

Antilipolytic Actions of Vanadate and Insulin in Rat Adipocytes Mediated by Distinctly Different Mechanisms*

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ABSTRACT

Vanadate, which mimics the biological effects of insulin, also inhibits lipolysis in rat adipocytes. Here we demonstrate that the antilipolytic effect of vanadate differs from that of insulin at least by the five following criteria: 1) vanadate inhibits lipolysis mediated by high (supraphysiological) concentrations of catecholamines; 2) vanadate antagonizes (Bu)₂cAMP-mediated lipolysis; 3) vanadate antagonizes isobutylmethylxanthine-dependent lipolysis; 4) vanadate inhibits lipolysis mediated by okadaic acid; and 5) wortmannin, which blocks the antilipolytic effect of insulin, fails to block vanadate-mediated antilipolysis. Vanadate does activate phosphoinositol 3-kinase, and wortmannin blocks this activation.

Our working hypothesis assumes that all of the insulin-like effects of vanadate, including antilipolysis, are initiated by the inhibition of protein phosphotyrosine phosphatases (PTPases). Among documented PTPase inhibitors we found that VOSO₄ (oxidation state +4),

several organic vanadyl compounds (+4), zinc (Zn²⁺), tungstate (W), and molybdate (Mo) also had antilipolytic activity. The order of potency was vanadyl acetylacetonate ≥ VOSO₄ ≥ NaVO₃ ≥ vanadyl-dipicolinate > Zn²⁺ » W > Mo, and it correlated better with the inhibition of adipose membranal-PTPases in cell-free experiments. We have concluded that the antilipolytic effect of vanadate is 1) mechanistically distinct from that of insulin, 2) independent of phosphoinositol 3-kinase activation, and 3) independent of the lipolytic cascade. We also strongly suggest that the antilipolytic effect of vanadate emanates from inhibiting adipose membranal, rather than cytosolic PTPases, and present preliminary data showing distinct differences in catalysis between these two PTPase categories. Overall, the study indicates that antilipolysis can be manifested via alternative, insulin-independent, signal-transducing pathways. (*Endocrinology* 138: 2274–2279, 1997)

INSULIN IS perhaps the sole anabolic hormone that also inhibits catabolic processes. In adipose cells, insulin antagonizes lipolysis mediated by physiological concentrations of lipolytic hormones (reviewed in Ref. 1). These hormones (*i.e.* catecholamines, ACTH, and glucagon) share the ability to activate adenylate cyclase and increase intracellular cAMP. cAMP-dependent protein kinase is then activated, followed by phosphorylation and activation of hormone-sensitive triglyceride lipase (HSL) (2, 3). Translocation of HSL from the cytosol to the lipid storage droplet may play a role in lipolysis as well (4).

Little is known about the mechanism(s) by which insulin antagonizes lipolysis. Several sites along the lipolytic cascade are potentially sensitive to insulin: adenylate cyclase may be inhibited (5–7), low K_m cAMP phosphodiesterase (8–11) may be activated, protein phosphoserine phosphatase 2A, which dephosphorylates HSL at site 2 may be stimulated (12, 13).

Many studies either support or disprove an insulin effect at any of the above-mentioned sites. The possibility that the hormone acts in concert at several points along this cascade is certainly feasible. In intact adipocytes, lipolysis induced by high (supraphysiological) concentrations of catecholamines (14), by the presence of the cAMP phosphodiesterase inhibitor, isobutylmethylxanthine (15), by (Bu)₂cAMP (15), or by okadaic acid (16) cannot be antagonized by insulin. Okadaic acid is a powerful inhibitor of protein phosphoserine phosphatase 2A (IC₅₀ = 0.2 nM), which is possibly the principal enzyme that dephosphorylates HSL (17).

Vanadate mimics virtually all the biological effects of insulin, including inhibition of lipolysis mediated by physiological concentrations of isoproterenol (18, 19). As with insulin, the mechanism(s) by which vanadate antagonizes lipolysis is still unknown. Recent studies from our laboratory, however, have elucidated some of the basic mechanisms by which vanadate exerts its insulin-like effects on glucose and fat metabolism in rat adipocytes. We observed that quercetin, which inhibits insulin receptor tyrosine kinase (InsRTK)-catalyzed phosphorylation and insulin-mediated effects in intact cells, failed to inhibit the very same effects when triggered with vanadate (20). The assumption that several vanadate effects require endogenous tyrosine phosphorylation led to the discovery of a Co²⁺-dependent *N*-ethylmaleimide insensitive nonreceptor, cytosolic protein tyrosine kinase (CytPTK) with a molecular mass ~of 53 kDa (21, 22). The enzyme is activated (3- to 5-fold) in vanadate-

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pretreated adipocytes and is strongly inhibited by staurosporine ($IC_{50} = 2 \text{ nM}$) (21, 22). In intact adipocytes, staurosporine blocked two effects of vanadate, lipogenesis and glucose oxidation, but did not influence two other effects, enhancing hexose uptake and inhibiting lipolysis. The ability of vanadate to activate CytPTK was also preserved in a cell-free system and could be mimicked by tungstate, molybdate, and phenylarsine oxide (23), which are documented inhibitors of protein phosphotyrosine phosphatases (PTPases) (24). Thus, CytPTK activation appears to be secondary to PTPase inhibition. Tungstate and molybdate also mimic the actions of insulin in an insulin receptor-independent fashion (25, 26). Our current working hypothesis contends that all of the manifested insulin effects of vanadate are initiated by inhibiting PTPases.

The purpose of this work was to obtain insight into the antilipolytic action of vanadate. Using agents to trigger lipolysis at known locations, our first aim was to map the site(s) affected by vanadate along the lipolytic pathway. If the mechanism of antilipolysis by vanadate proved to be different from that of insulin, then we attempted to determine its pathway, based on the progress made in understanding the activating effects of the metaloxide on glucose metabolism.

Materials and Methods

D-[U- ^{14}C]Glucose and 2-D-[1,2- ^3H]deoxyglucose were purchased from New England Nuclear (Boston, MA), Collagenase type I (134 U/mg) was obtained from Worthington Biochemical Corp. (Freehold, NJ), and okadaic acid and wortmannin were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO). Porcine insulin was purchased from Eli Lilly Co. (Indianapolis, IN), vanadyl acetylacetonate [VO(acac) $_2$] from Aldrich Chemical Co. (Milwaukee, WI), and anti-phosphotyrosine (PTyr)-conjugated to agarose (1G2) were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Krebs-Ringer bicarbonate (KRB) buffer, pH 7.4, contained 110 mM NaCl, 25 mM NaHCO_3 , 5 mM KCl, 1.2 mM KH_2PO_4 , 1.3 mM CaCl_2 , and 1.3 mM MgSO_4 . Vanadyl-dipicolinate, prepared as described previously (27), was donated by Dr. D. C. Crans (Department of Chemistry, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO). All chemicals and reagents used in this study were of analytical grade.

Cell preparation and bioassays

Rat adipocytes. Rat adipocytes were prepared from the fat pads of male Wistar rats (150–200 g) by collagenase digestion (28). Cell preparations showed more than 95% viability by trypan blue exclusion at least 3 h after digestion. Lipogenesis (the incorporation of [U- ^{14}C]glucose into lipids) was performed essentially according to the method of Moody *et al.* (29). Glucose transport was carried out using 2-D-[1,2- ^3H]deoxyglucose (30).

Fractionation of adipose-PTPases. Freshly prepared rat adipocytes were homogenized in the presence of various proteolytic inhibitors after centrifugation at $40,000 \times g$ and fractionation into cytosolic (supernatant) and Triton-soluble plasma membrane PTPases (26).

Lipolysis. Lipolysis was allowed to proceed on fat cell suspensions ($\sim 3 \times 10^5$ cells/ml) in KRB (pH 7.4)-0.7% BSA, at 37 C for 1 h after stimulation with isoproterenol. Aliquots from the medium were then taken. BSA was removed by trichloroacetic acid precipitation, and the glycerol content in the medium was determined by a spectroscopic assay (Triglyceride C-37 rapid/stat test, Pierce Chemical Co., Rockford, IL) (16).

Adipose PTPase activity. Adipose PTPase activity was evaluated using ^{32}P -labeled poly-Glu $_4$ Tyr as the substrate (31). Poly-Glu $_4$ Tyr was phosphorylated with enriched (wheat-germ agglutinin-agarose purified) insulin receptor from rat liver and [γ - ^{32}P]ATP as described in detail previously (32). The assay was performed for 8 min at 37 C in a 60- μl final volume of 25 mM imidazole-HCl buffer, pH 7.2, containing 1 mg/ml

[^{32}P]poly-Glu $_4$ Tyr and about 2 μg from fresh adipocyte extracts (either $40,000 \times g$ supernatant fraction or Triton-solubilized plasma membranes; final concentration of Triton X-100 in assay, 0.1%). The reaction was terminated by spotting aliquots (50 μl) onto Whatman 3 MM filter paper, followed by several washings with 10% trichloroacetic acid containing 10 mM sodium pyrophosphate. The paper strips were dried and analyzed in a β -spectrometer. The amount of ^{32}P hydrolysis from [^{32}P]poly-Glu $_4$ Tyr was then determined.

Phosphoinositol (PI) 3-kinase activity. PI3-kinase activity was measured essentially as described previously (33, 34) with slight modifications. Suspensions of adipocytes (2×10^6 cells) were incubated in the presence and absence of insulin or vanadate for 20 min at 37 C. The cells were separated from the medium and lysed in chilled buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 145 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 5 mM EDTA, 0.2 mM NaVO_3 , 0.1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ leupeptin, and 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ aprotinin. The fat was removed, and the homogenate was supplemented with Triton X-100 (final concentration, 1%), incubated for 1 h at 4 C, and then centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$ for 30 min. The soluble fraction was incubated with anti-PTyr-agarose-conjugate (1G2) overnight at 4 C. This procedure was reported to clear greater than 90% of the anti-PTyr-immunoprecipitable PI3-kinase activity (33).

The immunoprecipitates were washed and assayed for PI3-kinase. The assay contained in a final volume of 0.1 ml, 40 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 0.5 mM EGTA, 0.2 mM phosphatidylinositol, 0.2 mM phosphatidylserine, 5 mM MgCl_2 , and 0.1 mM (1 μCi) [γ - ^{32}P]ATP. The reaction was carried out at 30 C for 30 min and stopped by the addition of 50 μl 8% HClO_4 and 0.45 ml CHCl_3 -methanol (1:2). After vigorous stirring, 0.15 ml CHCl_3 and 0.15 ml 8% HClO_4 were added to the mixture. The organic phase was evaporated to dryness and dissolved in 20 μl CHCl_3 -methanol (95:5) to be spotted on a silica gel plate (Silica Gel 60, Merck, Rahway, NJ). The plate was developed in CHCl_3 - CH_3OH - H_2O -25% NH_4OH (60:47:10:3, vol/vol/vol/vol). The dried plate was visualized for the reaction products with a Fuji BAS2000 Bioimaging analyzer.

Protein concentration. The protein concentration was determined by the method of Bradford (35). All assays were performed in either duplicate or triplicate.

Results

Vanadate inhibits lipolysis mediated by high isoproterenol concentrations

Figure 1 shows inhibition of lipolysis by vanadate and insulin at increasing isoproterenol concentrations. Insulin fully inhibited lipolysis when the concentration of isoproterenol in the medium was 0.001–0.01 μM . At higher isoproterenol concentrations, the capacity of insulin to inhibit lipolysis was reversed. Thus, at 0.1, 1.0, and 10 μM isoproterenol, the extent of inhibition amounted to $56 \pm 4\%$, $12 \pm 2\%$, and $4 \pm 0.3\%$ only (Fig. 1). Higher concentrations of insulin (*i.e.* 30 nM) also could not reverse lipolysis obtained at higher isoproterenol concentrations. In contrast, vanadate (0.3 mM) fully inhibited lipolysis mediated by all concentrations of isoproterenol. Basal lipolysis, obtained in the absence of isoproterenol, was not affected by vanadate (not shown).

Vanadate inhibits lipolysis mediated by nonhormonal activators of lipolysis

Vanadate completely antagonized lipolysis triggered by cholera toxin and forskolin, activators of adenylate cyclase downstream of the catecholamine receptor (36, 37), and by (Bu) $_2$ cAMP, which activates protein kinase A downstream of adenylate cyclase (not shown). Vanadate also inhibited lipolysis induced by okadaic acid (Fig. 1B), which probably acts at the end of the lipolytic cascade by activating HSL (17, 38). As reported previously, lipolysis induced by each of

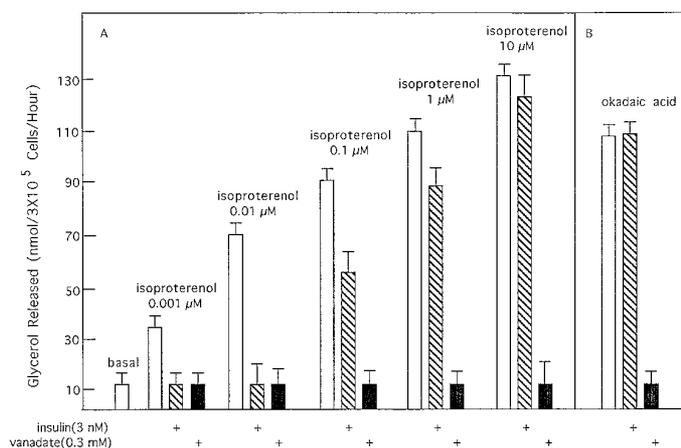


FIG. 1. Inhibition by insulin and vanadate of lipolysis mediated by a wide range of concentrations of isoproterenol and by okadaic acid. Lipolysis was allowed to proceed for 1 h at 37 C using freshly prepared fat cell suspensions (3×10^5 cells/ml) in KRB buffer (pH 7.4)-0.7% BSA in the presence or absence of the indicated concentrations of isoproterenol, insulin (3 nM), or vanadate (0.3 mM). In B, lipolysis was carried out for 3 h using $2 \mu\text{M}$ okadaic acid as the lipolytic agent and in the presence or absence of insulin (3 nM) or vanadate (0.3 mM). Cells were then removed, BSA was precipitated with trichloroacetic acid, and the glycerol content in the medium was determined (see *Materials and Methods*). The results are the mean \pm SEM of four experiments.

these nonhormonal agents is not, with the exception of cholera toxin, antagonized by insulin (14–16).

Role of PI3-kinase

Recent data indicate that insulin activates PI3-kinase (33, 39, 40). Wortmannin, a selective and potent inhibitor of this enzyme, antagonizes all of the metabolic effects of the hormone, including inhibition of lipolysis in rat adipocytes (33). Like insulin, vanadate also stimulates PI3-kinase in rat adipocytes (Fig. 2A). Fifty percent activation is evident at 70–100 μM vanadate (Fig. 2B), which is within the same concentration range as its insulin-like effects on glucose and fat metabolism in this cell type (41). At high vanadium concentrations (1 mM), the extent of PI3-kinase activation exceeded that of insulin. As with insulin, wortmannin blocked the activating effects of vanadate on hexose uptake and lipogenesis (Fig. 3, A and B). Inhibition was evident at very low concentrations of wortmannin, and with similar efficacy ($\text{IC}_{50} = 4\text{--}5 \text{ nM}$; Fig. 3B). However, whereas this fungal metabolite antagonized the antilipolytic effect of insulin as well (33), it did not reverse the antilipolytic effect of vanadate (Fig. 4). Wortmannin could not reverse the antilipolytic effect of vanadate even when the latter was applied at lower doses (*i.e.* 20–50 μM ; not shown).

Antilipolytic potencies of vanadate and other documented PTPase inhibitors

In addition to vanadate (oxidation state +5), vanadyl sulfate (VO_2SO_4 ; oxidation state +4), several organic vanadyl compounds, zinc (Zn^{2+}), tungstate (WO_4^{-3}), and molybdate (MoO_4^{-2}) were also antilipolytic. The median dose (ED_{50}) values are summarized in Table 1 (column A). Vanadyl and vanadyl(acac)₂ were about twice as potent as vanadate in

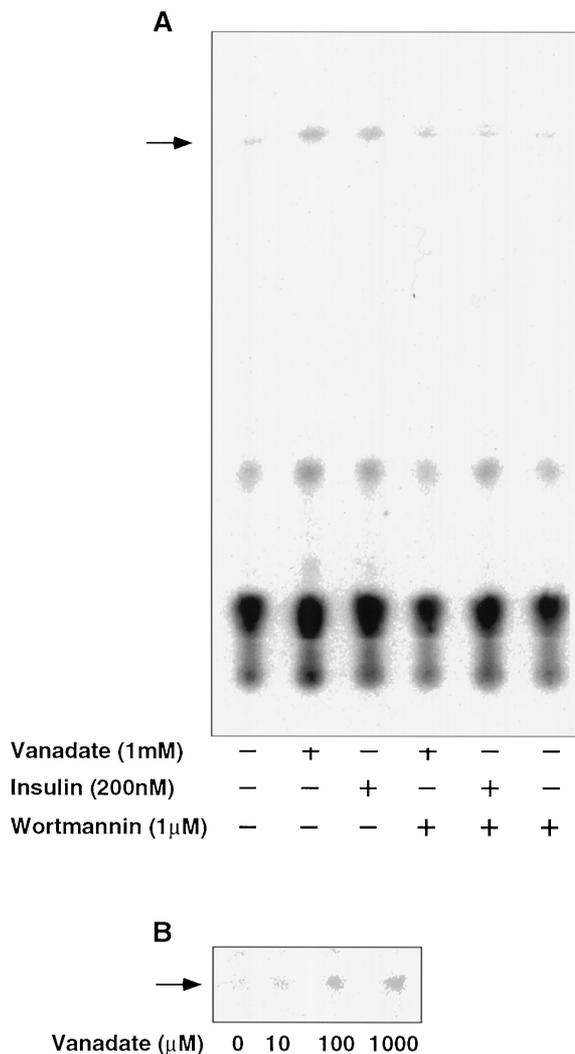


FIG. 2. Activation of adipose PI3-kinase by insulin and vanadate and the inhibitory effect of wortmannin. Rat adipocytes were preincubated for 20 min at 37 C with the indicated concentration of vanadate, insulin, or wortmannin, and PI3-kinase activity was then measured in anti-PTyr immunoprecipitates incubated with $[\gamma\text{-}^{32}\text{P}]\text{ATP}$ and phosphatidylinositol (see *Materials and Methods*). The lipid product of PI3-kinase (PI3-P) was extracted and separated by TLC. A, Concentration-dependent activation of PI3-kinase by vanadate. Adipocytes were incubated for 20 min at 37 C in the absence and presence of the indicated concentrations of vanadate. PI3-kinase activity was then measured as described above.

inhibiting lipolysis ($\text{IC}_{50} = 20 \pm 2, 10 \pm 0.9, \text{ and } 8 \pm 0.7 \mu\text{M}$ for vanadate, VO_2SO_4 , and $\text{VO}(\text{acac})_2$, respectively; Table 1), and vanadyl-dipicolinate was about 5 times less potent than vanadyl. This was followed by zinc ($\text{IC}_{50} = 110 \mu\text{M}$). Tungstate and molybdate were weakly antilipolytic.

Inhibition of adipose PTPases: possible relationships to antilipolysis

The adipose cell contains several members of the PTPase family (Elberg, G., *et al.*, manuscript in preparation). To obtain some clues about the putative PTPases involved in antilipolysis, fresh rat adipocytes were broken and fractionated into cytosolic ($40,000 \times g$ supernatant) and intrinsic plasma

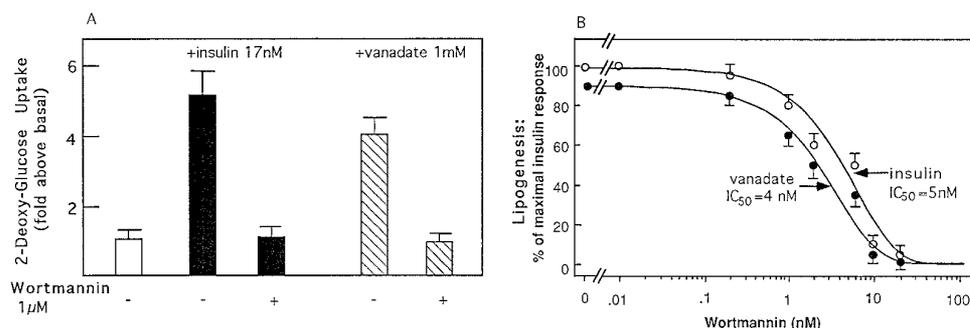


FIG. 3. Effect of wortmannin on inhibiting hexose uptake and lipogenesis activated by either insulin or vanadate. A, Adipocytes (2×10^6 cells/ml suspended in KRBH buffer-3% BSA) were incubated for 5 min at 37 C in the presence and absence of 1 μ M wortmannin and then for 30 min at 37 C with or without vanadate or insulin. Aliquots (70 μ l) were transferred to prewarmed tubes containing 2-D-[1,2- 3 H]deoxyglucose (50,000 cpm/nmol; final concentration, 0.1 mM). Basal and activated uptake velocities were measured for 3 min. Termination was achieved by 0.1 μ M phloretin and was followed by separating the adipocytes for counting over a layer of silicone oil (30). B, Concentration-dependent inhibition of insulin- or vanadate-activated lipogenesis by wortmannin. Adipocytes ($\sim 3 \times 10^5$ cells/ml) were divided into plastic vials (0.5 ml/vial) and incubated for 60 min at 37 C with 0.2 mM [U- 14 C]glucose in either the presence or absence of insulin (17 nM), vanadate (1 mM), and the indicated concentrations of wortmannin. The amount of radioactivity incorporated into fat was then determined (29). Results are expressed as a percentage of the maximal stimulation obtained at 17 nM insulin. In all experiments, insulin-stimulated lipogenesis was 4- to 5-fold higher than basal (basal, $\sim 2,000$ cpm/ 3×10^5 cells·h; insulin-stimulated, 8,000–10,000 cpm/ 3×10^5 cells·h).

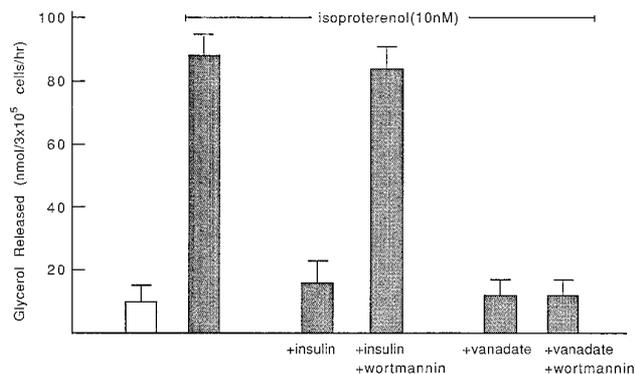


FIG. 4. Lack of inhibitory effect of wortmannin on the antilipolytic action of vanadate. Lipolysis was allowed to proceed for 1 h at 37 C in the absence or presence of isoproterenol (10 nM), insulin (17 nM), or vanadate (0.3 mM). Where indicated, the cells were incubated with 1 μ M wortmannin for 10 min at 37 C before the addition of isoproterenol, vanadate, or insulin. The results are the mean \pm SEM of four experiments.

membrane (Triton-soluble) PTPase fractions. The PTPase-inhibitory activities of the various vanadium compounds, Zn^{2+} , molybdate, and tungstate were examined for each fraction individually. Assuming comparable efficiencies of permeation into cell interiors, antilipolysis correlates better to the cell-free inhibition of membranaral PTPases. The correlation plot between these two parameters gave a straight line (Fig. 5) and was best exemplified by $ZnSO_4$. Zinc sulfate exhibited intermediate potency in inhibiting lipolysis (IC_{50} value = 110 μ M; Table 1) and was about 12 times less potent an inhibitor of membranaral than of cytosolic PTPases (Table 1).

To evaluate further whether functional differences do exist between these two PTPase categories, we treated these fractions with the cysteinyl-specific reagent 2,2'-dithiodipyridine. After preincubation (final concentration, 2 mM; 20 min; 25 C), cytosolic PTPase activity was decreased by 5.5-fold. In contrast, membranaral PTPase activity was not significantly reduced (our manuscript in preparation).

TABLE 1. Inhibition of isoproterenol-mediated lipolysis by various compounds in intact adipocytes and their potencies to inhibit membranaral and cytosolic PTPases in cell-free experiments

Compound	Inhibition of lipolysis Intact cells, IC_{50} (μ M)	Inhibition of adipose-protein PTyr-phosphatases (cell-free system) ^a	
		Membranaral IC_{90} (μ M) ^b	Cytosolic
VO(acac) ₂ (+4)	8 \pm 0.7	0.22 \pm 0.02	0.17 \pm 0.015
VOSO ₄ (+4)	10 \pm 0.9	0.2 \pm 0.02	0.18 \pm 0.015
NaVO ₃ (+5)	20 \pm 2.0	0.22 \pm 0.02	0.19 \pm 0.02
VOdipic (+4)	50 \pm 5	0.21 \pm 0.02	0.20 \pm 0.02
Zn sulfate (Zn^{2+})	110 \pm 8	2.1 \pm 0.15	0.17 \pm 0.015
Tungstate (WO_4^{+3}) (+5)	2000 \pm 150	20 \pm 3	17 \pm 2
Molybdate (MoO_4) (+6)	5000 \pm 400	50 \pm 4	31 \pm 4

^a The substrate for PTPase is [32 P]Poly-Glu₄, Tyr (experimental section).

^b IC_{90} rather than IC_{50} values were used to minimize experimental errors originating from noncomplete inhibition at high concentrations of inhibitor.

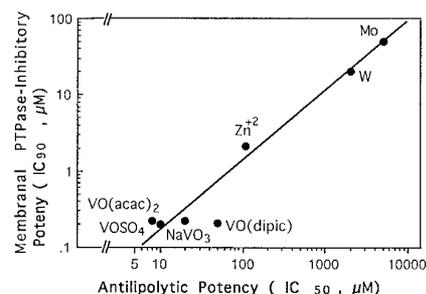


FIG. 5. A correlation plot among the potencies of the various compounds studied here to inhibit lipolysis in intact adipocytes and their efficacies to inhibit membranaral PTPase in cell-free experiments. The values of IC_{50} (inhibition of lipolysis) and IC_{90} (inhibition of PTPases) are also summarized in Table 1.

Discussion

Vanadate mimics many of the bioeffects of insulin *in vivo* and *in vitro*, including antilipolysis, an inhibitory effect that is mechanistically distinct from the stimulating effects of the hormone on glucose and fat metabolism (42–44). After a

systematic study, we suggest that vanadate acts through an insulin-independent biochemical pathway. This finding *per se* is of pathophysiological interest, as it shows that insulin-responsive cells possess the machinery for promoting antilipolysis through an alternative route. Inhibition of lipolysis in adipose tissue relates physiologically and biochemically to the inhibition of glycogenolysis in muscle and liver (45); both effects are manifested by vanadate as well as insulin (46–48). We also suggest that vanadate-induced antilipolysis occurs at a site outside the lipolytic pathway, as lipolysis is inhibited regardless of the mode by which it is triggered. Unlike vanadate, insulin cannot overcome aberrations in the lipolytic cascade that result in high cAMP levels, inhibited isobutylmethylxanthine-sensitive cAMP phosphodiesterase activity, or arrested protein phosphatase 2A activity (14–16).

Attention should be given here to PI3-kinase, which, when activated by insulin, appears to be crucial for virtually all of its metabolic effects, including inhibition of lipolysis (33). In this study we show for the first time that vanadate also activates PI3-kinase. However, whereas wortmannin blocked PI3-kinase activation manifested by insulin and vanadate, it reversed only the antilipolytic effect of insulin and not that of vanadate. The activating effects of vanadate on hexose uptake and glucose metabolism were arrested by wortmannin, which adds weight to the suggestion that the lipid products of PI3-kinase activity participate in the recruitment of glucose transporter-4-containing vesicles to the plasma membranes (49). Overall, the results imply that the antilipolytic effect of vanadate is unrelated to PI3-kinase activity, providing yet more evidence that this physiologically important bioeffect can operate via an entirely insulin-independent mechanistic pathway.

How, then, does vanadate inhibit lipolysis? Data accumulated in our laboratory concerning the metallooxide effects on glucose and fat metabolism suggest that all of the insulin-like effects of vanadate may be initiated by inhibiting cellular protein PTPases (21–23, 25, 26). Inhibition of PTPases, in theory, allows unchecked autophosphorylation and activation of PTKs (50). This can initiate cascades by increasing the phosphorylation of substrates that otherwise are dephosphorylated by noninhibited cellular PTPases. The staurosporine-sensitive CytPTK, which is activated by vanadate, does not appear to participate in antilipolysis (22). However, another vanadate-activated nonreceptor PTK, which is less sensitive to inhibition by staurosporine, also exists in rat adipocytes (our manuscript in preparation).

In this study, we obtained experimental evidence suggesting that inhibition of membranal, rather than cytosolic, PTPases are required for the antilipolytic effect of vanadate. In cell-free experiments, vanadate is nearly equipotent in inhibiting both membranal and cytosolic PTPases, but this does not apply to the intact cell system. This is concluded from the sensitivity of CytPTK (21, 22) and other nonreceptor PTK (our manuscript in preparation) to activation by vanadate, whereas the InsRTK remains insensitive (20–22, 51, 52). Thus, the putative InsRTK-PTPase is resistant to inhibition by vanadate. In fact, a key, as yet unsolved, problem is whether there is a basic difference between cytosolic and membranal PTPases other than the latter being embedded (and, therefore, localized) into the plasma membrane. The

issue begins to be resolved in this study. Both PTPase categories share considerable sequence homology, including the signature motif HCxxGxxR, with the low pKa-cysteine residue required for catalysis (53–56). Also, all PTPases have three acidic groups, two of which must be protonated and one nonprotonated for substrate binding and/or catalysis (53, 56). Although cytosolic and membranal PTPase fractions cannot be considered homogeneous preparations, we found that zinc is a ~12-fold more potent inhibitor of cytosolic PTPases and 2,2-dithiodipyridine inactivates cytosolic, but not membranal, PTPases. This reagent activates CytPTK in the 40,000 × *g* supernatant fraction, but not the membranal PTKs (not shown). Thus, there is clearly a difference between membranal and cytosolic PTPases, and it is at the level of substrate binding or catalysis. It is interesting to note that basic differences between cytosolic and membranal PTKs have been recently documented. Sonyang and associates found that CytPTKs prefer peptide substrates with Ileu or Val at the –1 position to the phosphorylated tyrosine, and Glu, Gly, or Ala at the +1 position. In contrast, the receptor family PTKs select peptides with Glu at the –1 position and large hydrophobic amino acids at the +1 position (57). We have recently found that staurosporine is a specific marker for CytPTK, being ~100-fold more potent an inhibitor of CytPTKs than intrinsic receptor and nonreceptor membranal PTKs (58). It is, therefore, conceivable that such a basic difference exists within the PTPase family, which opposes the intracellular effects of the PTKs.

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