels,

we measured the total Pi levels in WT and *ubp3Δ* in a W303 strain background. We observed

a significant increase in total Pi levels in *ubp3Δ* cells in this strain (Figure 6C), similar to what

we observed in the CEN.PK strain (Figure 3C). Finally, to test if the altered Pi budgeting

regulates the mitochondrial activity in these cells, we measured the basal OCR in WT, *ubp3Δ*

and *ubp3Δ* in low (1 mM) Pi medium, in the W303 strain background. Consistent with the

increase in mitotracker fluorescence intensity and Cox2 protein levels, we observed a

significant increase in the basal OCR in *ubp3Δ* cells (Figure 6D). This increase was not observed

in *ubp3Δ* in a low Pi medium (Figure 6D). This suggests that the role of altered Pi budgeting in

regulating mitochondrial respiration is conserved in other genetic backgrounds of *S.*
*cerevisiae*.

Finally, we asked how important mitochondrial Pi transport was for growth, under
glycolytic inhibition. Consistent with the requirement for mitochondrial Pi transport to
increase mitochondrial respiration upon glycolytic inhibition (Figure 5B), WT cells only exhibit
a slightly decreased growth in the presence of 2DG (Figure 6E). In contrast, *mir1Δ* show a
severe growth defect upon 2DG treatment (Figure 6E), revealing a synergetic effect of
combining 2DG with inhibiting mitochondrial Pi transport. Therefore, the combined inhibition
of glycolysis and mitochondrial Pi transport restricts the growth of glycolytic cells.

Collectively, our data suggests a conserved role for intracellular Pi bugeting in
regulating mitochondrial repression in high glucose and the role of mitochondrial Pi transport
in regulating adaptation for growth under glycolytic inhibition.

**Discussion**

In this study, we highlight a role for Pi budgeting between cytosolic glycolysis and
mitochondrial processes (which compete for Pi) in constraining mitochondrial repression
(Figure 6F). Ubp3 controls this process (Figure 1), by maintaining the amounts of the glycolytic
enzymes Pfk1 and GAPDH (Tdh2 and Tdh3) and thereby allows high glycolytic flux. At high
fermentation rates, glycolytic enzymes levels at maximal activity maintain high glycolytic rates
(effectively following zero-order kinetics), and therefore, changes in the enzyme levels will
have a direct, proportionate effect on flux (Grigaitis and Teusink, 2022). The loss of Ubp3
decreases glycolytic flux, resulting in a systems-level, mass-action based rewiring of glucose
metabolism where more G6P is routed towards trehalose synthesis and PPP (Figure 2, Figure
6F). Indeed, inhibiting just phosphofructokinase can reroute glucose flux from glycolysis to
PPP (Hollinshead et al., 2016; Miyazawa et al., 2017; Yi et al., 2012), and our study now
permits contextualized interpretations of these results. Such reallocations of glucose flux will
collectively increase overall Pi, coming from the combined effect of increased Pi release from
trehalose synthesis, and decreased Pi consumption via reduced GAPDH. This altered
intracellular Pi economy increases Pi pools available to mitochondria, and increasing

mitochondrial Pi is necessary and sufficient to increase respiration in high glucose (Figure 4,
Figure 5, Figure 6). Mitochondrial Pi transport maintains mitochondrial activity in high
glucose, and increases mitochondrial activity in low glucose (Figure 4, Figure 5). Finally, the
mitochondrial Pi transporter Mir1 itself decreases in high glucose (Figure 5). Therefore, this
glucose-dependent repression of Mir1 also restricts mitochondrial Pi availability (and thereby
activity) in high glucose.

Traditionally, loss-of-function mutants of metabolic enzymes are used to understand
metabolic state regulation. This approach negates nuanced investigations, since metabolic
enzymes are often essential for viability. Furthermore, metabolic pathways have multiple,
contextually regulated nodes, through which cells maintain their metabolic state. Therefore,
alternate approaches to identify global regulators of metabolic states (as opposed to single
enzymes), might uncover ways via which multiple nodes are simultaneously tuned, and can
reveal unanticipated systems-level principles of metabolic state rewiring. In this study of
glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression, the loss of the DUB Ubp3 decreases glycolytic
flux by reducing the enzymes at two critical nodes in the pathway - Pfk1 and GAPDH. Unlike
loss of function mutants, a reduction in amounts will only rewire metabolic flux. By 'hitting'
multiple steps in glycolysis simultaneously, *ubp3Δ* have decreased Pi consumption, as well as
increased Pi release. Such a cumulative phenomenon reveals more than inhibiting only
GAPDH, where increased Pi comes only from reduced Pi consumption, and not from increased
trehalose biosynthesis. Our serendipitous identification of a regulator which regulates
multiple steps in glucose metabolism to change the metabolic environment, now suggests a
general basis of mitochondrial regulation that would have otherwise remained hidden.
Separately, finding the substrates of Ubp3 and whether Ubp3 directly regulates glycolytic
enzymes are exciting future research questions requiring concurrent innovations in accessible
chemical-biological approaches to study DUBs.

Because phosphates are ubiquitous, it is challenging to identify hierarchies of Pi-
dependent processes in metabolic state regulation (Gupta and Laxman, 2021). Phosphate
transfer reactions are the foundation of metabolism, driving multiple, thermodynamically
unfavorable reactions (Kamerlin et al., 2013; Westheimer, 1987). Contextually, the laws of
mass action predict that the relative rates of these reactions will regulate overall Pi balance,
and contrarily the Pi allocation to Pi-dependent reactions will determine reaction rates (Gupta

and Laxman, 2021; Van Heerden et al., 2014). Additionally, cells might control Pi allocations

for different reactions via compartmentalizing Pi in organelles, to spatially restrict Pi

availability (Booth and Guidotti, 1997; Solesio et al., 2021; Vila et al., 2022). Our data

collectively suggest a paradigm where the combination of factors regulates mitochondrial Pi

and thereby activity. In glycolytic yeast cells growing in high glucose, mitochondrial Pi

availability becomes restricted due to higher utilization of Pi in glycolysis compared to

mitochondria. Consistent with this, a rapid decrease in Pi upon glucose addition has been

observed (Hohmann et al., 1996; Koobs, 1972; Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001). Interesting,

*in vitro* studies with isolated mitochondria from tumor cells also find that decreasing Pi levels

decreases respiration (Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001), which would be consistent with this

scenario. Further, supplementing Pi correlates with decreased mitochondrial repression in

tumors (Brin and McKee, 1956; Koobs, 1972). By increasing Pi through a systems-level

rewiring of glucose metabolism (such as in *ubp3Δ* cells), cells can collectively increase

mitochondrial access to Pi. This Pi budgeting determines mitochondrial activity.

Supplementing Pi under conditions of low glycolysis (where mitochondrial Pi transport is

enhanced), as well as directly supplementing Pi to isolated mitochondria, increases

respiration (Figure 5, Figure 5-figure supplement 1). Notably, this increased respiration does

not happen upon directly supplementing Pi to highly glycolytic WT cells, where the Pi

increases in cytosol, without increasing mitochondrial Pi (Figure 5-figure supplement 1C).

Therefore, in order to derepress mitochondria, a combination of increased Pi along with

decreased glycolysis is required. An additional systems-level phenomenon that might regulate

Pi transport to the mitochondria is the decrease in cytosolic pH upon decreased glycolysis

(Dechant et al., 2010; Orij et al., 2011). The cytosolic pH in highly glycolytic cells is ~7, and

decreasing glycolysis results in cytosolic acidification (Dechant et al., 2010; Orij et al., 2011).

Therefore, under conditions of decreased glycolysis (2DG treatment, deletion of Ubp3, and

decreased GAPDH activity), cytosolic pH becomes acidic. Since mitochondrial Pi transport

itself is dependent on the proton gradient, a low cytosolic pH would favour mitochondrial Pi

transport (Hamel et al., 2004). Therefore, under conditions of decreased glycolysis (2DG

treatment, or loss of Ubp3, or decreased GAPDH activity), where cytosolic pH would be acidic,

increasing cytosolic Pi might indirectly increase mitochondria Pi transport, thereby leading to

increased respiration. Alternately, increasing mitochondrial Pi transporter amounts can

achieve the same result, as seen by overexpressing Mir1 (Figure 5). A similar observation has

been reported in *Arabidopsis*, reiterating an evolutionarily conserved role for mitochondrial Pi in controlling respiration (Jia et al., 2015). Relatedly, glycolytic inhibition can suppress cell proliferation in Warburg-positive tumors (O'Neill et al., 2019; Pelicano et al., 2006), or inflammatory responses (Soto-Heredero et al., 2020). However, these cells survive by switching to mitochondrial respiration (Lu et al., 2015; Shiratori et al., 2019), requiring alternate approaches to prevent their proliferation (Cheng et al., 2012). Inhibiting mitochondrial Pi transport in combination with glycolytic inhibition could restrict the proliferation of Warburg/Crabtree positive cells. It is important to highlight that our experiments, whether involving Pi supplementation or Pi limitations, maintain the cellular Pi concentration within the millimolar range, and are conducted within a short timeframe (~ 1 hour). This differs significantly from Pi starvation studies, where cells are subjected to prolonged and complete Pi deprivation. In those contexts, cells trigger extensive metabolic adaptations in order to sustain available Pi pools including an increase in mitochondrial membrane potential which can be independent of respiration (Ouyang et al., 2024).

Since its discovery in the 1920s, the phenomenon of accelerated glycolysis with concurrent mitochondrial repression has been intensely researched. Yet, the biochemical constraints for glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression remains unresolved. One hypothesis suggests that the availability of glycolytic intermediates might determine the extent of mitochondrial repression. F1,6BP inhibits complex III and IV of the electron transport chain (ETC) in Crabtree positive yeast (Diaz-Ruiz et al., 2011; Díaz-Ruiz et al., 2008; Hammad et al., 2016; Lemus et al., 2018). Similarly, the ratio between G6P and F1,6BP regulates the extent of mitochondrial repression (Díaz-Ruiz et al., 2008; Lemus et al., 2018). Although G6P/F6P accumulates in *ubp3Δ* (Figure 2C), this is not the case in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* (GAPDH mutant) (Figure 3-figure supplement 1D), suggesting that G6P/F6P accumulation in itself is not the criterion to increase mitochondrial activity. Separately, the competition for common metabolites/co-factors between glycolysis and respiration (such as ADP, Pi or pyruvate) could drive this phenomenon (Diaz-Ruiz et al., 2011; Koobs, 1972). Here we observe that Mpc3 mediated mitochondrial pyruvate transport alone cannot increase respiration. An additional consideration is the possible contribution of changes in ADP in regulating mitochondrial activity, where the use of ADP in glycolysis might limit mitochondrial ADP. Therefore, when Pi changes as a consequence of glycolysis, it coud be imagined that a change in ADP balance can

coincidentally occur. However, prior studies show that even though cytosolic ADP decreases

in the presence of glucose, this does  not limit mitochondrial ADP uptake, or decrease

respiration, due to the very high affinity of the mitochondrial ADP transporter (Diaz-Ruiz et

al., 2011; Rodríguez-Enríquez et al., 2001). These collectively reiterate the importance of Pi

access and transport to mitochondria in constraining mitochondrial respiration. Indeed, this

interpretation can also contextually explain observations from other model systems where

mitochondrial Pi transport seems to regulate respiration (Scheibye-Knudsen and Quistorff,

2009; Seifert et al., 2015).

We parsimoniously suggest that Pi access to the mitochondria as a key constraint for

mitochondrial repression under high glucose. In a hypothetical scenario, a single-step event

in evolution, reducing mitochondrial Pi transporter amounts, and/or increasing glycolytic flux

(to deplete cytosolic Pi), will result in whole-scale metabolic rewiring to repress mitochondria.

More elaborate regulatory events can easily be imagined as subsequent adaptations to

enforce mitochondrial repression. Given the central role played by Pi, something as

fundamental as access to Pi will constrain mitochondrial repression. Concurrently, the rapid

incorporation of Pi into faster glycolysis can give cells a competitive advantage, while also

sequestering Pi in the form of usable ATP. Over the course of evolution, this could conceivably

drive other regulatory mechanisms to enforce mitochondrial repression, leading to the

currently observed complex regulatory networks and signaling programs observed in the

Crabtree effect, and other examples of glucose-dependent mitochondrial repression.

**Materials and methods**

**Statistics and graphing**

Unless otherwise indicated, statistical significance for all indicated experiments were

calculated using unpaired Student's t-tests (GraphPad prism 9.0.1). Graphs were plotted using

GraphPad prism 9.0.1

**Yeast strains, media, and growth conditions**

A prototrophic CEN.PK strain of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (WT) (J.P. van Dijken et al., 2000) was used unless mentioned otherwise. Strains are listed in appendix table S1. Gene deletions, chromosomal C-terminal tagged strains were generated by PCR mediated gene deletion/tagging (Longtine et al., 1998). Mitochondria targeted Mneon strain (Mito-mNeon green) is described in (Dua et al., 2022). The cox2-62 strain is described in (Bonnefoy et al., 2001). Media compositions, growth conditions and CRISPR-Cas9 based mutagenesis are described in extended methods (SI appendix).

**Mitotracker fluorescence**

Mitotracker fluorescence was measured using Thermo Varioscan™ LUX multimode plate reader (579/599 excitation/emission). Detailed protocol is described in extended methods. Mitotracker fluorescence were normalized using $OD_{600}$ of each sample and relative fluorescence intensity calculated.

**Protein extraction and Western blotting**

Total protein was precipitated, extracted using trichloroacetic acid (TCA) as described earlier (Vengayil et al., 2019). Blots were quantified using ImageJ software. Detailed protocol is described in extended methods.

**Basal OCR measurement**

The basal OCR was measured using Agilent Seahorse XFe24 analyzer. Basal OCR readings were normalized for cell number (using $OD_{600}$ of samples) in each well. The detailed methods are described in extended methods.

**Mitochondrial volume estimation**

High-resolution 3D fluorescence experiments were performed on an inverted confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss LSM 780 or Olympus FV3000). For each imaging field of view, sequential z-stacks were acquired for each excitation channel. 488 nm laser excitation for mNeonGreen and 561 nm laser excitation for Mitotracker CMXros dye were used respectively. Images taken were deconvolved and analyzed further in ImageJ software with custom-written routines. Mitochondria segmentation and quantification was done using the

628  Mitochondria Analyzer plugin (Chaudhry et al., 2019) in Imagej. For visualization,
629  maximum intensity projection of 3D images was used.

**RNA extraction and RT-qPCR**

The RNA extraction was done using the hot phenol extraction method as described in
(Vengayil et al., 2019). The isolated RNA was DNase treated, and used for cDNA synthesis.
Superscript III reverse transcriptase enzyme (Invitrogen) was used for cDNA synthesis and RT-
qPCR was performed using KAPA SYBR FAST qRT PCR kit (KK4602, KAPA Biosystems). Taf10
was used as a control for normalisation and the fold change in mRNA levels were calculated
by 2^-ddct method.

**ATP, ethanol and Pi measurements**

638  ATP levels were measured by ATP estimation kit (Thermo Fisher A22066). Ethanol
639  concentration in the medium was estimated using potassium dichromate based assay
640  described in (Sriariyanun et al., 2019) with modifications. Pi was estimated using a malachite
641  green phosphate assay kit (Cayman chemicals, 10009325). Detailed sample collection and
642  assay protocols are described in extended methods.

**Metabolite extraction and analysis by LC-MS/MS**

644  The steady state levels and relative $^{13}$C label incorporation into metabolites were estimated
645  by quantitative LC-MS/MS methods as described in (Walvekar et al., 2018). Detailed
646  methodology is extensively described in extended methods. Peak area measurements are
647  listed in supplement file 1.

**Mitochondrial isolation**

649  Mitochondria was isolated by immunoprecipitation as described in (Chen et al., 2017; Liao et
650  al., 2018) with modifications. The detailed protocol is described in extended methods (SI
651  appendix). The eluted mitochondria were used in malachite green assay for Pi estimation,
652  boiled with SDS-glycerol buffer for western blots or incubated with mitotracker CMXROS with
653  mitochondria-activation buffer for mitotracker assays.

**Cytosolic fraction isolation**

655 Cytosolic fraction was isolated from spheroplasts by centrifugation as described in detail in

656 S1 appendix. The total protein amounts in the cytosolic fraction was estimated by BCA protein

657 estimation assay and the Pi levels were estimated by malachite green assay.

## Data availability

660 The LC-MS/MS peak area for all the metabolites can be found in supplement file 1. This study

661 includes no data deposited in external repositories.

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## Figure legends

**Figure 1: A deubiquitinase deletion screen identifies Ubp3 as a regulator of glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression**

A) Schematic depicting glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression (Crabtree effect).

B) Schematic describing the screen with a yeast DUB KO library to identify regulators of Crabtree effect.

C) Identifying DUB knockouts with altered mitochondrial potential. Heat map shows relative mitochondrial membrane potential of 19 deubiquitinase deletions in high glucose, from 2 biological replicates. Also see figure 1-figure supplements 1A, B.

D) The deubiquitinase activity of Ubp3 and repression of mitochondrial membrane potential. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and Ubp3$^{C469A}$ were grown in high glucose and relative mitochondrial membrane potential was measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see figure 1-figure supplement 1 D.

E) Effect of loss of Ubp3 on ETC complex IV subunit Cox2. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose, and Cox2 was measured (western blot using an anti-Cox2 antibody). A representative blot (out of 3 biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

F) Basal oxygen consumption rate (OCR) in high glucose in *ubp3Δ*. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose, and OCR was measured. Basal OCR corresponding to ~3 x 10^5 cells, from two independent experiments (n=2), normalized to the OD$_{600}$ is shown. Bar graph representations are shown in the inset. Data represent mean ± SD.

G) Total ATP levels in *ubp3Δ* and WT. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose, and total ATP were measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

H) Dependence of *ubp3Δ* on mitochondrial ATP. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose, and treated with 1 mM sodium azide for 45 minutes. Total ATP levels in sodium azide treated and untreated cells were measured. Data represent mean ± SD (n=3).

I) Requirement for mitochondrial respiration in high glucose in *ubp3Δ*. A growth curve of WT and *ubp3Δ* in high glucose in the presence of OXPHOS uncoupler FCCP (10 μM), and serial dilution growth assay in high glucose in the presence/absence of sodium azide (1 mM) are shown. Data represent mean ± SD (n=2). Also see figure 1-figure supplement 1 H, I.

Data information: **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

**Figure 2: Key glycolytic enzymes decrease and glucose flux is rerouted in *ubp3Δ* cells**

A) A schematic illustrating directions of glucose-6-phosphate (G6) flux in cells. Glucose is converted to G6P, a precursor for trehalose, the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP), and glycolysis.

B) Effect of loss of Ubp3 on key glycolytic enzymes. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and the Pfk1, Tdh2, and Tdh3 levels were measured by western blot using an anti-FLAG antibody. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantification are shown. Data represent mean ± SD. Also see figure 2-figure supplement 1A.

C) Steady-state metabolite amounts in WT and *ubp3Δ* in high glucose. Relative steady-state levels of trehalose, major glycolytic, and PPP intermediates were estimated in WT and *ubp3Δ*. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3.

D) Relative glycolytic and trehalose synthesis flux in WT and *ubp3Δ*. Relative $^{13}$C-label incorporation into trehalose and glycolytic intermediates, after a pulse of 1% $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose is shown. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3, figure 2-figure supplement 1 D, E.

E) Ethanol production in *ubp3Δ*. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and ethanol in the media was measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

F) Relative rate of ethanol production in WT vs *ubp3Δ*. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose (to OD$_{600}$ ~ 0.6), equal numbers of cells were shifted to fresh medium (high glucose) and ethanol concentration in the medium was measured temporally. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3)

Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

**Figure 3: Rerouted glucose flux results in phosphate (Pi) accumulation**

A) Changes in protein levels in *ubp3Δ* (dataset from Isasa et al., 2015)*. ubp3Δ* cells have an

increase in proteins involved in mitochondrial respiration and decrease in proteins involved

in glucose and phosphate metabolism.

B)  Schematic showing maintenance of Pi balance during glycolysis. Trehalose synthesis from

G6P releases Pi, and the conversion of G3P to 1,3BPG by GAPDH consumes Pi. In *ubp3Δ*,

trehalose biosynthesis (which releases Pi) increases. *ubp3Δ* have decreased GAPDH, which

will decrease Pi consumption. This increase in Pi release along with decreased Pi consumption

could increase cytosolic Pi.

C) Intracellular Pi levels in WT and *ubp3Δ*. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and the

total free phosphate (Pi) levels were estimated. WT in high Pi (2% glucose, 10mM Pi) was a

positive control. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see

figure 3-figure supplement 1A.

D) Pho regulon responses in WT and *ubp3Δ*. Protein levels of Pho84-FLAG and Pho12-FLAG

were compared between WT grown in high glucose and in high Pi, *ubp3Δ* in high glucose with

or without a shift to a no-Pi medium for one hour, by western blot. A representative blot (out

of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean

± SD.

E) Contribution of trehalose synthesis as a Pi source. WT, *tps2Δ*, *ubp3Δ,* and *ubp3Δtps2Δ* were

grown in high glucose and the total Pi levels were estimated. Data represent mean ± SD from

three biological replicates (n=3). Also see figure 3-figure supplement 1B.

F) Loss of GAPDH isozymes Tdh2 and Tdh3 and effect on Pi. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were

grown in high glucose and total Pi was estimated. Data represent mean ± SD from three

biological replicates (n=3).

G) Pi levels in *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells in ethanol medium. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*

cells were grown in ethanol medium and the total Pi levels were estimated. Data represent

mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

**Figure 4: Mitochondrial Pi availability correlates with mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ***

A) A hypothetical mechanism of cytosolic free Pi controling mitochondrial activity by

regulating mitochondrial Pi availability.

B) Cytosolic and mitochondrial Pi amounts in WT vs *ubp3Δ*. The cytosolic fraction was isolated

by centrifugation (see SI appendix), and in separate experiments, mitochondria were isolated

by immunoprecipitation from WT and *ubp3Δ* and mitochondrial Pi estimated. (i) Cytosolic Pi

levels (relative as well as absolute) and (ii) mitochondrial Pi levels (normalised to Idh1) are

shown. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3) respectively for the

cytosolic and mitochondrial measurements. Also see figure 4-figure supplement 1A, B.

C) Cox2 protein in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were grown in high glucose and

Cox2 protein was estimated. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and

their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

D) Basal OCR levels in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ*. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were grown in high glucose

and basal OCR was measured from two independent experiments (n=2). Data represent mean

± SD. Also see figure 4-figure supplement 1C.

E) Comparative Pi amounts and Cox2 levels in *ubp3Δ*, *tdh2Δtdh3Δ,* WT cells. WT cells were

grown in high glucose, *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were grown in high glucose and low Pi, and

Cox2 protein was estimated. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and

their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean ± SD. Also see figure figure 4-figure

supplement 1D, F.

F) Pi amounts and basal OCR in *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* vs WT cells. WT cells were grown in high glucose, *ubp3Δ* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* were grown in high glucose and low Pi, and basal OCR was measured from three independent experiments (n=3). Data represent mean ± SD.

G) Effect of loss of mitochondrial Pi transporter Mir1 on Cox2protein. WT, *ubp3Δ*, *mir1Δ,* and *mir1Δubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and Cox2 amounts compared. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

H) Relationship of mitochondrial Pi transport and basal OCR in WT vs *ubp3Δ*. WT, *ubp3Δ*, *mir1Δ,* and *mir1Δubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose and basal OCR was measured from two independent experiments (n=2). Data represent mean ± SD.

Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001.

**Figure 5: Mitochondrial Pi availability constrains mitochondrial activity under high glucose**

A) Relationship of mitochondrial Pi transport and respiration after glucose removal. WT and *mir1Δ* cells were cultured in high (2%) glucose and shifted to low (0.1%) glucose for 1 hour. The normalized basal OCR, from two independent experiments (n=2) are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

B) Requirement of mitochondrial Pi transport for switch to respiration upon glycolytic inhibition by 2DG. WT and *mir1Δ* cells were cultured in high glucose and treated with or without 0.25% 2DG for 1 hour. Basal OCR was measured from two independent experiments (n=2). Data represent mean ± SD. Also see figure 5-figure supplement 1A.

C) Glucose-dependent regulation of Mir1. Cells (with Mir1-HA) were grown in high glucose and shifted to low glucose (0.1% glucose) for 1 hour, and Mir1 levels compared. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are shown. Data represent mean ± SD. Also see figure 5-figure supplement 1B.

D) Increasing Pi concentrations and mitochondrial activity in isolated mitochondria. Mitochondria were isolated from WT cells grown in high glucose, incubated with 1 mM

pyruvate, 1 mM malate, 0.5 mM ADP and 0-50 mM $KH_2PO_4$. The mitochondrial activity was

estimated by mitotracker fluorescence intensity, and intensities relative to the sample with 0

mM $KH_2PO_4$ is shown. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

E) Effect of overexpressing Mir1 on Cox2 protein. WT (containing empty vector) and Mir1

overexpressing (Mir1OE) cells were grown in high glucose and Cox2 levels were estimated. A

representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are

shown. Data represent mean ± SD. Also see figure S5F.

F) Effect of overexpressing Mir1 on basal OCR. The basal OCR in WT (containing empty vector)

and Mir1OE in high glucose was measured from three independent experiments (n=3). Data

represent mean ± SD.

Data information: $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$.

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**Figure 6: Repression of mitochondrial respiration via Pi budgeting is conserved in Ubp3**

**mutants across diverse yeast genetic backgrounds**

A) Effect of loss of Ubp3 on mitochondrial membrane potential in different yeast strains. WT

and *ubp3Δ* cells (in CEN.PK, BY4742, W303 and Σ1278 strains of *S. cerevisiae*) were grown in

high glucose and relative mitochondrial membrane potential was measured. Data represent

mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

B) Effect of loss of Ubp3 on ETC complex IV subunit Cox2. WT and *ubp3Δ* (in BY4742, W303

and Σ1278 strains of *S. cerevisiae*) were grown in high glucose, and Cox2 was measured. A

representative blot (out of 3 biological replicates, n=3) and their quantifications are shown.

Data represent mean ± SD.

C) Intracellular Pi levels in WT and *ubp3Δ* in W303 strain background. WT and *ubp3Δ* (in W303

strain background) were grown in high glucose and the total free phosphate (Pi) levels were

estimated. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

D) Effect of low Pi on the basal OCR in WT and *ubp3Δ* cells in W303 strain background. WT

cells were grown in high glucose and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and low Pi, and basal

OCR was measured. Data represent mean ± SD (n=3).

E) Requirement of mitochondrial Pi transport for growth after 2DG treatment. Shown are

serial dilution growth assays in high glucose in the presence and absence of 0.1% 2DG, using

WT and *mir1Δ* cells. The results after 40hrs incubation/30°C are shown.

F) A model illustrating how mitochondrial Pi availability controls mitochondrial activity. In high

glucose, the decreased Pi due to high Pi consumption in glycolysis, along with the glucose-

mediated repression of mitochondrial Pi transporters, decreases mitochondrial Pi availability.

This reduces mitochondrial activity. In low glucose, increased mitochondrial Pi transporters

and lower glycolytic flux increases mitochondrial Pi, leading to enhanced mitochondrial

activity. In *ubp3Δ* cells in high glucose, high trehalose synthesis and lower glycolytic flux

results in an increase in Pi. This increases mitochondrial Pi availability and thereby the

mitochondrial activity.

Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

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## Supplement figure legends

**Figure 1-figure supplement 1: DUB screen details and further characterization of Ubp3 functions**

A) A list of the known/identified *S. cerevisiae* deubiquitinase enzymes is shown. The DUBs which were used in this study, and the mitotracker intensity of two biological replicates (n=2) relative to WT are shown.

B) WT cells grown in a respiratory, ethanol medium and mitotracker fluorescence intensity compared to glucose medium. WT cells were grown in high glucose medium (2% glucose) and ethanol medium (2% ethanol), and the mitochondrial membrane potential was measured. Data from two independent experiments (n=2) is shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

C) Representative images of WT and *ubp3Δ* cells treated with mitotracker red CMXROS.

D) Schematic representation of the conserved domains of Ubp3 and its mammalian ortholog Usp10. The catalytic cysteine of Usp10 and Ubp3 is highlighted.

E) The catalytically inactive mutant of Ubp3, Ubp3$^{C469A}$ does not have altered Ubp3 protein levels. WT and Ubp3$^{C469A}$ cells containing endogenous Ubp3 tagged with 3xFLAG (C terminus) were grown in high glucose and the protein levels of Ubp3 were measured. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantification are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

F) The total mitochondrial volume does not change in *ubp3Δ* cells. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells with mitochondria targeted mNeon green were imaged, and the total mitochondrial volume per cell (n=104 for WT, n=107 for *ubp3Δ*) was calculated. A representative image and quantification are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

G) Tom70 protein amounts do not change in *ubp3Δ* cells. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells containing endogenous Tom70 tagged at the C terminus with a 3xFLAG epitope were grown in high glucose and the protein levels of Tom70 were measured by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantification are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

H) Dependence of *ubp3Δ* on mitochondrial respiration. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose with or without mitochondrial inhibitor oligomycin (25 µM), and the $OD_{600}$ was measured at different time points. Data represent mean ± SD (n=2).

I) Dependence of *ubp3Δ* on functional mitochondrial respiration. Ubp3 deletions were done in respiration defective strains -Rho0, cox2-62, *atp1Δ* and *atp10Δ*, and serial dilution growth assay was done in high glucose. The results after 24 hours of incubation at 30°C are shown.

J) Changes in global ubiquitination state in WT and *ubp3Δ.* WT and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose with or without heat stress (42°C/1 hour), and the changes in global total ubiquitination was estimated by western blotting using an anti-ubiquitin antibody.

**Figure 2-figure supplement 1: Further estimates of glycolytic enzymes and flux**

A) Loss of Ubp3 does not change the protein levels of enolase isozymes Eno1 and Eno2. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells containing Eno1 and Eno2 C terminus endogenously tagged with a 3x FLAG epitope, were grown in high glucose and protein amounts were estimated. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel, quantifications shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

B) The decreased levels of glycolytic enzymes in *ubp3Δ* cells is not because of proteasomal degradation. WT and *ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and *ubp3Δ* cells were treated with or without MG132 (100 µM) for 30 minutes. Pfk1, Tdh2, and Tdh3 levels were measured by western blot using an anti-FLAG antibody. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) and their quantification are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

C) Loss of Ubp3 results in decreased transcription of PFK1, TDH2 and TDH3 genes. WT, *ubp3Δ* and Ubp3$^{C469A}$ cells were grown in high glucose and the mRNA levels of PFK1, TDH2 and TDH3 were analysed by RT-qPCR. The fold changes in mRNA levels are shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

D) Steady-state pyruvate levels in WT and *ubp3Δ* in high glucose. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3.

1148    E) Schematic showing the experimental design for measuring $^{13}$C label incorporation into

1149    glycolytic intermediates and trehalose using a $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose-pulse.

1150    F) Changes in $^{13}$C label incorporation into glycolytic intermediates and trehalose with time,

1151    and linearity of label incorporation after a pulse of 1% $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose is shown.

1152

**Figure 2- figure supplement 2: Estimation of steady state levels and flux of TCA cycle**

**intermediates**

A) Steady-state TCA metabolite amounts in WT and *ubp3Δ* in high glucose. Relative steady-

state levels of TCA cycle intermediates were estimated in WT and *ubp3Δ*. Data represent

mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3.

B) Schematic showing the experimental design for measuring $^{13}$C label incorporation into TCA

cycle intermediates using a $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose-pulse.

C) Changes in $^{13}$C label incorporation into TCA cycle intermediates with time, and linearity of

label incorporation after a pulse of 1% $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose is shown.

D) Relative TCA cycle flux in WT and *ubp3Δ*. Relative $^{13}$C-label incorporation into TCA cycle

intermediates, after a pulse of 1% $^{13}$C$_6$ glucose is shown. Data represent mean ± SD from three

biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3.

Data information: *p<0.05

1166

**Figure 3-figure supplement 1: Comparisons of phosphate, ethanol and other metabolites in**

**WT, *ubp3Δ* and GAPDH mutants**

A) Loss of Ubp3 deubiquitinase activity and Pi levels. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and Ubp3$^{C469A}$ cells were

grown in high glucose and the total free phosphate (Pi) levels were estimated. Data from two

independent experiments (n=2) is shown. Data represent mean ± SD. B) Trehalose levels in

WT and *ubp3Δ* cells in the absence of Tps2. *tps2Δ* and *ubp3Δtps2Δ* cells were grown in high

glucose, and the trehalose levels were estimated using targeted LC-MS/MS. Data represent

mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

C) Loss of GAPDH isozymes Tdh2 and Tdh3 and ethanol production. WT and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells

were grown in high glucose and the ethanol concentration in the medium was measured.

Data are represented as mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Note: The WT

shown here is same as the WT in Figure 2E, the ethanol assays in Figure 2E and Figure S3C

were done together and a common WT control was used.

D) Steady state levels of glycolytic intermediates: *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells have unaltered steady

state levels of G6P/F6P, increased levels of F1,6 BP and G3P and decreased levels of 3PG and

PEP. WT and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose and the steady state amounts of

glycolytic intermediates were estimated using targeted LC-MS/MS. Data represent mean ± SD

from three biological replicates (n=3). Also see Appendix Table S3.

E) Trehalose levels in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells. WT and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose

and trehalose amounts were estimated using targeted LC-MS/MS. Data represent mean ± SD

from three biological replicates (n=3).

Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

1189

**Figure 4-figure supplement 1: Mitochondrial Pi estimation characterizations and**

**correlations of mitochondrial activity with Pi availability**

A) Isolation of cytosolic fraction by centrifugation and lack of vacuolar contamination in

mitochondria isolated by immunoprecipitation. Cytosolic fraction was isolated from WT cells

grown in high glucose with or without excess Pi and *ubp3Δ* cells. Eno1 was used as a cytosolic

marker and Cox2 as mitochondrial marker to ensure purity of the cytosolic fractions.

Mitochondria were isolated from WT cells grown in high glucose and the protein levels of

Tom20, Cox2, Idh1 and Vph1 and were measured in cell lysate and immunoprecipitated

mitochondria by western blot.

B) Idh1 levels in *ubp3Δ* cells and WT cells grown in high Pi. WT cells were grown in high glucose, or high glucose and high Pi medium (10mM Pi) and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose, and the Idh1 protein levels were estimated by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel. Quantification is shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

C) Mitochondrial membrane potential in *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells. WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose and the mitochondrial membrane potential was measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

D) Pi levels in *ubp3Δ* cells grown in low Pi (1mM Pi) vs WT cells. WT cells were grown in high glucose and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose or high glucose-low Pi, and the total Pi levels were estimated. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

E) Ethanol production in *ubp3Δ* cells grown in a low Pi medium. WT cells were grown in high glucose and *ubp3Δ* cells were grown in high glucose or high glucose-low Pi, and the ethanol concentration in the medium was measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

F) Pi amounts and mitochondrial membrane potential in WT, *ubp3Δ,* and *tdh2Δtdh3Δ* cells. The cells were grown in high glucose or high glucose-low Pi, and the mitochondrial membrane potential was measured. Data from two independent experiments (n=2) is shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

G) The Pi mediated change in basal OCR in *ubp3Δ* is dependent on mitochondrial respiration. WT and Rho0 cells were grown in high glucose, Rho0/*ubp3Δ* were grown in high glucose and low Pi, and basal OCR was measured from three independent experiments (n=3). Data represent mean ± SD.

H) The protein levels of mitochondrial Pi transporters Mir1 and Pic2 in *ubp3Δ* cells. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells containing endogenously tagged Mir1 and Pic2 at their C terminus with a 6x HA epitope tag were grown in high glucose and Mir1 and Pic2 proteins were measured by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel. Quantification is shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

1227 Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

1228

**Figure 5-figure supplement 1: Mitochondrial phosphate and pyruvate transport**
**relationships with mitochondrial activity**

A) Requirement of Mir1 for switching to increased mitochondrial activity upon 2-
deoxyglucose (2-DG) treatment. WT and *mir1Δ* cells were grown in high glucose and treated
with 0.1% and 0.25% 2-DG for one hour. The mitochondrial membrane potential was
measured from two independent experiments (n=2). Data represent mean ± SD.

B) Mir1 protein levels and glucose repression. Cells containing Mir1 endogenously tagged at
the C terminus with a 6x HA epitope tag were grown in high glucose or a respiratory medium
(2% ethanol). Mir1 protein was estimated by western blot. A representative blot (out of three
biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel. Quantification is shown in the upper
panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

C) Effect of supplementing Pi in the medium on cytosolic and mitochondrial Pi. WT cells were
grown in high glucose, and high glucose-high Pi medium (10 mM Pi). The cytosolic fraction
was isolated by centrifugation (see SI appendix), and in separate experiments, mitochondria
were isolated by immunoprecipitation from WT and *ubp3Δ* and mitochondrial Pi estimated.
(i) Cytosolic Pi levels (relative and absolute) and (ii) mitochondrial Pi levels normalised to Idh1
protein levels is shown. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3). Also
see figure 4-figure supplement 1A, B.

D) Effect of supplementing Pi on the total mitochondrial volume. WT cells with mitochondria
targeted mNeon green were grown in high glucose, and high glucose, high Pi medium (10 mM
Pi), cells were imaged and the total mitochondrial volume per cell was calculated.

E) Increasing Pi concentration in a high glucose medium results in a decrease in basal OCR.
WT cells were grown in high glucose medium (YPD-Pi medium), supplemented with 5 mM Pi
and at $OD_{600}$~0.6, the medium was supplemented with Pi (10 mM and 25 mM final
concentrations). The basal OCR was measured one hour after Pi supplementation. Data
represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

E) Effect of increasing the Pi concentration in a high glucose medium, in the presence of 2DG, on basal OCR. WT cells were grown in high glucose medium (YPD-Pi medium), supplemented with 5 mM Pi and at $OD_{600}$~0.6, the medium was supplemented with Pi (25 mM final concentration) and 2DG (0.25%) for one hour and the basal OCR was measured. Data represent mean ± SD from three biological replicates (n=3).

F) Overexpression of Mir1. C terminal 6x HA epitope-tagged Mir1 was expressed under G6PD promoter in cells with Mir1 endogenously tagged at the C terminus with a 6x-HA epitope tag. WT cells (carrying an empty vector, and expressing Mir1-HA under the endogenous Mir1 promoter) and Mir1-OE cells were grown in high glucose. The protein levels of Mir1 were estimated by western blot, and clones with an ~2-fold increase in Mir1 were selected. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel. Quantification is shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

G) Mpc3 protein levels in *ubp3Δ* cells. WT and *ubp3Δ* cells containing endogenously tagged Mpc3 at the C terminus with a 3x FLAG epitope tag, were cultured in high glucose (2% glucose) and high glucose-low Pi (2% glucose, 1 mM Pi). The Mpc3 protein levels were measured by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel, quantifications shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

H) Mpc3 protein amounts upon shifting WT and *mir1Δ* cells to a low-glucose medium. WT and *mir1Δ* cells containing Mpc3-FLAG, were cultured in high glucose (2% glucose) and shifted to low (0.1%) glucose for 1 hour. Mpc3 protein was measured by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological replicates, n=3) is shown in the lower panel, quantifications shown in the upper panel. Data represent mean ± SD.

I) Requirement of Mpc3 for the increase in basal OCR upon shifting to low glucose. WT and *mpc3Δ* cells were cultured in high glucose (2% glucose) and shifted to low (0.1%) glucose for 1 hour. The basal OCR from two independent experiments (n=2), normalized to the $OD_{600}$ is shown. Data represent mean ± SD.

J) Mpc3 levels and Mir1 overexpression. WT cells and Mir1-OE cells containing endogenously tagged Mpc3 ate the C terminus with a 3x FLAG tag were grown in high glucose. The protein levels of Mpc3 were estimated by western blot. A representative blot (out of three biological

1284    replicates, n=3) is shown in the panel. Quantification is shown in the upper panel. Data

1285    represent mean ± SD. Data information: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

# Figure 1: A deubiquitinase deletion screen identifies Ubp3 as a regulator of glucose-mediated mitochondrial repression

Figure 2: Key glycolytic enzymes decrease and glucose flux is rerouted in *ubp3Δ* cells

# Figure 3: Rerouted glucose flux results in phosphate (Pi) accumulation

# Figure 4: Mitochondrial Pi availability correlates with mitochondrial activity in *ubp3Δ*

# Figure 5: Mitochondrial Pi availability constrains mitochondrial activity under high glucose

# Figure 6: Ubp3 mediated regulation of mitochondrial respiration via Pi budgeting is conserved across different yeast strains

# Figure 1-figure supplement 1: DUB screen details and further characterization of Ubp3 functions

**A**

| Sl. No. | Gene name | Essential/ non-essential | Deleted in this study (Yes/No) | Mitotracker intensity of the deletion mutant (Relative to WT) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Ubp1 | Non-essential | No. KOs were inviable | N/A | |
| 2 | Ubp2 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.832963 | 0.904247 |
| 3 | Ubp3 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.446586 | 1.632793 |
| 4 | Doa4 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.388516 | 1.221461 |
| 5 | Ubp5 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.073892 | 0.987076 |
| 6 | Ubp6 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.139659 | 1.040391 |
| 7 | Ubp7 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.961557 | 0.847109 |
| 8 | Ubp8 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.620714 | 0.98006 |
| 9 | Ubp9 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.923033 | 1.000494 |
| 10 | Ubp10 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.733428 | 1.636301 |
| 11 | Ubp11 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.03262 | 0.961782 |
| 12 | Ubp12 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.529191 | 0.602179 |
| 13 | Ubp13 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.972874 | 1.027698 |
| 14 | Ubp14 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.009835 | 0.864286 |
| 15 | Ubp15 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.898673 | 0.97787 |
| 16 | Ubp16 | Non-essential | Yes | 1.143826 | 0.993367 |
| 17 | Yuh1 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.9249 | 0.976146 |
| 18 | Otu1 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.944749 | 0.836696 |
| 19 | Otu2 | Non-essential | Yes | 0.854262 | 0.8604 |
| 20 | YGL082W | Non-essential | Yes | 1.39516 | 0.846423 |
| 21 | Rpn11 | Essential | No | N/A | |

**B** Relative mitotracker fluorescence — Glucose, Ethanol

**C** Mito-mNeon green / Mitotracker CMXROS — WT, ubp3Δ

**D**
Ubp3: 1 — 460 — USP domain — 911
Usp10: 1 — 415 — USP domain — 795
469
---Asn-Ile-Cys-Phe-Met----
---Asn-Trp-Cys-Tyr-Ile---
424
Catalytic Cysteine

**E** Relative Ubp3 levels — WT, Ubp3^{C469A}; ns; Ubp3 124 kDa; Total protein (Coomassie)

**F** Mitochondria targeted mNeon green (Mito-mNeon green); WT, ubp3Δ; Mitochondria volume per cell (um3) — WT n=104, ubp3Δ n=107; ns; 2 µm

**G** Relative Tom70 levels — WT, ubp3Δ; ns; Tom70 91/71 kDa; Total protein (Coomassie)

**H** OD_{600} vs Time (hrs); WT, WT + oligomycin, ubp3Δ, ubp3Δ + oligomycin

**I** Glucose — Whitelight, Trans; WT, ubp3Δ, cox2-62, ubp3Δ/cox2-62 [Complex-IV subunit], Rho0, ubp3Δ/Rho0, atp1Δ, ubp3Δ/atp1Δ, atp10Δ, ubp3Δ/atp10Δ [ATP-synthase subunits]

**J** Heat stress; WT, ubp3Δ, WT, ubp3Δ; Ubiquitinated proteins

# Figure 2-figure supplement 1: Further estimates of glycolytic enzymes and flux

# Figure 2-figure supplement 2: Estimation of steady state levels of metabolites and flux of TCA cycle intermediates

Figure 3-figure supplement 1: Comparisons of phosphate, ethanol and other metabolites in WT, *ubp3Δ* and GAPDH mutants

# Figure 4-figure supplement 1: Mitochondrial Pi estimation characterizations and correlations of mitochondrial activity with Pi availability

# Figure 5-figure supplement 1: Mitochondrial phosphate and pyruvate transport relationships with mitochondrial activity