The mTORC1-mediated activation of ATF4 promotes protein and glutathione

synthesis downstream of growth signals

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Abstract

The mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) stimulates a coordinated
anabolic program in response to growth-promoting signals. Paradoxically, recent studies
indicate that mTORC1 can activate the adaptive stress-responsive transcription factor
ATF4 through mechanisms distinct from its canonical induction by the integrated stress
response (ISR). However, how ATF4 functions in response to these distinct modes of
regulation and its broader role as a downstream target of mTORC1 are unknown.
Therefore, we directly compared ATF4-dependent transcriptional changes induced upon
activation of mTORC1 or the ISR. The mTORC1-ATF4 pathway stimulated the
expression of only a subset of the ATF4 target genes stimulated by the ISR, including
genes involved in amino acid uptake, synthesis, and tRNA charging. We demonstrate
that ATF4 is a metabolic effector of mTORC1 involved in both its established role in
promoting protein synthesis and in a previously unappreciated function for mTORC1 in
stimulating cellular cystine uptake and glutathione synthesis.

Introduction

Pro-growth signals in the form of growth factors, hormones, and nutrients impinge on cellular metabolic programs in a coordinated fashion involving both acute, post-translational regulation and transcriptional control of nutrient transporters and metabolic enzymes. The mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) acts as a central point of integration for these signals and propagates a downstream metabolic response that increases anabolic processes while decreasing specific catabolic processes. Through a variety of downstream effectors, mTORC1 stimulates the synthesis of the major macromolecules comprising cellular biomass, including protein, lipid, and nucleotides, along with metabolic and adaptive pathways that support this anabolic program (Valvezan & Manning, 2019).

One particularly interesting feature of this coordinated metabolic program that has emerged in recent years is that the mTORC1 signaling pathway can co-opt key nutrient-sensing transcription factors that are activated, independent of mTORC1, in response to depletion of nutrients. In their canonical roles, these transcription factors serve to mount an adaptive response by upregulating genes that allow cells to overcome the specific nutrient deficiency. The best characterized of these transcription factors with dual regulation is the hypoxia-inducible factor 1 (HIF1) comprising the rapidly turning over HIF1α protein heterodimerized with the stable aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator (ARNT or HIF1β). Hypoxia (a decrease in oxygen) rapidly stabilizes HIF1α and allows the HIF1 heterodimer to induce genes involved in glucose uptake, glycolysis, and angiogenesis to adapt to hypoxia and decrease capacity for mitochondrial respiration (Nakazawa et al., 2016). While this regulation is entirely independent of mTORC1 (Arsham et al., 2002), in response to upstream growth factors and oncogenes, activation of mTORC1 stimulates an increase in HIF1α via enhanced cap-dependent translation of the HIF1α mRNA, which is sufficient to stimulate an increase in glucose uptake and glycolysis even when oxygen is not limiting (e.g. normoxia), a process referred to as aerobic glycolysis, which supports the production of biosynthetic precursors in the form

of glycolytic intermediates (Brugarolas et al., 2003; Duvel et al., 2010; Hudson et al., 2002;

Laughner et al., 2001; Thomas et al., 2006; Zhong et al., 2000).

Similarly, the sterol regulatory element (SRE)-binding protein (SREBP) family of

transcription factors are independently regulated by both adaptive nutrient signals and

growth signals controlling mTORC1. The SREBPs are canonically activated upon sterol

depletion, which promotes their trafficking from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)

membrane to the Golgi apparatus, where they are proteolytically processed to release

the active transcription factor that translocates to the nucleus to induce genes with SREs,

including those encoding the enzymes required for de novo synthesis of fatty acid and

sterol lipids (Horton et al., 2002). In addition to this adaptive response, growth signaling

induces lipid synthesis via mTORC1-stimulated processing and activation of SREBP and

its lipogenic program through mechanisms that remain incompletely defined (Duvel et al.,

2010; Owen et al., 2012; Peterson et al., 2011; Porstmann et al., 2008). Recent studies

have suggested that the regulation of nutrient sensing transcription factors by both

adaptive and pro-growth signals extends to the transcription factor activating transcription

factor 4 (ATF4) (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016; Torrence & Manning, 2018).

ATF4 is a basic leucine zipper (bZIP) transcription factor that is selectively translated in

response to specific forms of cellular stress to induce the expression of genes involved in

adaptation to stress (Walter & Ron, 2011). This adaptive program is referred to as the

integrated stress response (ISR) and is initiated by stress-activated protein kinases,

including general control nonderepressible 2 (GCN2) activated upon amino acid

deprivation and protein kinase RNA-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase (PERK) activated

by ER stress, which phosphorylate eIF2α on Ser51 (Harding et al., 2000).

Phosphorylation of eIF2α serves to globally attenuate mRNA translation to conserve

amino acids and energy and decrease the cellular protein load as one adaptive measure

to overcome these stresses (Clemens, 1996). Importantly, a small number of mRNAs,

including that encoding ATF4, exhibit increased translation upon eIF2α-Ser51

phosphorylation (Vattem & Wek, 2004). The stress-induced increase in ATF4 leads to the

expression of a canonical set of ATF4 target genes, including those involved in non-

essential amino acid biosynthesis and amino acid transport, as part of the adaptive
cellular response specific to stresses such as amino acid depletion (Harding et al., 2003).

While ATF4 is a major downstream effector of the ISR, evidence is emerging that ATF4
can also be activated by pro-growth signals that stimulate mTORC1 signaling (Adams,
2007; Ben-Sahra et al., 2016), and cis-regulatory elements for ATF4 binding are enriched
in the promoters of mTORC1-induced genes (Duvel et al., 2010). Importantly, the
mTORC1-mediated activation of ATF4 involves its increased translation in a manner that
is independent of the ISR and phosphorylation of eIF2α (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016; Park et
al., 2017). These findings suggest that, similar to HIF1 and SREBP, ATF4 induction may
be mobilized as part of the broader anabolic program downstream of mTORC1. Indeed,
our previous findings indicate that mTORC1 promotes *de novo* purine synthesis, in part,
through induction of mitochondrial one-carbon metabolism via ATF4 activation and
expression of its gene target MTHFD2 (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016).

How the ATF4-dependent gene program compares between its adaptive role in the ISR
and its activation as a downstream effector of mTORC1 signaling and whether ATF4
contributes to established or new functions of mTORC1 are unknown (Figure 1A). Here,
we find that the mTORC1-ATF4 program represents a small subset of ATF4-dependent
genes induced by ER stress and includes genes encoding the enzymes required for tRNA
charging, non-essential amino acid synthesis, and amino acid uptake. Consistent with
regulation of these enzymes by mTORC1 through ATF4, ATF4 contributes to the
induction of protein synthesis downstream of mTORC1. We also find that mTORC1
signaling promotes glutathione synthesis through ATF4 and its specific regulation of the
cystine transporter SLC7A11. Thus, ATF4 is an anabolic effector of mTORC1 signaling,
necessary for both its canonical regulation of protein synthesis and its synthesis of
glutathione, the most abundant anti-oxidant in cells.

Results

mTORC1 signaling activates a subset of ATF4-dependent genes also activated by the integrated stress response

To identify the ATF4-dependent gene targets downstream of mTORC1, we compared the insulin-induced, rapamycin-sensitive transcripts between wild-type MEFs and those with biallelic loss of ATF4 via CRISPR/Cas9 gene deletion (see methods). Consistent with our previous studies (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016), insulin stimulated an increase in ATF4 protein in MEFs, which was blocked by rapamycin (Figure 1B). In parallel, these cells were treated with a time course of tunicamycin, an inhibitor of N-glycosylation that potently induces ER stress and an increase in ATF4, to identify ATF4 gene targets downstream of the ISR. 20% of transcripts (253 total) significantly upregulated upon insulin stimulation were significantly blocked in their induction with rapamycin treatment. Importantly, approximately 30% of these mTORC1-regulated genes (77 total) lost their insulin responsiveness with ATF4 deletion. In comparison, 36% of transcripts significantly induced with tunicamycin treatment at 4 hours were dependent on ATF4 (774 total). The expression of just 61 genes was found to overlap between these two modes of ATF4 regulation, being ATF4 dependent in response to both mTORC1 activation and the ISR (Figure 1C).

The RNA-seq analysis demonstrated that only a small subset of ATF4 gene targets induced by ER stress were also stimulated by mTORC1 signaling. Interestingly, these 61 shared genes showed significant KEGG pathway enrichment of aminoacyl tRNA biosynthesis, amino acid metabolism, and one-carbon metabolism (Figure 1D). Gene sets corresponding to these pathways were significantly enriched among the insulin-induced, rapamycin-sensitive genes (Figure 1E—figure supplement 1A). Amongst the 61 shared ATF4-dependent transcripts, those involved in amino acid synthesis and transport, one-carbon metabolism, and aminoacyl tRNA charging showed largely comparable fold-changes between insulin stimulation and tunicamycin treatment, while canonical genes of the ER stress response, such as *Herpud1* and *Ddit3/Chop,* showed much greater induction with tunicamycin (Figure 1F). In addition to aminoacyl tRNA synthetase genes,

Figure 1. mTORC1 signaling activates a subset of ATF4-dependent genes also activated by the integrated stress response.

(A) Schematic of the dual regulation of ATF4 and the unknowns addressed in this study.

(B) Immunoblots of parallel lysates from RNA-Seq experiment. $Atf4^{+/+}$ and $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs were treated, as indicated, with insulin (500 nM, 16 h) or rapamycin (20 nM, 30 min) prior to insulin (Left) or with tunicamycin (2 μg/mL) for 4, 8 or 16 h (Right).

(C) Venn diagram depicting number and overlap of mTORC1- and ISR-induced transcripts, including those increased with insulin (red), decreased relative to insulin with rapamycin (green), and increased with 4 h tunicamycin (orange), and those dependent on ATF4 within these categories (purple), all with P values < 0.05. Only 61 ATF4-dependent genes overlap between those induced by insulin in a rapamycin-sensitive manner and those induced by tunicamycin. Gene lists per category are provided in Source data 1.

(D) KEGG enrichment of the shared mTORC1- and ISR-induced ATF4 target genes. P values were false discovery rate corrected (FDR).

(E) GSEA plots of mTORC1-induced genes dependent on ATF4 are shown. P values were FDR corrected and enrichment scores (ES) were normalized to total read count. Additional GSEA plot of alanine, aspartate, and glutamate metabolism is provided in figure supplement 1.

(F) The 61 ATF4-dependent genes induced by both mTORC1 (i.e., rapamycin-sensitive insulin stimulation) and tunicamycin treatment are shown ranked from left to right in order of greatest log_2-fold change with insulin (red bars), with the corresponding tunicamycin-induced changes superimposed (white bars) (n = 4). Error bars depict 95% confidence intervals.

expression of the *Xpot* gene encoding Exportin-T, which is the major Ran GTPase family member for nuclear to cytosolic export of mature tRNAs (Arts et al., 1998; Kutay et al., 1998), was found to be similarly regulated by ATF4 in response to mTORC1 and ISR activation. Genes encoding known negative regulators of mTORC1 signaling are also among these 61 shared genes, including *Ddit4/Redd1* and *Sesn2*. These targets likely contribute to the ATF4-dependent inhibition of mTORC1 signaling (S6K1 phosphorylation) detected upon tunicamycin treatment (Figure 1B), while in the context of mTORC1 signaling, these ATF4 targets might play a role in negative feedback regulation of mTORC1. These data suggest that a specific subset of ATF4-dependent ISR-induced genes are likewise regulated by growth factor signaling through mTORC1 and are enriched for specific processes including aminoacyl tRNA biosynthesis, amino acid synthesis and uptake, and one-carbon metabolism.

mTORC1 signaling induces a large number of genes involved in amino acid synthesis, transport, and charging through ATF4 activation

To validate and expand the findings from the RNA-seq analysis, a Nanostring codeset was designed to simultaneously quantify transcripts of genes involved in the enriched processes above (see methods). As positive and negative controls, respectively, we included the glycolytic targets of HIF1, established previously to be regulated downstream of mTORC1 (Duvel et al., 2010), and the mitochondrial tRNA synthetases, not believed to be regulated by ATF4. Using this codeset, we analyzed gene expression in three settings of mTORC1 activation: 1) wild-type MEFs stimulated with insulin in the presence or absence of rapamycin, 2) growth factor-independent activation of mTORC1 via genetic loss of the TSC protein complex in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs, and 3) $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs with siRNA-mediated knockdown of ATF4 (Figure 2A—figure supplement 2A and Source data 2). ATF4 protein levels were robustly upregulated with either genetic or insulin-stimulated mTORC1 activation in these settings, with both rapamycin and ATF4 targeting siRNAs blocking this induction (Figure supplement 2A). Interestingly, the majority of transcripts analyzed in the functional categories that encode enzymes of non-essential amino acid synthesis, one-carbon metabolism, amino acid transporters, and cytosolic amino-acyl tRNA synthetases (and *Xpot*) were increased with mTORC1 activation in a manner sensitive to both rapamycin and siRNA-mediated knockdown of ATF4. However, the HIF1 targets of glycolysis were mTORC1-regulated but independent of ATF4, and transcripts encoding the mitochondrial tRNA synthetases were neither mTORC1- nor ATF4-regulated. We further confirmed the mTORC1- and ATF4-mediated regulation of a representative subset of these transcripts via qPCR (Figure 2B-C—figure supplement 2C). Consistent with previous studies (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017), both ATF4 transcript and protein levels were induced by mTORC1 signaling in these settings (Figure 2B-E). Transcriptional changes in ATF4 gene targets were reflected in corresponding changes in the abundance of representative protein products, with varying degrees of rapamycin sensitivity that likely reflect inherent differences in the turnover rates of these proteins (Figure 2D-E). We next wanted to confirm that these mTORC1- and ATF4-induced changes were independent of the ISR. While we have shown

Figure 2. mTORC1 and ATF4 regulate genes involved in amino acid synthesis, transport, and charging.

(A) Row-normalized heatmaps of Nanostring gene expression data are shown from 1) serum-deprived wild-type (WT) or $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs treated (16 h) with vehicle (Veh) or rapamycin (20 nM, Rap) (n=2), 2) serum-deprived WT MEFs treated with insulin (500 nM, 16 h, Ins) following 30-min pretreatment with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) (n=2), and 3) WT and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with $Atf4$ siRNAs or non-targeting controls (siCT) and serum-deprived for 16 h (n=3). Genes are grouped by functional category and ranked in order of most significantly decreased with ATF4 knockdown for each group. Heatmap values are provided in Source data 2, and effects on ATF4 protein levels and mTORC1 signaling for each condition are shown by immunoblot in Figure S2A.

(B,C) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in WT and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs (B) or WT MEFs stimulated with insulin (C) and treated with vehicle or rapamycin as in (A). Expression relative to vehicle-treated, unstimulated WT cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9).

(D,E) Representative immunoblots of cells treated as in (B,C), with biological duplicates shown for each condition.

(F) Row-normalized heatmaps of Nanostring gene expression data for transcripts in the functional groups from (A) found to be significantly (p < 0.05) induced in $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs treated with insulin (500 nM, 16h) following 30-min pretreatment with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) (n=2). Genes are ranked by category in order of most significantly increased with insulin for each group. The heatmap values are provided in Source data 2.

(G) Representative immunoblot of cells treated as in (F), with biological duplicates shown for each condition.

(H) Representative immunoblot of $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs transfected with siRNAs targeting $Atf4$, $Tsc2$, or non-targeting controls prior to serum-starvation for 16 h.

(I,J) Representative immunoblot of serum-deprived LNCaP cells treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (I) or $Atf4$ siRNAs versus non-targeting controls (siCT) (J), with biological duplicates shown for each.

(K,L) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in LNCaP cells serum-starved in the presence of vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (K) or transfected with $ATF4$ siRNAs or non-targeting controls (siCT) and serum-starved for 16 h (L). Expression relative to vehicle-treated cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, with 3 biological replicates each (n=6).

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ns = not significant. One-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons was used to determine statistical significance for (B,C). Unpaired two-tailed t-test was used to determine statistical significance for (F, K, L). (L,D,E,G,H,I,J) are representative of at least two independent experiments.

previously that mTORC1 regulates ATF4 in a manner that is independent of eIF2α-S51 phosphorylation (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016), chronic activation of mTORC1 upon loss of TSC2 is known to cause a basal increase in ER stress and activation of the ISR (Ozcan et al., 2008). Therefore, we utilized MEFs with endogenous, homozygous knock-in of the

eIF2α-S51A mutation (*eIF2α^{A/A}*), which fail to induce ATF4 downstream of cellular stress

(Figure supplement 2B) (Scheuner et al., 2001). Consistent with mTORC1-dependent,

ISR-independent regulation, insulin increases ATF4 protein levels and expression of its

gene targets involved in amino acid synthesis and one-carbon metabolism, amino acid

transporters, and amino-acyl tRNA synthetases in a rapamycin sensitive manner in these

cells, as shown by nanostring analysis and confirmed for a subset of genes by qPCR

(Figure 1F-G—figure supplement 2D). Notably, like insulin stimulation, genetic activation

of mTORC1 via siRNA-mediated knockdown of *Tsc2* in the *eIF2α^{A/A}* MEFs also increased

ATF4 protein levels, further confirming that this regulation occurs independent of the ISR

(Figure 1H). Growth factor-independent activation of mTORC1 also occurs upon loss of

the PTEN tumor suppressor, and rapamycin was found to decrease protein levels and

ATF4-dependent expression of representative gene targets in established PTEN-

deficient prostate cancer cells, LNCaP and PC3 (Figure 2I-L—figure supplement 2E-H).

MYC has previously been shown to regulate the expression of many tRNA synthetase

genes and can be activated downstream of mTORC1 in some settings (Csibi et al., 2014;

Wall et al., 2008; Zirin et al., 2019). However, siRNA-mediated knockdown of c-MYC

failed to reduce expression of tRNA synthetase genes in *Tsc2^{-/-}* MEFs, which were

suppressed by parallel knockdown of ATF4 (Figure 2—figure supplement 2I-J).

To determine whether ATF4 activation is both necessary and sufficient for mTORC1-

mediated regulation of gene targets related to amino acid acquisition and utilization, we

knocked out *Atf4* using CRISPR/Cas9 in *Tsc2^{-/-}* MEFs and confirmed biallelic disruption

(Figure 3A). Protein levels of ATF4 targets were decreased in *Tsc2^{-/-} Atf4^{-/-}* MEFs and

fully rescued with expression of wild-type ATF4 but not a DNA-binding domain mutant

(ATF4^{DBD}) (Figure 3B). As mTORC1 regulates ATF4 translation through a mechanism

requiring its 5'-UTR (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017), the stably rescued cell

lines, which express an ATF4 cDNA lacking the 5' UTR, exhibit protein expression of

ATF4 and its target MTHDF2 that are resistant to rapamycin (Figure 3C). The expression

of select ATF4 target transcripts were markedly decreased in *Tsc2^{-/-} Atf4^{-/-}* MEFs to a

similar extent to that measured in wild-type cells treated with rapamycin (Figure 3D).

These transcript levels were rescued with the expression of wild-type ATF4, but not

Figure 3. Use of ATF4 knockout cells and a rapamycin-resistant ATF4 to validate ATF4 targets regulated by mTORC1 signaling.

(A) Schematic of ATF4 transcript, including upstream open reading frames (uORFs), coding sequence (CDS), and DNA-binding domain (DNABD), highlighting location of CRISPRn guides biallelic location of ATF4 mutations generated in *Tsc2⁻/⁻* MEFs.

(B,C) Representative immunoblots of serum-deprived *Tsc2^-/-^* (WT) MEFs or *Tsc2^-/- Atf4^-/-*
MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP, ATF4 lacking its 5'UTR, or a
DNABD mutant (DBD) of this ATF4 left untreated (B) or treated with vehicle or rapamycin
(20 nM, 16h) (C), with biological duplicates shown for each condition.
(D) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts from cells treated as in (C). Expression
relative to WT vehicle-treated cells is graphed as the $\log_2$ mean $\pm$ SD from a
representative experiment with three biological replicates (n=3). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p
< 0.001, ns = not significant, calcuated via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for
multiple comparisons.
(B-D) are representative of at least two independent experiments.

ATF4^DBD^, in a manner that was completely or partially rapamycin resistant (Figure 3D).

These collective data show that mTORC1 signaling drives the expression of genes

involved in tRNA export and charging, amino acid uptake, and non-essential amino acid

synthesis through its downstream regulation of the ATF4 transcription factor.

Activation of ATF4 contributes to the induction of protein synthesis downstream
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of mTORC1
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mTORC1 induces protein synthesis through multiple downstream targets (Valvezan &

Manning, 2019). Given that the major mTORC1-regulated ATF4 target genes identified

above are involved in amino acid uptake, synthesis, and tRNA charging, we hypothesized

that ATF4 induction through mTORC1 signaling might contribute to the canonical

increase in protein synthesis upon mTORC1 activation. Relative rates of protein synthesis

were measured via [^{35}S]-methionine incorporation into newly synthesized proteins in

*Tsc2^+/+^* and *Tsc2^-/-^* cells treated with control siRNAs or *Tsc2^-/-^* cells treated with siRNAs

targeting ATF4 or Rheb, the small GTPase target of TSC2 that is an essential upstream

activator of mTORC1. As expected, siRNA-mediated knockdown of either ATF4 or Rheb

substantially decreased ATF4 protein levels in *Tsc2^-/-^* cells (Figure 4A). Importantly, the

elevated rate of protein synthesis in *Tsc2^-/-^* MEFs was decreased with ATF4 knockdown

to a similar extent to that observed with Rheb knockdown (Figure 4A,B). No change in

mTORC1 signaling or phosphorylation of eIF2α was observed with ATF4 knockdown in

this setting (Figure 4A—figure supplement 3). In addition, rapamycin treatment and ATF4

knockout reduced the rate of protein synthesis to a similar extent, however rapamycin

Figure 4. Activation of ATF4 contributes to the induction of protein synthesis downstream of mTORC1.
(A, B) Representative autoradiogram and immunoblot of WT and *Tsc2⁻/⁻* MEFs transfected with siRNAs targeting *Atf4* or *Rheb1* and *Rhebl1* or non-targeting controls (siCT) and serum-deprived for 16 h with a pulse label of [³⁵S]-methionine for the final 20 min (A) and quantified in (B). Biological triplicates from a representative experiment are shown in (A).

(B) is graphed as mean ± SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological
replicates (n=6).
(C,D) Representative autoradiogram and immunoblot of serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs
(WT) or $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP or ATF4
lacking its 5'UTR treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) with a pulse label of
[^{35}S]-methionine for the final 20 min (C) and quantified in (D). Biological triplicates from a
representative experiment are shown in (C). (D) is graphed as mean ± SEM from two
independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).
(B,D) *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns = not significant, calculated via one-way
ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons.

treatment further reduced protein synthesis in *Atf4* knockout cells (Figure 4C,D).

Importantly, cells reconstituted with the rapamycin-resistant ATF4 cDNA exhibited

rescued protein synthesis, surpassing that observed in cells with endogenous ATF4, but

this enhanced protein synthesis was still significantly reduced with rapamycin. Together,

these data suggest that ATF4 induction downstream of mTORC1 is necessary but not

sufficient for mTORC1-regulated protein synthesis, consistent with the multiple

mechanisms through which mTORC1 controls this key anabolic process.

mTORC1 regulates cystine uptake through ATF4

Among the 61 shared mTORC1- and ISR-induced ATF4 gene targets identified, the

cystine-glutamate antiporter *Slc7a11* (xCT) was the most significantly induced gene upon

insulin treatment (Figure 1F). SLC7A11 (also known as xCT) associates with SLC3A2

(CD98) at the plasma membrane and serves as the primary transporter of cystine, the

oxidized form of cysteine and predominant cysteine species in both plasma and cell

culture media, whereas reduced cysteine is transported through neutral amino acid

systems (Figure 5A) (Bannai & Kitamura, 1980). Transcript levels of *Slc7a11* were

sensitive to rapamycin in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs and dramatically decreased with ATF4 knockout

(Figure 5B). Upon reconstitution with rapamycin-resistant ATF4, expression of *Slc7a11*

was rescued and no longer sensitive to rapamycin, while the ATF4^{DBD} mutant was unable

to restore *Slc7a11* transcript levels. A similar pattern of mTORC1- and ATF4-regulated

expression was measured for *Slc3a2* (Figure 5C). *SLC7A11* transcript levels were also

decreased with rapamycin and ATF4 knockdown in the PTEN-deficient cancer cell lines

Figure 5. mTORC1 regulates cystine uptake through ATF4 and its target SLC7A11.
(A) Schematic of transporter xCT, encoded by *Slc7a11*, which heterodimerizes with
SLC3A2 to serve as a cystine (Cys_2)/glutamate anti-porter. Cystine is reduced to cysteine,

which is essential for glutathione synthesis. Cysteine transport is mediated by neutral
amino acid trasporters distict from xCT. The targets of Erastin and BSO, two compounds
used in this study, are also depicted.
(B,C) qPCR analysis of *Slc7a11* (B) or *Slc3a2* (C) in serum-deprived *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs (WT)
and *Tsc2$^{-/-}$ Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP, ATF4 lacking its
5'UTR, or a DNABD mutant (DBD) of this ATF4 treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM,
16 h). Expression relative to WT vehicle-treated cells is graphed as the log$_2$ mean $\pm$ SD
from a representative experiment with three biological replicates (n=3).
(D, E) Representative growth curves of *Tsc2$^{-/-}$ Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs with stable expression of GFP,
ATF4, or ATF4^{DBD} grown in 10% dialyzed FBS with DMEM (D) or DMEM supplemented
with cysteine alone (Cys, 1 mM), non-essential amino acids (100 μM each) lacking
cysteine (NEAA-Cys), or nonessential amino acids plus either cysteine (1 mM,
NEAA+Cys), or cystine (0.5 mM, NEAA+Cys$_2$) (E). Mean cell numbers $\pm$ SD relative to
Day 0 are graphed from three biological replicates (n=3).
(F) Cell death of *Tsc2$^{-/-}$ Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP,
ATF4 or SLC7A11 cultured in DMEM with 10% dialyzed FBS was quantified by Annexin
V and PI staining after 72 h and graphed as the mean percentage of total cells $\pm$ SD from
three biological replicates (n=3).
(G) Cystine uptake in serum-deprived *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs treated with vehicle, rapamycin (20
nM), or erastin (10 uM) for 16h is graphed as the mean $\pm$ SEM radiolabel incorporation
from C^{14}-cystine over the final 10 min relative to vehicle-treated cells from two
independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=6).
(H) Cystine uptake in serum-deprived WT and *Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs pretreated 30 min with vehicle
or rapamycin (20 nM) prior to insulin stimulation (500 nM, 24 h) or treated with erastin
(10μM, 30') was assayed and graphed as in (G) relative to vehicle-treated WT cells with
data from three independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=9).
(I) Cystine uptake in serum-deprived *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs (WT) and *Tsc2$^{-/-}$ Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs with
stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP or ATF4 treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20
nM) for 16 h was assayed and graphed as in (G) relative to vehicle-treated WT cells with
data from two independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=6).
(B-F) are representative of at least two independent experiments.
*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns = not significant, calculated in (B,C,F,G,H,I) via
one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and in (D,E) via
unpaired two tailed t-test. For (F), the sum of AnnexinV+/PI- , AnnexinV-/PI+, and
AnnexinV+/PI+ populations were used for comparisons to the AnnexinV-/P- population.

LNCaP and PC3, although *SLC7A11* expression was relatively more resistant to
rapamycin in PC3 cells (Figure 5—figure supplement 4A-B). These data confirm and
extend the findings from RNA-Seq and Nanostring analyses (Figure 1F, Figure 2A and
2F),and demonstrate that ATF4 is both necessary and sufficient for the mTORC1-
mediated induction of *Slc7a11* expression.

ATF4 is known to be important for the uptake and synthesis of non-essential amino acids

(NEAAs) (Harding et al., 2003). In agreement with this, we observed that $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$

cells fail to proliferate in DMEM, which only contains a subset of NEAAs, while addback

of wild-type ATF4, but not ATF4^{DBD}, restored proliferation (Figure 5D). Supplementation

of DMEM with a mixture of all NEAAs, including cysteine, allowed the $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs

to proliferate at the same rate as the ATF4-reconstituted cells, while NEAAs lacking

cysteine completely failed to support proliferation of these cells (Figure 5E). Furthermore,

supplementation with excess reduced cysteine alone, but not equimolar concentrations

of oxidized cysteine in the form of cystine, was able to significantly increase proliferation

of the $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs, albeit to a lesser extent than NEAAs plus cysteine. The majority

of these cells die after 72 hours in DMEM, and exogenous expression of either ATF4 or

SLC7A11 restores their survival (Figure 5F). Taken together, these data indicate that

defects in the acquisition of cysteine, which normally occurs through SLC7A11-mediated

uptake of cystine, underlie the inability of these cells to proliferate or survive in DMEM

and suggest a key role for mTORC1 signaling in controlling cystine uptake through ATF4.

To analyze the role of mTORC1 in cystine uptake, we employed both genetic (*Tsc2* loss)

and physiologic (insulin stimulation) activation of mTORC1, measuring [^{14}C]-cystine

uptake with or without rapamycin treatment or the xCT inhibitor erastin (Figure 5A) (Yang

& Stockwell, 2008). Both rapamycin and erastin significantly decreased [^{14}C]-cystine

uptake into $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 5G). In wild-type MEFs, insulin stimulated an increase

in cystine uptake that was inhibited with rapamycin, and this mTORC1-mediated

regulation of cystine transport was completely lost with ATF4 knockout (Figure 5H).

Additionally, $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs showed a decrease in cystine uptake when compared to

parental $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs, which could be rescued with re-expression of ATF4. Surprisingly,

cystine consumption in cells reconstituted with rapamycin-resistant ATF4 was still

significantly sensitive to rapamycin treatment, suggesting the existence of additional,

ATF4-independent mechanisms influencing the transport or cellular incorporation of

cystine downstream of mTORC1. Thus, mTORC1 promotes cystine uptake to support cell

proliferation and survival, at least in part, through the activation of ATF4 and induction of

Slc7a11 expression.

mTORC1 regulates glutathione levels through ATF4-mediated induction of *Slc7a11*

Cysteine, generally acquired through cystine uptake and reduction, is an essential component of the tripeptide glutathione (Figure 5A), the most abundant antioxidant in cells (Meister, 1983). We hypothesized that the regulation of cystine uptake through mTORC1 and ATF4 might influence cellular glutathione content. Indeed, mTORC1 inhibition with rapamycin or Torin1 significantly decreased total glutathione levels in *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs, albeit less than buthionine-sulfoximine (BSO), a direct inhibitor of glutathione synthesis (Figure 6A) (Griffith & Meister, 1979). Similar to BSO treatment, mTOR inhibitors decreased both reduced (GSH) and oxidized (GSSG) glutathione levels to the same degree, indicating effects on total glutathione abundance rather than redox state (Figure supplement 5A). Stable reconstitution of *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs with TSC2 also decreased total glutathione levels (Figure 6B). To examine this response *in vivo*, we employed a mouse model of tuberous sclerosis complex involving xenograft tumors derived from the rat *TSC2-/-* tumor cell line ELT3 (Hodges et al., 2002). To avoid major differences in tumor size from the treatments, we treated tumor-bearing mice for just 5 days with either vehicle or rapamycin, prior to harvesting tumors for immunoblot analysis and metabolite profiling. Importantly, we found that rapamycin treatment strongly decreased ATF4 protein levels in these tumors with a concomitant decrease in glutathione levels, measured by LC-MS in tumor metabolite extracts (Figure 6C-D). An analysis of published metabolomics data (Tang et al., 2019) also revealed that rapamycin treatment significantly decreased glutathione levels in human TSC2-deficient angiomyolipoma cells (Figure 6—figure supplement 5B). Likewise, inhibition of mTORC1 signaling with rapamycin or Torin1 in the PTEN-deficient LNCaP and PC3 cell lines resulted in a significant decrease in total glutathione levels, although the degree of decrease varied between the two cell lines, perhaps reflecting their differences in the response of *SLC7A11* transcript levels to rapamycin (Figure 6E—supplemental figure 4A-B).

To determine the role of ATF4 and SLC7A11-dependent cystine uptake in glutathione synthesis downstream of mTORC1 signaling, we compared *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs with or without

Figure 6. mTORC1 regulates cellular glutathione levels through ATF4 and
SLC7A11-mediated cystine uptake.
(A) Total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs treated with rapamycin (20 nM),
Torin1 (250 nM), or BSO (10 μM) for 16 h is graphed as mean ± SEM relative to vehicle-
treated cells from three independent experiments, each with three biological replicates

(n=9). Relative abundance of reduced (GSH) and oxidized (GSSG) glutathione from this
experiment is shown in Figures S5A.
(B) Relative total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs with stable expression of a
cDNA encoding TSC2 or empty vector (EV) control is graphed as mean ± SD from a
representative experiment with three biological replicates (n=3).
(C, D) Immunoblot (C) and relative glutathione levels measured by LC-MS/MS (D) from
$Tsc2^{-/-}$ ELT3 xenograft tumors resected from mice treated for 5 days with vehicle or
rapamycin (1 mg/kg on days 1, 3, and 5) (n = 3 mice/group). Glutathione levels from
rapamycin-treated human $TSC2^{-/-}$ tumor cells are shown in Figure S5B.
(E) Total glutathione in serum-deprived LNCaP (left) and PC3 (right) cells treated with
vehicle, rapamycin (20 nM), Torin1 (250 nM), or BSO (50 μM) for 24 h is graphed as
mean ± SD relative to vehicle treated cells from a representative experiment with three
biological replicates (n=3).
(F) Total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs (WT) and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs with
stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP, ATF4, ATF4^{DBD}, or SLC7A11 grown in DMEM
and supplemented, where indicated, with cysteine (1 mM) or cystine (0.5 mM) is graphed
as mean ± SD relative to WT cells from a representative experiment with three biological
replicates (n=3). Relative glutathione in these cells supplemented with NEAA with or
without Cys, measured by LC-MS/MS, is shown in Figure S5C.
(G) Total glutathione in serum-deprived $Atf4^{+/+}$ and $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs pretreated 30 min with
vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) prior to insulin stimulation (500 nM, 24 h) or treated with
BSO (10μM, 24 h) is graphed as mean ± SEM relative to unstimulated $Atf4^{+/+}$ cells from
two independent experiments, with 3 biological replicates each (n=6).
(H) Total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs (WT) and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs with
with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP, ATF4 lacking its 5'UTR, or a DNABD
mutant (DBD) of this ATF4 treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) for 16 h is graphed
as mean ± SD relative to vehicle-treated WT cells from a representative experiment with
three biological replicates (n=3). Rapamycin-sensitive, ATF4-independent expression of
glutathione synthesis genes is shown in Figures S5D and E.
(B, E, F, H) are representative of at least two independent experiments. *p < .05, **p <
.01, ***p < .001, ns = not significant, calculated in (A,E,F,G,H) via one-way ANOVA with
Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and in (B,D) via unpaired two tailed t-test.

Atf4 knockout. Total glutathione levels were significantly decreased in the $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$

MEFs, and exogenous expression of ATF4 or SLC7A11, but not ATF4^{DBD}, was able to

restore glutathione levels (Figure 6F). Supplementation with all NEAAs or just cysteine,

transported through neutral amino acid systems, but not equimolar concentrations of

cystine, transported through SLC7A11, also rescued total glutathione levels, as measured

by either enzymatic assay or LC-MS (Figure 6F—figure supplement 5C). Furthermore,

insulin also stimulated an increase in glutathione levels in a manner sensitive to

rapamycin, which was not observed in *Atf4* knockout cells (Figure 6G). Likewise, the

rapamycin-sensitive nature of glutathione in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs was completely lost in $Tsc2^{-/-}$

Atf4^{-/-} MEFs (Figure 6H). Glutathione levels were restored to these cells upon exogenous

expression of ATF4, but not the ATF4[DBD] mutant. However, glutathione was still

significantly reduced with rapamycin treatment in cells expressing the rapamycin-

resistant ATF4, suggesting additional ATF4-independent mechanisms contributing to this

regulation (Lam et al., 2017). Indeed, we found that expression of both the catalytic

(GCLC) and regulatory (GCLM) subunits of glutamate-cysteine ligase, the first enzyme of

glutathione synthesis, was sensitive rapamycin, in an ATF4-independent manner (Figure

6—figure supplement 5D-E). Together, these data show that mTORC1 signaling induces

glutathione synthesis, at least in part, through the activation of ATF4 and SLC7A11-

dependent cystine uptake.

Discussion

Our findings expand the functional repertoire of mTORC1 signaling as it relates to the

control of anabolic processes and cellular metabolism through its noncanonical activation

of ATF4. Importantly, less than 10% of stress-responsive, ATF4-dependent targets were

found to be significantly stimulated through the mTORC1-mediated activation of ATF4 in

response to insulin. Among others, we found that genes involved in amino acid

biosynthesis, transport, and tRNA charging were induced by mTORC1-ATF4 signaling,

many to a comparable level to that of ER stress induction with tunicamycin. While the

molecular nature of this selective induction is unknown, it is possible that the 61 ATF4-

depenent genes shared between mTORC1 signaling and the ISR represent the most

high-affinity gene targets of ATF4. Since mTORC1 signaling leads to a more modest

increase in ATF4 protein levels than does the ISR, the selective induction of these genes

might be reminiscent of the dose-dependent activation of MYC target genes documented

in other studies (Sabò et al., 2014; Schuhmacher & Eick, 2013; Walz et al., 2014).

Alternatively, as a basic helix loop helix transcription factor, ATF4 engages it's gene

targets as heterodimers with various binding partners, including C/EBPβ and CHOP

(Cohen et al., 2015; Ebert et al., 2020; Gachon et al., 2001; Newman & Keating, 2003;

Vallejo et al., 1993) which could be more narrowly regulated by mTORC1 signaling than

by the ISR.

Consistent with the specific ATF4 target genes induced by mTORC1 signaling, including

those involved in amino acid acquisition and tRNA charging, we found that ATF4

activation contributes to both canonical (e.g., protein synthesis) and new (e.g., glutathione

synthesis) functions of mTORC1. As mTORC1 stimulates protein synthesis through

multiple downstream targets (Holz et al., 2005; Jefferies et al., 1994; Ma & Blenis, 2009;

Raught et al., 2004; Thoreen et al., 2012), it was not surprising to find that ATF4 was

necessary but not sufficient for the increased rate of protein synthesis accompanying

mTORC1 activation. We also demonstrate that mTORC1 signaling regulates the

abundance of total cellular glutathione, both reduced and oxidized, at least in part through

the ATF4-dependent induction of the cystine transporter SLC7A11, a major source of the

cysteine that is limiting for glutathione synthesis. Importantly, this mTORC1-ATF4-

mediated transcriptional up-regulation of SLC7A11 leading to increased cystine uptake

temporally follows the inhibition of SLC7A11 recently found to be mediated through

mTORC2 and Akt-dependent transient phosphorylation of the transporter (Gu et al., 2017;

Lien et al., 2017). Our findings are consistent with a recent study indicating rapamycin-

sensitive expression of xCT in TSC models, which the authors attribute to the OCT1

transcription factor (Li et al., 2019). However, our study indicates that the mTORC1-

mediated activation of ATF4 is both necessary and sufficient for this regulation. The

transcription factor NRF2 (also known as NFE2L2) is activated by oxidative stress and is

a master regulator of the enzymes required for glutathione synthesis, as well as SLC7A11

to increase cystine uptake (Habib et al., 2015; Sasaki et al., 2002; Ye et al., 2014). While

NRF2 depletion can decrease the viability of cells with TSC gene loss (Zarei et al., 2019),

we have no evidence from this or previous studies that mTORC1 signaling influences the

levels or activity of NRF2 (Zhang et al., 2014).

mTORC1 serves to couple growth signals to the coordinated control of anabolic

processes, including the biosynthesis of protein, lipids, and nucleotides, as well as

metabolic pathways that support this anabolic state (Valvezan & Manning, 2019). This

metabolic program is orchestrated to provide biosynthetic precursors and directly promote

the synthesis of macromolecules while also maintaining cellular homeostasis and

preventing nutrient or metabolic stress. For example, mTORC1 signaling promotes
metabolic flux through the NADPH-producing oxidative branch of the pentose phosphate
pathway, thereby providing the reducing power essential to support an mTORC1-
stimulated increase in *de novo* lipid synthesis (Duvel et al., 2010). Importantly, NADPH is
also essential to reduce cystine, taken up through SLC7A11, into to molecules of cysteine
for use in glutathione synthesis, in addition to being required to regenerate reduced
glutathione following its oxidation. Supporting this logic of a coordinated metabolic
program downstream of mTORC1, pro-growth signaling through mTORC1 likely
promotes glutathione synthesis to help buffer against the oxidative stress that
accompanies anabolic metabolism and increased rates of protein synthesis (Han et al.,
2013; Harding et al., 2003; Kong & Chandel, 2018).

Our findings add ATF4 to SREBP and HIF1, as nutrient- and stress-sensing transcription
factors that are independently co-opted by mTORC1 signaling to drive the expression of
metabolic enzymes and nutrient transporters. Unlike adaptive signals stemming from the
depletion of individual nutrients, such as amino acids, sterols, or oxygen, pro-growth
signals through mTORC1 can activate these transcription factors together to support a
broader anabolic program. It will be important in future studies to understand the dual
regulation of these transcription factors by both pro-growth and adaptive mechanisms as
it relates to settings of physiological (fasting and feeding) and pathological (tumor
development) nutrient fluctuations.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture
MEFs and PC3 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM;
Corning/Cellgro, 10-017-CV) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Corning/Gibco). LNCaP
cells were maintained in RPMI-1640 (Corning/Cellgro 10-040-CV) with 10% FBS. *Tsc2$^{-/-}$*
(*p53$^{-/-}$*) MEFs and littermate derived wildtype counterparts were provided by David
Kwiatkowski (Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston MA). *eIF2$\alpha^{S/S}$* (WT) and *eIF2$\alpha^{A/A}$*
(S51A knock-in mutant) MEFs were provided by Randal Kaufman (Sanford-Burnham-

Prebys Medical Discovery Institute, La Jolla CA) and were not used above passage 3

(after received). Cancer cell lines were obtained from ATCC. Atf4$^{-/-}$ MEF lines generated

in this study were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM;

Corning/Cellgro, 10-017-CV) with 10% FBS, 55 μM 2-mercaptoethanol (Thermo,

21985023), and 1X MEM nonessential amino acid mix (final concentration 100 μM of

alanine, aspartate, asparagine, glutamate, glycine, proline, and serine, Thermo

11140050). In experiments with supplementation of excess cysteine, cells were plated in

DMEM with 10% FBS, 1 mM cysteine, and 1X MEM nonessential amino acid mix.

siRNA knockdowns

Cells were transfected with 20 nM of the indicated siRNAs using Opti-MEM (Thermo,

31985062) and RNAimax (Thermo, 13778150) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

siRNAs were from GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon: Non-targeting Pool (D-001810-10-50),

Myc (L-040813-00-0010), *Atf4* (mouse, L-042737-01-0020), *Rheb* (L-057044-00-0020),

RhebL1 (L-056074-01-0020), *Tsc2* (L-047050-00-0020), and *ATF4* (human, L-005125-

00-0020). 48 h post-transfection, cells were serum starved overnight prior to lysis for

immunoblotting, RNA extraction, or protein synthesis assays. For protein synthesis

assays, transfection of siRNAs was performed a second time 24 h after the first

transfection, which was necessary to achieve sufficient knockdown of Rheb to reduce

mTORC1 activity.

Generation and validation of *Atf4$^{-/-}$* and reconstituted cell lines

Tsc2$^{+/+}$ (WT) and *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs lacking Atf4 were generated by CRISPR-Cas9 mediated

deletion using pSpCas9n(BB)-2A-GFP (PX461) vector (Addgene, 48140) according to

the previously described protocol (Ran et al., 2013). The paired nickase guides were

designed using E-CRISP (Heigwer et al., 2014) and targeted the sequences

AGCATAGCCCCTCCACCTCC and GACAATCTGCCTTCTCCAGG in Exon 2 of ATF4.

48 h post-transfection, single GFP-positive cells were sorted into 96-well plates. Cells

were cultured in DMEM with 10% FBS supplemented 1X MEM nonessential amino acids

and 55 μM 2-mercaptoethanol. Single cell clones were grown for immunoblot analysis

and those showing loss of ATF4 protein were selected for sequence analysis involving

the isolation of genomic DNA (Qiagen, 69504), PCR amplification using KOD Xtreme™ Hot Start DNA Polymerase (Millipore, 71975) and primers TCGATGCTCTGTTTCGAATG and CTTCTTCCCCCTTGCCTTAC flanking the targeted deletion site, and sequencing on an ABI3730xl DNA analyzer at the DNA Resource Core of Dana-Farber/Harvard Cancer Center (funded in part by NCI Cancer Center support grant 2P30CA006516-48). The mutations were identified using CRISP-ID software (Dehairs et al., 2016). For the final clones selected, the mutations generated in the $Tsc2^{+/+}$ MEFs include an out-of-frame 17-base pair deletion starting at the codon encoding T237, resulting in a premature STOP codon, and a large out-of-frame 73-base pair deletion starting after the codon encoding G219, resulting in a premature STOP codon. The mutations generated in the $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs include an out-of-frame 245-base pair deletion starting at the codon encoding G190, resulting in a premature STOP codon after the D191 codon, and an in-frame deletion removing the sequences encoded between E210 and E284.

For generation of *ATF4* rescue vectors, the *Atf4* cDNA was amplified from the plasmid 21845 from Addgene (Harding et al., 2000). Restriction enzyme cloning with AgeI and ClaI was used to insert the ATF4-coding sequence (lacking the 5' and 3' UTR) into pTRIPZ plasmid for doxycycline-inducible expression. The ATF4^{DBD} mutant, in which amino acids 292-298 of the DNA-binding domain are changed from RYRQKKR to GYLEAAA (He et al., 2001; Lange et al., 2008) was generated by DpnI-mediated site-directed mutagenesis using KOD Xtreme™ Hot Start DNA Polymerase. The dox-inducible pTRIPZ and SLC7A11 plasmids were a gift from Alex Toker (Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center). cDNA expression was induced with 1 μg/mL of doxycycline (sigma-Aldrich, D3447) for 12-24 hrs before assays were conducted. GFP was inserted into pTRIPZ to produce the control vector. Lentivirus was generated in HEK293T cells transfected with pMD2.G and psPAX2 (Addgene, 12259 and 12260) and the given pTRIPZ constructs. 48 h post-transfection the viral medium was used to infect the target cells, which were selected with 8 μg/mL puromycin. TSC2 addback cell lines were generated by retroviral infection following transfection of PT67 cells with pBabe hygro IRES-EV or pBabe hygro IRES-TSC2. Cells were selected with 400 μg/mL hygromycin B (Thermo, 10687010).

RNA-sequencing

Wild-type and *Atf4-/-* MEFs were grown to 70% confluence in 6 cm plates and were serum-starved in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol and 1X MEM NEAA mixture and treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 20 nM rapamycin (LC Laboratories, R5000) for 30 min prior to stimulation with vehicle (water) or 500 nM insulin (Alpha Diagnostic, INSL 16-N-5) for 16 h or treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 2 μg/mL tunicamycin (Sigma-Aldrich, T7765) for 4, 8 or 16 h. RNA was harvested with TRIzol according to the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo, 15596018). All samples passed RNA quality control measured by NanoDrop 1000 Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies) and 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies). cDNA libraries were generated to produce 150 base pair paired-end reads on an Illumina NovaSeq with read depth of 20 million paired reads per sample. Reads were aligned and annotated to the Ensembl *Mus musculus* GRCm38.p6 genome assembly using the align and featureCounts functions from the Rsubread package (2.0.1) in R (3.6.3) (Liao et al., 2019). Differential gene expression analysis was performed using the voom and eBayes functions from the EgdeR (3.28.1) and Limma (3.42.2) packages, respectively (Ritchie et al., 2015; Robinson et al., 2009). The enrichKEGG function from the clusterProfiler package (3.14.3) was used to perform KEGG pathway over-representation tests (Guangchuang Yu, 2012). Gene set enrichment analysis was evaluated using GSEA software from the Broad Institute (Subramanian et al., 2005). Computations were run on the FASRC Cannon cluster, supported by the Faculty of Arts and Sciences Division of Science Research Computing Group at Harvard University. Pseudogenes and unannotated genes were excluded from the Venn diagram shown in Figure 1C. The source data can be found at GEO under the accession number GSE158605.

Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in ice-cold Triton lysis buffer (40mM HEPES pH 7.4, 120mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100, 10mM sodium pyrophosphate, 10 mM glycerol 2-phosphate, 50 mM NaF, 0.5 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 μM Microcystin-LR, and Sigma protease inhibitor cocktail P8340). Samples were centrifuged at 20,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C and

protein concentration in the supernatant was determined by Bradford assay (Bio-Rad,
5000202) and normalized across samples. Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE,
transferred to nitrocellulose membranes, and immunoblotted with indicated antibody.
Primary antibodies used: MTHFD2 (Protein Tech, 12270-1-AP), PSAT1 (Protein Tech
20180-1-AP), phospho (P)-S6K1 T389 (Cell Signaling Technologies (CST), 9234), ATF4
(CST, 11815), eIF2α (CST 9722), P-eIF2α S51 (CST, 9721), S6K1 (CST, 2708), AARS
(Bethyl Antibodies, A303-475A-M), GARS (Bethyl Antibodies, A304-746A-M) LARS
(Bethyl Antibodies, A304-316A-M), XPOT (Aviva Biotechnologies, ARP40711_P050),
TSC2 (CST, 4308), β-actin (Sigma-Aldrich, A5316); secondary antibodies used: IRDye
800CW Donkey anti-Mouse IgG (H + L) (LI-COR, 926-32212) and Donkey anti-Rabbit
IgG (H + L) (LI-COR, 925-32213), and HRP-conjugated anti-mouse and anti-rabbit
secondary antibodies from (CST, 7074 and 7076). Immunoblots of MTHFD2, PSAT1,
AARS, GARS, LARS, and XPOT were imaged using Odyssey CLx Imaging System (LI-
COR Biosciences). β-actin was developed with Odyssey CLx Imaging System or
enhanced chemiluminescence assay (ECL). All remaining immunoblots were developed
using ECL.

NanoString analysis
RNA was harvested using TRIzol from cells at 70% confluence. All samples passed RNA
quality control measured by NanoDrop 1000 Spectrophotometer. Parallel plates were
lysed for immunoblots. The isolated RNA was analyzed using a custom NanoString probe
library according to the manufacturer's instructions (NanoString Technologies). Briefly,
sample RNA was hybridized to RNA-probes at 65 °C for 16 h, excess probe was washed
away, and an nCounter SPRINT was used to quantify specific mRNA molecules present
in each sample. Direct mRNA counts were normalized to internal control genes and
mRNA expression was analyzed using nSOLVER software. Heatmaps were generated
with Morpheu software from the Broad Institute
(https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus). Transcripts with 100 counts or fewer, a
value based off of negative control samples, were not included in our analyses.

qPCR

For gene expression analysis, RNA was isolated with TRIzol according to the manufacturer's protocol. All samples passed RNA quality control measured by NanoDrop 1000 Spectrophotometer. cDNA was generated with Superscript III First Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Thermo, 18080051). Quantitative RT-PCR was performed with a CFX Connect Realtime PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad) using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad, 1725125). Samples were quantified by the ΔΔCT method, normalized to *β-actin* (mouse samples) or *RPLP0* (human samples) to quantify relative mRNA expression levels.

qPCR Primers:

Atf4	ATGGGTTCTCCAGCGACAAG	CCGGAAAAGGCATCCTCCTT
Psat1	GCTGTCGCCTTAGCACCA	TGGATCTCCAACAATACCGAGTG
Mthfd2	TCCTTGTTGTCTGCGTTGGC	CTTCATTTCGCACTGCCGCC
Slc7a5	GGACAAGGTGATGCGTCCAA	GCCAACACAATGTTCCCCAC
Aars	TTGCTATTCCCTCGGAGCAC	CTCCTCGGGAACCTTAGCTC
Gars	GGCAGAGGTCTCTGAGCTG	GCACGATGGTCATAAGCTGC
Cars	GAGCAGGCTGCCGACTACA	TATAGCTACGCGTGCTGAGG
Nars	GAGCCGGCCTGTGTAAAGAT	GACCCAGCCAAACACCTTCA
Iars	TATTGCATCACCTCCAGACGC	TGAACCATTCTGTTGCTGGGA
Gclc	TGTACTCCACCCTCGTCACCC	CTGCTGTCCCAAGGCTCG
Gclm	TGGGCACAGGTAAAACCCAA	CTGGGCTTCAATGTCAGGGA
Slc7a11	ATCTCCCCCAAGGGCATACT	GCATAGGACAGGGCTCCAAA
Slc3a2	TGATGAATGCACCCTTGTACTTG	GCTCCCCAGTGAAAGTGGA
Actin	CACTGTCGAGTCGCGTCC	TCATCCATGGCGAACTGGTG
PSAT1	AAAAACAATGGAGGTGCCGC	GGCTCCACTGGACAAACGTA
ASNS	TGGCTGCCTTTTATCAGGGG	TCTGCCACCTTTCTAGCAGC
MTHFD2	GGCAGTTCGAAATGAAGCTGTT	GCCAACCAGGATCACACTCA
SLC7A5	GACTACGCCTACATGCTGGA	AGCAGCAGCACGCAGAG
AARS	CCATTCAGAAGGGCACAGGT	TATCCACGCCCTGTGTTGTC
GARS	GCCAGCAGGGAGATCTTGTG	CCAGCTCCTTTGCTTCCAGA
XPOT	GACGCAGAGCGACTAGAGG	TAAACATCTTCCCTATCACTCCATC
SLC7A11	AAGGTGCCACTGTTCATCCC	ATGTTCTGGTTATTTTCTCCGACA
RPLP0	CCTCGTGGAAGTGACATCGT	ATCTGCTTGGAGCCCACATT

Protein synthesis assay

MEFs cultured in 6-well plates were serum starved in DMEM for 16 h. Cells were washed twice with PBS and changed to methionine/cystine/glutamine-free DMEM (Thermo, 21013024) supplemented with 0.5 mM L-cystine (Sigma, 57579) and L-glutamine (4 mM) with 50 μCi/mL ^{35}S-methionine (PerkinElmer, NEG009L005MC) for 20 min. Cells were washed twice in ice cold PBS and lysed in ice-cold Triton lysis buffer. Total protein concentrations were normalized following a Bradford assay, and samples were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose. ^{35}S-methionine incorporation into protein was analyzed by autoradiography and abundance of specific proteins was determined by immunoblot. Relative rates of protein synthesis were quantified using ImageJ Software (NIH) to quantify radiolabeled protein per lane for each sample. For *Atf4*$^{-/-}$ cell lines, exogenous cDNA expression was induced for 16 h with 150 ng/mL doxycycline. Cells were serum-starved in the presence of doxycycline (150 ng/mL), 1X MEM NEAA mixture, 1 mM cysteine (Sigma, C7477), and vehicle (DMSO) or rapamycin (20 nM). Protein synthesis was assayed with 20 min labeling in the absence of MEM NEAA and cysteine to avoid competition of ^{35}S-methionine uptake with the supplemented amino acids.

Proliferation assay

To quantify cell proliferation, cells were plated in DMEM in 6-well plates in triplicate in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol, MEM NEAA mixture, 10% FBS, and doxycycline (1 μg/mL). 24 h after plating, cells were washed twice with PBS and media was changed to DMEM with 10% dialyzed FBS, doxycycline (1 μg/mL), and the amino acid supplements indicated for each experiment, with media refreshed daily. Starting on day 0, viable cells from triplicate wells corresponding to each condition or cell line were counted using a hemocytometer, excluding dead cells detected by trypan blue stain (Sigma-Aldrich, T8154).

Analysis of cell death

Cells were plated in DMEM in 6-well plates in triplicate in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol, MEM NEAA mixture, 10% FBS, and doxycycline (1 μg/mL). 24 h after plating, cells were washed twice with PBS and media was changed to DMEM with 10%

dialyzed FBS and doxycycline (1 μg/mL). 72 h later, cells were detached with Accumax™

(Sigma-Aldrich, A7089) and washed twice with cold PBS on ice. Cells were stained with

Annexin V and propidium iodide (PI) according to manufacturer's instruction (BD,

556547). Samples were analyzed using an LSRFortessa (BD) flow cytometer, and the

fractions of stained cells were quantified using FloJo 10.6, with Staurosporine (4 h, 5 μM)

(Tocris, 1285) used as a positive control for cell death and to help establish gating of the

sorted cells.

Cystine uptake

Wild-type MEFs were cultured in 6-well plates and serum starved for 23.5 h before

rapamycin treatment (20 nM, 30 min) prior to insulin stimulation (500 nM, 24 h). $Tsc2^{-/-}$

MEFs were cultured in 6-well plates and serum-starved for 16 h in the presence of 20 nM

rapamycin or 10 μM erastin (Selleckchem, S7242). Cells were then incubated in the same

medium containing 0.1 µCi L-[1, 2, 1', 2'-^{14}C]-Cystine (PerkinElmer, NEC854010UC) for 10

min. Cells were washed three times in ice-cold PBS containing cold cystine (1 mM), lysed

in Triton lysis buffer, and quantified for radiolabel incorporation with a Beckman LS6500

scintillation counter. Cells from identically treated parallel plates were counted using a

Beckman Z1-Coulter Counter to normalize cystine uptake data to cell number. $Atf4^{-/-}$ cells

were serum-starved in the presence of doxycycline (1 μg/mL), 1X MEM NEAA mixture, 1

mM cysteine (Sigma, C7477) and either vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) prior to assaying

cystine uptake as above, which was measured for 10 min in DMEM without MEM NEAA

and cysteine supplementation.

Measurements of cellular glutathione

Cells were plated in 96-well plates at 5000 cells/well. Total glutathione, GSH, and GSSG

levels were measured using the GSH/GSSG-Glo Assay (Promega, V6611) according to

the manufacturer's protocol. Total glutathione levels were normalized to cell number

determined from parallel plates.

For measurements via LC-MS/MS, metabolites were extracted from cells on dry ice using

80% methanol, and extracts were dried under nitrogen gas for metabolite profiling via

selected reaction monitoring (SRM) with polarity switching using a 5500 QTRAP mass
spectrometer. Data were analyzed using MultiQuant 2.1.1 software (AB/SCIEX) to
calculate the Q3 peak area. Normalized peak area of glutathione from human $TSC2^{-/-}$
angiomyolipoma (621-101) cells was determined from data published in (Tang et al.,
2019). For $TSC2^{-/-}$ ELT3 xenograft studies, experimental details are provided in (Valvezan
et al., 2017). Briefly, mice bearing $TSC2^{-/-}$ ELT3 xenograft tumors were treated for 5 days
with vehicle or rapamycin (1 mg/kg day 1, 3, 5) and tumors were harvested for metabolite
extraction, as above, 3 h after the final treatment.

Statistics
For RNA-sequencing analysis, Benjamini-Hochberg FDR-adjusted p values were
determined from empirical Bayes moderated t-statistics using the voom and eBayes
functions from the limma package. Comparisons with FDR-adjusted $p < 0.05$ were
considered significant for the gene groups denoted compared to vehicle-treated controls.
For KEGG enrichment and GSEA plots, P values were false discovery rate corrected.
Unpaired two-tailed t-tests were used for Nanostring analyses to calculate P values for
rank ordering. All remaining statistical analysis was performed with Prism 8 software
(GraphPad Software, La Jolla, California). Statistical analyses for qPCR data with two
treatment groups were determined by unpaired two-tailed t-test, while those with greater
than two treatment groups, were determined by one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak
method for multiple comparisons. Statistical analyses for protein synthesis assays were
determined by one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons from
values quantified with ImageJ software (US National Institutes of Health, Bethesda,
Maryland). For proliferation assays, unpaired two tailed t-test were used for comparisons
to GFP-expressing cells. For cell death analysis, one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak
method for multiple comparisons, summing the AnnexinV+/PI -, AnnexinV-/PI+, and
AnnexinV+/PI+ populations for each conditions. For glutathione quantification from
xenograft tumors or Tsc2$^{-/-}$ MEFs with addback of EV or TSC2, an unpaired two tailed t-
test was performed. For remaining glutathione assays and all cystine uptake experiments,
one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons was used.

Source Data

Source data file 1 provides the list of genes depicted in the Venn diagram in Figure 1C.
Source data file 2 provides the values depicted in the heatmap shown in Figures 2A, F.
The source data for the RNA-sequencing experiment can be found at GEO under the
accession number GSE158605.

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Supplemental Figure 1. mTORC1 signaling activates a subset of ATF4-dependent
genes also activated by the integrated stress response, related to Figure 1. GSEA
plot of alanine, aspartate, and glutamate metabolism genes. *P* values were FDR
corrected and enrichment scores (ES) were normalized to total read count.

Supplemental Figure 2. mTORC1 and ATF4 regulate genes involved in amino acid synthesis, transport, and charging, related to Figure 2.
(A) Representative immunoblots corresponding to Nanostring heatmaps depicted in Figure 2A with biological duplicates shown.
(B) Representative immunoblot of $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs treated with vehicle or tunicamycin (2 µg/mL, 4 h).
(C,D) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in $Tsc2^{+/+}$ (WT) and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs treated as described in Figure 2A (C) or in $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs treated as described in Figure 2F (D). Expression relative to non-targeting control transfected (C) or vehicle-treated, unstimulated WT cells (D) is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9).
(E,F) Representative immunoblots of serum-deprived PC3 cells treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (E) or transfected with *Atf4* siRNAs or non-targeting controls (siCT) prior to serum-deprivation (16h) (F) and biological duplicates for each condition are shown.
(G,H) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts treated as in Supplemental figure 2 E, F. Expression relative to vehicle-treated, unstimulated cells or non-targeting control transfected cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9).
(I) Representative immunoblot of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with *Atf4, Myc*, or non-targeting controls prior to 16 h of serum-starvation.
(J) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in cells transfected as described in (I). Expression relative to non-targeting control transfected cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).
(A,B,E,F,I) are representative of at least two independent experiments. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ns = not significant, calculated in (C,D,J) via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and (G,H) via unpaired two tailed t-test.

1094 **Supplemental Figure 3. Phosphorylation of eIF2α does not change with siRNA-**
1095 **mediated knockdown of *Atf4* in *Tsc2⁻ᐟ⁻* MEFs, related to Figure 4.**
1096 Representative immunoblot of *Tsc2⁻ᐟ⁻* MEFs transfected with *Atf4, Rheb*, or non-targeting
1097 control siRNAs prior to serum starvation for 16h. Data is representative of at least three
1098 independent experiments.

A.

B.

(A,B) qPCR analysis of *SLC7A11* in LNCaP or PC3 cells transfected with siRNAs
targeting *ATF4* or non-targeting controls (siCT) prior to serum-deprivation in the presence
of rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h). Expression relative to non-targeting control transfected cells
is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological
replicates (n=6).
*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ns = not significant, calculated for (A,B) via unpaired two
tailed t-test.

A.

B.

C.

D.

E.

Supplemental Figure 5. mTORC1 regulates glutathione levels through ATF4, related to Figure 6.

(A) Relative GSH and GSSG levels in serum-deprived *Tsc2*^{-/-} MEFs treated with rapamycin (20 nM,16 h), Torin1 (250 nM, 16 h), or BSO (10 μM, 16 h). GSH and GSSG levels relative to vehicle-treated cells are graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, with 3 biological replicates each (n=9).

(B) Total glutathione levels in human *TSC2*^{-/-} angiomyolipoma cells treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 24 h) measured by LC-MS/MS (mean $\pm$ SD, n=3).

(C) Normalized peak area of reduced glutathione from LC-MS/MS analysis of serum-deprived *Tsc2*^{-/-} *Atf4*^{-/-} MEFs with addback of GFP or ATF4 in the presence of supplemented cysteine (1 mM), non-essential amino acids without cysteine (100 µM each), or nonessential amino acids (1 mM cysteine or 100 µM) (mean $\pm$ SD, n=3).

(D,E) Transcript abundance of *Gclc* and *Gclm* in *Tsc2*^{-/-} MEFs serum-starved in the presence of rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (D) or transfected with siRNAs targeting *Atf4* or non-targeting controls prior to serum-deprivation for 16 h (E). Expression relative to vehicle (D) or non-targeting control transfected cells (E) is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).

(C) is representative of two independent experiments. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ns = not significant calculated for (A,C) via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and unpaired two tailed t-test for (B,D,E).