Title:

S1 hydrophobic residues modulate voltage sensing phosphatase enzymatic function and voltage

sensing

Condensed title:

S1 hydrophobic residues modulate voltage sensing

Vamseedhar Rayaprolu [1,4], Heini M. Miettinen [1], William Baker [1], Victoria C. Young [2], Matthew

Fisher [1], Gwendolyn Mueller [1], William O. Rankin [1], J. Jack Kelly [1], William J. Ratzan [1,5], Lee Min

Leong [3], Joshua A. Davisson [1,6], Bradley J. Baker [3], Susy C. Kohout [2,#].

[1] Montana State University, Department of Cell Biology & Neuroscience, Department of

Microbiology & Cell Biology, Bozeman, MT, USA

[2] Cooper Medical School of Rowan University, Dept of Biomedical Sciences, Camden, NJ

[3] Brain Science Institute, Korea Institute of Science & Technology (KIST), Division of Bio-Medical

Science & Technology, KIST School, Korea University of Science & Technology (UST), Seoul,

South Korea.

Current locations:

[4] Pacific Northwest CryoEM Center, Portland, OR.

[5] Harvard University, Dept. of Systems Biology, Boston, MA.

[6] University of Minnesota, Dept. of Biochemistry, Molecular Biology & Biophysics, Minneapolis, MN.

corresponding author: kohout@rowan.edu

Abstract

The voltage sensing domain (VSD) is a four-helix modular protein domain that converts electrical signals into conformational changes, leading to open pores and active enzymes. In most voltage sensing proteins, the VSDs do not interact with one another and the S1-S3 helices are considered mainly as scaffolding. The two exceptions are the voltage sensing phosphatase (VSP) and the proton channel (Hv). VSP is a voltage-regulated enzyme and Hv's are channels that only have VSDs. To investigate the S1 contribution to VSP function, we individually mutated four hydrophobic amino acids in S1 to alanine (F127, I131, I134 and L137). We also combined these mutations to generate quadruple mutation designated S1-Q. Most of these mutations shifted the voltage dependence of activity to higher voltages though interestingly, not all substrate reactions were the same. The kinetics of enzymatic activity were also altered with some mutations significantly slowing down dephosphorylation. The voltage dependence of VSD motions were consistently shifted to lower voltages and indicated a second voltage dependent motion. Co-immunoprecipitation demonstrated that none of the mutations broke the VSP dimer indicating that the S1 impact could stem from intrasubunit and/or intersubunit interactions. Lastly, when the same alanine mutations were introduced into a genetically encoded voltage indicator, they dramatically altered the optical readings, making some of the kinetics faster and shifting the voltage dependence. These results indicate that the S1 helix in VSP plays a critical role in tuning the enzyme's conformational response to membrane potential transients and influencing the function of the VSD.

Introduction

Voltage sensing domains (VSDs) are well known modular domains that cause proteins to be regulated by changes in membrane potential (1). They are composed of four transmembrane helices, labeled S1-S4, with S4 conferring the voltage dependence of the domain via arginines embedded in the helix. The voltage regulated family of proteins was long thought to be composed solely of channels, but the discovery of the voltage sensing phosphatase (VSP) broadened the

biological role this group of proteins play in cellular physiology. Instead of having channel function,

VSP connects a VSD to a phosphatase domain that will dephosphorylate phosphatidylinositol

phosphates (PIPs) in a voltage dependent manner (2) (Fig 1A). Several studies show that the VSD

from VSP functions in the same way as those from channels with S4 movements propagating to the

connected linker (2–4). The VSP linker then propagates the conformational change to the

phosphatase domain that then removes both the 3- and 5-phosphates from the PIP inositol ring (2,

5–10) (Fig 1B). The phosphatase domain is composed of a catalytic domain and a membrane

binding C2 domain with mutations in either domain impacting catalytic activity (2, 9, 11). In

particular, VSP removes the 5-phosphate from phosphatidylinositol-3,4,5-trisphosphate [PI(3,4,5)P$_3$]

to generate phosphatidylinositol-3,4-trisphosphate [PI(3,4)P$_2$] and from phosphatidylinositol-4,5-

trisphosphate [PI(4,5)P$_2$] to generate phosphatidylinositol-4-trisphosphate PI(4)P. In addition, VSP

will remove the 3-phosphate from PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ to generate PI(4,5)P$_2$ and from PI(3,4)P$_2$ to generate

PI(4)P. Thus, while VSP catalyzes two types of reactions (3- and 5-phosphate removal), it has three

different possible substrates. As a result of being the only enzyme directly coupled to a VSD, VSP

serves as a unique member of the family for better understanding how VSD's change conformation

in response to changes in the membrane potential.

Because of the importance of S4, many studies have been dedicated to understanding how S4

moves in response to voltage and how it transfers the activation information to the rest of the

protein (12, 13). The S2 and S3 helices are known to contain counter charges for the S4 arginines

(14, 15). The S1 helix is also known to contribute to the hydrophobic plug (gating pore) that

prevents ion conduction through the VSD while still allowing the Arg to move in response to voltage

(16). However, S1-S3 is mainly considered a scaffold when investigating voltage dependence (13).

In contrast, S1 appears to play a more active role in both the voltage-gated proton channel (Hv) and

the voltage sensing phosphatase (VSP). Specifically, S1 may help mediate dimerization in Hv (17–

19) and is proposed to play a role in gating Hv's proton conduction because it moves during the

opening transition as opposed to S4 which moves before the opening transition (20). In VSP, S1

may also help mediate dimerization (21, 22). Importantly, others have shown a functional impact of

S1 where amino acid 126 in the *Ciona intestinalis* VSP (Ci-VSP) S1 tunes voltage sensing over 2

orders of magnitude (23). Mutations in S1 also shift enzyme activity in Ci-VSP (24), and in *Danio*

rerio VSP (Dr-VSP) (25). In addition, the S1 in Ci-VSP appears to move in response to voltage

sensing when the phosphatase is removed (26). A complete picture of how S1 influences enzyme

activation and voltage sensing in VSP remains unclear. Here, we investigate how VSP uses S1 to

control and modulate enzyme activity and the VSD.

The discovery of VSP also boosted our understanding of the modularity of the VSD and has led to

the generation of new tools for monitoring and manipulating basic cellular processes. For example ,

genetically encoded voltage sensor (GEVI) designers immediately took advantage of the VSD from

Ci-VSP by connecting a fluorescent protein directly to the Ci-VSD (27–29). These new generation

GEVIs have significantly improved their signal-to-noise ratio allowing researchers to optically

monitor single action potentials (30, 31). Interestingly, the dimerization of fluorescent proteins is

known to impact how GEVIs respond to voltage and Ci-VSD dimerization has been used to design

intermolecular Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) GEVIs (32). The Ci-VSD has also been

attached to other proteins like the "phosphatase and tensin homolog deleted on chromosome 10"

(PTEN) (33). While VSP is a PTEN homologue, PTEN is not voltage dependent so the ability to

confer voltage dependence onto PTEN indicates the ability to transfer voltage regulation to create

new tools for manipulating intracellular reactions. Along the same lines, groups are engineering

other VSPs like Dr-VSP to generate a tool for precisely manipulating PIP concentrations in the cell

(11, 34). Understanding how S1 modulates the VSDs will improve the rational design of future VSD-

based biosensor tools.

Our current study set out to investigate the contribution of S1 to VSP function. We found that

individual mutations in S1 altered the enzyme activity by altering the amount of catalysis, kinetics,

and voltage dependence. The same mutations also changed the kinetics and voltage dependence

of the S4 motions as measured by voltage clamp fluorometry. When four S1 mutations were

combined, further alterations were observed with the enzymatic activity shifted to higher voltages

while the S4 motions were shifted to lower voltages suggesting a decoupling between the VSD and

enzyme. When introduced into a GEVI that utilizes the Ci-VSD, the voltage sensitivity and kinetics

of the fluorescent signal were also shifted. Thus, S1 plays a strong role in VSP and VSD function.

Methods

Molecular Biology

The Ci-VSP in pSD64TF vector was kindly provided by Y. Okamura (Osaka University, Osaka,

Japan). fPLC and fTAPP were both kindly provided by E.Y. Isacoff (University of California,

Berkeley). The GEVI CC1 was developed by the Baker laboratory (Korea Institute of Science and

Technology) (31). All mutations and N-terminal epitope tags were added using Pfu Turbo

polymerase (Agilent). Primers are listed in Supplemental Table 1. All DNA was confirmed by

sequencing from start to stop codon. cRNA was transcribed using SP6 or T7 mMessage mMachine

(Ambion) kits.

Defolliculating *Xenopus laevis* oocytes

X. laevis ovaries were purchased from Xenopus One (Dexter, MI). Briefly, each ovary was washed

and then morselized in Ca^{2+}-free buffer (96 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, and 10 mM HEPES,

pH 7.6). The morselized ovary was washed in Ca^{2+}-free buffer to remove yolk from lysed oocytes

and then digested at room temperature with gentle shaking for 60-70 minutes in 0.5 mg/ml

collagenase type 2 (Worthington Biochemical Corporation, catalog # LS004177), and 0.83 mg/ml

collagenase type 3 (Worthington Biochemical Corporation, catalog # LS004183) made in Ca^{2+}-free

buffer. Post-digestion, the oocytes were washed in Ca^{2+}-free buffer at least 10 times to remove

follicles. The oocytes were then sorted and cultured in ND-96 (96 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 1.8 mM

$CaCl_2$, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 50 µg/ml gentamicin, 2.5 mM sodium pyruvate, and 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.6) at

18°C.

Voltage Clamp Fluorometry

Voltage clamp fluorometry (VCF) was performed as described previously (9). Briefly, *X. laevis*

oocytes were injected with 50 nl of 0.4-0.8 µg/µl of cRNA and incubated in ND-96 at 18°C for 24-36

hrs. The cRNA dilutions were checked by Nanodrop to ensure the concentrations of total cRNA

were correct. On the day of the experiment, oocytes were labeled with tetramethylrhodamine-6-

maleimide (TMRM, Invitrogen or Abcam) at a final concentration of 25 µM and the cells were left in

the dark on ice for 20 minutes. Labeled oocytes were then extensively washed and stored in ND-

96(-) (ND-96 without gentamicin or pyruvate) at 18-19°C until the end of the experiment. A Leica

DM IRBE inverted microscope with a Leica HC PI APO 20×/0.7 fluorescence objective was used

with a Dagan CA-1B amplifier (Dagan Corporation) and illuminated with a Lumen Dynamics X-Cite

XLED1 light source. Fluorescence was measured with a ThorLabs photomultiplier tube (PMT). The

amplifier and LED were controlled by a Digidata-1440A board and pClamp10.3 software package

(Axon Instruments). Light was filtered through an HQ531/40 excitation filter, an HQ593/40 emission

filter and a Q562LP dichroic (Semrock). Fluorescence signals were low-pass filtered at 500 Hz

through an eight-pole Bessel filter (Frequency Devices). Glass capillary tubes (VWR) were pulled

by a gravity puller (Hamamatsu) for pipette resistances of 0.2-1 MΩ. The VCF voltage protocol

consisted of 10 mV steps starting at -150 mV and ending at 200 mV with a holding potential of -80

mV. The measured fluorescence was then plotted against the applied voltage to generate the

fluorescence/voltage relationship. All microscopes and optics for electrophysiology and

fluorescence measurements were placed on a vibration isolation platform (Newport and TMC) to

avoid any vibrational noise and homemade Faraday cages were used to avoid electrical noise.

Two electrode voltage clamp electrophysiology & optical measurement of enzymatic activity

Two electrode voltage clamp (TEVC) was performed as previously described (9). FRET-based PIP

sensors (35, 36) were used to measure depletion of PI(4,5)P$_2$ or the production and depletion of

PI(3,4)P$_2$. Specifically, we used the PH domain from phospholipase C (PLC) for PI(4,5)P$_2$ and the

PH domain from the tandem PH domain containing protein 1 (TAPP) for PI(3,4)P$_2$. The FRET

sensors were designed with an N-terminal CFP and a C-terminal YFP and were called fPLC and

fTAPP respectively. To measure production of PI(4,5)P$_2$, the diffusion-based sensor GFP-PLC-PH

domain (gPLC) was used which has a GFP attached to the N-terminus of the PLC-PH domain. *X.*

laevis oocytes were injected with cRNA mixtures of VSP and biosensor (0.4/0.4 µg/µl for VSP/fPLC;

0.2/0.1 µg/µl for VSP/gPLC; and 0.2/0.4 µg/µl for VSP/fTAPP). The cRNA mixtures were checked

by Nanodrop to ensure the concentrations of total cRNA were correct. All VSP constructs for the

enzyme activity assays have a TMRM labeling site (G214C) and were tested with VCF to confirm

expression. They also have a His-tag to compare with co-immunoprecipitation data. The

catalytically inactive Ci-VSP C363S (CS) mutation abolishes catalytic activity and serves as a

control for the endogenous *X. laevis* VSP present in oocytes. Each cell was injected with 50 nl

cRNA mixtures and then incubated in ND-96 for 24-48 hours at 18-21°C .

On the day of the experiments, cells were labeled with TMRM as listed under VCF. Post-labeling,

oocytes were stored in ND-96(-) containing 8 µM insulin to promote PI3 kinase activity and up

regulate PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ levels. To control for variations in Ci-VSP expression, we tested each cell for

VSD motions via VCF as described above. If no VCF was observed, the cell did not move forward

for activity testing. For the FRET experiments, light was filtered through a HQ436/20 excitation filter

and directed to the objective with a 455LP dichroic (Chroma). The microscope cube did not contain

an emission filter, because the ThorLabs PMT module contains its own cube with a 510-nm

dichroic, an HQ480/40 emission filter for CFP, and an HQ535/30 emission filter for YFP (Chroma).

For the gPLC experiments, light was filtered through a HQ470/40 excitation filter, an HQ525/50

emission filter and a Q496LP dichroic (Chroma). The voltage protocol consisted of steps from -100

mV to +180 mV in irregular increments. Rest periods of 1-5 minutes between voltage steps were

used to allow the cell to recover depleted PIP concentrations before the next voltage step. The

length of the voltage pulse was varied for each biosensor, 2-10 s for fTAPP, 2-20 s for fPLC, and

1.5-3 s for gPLC. The resulting fluorescence was then plotted vs. voltage to generate the FV

relationship.

Sensing Currents

Defolliculated *Xenopus laevis* oocytes were injected with 50 nl of 0.8 µg/µl (checked by Nanodrop)

cRNA of each Ci-VSP S1 mutation, with the TMRM labeling site mutation (G214C) and a His-tag.

These cells were then incubated in ND-96 at 18°C for 24-36 hrs. Oocytes were labeled with 25 µM

TMRM as described in the VCF methods. After labeling, oocytes were held & tested in ND-96(-) + 8

µM insulin as in the enzymatic activity measurements. The VCF setup used was as described in the

VCF methods and all recordings were done at room temperature (22-24°C). The sensing currents

were elicited by a 300 ms depolarizing pulse to +150 mV from a holding of -80 mV. The off-sensing

current was integrated from the end of the pulse for 150 ms after the pulse. This maximum charge

was plotted for each mutation and WT. Leak subtraction was performed by a P/-8 protocol. The

simultaneously collected fluorescence was calculated as $\Delta F/F = ((F_x - F_0)/F_0)$. The absolute value

of both the charge and fluorescence data was plotted. Each construct was tested in at least 10

oocytes from at least 3 biological variable batches of frogs.

Antibodies and Antibody beads

6x-His epitope tag antibody (His.H8) was purchased from Invitrogen. Monoclonal Flag M2 antibody

(F1804-50UG), anti-Flag M2 affinity gel (A2220-1ML) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Goat

anti-mouse light chain only HRP was purchased from Jackson Labs (115-035-174).

Co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP)

Oocytes were injected with 50 nl of 0.4-0.8µg/µL of total cRNA for each construct. Individual

constructs were at 0.4 µg/µL and mixtures at 0.4/0.4 µg/µL. The cRNA dilutions and mixtures were

checked by Nanodrop to ensure the concentrations of total cRNA were correct. Oocytes were

incubated for 24-36 hours in ND-96 at 18-21°C. Protein expression was confirmed using voltage

clamp fluorometry. Post-expression check, 1-2 oocytes of those injected with a single RNA and 2-3

oocytes of those injected with two RNAs were lysed in 200 µl of lysis buffer (150 mM NaCl, 0.1%

IGEPAL, 50 mM Tris-base, pH 7.4 with protease inhibitors). The lysates were centrifuged at

21,100g for 15 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant (160 µl) was split into two parts (one aliquot of 130 µl

and one aliquot of 30 µl). The anti-FLAG beads in lysis buffer (100 µl, 1:20 ratio) were added to the

130 µl sample aliquot. These mixtures were left on a rotator overnight at 4°C. The 30 µl aliquot was

stored at -20°C and used as an input control. The samples with the beads were then centrifuged at

1,200g for 5 minutes at 4°C to pellet the beads. The supernatant was discarded, and the beads

were washed with lysis buffer five times. After the last wash, 7 µl of 3X Laemmli sample buffer was

added directly to the beads. To the input control, 7 µl of 5X Laemmli sample buffer was added, and

all samples were incubated for 5 minutes at 98°C. The samples were loaded on a 10% SDS-

polyacrylamide gel (10 µl/lane) and electrophoresed at 200 mV for about 45 minutes until the

bromophenol blue in the sample buffer reached the bottom of the gel.

Western blotting

The samples were transferred from the polyacrylamide gel onto a nitrocellulose membrane at 350

mA for 70 minutes using a sodium borate buffer system. Post-transfer, the membranes were

incubated in blocking buffer (5% milk in 1X TBS-T) for 30 minutes. The membranes were then

incubated with the primary antibody solutions (1:2,000 dilution prepared in blocking buffer) 1 hour at

room temperature. Membranes were washed 6-8 times with 1X TBS-T over a period of about 1 hr.

Secondary antibody solutions prepared in blocking buffer (1:15,000 dilution) were added to the

membranes and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. Washes with 1X-TBS-T were repeated

6-8 times. Membranes were developed using WesternBright ECL reagent (Advansta).

Patch clamp electrophysiology: Voltage imaging with GEVIs

The original CC1 construct with super ecliptic pHluorin (SE) A227D (31) or CC1 variants with

mutations in S1 were expressed in HEK 293 cells via lipofectamine (Invitrogen). Coverslips with

transiently transfected cells were placed into a bath chamber (Warner instruments, USA) kept at

34° C throughout the experiment and perfused with bath solution (150 mM NaCl, 4 mM KCl, 1 mM

$MgCl_2$, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 5 mM D-glucose and 5 mM HEPES, pH = 7.4). Filamented glass capillary

tubes (1.5 mm/0.84 mm; World Precision Instruments, USA) were pulled by a micropipette puller

(Sutter, USA) prior to each experiment with pipette resistances of 3–5 MΩ. The pipettes were filled

with intracellular solution (120 mM K-aspartate, 4 mM NaCl, 4 mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 10 mM

EGTA, 3 mM Na_2ATP and 5 mM HEPES, pH = 7.2). Whole cell voltage clamp was conducted using

a patch clamp amplifier (HEKA, Germany). A holding potential of −70 mV was used for all

recordings.

An inverted microscope (IX71; Olympus, Japan) equipped with a 60X oil-immersion lens with 1.35-

numerical aperture was used for epifluorescence imaging. The light source was a 75 W Xenon arc

lamp (Osram, Germany) placed in a lamp housing (Cairn, UK). GFP was imaged using a filter cube

consisting of an excitation filter (FF02-472/30-25), a dichroic mirror (FF495-Di03) and an emission

filter (FF01-496) for the 470 nm wavelength excitation (Semrock, USA). Fluorescence changes of

the voltage indicators were typically recorded at 1 kHz frame rate by a high-speed CCD camera

(RedShirtImaging, USA). All the relevant optical devices were placed on a vibration isolation

platform (Kinetic Systems, USA) to avoid any vibrational noise during patch clamp fluorometry

experiments.

Data analysis

ChimeraX was used to visualize the structure of the Ci-VSD (21, 37). Axon™ Clampfit™ 10.3

(Molecular Devices) was used to initially process the fluorescence and FRET data. For the VCF, the

fluorescence baseline was zeroed and then the amplitude of each pulse measured. The voltages

for each pulse were measured. The expression VCF data was calculated as $\Delta F/F = ((F_x - F_0)/F_0)$.

Current data was processed in Clampfit™. Statics were performed in Microsoft Excel with the

Student's test calculated as two-tailed and used for equal variance data while the Welsh's t-test was

calculated as two-tailed and used for unequal variance data. The FRET ratio was also calculated in

Clampfit™. Subsequent analysis of the TEVC activity data was automated using an R script in R

Studio. Specifically, for the FRET or fluorescence increase (fTAPP and gPLC, respectively), the

activity $\Delta F/F$ was calculated from the pre-pulse baseline to the max signal increase. For the fPLC

FRET decrease, the activity $\Delta F/F$ was calculated from the pre-pulse baseline to the max FRET

decrease. For the fTAPP FRET decrease, the activity $\Delta F/F$ was calculated from the max FRET

increase to the max FRET decrease. In some instances, oocytes injected with catalytically inactive

Ci-VSP C363S showed significant background activity indicating that the native *X. laevis* VSP was

contributing to the activity signal (36, 38). For those traces, we subtracted an average trace from

oocytes expressing C363S from the traces for oocytes expressing wildtype (WT) and the mutant Ci-

VSP. All final data were plotted in Igor Pro. Final voltage dependent curves were plotted with

change in FRET or fluorescence on the Y-axis and measured voltage on the X-axis. Igor Pro was

used to calculate all fits: single or double Boltzmann sigmoid, single or double exponentials and

residuals. Activity assays were repeated on oocytes extracted on different days from at least three

different frogs (biological replicates) until data from a minimum of 8 oocytes were acquired and

analyzed. Error bars indicate standard error of the mean (SEM). Figures were made in Illustrator

(Adobe).

For the patch fluorometry experiments, images were acquired by NeuroPlex (RedShirtImaging,

USA) and analyzed for initial parameters such as fluorescence change [$\Delta F = F_x - F_0$] or fractional

fluorescence change values ($\Delta F/F = ((F_x - F_0)/F_0) * 100$) by Microsoft Excel. The acquired data

from whole cell voltage clamp experiments of HEK 293 cells were averaged for 16 trials. Data were

collected from recorded cells that did not lose their seals during the whole cell voltage clamp

recording. $\Delta F/F$ values for the tested voltage pulses were plotted using Igor Pro.

Results

To determine the role S1 helix plays in Ci-VSP function, we started with the Ci-VSD crystal

structure that was solved in a dimer conformation (21). Specifically, the biological unit of the

structure showed two adjacent VSDs with the S1 and S4 helices of one subunit facing the S1 and

S4 helices of the other subunit. This conformation is consistent with a subsequent study from our

lab that found that full length Ci-VSP is able to dimerize at high concentrations (22). The same

study showed that both the VSD and the phosphatase domain can dimerize independently,

suggesting the overall organization of the dimer could be a side-by-side orientation with both

domains involved in dimerizing the full length VSP (Fig 1C). We chose to manipulate sites on S1

that lined the interface between the two subunits, F127, I131, I134 and L137, for two reasons (Fig

1D). First, we expect dimers to influence Ci-VSP activity as seen previously (22) so we wanted to

test positions that may be involved in transmitting information across the dimer. Second, we wanted

to minimize directly altering the S4 contact points between S1 and S4 (either intra or intersubunit).

Of the selected sites, both the F127 and I134 positions exhibit a high conservation of hydrophobic

residues across different species homologs of VSPs (Fig 1E). L137 is nearly invariable across

different VSPs, while I131 is more tolerant of hydrophobic substitutions (I, F, and V) and hydrophilic

(T) residues found in the equivalent positions.

First, we tested the impact of the individual mutations on the enzymatic activity. Pleckstrin

homology (PH) domains from the tandem PH domain-containing protein 1 (TAPP) and from

phospholipase C (PLC) selectively bind $PI(3,4)P_2$ and $PI(4,5)P_2$ respectively, making them ideal

sensors for Ci-VSP activity. We used two different biosensor designs with these PH domains, one

where the signal is dependent on a Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) signal and one

where the signal is dependent on the free diffusion of the PH domain (diffusion based). The TAPP

FRET sensor, called fTAPP, has an N-terminal CFP followed by the TAPP-PH domain and then a

C-terminal YFP with a prenylation site for membrane localization (Fig 2A) (35, 39). An increase in

FRET follows the 5-phosphatase reaction of $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ to $PI(3,4)P_2$ while a decrease in FRET

indicates the 3-phosphatase reaction of $PI(3,4)P_2$ to $PI(4)P$ (Fig 2A). To increase the amount of

$PI(3,4,5)P_3$ in the cells, all enzymatic activity is recorded in a solution of insulin to activate the

endogenous insulin receptor and the subsequent phosphatidyl-3-kinase. WT Ci-VSP gives a robust

increase and decrease in FRET when tested with fTAPP consistent with previous publications (Fig

2B) (11, 22, 35). Because *X. laevis* oocytes are known to express endogenous VSPs (Xl-VSP1 & 2)

(7, 9, 36), a negative control is also needed. Previously, we used an inactive Ci-VSP using the

catalytic site mutation, C363S (CS), to mimic our experimental conditions (9, 22, 40). Others use

the fTAPP sensor alone to measure endogenous Xl-VSP (8, 11). Since a side-by-side comparison

had not been done to our knowledge, we tested both CS with fTAPP and fTAPP alone using long,

10 seconds pulses. We found that the CS with fTAPP resulted in statistically higher Xl-VSP activity

compared to fTAPP alone (Supp Fig 1A) countering the idea that the two conditions are equivalent.

Interestingly, our previous research on the Xl-VSPs showed that Xl-VSP1 can catalyze both

$PI(3,4,5)P_3$ and $PI(3,4)P_2$ as substrates while Xl-VSP2 is only active against $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ as a

substrate. These results suggest that Xl-VSP2 may dominate the endogenous VSP signal since we

only see activity against PI(3,4,5)P$_3$. Because of the observed difference when CS was expressed,

we co-expressed the sensors with CS to control for our experimental conditions more accurately.

As seen before, we observe only a small amount of signal coming from endogenous Xl-VSPs when

we use 2s depolarizations since the kinetics of the Xl-VSP2 are very slow (Fig 2B, C) (22, 36).

When testing the S1 mutations, the kinetics for the F127A and I134A mutations were very similar to

those of WT (Fig 2B). The voltage dependence for F127A was similar for the 5-phosphatase

reaction while slightly shifted to lower voltages for the 3-phosphatase activity (Fig 2C, Table 1).

I134A showed a higher voltage requirement for the 5-phosphtase reaction and a slightly lower

voltage requirement for the 3-phosphtase reaction. Interestingly, I131A, which is the most variable

position (Fig 1E), also showed similar kinetics but with a shift to more positive potentials for both

reactions, indicating this position's variability could be part of tuning the voltage dependence

between species. The highly conserved L137 position meanwhile dramatically changed activity

when mutated to an alanine. The 5-phosphatase activity was greatly reduced, and the 3-

phosphatase activity was not visible using a 2s voltage step (Fig 2B, C). However, when the pulse

was extended out to 5s, a small 3-phosphatase activity was seen, indicating that the L137A did not

eliminate the 3-phosphatase activity but significantly slowed down the reaction compared to the 5-

phosphatase reaction (Supp Fig 1B). The longer pulses also resulted in significantly higher

endogenous VSP activity as measured by the inactive CS mutation (Supp Fig 1B), obscuring the

true activity of the L137A. To compensate for the endogenous activity, we subtracted the CS data

from the L137A and WT data, as was done previously (40). The resulting traces showed a robust

though slower decrease in FRET when compared to WT (Fig 2D), indicating both reactions are still

present. Interestingly, both reactions are significantly shifted to higher voltages and are reduced in

magnitude compared to WT (Fig 2E). The 5-phosphatase reaction appears to approach a more

linear relationship with voltage, with its larger slope suggesting a weaker sensitivity to voltage and

potentially weaker coupling between the VSD and the enzyme or between dimers. The 3-

phosphatase reaction retains a clearer sigmoidal relationship with voltage. The strong impact of

mutating L137 is consistent with it being well conserved across species and indicates that leucine in

position 137 plays a significant role in modulating VSP function (Fig 1E).

When all four mutations were combined in S1-Q and tested at 2s pulses, the 3-phosphatase activity

was not visible, similar to the L137A data (Supp Fig 1C). The 5-phosphatase activity was greatly

reduced though still above the CS negative control (Supp Fig 1D). Longer 10s pulses revealed 3-

phosphatase activity (Supp Fig 1E), with the endogenous XI-VSPs giving a large signal that

obscures the impact of S1-Q. As with the L137A alone data, we subtracted the CS background from

the WT and S1-Q longer pulses. The resulting traces show both reactions clearly though with much

slower kinetics (Fig 2F). Interestingly, while the 5s pulses did not dramatically change the WT

response, the 10s pulses shifted the WT voltage dependence to higher voltages for the 5-

phosphatase reaction and the 3-phosphatase reaction remained similar (Fig 2G, Table 1). For the

S1-Q mutation, its 5-phosphatase reaction gives a similar voltage dependence to WT though the

amplitude is significantly reduced. The S1-Q 3-phosphatase reaction is shifted to higher potentials

as well (Table 1). These data show the importance of helices other than S4 to modulate the ability

of the phosphatase to catalyze reactions. It also demonstrates the importance of different pulse

lengths for characterizing VSP function.

The design of the PLC FRET based biosensor, fPLC, is similar to that of fTAPP but the PH domain

from PLC is used instead since PLC-PH is selective for $PI(4,5)P_2$ (Fig 3A). We did not use fPLC to

quantify the production of $PI(4,5)P_2$ from $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ because, in our hands (and others) the signal

is too low for reliable quantification in individual traces (11, 22, 36). However, fPLC is still a good

and fast biosensor for quantitating the 5-phosphatase reaction, from $PI(4,5)P_2$ to $PI(4)P$, via a

decrease in the FRET signal (Fig 3A). Thus, using fPLC, we observed the expected FRET

decrease with WT and little to no FRET decrease with the CS negative control (Fig 3B). We found

that both I131A and I134A had similar fPLC activity kinetics compared to WT while F127A and

L137A were slower. L137A also had lower overall activity and was significantly shifted to more

positive voltages (Fig 3B, C, Table 2). F127A and I134A had similar voltage dependent activities

compared to WT while I131A was again shifted to higher voltages. When S1-Q was tested with

fPLC using a 2s pulse, it appeared that the mutation eliminated all activity (Supp Fig 1F). When a

significantly longer pulse was given (20s), we did observe a small amount of $PI(4,5)P_2$ to $PI(4)P$

activity above the negative control values though it was slower, reduced and right shifted (Fig 3D,

E, Table 2). Overall, the fPLC data is similar to the fTAPP data in that the most dramatics impacts

are from the L137A alone mutation and the S1-Q combination. Both slow down the kinetics with S1-

Q significantly slower than L137A even and both shift the voltage dependence to much higher

potentials.

To monitor the production of $PI(4,5)P_2$ from $PI(3,4,5)P_3$, we used the diffusion based GFP-PLC-PH

biosensor (gPLC), where the increase in fluorescence at the membrane indicates production of

$PI(4,5)P_2$ from $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ (Fig 4A) (9, 41). As seen previously, WT gives a robust gPLC

fluorescence increase and CS shows no endogenous Xl-VSP signal using either a 1.5s or a 3s

depolarization (Fig 4B). However, we see a different overall pattern for the mutations compared to

the previous biosensors. With the S1 mutations, we found that F127A, I131A and L137A are slower

than WT with L137A requiring a longer 3s pulse to see the full signal (Fig 4B). Interestingly, L137A

has not lost as much overall activity or voltage dependence as is seen with the other reactions (Fig

4C). Both F127A and I131A shifted the voltage dependence of activity to higher voltages, requiring

more energy to activate while L137A slightly shifted the voltage dependence to lower voltages (Fig

4C, Table 2). I134A has similar kinetics and voltage activation compared to WT, however it appears

more active than WT with a larger amplitude fluorescence change. When all four mutations were

combined in S1-Q, we observed dephosphorylation at the 3-phosphate from $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ again with

slower kinetics (Fig 4D). The voltage dependence of S1-Q appears significantly shifted to higher

voltages and shows a significantly smaller amount of catalysis (Fig 4E). These results indicate that

the identity of the substrate is important for voltage dependent catalysis. In addition, the $PI(3,4,5)P_3$

to $PI(4,5)P_2$ reaction was quite different for the individual S1 mutation compared to the other

biosensors while the S1-Q catalysis was more like the other S1-Q reactions.

Before each activity assay, every cell was tested for a VCF signal to ensure that the VSP was

expressed on the membrane. If no VCF signal was observed, the cell was discarded and another

one was tested. All this expression data was compiled and no significant difference was observed

for the VCF signal from each mutation when compared to WT (Supp Fig 2A). VCF is well

established to monitor both the sensing current and subsequent protein confirmational changes

leading to the relaxed state of the VSD (4). VCF does have limitations, however. Very small

amounts of protein will not give a fluorescence signal and Western blots are needed to establish

protein expression (22). In addition, the amount of protein on the membrane is not easily

quantitated from the fluorescence change. When Ci-VSP is expressed at very low concentrations,

the activities are known to become shifted to lower voltages (22). To ensure our changes in voltage

dependent activity were due to intrinsic properties of the mutation and not as a result of significantly

lower protein expression, we also tested the sensing charge movement and VCF signal from the

same cells for each mutant (Supp Fig 2B,C). We found that three mutations showed less sensing

charge than WT, F127A, I134A and S1-Q, suggesting that these proteins were not as abundant on

the membrane compared to WT. However, the VCF signals from all the same cells were similar to

WT except for CS and S1-Q which gave larger fluorescence values than WT. Thus, the lower

expression does not account for the observed shifts in activity.

Using voltage clamp fluorometry (VCF), we then tested how each individual mutation impacted VSD

motions. We used the common labeling site, G214C, in the S3-S4 loop since it has been shown to

be a good reporter of both sensing charge movement and VSD motions (3, 4). The activation

kinetics for WT and all the mutations were well fit by a double exponential as previously reported

(Fig 5A, Supp Table 2) (3, 4). We found that the first rate, τ_{a1} which is correlated with the sensing

charges, are similar between WT and all the single mutations (Supp Table 2). However, the second

rate, τ_{a2} which is correlated with the VSD relaxed state, was slightly faster in both F127A and L137A

compared to WT (Supp Table 2). We further analyzed the F127A and L137A kinetics across all the

tested voltages and found a slightly faster τ_{a1} across multiple voltages (Supp Fig 3A). However, the

overall voltage dependence of either rate (τ_{a1} or τ_{a2}) was not significantly different. The

repolarization kinetics for F127A, I131A and I134A were similar to WT and were well described by

single exponential fits, suggesting that overall, they don't significantly influence the kinetics of S4

motions. However, the repolarization kinetics for L137A were slower and better fit by a double

exponential, where the first rate, τ_{r1}, is similar to WT and the second rate, τ_{r2}, was significantly

slower (Fig 5A, Supp Table 2, Supp Fig 3B). Interestingly, τ_{r1} consistently slowed from 0 to 70 mV

for both WT and L137A. Above 70 mV, τ_{r1} stayed the same indicating no further voltage

dependence. The second repolarization rate, τ_{r2}, for L137A was also not dependent on voltage and

could represent an added step for the VSD to exit the relaxed state. In addition to the kinetic

differences, each individual S1 mutation lowered the voltage dependence of the steady state

motions, and they were all best fit by a double Boltzmann sigmoid (Fig 5B, Table 3). To confirm the

double Boltzmann sigmoid was required, we calculated the residuals for each trace and found that

the double sigmoid consistently fit the data better than the single sigmoid (Supp Fig 3C). These

results suggest that S1 directly impacts the kinetic and voltage dependent motions of S4. Both

F127A and L137A shifted the voltage dependence of $V1_{1/2}$ to lower voltages, by 81 and 72 mV

respectively. Interestingly, F127A $V2_{1/2}$ corresponds well with the WT single $V_{1/2}$ while L137A $V2_{1/2}$

shifted to higher voltages by 28 mV. Both I131A and I134A shifted $V1_{1/2}$ to lower voltages by

smaller amounts while their $V2_{1/2}$ are also shifted to higher voltages (Table 3).

When all four mutations were combined in S1-Q, both activation rates, τ_{a1} and τ_{a2}, were slightly

faster than WT at 200 mV (Supp Table 2) though that trend was not consistent across multiple

voltages (Supp Fig 3A). For repolarization, the S1-Q τ_{r1} appeared slower than WT though the

difference was not significant for all voltages (Fig 5C, Supp Fig 3B). Interestingly, the S1-Q τ_{r1}

appeared less dependent on voltage particularly in the lower voltages (0-70mV) (Supp Fig 3B). The

S1-Q τ_{r2} was not voltage dependent and overall is similar to the L137A τ_{r1}. The S1-Q voltage

dependence was also a strongly shifted, double Boltzmann sigmoid with V1$_{1/2}$ shifted by 88 mV to

lower voltages and V2$_{1/2}$ shifted by 37 mV to higher voltages (Fig 5D, Table 3).

Since the amino acids tested were at the interface of the VSD dimer, we needed to know whether

the mutations altered dimerization to be able to interpret their impact on VSP. Using His and FLAG

tags to differentiate between the two subunits of the dimers (Fig 6A), we pulled down with anti-

FLAG beads. They all showed pulldown (Fig 6B), indicating that none of the individual mutations

altered Ci-VSP dimerization. We only tested the pulldown of the His subunit with the anti-FLAG

beads because we discovered that Ci-VSP occasionally binds nonspecifically to cobalt and nickel

beads. S1-Q also showed pull down (n=4). We did observe one blot that did not show any pulldown

(n=1) even though the input protein concentrations were similar (Fig 6C). This variability could

suggest that the mutations may slightly weaken the interactions between the Ci-VSP subunits, but

they do not eliminate them. Thus, these mutations can serve to explore the contribution of S1 to Ci-

VSP dimer function without breaking the dimer.

Given the variable effects of the S1 mutations on catalysis, we examined the effect of the S1

mutations in the absence of the phosphatase domain. CC1 is a GEVI that has replaced the

phosphatase domain with a modified fluorescent protein (FP) to yield a voltage dependent optical

signal (Fig 7A) (31). This sensor changes fluorescence in a voltage dependent manner giving a

readout of the VSD activation from the cytosolic side. Interestingly, the activation kinetics observed

for each mutation in CC1 are significantly different from WT CC1 (Fig 7B), unlike the VCF data (Fig

5A). While CC1 I131A is slow like CC1 WT, CC1 F127A, I134A and L137A activate faster than CC1

WT and reach a steady state during the 200 ms pulse (Fig 7B). So, while the motions measured

from the top of the S4 helix are similar (Fig 5), the propagated motions through S4 and the linker

are different. Similarly, the repolarization kinetics are faster than CC1 WT for CC1 F127A, I134A

and L137A while they are slower than CC1 WT for CC1 I131A. Comparing the steady state

fluorescence versus voltage relationships for these mutations in CC1, we see that both the CC1

L137A and CC1 I131A data appear to be shifted to more negative potentials while the other two

mutations, CC1 F127A and CC1 I134A, appear shifted to higher voltages (Fig 7C). Since none of

the GEVI variants plateaued in response to stronger depolarization steps, the absolute voltage

shifts cannot be quantified. However, the relative shifts suggest that both CC1 I131A and CC1

L137A lower the energy needed to move S4, consistent with the VCF data, while CC1 F127A and

CC1 I134A require more energy to induce the same change in fluorescence. When we tested CC1

S1-Q, we observed faster kinetics compared to CC1 WT and the voltage dependence was shifted

to lower voltages. These CC1 results indicate that S1 plays a fundamental role in the function of

VSDs independent of the phosphatase domain.

Discussion

We investigated how the S1 helix in VSP impacts Ci-VSP function, from its enzymatic activity to the

movements of the VSD, by mutating different amino acids along the S1 helix to alanine. We chose

positions that are consistently hydrophobic across several species of VSP (F127, I134 and L137) as

well as a position that is not as well conserved (I131). We found that these residues influenced the

kinetics and voltage dependence of enzymatic activity even though they do not reside within the

phosphatase domain. The same positions also tuned the kinetics and voltage dependence of VSD

motions measured in two different ways, VCF and GEVIs. These findings clearly show that the VSP

S1 helix is an important consideration for both VSD and enzyme function with multiple possible

mechanistic explanations (Fig 8).

An important point to note is that because VSP is not a channel, we use indirect biosensors to

observe enzymatic activity. Whether the biosensor is a fluorescently dependent sensor as with the

PH domains or the biosensor is a PIP dependent channel, all the measurements are an indirect

observation of PIP concentrations. Each type of biosensor has its advantages and disadvantages.

Specifically, GFP-PH domains have the disadvantage that they are slow while having the

advantage of being able to test all the known reactions catalyzed by VSP. The FRET based PH

domain sensors are faster since the post-translational modification places the sensors on the

membrane. However, as noted by us and others, fPLC does not give a reliable signal for the

$PI(3,4,5)P_3$ reaction to $PI(4,5)P_2$ (11, 22, 36). Thus, we used the slower gPLC sensor to monitor that

reaction. The question arises why does one biosensor report on the reaction and another does not.

We do not expect the absolute binding affinities to be different between the fPLC and gPLC

biosensors given that they both use the same PH domain. At the same time, proximity to the

membrane will influence the on and off kinetics of binding and alter the apparent affinities. Taking

this difference into account, we hypothesize that fPLC is at or close to saturated binding to $PI(4,5)P_2$

at typical plasma membrane concentrations. Thus, fPLC is starting already bound to $PI(4,5)P_2$ and

lacks the dynamic range to report on the VSP $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ reaction to $PI(4,5)P_2$. Similarly, when we

and other groups have used channels such as Kir2.1, GIRK and KCNQ2/3, the rise in $PI(4,5)P_2$ is

not observed via a change in the channel current (42–44). This lack of a response from the

channels could indicate that the channels are already saturated with $PI(4,5)P_2$ and don't respond to

the higher concentrations caused by VSP activation. Several other factors could contribute to the

discrepancy with channels. Foremost on that list is the starting condition of the cells. It is well known

that $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ is at low concentrations in resting cells given its prominent role in regulating cell

growth making any reactions with PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ as a substrate difficult to observe. To make the

PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ reactions more observable, we take advantage of the endogenous insulin receptor. We

add insulin to our recording solution causing the receptor to activate PI3 kinase, increasing the

PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ concentrations. This increases the signal for both the PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ to PI(4,5)P$_2$ reaction

and the PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ to PI(3,4)P$_2$ reaction. Other important factors to consider are the characteristics

of the biosensors. PH domains have a one-to-one stoichiometry for binding to PIPs so cooperativity

will not be a factor. For most channels, they bind more than one PIP and, in several cases, the

cooperative nature of those interactions will limit the response of the channel until sufficient

PI(4,5)P$_2$ has accumulated. These differences make a cross comparison between fluorescent

biosensors and channels quite difficult. As a result, we focus on comparing the activities of

mutations using the same biosensors and comparing them to both positive and negative controls.

With those caveats in mind, we turn to the enzymatic activity where we found that the S1 impacts

the enzyme response to voltage. It is important to note that modeling data suggested that the

observed voltage dependence of activity using these biosensors is influenced by endogenous non-

voltage dependent kinases and phosphatases (45, 46) which will impact the apparent VSP voltage

dependence of activity. However, we are comparing the mutations to our WT protein, so the

endogenous proteins are present in all the data and are assumed to contribute the same amount in

each. Three of the four individual mutations tested showed conservative changes to enzymatic

activity, but all showed some impact depending on the reaction being observed. We separated out

these differences based on three parameters: the magnitude, the kinetics, and the voltage

dependence of the activity. In terms of magnitude, the only major difference was with I134A. More

dephosphorylation of PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ was observed and less dephosphorylation of PI(4,5)P$_2$ indicating

that the I134A mutation would leave more PI(4,5)P$_2$ on the membrane compared to WT VSP. Both

I131A and I134A showed similar activity magnitudes. For the kinetics, F127A slowed down the

PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ to PI(4,5)P$_2$ reaction and both F127A and I131 slowed the PI(4,5)P$_2$ to PI(4)P$_2$

reactions. The other kinetics were similar to WT. There was more variability in the voltage

dependence of these reactions. I131A shifted the $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ to $PI(3,4)P_2$ and $PI(3,4)P_2$ to $PI(4)P$

reactions to higher voltages while the other two mutations were similar to WT. For the $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ to

$PI(4,5)P_2$ and $PI(4,5)P_2$ to $PI(4)P_2$ reactions, both F127A and I131A were shifted to higher voltages

while I134A was similar to WT. While the S4 helix with its charge carrying arginines is well known to

impact VSP enzymatic activity (2, 10, 25, 47, 48), the role of S1 in VSP is less well understood.

These subtle alterations in enzymatic activity from the individual mutations in S1 indicate that

hydrophobic residues in S1 transmit information, finely tuning the phosphatase domain activity.

The most dramatic change with the single mutations was with position L137 which is conserved

across many different species (Fig 1E). By altering the leucine to an alanine, the magnitude of

activity was consistently reduced, and the voltage dependence was shifted to higher voltages with

some appearing more linear (Fig 3, 4, 5). The kinetics of activation were also much slower than WT

regardless of the biosensor used. These results suggest that the L137 position is a key modulator

for VSP and is consistent with its location where L137 is found at the top of each S1 helix and

serves as a focal point between the two subunits (Fig 8). When all four mutations are combined in

S1-Q, the kinetics of all the reactions were also reduced in magnitude, slower and shifted to higher

energy. While the S1-Q results appear to be dominated by the L137A mutation, there are

differences particularly with the $PI(3,4,5)P_3$ to $PI(4,5)P_2$ reaction. Specifically, the magnitude of the

S1-Q activity is more severely reduced, and the voltage dependence is also more shifted and more

linear compared to the L137A alone (Fig 4). Thus, the combination of all four mutations in S1 work

together to modulate the enzymatic activity of the phosphatase domain. Whether these allosteric

impacts are a result of inter-subunit interactions or from intramolecular interactions within a single

subunit remains to be determined.

For the direct measurement of VSD motion via VCF, we found the activation kinetics of the alanine

mutations followed the expected double exponential rates and were mostly similar to WT with minor

differences depending on the voltage tested (Supp Table 2, Fig 5A, C, Supp Fig 3A) (3, 4). Thus,

the alanine mutations did not drastically alter the activation motions of S4. While the activation

kinetics are well established to represent the sensing currents (τ_{a1}) and the entry into the VSD

relaxed state (τ_{a2}), the repolarization kinetics were always found to go through a single smooth

transition from activated to rest (τ_{r1}). F127A, I131A and I134A showed that single transition with

similar rates to WT (Supp Table 2). Interestingly, both the L137A alone and the combination S1-Q

introduced a second repolarization transition, τ_{r2}, in addition to the τ_{r1} transition. Addressing the τ_{r1}

transitions first, the L137A τ_{r1} transitions were not significantly different from WT across multiple

voltages (Supp Fig 3B). We did observe a difference between the τ_{r1} transition between WT and

S1-Q at lower voltages but the significance of those differences was not consistent (Supp Fig 3B).

The τ_{r2} transitions were similar between L137A alone and S1-Q in that they were not voltage

dependent and were significantly slower than the τ_{r1} transition. Given these two characteristics, the

τ_{r2} transition could represent a separation between the sensing charge movement and the transition

from relaxed to rest. A voltage independent return from relaxed to rest would be consistent with

previous findings that showed that the transition between the active to the relaxed state was voltage

independent (4). Another possible interpretation could be that since the τ_{r1} values are similar

between WT and all the single mutations including L137A, the τ_{r2} transition is due to an additional

transition to the sensing charge and relaxed-to-rest transitions, not a separation of the two. Such an

additional transition could be due to intersubunit conformational changes between the dimers. Thus,

the reason behind the two kinetic repolarization components remains unclear. Further experiments

would be needed to explore the additional transition. Next, we plotted the changes in fluorescence

against the voltage and found the movement of the mutated positions was separated into two

energy transitions, one at low voltage ($V1_{1/2}$) and one at high voltage ($V2_{1/2}$). All the mutations were

shifted to lower $V1_{1/2}$ values indicating less energy was needed for the initial movement of S4 (Fig

5B, D, Table 3). $V2_{1/2}$ was either similar to WT (F127A) or higher than WT (I131A, I134A, L137A,

S1-Q) indicating more energy was needed for the second movement of S4. The $V1_{1/2}$ could

correspond to one enzymatic reaction and the $V2_{1/2}$ could correspond to another reaction, but the

enzymatic activity doesn't support this interpretation. Instead, this separation into low and high

energy movements could come from the dimer interactions where each S1 can modulate the S4

from the same subunit and the S4 from the opposing subunit (Fig 8). If this is the case, the results

could indicate that one subunit becomes easier to move and the other subunit becomes harder to

move as a result of the S1 mutations. Another possible explanation would be that the alanines

impacted the hydrophobic "plug" formed between the S1-S3 helices, separating the energetics of

S4 into two motions (23). A third explanation could be the loss of an anchor point. Specifically,

alanine mutations could allow S1 to move more freely and no longer serve as a counterpoint to the

other helices. Further experiments are needed to separate these possible explanations for the two

VSD motions and the lower energy requirements. The movement of S4 was clearly altered based

on mutations in S1 indicating the influence S1 has over voltage sensing in VSP.

Interestingly, the GEVI measurement of VSD motion results were quite different than the VCF

results. Both CC1 F127A and CC1 I134A required higher voltage, more energy, to move the VSD

while CC1 I131A, L137A and S1-Q required less voltage for movement (Fig 7C, E). The observed

kinetics are also dramatically different. CC1 I131A was similar to CC1 WT while all the other

mutations were significantly faster for activation and repolarization (Fig 7B, D). This variation from

the VCF data could stem from the location of the fluorescence reporter. For VCF, the TMRM is

located extracellularly between S3 and S4, reporting the extracellular motions of S4, while for the

GEVI, the FP is located intracellularly and so will report on the intracellular motions of S4 through

the linker to the FP. The variation could also stem from the fluorophores themselves. TMRM is a

small chemical which is very sensitive to its local microenvironment so as the S4 helix moves,

TMRM will move as well, a direct measure of motion. The FP is an indirect measurement given the

voltage change causes a conformational change in S4 which is propagated through the linker to the

FP beta barrel altering the chromophore and then altering fluorescence. Lastly, the variation could

stem from the VSP dimers. While the impact of dimerization is currently unknown for TMRM,

previous reports indicate that the dimerization of GEVIs impacts the output fluorescence (32, 49).

Our results clearly show that the design of GEVIs using VSP VSDs should consider S1 modulation

when tuning the GEVI for particular properties.

Previous work analyzed the relaxed state as a mechanism to explain the fluorescence changes in

the GEVI VSFP2.3 (29). Specifically, VSFP2.3 consists of a tandem pair of FPs fused to the

carboxyl end causing a change in intramolecular FRET when the VSD changes its conformation in

response to voltage. The mechanism for CC1 and other ArcLight-derived GEVIs are known to be

different. Specifically, there is an intermolecular interaction between the FP domains of neighboring

GEVIs. This intermolecular interaction enables the negative charge of the A227D mutation in Super

Ecliptic pHluorin to influence the fluorescence of a neighboring chromophore. This interaction of FP

domains has been shown by replacing SE with a FRET donor FP and co-transfecting it with a

separate GEVI containing a FRET acceptor (49). With both domains (the VSD and the FP)

experiencing conformational changes, it is difficult to optically resolve the potential relaxation of the

VSD from a conformational change relating to the FP domain.

Bringing together the enzymatic and VCF data, we see a complicated picture emerge regarding

VSD control of the phosphatase. In particular, we note that the double sigmoid needed to fit the

VCF data for all the mutations is not observed in the enzymatic activity data. The lower voltage

movements ($V1_{1/2}$) are much lower than the activity voltage dependence indicating a discrepancy

between activation of the VSD and activation of the enzyme. Additionally, the majority of the mutant

666 enzymatic reactions were shifted to higher voltages, indicating more energy was needed to activate

667 the phosphatase with S1 mutated. These opposite impacts could indicate that the ability of the VSD

668 to control the phosphatase was weaker, making it harder for the VSD to conformationally change

669 the phosphatase into its active form, thus requiring higher voltage for catalysis. Decoupling between

670 the VSD and phosphatase has been seen before using mutations in the linker (7, 42, 50, 51) and in

671 S4 (10) but never before from mutations in the S1 helix. The linker decoupling has been long

672 assumed to be an intramolecular process where the VSD no longer communicates with its

673 phosphatase domain. Given the proposed side by side organization of the VSP dimer (Fig 1C), this

674 interpretation of the data may be over simplified. In addition, the location of both S1 and S4 at the

675 interface of the VSD dimer (21) suggests that the observed decoupling with S1 or S4 mutations

676 could be due to either intramolecular interactions as assumed for the linker decoupling or due to

677 intermolecular interactions. Thus, multiple mechanisms are possible for VSP coupling. For example,

678 following a purely intramolecular mechanism, S1 from subunit "A" directly interacts with S4 from

679 subunit "A" with the same happening within subunit "B" (Fig 8, purple arrows). In this scenario, the

680 phosphatase domain from subunit A would couple only to the VSD from subunit A. Another possible

681 mechanism could be that the S1 from subunit A could influence the S4 from subunit B (Fig 8, black

682 arrows). In this case, phosphatase B would receive a signal from VSD B, but the signal would be

683 influenced by VSD A. Similarly, another mechanism could be direct interactions between the S1s

684 mediating the dimer interface (Fig 8, cyan arrows). This would also lead to a scenario where

685 phosphatase B responds to VSD B but is influenced by VSD A. It is important to note that we are

686 focusing here on the VSD. The phosphatase domains are also known to dimerize (22), so direct

687 interactions between the phosphatases may occur in addition to the VSD interactions. Further

688 experiments will be needed to determine whether the VSD control of the phosphatase is purely

689 intramolecular (intrasubunit), purely intermolecular (intersubunit) or a combination of both.

Overall, our results indicate that the VSP S1 plays an active role in enzymatic function. Specifically,

we show that the S1 helix in VSP impacts both the voltage dependence of catalysis as well as the

voltage dependent motions of S4. However, the mechanism behind S1's role is still uncertain. The

Hv S1 is believed to mediate both the dimer interface (17–19) and the cooperativity between the

two subunits (52, 53). The Hv S1 is also involved in channel opening making it a critical aspect of

how Hv functions (20). Further experiments are needed to determine whether these aspects of S1

function are true in VSP as well. A better understanding of how S1 helices contribute to VSD

function is important for understanding the VSD and VSP as a whole.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: A) Cartoon representation of a single VSP subunit with the four transmembrane helices of

the VSD in purple (S1-S4) and the phosphatase domain in peach. B) Reactions catalyzed by VSP.

Four different reactions with three different substrates. C) Cartoon representation of a possible VSP

dimer organization based on previous results showing both the VSD and phosphatase domains

involved in dimerization. D) 4G80 Protein data bank structure of Ci-VSD, biological unit, rendered

using ChimeraX (37). The structure suggests a specific dimer interface. Ribbon representation of

S1-S4 with S1s in orange and S4s in green. Position F127, I131, I134 and L137 shown in space-

filling cartoon. E) Alignment of the VSP S1 helices from several species. Arrows indicate the

positions to be mutated to alanine. Sequences for alignments: l*aevis*VSP2,

gi|325976472|gb|ADZ48071.1; *laevis*VSP1, gi|148230800|ref|NP_001090072.1; *tropicalis*VSP,

gi|62859843|ref|NP_001015951.1; macaqueVSP, gi|75076430|sp|Q4R6N0.1; chickenVSP,

gi|118084924|ref|XP_417079.2; mouseVSP, gi|76827498|gb|AAI07330.1; ratVSP,

gi|157820295|ref|NP_001102347.1; humanVSP2, gi|37788781|gb|AAP45144.1; humanVSP1,

gi|213972591|ref|NP_954863.2; zebrafishVSP, gi|70887553|ref|NP_001020629.1; cionaVSP,

gi|76253898|ref|NP_001028998.1.

Figure 2: S1 helix modulates kinetics and voltage dependence of PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ and PI(3,4)P$_2$

dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon depicting the biosensor fTAPP's expected response to VSP 5-

phosphate dephosphorylation from PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ (increase in FRET) and 3-phosphate

dephosphorylation from PI(3,4)P$_2$ (decrease in FRET). B) Averaged fTAPP data for a voltage step

from -100 mV holding potential to 160 mV for 2s for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A

and L137A). L137A appears to only show 5-phosphatase activity while the others closely resemble

WT kinetics of activity. C) Voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the single S1 mutations. The up-

FRET component was separated from the down FRET component (see Materials and Methods).

While F127A and I134A are very similar to WT, the I131A mutation shifts the voltage dependence

of both reactions to higher voltages and the L137A mutation only displays 5-phosphatase activity

with the short 2s steps. D) Averaged data for a longer voltage step (5s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for

L137A and WT with the CS control subtracted from each (data without subtraction in Supplemental

Fig 1B). A clear FRET decrease is visible for L137A at the longer step, indicating that while the

mutation does not eliminate 3-phosphatase activity, it slows it down relative to WT. E) L137A

voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the 5s voltage step. Both up and down FRET components are

visible though the upward component appears more linear. F) Averaged data for a longer voltage

step (10s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for S1-Q and WT with the CS control subtracted from each

(data without subtraction in Supplemental Fig 1E). A clear FRET decrease is visible for S1-Q at the

longer step, indicating that while the mutation does not eliminate 3-phosphatase activity, it slows it

down relative to WT. G) S1-Q and WT voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the 10s voltage step.

Both up and down FRET components are visible though the upward component appears more

linear. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 3: S1 helix impacts kinetics of PI(4,5)P$_2$ 5-phosphate dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon

depicting the biosensor fPLC's expected response to VSP 5-phosphate dephosphorylation from

PI(4,5)P$_2$ (decrease in FRET). B) Averaged fPLC data for a 2s voltage step from -100 mV to 160

mV for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A and L137A). L137A significantly slowed the 5-

phosphatase activity while the other mutations more closely resemble WT kinetics. C) Voltage

dependent fPLC activity for the single S1 mutations. The I131A mutation shifts the voltage

dependence of activity to higher voltages. The L137A mutation displays reduced and right shifted 5-

phosphatase activity. D) Averaged data for a long voltage step (20s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for

S1-Q and controls. A FRET decrease is visible for S1-Q at the longer step, indicating that while the

mutation does not eliminate 5-phosphatase activity, it significantly slows it down. The CS constructs

indicates minimal endogenous Xl-VSP2 activity even with such a long pulse. E) Voltage dependent

fPLC activity for S1-Q, WT and CS using the longer (20s) pulses. While S1-Q is still active, the

activity is almost linear with voltage dependence. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single

Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 4: S1 helix modulates the kinetics of PI(3,4,5)P_3 3-phosphate dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon

depicting the biosensor gPLC's expected response to VSP 3-phosphate dephosphorylation from

PI(3,4,5)P_3 to PI(4,5)P_2 (increased membrane fluorescence). B) Averaged gPLC data for a voltage

step from -100 mV to 160 mV for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A and L137A). L137A

significantly slowed the 3-phosphatase activity requiring a 3s pulse. C) Voltage dependent gPLC

activity for the single S1 mutations. While I134A is similar to WT voltage dependence, it shows an

enhanced overall activity. Both the F127A and I131A mutations shift the voltage dependence of

activity to higher voltages while L137A displays reduced 3-phosphatase activity and is slightly left

shifted though the slope is significantly reduced. D) Averaged data for a voltage step from -100 mV

to 160 mV for WT and S1-Q. Slower activation was observed for S1-Q so a 3s pulse was used. E)

Voltage dependent gPLC activity for WT and S1-Q. The S1-Q significantly reduced the activity and

shifted the voltage dependence to higher voltages, more than just the sum of the individual

mutations. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 5: S1 helix tunes voltage dependence of S4 motion. A) Representative VCF traces for a

voltage step from -80 mV to 200 mV for all individual S1 mutations. Activation and repolarization

kinetics are similar to WT except for L137A which has a second, slower repolarization motion. B)

Voltage dependence of the VSD motions. Mutations in S1 of VSP shift the voltage dependence of

VSD motions to lower voltages and introduce a second component in the motion. WT fit by single

Boltzmann sigmoid while mutants are fit by double Boltzmann sigmoid. C) Representative VCF

trace for a voltage step from -80 mV to 200 mV for S1-Q and WT. Repolarization kinetics show an

additional slower component for S1-Q. D) The voltage dependent motions of S1-Q significantly

shifted the voltage dependence of activation by almost 90 mV compared to WT. It also introduced a

second component. WT fit by single Boltzmann sigmoid, and S1-Q fit by double Boltzmann sigmoid.

All constructs have an N-terminal His-tag to compare with co-IP data. All errors are ± SEM.

Figure 6. Co-immunoprecipitation pull downs show S1 mutations do not disrupt VSP dimers. A)

Cartoon representation of VSP dimers with the His and FLAG tags on the N-terminus. B)

Immunoprecipitation assay using individual S1 mutations F127A, I131A, I134A, L137A. Inputs were

checked for both FLAG and His to ensure expression. Each blot is representative of at least three

pull down blots and shows the FLAG tagged subunit is able to pull down the His-tagged subunit. C)

Same experiment with all four mutations on a single subunit, called S1-Q for quad mutation on S1.

Top blot shows pull down (representative of four separate experiments) while the bottom blot does

not (one blot) even though protein levels are similar between the two.

Figure 7: A) Cartoon representation of the GEVI CC1 with the VSD from Ci-VSP attached an FP. B)

Averaged series of voltage steps showing kinetics of fluorescence change for CC1 WT and S1

mutants expressed in HEK293 cells. Faster activation and repolarization kinetics observed for

F127A, I134A and L137A. C) Voltage dependent fluorescence change for WT and S1 mutations.

F127A and I134A shift the voltage dependence to higher voltages while I131A and L137A shift to

lower voltages. D) Averaged data for a series of voltage steps for WT and S1-Q. S1-Q shows

consistently faster kinetics. E) Voltage dependent fluorescence change for WT and S1-Q. Strong

leftward shift consistent with leftward shift from VCF data. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with

single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 8. Model for S1 modulation of S4. 4G80 Protein data bank ribbon rendering of Ci-VSD

dimers using ChimeraX (37). L137 depicted in red space filling, F127, I131 and I134 depicted in

blue space filling, S1 in orange and S4 in green. (left) View is facing into the membrane. S1 from

subunit A could be interacting with S4 from subunit B (black arrow) and/or S1 from subunit B (cyan

arrow). (middle) Turned in membrane view. Arrows show the same possible interactions. (right)

Top-down view shows how the S1 from one subunit can interact with the S4 from the same subunit

(purple arrow) as well as the S4 from the adjacent subunit (black arrow). Cyan arrows indicate

possible intermolecular interactions through the S1s at the dimer interface between subunits A and

B. Black arrows indicate possible intermolecular interactions between the S1 from subunit B to S4

from subunit A. Purple arrows indicate possible intramolecular interactions between the S1 and S4

of the same subunit.

Data are openly available in a public repository.

The data underlying Figure 6 are openly available in Figshare at

https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23960841.

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interpreted the data. S.C.K. and B.B. drafted and revised the manuscript. All authors approved the

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Table 1: fTAPP biosensor activity

	n	Pulse time (s)	PI(3,4,5)P$_3$ to PI(3,4)P$_2$		PI(3,4)P$_2$ to PI(4)P	
			V$_{1/2}$ up	up slope	V$_{1/2}$ down	down slope
WT	21	2	32 ± 2	20 ± 2	94 ± 4	17 ± 3
F127A	8	2	30 ± 2	20 ± 2	72 ± 3	15 ± 2
I131A	9	2	65 ± 3	29 ± 3	124 ± 6	19 ± 4
I134A	8	2	41 ± 2	15 ± 2	82 ± 2	13 ± 2
L137A	8	2	21 ± 10	34 ± 7	ns	ns
S1-Q	8	2	222 ± 554	193 ± 193	ns	ns
WT	9	5	41 ± 4	23 ± 4	92 ± 2	20 ± 2
L137A	13	5	>276	71 ± 45	124 ± 9	36 ± 6
WT	10	10	167 ± 17	62 ± 6	111 ± 4	30 ± 3
S1-Q	9	10	159 ± 40	25 ± 15	140 ± 13	36 ± 6

957   ns= no signal detected

968   Table 2: gPLC and fPLC biosensor activity

	gPLC				fPLC			
	$PI(3,4,5)P_3$ to $PI(4,5)P_2$				$PI(4,5)P_2$ to $PI(4)P$			
	n	Pulse time (s)	$V_{1/2}$	slope	n	Pulse time (s)	$V_{1/2}$	slope
WT	20	1.5	90 ± 3	28 ± 2	27	2	92 ± 3	26 ± 3
F127A	8	1.5	137 ± 6	36 ± 3	8	2	104 ± 5	28 ± 4
I131A	9	1.5	104 ± 7	44 ± 5	8	2	125 ± 6	33 ± 4
I134A	9	1.5	89 ± 2	20 ± 1	14	2	81 ± 2	18 ± 2
L137A	8	3	64 ± 7	50 ± 8	9	2	147 ± 14	23 ± 8
S1-Q	9	3	167 ± 20	58 ± 7	11	2	181 ± 91	15 ± 22
WT	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	11	20	70.2 ± 0.7	18.0 ± 0.7
S1-Q	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	9	20	119 ± 13	44 ± 8

971   Table 3: VCF, voltage dependent S4 motions

	n	$V1_{1/2}$	slope 1	$V2_{1/2}$	slope 2
WT	10	ns	ns	70.5 ± 0.5	26.5 ± 0.4
F127A	10	-11 ± 4	24 ± 2	76 ± 3	27 ± 1
I131A	13	20 ± 3	25 ± 1	100 ± 5	20 ± 3
I134A	15	37 ± 5	25 ± 1	89 ± 3	16 ± 2
L137A	10	-2 ± 1	21.2 ± 0.7	99 ± 11	23 ± 8
S1-Q	10	-18 ± 2	31 ± 1	108 ± 14	20 ± 12

972   ns= no signal detected

Figure 1: A) Cartoon representation of a single VSP subunit with the four transmembrane helices of the VSD in purple (S1-S4) and the phosphatase domain in peach. B) Reactions catalyzed by VSP. Four different reactions with three different substrates. C) Cartoon representation of a possible VSP dimer organization based on previous results showing both the VSD and phosphatase domains involved in dimerization. D) 4G80 Protein data bank structure of Ci-VSD, biological unit, rendered using ChimeraX (37). The structure suggests a specific dimer interface. Ribbon representation of S1-S4 with S1s in orange and S4s in green. Position F127, I131, I134 and L137 shown in space-filling cartoon. E) Alignment of the VSP S1 helices from several species. Arrows indicate the positions to be mutated to alanine. Sequences for alignments: laevisVSP2, gi|325976472|gb|ADZ48071.1; laevisVSP1, gi|148230800|ref|NP_001090072.1; tropicalisVSP, gi|62859843|ref|NP_001015951.1; macaqueVSP, gi|75076430|sp|Q4R6N0.1; chickenVSP, gi|118084924|ref|XP_417079.2; mouseVSP, gi|76827498|gb|AAI07330.1; ratVSP, gi|157820295|ref|NP_001102347.1; humanVSP2, gi|37788781|gb|AAP45144.1; humanVSP1, gi|213972591|ref|NP_954863.2; zebrafishVSP, gi|70887553|ref|NP_001020629.1; cionaVSP, gi|76253898|ref|NP_001028998.1.

Figure 2: S1 helix modulates kinetics and voltage dependence of PI(3,4,5)P3 and PI(3,4)P2 dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon depicting the biosensor fTAPP's expected response to VSP 5-phosphate dephosphorylation from PI(3,4,5)P3 (increase in FRET) and 3-phosphate dephosphorylation from PI(3,4)P2 (decrease in FRET). B) Averaged fTAPP data for a voltage step from -100 mV holding potential to 160 mV for 2s for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A and L137A). L137A appears to only show 5-phosphatase activity while the others closely resemble WT kinetics of activity. C) Voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the single S1 mutations. The up-FRET component was separated from the down FRET component (see Materials and Methods). While F127A and I134A are very similar to WT, the I131A mutation shifts the voltage dependence of both reactions to higher voltages and the L137A mutation only displays 5-phosphatase activity with the short 2s steps. D) Averaged data for a longer voltage step (5s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for L137A and WT with the CS control subtracted from each (data without subtraction in Supplemental Fig 1B). A clear FRET decrease is visible for L137A at the longer step, indicating that while the mutation does not eliminate 3-phosphatase activity, it slows it down relative to WT. E) L137A voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the 5s voltage step. Both up and down FRET components are visible though the upward component appears more linear. F) Averaged data for a longer voltage step (10s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for S1-Q and WT with the CS control subtracted from each (data without subtraction in Supplemental Fig 1E). A clear FRET decrease is visible for S1-Q at the longer step, indicating that while the mutation does not eliminate 3-phosphatase activity, it slows it down relative to WT. G) S1-Q and WT voltage dependent fTAPP activity for the 10s voltage step. Both up and down FRET components are visible though the upward component appears more linear. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 3: S1 helix impacts kinetics of PI(4,5)P2 5-phosphate dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon depicting the biosensor fPLC's expected response to VSP 5-phosphate dephosphorylation from PI(4,5)P2 (decrease in FRET). B) Averaged fPLC data for a 2s voltage step from -100 mV to 160 mV for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A and L137A). L137A significantly slowed the 5-phosphatase activity while the other mutations more closely resemble WT kinetics. C) Voltage dependent fPLC activity for the single S1 mutations. The I131A mutation shifts the voltage dependence of activity to higher voltages. The L137A mutation displays reduced and right shifted 5-phosphatase activity. D) Averaged data for a long voltage step (20s) from -100 mV to 160 mV for S1-Q and controls. A FRET decrease is visible for S1-Q at the longer step, indicating that while the mutation does not eliminate 5-phosphatase activity, it significantly slows it down. The CS constructs indicates minimal endogenous Xl-VSP2 activity even with such a long pulse. E) Voltage dependent fPLC activity for S1-Q, WT and CS using the longer (20s) pulses. While S1-Q is still active, the activity is almost linear with voltage dependence. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 4: S1 helix modulates the kinetics of PI(3,4,5)P3 3-phosphate dephosphorylation. A) Cartoon depicting the biosensor gPLC's expected response to VSP 3-phosphate dephosphorylation from PI(3,4,5)P3 to PI(4,5)P2 (increased membrane fluorescence). B) Averaged gPLC data for a voltage step from -100 mV to 160 mV for the single S1 mutations (F127A, I131A, I134A and L137A). L137A significantly slowed the 3-phosphatase activity requiring a 3s pulse. C) Voltage dependent gPLC activity for the single S1 mutations. While I134A is similar to WT voltage dependence, it shows an enhanced overall activity. Both the F127A and I131A mutations shift the voltage dependence of activity to higher voltages while L137A displays reduced 3-phosphatase activity and is slightly left shifted though the slope is significantly reduced. D) Averaged data for a voltage step from -100 mV to 160 mV for WT and S1-Q. Slower activation was observed for S1-Q so a 3s pulse was used. E) Voltage dependent gPLC activity for WT and S1-Q. The S1-Q significantly reduced the activity and shifted the voltage dependence to higher voltages, more than just the sum of the individual mutations. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 5: S1 helix tunes voltage dependence of S4 motion. A) Representative VCF traces for a voltage step from -80 mV to 200 mV for all individual S1 mutations. Activation and repolarization kinetics are similar to WT except for L137A which has a second, slower repolarization motion. B) Voltage dependence of the VSD motions. Mutations in S1 of VSP shift the voltage dependence of VSD motions to lower voltages and introduce a second component in the motion. WT fit by single Boltzmann sigmoid while mutants are fit by double Boltzmann sigmoid. C) Representative VCF trace for a voltage step from -80 mV to 200 mV for S1-Q and WT. Repolarization kinetics show an additional slower component for S1-Q. D) The voltage dependent motions of S1-Q significantly shifted the voltage dependence of activation by almost 90 mV compared to WT. It also introduced a second component. WT fit by single Boltzmann sigmoid, and S1-Q fit by double Boltzmann sigmoid. All constructs have an N-terminal His-tag to compare with co-IP data. All errors are ± SEM.

Figure 6. Co-immunoprecipitation pull downs show S1 mutations do not disrupt VSP dimers. A) Cartoon representation of VSP dimers with the His and FLAG tags on the N-terminus. B) Immunoprecipitation assay using individual S1 mutations F127A, I131A, I134A, L137A. Inputs were checked for both FLAG and His to ensure expression. Each blot is representative of at least three pull down blots and shows the FLAG tagged subunit is able to pull down the His-tagged subunit. C) Same experiment with all four mutations on a single subunit, called S1-Q for quad mutation on S1. Top blot shows pull down (representative of four separate experiments) while the bottom blot does not (one blot) even though protein levels are similar between the two.

Figure 7: A) Cartoon representation of the GEVI CC1 with the VSD from Ci-VSP attached an FP. B) Averaged series of voltage steps showing kinetics of fluorescence change for CC1 WT and S1 mutants expressed in HEK293 cells. Faster activation and repolarization kinetics observed for F127A, I134A and L137A. C) Voltage dependent fluorescence change for WT and S1 mutations. F127A and I134A shift the voltage dependence to higher voltages while I131A and L137A shift to lower voltages. D) Averaged data for a series of voltage steps for WT and S1-Q. S1-Q shows consistently faster kinetics. E) Voltage dependent fluorescence change for WT and S1-Q. Strong leftward shift consistent with leftward shift from VCF data. All error bars are ± SEM. Data fit with single Boltzmann sigmoid equations.

Figure 8. Model for S1 modulation of S4. 4G80 Protein data bank ribbon rendering of Ci-VSD dimers using ChimeraX (37). L137 depicted in red space filling, F127, I131 and I134 depicted in blue space filling, S1 in orange and S4 in green. (left) View is facing into the membrane. S1 from subunit A could be interacting with S4 from subunit B (black arrow) and/or S1 from subunit B (cyan arrow). (middle) Turned in membrane view. Arrows show the same possible interactions. (right) Top-down view shows how the S1 from one subunit can interact with the S4 from the same subunit (purple arrow) as well as the S4 from the adjacent subunit (black arrow). Cyan arrows indicate possible intermolecular interactions through the S1s at the dimer interface between subunits A and B. Black arrows indicate possible intermolecular interactions between the S1 from subunit B to S4 from subunit A. Purple arrows indicate possible intramolecular interactions between the S1 and S4 of the same subunit.