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 nucleic acids, along with metabolic and adaptive pathways that support this anabolic program (Valvezan & Manning, 2019).

A particularly interesting feature of this coordinated metabolic program downstream of mTORC1 is the co-opting of key nutrient-sensing transcription factors that are established to be activated, independent of mTORC1, in response to depletion of specific nutrients (Torrence & Manning, 2018). 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. Perhaps the best characterized of these transcription factors with dual regulation is the hypoxia-inducible factor 1 (HIF1) comprising the labile HIF1α protein heterodimerized with the aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator (ARNT or HIF1β). Oxygen depletion (i.e., hypoxia) results in the rapid stabilization of HIF1α and allows the HIF1 heterodimer to induce genes involved in glucose uptake, glycolysis, and angiogenesis to adapt to hypoxia and decrease mitochondrial respiration (Nakazawa et al., 2016). On the other hand, in response to upstream growth factor signaling pathways, activation of mTORC1 stimulates an increase in HIF1α protein synthesis leading to elevated expression of HIF1 gene targets (J. B. Brugarolas et al., 2003; Duvel et al., 2010; Hudson et al., 2002; Laughner et al., 2001; Thomas et al., 2006; Zhong et al., 2000). The result is an mTORC1-mediated increase in glucose uptake and glycolysis even when oxygen is not limiting (e.g. normoxia), a process referred to as aerobic glycolysis, which can support the production of biosynthetic precursors in the form of glycolytic

intermediates. 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 and induce expression of the enzymes required for de novo

synthesis of fatty acid and sterol lipids (Horton et al., 2002). However, insulin and growth

factor signaling can also induce lipid synthesis via mTORC1-stimulated activation of

SREBP and its lipogenic gene targets (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 mTORC1 signaling extends to the activating

transcription factor 4 (ATF4) (Adams, 2007; 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, among others, 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).

ATF4 functions in heterodimers with other bZIP transcription factors and also co-regulates

many of its target genes with additional transcription factors as part of the cellular stress

response (Newman & Keating, 2003; Wortel et al., 2017). However, whether and how the

many distinct upstream stresses that activate ATF4 influence its heterodimerization

partners and the induction of specific sets of genes is not well understood.

While ATF4 is a major downstream effector of the ISR, evidence has emerged 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 induced 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 decreased with rapamycin (Figure 1B—quantified in figure supplement 1). 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. RNA-seq analysis revealed that 20% of transcripts (253 total) significantly upregulated upon insulin stimulation were significantly blocked in their induction with rapamycin treatment. 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). Importantly, 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—supplementary table 1).

The RNA-seq analysis demonstrated that only 8% of ATF4 gene targets induced by ER stress were also significantly stimulated by mTORC1 signaling (e.g., insulin induced and rapamycin sensitive). Interestingly, these 61 shared genes showed significant KEGG pathway enrichment for aminoacyl tRNA biosynthesis, amino acid metabolism, and one-carbon metabolism (Figure 1D). The genes shared between the ISR and mTORC1 signaling were greatly enriched amongst those exhibiting the most significant increase upon tunicamycin treatment, with 75% (46 genes) lying within the top 100 of the 774 tunicamycin-induced genes (Figure 1E). It is worth noting that many of the top ATF4-dependent genes that scored as being induced by the ISR alone showed some degree of rapamycin-sensitive induction with insulin but did not reach statistical significance in the RNA-seq analyses. These data indicate that the subset of ATF4-dependent genes induced by mTORC1 signaling are largely comprised of those that are also most sensitive

Figure 1

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). Insulin response quantified in Figure 1—figure supplement 1.

(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 significantly induced by insulin in a rapamycin-sensitive manner and those induced by tunicamycin. Gene lists per category are provided in supplementary table 1.

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

(E) Plot of -log$_{10}$ *P*-values of 774 ATF4-dependent tunicamycin-induced genes. ATF4-dependent genes induced by both mTORC1 signaling and tunicamycin treatment (shared ISR and mTORC1) are shown in red.

(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.

to ATF4 induction by the ISR. Among the 61 shared ATF4-dependent transcripts, those involved in amino acid synthesis and transport, one-carbon metabolism, and aminoacyl tRNA charging often displayed 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, 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. Transcripts encoding known negative regulators of mTORC1 signaling are also among these 61 shared ATF4-induced genes, including *Ddit4/Redd1* and *Sesn2* (J. Brugarolas et al., 2004; Condon et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2010; Reiling & Hafen, 2004; Wolfson et al., 2016). These targets likely contribute to the ATF4-dependent inhibition of mTORC1 signaling (S6K1 phosphorylation) observed 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 synthesis, amino acid

synthesis and uptake, and one-carbon metabolism.

ATF4 is known to form heterodimers with other bZIP transcription factors to engage its

gene targets, while also co-regulating genes with transcription factors that bind additional

promoter elements (Kilberg et al., 2009; Newman & Keating, 2003; Wortel et al., 2017).

Thus, we used bioinformatic tools to determine whether the promoters of ATF4 gene

targets shared between the ISR and mTORC1 signaling might be distinct from those

induced by the ISR alone. Indeed, CiiiDER analysis (Gearing et al., 2019) revealed that

there are predicted promoter-binding sequences that distinguish the 61 shared target

genes from the top 200 ATF4-dependent genes induced by the ISR alone (Figure 2A—

supplementary table 2). Regulatory elements for the C/EBP family of transcription factors,

which are well established to heterodimerize with ATF4 to induce its canonical

downstream targets (Cohen et al., 2015; Ebert et al., 2020; Huggins et al., 2015), were

the most enriched in the promoters of ATF4 gene targets with shared regulation. On the

other hand, binding elements for the TEAD family of transcription factors, which function

with YAP/TAZ in the Hippo signaling pathway, were enriched in the promoters of ATF4-

dependent gene targets significantly induced only by tunicamycin, consistent with

published work indicating a functional connection between the unfolded protein response

(UPR) and YAP-TEAD activation (Wu et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2019). We next analyzed

the 61 ATF4-dependent genes with shared regulation for physical evidence of promoter

binding of specific transcription factors using the Cistrome Data Browser, a portal for

mining existing chromatin immunoprecipitation-DNA sequencing (ChIP-Seq) data (Mei et

al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2019). Importantly, this second unbiased analysis also revealed

C/EBP isoforms as most commonly binding to the promoters of these genes (Figure 2B).

As all members of the C/EBP family have the potential to heterodimerize with ATF4 and

contritbute to the induction of these gene targets (Newman & Keating, 2003), we first

Figure 2

Figure 2. C/EBP family transcription factors contribute to the regulation of ATF4-dependent genes shared between mTORC1 signaling and the ISR.

(A) CiiiDER analysis comparing transcription factor-binding elements enriched in the promoters of the top 200 ATF4-dependent genes induced by tunicamycin but not insulin (ISR Only) versus the 61 ATF4-dependent genes induced by both mTORC1 signaling and tunicamycin (Shared ISR and mTORC1). Those sequence elements significantly enriched ($P<0.01$) are shown in blue or red. Data are provided in supplementary table 2.

(B) CISTROME analysis of genome-wide ChIP studies to identify transcription factors found to bind to the promoters of the ATF4-dependent genes shared in their regulation by the mTORC1 and the ISR.

(C) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with control siRNAs (siCT) or those targeting *Atf4, C/EBPα, C/EBPβ, C/EBPδ, C/EBPγ*. Expression relative to siCT for each gene is graphed as mean ± SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).

(D) Immunoblots of cells treated as in (C).

(E) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in serum-deprived WT MEFs treated with insulin (500 nM, 16 h) after 30-min pretreatment with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM) following transfection with control siRNAs (siCT) or those targeting *Atf4* or *C/ebpγ*. Expression relative to siCT for each gene is graphed as mean ± SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6). $p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ns = not significant. One-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons was used to determine statistical significance for (C,E).

determined the effects of siRNA-mediated knockdown of individual isoforms, relative to ATF4 knockdown, on expression of three representative genes in *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ MEFs, which exhibit growth factor-independent activation of mTORC1 signaling. This analysis revealed that knockdown of ATF4, C/EBPβ, C/EBPδ, or C/EBPγ each led to decreased transcript levels of the shared mTORC1 and ISR gene targets *Slc7a5*, *Mthfd2*, and *Aars* (Figure 2C). However, this analysis was complicated by the finding of substantial co-dependence for expression among these bZIP transcription factors, with knockdown of any one of the C/EBP family members or ATF4 significantly changing expression of at least one other family member. C/EBPδ knockdown, for instance, decreased expression of all genes measured, including ATF4, which was also reflected in loss of ATF4 protein (Figure 2C-D). It is worth noting that we were unable to identify reliable antibodies to specific C/EBP family members for use in MEFs. Among C/EBP family members, C/EBPγ has been found in other settings to regulate many of the genes revealed in our analysis to be induced through shared regulation of ATF4 (Huggins et al., 2015), and its knockdown signicantly decreased expression of the three ATF4 target genes tested without effects on ATF4

protein levels (Figure 2C-D). Based on this finding, we knocked down ATF4 or C/EBPγ

in wild-type MEFs and stimulated the cells with insulin in the presence or absence of

rapamycin to determine whether C/EBPγ impacted the mTORC1 and ATF4-dependent

regulation of these genes. Indeed, knockdown of C/EBPγ attenuated the insulin-induced

expression of these genes, albeit to a lesser extent than ATF4 knockdown (Figure 2E).

C/EBPγ knockdown also blocked the ability of insulin to increase ATF4 transript levels,

suggesting that following the induction of ATF4 mRNA translation downstream of

mTORC1 (Ben-Sahra et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017), it stimulates its own expression via

ATF4-C/EBPγ heterodimers. Thus, C/EBPγ and likely other ATF4-binding partners of the

C/EBP family contribute to the induction of ATF4 gene targets following mTORC1-

mediated activation of ATF4.

mTORC1 signaling induces genes involved in amino acid synthesis, transport, and

tRNA 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 3A—supplementary table 3). 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

Figure 3

Figure 3. mTORC1 and ATF4 regulate genes involved in amino acid synthesis, transport, and tRNA 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 supplementary table 3, and effects on ATF4 protein levels and mTORC1 signaling for each condition are shown by immunoblot in supplemental Figure S2A.

(B,C) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in WT and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs (B) or WT MEFs stimulated with insulin in the presence or absence of rapamycin (C) as in (A). Expression relative to vehicle-treated, unstimulated WT cells is graphed as mean ± SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9). Effects of ATF4 knockdown are shown in supplemental Figure 3—figure supplement 2B.

(D,E) Representative immunoblots of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs treated with vehicle or rapamycin as in (A) or serum-deprived WT MEFs stimulated with insulin (500 nM, 24 h) following 30-min pretreatment with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM), with biological duplicates shown for each condition. Quantification provided in Figure 3—figure supplement 2C,D.

(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 supplementary table 3. Immunoblots validating that these cells are defective in the ISR and qPCR validation of representative genes are provided in Figure 3—figure supplement 2E,F.

(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 (CT) 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 ± SEM from two independent experiments, with 3 biological replicates each (n=6). Immunoblots and qPCR analysis for PC3 cells treated as in (I-L) are provided in Figure 3—figure supplement 2G-J, and effects of c-Myc knockdown on representative gene targets is shown in supplemental Figure 3—figure supplement 2K,L.

*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns = not significant. One-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons was used to determine statistical significance for (B,C).

334   Unpaired two-tailed t-test was used to determine statistical significance for (F,K,L).
335   (D,E,G,H,I,J) are representative of at least two independent experiments.
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mTORC1-regulated but independent of ATF4, and transcripts encoding the mitochondrial
tRNA synthetases were reproducibly regulated by neither mTORC1- nor ATF4. We
further confirmed the mTORC1- and ATF4-mediated regulation of a representative subset
of these transcripts via qPCR (Figure 3B-C—figure supplement 2B). 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 3B-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, likely reflecting inherent differences in the turnover rates of these proteins
(Figure 3D-E, quantified in figure supplement 2C-D). We next wanted to confirm that
these mTORC1- and ATF4-induced changes were independent of the ISR. While we
have shown 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 (*eIF2$\alpha^{A/A}$*), which fail to induce ATF4 downstream of
cellular stress (Figure supplement 2E) (Scheuner et al., 2001). Consistent with mTORC1-
dependent, ISR-independent regulation, insulin increased 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 3F-G—figure supplement 2F). Notably, like insulin
stimulation, genetic activation of mTORC1 via siRNA-mediated knockdown of *Tsc2* in the
eIF2$\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs also increased ATF4 protein levels, further confirming that this regulation
can occur independent of the ISR (Figure 3H). Growth factor-independent activation of
mTORC1 also occurs upon loss of the PTEN tumor suppressor, and rapamycin was found
to decrease ATF4 protein levels and ATF4-dependent expression of representative gene
targets in established PTEN-deficient prostate cancer cells, LNCaP and PC3 (Figure 3I-
L—figure supplement 2G-J).

The transcription factor c-MYC can be activated downstream of mTORC1 in some
settings and has previously been shown to regulate many of the same ATF4 target genes
encoding the enzymes of amino acid synthesis and transport, as well as amino-acyl tRNA
synthetases (Csibi et al., 2014; Stine et al., 2015; Wall et al., 2008; Zirin et al., 2019). A
survey of expression for 11 of such genes in *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ cells finds that the majority are not
significantly affected by siRNA-mediated knockdown of c-MYC, whereas a few others are
modestly but significantly decreased (e.g., *Gars*, *Slc1a5*, *Psat1*), albeit to a lesser degree
than with siRNA-mediated knockdown of ATF4 (Figure 3—figure supplement 2K-L).
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To determine whether ATF4 activation is both necessary and sufficient for mTORC1-
mediated regulation of these gene targets related to amino acid acquisition and utilization,
we knocked out *Atf4* using CRISPR/Cas9 in *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ MEFs and confirmed biallelic
disruption (Figure 4A). Protein levels of identified 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 4B). 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 encoded gene targets that are resistant to rapamycin (Figure
4C—figure supplement 3). The expression of select ATF4 target transcripts were
markedly decreased in *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ *Atf4*$^{-/-}$ MEFs, to a similar extent to that measured in *Atf4*
wild-type cells treated with rapamycin (Figure 4D). These transcript levels were rescued
with the expression of wild-type ATF4, but not ATF4^{DBD}, in a manner that was completely
or partially rapamycin resistant (Figure 4D). 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.
392
393   **Activation of ATF4 contributes to the induction of protein synthesis downstream**
394   **of mTORC1**
395   mTORC1 induces protein synthesis through multiple downstream targets (Valvezan &
396   Manning, 2019). Given that the major mTORC1-regulated ATF4 target genes identified

Figure 4. 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. Immunoblots of
proteins encoded by ATF4 gene targets in these cells are provided in Figure supplement
3.
(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 ± SD from a
representative experiment with three biological replicates (n=3). *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p
< 0.001, ns = not significant, calculated via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for
multiple comparisons.
(B-D) are representative of at least two independent experiments.
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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. siRNA-mediated knockdown of either ATF4 or Rheb substantially

decreased ATF4 protein levels in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ cells (Figure 5A). 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 5A,B). No change in mTORC1

signaling or phosphorylation of eIF2α was observed with ATF4 knockdown in this setting

(Figure 4A—figure supplement 4A). Protein synthesis was also measure in the $Tsc2^{-/-}$

$Atf4^{-/-}$ cell lines described above. Notably, the cells lacking ATF4 exhibited increased

uptake of [^{35}S]-methionine relative to parental cells and those reconstituted with ATF4

(Figure supplement 4B). Despite this unexplained difference in methionine uptake, $Atf4$

knockout cells exhibited a reduced rate of protein synthesis that was similar to the

parental lines treated with rapamycin (Figure 5C,D). However, rapamycin treatment

further reduced protein synthesis in the $Atf4$ knockout cells. 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. Like $Tsc2^{-/-}$ cells, wild-

type cells cultured in the presence of growth factors exhibited reduced protein synthesis

upon deletion of $Atf4$, again with a reduction similar to that from rapamycin treatment

Figure 5. 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 [^{35}S]-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). Lack of effect of ATF4 knockdown on eIF2α phosphorylation is shown
in supplemental Figure 5—figure supplement 4A.
(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). Measurement of
methionine uptake in these cells is provided in Figure 5—figure supplement 4B, and
effects of ATF4 knockout on protein synthesis in growth-factor stimulated wild-type MEFs
are shown in Figure 5—figure supplement 4C,D.
(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.
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(Figure 5—figure supplement 4C-D). 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 was the gene with the highest fold induction by

RNA-Seq analysis 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 6A) (Bannai & Kitamura, 1980; Conrad & Sato, 2012).

Transcript levels of Slc7a11 were sensitive to rapamycin in Tsc2$^{-/-}$ MEFs and greatly

decreased with ATF4 knockout (Figure 6B). 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 6C).

SLC7A11 protein, detected using an antibody validated with siRNA knockdown (Figure

6—figure supplement 5A), decreased in Tsc2$^{-/-}$ MEFs treated with mTOR inhibitors and

were increased in wild-type MEFs stimulated with insulin in an mTOR-dependent manner

Figure 6. 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 (Cys), 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 (control), 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 ± SD from a representative experiment with three biological replicates (n=3).

(D-F) Representative immunoblots of serum-deprived *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs (D), insulin-stimulated (500 nM, 24h) wild-type MEFs (E), or serum-deprived LNCaP cells (F) treated 24 h (D,E) or 16 h (F) with vehicle, rapamycin (20 nM), or Torin1 (250 nM), shown with biological duplicates. The SLC7a11 antibody is validated for use in MEFs in supplemental Figure S5A, corresponding immunoblots quantified in supplemental Figures S5B,C,F, effects of ATF4 knockdown and rapamycin on *SLC7A11* transcripts in LNCaP and PC3 cells are shown in supplemental Figures S5D,E, and corresponding immunoblots and protein quantification are provided in Figure 6—figure supplement 5G-H.

(G, H) Representative growth curves of *Tsc2$^{-/-}$ Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEFs with stable expression of GFP, ATF4, or ATF4^{DBD} grown in 10% dialyzed FBS with DMEM (G) 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$_2$) (H). Mean cell numbers ± SD relative to Day 0 are graphed from three biological replicates (n=3).

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

(J) Cystine uptake in serum-deprived *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs treated with vehicle, rapamycin (20 nM), or erastin (10 μM) for 16h is graphed as the mean ± 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). The effect of mTOR inhibitors on cystine uptake in littermate-derived *Rictor$^{+/+}$* and *Rictor$^{-/-}$* MEFs, and corresponding immunoblots, are shown in Figure 6—figure supplement 5I-J.

(K) 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 (10 μM, 30') was assayed and graphed as in (J) relative to vehicle-treated WT cells with data from three independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=9).

(L) 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 (J) relative to vehicle-treated WT cells with data from two independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=6).

(B-I) are representative of at least two independent experiments.

525 *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns = not significant, calculated in (B,C,I,J,K,L) via one-
526 way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and in (G,H) via unpaired
527 two tailed t-test. For (I), the sum of Annexin V+/PI- , Annexin V-/PI+, and Annexin V+/PI+
528 populations were used for comparisons to the Annexin V-/P- population.
529

(Figure 6D-E—quantified in figure supplement 5B-C). *SLC7A11* transcript levels were

also decreased with both ATF4 knockdown and rapamycin in the PTEN-deficient cancer

cell lines LNCaP and PC3, although *SLC7A11* expression was relatively more resistant

to rapamycin in PC3 cells (Figure 6—figure supplement 6D-E). SLC7A11 protein levels

likewise decreased in LNCaP and PC3 cells treated with mTOR inhibitors, without

significant changes to the *SLC3A2* gene product CD98 (Figure 6F—figure supplement

5F-H). These data confirm and extend the findings from RNA-Seq and Nanostring

analyses (Figure 1F, Figure 3A and 3F) 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 6G). 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 6H). 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 6I). Taken together, these data indicate that a

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

uptake of cystine, underlies the inability of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ cells to proliferate or survive in

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

ATF4.

To directly test whether mTORC1 influences cystine uptake, we employed both genetic

(*Tsc2* loss) and physiologic (insulin stimulation) activation of mTORC1, measuring [^{14}C]-

cystine uptake in the presence or absence of rapamycin or the xCT inhibitor erastin

(Figure 6A) (Yang & Stockwell, 2008). Both rapamycin and erastin significantly decreased

[^{14}C]-cystine uptake into *Tsc2$^{-/-}$* MEFs (Figure 6J). In wild-type MEFs, insulin stimulated

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

regulated cystine transport was completely lost with ATF4 knockout, reduced to levels of

erastin-treated cells (Figure 6K). 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 (Figure 6L). However, 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. As mTORC2 has

been previously suggested to directly regulate xCT (Gu et al., 2017), we utilized *Rictor$^{-/-}$*

MEFs, which lack mTORC2 activity, to determine whether mTORC2 was contributing to

the decreased cystine uptake observed upon treatment with mTOR inhibitors. While

Rictor$^{-/-}$ MEFs displayed increased uptake of cystine relative to their wild-type

counterparts, cystine uptake, as well as ATF4 protein levels, were sensitive to rapamycin

and Torin1 in both cell lines (Figure supplement 5I-J). Thus, mTORC1 promotes cellular

cystine uptake, at least in part, through the activation of ATF4 and induction of *Slc7a11*

expression, which supports cell proliferation and survival.

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 6A), 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 7A) (Griffith & Meister, 1979). Similar to BSO treatment, mTOR

inhibitors decreased both reduced (GSH) and oxidized (GSSG) forms of glutathione to

Figure 7. 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 $\pm$ 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 supplemental Figure 7—figure supplement 6A.
(B) Relative total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs with stable reconstitution of
a cDNA encoding TSC2 or empty vector (EV) control is graphed as mean $\pm$ 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). Relative glutathione levels
from rapamycin-treated human $TSC2^{-/-}$ tumor cells are shown in Figure 7—figure
supplement 6B.
(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 $\pm$ SD relative to vehicle treated cells from a representative experiment with three
biological replicates (n=3).
(F) Total glutathione in serum-deprived $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs ($Atf4$ WT) and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs
with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP (control), ATF4, ATF4^{DBD}, or SLC7A11
grown in DMEM and supplemented, where indicated, with cysteine (1 mM, Cys) or cystine
(0.5 mM, Cys$_2$) is graphed as mean $\pm$ 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 7—figure supplement 6C.
(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 $\pm$ 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 ($Atf4$ 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) for 16 h is graphed
as mean $\pm$ SD relative to vehicle-treated WT cells from a representative experiment with
three biological replicates (n=3). Effects of mTORC1 signaling and ATF4 on GCLC and
GCLM transcript and protein levels are shown in Figure 7—figure supplement 6D-G.
(B, E, F, H) are representative of at least two independent experiments. *p < 0.05, **p <
0.01, ***p < 0.001, 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.
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the same degree, indicating effects on total glutathione abundance rather than its redox

state (Figure supplement 6A). Stable reconstitution of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs with TSC2 also

decreased total glutathione levels (Figure 7B). 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 7C-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 7—figure supplement 6B). Likewise, inhibition of mTORC1 signaling with rapamycin or Torin1 in LNCaP and PC3 cells resulted in a significant decrease in total glutathione levels, although the degree of decrease varied between the two cell lines (Figure 7E), perhaps reflecting the above finding that SLC7A11 expression is more resistant to mTOR inhibitors in PC3 cells (Figure supplement 5D-H).

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 $Atf4$ knockout. Total glutathione levels were greatly decreased in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs, and exogenous expression of ATF4 or SLC7A11, but not ATF4^{DBD}, was able to restore glutathione levels to these cells (Figure 7F). 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 7F—figure supplement 6C). Furthermore, insulin stimulated an increase in glutathione levels in wild-type MEFs in a manner completely sensitive to rapamycin, an effect ablated in $Atf4$ knockout cells, which had a very low abundance of glutathione (Figure 7G). Likewise, the rapamycin-sensitive nature of glutathione in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs was completely lost in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ $Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 7H). 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 possible ATF4-independent mechanisms also contributing to this regulation (Lam et al., 2017). As one possible contributing factor, we found that the transcripts encoding both the catalytic (GCLC) and regulatory (GCLM) subunits of glutamate-cysteine ligase, the first enzyme of glutathione synthesis, was sensitive rapamycin, in a manner unaffected

by ATF4 knockdown (Figure 7—figure supplement 6D-E). We also found that GCLC and

GCLM protein levels could be modestly induced by insulin through mTORC1 signaling in

both wild-type and ATF4 knockout cells, but their protein abundance was unaffected by

rapamycin in *Tsc2-/-* MEFs (Supplemental figure 6F-G). Thus, the mechanism underlying

the apparent ATF4-independent effects of mTORC1 signaling on glutathione levels

remain unknown. These collective 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 remains unknown, our data suggest that the

61 ATF4-dependent genes shared in their induction between mTORC1 signaling and the

ISR represent targets most highly responsive to increases in ATF4 levels. 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). Our bioinformatic analyses and functional data also

indicate involvement of the C/EBP family of transcription factors as heterodimerization

partners of ATF4 for the regulation of these gene targets shared between mTORC1

signaling and 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
would temporally follow 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 has been described to 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 two 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 further support the addition of 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, which generally attenuate mTORC1 signaling as part of the adaptive
response, pro-growth signals that activate mTORC1 can stimulate these transcription
factors in concert 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

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
Biological sample (*M. musculus*)	ELT3 tumor samples	Valvezan et al., 2017	PMID:29056426	
cell line (*M. musculus*)	WT and $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs	David Kwiatkowski	PMID:14561707	
cell line (*M. musculus*)	$eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs	Randal Kaufman	PMID:11430820	

cell line (*M. musculus*)	*Rictor⁺/⁺* and *Rictor⁻/⁻* MEFs	D.A. Guertin and D.M. Sabatini	PMID:17141160	
cell line (*Homo-sapiens*)	PC3	ATCC	CRL-1435	
cell line (*Homo-sapiens*)	LNCaP	ATCC	CRL-1740	
cell line (*M. musculus*)	$Tsc2^{+/+}\ Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs	This paper		CRISPR-Cas9n generated – see methods
cell line (*M. musculus*)	$Tsc2^{-/-}\ Atf4^{-/-}$ MEFs	This paper		CRISPR-Cas9n generated – see methods
transfected construct	Non-targeting pool	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	D-001810-10-50	
transfected construct (mouse)	Myc	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-040813-00-0010	
transfected construct (mouse)	Atf4	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-042737-01-0020	
transfected construct (mouse)	Rheb	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-057044-00-0020	
transfected construct (mouse)	RhebL1	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-056074-01-0020	
transfected construct (mouse)	Tsc2	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-047050-00-0020	
transfected construct (mouse)	C/ebpα	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-040561-00-0005	
transfected construct (mouse)	C/ebpβ	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-043110-00-0005	

transfected construct (mouse)	C/ebpδ	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-060294-01-0005	
transfected construct (mouse)	C/ebpγ	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-065627-00-0005	
transfected construct (human)	ATF4	GE Life Sciences/Dharmacon	L-005125-00-0020	
sequenced-based reagent	qPCR Primers	IDT		See table in methods
Recombinant DNA reagent	ATF4 (cDNA amplified from plasmid)	Addgene	Addgene 21845	
Recombinant DNA reagent	Pspax2 (Plasmid)	Addgene	Addgene 12260	
Recombinant DNA reagent	Pmd2.G (Plasmid)	Addgene	Addgene 12259	
Recombinant DNA reagent	pSpCas9n(BB)-2A-GFP (PX461) (Plasmid)	Addgene	Addgene 48140	
Recombinant DNA reagent	pTRIPZ (plasmid)	Alex Toker	PMID: 27088857	
Recombinant DNA reagent	GFP (cDNA amplified from plasmid)	Addgene	Addgene 19319	
Recombinant DNA reagent	SLC7A11 (cDNA amplified from plasmid)	Alex Toker	PMID: 29259101	
Recombinant DNA reagent	pBabe hygro IRES-TSC2	David Kwiatkowski	PMID: 15150095	
sequenced-based reagent	CRISPR-Cas9n guides for KO of ATF4	IDT		CACCGGAGGTGGAGGGGCTATGCT; AAACAGCA

				TAGCCCCT CCACCTCC; CACCGACA ATCTGCCTT CTCCAGG; AAACCCTG GAGAAGGC AGATTGTC
sequenced-based reagent	Sequencing Primers for Atf4$^{-/-}$ cell lines	IDT		TCGATGCT CTGTTTCGA ATG; CTTCTTCCC CCTTGCCTT AC
sequenced-based reagent	Primers for site-directed mutagenesis	IDT		GCCTCCTG CTCAGCCG CCGCCGCC TCGAGGTA CCCAGTGG CTGCTGTC TTGTTTTGC TCCATCT; AGATGGAG CAAAACAA GACAGCAG CCACTGGG TACCTCGA GGCGGCGG CGGCTGAG CAGGAGGC
Commercial assay or kit	KOD Xtreme™ Hot Start DNA Polymerase	Sigma Aldrich	71975	
antibody	(P)-S6K1 T389 Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies (CST)	9234	1:1000
antibody	ATF4 Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies (CST)	11815	1:1000
antibody	eIF2α Rabbit pAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	9722	1:1000
antibody	P-eIF2α S51 Rabbit pAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	9721	1:1000
antibody	S6K1 Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	2708	1:1000

antibody	CD98 Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	13180	1:1000
antibody	PSAT1 Rabbit pAB	Protein Tech	20180-1-AP	1:1000
antibody	MTHFD2 Rabbit pAB	Protein Tech	12270-1-AP	1:1000
antibody	AARS Rabbit pAB	Bethyl Antibodies	A303-475A-M	1:1000
antibody	GARS Rabbit pAB	Bethyl Antibodies	A304-746A-M	1:1000
antibody	LARS Rabbit pAB	Bethyl Antibodies	A304-316A-M	1:1000
antibody	XPOT Rabbit pAB	Aviva Biotechnologies	ARP40711_P05 0	1:1000
antibody	TSC2 Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	4308	1:1000
antibody	SLC7A11 (mouse) Rabbit mAB	Abcam	ab175186	1:1000
antibody	SLC7A11 (human) Rabbit mAB	Cell Signaling Technologies	12691	1:1000
antibody	GCLC Rabbit mAB	Abcam	ab190685	1:1000
antibody	GCLM Rabbit mAB	Abcam	ab126704	1:1000
antibody	β-actin Mouse mAB	Sigma	A5316	1:5000
chemical compound, drug	Doxycycline hydrochloride	Sigma	D3447	
chemical compound, drug	Rapamycin	LC Laboratories	R5000	
chemical compound, drug	Insulin	Alpha Diagnostic,	INSL 16-N-5	
chemical compound, drug	Tunicamycin	Sigma-Aldrich	T7765	

chemical compound, drug	Torin1	Tocris	4247	
chemical compound, drug	Erastin	Selleckchem	S7242	
chemical compound, drug	Buthionine-sulfoximine (BSO)	Sigma	B2515	
chemical compound, drug	Hygromycin B	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10687010	
chemical compound, drug	Puromycin	Sigma	P8833	
chemical compound, drug	Staurosporine	Tocris	1285	
chemical compound, drug	Cysteine	Sigma	C7477	
chemical compound, drug	Cystine	Sigma	57579	
chemical compound, drug	2-mercaptoethanol	EMD Millipore	444203	
chemical compound, drug	MEM Non-essential amino acids solution	Thermo Fisher Scientific	11140050	
chemical compound, drug	^{35}S-methionine	PerkinElmer	NEG009L005MC	
chemical compound, drug	L-[1, 2, 1', 2'-^{14}C]-Cystine	PerkinElmer	NEC854010UC	
Commercial assay or kit	FITC Annexin V Apoptosis Detection Kit I	BD	556547	
Commercial assay or kit	GSH/GSSG-Glo Assay	Promega	V6611	

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 wild-type 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). *Rictor$^{+/+}$* and *Rictor$^{-/-}$* MEFs were provided by D.A. Guertin and D.M.

Sabatini (Whitehead Institute, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge MA).

Cancer cell lines were obtained from ATCC. *Atf4$^{-/-}$* MEF lines generated in this study were

maintained in DMEM with 10% FBS, supplemented with 55 µM 2-mercaptoethanol

(Thermo, 21985023) and 1X MEM nonessential amino acid mix (NEAA, final

concentrations: 100 µM each 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, where indicated,

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), C/ebpα (L-040561-00-0005),

C/ebpβ (L-043110-00-0005), C/ebpδ (L-060294-01-0005), C/ebpγ (L-065627-00-0005)

and *ATF4* (human, L-005125-00-0020). 48 h post-transfection, cells were treated as

indicated prior to lysis for immunoblotting, RNA extraction, or protein synthesis assays.

For C/EBP isoform knockdown experiments, transfection of siRNAs was performed a

second time, 24 h after the first transfection. For protein synthesis assays involving

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

which was necessary to achieve sufficient knockdown of Rheb to reduce mTORC1

signaling.

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 with 1X MEM NEAA 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 the primers TCGATGCTCTGTTTCGAATG and

CTTCTTCCCCCTTGCCTTAC flanking the targeted deletion site, with 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 WT MEFs include an out-of-frame 17-

base pair deletion starting at the codon encoding T237 and a large out-of-frame 73-base

pair deletion starting after the codon encoding G219, both resulting in premature STOP

codons. 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* expression vectors, the murine *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 the

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, Boston, MA). cDNA expression was induced with 1 μg/mL of

doxycycline (sigma-Aldrich, D3447) for 12-24 h 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 virus-containing medium was used to

infect the *Atf4* knockout 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). Transcripts found to be

significantly induced by tunicamycin were further limited to those with a greater than 1.2-

fold increase. The enrichKEGG function from the clusterProfiler package (3.14.3) was

used to perform KEGG pathway over-representation tests (Yu et al., 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
Figure 1C and supplementary Table 1. The source data can be found at GEO under the
accession number GSE158605.
849

CiiiDER Analysis

CiiiDER software was downloaded from CiiiDER.org with the *Mus musculus* GRCm38.94
genome files. Searches were run against the JASPAR transcription factor-binding profile
database. Searches were run on promoter regions spanning +1500 to -500 bp from the
predicted transcriptional start site using a site identification deficit threshold of 0.1. The
background gene list (ISR only) was comprised of the 200 ATF4-dependent genes most
significantly increased in expression upon tunicamycin treatment that were not in the list
of 61 genes shared in their regulation by mTORC1 signaling and the ISR. Results of this
analysis are included in supplemental table 2.
859

Cistrome Analysis

Each of the 61 shared mTORC1 and ISR genes were analyzed using the CistromeDB
Toolkit (http://dbtoolkit.cistrome.org/) of existing genome-wide ChIP-seq data. A half-
decay distance of 1 kb to the transcription start site was used. The top 20 transcription
factors or chromatin regulators found in ChIP-seq experiments to bind to each gene was
compiled, and the number of genes each factor bound to within the list of 61 was
determined, with the top 9 regulators graphed, excluding the general factors EP300 and
POL2RA.
868

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). For immunoblots on SLC7A11, cells were lysed in 1% SDS lysis
buffer (10mM Tris pH 7.4, 1 mM EDTA, 10mM sodium pyrophosphate, 10 mM glycerol 2-
phosphate, 50 mM NaF, 0.5 mM sodium orthovanadate 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), CD98 (CST, 13180), 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), SLC7A11 (mouse, Abcam, ab175186), SLC7A11 (human, CST, 12691), GCLC (Abcam, ab190685), GCLM (Abcam, ab126704), 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. Immunoblots were quantified using the Odyssey CLx Imaging System and were normalized to β-actin. he ATF4 immunoblot corresponding to Figure 1B (graphed in supplemental Figure S1A) and the SLC7A11 immunoblots in Figures 6D,E (graphed in supplemental Figures S5B,C) were quantified using ImageJ and normalized to β-actin.

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

907　mRNA expression was analyzed using nSOLVER software. Heatmaps were generated
908　with　　　Morpheus　　　software　　　from　　　the　　　Broad　　　Institute
909　(https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus). Transcripts with 100 counts or fewer, a
910　value based off of negative control samples, were not included in our analyses.
911

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 $\Delta\Delta$CT method,
normalized to *β-actin* (mouse samples) or *RPLP0* (human samples) to quantify relative
mRNA expression levels.
921

922　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
Slc1a5	GTAAAATACCGCAATCCTGTATCC	CGATAGCGAAGACCACCAGG
c-Myc	AGAGCTCCTCGAGCTGTTTG	TTCTCTTCCTCGTCGCAGAT
C/ebpα	CAAGAACAGCAACGAGTACCG	GTCACTGGTCAACTCCAGCAC
C/ebpβ	CGCCTTATAAACCTCCCGCT	TGGCCACTTCCATGGGTCTA

C/ebpδ	CGACTTCAGCGCCTACATTGA	CTAGCGACAGACCCCACAC
C/ebpγ	TCGGATCACATTGCTCTGATTTC	TGTGCCTGAGTATGAATGACACT
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

Cells were cultured as indicated, 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 normalized samples were separated by SDS-PAGE and
transferred to nitrocellulose. ^{35}S-methionine incorporation into protein was analyzed by
autoradiography, and relative rates of protein synthesis were quantified using ImageJ
Software (NIH) to quantify radiolabeled protein per lane for each sample. For isogenic
Atf4$^{-/-}$ cell lines, exogenous cDNA expression was induced for 16 h with 150 ng/mL
doxycycline, and cells were treated as indicated in the presence of doxycycline (150
ng/mL) and 1X MEM NEAA mixture plus 1 mM cysteine (Sigma, C7477). Protein
synthesis was assayed with 20 min labeling in the absence of NEAA and cysteine to avoid
competition of ^{35}S-methionine uptake with the supplemented amino acids.

Methionine and cystine uptake

For methionine uptake assays, cells were cultured and labeled as described above for
the protein synthesis assay, were washed three times in cold PBS, and lysed in Triton
lysis buffer. For cystine uptake assays, cells were treated the same but labeled for the

final 10 min with medium containing 0.1 µCi L-[1, 2, 1', 2'-^{14}C]-Cystine (PerkinElmer,

NEC854010UC) and washed three times in ice-cold PBS containing cold cystine (1 mM),

prior to lysis in Triton lysis buffer. Whole-cell radiolabel incorporation was quantified with

a Beckman LS6500 scintillation counter. Cells from identically treated parallel plates were

counted using a Beckman Z1-Coulter Counter to normalize uptake measurements to cell

number.

Proliferation assay

To quantify cell proliferation, cells were plated in DMEM in 6-well plates in triplicate in the

presence of 2-mercaptoethanol, 1X 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.

Measurements of cellular and tumor 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. BSO (Sigma, B2515) was used as a positive control to

inhibit glutathione synthesis.

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 previously published data (Tang et

al., 2019). For xenograft tumor studies, experimental details were provided previously

(Valvezan et al., 2017). Briefly, mice bearing $TSC2^{-/-}$ ELT3 xenograft tumors were treated

every other day for 5 days with vehicle or rapamycin (1 mg/kg on day 1, 3, and 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, P values were false discovery rate corrected. For Ciiider

transcription factor over-representation analysis, Fisher's exact test P values were used.

Transcription factor binding elements with $P < 0.01$ and test statistic >0 were considered

over-represented in genes of interest. 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). Statistical analyses for immunoblot quantification 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. 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 of experiments with two conditions, an unpaired two tailed t-test was performed. For remaining glutathione assays and all cystine and methionine uptake experiments, one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons was used.

Source Data

The source data for the RNA-sequencing experiment can be found at GEO under the accession number GSE158605.

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1335 **Supplemental Figure 1. Data related to Figure 1.**

1336 (A) Quantification of immunoblot shown in Figure 1B.

Supplemental Figure 2. Data related to Figure 3.

(A) Representative immunoblots corresponding to Nanostring heatmaps depicted in Figure 2A, with biological duplicates shown.

(B) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with siRNAs as described in Figure 3A. Expression relative to non-targeting control (siCT) is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9).

(C, D) Quantification of immunoblots shown in Figure 2D,E.

(E) Representative immunoblot of $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs treated with vehicle or tunicamycin (2 µg/mL, 4 h).

(F) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in $eIF2\alpha^{A/A}$ MEFs treated as described in Figure 2F. Expression relative to vehicle-treated, unstimulated cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=9).

(G,H) Representative immunoblots of serum-deprived PC3 cells treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (G) or transfected with $Atf4$ siRNAs or non-targeting controls (siCT) prior to serum-deprivation (16h) (H), with biological duplicates for each condition shown.

(I,J) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in cells treated as described in (G,H).

(K) Representative immunoblots of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with control siRNAs (siCT) or those targeting $Atf4$ or $c-Myc$ prior to 16 h serum-deprivation.

(L) qPCR analysis of the indicated transcripts in cells transfected as described in (K). Expression relative to siCT transfected cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).

(A,E,G,H,K) are representative of at least two independent experiments. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, ns = not significant, calculated in (B,D,F, L) via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons and (C,I,J) via unpaired two tailed t-test.

1362 **Supplemental Figure 3. Data related to Figure 4.**
1363 (A) Representative immunoblots of serum-deprived *Tsc2*⁻/⁻ MEFs (*Atf4* WT) and *Tsc2*⁻/⁻
1364 *Atf4*⁻/⁻ MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP, ATF4 lacking its 5'UTR, or
1365 a DNABD mutant (DBD) of this ATF4 treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h),
1366 with biological duplicates for each condition shown.

Supplemental Figure 4. Data related to Figure 5.
(A) Representative immunoblots of *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with *Atf4, Rheb*, or non-targeting control (siCT) siRNAs prior to serum starvation for 16h, with biological duplicates shown. Data is representative of at least three independent experiments.
(B) Cellular methionine uptake in serum-deprived *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ MEFs (*Atf4* WT) and *Tsc2*$^{-/-}$ *Atf4*$^{-/-}$ MEFs with stable expression of cDNAs encoding GFP or ATF4 was assayed and graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM relative to WT cells with data from two independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=6).
(C, D) Representative autoradiogram and immunoblots of protein extracts from *Atf4*$^{+/+}$ and *Atf4*$^{-/-}$ MEFs grown in the presence of serum and treated with vehicle (Veh) or rapamycin (20 nM, Rap, 16 h) and pulse labeled with [^{35}S]-methionine for the final 20 min, with biological duplicates from a representative experiment shown (C) and autoradiograms quantified and graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 2 biological replicates (n=4) (D).
*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < .0001$, ns = not significant, calculated for (B, D) via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons.

Supplemental Figure 5. Data related to Figure 6.

(A) Representative immunoblot of $Tsc2^{-/-}$ MEFs transfected with $Slc7a11$ or non-targeting control (siCT) siRNAs prior to serum starvation for 16h.

(B,C) Quantification of representative immunoblots from Figure 6D,E.

(D,E) qPCR analysis of $SLC7A11$ transcripts in serum-deprived LNCaP (D) or PC3 (E) cells either transfected with siRNAs targeting $ATF4$ or non-targeting controls (siCT) (left) or treated with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (right). Expression relative to siCT or vehicle-treated cells is graphed as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates (n=6).

(F) Quantification of representative immunoblots shown in Figure 6F.

(G,H) Representative immunoblot of serum-deprived PC3 cells treated (16 h) with vehicle, rapamycin (20 nM), or Torin1 (250 nM), shown with biological duplicates (G) and quantified in (H).

(I,J) Cystine uptake in $Rictor^{+/+}$ and $Rictor^{-/-}$ MEFs in grown in full serum and treated with vehicle, rapamycin (20 nM, 24 h), Torin1 (250 nM, 24h), or erastin (10μM, 30') was assayed and graphed as in Figure 6J relative to vehicle-treated $Rictor^{+/+}$ cells with data from two independent experiments, with three biological replicates each (n=6). Representative immunoblots shown in (J).

(A,G,J) are representative of two independent experiments.*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns = not significant, calculated for (D,E) via unpaired two tailed t-test and (B,C,F,H, I) via one-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak method for multiple comparisons.

Supplemental Figure 6. Data related to Figure 7.
(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 ± 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 serum-deprived *Tsc2*^{-/-} MEFs treated
with vehicle or rapamycin (20 nM, 16 h) (D) or transfected with siRNAs targeting *Atf4* or
non-targeting controls (siCT) (E). Expression relative to vehicle (D) or siCT(E) is graphed
as mean $\pm$ SEM from two independent experiments, each with 3 biological replicates
(n=6).
(F, G) Representative immunoblots of cells treated as in Figures 7G,H, accept where
indicated in (F), cells were treated with Torin1 (250 nM), with biological duplicates
provided for each condition.
(C, F,G) are representative of two independent experiments. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p <
0.001, 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).